THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

STIMULATION PROVIDED BY TRAINED AND UNTRAINED HOMEMAKERS TO CHILDREN 10-36 MONTHS OF AGE

by
Margaret Elizabeth Shaw

A thesis submitted to
the Faculty of Graduate Studies
in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Science

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ABSTRACT

To assess the effectiveness of child care training among homemakers trained and employed by a Family Service agency, two 10-member groups of homemakers, one trained and one untrained, were compared on the amount of physical and verbal stimulation they gave to young children. A three-week course including approximately 26 hours on child development had been given by the agency to the trained group from one to six years prior to the study. The untrained group who were more recent employees had not yet received this training.

Two observers each made one hour of naturalistic observation on each homemaker, recording 18 pre-determined categories of behavior using a ten-second time-sampling method. Coding sheets were designed for the study.

Despite large individual differences, group scores were remarkably alike. Mann-Whitney U's between groups showed no significant differences. Further research is needed to identify changes, if any, in child care behavior immediately after the course. It was suggested that the principles of development taught be relevant to the age group with which the women work and that educational home visits and refresher courses supplement the original training.

To my parents

Alexander Munro and Janet McLean Munro

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INTRODUCTION

There have always been situations in which substitute mothering was necessary. The reasons have been part of life to this time: untimely death, physical or mental illness of parents, extreme poverty, inadequate parenting, or conditions such as those of wartime. The growing proportion of working mothers and single-support parents increase the need. In earlier times substitute mothering was done in an informal way, often within the extended family, but with the dispersion of family groups, people are left without anyone to take over in time of crisis. It seems, therefore, that the provision of care for young children on an organized scale is now a necessity for our society. The way in which the problem is handled will have important implications for society's future.

There are two main types of substitute mothering for children under six. In the first, the child spends part of his day in a setting other than his home environment. This might be a group setting or a private home, the latter varying from a structured family day care arrangement, supervised or not, to a loose baby-sitting agreement between friends or neighbors.

In the second type, the child is cared for in his own home by a baby-sitter or other person. Homemaker service falls into this second category. The term "homemaker" is sometimes used as an approximate

synonym for "housewife", but in the context of this study, a "visiting homemaker" or "homemaker" refers to a qualified person employed and supervised by a social agency. She works in the home of a family needing her services and provides the warmth, support and physical work associated with the traditional mother role. The mother may or may not be present, but frequently is out working as the family breadwinner. Homemakers with some agencies provide home care for incapacitated and/ or aged persons but their training is not within the scope of this paper. At present, homemakers are usually females.

Homemaking as a paraprofessional occupation is still a young field, and the thrust of those directing it has been first, to find funds, and second, to unite those most needful of homemaker service with those willing and able to provide it. Recruitment has been important in providing quality care, selection being based on an applicant's personal qualities and skills which appear to fit her for her work. A fondness for children is basic and many homemakers are drawn to the job because it enables them to work with children who need their affection.

As more emphasis is placed on the therapeutic aspect of homemaker service for families, agencies are faced with the question of
what type of training a homemaker should be given in order that she be
most effective at her job. The ability to love children is not enough
by itself. A homemaker has the responsibility for all the tasks that a
mother would do in the course of a day at home: looking after the
physical and emotional needs of the children; preparing nourishing and
economical meals as attractively as possible; mending, washing and

ironing clothes and keeping the physical surroundings clean and pleasant. She should also be able to work with troubled children or adults who may hold quite different values from her own. She must guard against making herself indispensible, and realize her job has been well done when the family is able to function independently without her. At the same time, she cannot take every family's problems and failures on her own shoulders. She must respect the confidences which come to her. She must know how to communicate and co-operate with supervisers, social workers, and other agency staff for the well-being of the family.

Training has aimed at supplementing the skills which the homemaker already possesses by virtue of her life experiences. It is not standardized across Canada. Courses usually range in length from one week to three months, and take various forms: on-the-job, classroom or a combination of both. Content ranges from specific to general.

Family Services of Winnipeg Inc., an agency associated with the Family Service Associations of America, has a homemaker service employing approximately 180 homemakers, all female. For the past six years, a three-week course which combines classroom instruction and field trips has been provided for the homemakers.

This Homemaker Training Course (Appendix A) was designed to cover most facets of the work. A fairly comprehensive evaluation of the homemakers' impressions of the course form and content has been obtained from them after each course. Their evaluations, while offering minor suggestions which are usually incorporated into the next session, have generally been enthusiastic and favorable. There has been, however, little research into whether or not the training really improves

the services provided by the homemakers. Administrators of homemaking services would find information of this type most useful.

The purpose of the present study was to conduct a more intensive assessment of the effect of the course in one specific area. This is the first evaluation of the Family Services Homemaker Training Course to use naturalistic observation of the homemakers at work, and the first to consider long-term effects. No other evaluations of this type pertaining to other homemaking training courses were found in the literature. This study focuses on the part of the course content which deals with the development of young children, as it is reflected in the quality of child care which the homemaker provides. In many cases, the children in her care are at risk because their parents are under so much stress. In these circumstances, the type of parenting a child receives from the homemaker for eight or more hours a day may become very significant.

Child development literature indicates that the amount of stimulation provided by a caregiver to a child under three years of age has important implications for its future development. The question of the type of training which would supplement a homemaker's natural ability for loving children, make her optimally effective with the young children in her care, and at the same time be practical in terms of cost and numbers of homemakers trained, has not yet been answered. This study takes a small step in this direction, by comparing trained and untrained homemakers from one type of course on the amount and type of physical and verbal stimulation they are actually providing to the young children in their care.

Review of Literature

History of Homemaker Service

<u>U.S.A.</u> A history of homemaker service in the United States was compiled by Maud Morlock in 1964 for the Children's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare (Morlock, 1964). She indicates that the Family Service Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor in New York City made a tentative start at homemaker service in 1903 when it employed four "visiting cleaners" who supplemented nurses' services by temporarily relieving sick mothers of their everyday domestic work. The program considered to be the first organized homemaker program in the U.S. was begun in 1923 by the Jewish Welfare Society of Philadelphia. This group recognized the need for a staff of "motherly" women to act as housekeepers in homes where the mothers were temporarily incapacitated, in order to avoid the placement of children in institutions and foster homes. In the early 1930's, the Work Projects Administration developed housekeeping projects mainly as a way of employing needy women. By late 1941, 38,000 housekeeping aides were serving families, but most of these programs were discontinued when the W.P.A. was terminated in 1942.

In 1937 the United States held its first national conference on supervised housekeeper service, which led to the establishment of a National Committee. In 1939, at a conference on standards of house-keeper service, it was felt the name "visiting housekeeper" lacked

clarity and status, so the committee became the "Committee on Supervised Homemaker-Housekeeper Service". In 1946, this became the National Committee on Homemaker Service, and in 1962, the National Council for Homemaker Services. A directory for a 1964 conference listed 303 agencies administering homemaker programs in 44 States, the District of Columbia and Puerto Rico.

Canada. In Canada, homemaker services have existed since the mid-1920's (foreword, Canadian Council on Social Development, 1971). A National Committee on Homemaker Services, connected to the Canadian Council on Social Development (formerly the Canadian Welfare Council) was formed in 1956. This group assembled employment standards and a job description for visiting homemakers. (Canadian Welfare Council, 1956)

A 1968-69 study of homemakers (Canadian Council on Social Development, 1971) reported that there were 121 known homemaker agencies operating in Canada at the end of 1969, and 3,193 homemakers, full and part-time, working for these agencies. By the end of 1969, Canada had the equivalent of nine full-time homemakers per 100,000 population. A table comparing this ratio with member countries of the International Council of Homehelp Services in 1964 showed Sweden with 144.2, Denmark with 130, and at the other end of the scale, the U.S.A. with 1.8, and Italy with .1. In Canada, at the time of the 1968-69 study, homemaker service was most readily available to families with young children to cover emergency situations of limited duration in which the mother was incapacitated or out of the home.

Winnipeg. When Family Services of Winnipeg Inc. (then known as

Family Bureau) was organized in 1936, Housekeeper Service was made available when mothers were absent from the home because of illness. It later expanded to include the concept of helping to maintain family functioning in times of stress whether the mother was ill or not. Other groups in Winnipeg such as hospitals, the Victorian Order of Nurses, the provincial government, Children's Aid Societies, Jewish Family Services and the City Welfare Department made homemaker service available also (Braun, Brethour, Hansen, Krohenbil, Ojah, Siemens & Woods, 1970).

As of May 30, 1977, Family Services alone provided homemaker service to 196 families and had a homemaker staff of around two hundred homemakers and between ten and eleven support persons (Family Services of Winnipeg Inc., Note 1). In human terms, these homemakers were assisting 196 families where parents and/or children were experiencing emotional problems and physical illnesses, where there were often inadequate financial resources, and where there were no available daycare alternatives. It is clear that homemaker service has become an integral part of the social service delivery system. It ranks high among preventive services.

Homemaker Training

<u>Canada</u>. By 1968, approved homemaker training programs had become eligible for funding by Canada Manpower and Immigration in co-operation with provincial departments of education. In 1968-69, formal training colleges had been established under these provisions in British Columbia, Ontario, Manitoba, and Quebec (Canadian Council

on Social Development, 1971).

In 1973, the Canadian Council on Social Development sponsored a national conference, "The Training of Visiting Homemakers". Delegates contributed information about training practices in various parts of the country. Although it enabled comparisons to be made by people working in the field, it also spotlighted some of the difficulties in establishing a national training program.

The presentations and discussions led to the impression that courses as short as one week dealt mainly with specific policies of the organization and depended more on selection of people with proper attitudes and appropriate life experiences than on training to obtain an employee who knew what she needed to know about homemaking. The longer courses, up to about three months, covered the basic material that the homemaker should know in a wider area so that she would be open to employment in any one of several types of agencies. Each agency might then brief her on its own specific policies.

Family Services, Winnipeg. At Family Services Inc. of Winnipeg, training courses for homemakers were not given on a regular basis before 1970. Instead, training sessions were offered from time to time and homemaker meetings with considerable educational content were held at approximately monthly intervals.

From 1970-72, a one-week training course was offered, and it was from this that the subsequent three-week course was developed. The present Homemaker Training Course began in 1972. From 1972 to 1978, it was given to thirty homemakers each year, in two sessions of fifteen homemakers each. The participants were chosen on the basis of

seniority and all had experience on the job before taking the course.

From 1971 to 1975, a three-month course at Red River Community College graduated persons who could be employed by a number of agencies, but this only provided a small percentage of the homemakers required by Family Services. For example, at present more than half (about 100) of the homemakers at Family Services have not had either type of training. There is a pressing need to develop an effective training program to handle the large number of women doing this important work.

Instruments for Measuring Adult-Child Interaction

From the literature on naturalistic observation, a number of observation instruments were reviewed (Bishop, 1951; Colbert & Enos, 1976; Honig & Lally, 1975; Lewis & Lee-Painter, 1973; Moustakas, Sigel & Schalock, 1956; Patterson, 1977; Smith, 1958; White, Kaban, Attanucci & Shapiro, 1978; White, Watts, Barnett, Kaban, Marmor & Shapiro, 1973).

Weick (1968) compiled a general overview of problems in systematic observation. He defined an observational method as "the selection, provocation, recording and encoding of that set of behaviors and settings concerning organisms 'in situ' which is consistent with empirical aims" (pp. 360) and then dealt with each aspect in turn. One point he made was that naturalistic settings can be honed or refined to advantage to improve precision and validity of observational studies.

Many researchers are working on the problem of measuring the interaction between a child and a caregiver, rather than considering the behavior of one or the other as a separate entity. The trend is toward regarding the child and a caregiver as an interactional system.

Lewis and Lee-Painter (1973) stated that we can study human behavior without distortion only if we study interaction. Lewis cited Piaget and himself as exceptions to the prevailing reductionist philosophy in psychology. The authors described models of interaction and said that the nature of the model held by the researcher is usually implicit in the observational and measurement techniques of the study. Subjects were fifty-five three-month infants, seen at home for two hours of normal routine. On the premise that taping would result in less realistic behavior on the mother's part, data were collected using a checklist with a fixed time base. Each sheet represented 60 seconds, divided into six 10-second columns. Infant behaviors were listed in the upper portion of the sheet, adult behaviors in the lower portion. Whenever possible, the observer numbered the interactions as 1 or 2, indicating which person initiated it. Comments showed how one set of data can be interpreted at different levels of interaction: one-element model, simple interaction model, or flow model.

Patterson (1977) designed an instrument suitable for measuring family interaction, particularly with regard to deviant behavior. Code numbers and letters for persons and actions enable the observer to record events in sequence and identify the initiator. This instrument would be useful in measuring change after intervention techniques such as family therapy.

William Lambert (1960) discussed the many considerations to be taken into account in attempting to measure interpersonal behavior, and outlined some of the early work in the trend to measuring the behavior of two persons at once.

Barbara Merrill Bishop (1951) worked under the direction of Robert Sears at the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station. She developed catagories for recording the first stimulus-response that occurred in a five-second interval of mother-child interaction.

Two studies improved on the Bishop work. Henrietta Smith (1958) compared results of an interview report with actual behavior between mother and child in an observation room. She recorded behaviors in such a way that it was possible to indicate the sequence of interactions as well as the number and type.

Moustakas et al (1956) attempted to develop an observational system which would have broad application. Its disadvantage is that it involves 89 adult ratings and 82 child categories as well as anxiety-hostility ratings. Observers reached satisfactory reliability after a month of intensive training. Behavior was recorded by putting symbols on a printed square on the recording sheet. The location in or above the square tells to whom the symbol refers, and also the sequence of interaction.

Scales designed for group day care such as those developed by Honig and Lally (1975) may not be really suitable for home observation. Interactions are vastly more frequent in a nursery situation with a large number of children, so much so that it seems there is very little time when a nursery school teacher is NOT interacting with someone. In a checklist where categories are not exclusive, highest scores would seem to be assigned to a teacher handling a great variety of interactions in a short space of time. This is not the case in a home. In a trial observation of a homemaker ten minutes passed with a two-year-old

sitting peaceably in the bathroom while the homemaker made a salad for supper at the kitchen counter. On the Honig and Lally scale the homemaker's score would compare very unfavorably with the profile of a busy day care nursery teacher. A mother or homemaker has a great many time-consuming tasks such as cleaning, cooking and laundry to accomplish in the course of her day, in addition to child care, whereas a nursery school teacher has many more concentrated interactions with a variety of children for a shorter period of time.

Instruments used in the Harvard Preschool Project were designed specifically to measure interaction in a home setting. A preliminary project report (White, Watts et al, 1973) explained how the research group studied the development of children who were doing well and then observed two sets of families, one of whom they believed would produce children of high competence, and the other, children of less-than-average competence.

Watts (White, Watts et al, 1973) identified both direct and indirect components of environments surrounding children. "Direct" was subdivided into participatory and non-participatory, depending on whether the caregiver had actually shared in the experience or not. This idea was incorporated into the final checklist used in this study in that physical activities were classed as Interacting or Non-interacting, and verbal activities were classified as either Interacting or Non-child. Watts divided indirect effects into managerial and diffuse role components: managerial meaning "organizer of the child's daily routine, designer of settings for his activities, and maker of rules governing his access to people, places and things" (pp. 158), and

diffuse covering such things as "the mother's personality, values, and standards, her socioeconomic, cultural and educational background, her responsibilities for other members of the family, her work obligations, her feelings toward young children, her awareness of their developing needs, and her beliefs regarding how these should be met" (pp. 159). For the present study it was decided not to try to measure these as related to the homemakers because the natural mother has a large influence in both of these environmental components. Homemakers are often given directions about the child's routine which they then follow. It is impossible at present to say what relative weight should be given to the personality effect of mother and homemaker.

The Adult Assessment Scales described in the second volume of work about the Harvard Preschool Project (White et al, 1978) were carefully considered for use in this study. The scale was tried in a nursery setting and in an observation of a homemaker at work. In the latter, the homemaker was obviously inhibited by the tape recorder and later said she thought some of the women might resent the tape recorder. The observations for the Harvard study were conducted over a threemonth period which no doubt gave the subjects time to feel at home with the method.

In a report on educational services for home day caregivers, Colbert and Enos (1976) described a series of educational sessions conducted for eighteen women and evaluated in a pretest-posttest design. The work of a home day caregiver is very similar to that of a homemaker except that she works in her own home and often is minding her own children at the same time. The caregivers were allowed and

encouraged to select the topics they would like to have covered in their training. The topics, format and atmosphere of the course were fairly similar to those of the Family Services of Winnipeg Inc. homemaker course. Results of the before-and-after tests indicated some positive changes which were related to course content.

The observation system used by Colbert and Enos was an adaptation of Clarke-Stewart's categories (1973) being employed at that time in the Chicago Study of Child Care and Development. The authors reported that behavioral categories were selected on the basis of their relevance to healthy child development and the goals and purposes of the training The system, which categorized virtually all of the caregivers' interactions with the children, had a pre-determined set of categories (pp. 39) which was memorized by each observer. The observer recorded for twelve consecutive five-minute periods. The first one-hour observation was done simultaneously by two experimenters to assess field reliability, and percent agreement calculated on each category. The results were: physical behavior, 75% to 100% agreement; verbal behavior, 64% to 100% agreement; overall, 89.4%. To improve reliability, three pairs of categories were combined. This observation instrument for measuring family day care mothers, with minor changes in the categories and major changes in the timing, was finally selected for the present study. The coding categories are found in Appendix B.

Socioeconomic Status and Child Rearing Practices

A number of studies have reported social class differences in child-rearing practices. Hess and Shipman (1965) reported that middle-class mothers engage in more "meaningful" verbal interchanges with their preschool children than do working-class mothers. Tulkin and Kagan (1970) found social class differences centering around a mother's verbal behavior and trying to keep the infant busy. They found no class differences in time spent in close proximity, frequency of kissing, holding or tickling nor in the frequency of maternal prohibitions. Middle-class mothers more often entertained their infants by showing pictures, playing peek-a-boo, and making nonlanguage sounds, and more often gave their infants things with which to play.

While they are in the home, homemakers have the responsibility for child care. Any research into this area, therefore, should consider the socioeconomic status of the homemakers and the parent(s).

Age of Caregiver as Related to Child Rearing Practices

Natural mothers of young children generally range in age from late teens to mid-thirties, while homemakers range in age from late teens to mid-sixties. Apart from differences in energy levels, a homemaker's age somewhat determines the attitudes toward child rearing which were prevalent during her formative years and which she may have absorbed. Stendler (1950) outlined the characteristic outlook of society toward children from 1890 to 1950. A different attitude could be identified in each decade. A woman who is thirty years old in the mid-seventies would have been brought up when "delayed-toilet-training,"

late-weaning" ideas were proposed; a 40-year old would have been raised when people were very conscious that infant handling was related to later personality development; a 50-year old would have been reared when there was a strong emphasis on vitamins, calories, and scientific feeding. And a 60-year old would have been learning about child care when there was a belief in tight scheduling of the baby's routine. It seems then, that the age of the homemaker must be considered when investigating their interaction with young children.

Summary

A review of literature shows that homemaker service is growing and that more attention is being directed to training women for this type of work. Evaluation of the different types of training for homemakers does not allow objective comparisons. There is a comprehensive report, including evaluation, of one study regarding the provision of educational services for home day caregivers. Some of the literature on training mothers for child-rearing is also relevant and indicates that training is expected to make a difference in a mother's effectiveness.

Literature on naturalistic observation showed that there is a trend toward measuring interaction of two or more people rather than the separate actions of each. A perusal of a number of observation instruments showed that while they seemed appropriate to the population for which they were designed, they were not suitable for observing homemakers at work. It was felt that the classifications for home observation needed to be different than those for observing children

being cared for in a group such as a day nursery. Age and socioeconomic status might be expected to have some influence on styles of child-rearing, and therefore are considerations for research on homemaker-child interaction.

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

One of the stated objectives of the Family Services of Winnipeg Inc. Homemaker Training Course is to develop (a homemaker's) knowledge of child care as it relates to (her) work with families.

The object of this study was to assess the effectiveness of the training course in the area of child care. It focused on children in the 10-36 month age range and compared trained and untrained homemakers on the amount and type of physical and verbal stimulation they provided for the children.

Hypotheses

The specific hypotheses developed were:

- H_O There will be no difference in the amount of positive physical stimulation provided to a young child by trained and untrained homemakers.
 - H_a Trained homemakers will provide more positive physical stimulation to a young child than will untrained homemakers.
- 2. Ho There will be no difference in the amount of negative physical stimulation provided to a young child by trained and untrained homemakers.
 - H_a Trained homemakers will provide less negative physical stimulation to a young child than will untrained homemakers.
- 3. ${\rm H}_{\rm O}$ There will be no difference in the amount of positive verbal

stimulation provided to a young child by trained and untrained homemakers.

- ${\rm H}_{\rm a}$ Trained homemakers will provide more positive verbal stimulation to a young child than will untrained homemakers.
- 4. H_o There will be no difference in the amount of negative verbal stimulation provided to a young child by trained and untrained homemakers.
 - H_a Trained homemakers will provide less negative verbal stimulation to a young child than will untrained homemakers.

Definitions of Variables

Operational definitions were established as follows:

- Trained homemaker: a woman, working for and supervised by Family Services of Winnipeg, Inc., who had completed its three-week Homemaker Training Course sometime during the period 1972-77 inclusive.
- 2. <u>Untrained homemaker</u>: a woman, employed by the same agency, who had not yet taken the Homemaker Training Course. For both groups, homemakers who had completed other related training, such as a practical nursing course, were excluded from the sample.
- 3. Young child: a boy or girl 10 to 36 months of age.
- 4. More: more instances of 10-second time samples which contained the the pertinent behavior during the observation period.
- 5. <u>Positive physical stimulation</u>: activities involved in attending the needs of the child, such as changing diapers, bathing, feeding, or combing hair; showing physical affection, such as patting the head

approvingly, kissing, hugging, holding child on knee; demonstrating skills, such as showing how to use a toy, throw a ball, read a book; or playing with child, such as playing peek-a-boo games, sharing play with toys.

- 6. <u>Negative physical stimulation</u>: physical restraint of the child; slapping, hitting, spanking.
- 7. <u>Positive verbal stimulation</u>: verbal expression of approval to the child; teaching the child something by the use of words; asking or answering a question; indulging in a social exchange with the child.
- 8. <u>Negative verbal stimulation</u>: verbal restraint of the child; expressing verbal disapproval, sarcasm.

METHOD

Description of Sample

Ten trained and ten untrained homemakers, selected from a total group of 180 homemakers employed by Family Services of Winnipeg, Inc., at the time the study was designed, were the subjects of the study. These twenty homemakers were the total number available who were working regularly in a family containing a child 10-36 months of age; were working in a family where the social worker felt observation of the homemakers would not have a detrimental effect; were not graduates of any other homemaker training course, and who agreed to the observation. The person in whose home they worked also agreed to the observation taking place.

A letter (Appendix C) was sent to each client in whose home an observation might be made, explaining that a study regarding homemaker training was being conducted, which would involve two hours of observation in the client's home, and asking for his or her co-operation. No clients objected at this time, but one withdrew before the scheduled observation because of personal problems.

After the date by which clients were to register objections if any, a similar letter (Appendix D) was sent to each of the homemakers explaining that a study regarding homemaker training was being conducted, outlining the procedure for observation, and asking for her

participation. After a few days the homemakers were contacted by phone. Only one of the untrained homemakers did not wish to participate. One client went on holiday after one observation.

Observations were completed on ten trained and ten untrained female homemakers. The trained group ranged in age from 29 to 68 years and had a mean age of 51.6 years. The untrained group ranged in age from 21 to 64 years and had a mean age of 43.5 years. The women were working in families containing from one to seven children. Assurance was given the homemakers that no individual results of the observation would be reported to Family Services and that the study had nothing to do with employment. Observations were made during their working hours but there was no extra payment for participation. The trained group had taken the course from one to six years prior to the data collection.

The logic behind limiting the observation to children in the 10 to 36 month age range was found in the preliminary report of the Harvard Preschool Project (White et al, 1973, pp. 19-22). Dr. White explained that their group had narrowed the focus of their study from the preschool years in general to the first three years in particular because the differences in competence found by age six were clearly evident at age three. Later the group narrowed the critical period even further atomathe allogous to 18 months range approximately, but the present study retained the broader category, because it includes the way the homemaker deals with an active toddler and the way she deals with the child's burgeoning language development.

Research Design

The group of ten homemakers which had received the Family

Services of Winnipeg Inc. Homemaker Training Course was contrasted with
the group of ten which had not, in a Static-Group Comparison (Campbell
& Stanley, 1963). The criteria for selecting the subjects meant the
two groups were alike in working with young children, but other than
that, they were not matched on other qualities such as experience or
education.

Two observers each recorded one hour of each homemaker's behavior, one in a morning, one in an afternoon. Whenever possible observations were two days apart. The trained and untrained groups were counterbalanced both with regard to which observer saw them first and to whether their first observation was in the morning or afternoon.

The question of what to do about a second or third child in the home was considered. Since the purpose of the study was to investigate the child care provided by the homemaker in the most natural situation, it was decided that the observations would be made with the siblings present.

Instrument

The instrument selected was a slightly modified version of that used in the study of educational services for home day caregivers (Colbert & Enos, 1976). The method of timing was different. A combination of occurrence and time sampling was used in the above study, while the present study used straight time sampling, using a stopwatch. For each ten-second observation period, one entry (and

only one) was made in each of the two categories, Physical and Verbal. The ten-second observation was followed by ten seconds for coding.

Observation and coding continued uninterrupted for half an hour (one recording sheet). The observer took a break for five minutes and then completed the other half hour.

The half-hour recording sheet was designed by the investigator and proved to be very satisfactory (Appendix E). Each observer completed two of these sheets on each homemaker, so there were four observation sheets on each subject at the conclusion of the study.

It was decided prior to data collection that if less than thirty minutes of child-care behavior occurred in an hour's observation, the observation would have to be repeated. If more than thirty minutes but less than an hour occurred, data would be extrapolated to fill the hour. Return observations were required on two homemakers, and extrapolations of data were necessary in five cases. The investigator also designed a master sheet for recording each homemaker's results (Appendix F).

Scores from the two hour-long observation periods on each home-maker were combined, making a total of 120 one-minute periods. Since each minute contained thirty seconds of observation and thirty seconds of recording time, each homemaker was observed for one hour of child-care behavior.

The observers agreed on priorities for any categories whose lines of definition were fuzzy or might overlap. Demonstrates Skills was given priority over Physical Affection, as for example when a homemaker showed a child how to do something while the child was

cuddled on her knee. Physical Affection was defined as touching, except in a negative way. Physical Affection was given priority over Attends Child's Needs, for example, when a homemaker was touching a child in the process of changing a diaper. Supervising, a description which could be added to either Housework or Personal Tasks, was defined as having the child within sight.

Asks Questions or Answers Questions became Verbal Social Exchange when there were more than one question and answer in a tensecond period. If Verbal Social Exchange had an educational component, Verbal Teaching was given priority over Verbal Social Exchange. Asks Questions and Answers Questions were coded according to grammatical form. Setting these priorities was helpful in securing reliability between the two observers.

Observer Reliability

Percentage of reliability between the two observers was calculated as $\frac{\text{No. of codings in agreement}}{\text{Total no. of agreements possible}} \times 100$, over one hour of observation of a caregiver with a 24-month old girl. A 4-year old boy was also present, as that was typical of conditions observed in the study. Reliability just before data collection was $\frac{326}{360} \times 100 = 90.56\%$. A second 1-hour check one week after the end of the data collection gave a reliability of $\frac{348}{360} \times 100 = 96.67\%$.

Procedures for Data Collection

The observer introduced herself and chatted for a few minutes until the homemaker appeared at ease and the presence of a stranger was

no longer a novelty to the children. Then the observer directed the homemaker to please go on as usual with whatever she would be doing at that time if the observer weren't there, started the stopwatch and began coding. If the child spoke to the observer during data collection, the observer said that she was busy working and would visit with him when she was finished. If homemaker and child both moved to another room, the observer followed. Otherwise she took a seat in as unobtrusive a corner as possible, for example at the far side of a kitchen table or in a corner seat in the living room. After half an hour of observation, she took a five-minute break during which she conversed with the homemaker or perhaps joined her for a cup of coffee; then said she would finish her observation and withdrew to her coding.

At the end of the first observation, the homemaker was thanked, and arrangements were made for the second observer's visit at a time which was mutually convenient, usually two days later. Questions were asked about the usual routine to try to determine when the child would be up and around. However, at no time was the homemaker told that the specific behavior being observed was her interaction with the child. When an observation had to be repeated, the homemaker was not told that the reason was the original observation had not included sufficient child interaction. The explanation was that the observer had not obtained all the data she should have. Tabulation onto master sheets was done as soon as possible following the observation (Appendix F).

Data Analysis

Those classifications with a very small number of entries were combined for analysis. In the Physical section, the headings Attends Needs, Physical Affection, Demonstrates Skills and Plays with Child were combined into Positive Stimulation. Control and Punishment were combined into Negative Stimulation. In the Verbal section, Positively Reinforces, Verbal Teaching, Answers Questions (Verbal Responsiveness), Social Exchange and Asks Questions were combined into Positive Verbal Stimulation.

Mann-Whitney U analyses (Siegel, 1956) were computed on each of the resulting six Physical categories: Housework, Housework Supervising, Personal Tasks, Personal Tasks Supervising, Positive Stimulation, Negative Stimulation. They were also computed on each of the resulting four Verbal categories: Silence or Talking to Others, Positive Verbal Stimulation, Verbal Control, Negative Verbal Stimulation.

Scattergrams were plotted on each of the above categories, comparing age and amount of time spent in each activity. Since a scattergram showing age and Positive Physical Stimulation appeared to have a significant relationship (Appendix H) a test for the equality of correlations was computed (Kleinbaum & Kupper, 1978).

PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

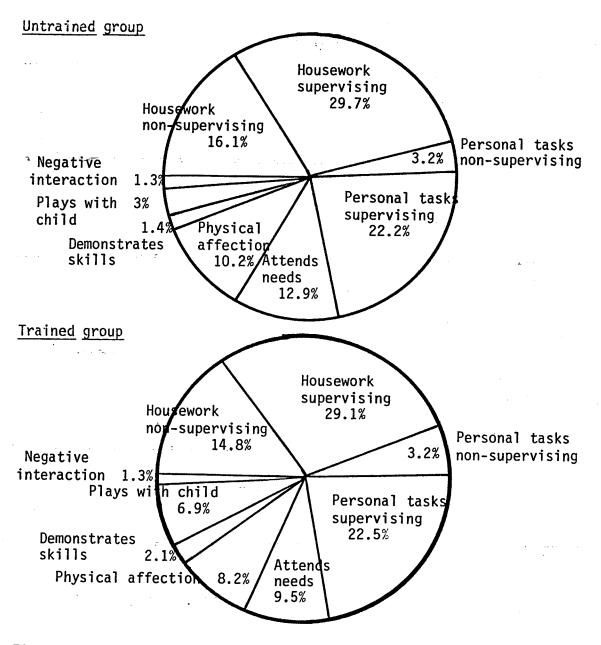


Figure 1. Percent of Total Observed Time Spent on Various Physical Activities by Trained and Untrained Homemakers

VERBAL ACTIVITIES Untrained group Silence or talking to other person 74.4% Negative comments .4% 7.1% **Verbal** control Positive verbal stimulation 18.1% Trained group Silence or talking to other person 72.6% Negative .4% comments 7.1% Verbal control Positive verbal stimulation 20.8%

Figure 2. Percent of Total Observed Time Spent on Various Verbal Activities by Trained and Untrained Homemakers

Tests of Hypotheses

The hypotheses were tested using Mann-Whitney U's. Since the sample size for each group was 10, the critical region throughout was $U \le 23$ at p = .025. Table 1 shows these results.

Hypothesis 1

- H_O There will be no difference in the amount of positive physical stimulation provided to a young child by trained and untrained homemakers.
- Ha Trained homemakers will provide more positive physical stimulation to a young child than will untrained homemakers.

The ten trained homemakers provided a total of 960 of the defined instances of positive physical stimulation to the young children in their care, while untrained homemakers provided a total of 989. The Mann-Whitney U was 48 and critical region was $U \le 23$ at p = .025.

Therefore, H_O was accepted: <u>There was no difference in the amount of positive physical stimulation provided to a young child by trained and untrained homemakers</u>.

Hypothesis 2

- H_O There will be no difference in the amount of negative physical stimulation provided to a young child by trained and untrained homemakers.
- H_a Trained homemakers will provide less negative physical stimulation to a young child than will untrained homemakers.

Trained and untrained homemakers both provided a total of 48 instances of the defined negative stimulation to the young children in

Group Scores for Trained and Untrained Homemakers and Mann-Whitney U Results

Table 1

Category	10-second category periods in 1 hour		Mann-Whitney U	Significance
	Trained	Untrained	U= 23 at p=.05	
Physical				
Non-child				737 7 3 22
Housework	532	580	46	NS
Pers. Task	<u>202</u>	<u>116</u>	34	NS
Total	734	696	64	NS
Supervising				
Housework, S	1047	1069	48	NS
Pers. Task,S	811	<u>798</u>	44	NS
Total	1858	1867	42	NS
Interacting				
Positive	960	989	52	NS
Negative	48	48	47	NS
Verbal				
Non-child				
Silence or talk			••	
to other person	2612	2680°	49	NS
Interacting				
Positive	748	653	42	NS
Negative (total)	240	267	47	NS
Control	224	253	55	NS
Negative				
comments	16	14.	45	NS

their care. The Mann-Whitney U was 48 and critical region was U \leq 23 at p = .025.

Therefore, H_O was accepted: <u>There was no difference in the amount of negative physical stimulation provided to a young child by trained and untrained homemakers.</u>

Hypothesis 3

- Ho There will be no difference in the amount of positive verbal stimulation provided to a young child by trained and untrained homemakers.
- H_a Trained homemakers will provide more positive verbal stimu-

Trained homemakers provided 748 instances of positive verbal stimulation while untrained homemakers provided 653. The Mann-Whitney U was 42 and critical region was U \leq 23 at p = .025.

Therefore, H_O was accepted: <u>There was no difference in the amount of positive verbal stimulation provided to a young child by trained and untrained homemakers</u>.

Hypothesis 4

- Ho There will be no difference in the amount of negative verbal stimulation provided to a young child by trained and untrained homemakers.
- ${\rm H_{a}}$ Trained homemakers will provide less negative verbal stimulation to a young child than will untrained homemakers.

Trained homemakers provided a total of 240 instances of the

defined negative verbal stimulation to the children in their care, while untrained homemakers provided 267. The Mann-Whitney U was 53 and the critical region was $U \le 23$ at p = .025.

Therefore, Ho was accepted: There was no difference in the amount of negative verbal stimulation provided to a young child by trained and untrained homemakers.

Raw data of scores on Physical and Verbal behavior are shown in Tables 2 and 3 (Appendix G).

Of the scattergrams comparing trained and untrained groups on age and scores, only the combination of age and Positive Physical Stimulation appeared to show a relationship (Appendix H). The older the untrained homemakers, the more positive physical stimulation they appeared to give to the young child, while the older the trained homemakers, the less positive physical stimulation they appeared to provide for the young child. The results were subjected to statistical analysis to test for the equality of correlation. There was a significant negative relationship between the two correlations as Z = -2.32 and the critical region was $Z \ge 1.96$ and $Z \le -1.96$ at D = 0.05.

A classification of the homemakers socioeconomically showed that the groups were quite homogeneous in this regard. The twenty homemakers were all identified as being in groups 5, 6 or 7 of an occupational class scale ranging from a high of 1 to a low of 7 (Blishen, 1965, pp. 449-458).

The senior observer had taught the training course for five years and six of the women in the trained group had been her students. To determine whether or not this could have influenced the results of the observations, Mann-Whitney U tests were calculated on the senior and junior observers' scores in each category for the six women. None were significant. Results are shown in Table 4 (Appendix I).

DISCUSSION

All the homemakers provided good physical care for their young charges. They kept the babies or toddlers clean, kept careful watch over them, provided nourishing snacks according to the groceries available, and seemed fond of the children. This study was concerned with more subtle activities such as those being brought out in child development studies: how often and in what manner the caregiver talked to the child, how often she showed physical affection, demonstrated skills, or took advantage of opportunities for teaching; things which are expected to eventually add up to a difference in competence by the time the child enters school.

The present study was unable to demonstrate that trained homemakers differed from untrained homemakers on these subtle qualities. It is not precisely clear why this is so. The following discussion attempts to consider reasons for the differences and indicate recommendations for future research.

Possibility of Dissipation over Time

A single evaluation of this type cannot differentiate as a longitudinal study might, whether the training had no effect, or whether it did increase the amount of physical and verbal stimulation homemakers provided to young children immediately after the course. An evaluation similar to this study, done immediately after a course,

could settle that question. It may be that there was an improvement with training which gradually lessened over the period of time which elapsed since training was completed.

An indication that the latter may be the case is found in the report by Colbert and Enos (1976). They reported that, approximately two weeks after their training course for home day caregivers, increases significant at the \underline{p} =.05 level were found in the following classifications of behavior: plays with children; positive verbal reinforcement; verbal teaching; verbal social exchange; verbal questioning and verbal responsiveness. If the homemaker training course had a similar immediate effect and the effects have dissipated over time, the question is how to offer instruction in order to maintain long-term effects. One possibility is bringing groups of trained homemakers in for short refresher courses at regular intervals after their main course. Another is to have home visits to those homemakers who are presently working with young children of a critical age. The latter system merits consideration because the material given would find immediate application.

Comparison of Training Programs

It may be that training really made no difference to the amount of verbal and physical stimulation provided for the young child.

A look at Appendix A (Family Services of Winnipeg Inc. Homemaker Training Course) and the Workshop Sessions for Home Day Caregivers (Colbert & Enos, 1976, pp. 128-130) will show that there were differences in the courses provided.

The Family Services course contained approximately 26 hours

of instruction on development of young children, this being interpreted broadly as including in addition to basic child development material, such things as preparing food for infants, feeding problems and home safety for young children. These 26 hours were part of a total of approximately 90 hours of instruction on a variety of homemaking topics. The importance of child development may be underemphasized when it is presented in the midst of many other topics. The workshops for home day caregivers at Roosevelt University were estimated for the purpose of this study to contain 18 hours of instruction on topics directly related to the development of young children.

The Training Program to Assist People in Educating Infants (White et al, 1978, pp. 523-559), an outgrowth of the Harvard Preschool Project, tries to put hypotheses about effective child-rearing practices into a form which can help ordinary families. Parents are given information about child development stages as their child is entering or passing through them. The first segment, the 5-8 months period, consists of four group meetings each followed a week later by a group visit. In the 8-17 month period home visits occur at two-week intervals supplemented by three group visits. By estimating two hours of participation for a group session and one hour for a home visit for the purpose of comparison with the homemakers' course, the total time a parent receives instruction in this program might be about 37 hours. This is 11 hours more than the homemakers receive on child development. An evaluation of the results of the training program has not yet been published.

The home day caregiver workshops and the program for assisting

people in educating infants contain material not dissimilar to that in the homemaker training course. However both these programs enable the information to be applied immediately. Home day caregivers work with preschool children; the other program moves through the rapid developments of the toddler stage with the parents, discussing the child's new accomplishments close to the time they are occurring. One would expect maximum interest with this method because it takes advantage of a parent's fascination with his or her own child's progress.

The homemaker training program has not necessarily given the homemaker early child development information at the time she is ready to use it. A homemaker does not always work with preschool children. If she is in a home with older children before and for some time after taking the course, she might not pay the same attention to early human development material. The highest point for timely learning of child development theory should be when she can see the stages unfolding in a youngster she sees daily.

To do the homemakers justice, it should be pointed out that this evaluation did not have the same focus on early child development enjoyed by the previously mentioned courses. The homemakers' course covered a great many areas (Appendix A) and they did not know whether one specific area or the whole range of topics was being evaluated.

In planning future homemaker training in the area of child development, two features from other courses should be considered for incorporation. The first is that the material should not be mixed to any large extent with other topics. The second is that homemakers should be taught about early child development when they are working

with young children.

<u>Instrument</u> and Method

There is a possibility that the instrument and method used for observation did not measure homemaker behavior accurately. Some changes could be recommended.

The two groups of ten homemakers each included all the available homemakers who met the criteria. A larger number of subjects would, of course, have been preferable. Table 2 (Appendix G) shows the large individual differences which were obtained within each group. These may have had less effect over a larger sample.

A larger number of one-hour observations on each homemaker might have provided a more accurate picture of the homemakers' characteristics. Activities in homemaking tend to occur in fairly large blocks of time. For example, a homemaker ironing or baking, or a child absorbed in a TV program, usually continue at the same activity for more than half an hour each. The results from two hours of observation are fairly dependent on the activities the observers happened to catch.

The present study chose strict ten-second time-sampling, whereas the Colbert study recorded "duration in minutes" for two types of behavior, attends to household or personal tasks (PT), and attends child's need (AN) but scored all other events each time they occurred. This gave number of occurrences rather than time as a result. A recommendation for further study would be to do extensive pretesting to see what kinds of data are obtained when using different techniques for timing the observation.

The instrument used was described on Page 23 and may be seen in Appendix B. It was convenient to use, the categories covered all behavior, and the observers were comfortable with the ten-second time unit. It was small enough that most actions, particularly in the Physical category, filled the ten seconds, so the score represented a fairly accurate report of the total portioning of time. The ten-second interval was less well filled in the Verbal category where a comment like "Good boy!" left nine seconds uncoded; however the approving atmosphere surrounding a comment such as that usually lasted at least ten seconds.

There was one type of situation where the observers had a reservation about whether the instrument was accurate in measuring caregiver behavior. Both observers found it quite easy to rate homemakers subjectively on their child-rearing ability. In this case, a homemaker they both considered extremely good scored exactly the same on Total The "good" Physical Stimulation as one considered less stimulating. homemaker had two boys in her care. As long as they were playing well together or were each occupied with something, she left them alone and went on with her housework; but the minute they became restless, or a quarrel seemed to be brewing, she popped in with a brief diversion or suggestion and then went back to her housework. They were playing with toys near her while she did laundry at one time that this pattern was noticeable, and a review of this time showed that for a period of 24 minutes, her comments to them were often only a few seconds in length, interspersed with silences of not more than two-and-a-half minutes. The longest involvement with the boys took two minutes, two comments

took one minute each, and the rest lasted only ten seconds or less. The children were very keen and interested during this time, yet the home-maker did not score particularly high in the time-sampling method.

Another homemaker who, in the opinion of the observers, appeared to offer much less stimulation to the child in her care, got a higher score on Positive Physical Stimulation in a 24-minute period than the previously mentioned homemaker. This seemed to be due mainly to an episode in which she sat with the boy on her knee for six minutes straight.

This example seemed to point to the merit of some type of weighting of the quality of time invested. It also agreed with one conclusion of the Harvard Preschool Project which was that effective mothers make excellent use of small units of interacting time which are actually a small proportion of the time child and mother are in proximity (White & Watts, 1973, pp. 243). Another observation on the same page, that these brief moments of teaching are usually at the child's instigation, points up the fact that no measurement was made in this study of the children's approaches to the homemakers. It is hoped that a homemaker would continue to provide stimulation to a withdrawn child, but it must be recognized that it is more difficult and that the differences in children on this dimension is a variable which was not controlled and which may explain some of the individual differences in results. The extreme variability among children which could be expected was the reason an interactional type of measure was discarded.

A. E. House (1978) discussed several "informal" problems



related to data collection by naturalistic observation. One was the extent to which the observation rules, such as no TV viewing, changed the usual pattern. In this study, the observer's request for the homemaker to carry on with whatever she would usually be doing at the time seemed to be taken to heart. On several occasions a homemaker said, "Now we usually go for a walk", so the observer went along to the playground, coding as surreptitiously as possible all the way. But it was noted that on these occasions the homemakers regarded the observer as a companion and directed comments to her which might otherwise have been directed to the child. This would lower her score on interaction with the child.

Our modest number of observations included many "atypical" situations such as a child on the brink of hospital admission, a family packed for moving the next day, a mother just discharged from the hospital and present at the observation, a refrigerator being sold and needing a good cleaning by the homemaker while we were there, to mention a few. At first the observers considered discarding the data from what were considered to be unusual situations until it was realized that there would be very few sets left. It was clear that among the families where the homemakers were observed, each new day brought its own new crisis.—It may be that low-income, single-parent families have more than their share of crises; on the other hand, a study might show that unusual situations are the rule in most families. If so, this is another argument in favor of longer observation periods, spread over more than two days.

A wide age range was found in both trained and untrained groups, but the mean age of the trained homemakers was 8.1 years more than that of the untrained. It is possible that because of this the untrained group had more exposure to informal child development teaching through TV programs, women's magazines or schools.

The homemaker's age, besides influencing her outlook on child-rearing as mentioned, does_influence the type of relationship which develops. This was reflected in what children and parents call the homemaker. Younger homemakers were often on a first-name basis which seemed to indicate a friendly or sisterly relationship. Middle-aged homemakers were often called "Aunt" which seemed to show a friendly advisory capacity. Some ladies of that age group were called "Mrs. So-and-So" which seemed a more professional, respectful and perhaps more distant relationship. "Grandma", reserved for the older homemakers, seemed to accompany a nurturing attitude to the child and also a mothering attitude to the parent.

There is no ready explanation for the differing correlations on age and Positive Physical Stimulation between the trained and untrained groups (Appendix H). The result may be an artifact of measurement, because of the small number of subjects, observations at different times of the day, or unusual situations at the time of observation.

The training may make homemakers more conscious of other aspects of her work which take time away from child care, but this should affect younger and older women alike. Older women who took the course recently might feel the need to try to make changes in long-established

patterns of behavior which might result in less spontaneity with the child.

On the other hand, it is reasonable to expect that older women would have less energy for active games with young children. It may be that the older trained homemakers are more sure of their role and are able to compensate for less energy by making more use of the "managerial" aspect of providing stimulation, a factor which was not measured in this study.

Socioeconomic Status

A social worker once expressed the opinion that the best volunteers for helping clients were persons who had had a rough time in life themselves. Some directors of homemaker service speak in favor of obtaining homemakers from the same social class as the people needing However, research on child-rearing patterns in different social classes indicates that mothers from higher social classes exhibit more of the behaviors which lead children to higher intellectual and social development. An unanswered question is: does the best homemaker come from a happy home background and a relatively untroubled adult life, in which case one would expect she would try to re-create some of her happy early experiences for the child, or does she come from a problem home herself? In the latter case, one would expect that from her harsh life experiences she would be able to empathize with children and their parents, and be able to provide an example of survival. To date this has not been researched objectively but an answer would be of practical value to homemaking department staffs.

What emerges from this study is that regardless of whether a lower or higher socioeconomic status person would make the best caregiver, the present situation is that homemakers are drawn from the lower income levels. This is no surprise since the pay is at, or only slightly above, minimum wage requirements. If society wants higher educated people to pass along intellectual stimulation to children, it will have to provide more education to those who do not have it but like homemaking work, and/or more incentive to those who already have higher education but want better-paying work.

Conclusion

The present study has indicated a further need for naturalistic evaluation of homemaker training, and perhaps a need for some changes or additions to methods of homemaker training. Since trained and untrained homemakers provided scores which showed no significant differences, this study points to the need for more research to assess different kinds of training and their effect on the homemaker's actual performance with the children in her care.

SUMMARY

Homemaker agencies would benefit from research on which to base decisions regarding homemaker training. Family Services of Winnipeg Inc. provides a 3-week course for its homemakers on a seniority basis. In this study a group of 10 homemakers trained from 1 to 6 years previous was compared to an untrained group of the same size. The small segment of the course--26 hours--devoted to instruction about early child development was chosen for evaluation because of the importance of a child's early experiences to the development of later competence.

Two observers each completed 1 hour of naturalistic observation on each homemaker, recording 18 pre-selected categories of behavior using a 10-second time-sampling method. Coding sheets were designed for the study. Mann-Whitney U analyses showed no significant differences between groups. Scattergrams indicated a possible relationship--positive for untrained homemakers, negative for trained--between age of homemaker and provision of Positive Physical Stimulation. A test for equality of correlations showed a significant negative relationship.

Two other courses for persons working with infants had similar content but more timely learning. It was suggested that the principles of development taught be relevant to the age group with which the women work and that educational home visits and refresher courses supplement the original training.

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REFERENCE NOTE

Note

1. Family Services of Winnipeg Inc. A Review of the Homemaker

Service funded by the Department of Health and Social

Development, Province of Manitoba, under the Canada Assistance

Plan. Unpublished manuscript, June 1977. (Available from Family Services of Winnipeg Inc., 264 Edmonton St., Winnipeg, Manitoba R3C 1R9)

APPENDICES

Appendix A.

Family Services of Winnipeg, Inc., Homemaker Training Course, Sept. 8-28, 1977

Objectives:

- 1) To provide an opportunity to examine your own values as they relate to what happens in families.
- 2) To help prepare you to handle situations where the clients' values differ from your own.
- 3) To encourage an awareness of the many different things that are operating within the family.
- 4) To encourage an awareness of changes that take place within individuals and families through stages of the family cycle.
- 5) To develop your knowledge of cooking, laundry, housekeeping and child care as it relates to your work with families.
- 6) To help you to encourage family members to share in household responsibilities so the family will become selfsufficient.
- 7) To help you to handle crisis situations in the family.
- 8) To help you to work effectively in a family where individuals or relationships are disturbed.
- 9) To increase understanding of how the social worker and the agency as well as other community resources can assist families.

Course Content (summarized)

Thursday, September 8

A.M. Introduction and Orientation

Film: Homefires

Discussion: expectations of homemakers and Family Services;

a homemaker's responsibility and role in family; course and

goals

P.M. Separation Anxiety

Film: Sudden Departure

Structure of Family Services

Friday, September 9

A.M. Community Resources which Aid Families
Groups at Family Services

P.M. Day Care Department

Accident Prevention

Film: One Day's Poison

Monday, September 12

A.M. How Children Learn

P.M. Management in the Home

Tuesday, September 13

A.M. Importance of Food for a Low-income Family

Film: Why Won't Tommy Eat?

P.M. Creative Play Materials

Shyness

Film: Shyness

Wednesday, September 14

A.M. Food Pricing Outing and Price Comparisons

P.M. Menu Planning and Food Purchasing

Assignment: Plan a weekly menu and grocery order for a fourmember family on provincial welfare allowance

Thursday, September 15

A.M. Low-cost Clothing: stretching a clothing budget; sources of low-cost clothing; mending demonstration

Volunteers at Family Services
Reports of Food Pricing Outing

P.M. Coping with Dirt, Vermin, Rodents

Friday, September 16

A.M. Understanding and Helping a "difficult" or "problem" child Film: Child Behavior = You

P.M. Importance of Stimulation in Early Childhood
Visit to a Day Nursery

Monday, September 19

A.M. Self-awareness; recognizing and handling emotions

P.M. Family Differences: ethnicity, socioeconomic background, physical and mental fitness, number of children, phase in family cycle Visit to Used Clothing Store

Tuesday, September 20

- A.M. Ethnicity; Families in a Changing Society
 Film: Comparison of Four Families
- P.M. Teens; Physical and Emotional Development in Adolescence

Wednesday, September 21

- A.M. Helping a Family from Another Culture
- P.M. Death; own attitudes; helping children handle grief

Thursday, September 22

- A.M. Family Interaction: homemaker's and family's past experiences and its influence on perception and communication; encouraging independence; handling anger
- P.M. Child Abuse: forms; recognition; approaches to problem

Friday, September 23

- A.M. Alcohol and Drug Abuse: recognition; approaches to problem
- P.M. Understanding Mental and Emotional Illness
 Visit to International Center

Monday, September 26

- A.M. Social Workers and Homemakers; roles and means of co-operating to help families
- P.M. Understanding and Appreciating Indian and Metis Culture

Tuesday, September 27

- A.M. Home Nursing and Infant Care
- P.M. Discussion of Menu Assignment
 Self-image of the Homemaker

Film: A Woman's Place

Wednesday, September 28

A.M. Meeting with Executive Director and Homemakers

Beefs and Bouquets: Homemakers and Homemaking Department

P.M. Course Evaluation and Discussion about Quality of Service

Appendix B

Coding Categories for Naturalistic Observation of Homemakers

Physical Behavior

Behavior Category	Abbreviation	Description
Housework	HW	Cooking, laundry, cleaning,
		mending, caring for house
HW (supervising)	HWs	Keeping eye on child while doing
		housework as above
Personal Tasks	PT	Not attending to needs of child;
		talking on telephone, watching TV,
		resting, eating lunch, drinking
		coffee
PT (supervising)	PTs	Keeping eye on child while doing
		personal tasks as above
Attends child's needs	AN	Routine caretaking activity, such
		as feeding, washing hands, changing
		clothes, attending to physical
		injuries, bandaging cuts or bruises,
		wiping noses for children
Physical affection	PA	Any type of positive physical con-
		tact - touching hands, giving hugs,
		kisses, cuddles, caresses
Demonstrates skills	DS	Demonstrating skills using mater-
		ials, not just verbally; using
		flannel board or blackboard, demon-
		strating use of educational toy,
		teaching, drawing or writing,

		playing game, dancing, showing
		motor skills or finger play
Plays with child	P1	playing games - rope, cowboys and
		Indians, hopscotch, rough-housing,
		messy games, swinging, singing,
		teasing, chit-chat
Constrains or restricts	CR	Preventing child from harming
		himself in some way, physically
		restricting child
Punishes	PUN	Scolding, spanking, hitting,
		slapping

Verbal Behavior

Behavior category	Abbreviation	Description
Negatively reinforces	V-	Reprimands, insults, says "no-
		don't", prevents child from doing
		something
Verbal control	VC	Gives commands, (as, "go upstairs",
		"sit", "drink your milk")
Positively reinforces	V +	Praises, approves, accepts child's
		behavior, compliments
Verbal teaching	VT	Gives information, supplies answer,
		reads, explains concepts, manners,
		sharing
Verbal responsiveness	A?	Not initiated by adult (conversa-
(or Answers Questions)		tion) answers child's request,

		demand or remark
Verbal social exchange	VSE	Greets, converses socially, talks
		about ongoing activities
Asks questions	?	Caregiver questions child
Silence or Talking	-	Says nothing or speaks to person
to Others		other than the child in the 10-
		36 month age group

Adapted from Colbert and Enos (1976), pp. 41 and 42

Appendix C

Family Services of Winnipeg Inc. 264 EDMONTON STREET, WINNIPEG, MANITOBA R3C 1R9, PHONE 947-1401
Accredited Agency, Family Service Association of America

President: Mrs. Lilian McIlwain Executive Director: Miss Winnie Fung

May 4, 1978

Dear

A study is being done this spring regarding homemaker training. It will involve two one-hour visits to homemakers as they look after children and do their usual housework. We hope you will be willing to have your homemaker take part in this as we expect that it will be helpful in maintaining or improving the quality of our service.

One of the two persons concerned with the survey has been involved with homemaker work for some years as she co-ordinated the training course for several years prior to 1977. All information on the homemakers! work will be confidential.

This letter is to notify you about the purpose of the study. I would like to assure you that no personal details about any family will be involved, as the focus of the study is the homemaker. However, the observations will be made as she goes about her work in your home and will not be done if you do not agree. If you have any objection to your homemaker participating, would you mind phoning me at 947-1401 or 942-0766 before May 11, 1978. After that date, a letter will be sent separately to each homemaker who has been selected to be part of the study requesting her co-operation. If you have any questions, please call us at the above numbers.

Thank you very much.

Yours sincerely,

Director, Homemaker Service.

Social Worker.

CG/js

Appendix D

Family Services of Winnipeg Inc. 264 EDMONTON STREET, WINNIPEG, MANITOBA R3C 1R9, PHONE 947-1401 Accredited Agency, Family Service Association of America

President: Mrs. Lilian McIlwain Executive Director: Miss Winnie Fung

STREETES TO FAMILIES UNDER STRESS

May 12, 1978

Dear

This spring, a study is being done to see how the Family Services Homemaker Training Course relates to the actual work a homemaker does. You have been selected to be part of this study, and I hope you will be willing to participate.

As the person conducting the study, I am not employed by Family Services but did co-ordinate the training course for a number of years prior to 1977.

What I propose to do is visit each participating homemaker at her work; observe for about an hour while she goes on with whatever she is doing; and ask a few questions related to the work. There would be two such visits, one in a morning and the other in an afternoon on a different day. I would make one visit and an assistant would make the other. After the visits, the results from each observation will be identified only by a code number. I should explain that this is not an evaluation of each person individually but is concerned with the work of homemakers as a group.

Permission of the person in whose home you are working has been obtained by Family Services.

It was always a pleasure to get to know the homemakers in the courses and I am looking forward to meeting you. I will contact you in a few days by phone about whether a visit will be convenient and when it can be arranged. In the meantime, if you have any questions you can reach me at 489-8892 or 489-7846.

Yours sincerely,

(Mrs.) Margaret Shaw.

Appendix E

Recording Sheet for Raw Data

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Appendix F

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Appendix G

Table 2

Number of 10-second Periods of Physical Behaviors
in 2 Hours of Observation with Alternate 10-second Time Sampling

Untrained Homemakers: Physical Behaviors

Subject	Age				Non-in	Inte	Interacting						
			Non-	child		Super	vising		Positive	Negative	Total		
o nina		HW	PT	Total	. HW	PT	Total	Total	(AN+PA+DS+P1)	(C+Pun)	P+N		
1	21	*27	25	52	232	25	257	309	50	1	51		
. 2	22	*24	5	29	49	117	166	195	157	8	165		
3	33	187	5	192	114	11	125	317	43	0	43		
4	39	180	38	218	36	37	73	291	61	8	69		
5	40	4	6	10	63	216	279	289	70	1	71		
6	44	19	4	23	128	82	210	233	116	11	127		
7	54	65	21	86	126	68	194	280	75	5	80		
8	54	*21	10	31	114	91	205	236	117	7	124		
9	64	14	0	14	44	138	182	196	159	5	164		
10	64	* <u>39</u>	_2	41	163	_13	176	217	141	_2	143		
		580	116	696	1069	798	1867	2563	989	48	1037		
				Train	ned Hom	emake	rs: Phys	sical Beha	viors				
11	29	46	27	73	47	89	136	209	150	1	151		
12	37	16	46	62	44	149	193	255	102	3	105		
13	43	9	6	15	200	35	235	250	104	6	110		
14	43	45	7	52	96	31	127	179	173	8	181		
15	48	112	9	121	77	98	175	296	62	2	64		
16	59	65	4	69	64	144	208	277	82	1	83		
17	60	*0	0	0	231	46	277	277	73	10	83		
18	63	137	24	161	119	21	140	301	57	2	59		
19	66	39	52	91	84	57	141	232	117	11	128		
20	68	<u>63</u>	27	<u>90</u>	85	141	226	316	40	4	44		
		532	202	734	1047	811	1858	2592	960		1008		

^{*} Extrapolations were performed to derive these scores

Table 3

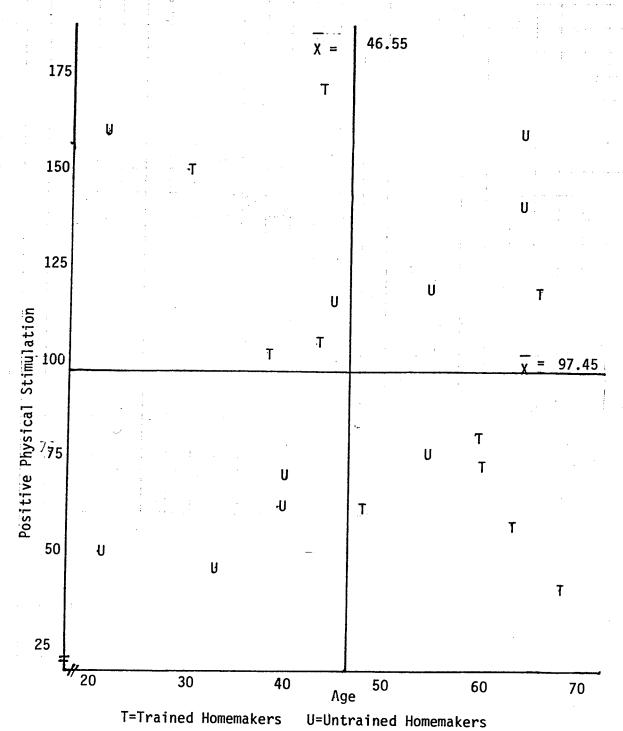
Number of 10-second Periods of Verbal Behaviors
in 2 Hours of Observation with Alternate 10-second Time Sampling

Untrained Homemakers: Verbal Behaviors

Subject	Age	Non-child		Intera	cting		
	,	Silence or talking	Positive		Negat	ive	Total
		to other person	(V++VT+A?+SE+?)	VC	٧-	Total	P+N
1 .	21	* 305	37	15	3	18	55
2	22	* 228	115	16	1	17	132
3	33	299	36	23	2	25	61
4	39	322	26	12	0	12	38
5	40	253	74	33	0	33	107
6	44	268	57	35	0	35	92
7	54	256	75	27	2	29	104
8	54	* 234	73	48	5	53	126
9	64	233	107	19	1	20	127
10	64	* <u>282</u>	<u>53</u>	<u>25</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>25</u>	<u>78</u>
		2680	653	253	14	267	920
		Trained Homemaker	rs: Verbal Behaviors				
- 11	29	236	102	21	1	22	124
12	37	310	46	4	0	4	50
13	43	304	39	17	0	17	56
14	43	172	148	35	5	40	188
15	48	275	63	18	4	22	85
16	59	226	123	11	.0	-11	134
17	60	* 29 9	28	33	0	33	61
18	63	265	59	34	2	36	95
19	66	269	62	26	3	29	91
20	68	<u>256</u>	_78	<u>25</u>	<u>1</u>	26	104
		2612	748	224	16	240	988

^{*} Extrapolations were performed to derive these scores

Appendix H



r(T) = -.645 Figure 3. Scattergram of Age and

r (U) = .443 Positive Physical Stimulation

Appendix I

Table 4

Mann-Whitney U Results on 6 Subjects Known to Senior Observer

	Desired $p =$.05
Category	U	<pre>p (two-tailed)</pre>
нพ	9	.18
HW_S	9	.18
PT	10	.24
PTs	9	.18
Pos. phys. stim.	8	.132
Con. and Pun.	8	.132
Verbal Control	15	.7
Pos. verb. stim.	18	1.0
Silence or Talking to Other	16	.818