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# AN EVALUATION OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF PARENT TRAINING PROGRAMS IN CHANGING PARENT BEHAVIOR

by

Betty Payne Janiak

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment

of the requirements for the degree

of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in

Psychology

Approved:

#### UTAH STATE UNIVERSITY

Logan, Utah June, 1975

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Betty P. Janiak

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

																						page
ACKNOWL	EDGMENT	s.	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•			•	•	•		•	•	•	•	ii
LIST OF	TABLES	•••	•	•	•	•				•		•		•	•				•	•		iv
ABSTRAC	T		•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		v
Chapter																						
I.	INTROD	UCTI	101	۷.	•			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•			•	•	•		l
II.	REVIEW	OF	IJ	T	ER/	TI	JR	Ε.	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•		5
III.	METHOD		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•			•		21
IV.	RESULT	s.	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•		•	32
٧.	CONCLU	SION	IS	AN	D	RE	ECO	OM	ÆI	ADIA	T	101	VS	•	•	•		•	•	•		41
BIBLIOGI	RAPHY.	•••	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•		•	•	•	•		45
APPENDIC	CES		•	•	•	•								•				•	•		•	51
VITA																						68

## LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
I.	Pre- and Post-test means	32
II.	Analysis of co-variance: parent-training groups .	33
III.	Pre-test items missed by fewer than three subjects	34
IV.	Items missed more frequently on post- than on pre-test	35
٧.	Mean scores on critical incidents	36
VI.	Relationship of mean scores by group	36

#### ABSTRACT

An Evaluation of the Effectiveness of Parent Training Programs in Changing Parent Behavior

by

Betty P. Janiak, Doctor of Philosophy Utah State University, 1975

Major Professor: Dr. Glendon Casto Department: Psychology

The effectiveness of two types of parent training were evaluated and compared with a control group that received no training. A Child Management Inventory was constructed for this purpose.

Parent Effectiveness Training was significantly superior to a training program developed by the Utah State Department of Education as measured by pre- and post-test criterion measure. There were no significant differences between the Utah State Department of Education group and the control group. This was determined by applying an analysis of covariance to the pre- and post-test data from all three groups. However, on a follow-up critical incidents test the Utah State Department of Education group showed more persistance of the desired behaviors than the Parent Effectiveness Training group or the control group three months after the completion of the initial study.

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No clear-cut conclusions were made as to the effectiveness of one program over the other based on the data. Both programs, however, showed changes over the control group. Further research in the area of the effectiveness of parent training groups was recommended.

(74 pages)

#### CHAPTER I

#### INTRODUCTION

In recent years psychologists and educators as well as social workers and juvenile court workers have become increasingly concerned about the swelling numbers of children with problems. These include delinquents, non-learners and children with emotional problems. In addition they are concerned over the increased divorce rate, job dissatisfaction, and increased violence among adults—all symptoms of psychological problems for which society has not yet found a solution.

Although the National Institute of Mental Health estimates that 10 percent of public school children are emotionally disturbed and in need of psychological help a large portion of the counties in the United States have no facilities with which to provide help (NIMH, 1965). It was not the policy of most school systems to furnish psychological services for maladjusted children in the elementary schools in 1964 (Gordon) and the situation has not changed appreciably today.

Theorists and researchers in child development repeatedly indicate that one of the most significant determiners affecting a child's personality as well as his future mental health is the relationship between parent and child (Haynes, 1972). Parent behavior is a significant determiner of a child's behavior. Attitudes toward or understanding of childrearing practices lead to behavior on the part of the parent which through parentchild interaction lead to behavioral and attitudinal changes on the part of the child (Hereford, 1963). These are some of the assumptions which have led professionals to involve parents in the treatment of children with emotional problems.

It is reasonable to assume that any program of education involving parent-child relations has as its goal a change in the behavior of the parents toward their children which result in a concommitant change in the child's behavior. Hereford (1963) has established that parent attitudes are significant determiners of a child's behavior. Yet little has been done to train parents for their role. The fact that parents are poorly prepared for their future as educators is generally recognized. Every trade or craft must be learned before it can be practiced; yet one of the most difficult of all, the task of rearing the young, is entrusted to persons who are utterly untrained to perform it (Donovan, 1968).

Noel Epstein made a similar charge at the White House Conference on Children in 1970 when he said that although some parents intuitively meet the needs of their infants and children, many parents do not recognize the importance of their role in the development of their child's identity. Despite the essential nature of that parental role, the training of human beings is left almost entirely to chance.

That parents do not concern themselves with changing childrearing practices unless they sense a problem is fairly evident.

There is a dearth of studies reported in the literature that deal with the training of parents of normal children and an increasing wealth of material that deals with the training of parents of children with problems, emotional, mental or physical.

In the past ten years strides have been made in many areas both to identify and provide services in the schools for children with emotional problems. However, this seems a bit like locking the barn after the horse is stolen. How much better it would be to find some effective way of working with parents <u>before</u> the children develop problems serious enough for them to be identified in school. This would remove the added burdens both for the teachers and the tax-payers in that the school system now must provide alternative situations to the regular classroom for these individuals.

Although individual counseling with parents has proven effective it has, because of the limitations of time and talent, meant responding only to the crisis situation. Then, too, parents are not given to seeking help unless there is a crisis, since the attitudes have not been developed that training is required to become a good parent. Training is only required to not become a bad parent.

It became evident to the researcher as she worked with parents of children in the public school system that there were few carefully researched parent training programs available. The purpose of this study therefore was to attempt to test some of the programs

and collect some data on the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of present programs so that better ones can be devised.

In order to collect this data the following hypotheses were to be tested:

1. Parents receiving training program I will show significantly higher post-test scores on a test instrument than will a control group.

2. Parents receiving training program II will show significantly higher post-test scores on a test instrument than will the parents in a control group.

3. Parents receiving training program I will show significantly higher post-test scores on a test instrument than will parents receiving training program II.

4. Parents receiving training programs I and II will show significantly higher post-test scores on a test instrument than will the parents in a control group.

#### CHAPTER II

#### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Various efforts have been made in recent years to train parents for their role. For the purpose of this review, they will be grouped in four categories: group discussion, training in behavior modification, Parent Effectiveness Training courses, and books and magazine articles.

#### Group Discussion

Typical of attempts to change parents by the group discussion method are the studies by Auerbach (1968) and Hereford (1963). Both used a modified classroom type of organization with bits of educational information interspersed with discussion of individual problems within the group.

Hereford conducted a four-year study on the relationship between parents' attitude changes and changes in a child's behavior. He used the group-discussion method paired with a group given articles and books to read and a control group who received no instruction or material to read. Using an attitude scale which he devised he concluded that parent attitudes can and do change via participation in a group discussion program. He also concluded that reading literature in and of itself does not produce change in parental attitudes and behavior. Shapiro (1954) did a similar study to determine the effectiveness of the group discussion method in relation to parental attitude changes which used tests devised by Shobin, Harris, Hough and Martin. These were administered to two groups, experimental and control. The experimental group met for twelve sessions. As a result Shapiro concluded that parents in the experimental group showed changes toward a more democratic approach to childrearing. He also found that parents attending four or more meetings made greater changes than those who attended fewer meetings.

Negative results were reported in a similar study done by the Child Study Association of America and the Westport-Weston Mental Health Association (1959). The study was based on an experimental and control group from parents who volunteered to join the program. The purpose of the study was twofold, 1) to provide parents with a sound educational program and 2) to study and evaluate the program offered. Parents were randomly selected with 16 in the experimental group and 12 in the control group. Those parents who were the controls were offered the discussion group at a later time. Both groups were pre- and post-tested. The test instruments which were used were items to measure problemsolving ability and decision-making skills designed by the researchers. The findings indicated that the parent-discussion group failed to change significantly the characteristics of parent decision-making or to influence other personal and social characteristics of participating parents.

Auerbach (1968) reports another research project done by the Child Study Association of America-Family Service Association. The purposes of this study were to evaluate the effect of the training program on trainers, to evaluate changes in the parents who attended groups led by the trainers, and to evaluate the impact of the program on the family agencies themselves. Group meetings were held by trainers (usually social workers) with parents to discuss problem situations and to impart information on child development and childrearing. Results were measured by questionnaires and interviews with the participants. The conclusions derived were: 1) both parents and trainers felt that the program was more than moderately helpful in increasing their knowledge about the parent-child relationship as well as their attitudes toward the parent-child relationship. 2) Parents were slightly more positive in their evaluations than the trainers. 3) Both parents and trainers felt most improvement was experienced in relation to new knowledge gained and least in terms of new behavior.

Ambinder presents the results of one discussion-type program dealing with foster parents of children with deviant behaviors in the Journal of School Health (1970). In addition to extremely close casework and supervision of both the children and foster parents, there were scheduled group meetings for foster parents with much of the discussion geared to problems of understanding and coping with child behavior. The purpose of the study was to determine if changes in the foster parents' techniques of management occurred

over a period of time when the foster parents were being "educated" in management techniques. Ten children and their foster families were used in the study. Over the period of time that the group discussions were held, caseworkers collected very detailed reports of incidents relating to parental handling of "crisis" events. Each event was typed on a separate sheet of paper and given to two psychologists to rate the parental handling of each incident on three scales: 1) effectiveness of techniques, 2) communication, and 3) relationship. It was concluded that there was no improvement in the foster parents' behavioral management of the children.

Wildman (1965) presents an education program for parents of retarded children which concentrates on giving information as well as role playing and sociodrama situations. However, she made no attempt at evaluation and made no comment on the effectiveness of the program.

Bryant (1971), Scheinfeld (1970), and Radin (1969) all present material from counseling either with individuals or with families. Only Radin's work has an experimental design. She took three matched groups of 12 disadvantaged high-ability students who had previously participated in a pre-school program. One group, the control, had only the regular kindergarten program. Group I children had a supplementary kindergarten program in addition to the regular program four half-days a week plus biweekly homevisits from a counselor for the mothers. Group II children had only the regular program and the supplementary program. This program, the Supplementary Kindergarten Intervention Program, was developed in the Ypsilanti Public

Schools as a follow-up program for Head Start. It supplemented the regular kindergarten program and focused on cognitive areas delineated by Piaget, such as classification, seriation, and representation. The class met four half-days a week during the time when the regular kindergarten was not in session. There was a morning and an afternoon session. Six children from group I and six children from group II were in each session. Using the Stanford-Binet, the Metropolitan Reading Readiness Test and the Cognitive Home Environment Scale, Radin reports significant increases in the Group I children over Groups II and III, the control group, in both IQ score and in percentile rank on the reading readiness test.

Anderson (1971) conducted groups for parents of minimally braindamaged children which stressed sharing of experiences and suggestions for solutions to problems at the St. Christopher's Corrective Learning Center in Lubbock, Texas. No reliable measure of the success of the program has been made but the author reports that the staff at the Learning Center feels that the groups are a necessary adjunct to their programs for children.

Kahn (1968), O'Connell (1972), Ohlsen (1964, 1972), and Satir (1967) all discuss the counseling of parents within the programs on which they are reporting. Here again there is general agreement that the prognosis for the child is better if the parent is acceptant and involved. All of these writers related changes in the child's behavior directly to changes in parent attitudes and behavior although none have established the fact experimentally.

It is clear from the literature presented that more studies need to be done which are carefully designed so that there is objective evidence of success. Too many are reporting what researchers think rather than presenting measurable evidence of behavior change.

#### Behavior Modification

Some of the most extensive training of parents has been done by the advocates of behavior modification. In most cases these training sessions have been planned carefully with an experimental design and are so reported. However, here again the main thrust of training has been toward parents of children with some type of handicap. The works by Galloway and Galloway (1970, 1971), Lindsley (1966), McIntire (1970), Vallett (1969), and Walder (1969) are perhaps the few exceptions. Of these, the Lindsley report is the only example with an experimental design. The other three are handbooks written for parents explaining the steps in behavior modification.

Lindsley's work is typical of the kind of work done in behavior modification. He is primarily concerned with teaching parents the process of precision teaching. The steps in this procedure are generally to pinpoint the problem behavior, chart its frequency and then change the contingencies either before or after the behavior occurs until the behavior is extinguished or the desired behavior is obtained. A more complete description of these steps may be found in Morrey's research (1970). Lindsley worked with a group of parents

to teach them these principles. He measured the changes in behavior which the parents were able to effect in their children and on the basis of these results drew the conclusion that parents can be taught behavior management and that the method was effective in changing behavior. He did not compare the group with either another type of parent training or with a control group. He relied on the data presented on children's behavior change to demonstrate that the procedure was effective.

A well-documented example of the literature available on teaching parents of handicapped children precise behavior management techniques is Morrey's study (Morrey, 1970 and Rickert & Morrey, 1970). His research was designed to explore the effects on parents and children of training parents in the use and application of a behavior management system. A letter explaining the program and inviting participation was sent to 75 families of educable and trainable mentally retarded children in Cache County, Utah. Twenty families were represented at the initial meeting, however, only six families continued to participate. The author, basing conclusions on the data gathered from these six families concluded that parents can learn and apply the techniques of precise behavior management and use these techniques to alter the behavior of their children.

It should be noted in passing that Morrey reports on another similar study in training precise behavior management conducted by Ogden Lindsley in which 70 percent of the parents who signed up "never came, dropped out or did not try." These two studies in

addition to the one which follows suggest that one of the problems with this type of parent training is to get the parents to continue through the training. One cannot learn new techniques if one is not there to be taught.

A very interesting program was developed by Latham and Hofmeister (1973). They developed a training package to be used with parents located in remote areas and to be supervised by public health nurses and social workers rather than special educators. The program consisted of a four-part slide-sound presentation to be given twice a week over a two-week period. The material covered a) behaviors, b) cues, c) reinforcement and d) programming and record-keeping. The study involved 40 sets of parents of pre-school aged mentally retarded and multiply handicapped children randomly assigned by couples to experimental and control groups. (Note: again attrition was high. Ten sets in the experimental group, or fifty percent, were unable to complete the program for "a variety of personal reasons.") Children were pre-tested once and post-tested 3 times over a two-month period using the Student Progress Record (State of Oregon, 1970). Ability was measured in eight skill areas, self-feeding, toileting, handwashing, toothbrushing, removing coat, putting on coat, putting on stockings, putting on shoes. The results supported the proposition that parents of preschool aged mentally retarded and multiply handicapped children can be taught via a mediated training program in the absence of professionally trained special educators to effectively teach their children basic self-help skills (Latham and Hofmeister, 1973).

Patterson (1973) has used behavior modification principles to attack the problem of family intervention and specifically the reprogramming of the families of aggressive boys. He states that families may reinforce the very behaviors which contribute to their own discomfort by functioning in an "irrational" manner. Based on the assumption that parents are the primary agents of change for behaviors occurring within the home, parents were trained in a repertoire of behaviors which could be called "parenting skills." Some of these skills were learning to observe and describe their child in behavioristic language, planning a program for behavior change, and learning to reinforce desired behavior with praise. In one study the parents of five out-of-control boys were trained in these skills. Data was collected by direct observation in the homes. Modest changes in observed rates of deviant child behavior were reported when comparing base line and termination data. A twelve-month follow-up with four of the families showed persistence of training effects for three of the families. Patterson also reported that an average of 22.8 hours of professional time were required to produce the above changes in both parent and child behavior. This would suggest that training programs must at a minimum allow for this much professional time in order to effect desired changes.

#### Parent Effectiveness Training Programs

There is a growing body of research on the effects of a particular kind of parent training based on the philosophy of Dr. Thomas Gordon which is gaining notice. Dr. Gordon explained his theories

in "A Theory of Healthy Relationships and A Program of Parent Effectiveness Training" in <u>New Directions in Client Centered Therapy</u> (1970). This particular training program, Parent Effectiveness Training, involves the teaching and practice of skills such as "active listening," "I messages," and resolution of difficulties in a workshop type of course where parents learn not only what to do but how to do it (Stearn, 1970). It is this practice element that makes the program different from the group-discussion type or behavior modification type of training. A more complete description of the program is contained in Chapter III.

Gordon maintains that specifically the most significant variables in the determination of the child's mental health are, on the one hand, the <u>attitudes</u> held by the parent and on the other hand, the <u>behavior</u> of the parent (Hart and Tomlinson, 1970). He proceeded to set forth a program first to change parent behavior with resultant changes in attitudes (Gordon, 1970).

Several studies have been done which involve the Parent Effectiveness Training program (P.E.T.) since 1969. Peterson (no date listed) worked with a group of 39 parents in a self-selected sample when the course was offered to the parents of junior high school students in Palo Alto, California. By the use of the Children's Report of Parent Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) and Parent Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) pre- and post-test measurements were made. (Becker, 1965, Schaefer, 1957). As a result of taking the P.E.T. class the parents scores significantly lower on the Authoritarian Control Scale of the

PARI and significantly higher on the Equalitarian Problem Solving and Attitude Toward Listening Scales. On the CRPBI the teenagers rated their parents significantly higher on the Acceptance of Individuation Scale. There was a significant decrease on the Hostile Detachment Scale and on the Extreme Autonomy Scale. From this data Peterson concluded that P.E.T. is able to reflect measurable attitude changes in parents in the direction of more constructive relationships with their children. Parents tend to be less authoritarian in their attitudes, more willing to listen to points of view expressed by their children which disagree with their own, more accepting of the occurance of conflict in the family relationships, and more willing to use a "no lose" method of resolving these family conflicts. Following their parents' participation in P.E.T. teenagers felt more accepted by them and experienced more positive involvement with them based on their ratings on the CRPBI (Peterson, no date listed).

Larson compared a P.E.T. approach with two other approaches to bringing about improved family communications along with resultant attitude and behavior changes in parent participants and observed changes in their children (1972). He also used parents of junior high school students who volunteered for one of three parent groups. The three approaches used were: 1) P.E.T., 2) an achievement motivation group where the focus was on strengths and how parents could add to their strengths through individual discovery and group reinforcement, and 3) a discussion encounter group where such topics as dating, hours, study habits, driving, dress and manners were discussed. Emphasis in this group was also placed on learning to express emotions directly to increase practical learning about human relationships according to the author. He used seven different instruments to collect his data, 1) a self-concept survey adapted from the Sears Self-Concept Inventory for Children, 2) a Parent Concern Survey adapted from Goal Attainment Scaling System of Kiresuk and Sherman (1970), 3) a checklist of problems, 4) the Hereford Parent Attitude Scale, 5) self-report logs, 6) Parent Concern Survey and 7) a final evaluation by parent participants. The author stated that not all instruments were used for all groups and he does not clearly indicate which instruments were used on which groups nor how he compared data collected from different groups with different instruments. He concluded however, that "P.E.T. appears to be superior to other methods of group work."

Haynes (1972), in a similar study compared a P.E.T. group with a lecture-discussion type of approach. Using a modified version of the Hereford Parent Attitude Survey in pre- and post-tests she concluded that P.E.T. results in improved parental attitudes toward childrearing and that this approach is more effective than an approach using lecture and discussion.

Garcia (1971) used a group of 33 parents from two P.E.T. classes. With the use of the Hereford Parent Attitude survey and P.E.T. Questionnaire Survey he concluded that P.E.T. can serve as a model of preventive parent education programs.

Lillibridge (1971) used two control groups to determine that P.E.T. graduates improved significantly by having more confidence in themselves, being more accepting of their children and more trusting of their children. Children of P.E.T. graduates perceived their parents as more accepting of them as individuals, less rejecting and "more generally accepting." The two control groups showed no changes on either scale. The Hereford Parent Attitude Survey and the Children's Report of Parent Behavior Inventory were the instruments used.

To measure parent attitudes, parent behavior and child selfesteem Stearn (1970) has also used two control groups. He used the Coopersmith Test to measure self-esteem, the Levinson Huffman Test on Traditional Family Ideology to measure autocratic-democratic attitudes, and the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory to measure empathy, congruence, level of regard and unconditionality of regard. Groups were pre- and post-tested with a follow-up test at the end of fourteen weeks. From this data he concluded that P.E.T. graduates are significantly more democratic in their attitudes toward family 14 weeks after starting the P.E.T. course as compared to two notraining control groups. However, there were no significant differences between the P.E.T. group and the two no-training control groups in the children's ratings of their parents' empathy, congruence, acceptance and positive regard.

Cline (1971) and Peircy and Bush (1971) have used P.E.T. principles in counseling situations to measure such things as empathy,

self-disclosure and defensiveness. In both cases results were significant in the direction of the P.E.T. principles.

Two studies are available which use the P.E.T. program in working with the handicapped. Both involve the staffs of state institutions. Kilburn, Gerard and Ray (1971) used the program to train the staff at the Porterville State Hospital, Porterville, California in an attempt to lessen problem situations and increase rapport between ward attendants and patients. Feedback from participants indicated that the format with emphasis on practice made the program inherently more meaningful. Evaluation was by interview and questionnaire from participating staff and based on achievement of participants. The authors reported that based on these factors the course was successful in improving relations on the ward and that those who took the course reported that they were using the techniques.

Willenson and Bisgaard (1970) did a similar study at the Brainerd State Hospital for the Mentally Retarded, Brainerd, Minnesota. Evaluation following the course reported a significant reduction in the use of commands by technicians and a reduction in ward tensions.

#### Books and Articles

Perhaps the earliest attempts to change parent behavior were books and articles which have been published on the subject over the years. Some of the best examples of these writings are those by Baruch (1949), Dreikurs (1964) and Ginott (1965, 1969, 1973). These works have generally been written by child psychologists and other experts in the field of child development based on years of experience in working with children and their parents. Many of these books present excellent theoretical material and, in fact, Gordon drew heavily from such writers and from Rogers (1951, 1961) in developing his P.E.T. program.

Some general principles which all of these experts seem to agree upon are: 1) that children can be guided by parents with a minimum of punishment and a maximum of positive reinforcement, 2) that this type of child management produces more productive adults with fewer hostile feelings and in general makes life with children more pleasant and productive for all, 3) that power is unimportant in controlling children's behavior, 4) that communication and love between children and parents are important, 5) that parents who would raise children without serious hang-ups must themselves be relatively free of serious hang-ups and 6) that democracy in the home is superior to authoritarianism. Several books in addition to the ones mentioned above are listed in the bibliography.

There is no supporting evidence to attest to the effectiveness of this kind of material in changing parent behavior. Hereford's study suggests that reading articles and books in and of themselves does not change parent attitudes and behavior. From this one may conclude that this kind of parent training is relatively ineffective.

In summary, then, although a fair amount of material has been written with the idea of training parents much of it has not been adequately tested to see if it really is effective. Many of the studies reported are based on subjective evaluations which cannot be considered concrete evidence of the success of the programs reported. There is a need for the collection of some data that will provide a basis for developing effective parent training programs.

#### CHAPTER III

#### METHOD

Because of the need for changing the behavior of children before the behavior develops into serious problems a need was seen for parent training programs which will help parents make these changes in the behavior of children. There has been little attempt at evaluation of the kinds of programs which are presently available to parents so it was decided to evaluate two types of programs against a control group to determine if either program made significant changes in the parents' behavior which would result in changes in the children's behavior.

#### Sample

As an initial step in determining the effectiveness of parent training programs it was decided to limit this study to the comparison of one other type of program with the P.E.T. program and a control group. Three groups were selected from available groups in the area.

One P.E.T. class was selected from Tooele, Utah. This class was offered to parents of public school children who qualified for title I funding. These were then low-income families of public school children. The total costs of the program were funded through the school district. Parents in this program were not charged for participating. There were 22 in the class initially.

Ten were men and 12 were women. All were from low-income families and all had more than one child. Most of the mothers were not working outside the home and the fathers held blue-collar type jobs or operated small businesses. None of the participants had college training. Some of the men had taken training beyond high school as required for their jobs, such as insurance training programs. All were strongly influenced by the local religious culture which stresses the family and good parenting but with an authoritarian patriarchal structure. All members of the class fell in the 35-45 age group. This class was designated Group I.

Group II were enrolled in a slide-tape program developed by the Utah State Department of Education. They were enrolled in the night school program of Weber School District, Ogden, Utah for credit and were charged for the course according to the night school policy. They were also low-income families. There were 12 in the group, two being men and ten, women. Most of the group had only one child. Two in the group had more than one. All except two were between the ages of 15-30. Several of the mothers in the group depended on welfare funds for support.

Group III, the control group, was a neighborhood group which met primarily for recreation and socialization. All were middle income families in the 35-45 age group. There were 15 in the group. Seven were men and eight were women. All of this group had two or more children. All lived within a block of each other. Some of this group had had college training. None of the mothers worked

outside the home. All were strongly influenced by the local religious culture which stresses the family and good parenting, but with an authoritarian patriarchal family structure, as mentioned above. This group was chosen although they were meeting together in order to rule out any Hawthorne effect that might have been present if the control group had been chosen to meet only for this study.

It may be assumed that this group was somewhat different just because they were meeting and interested enough to do so on their own. Instrumentation

The search for an adequate instrument with which to measure change presented a major problem. According to Becker and Krug (1965) the Hereford Attitude Survey which was used in many of the studies reviewed was not a reliable or valid instrument. Although presented by Hereford in his study as having .80 split-half reliability and various other statistics, he gave no measure of its validity. He credits 52 of his 77 items, that is more than two-thirds of the items, to Schaefer and Bell's Parent Attitude Research Instrument (PARI). Becker and Krug (1965) in their research review of this particular instrument state that the bulk of evidence suggests that "the PARI does not predict much very well" and that research on the PARI indicates doubt concerning the significance of findings when this instrument is used. They did indicate that the PARI does seem to identify families of juvenile delinquents from normal families provided the families are closely matched middle-class families. Since the bulk of Hereford's survey instrument was taken from the PARI it was assumed that the same criticisms could be applied to it.

Any measures such as the Children's Reports of Parent Behavior Inventory (Schaefer, 1965) were rejected for two reasons: 1) they are time consuming both to administer and to score and 2) the scoring is not very objective.

After eliminating the two available measures of change because of their lack of validity and statistical significance and the CRPBI because of length (the inventory consists of 18 scales designed to measure children's perceptions of parental attitudes) and lack of objectivity in scoring, it was decided to develop a 50-question multiple choice inventory covering items of child management which reflect generally accepted child guidance principles taught in the two training courses to be compared. The following sequence of activities directed the development of this instrument (Travers, 1950).

First the educational goals were summarized for both programs in a series of statements. Those for the P.E.T. training program were: 1) to develop in parents the ability to respond to feeling levels when children have problems, 2) to develop in parents the ability to communicate with their children, 3) to develop in parents the ability to modify the behavior of others (specifically children) that is unacceptable to them, 4) to develop in parents the ability to resolve conflicts with their children in ways that are acceptable to both parents and children, 5) to develop in parents the ability to recognize and accept their own feelings and those of their children, 6) to develop in parents the ability to help children develop effective problem-solving techniques. Goals for the Utah State Department of Education Program, <u>Parents</u> and the <u>Developing Child</u>, were the same with one additional goal: to develop in parents an understanding of the development and maturation processes which a child goes through. Although the goals are not stated in behavioral terms the goal of both programs was to effect behavioral changes in the parents that would reflect in changed behavior in the child.

These goals were then submitted to an instructor for the appropriate program to determine if they were in fact seen by these instructors as goals of the respective programs. The P.E.T. goals were submitted to Dr. Robert Card, a clinical psychologist in practice in Salt Lake City, Utah, and an instructor of the P.E.T. program. He agreed that these were the goals of the P.E.T. program. Mr. Dennis Hogge, a Secondary Specialist for the Weber School District, a counselor and teacher who has taught the Utah State Department program, checked the goals for that program and agreed that they were the goals.

Then a series of behaviors which characterize the individual in whom the goals have been achieved were developed. From this list problem situations were developed which would test each of the goals. Appendix A shows which of the test questions measure which goal. No questions were developed to measure goal 7 of the Utah State Department program so as not to penalize the P.E.T. group since material concerning that goal was not a planned part of that program. Items were phrased in such a way as to measure ways that parents would

apply these principles in dealing with problem situations rather than simple factual knowledge.

The test was then submitted to Dr. Glendon Casto, a child psychologist and associate director of the Exceptional Child Center at Utah State University for suggestions and improvements. The items were checked for clarity and ease of understanding and revised according to his suggestions. The final form that was used will be found in Appendix B. The text will henceforth be referred to as the Child Management Inventory (CMI). A pre-post-test correlation coefficient of reliability of 0.93 was determined.

All groups were pre- and post-tested with the Child Management Inventory. The Inventory was given as a part of the first and last classes of the P.E.T. and Utah State Department of Education programs and at the beginning and end of the approximately 24 class hours that the control group met.

#### Programs

The Parent Effectiveness Training program consisted of 8 weekly sessions of three hours each. The classes were only taught by instructors certified by Effectiveness Training Associates (ETA) and who have completed ETA's instructor's training program.

Dr. Gordon developed this program following years in private practice when he became convinced that the focus of helping families should be on the <u>parent</u> rather than the child, on <u>prevention</u> rather than treatment and on <u>training</u> and <u>re-education</u> rather than therapy (Information brochure on ETA and its educational programs). Much of Dr. Gordon's work is an outgrowth of his practice of the Client-Centered Therapy of Carl Rogers (Hart and Tomlinson, 1970). He felt that parents not only need to know what to do but how to do it and so his program stresses actual practice of the skills of "active listening," "I messages," and the "no lose" method of problem solving. Following is a resume' of the course content as listed in the P.E.T. Instructor's Manual:

Session 1 discusses acceptance and unacceptance, pinpoints behavior, how to determine who owns the problem. Parents are taught empathic listening, or "active listening."

Session 2 provides skill practice in active listening using role playing and real parent problems. There is discussion of the twelve roadblocks to effective communication. Parents learn how to identify these roadblocks and also how to give feedback.

Session 3 gives added practice in active listening and introduces confrontation skills, sending "I messages."

Session 4 covers different methods of conflict resolution and begins skill practice in democratic problem-solving.

Session 5 discusses authoritarian versus permissive methods of childrearing and introduces the "no lose" method of conflict resolution.

Session 6 presents how to deal with value collisions, identification of value conflicts, how to model behavior, how to be a consultant to your child.

Session 7 discusses qualitative time uses to provide one-to-one time with children, time for tasks and individual time.

Session 8 practices skills learned, gives final summation of the course and predictions of changed behavior.

The slide-tape course for the Utah State Department of Education called, <u>Parents and the Developing Child</u>, draws heavily from the works of Gordon, Dreikurs, Ginott, and Eric H. Erikson. It also consists of eight weekly lessons, each lesson being approximately three hours in length.

The material for each lesson is presented by motivational soundfilmstrips. These are about twenty minutes in length and show examples of the principles which are discussed on the tapes. Discussion follows and then application activities are worked on in groups. These activities are found for each lesson in the guideworkbook.

Session 1 is entitled "Children Are Individuals." It discusses the influences of heredity, environment and the interrelationship of the two on the individual child. Ideas are presented to show how parents can allow a child's individuality to develop and ways to avoid stifling him.

Session 2 discusses growth, maturation and learning, how they are interrelated and their effects on the child and his family. Cautions are presented to help parents avoid expecting behavior of a child that he is not maturationally able to do.

Session 3 presents the stages of development from the prenatal stage through infancy to about 6 years of age. Emphasis is placed on the kinds of behavior parents can expect from their child at various stages of development.

Session 4 discusses the middle years and adolescence. Again emphasis is placed on the kinds of behavior typical of the stages. Problems which may occur and which may be developmentally related are discussed.

Session 5 is entitled "Fostering Communication" and discusses the characteristics of active listening and I messages. The importance of maintaining good communication with children is stressed.

Session 6 discusses family discipline as a means of teaching children proper behavior. It presents ways of dealing with problems without the use of physical punishment. The desirability of maintaining discipline by positive means rather than negative means is stressed.

Session 7 discusses social development in the child and ways to aid him in developing social skills. The need for adequate social skills is emphasized in order that the child may develop his full potential as a social being. Social skills are related to self-image.

Session 8 is devoted to ways to put theory into actions. Suggested solutions for a variety of problems which parents may run into in bringing up children are given. The need for good communication is reemphasized and both active listening and I messages are reviewed.

Although both programs draw from the same theory sources and have the same overall goals the techniques of presentation are quite different. The P.E.T. program emphasized the development of skills of active listening and I messages while the State Department program is more concerned with presenting information. The program for the control group consisted of recreation and homemaking activities of their own choice. Topics discussed usually centered around homemaking or church activities. The group had been meeting frequently but not always regularly for some time before this study began. After they had met together the necessary number of hours following the pre-test, the post-test was administered and a discussion group held for those who were interested.

Following the collection of data from all three groups the inventories were hand-scored and the data compiled by groups. Scores were matched on pre- and post-tests and the pre-test scores for those who dropped out were eliminated. In Group I 19 subjects completed the course. In Group II 10 subjects completed the course. In Group III 13 subjects completed the course.

Means were computed for each group for both the pre- and posttests. These were analyzed for significant differences. Then an analysis of covariance was done using the computer under the direction of Mr. Ron Thorkildson of the Exceptional Child Center.

The following hypotheses were tested:

1. Parents receiving the Parent Effectiveness Training program will show significantly higher post-test scores on the CMI than will parents in the control group.

2. Parents receiving the Utah State Department of Education program will show significantly higher post-test scores on the CMI than will the parents in the control group. 3. Parents receiving the Parent Effectiveness Training program will show significantly higher post-test scores on the CMI than will parents in the Utah State Department of Education training program.

4. Parents receiving the Parent Effectiveness Training program and parents receiving the Utah State Department of Education training program will show significantly higher post-test scores on the CMI than will the parents in the control group.

#### Follow-up

Three months after the initial study was completed a follow-up study was made to determine if the gains shown in the study would persist. Five critical incidents were developed which were based on the common goals of the two programs. Subjects were asked to either agree or disagree with the way the parent in the incident handled the situation. If the subject disagreed he was then asked to indicate how he would have handled the situation. The Critical Incidents Exercise will be found in Appendix C along with a scoring explanation.

Five members of each group were contacted and asked to complete the Critical Incidents Exercise. The instructors were asked to submit five or more names to the researcher. Each subject was contacted in the order listed until five had been reached. Following the completion of the Critical Incidents Exercise scoring was done based on the evaluation of answers as discussed in Appendix C and a mean score for each group on each question was computed. These scores were then graphed to determine which group had more correct responses in the direction of the norm. On the basis of these results it was determined which group showed a persistance of the skills learned in the initial training course.

#### CHAPTER IV

#### RESULTS

To test the effect of the various programs pre- and post-tests were administered to the three groups. Following the completion of the training programs the post-test was administered to all subjects. After scoring both the pre- and post-tests the means were computed for each group as indicated in Table I.

#### TABLE I

Group		Pre-test	Post-test	
1.	P.E.T.	28.42	43.84	
2.	U.S.D.E.P.	32.00	33.3	
3.	Control	33.46	35.46	

Pre- and Post-Test Means

Table I shows that all groups made gains from pre-to post-test. The mean gain for the P.E. T. group was much greater than for the other two groups.

After computation of the means the post-test data was corrected for any initial differences between the groups and an adjusted analysis of covariance was then determined. This procedure was under the direction of Mr. Ron Thorkildson of the Exceptional Child Center and involved the use of the computer. Table II shows the results of this analysis.

#### TABLE II

Group	Adjusted Means	F
L. P.E.T.	44.97	*136.95
2. U.S.D.E.P.	32.75	
3. Control	34.23	

### Analysis of Co-Variance: Parent-Training Groups Post-Test Results

\* significant at the .001 level

Inspection of the data shows that the P.E.T. group showed significantly greater improvement over the other two groups in scores on the CMI. An F score greater than 27.2 was needed to show significance. This score is well above that level.

There was no significant difference in improvement between the Utah State Department of Education program and the Control Group. Additional statistical data may be found in Appendix E.

Hypothesis 1 that parents receiving the Parent Effectiveness Training program will show significantly higher scores on the CMI than will parents in the control group was supported.

Hypothesis 2 that parents receiving the Utah State Department of Education program will show significantly higher post-test scores on the CMI than will the parents in the control group was not supported.

Hypothesis 3 that parents receiving the Parent Effectiveness Training program will show significantly higher post-test scores on the CMI than will parents in the Utah State Department of Education training program was supported. Hypothesis 4 that parents receiving the Parent Effectiveness Training program and parents receiving the Utah State Department of Education training program will show significantly higher posttest scores on the CMI than will parents in the control group was not supported.

A modified item analysis was then conducted to determine differences between groups on clusters of test items. The errors on each inventory item were listed by subject and group and preand post-test results. The number of errors on each item was then computed by individual group and then the total number of errors on the item for the total pre-test group and for the total post-test group were found.

Examination of the total errors for each item on the pre-test identified items which were missed by less than three individuals. Table III presents the data on these items.

#### TABLE III

Pre-Test Items Missed by Fewer Than Three Subjects

Item	No. Missing
No.	Item
1	2
7	2
24	2
33	1
40	2
42	1

From Table III it may be seen that six items were missed by fewer than three subjects on the pre-test.

Further examination of the item analysis data identified items which were missed by more of the subjects on the post-test than on the pre-test. Table IV presents the results of this analysis.

Items Missed Mo	re Frequently on Post- Th	an on Pre-Test
Item No.	Missed Pre-Test	Missed Post-Test
4	31	32
19	21	22
29	29	31
40	2	3
49	33	36

TABLE IV

An inspection of Table IV shows that five items were missed by more subjects on the post-test than on the pre-test. Note that item number 40 appears in both Table III and Table IV. Further data on the item analysis will be found in Appendix D.

The data gathered from each group during the follow-up study was inspected and scored according to the scale in Appendix C. The mean scores for each group were then computed for each question. Table V presents these results.

Question	P.E.T.	U.S.D.E.P.	Control
1	3.8	4.4	3.4
2	2.2	1.4	1.8
3	3.0	3.4	3.2
4	4.0	5.0	3.2
5	2.0	1.0	1.0

Mean Scores on Critical Incidents

Five was the desired response on items 1, 3 and 4. One was the desired response on items 2 and 5. To further aid in the interpretation of this data Table VI presents the mean scores for each group on a graph with the desired response indicated.

TABLE VI

	Re	elat:	ionsh	ip of	Mea	n Sco	ores b	y Gro	oup			
	Score	1	1	2		1	3	Ŧ		4	1	5
Questio	n —											
1								Ø	+		0	7
2	*	0.0	0	¢	+							
3							+	ØO				+
4	al otrain	10	1. 2. 1. 8	1.1.1.1.1		1.1.1.1		¢		+		0
5	*	Oø		+								

+ = P.E.T. Group

0 = U.S.D.E.P.

¢ = Control

\* = direction of desired response

Inspection of Table VI indicates that 5 was the desired response for question number 1. The U.S.D.E.P. Group mean was further in the direction of the correct response than was the P.E.T. Group or the Control Group. One was the desired response for question 2. The U.S.D.E.P. Group and the Control Group means were further in the direction of the correct response than the P.E.T. Group.

Five was the desired response for question 3. The U.S.D.E.P. Group and the P.E.T. Group were further in the direction of the desired response than the Control Group. However, all three groups clustered around a mean of 3.0 which suggests that none of the groups were clearly in the direction of the correct response.

Five was the desired response for question 4. Again the U.S.D.E.P. Group mean was further in the direction of the correct response than was the P.E.T. or the Control Group.

One was the desired response for question 5. Both the U.S.D.E.P. Group and the Control Group means were further in the direction of the correct response than was the P.E.T. Group.

This data indicates that the U.S.D.E.P. Group showed more of the desired responses on the Critical Incidents Exercise than did the P.E.T. Group or the Control Group. This indicates that there was more persistance of the skills learned in the U.S.D.E.P. program than of the skills learned in the P.E.T. program.

One factor which may account for the greater persistence of the behaviors in the U.S.D.E.P. group may be that the State Department group was much younger than the P.E.T. Group. Therefore they may have been more open to trying out new ideas in childrearing than the P.E.T. Group. The P.E.T. Group being older, may have found it more difficult to change existing patterns of childrearing.

Another factor may be that the U.S.D.E.P. Group had only one child whereas the P.E.T. Group had two or more children. Therefore the childrearing practices of the P.E.T. group may have been more firmly established. Since the practices which were already established seemed to work fairly well for those parents, i.e. none of the children had serious problems, the parents may have found it difficult to change. The U.S.D.E.P. parents, having only one child did not have firmly fixed ideas on childrearing and therefore may have been more open to trying new suggestions than were the P.E.T. parents.

A third factor may be that the local religious culture which encourages an authoritarian patriarchal family structure precluded any permanent gains being made by the P.E.T. Group. Behaviors persist which are rewarded, and behaviors antipathetic to the goals established by the P.E.T. program may be rewarded by the culture. This would not be a factor with the U.S.D.E.P. Group since most of those parents were not a part of or were antagonistic to the local religious culture.

The change in direction by the groups as shown in the follow-up study also suggests the necessity of some sort of follow-up training at intervals for parents in both training programs in order to maintain gains made initially.

There is also indication of the importance of parent training either before the first child is born or soon thereafter so that undesirable parenting habits will not become fixed.

The limitations of the study need to be pointed out and taken into account when interpreting the data. One limitation is the manner

in which groups were obtained. Parents should have been randomly assigned to both treatment groups and the control group.

Another limitation is that no attempt was made to match groups for number, sex, age, number of children, family income, or other factors which may have influenced the results. The parents who received the Utah State Department of Education Program were generally much younger than the parents in the other two groups and this may have accounted for some of the results obtained.

Another problem is that no attempt was made to correct for the effect of two different instructors for the groups. Although both groups were taught by qualified instructors there is no way to measure or correct for differences in personality and teaching style. The assumption was that each was competent to do his job or that each had received training in the particular program.

Furthermore, the research instrument is new and not sufficiently tested to be a reliable measure at this point. A revision needs to be done and the items listed in Table III and Table IV eliminated. The items which fewer than three subjects missed on the pre-test may be assumed to be common knowledge or could be easily guessed and therefore serve no purpose in the inventory. The items which were missed more frequently on the post-test than on the pre-test seemingly correlate negatively with the content of the courses and also serve no useful purpose in the inventory.

No attempt was made to measure changes in behavior of parents toward their children. This could best be accomplished by direct

observation. Inventories and questionnaires do not directly and concretely reflect behavior.

Because of the limitations of this study no clear-cut conclusions can be made as to the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of the programs evaluated. One can conclude from the follow-up data that either program is better than no program since in most instances the two study groups had mean scores further in the direction of the accepted response than did the control group.

#### CHAPTER V

#### CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study was concerned with the effectiveness of parent training groups in changing parent behaviors. Two types of training programs were evaluated against a control group that received no training. The two training programs used were 1) the Parent Effectiveness Training program developed by Dr. Thomas Gordon and 2) a slide-tape program developed by the Utah State Department of Education called <u>Parents and the Developing Child</u>. Both groups met for eight three hour sessions. The control group met for an equivalent number of hours but engaged in recreational or homemaking activities rather than parent training. All subjects in all groups were parents of one or more children.

The review of literature indicated that parental behavior and attitudes are significantly related to child behavior. Experts in child development seem to agree that some parental attitudes and childrearing practices foster a healthier atmosphere for child growth than do others. The research indicated, however, that much more effort has been made to improve parenting with the parents of children with problems than with parents of so-called normal children. There is some evidence of success in changing parents' childrearing practices through group discussion, however, the greatest amount of research has been reported in programs which teach parents the methods of precise

behavior management. Some studies were reported using the P.E.T. model but only two of these, Haynes' (1972) and Larson's (1972) make any attempt to evaluate the P.E.T. program against any other type of training program.

The study was undertaken to evaluate two different parent training programs against a control group to determine the effectiveness of these programs and to collect data which may be of assistance in planning future parent training programs.

To do this a 50-question multiple choice inventory was developed which measured parents' responses to situations relating to the common goals of the two training programs. A follow-up study was conducted three months after the completion of the initial study to determine if the same responses would be given.

The findings of the initial study indicate that Parent Effectiveness Training results in significantly improved childrearing behaviors as indicated by post-test responses on the Child Management Inventory. The P.E.T. program was significantly superior to the U.S.D.E.P. program at least initially in teaching desired behaviors as indicated by responses on the post-test.

However, the follow-up study data indicates that the persistance of these behaviors was more frequently in the desired direction for the U.S.D.E.P. program than for the P.E.T. program when assessed by a critical incident technique.

#### Recommendations

More research in the area of the effectiveness of parent training programs is needed so that both parents and instructors are assured

that time and money invested in such programs will be well spent and that desired results can be achieved.

Since the programs evaluated in this study have a better holding power than the reports of some of the behavior modification training programs as reported in Chapter II, it would be well for both programs to be examined and the best of each combined in one. Behaviors cannot be changed unless parents attend the sessions.

The effect of the child on the parent also needs to be investigated since this seems to be frequently overlooked. Communication is a twoway street with the outcome being determined by both parties in relation to each other, not by the effect only of one party on the other.

More effort is needed on the part of educators and child guidance specialists to train prospective parents for their job. This is a vital need in today's society if it is to make the fullest use of the individual. Society cannot afford to have creativity and talent stifled by parents whose only training for their task is that they grew up in a family.

Some type of training program such as the two evaluated here would seem to be a natural supplementary type of program for the public schools. High schools could and should offer courses in parent training for teenagers, both boys and girls so that they will be prepared for the job which for many is but a few years away. The elementary school could well provide parent training through the PTA with emphasis on attracting the parents of kindergarteners so that positive changes could be effected as early as possible in the lives of children.

Both programs of parent training should develop follow-up programs so that parents will be encouraged to continue changes which were learned in initial courses.

Continued evaluation of programs offered is a must to provide a basis for change and to measure behavioral change in the parents taking the programs.

The final and yet perhaps the most important recommendation concerns a replication of this study. Should it be attempted it would be vital to field test each training program first to determine if either teaches what it purports to teach. Only in this way could the researcher be sure that the programs do train parents in changed behavior.

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#### APPENDIX A

### GOALS FOR P.E.T. TRAINING PROGRAM

- 1. To develop in parents the ability to respond to feeling levels when children have problems.
- 2. To develop in parents the ability to communicate with their children.
- 3. To develop in parents the ability to modify the behavior of others (specifically children) that is unacceptable to them.
- 4. To develop in parents the ability to resolve conflicts with their children in ways that are acceptable to both parents and children.
- 5. To develop in parents the ability to recognize and accept their own feelings and those of their children.
- 6. To develop in parents the ability to help children develop effective problem-solving techniques.

#### GOALS FOR U.S.D.E.P. TRAINING PROGRAM

#### All of the above plus the following:

7. To develop in parents an understanding of the development and maturation processes which a child goes through.

#### INVENTORY ITEMS RELATING TO GOALS

#### Goal

#### Items

6, 7, 8, 9, 27, 32, 33, 35, 37
 22, 23, 28, 29, 30, 31, 34, 38, 39
 10, 11, 12, 13, 24, 25, 26, 45
 3, 4, 5, 36, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50
 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 44
 1, 2, 40, 41, 42, 43

#### APPENDIX B

#### CHILD MANAGEMENT INVENTORY

This is a test to see how much information you have concerning methods of child management. Read each statement carefully and place the letter of the correct response in the blank beside the number.

- c 1. Parents should always:
  - a) provide children with solutions to their problems.
  - b) tell children exactly what to do.
  - c) help children learn problem-solving techniques so they can find their own solutions.
  - d) let children find their own solutions by trial and error and punish them if they make a wrong choice.
- c 2. There is always:
  - a) one best and correct solution to every problem.
  - b) only one correct solution to every problem.
  - c) a variety of acceptable alternatives to every problem.
  - d) the parents' solution to a problem which the child should accept.

a 3. A value collision refers to:

- a) differences in beliefs held by two people.
- b) a clash of wills between parent and child.
- c) differences in estimating the cost of therapy.
- b 4.
- . Values always directly and concretely affect:
  - a) everyone in the family.
  - b) only the person who holds the values.
  - c) only those persons in the same group.
  - d) only the children.
- b 5. Values cannot easily be changed, therefore parents should:
  - a) demand adherance of all children to values held by the parents.
  - b) agree to disagree in areas of value conflict and learn to live with the differences.
  - c) conduct an active campaign to "sell" their values to other members of the family.
  - d) make anyone who does not hold the same values as the parent move out of the house.

- d 6. Some symptoms that a child may be having a problem are:
  - a) he pouts more easily.
  - b) he is short-tempered.
  - c) he cries more easily.
  - d) all of the above.
- d 7. When a child is having a problem it is best for the parent to:
  - a) ignore him completely.
  - b) be too busy to listen.
  - c) tell him how stupid he is not to see the correct solution.
  - d) actively listen and give feed-back so he knows you understand, then help him find his own solution.
- a 8. When a child shows he has a problem by swearing or bad language the parent should:
  - a) ignore the swearing or bad language for the time being and try to reflect the problem and the feelings.
  - b) ignore the underlying problem and deal immediately and severely with the bad language.
  - c) ignore both the bad language and the problem and try to discuss them at a later time.
  - d) tell him how silly he is to be upset by such little things.
- a 9. When there is a tension-causing situation at home it is important to determine:
  - a) who owns the problem.
  - b) that it's not your fault.
  - c) that the child is to blame.
  - d) who got upset first.
- b 10. Raising children who are responsible, self-disciplined and cooperative without relying on the weapon of fear:
  - a) is impossible for most parents.
  - b) is possible for most parents.
  - c) is totally impossible.
  - b 11. How to influence children to behave out of genuine consideration for the needs of parents rather than out
    - of fear of punishment or withdrawal of privileges:
    - a) cannot be learned by most parents.
    - b) can be learned fairly easily by most parents.
    - c) can only be learned through expensive training by most parents.

- b 12. Most adolescents:
  - a) rebel against their parents.
  - b) rebel against destructive methods of discipline.
  - c) enjoy turmoil and dissention.
  - d) want to run their families their way.
- In settling differences between parents and children: d 13.
  - a) parents shoud always "win" in order to maintain discipline.
  - b) children can sometimes "win".
  - c) children should always "win".
  - d) neither side needs to "win".
- c 14. Parents should:
  - a) forget they are persons in their own right.
  - b) preserve their authority carefully.
  - c) remember that they, too, are human.
- d 15. Good parents should:
  - a) always be consistent.
  - b) always be fair.
  - c) always put their own needs aside.
  - d) admit their humanness.
- a 16. In being a good parent it is essential to learn:
  - a) to know what you are feeling.
  - b) to ignore your feelings.
  - c) to hide your true feelings from your children.
  - d) to always have the proper feelings.
- Good parents: d 17.
  - a) feel equally accepting of all children.

  - b) feel equally accepting of all their own children.c) feel guilty if they are not equally accepting of all their own children.
  - d) are not necessarily equally accepting of all children.
- b 18. It is important for a parent to be:
  - a) consistent.
  - b) real.
  - c) both consistent and real.
  - d) neither consistent or real.
- d 19. Good parents:
  - a) must keep up a "united front".
  - b) don't have to keep up a "united front".
  - c) are less real if they try to keep up a "united front".
  - d) both b and c.

- b 20. If parents are falsely accepting of a child:
  - a) they should learn to play the role well so the child will not know.
  - they send non-verbal messages that are perceived by b) the child anyway.
  - c) neither of the above.
  - d) both of the above.

#### Trying to accept the child but not his behavior: b 21.

- a) is a good idea for parents.
- b) also keeps the parent from being real.
- c) is not possible without training.
- d) none of these.
- c 22. When a person is able to feel and communicate genuine acceptance of another person he:
  - a) is losing his control over the other person.
  - b) is showing himself to be a weak individual.
  - c) possesses a capacity for being a powerful helping agent for the other person.
  - d) none of these.
- When a person feels that he is truly accepted by another c 23. as he is, then:
  - a) he does not need to change.
  - b) he does not want to change.
  - c) he is freed to move from there and begin to think about how he wants to change.
  - d) he has to change.
- Which of the following are a significant positive c 24. influence on a child:
  - a) preaching.
  - b) moralizing.
  - c) parental acceptance.
  - d) parental rejection.
- d 25. When parents can demonstrate through their words an inner feeling of acceptance toward a child they:
  - a) help him develop and actualize his potential.
  - b) can be influential in his learning to accept and like himself.
  - c) can help him acquire a sense of his own worth.
  - d) a. b and c.
  - e) none of the above.
- a 26. Messages that tend to make people feel guilty and judged are:
  - a) non-therapeutic and destructive.
  - b) necessary so they know what they did wrong.
  - c) are unimportant.
  - d) help people feel loved and accepted.

- b 27. Non-verbal messages:
  - a) are unimportant.
  - b) are another means of communicating.
  - c) seldom agree with verbal messages.
  - d) should never be used.

# <u>c</u> 28. When a parent intervenes in a child's activities he is:

- a) teaching the child the correct way.
- b) showing acceptance.
- c) showing unacceptance.
- d) none of these.

# a 29. Doing nothing in a situation when the child is engaged in an activity can communicate clearly that:

- a) the parents accept him.
- b) the parents don't care.
- c) the parents aren't paying attention to him.
- d) the parents are busy with their own activities.

# <u>d</u> 30. Advising, lecturing, teaching, questioning are all examples of:

- a) good teaching techniques.
- b) techniques parents should use to improve communications with children.
- c) ways to find out what children really think.
- d) roadblocks to effective communication.
- <u>b</u> 31. An effective and constructive way to reply to a child's feeling-message is to:
  - a) give your own opinion.
  - b) encourage the child to say more by such noncommital responses as, "I see," "really," or "tell me about it."
  - c) point out exactly how the child should feel.
  - d) tell him how you feel about it.
- a 32. When a parent is listening to a child's problem it is important that the parent:
  - a) respond to feeling-messages.
  - b) respond only to the words the child speaks.
  - c) insist that the child speak correctly.
  - d) have a solution in mind.

#### d 33. The best way to get rid of feelings is to:

- a) hit something or somebody.
- b) suppress them.
- c) ignore them.
- d) talk about them to an acceptant person.

- a 34.
- . If you do not want to hear a child's problem and cannot accept his feelings it would be best to:
  - a) not try at this time.
  - b) fake it.
  - c) tell him it is not important.
  - d) let him talk but don't really listen.
- a 35. A good check on how carefully you listen is to:
  - a) "feed-back" the feeling message.
  - b) tell him you understand.
  - c) tell the person how he should have said it.
  - d) say nothing.

c 36. Attempts at "parental guidance" usually mean that:

- a) the parent does not accept the child as he is.
- b) the child feels that his independence is threatened.
- c) a and b.
- d) none of the above.
- b 37. Empathy means:
  - a) sympathy for the speaker.
  - b) the listener is feeling with the speaker.
  - c) emphasizing a point.
  - d) none of the above.

<u>c</u> 38. A very young child's parent should:

- a) disregard the messages the child sends.
- b) decide for himself what the child needs.
- c) learn to listen accurately to the child's messages.
- <u>c</u> 39. Infants communicate:
  - a) entirely by crying.
  - b) entirely by looks and goos.
  - c) nonverbally.
  - d) very little.

c 40. The ultimate goal of parents should be:

- a) to keep the child dependent until he is of age.
- b) to keep control of the situation at all times.
- c) to help the child gradually develop his own resources and become independent.
- d) to provide solutions to all the child's problems.

<u>d</u> 41. When the child is causing the parent a problem it is important to tell him about it and then:

- a) make him feel guilty.
- b) belittle him.
- c) give him a solution.
- d) let him help find an acceptable solution for you both.

- a 42. When telling a child about your problem it is important to:
  - a) tell him the effect his behavior has on you.
  - b) make him feel guilty.
  - c) give him a ready-made solution.
  - d) don't listen to what he has to say about it.
- Honesty and openness with children: c 43.
  - a) are a waste of time.
  - b) are very risky because the parent might lose control of the situation.
  - c) foster a truly interpersonal relationship.
  - d) aren't really necessary.
- a 44. Anger is a:
  - a) secondary emotion generated to cover a primary emotion.
  - b) primary emotion.
  - c) useless emotion.
  - d) necessary emotion to control children's behavior.
- d 45.
- It is possible to change unacceptable behavior by:
- a) enriching the environment.
- b) impoverishing the environment.
- c) substituting one activity for another.
- d) all of the above.
- e) none of the above.
- Conflict is: b 46.
  - a) all bad and should be avoided.
  - a reality of a relationship and can be dealt with b) in a healthy manner.
  - c) sometimes good and sometimes bad.
  - d) not a part of a loving relationship.
- Power is not a very successful means of controlling d 47. children because:
  - a) it requires very controlled conditions to be at all successful.
  - b) parents eventually run out of power.
  - d) it causes adolescents to rebel.
  - d) all of the above.
  - e) none of the above.
- c 48. Parents persist in using power to control young people because:
  - a) it is very effective.
  - b) it always works.
  - c) they have had little experience or knowledge of non-power methods of resolving conflicts.

- a 49. One important step in a non-power method of resolving conflicts is:
  - a) brain-storming.
  - b) problem-solving.
  - c) passive listening.
  - d) ordering.
  - a 50. Two effective methods parents may use to teach children their values are:
    - a) 1. to model the values and 2. to be a consultant to the child when asked.
    - b) 1. to point out the mistakes the child has made and 2. to show him how he should improve.
    - c) 1. to see that children do as you say and 2. do not do as you do.

#### APPENDIX C

#### CRITICAL INCIDENTS EXERCISE

Below are five situations that might occur in the process of rearing children. Decide whether you agree with the way the parent in the incident handled the situation. Then circle the number on the scale which indicates your decision. If you mildly or strongly disagree indicate in the blank how you would have handled the situation.

1 - strongly agree	2 - mildly agree	3 - neither agree or
4 - mildly disagree	5 - strongly disagree	disagree

1. Ten year old John left his scout knife on the floor of the baby's room. When Mother found the knife she called John in and said, "That was so stupid, John. The baby could have cut herself. Why can't you take better care of your things?" 1 2 3 4 5\*

What would you have done?

(critical elements: name calling, offer solution opportunity)

2. Seventeen year old Mary Lou arrives home at 1:30 a.m. after agreeing to be in by 12:00 p.m. Father was quite worried that something might have happened to her. He was relieved when Mary Lou finally came home and said, "I'm so relieved that you're home safe. It really worries me when you are late because I'm afraid you might have had an accident." 1\*2 3 4 5

What would you have done?

3. Father comes into the family room and finds Billy, age 6, and John, 8, fighting over what TV show to watch. Father says, "Stop that fighting this instant. Now you won't be able to watch TV for a week."

1 2 3 4 5\*

What would you have done?

(critical element: offer opportunity for boys to find an acceptable solution) 4. Loni has been sulking and acting sad all day. Mother doesn't know the reason so she says, "Come on, now. Stop this sulking. Either straighten up or you'll have to go outside and sulk. You're taking things too seriously."

What would you have done?

(critical element: provide opportunity for Loni to talk about problem.)

5. Mother told Billy, age 4, that he could not go to his friend's house that afternoon because they had to go help Grandmother. Billy began crying and stomping his feet. Then he lay down on the floor and began holding his breath. His face began to turn blue. Mother turned and calmly walked out of the room and closed the door quietly.

1\*2345

1 2 3 4 5\*

What would you have done?

Scoring: Starred item indicates desired response. If subject did not cover critical elements in answering question they were counted as agreeing with the solution offered.

### APPENDIX D

Test	P.I	E.T.	U.S.	D.E.P.	Con	trol
Item	pre-	post-	pre-	post-	pre—	post-
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 2 3 14 5 16 17 8 9 20 21 22 3 24 5 26 7 28 29 30 31 2 33 34 5 36 37 8	272826264771119583994749215943546056444	0 0 0 0 2 0 0 2 0 2 0 2 0 2 2 6 10 6 5 9 1 2 1 3 0 0 6 11 0 1 0 0 0 2 0 2 0 2 2 6 10 6 5 9 12 1300 16 10 0 0 2 0 0 1 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 2 0 0 1 0 0 10 0 0 12 0 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 12 0 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 12 0 1 0 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 12 0 0 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 12 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 12 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 1 0 1 0 10 0 10 1	0 1 6 10 3 0 0 2 3 5 3 5 0 3 6 3 8 10 1 6 5 2 6 0 0 1 3 7 8 6 6 3 0 3 1 8 2 0	01504001151224728954914010057600211940	0 1 3 12 11 1 0 3 2 0 4 4 3 2 11 8 3 11 8 3 2 2 0 1 1 3 11 8 9 4 0 1 3 0 1 3 0 1 3 0 1 3 0 1 3 2 0 4 4 3 2 11 1 8 3 2 0 1 1 8 1 2 1 1 1 1 9 4 0 1 3 2 0 1 1 8 2 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	0 2 2 12 10 0 0 1 0 1 3 2 5 10 1 7 10 1 5 13 0 1 0 10 13 8 3 0 0 2 11 0 0 2 11 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 10 1 0 10 10 10 10 1

# ITEMS MISSED BY GROUP

# Appendix D (Continued)

ITEMS MISSED	BY	GROUP
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Test	P.E			D.E.P.	Cont	
Item	pre-	post-	pre-	post-	pre-	post-
39	11	0	4	6	3	4
40	2	0	0	3	0	0
41	4	0	0	1	0	0
42	l	0	0	0	0	0
43	5	0	2	l	0	0
44	11	3	7	4	6	6
45	14	0	7	8	9	12
46	11	0	5	4	3	3
47	12	2	6	7	5	4
48	4	0	0	0	l	0
49	12	16	10	9	11	11
50	3	0	3	2	3	2

## APPENDIX D

P	.E.T. GROUP		C	ONTROL GROU	P
Subj.	Pre-	Post-	Subj.	Pre-	Post-
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19	13 15 24 24 29 33 14 29 33 14 25 31 44 39 34 35 34 34 34	36 36 43 44 45 36 43 44 45 46 46 46 46	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13	24 30 34 41 30 33 40 30 36 31 37 32 37	32 33 37 40 32 35 39 32 37 34 38 34 38

MATCHED PRE- AND POST-TEST SCORES BY GROUP

UTAH STATE	BOARD OF EDUC	CATION GROUP
Subj.	Pre-	Post-
1	28 29	26 30
1 2 3	37	42
4 5 6	35 30	37 32
7	28 36 29	27 38
8 9	29 32 36	30 33
10	36	33 38

-

### APPENDIX D

Item	Pre-	Post-	Item	Pre-	Post-
1	2	0	26	8	0
	9	3 7	27	15	0
2 3 .	21		28	32	31
4	31	32	29	29 20	31
456	26	14	30	20	14
6	7	0	31	1.4	4
7	2	2	32	9	0
8 9	11	2	33	1	2 3 3
9	9	l	34	11	3
10	12	7	35	7	3
11	14	2	36	33	24 5 0
12	20	5	37	9	5
13	14	6	38	4 18 2	0
14	14	9	39	18	10
14 15 16	32 12	19	40		3
10	12	5	41	4	3 1 0 1
17	29	21	42	1	0
17 18 19	42	29	43	7	1
20	21 28	22	44	24	13
20	35	14	45 46	30 19	20 7
22	8	31 2	40	23	11
23	17	7	47 48	5	0
24	2	1	49	5 33	36
25	12	5	50	9	4

FREQUENCY OF ERRORS TOTALED BY PRE- AND POST-TEST GROUPS

Group		Means	F	
1.	P.E.T.	28.42	2.36	
2.	Control	33.46		
3.	U.S.D.E.P.	32.00		

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: PRE-TEST

 ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE:
 POST-TEST

 Group
 Means
 F

 1. P.E.T.
 43.84
 32.52

 2. Control
 35.46

 3. U.S.D.E.P.
 33.30

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