

Running head: IS HOME VISITING AN EFFECTIVE STRATEGY?

Is Home Visiting an Effective Strategy?

A Meta-Analytic Review of Home Visiting Programs for Families with Young Children

Monica A. Sweet

Mark I. Appelbaum

University of California, San Diego

Abstract

Home visiting programs for families with young children have been in effect for many years; however, this is the first comprehensive meta-analytic effort to quantify the usefulness of home visits as a strategy for helping families across a range of outcomes. Sixty home visiting programs contributed data to analysis within five child and five parent outcome groups. Standardized effect sizes were computed for each end-of-treatment outcome measure, for each treatment versus control contrast. Weighted mean standardized effect sizes ranged from $-.043$ to $.318$; six of the ten significantly differed from zero. No one program characteristic consistently affected effect sizes across outcome groups. The extent to which these findings have practical use for the field is discussed.

Is Home Visiting an Effective Strategy?

A Meta-Analytic Review of Home Visiting Programs for Families with Young Children

Home visiting programs have been providing services to families with young children in the United States for many years; the first published documentation dates back to the 1880s (Charity Organization Society, 1883). As of 1999, Gomby, Culross, and Behrman estimated that as many as 550,000 families were enrolled in the six programs they reviewed, and they estimated that thousands of home visiting programs exist in the United States alone. These programs are supported by millions of dollars from both public and private sources. The enormous number of families and financial resources involved justify a comprehensive quantitative evaluation, but to date, two meta-analyses concentrating solely on child abuse outcomes have been published (Guterman, 1999; Roberts, Kramer, & Suissa, 1996). This meta-analysis addresses a broader question of whether home visiting programs actually help families across a variety of outcomes.

Home visiting programs are linked by their method of service delivery, their goal of helping children by helping the parents of those children, and their focus on younger children. The method of delivering the service or intervention to families in their own homes offers advantages in that parents do not have to arrange transportation, childcare, or time off from work. Bringing the intervention into the home also provides opportunity for more whole-family involvement, personalized service, individual attention, and rapport-building. These factors may aid families in and of themselves, but may also work to increase program retention rates.

Home visiting programs operate under the belief that parents mediate changes for their children. Most home visiting programs have trained practitioners not to interact directly with children, but to encourage and train parents to help their children. Direct help might include

coaching parents to help their children with homework, while indirect help might include providing parents with emotional support and job training. Current programs are more likely to involve both parents, although traditionally such services have worked with mothers more than fathers.

Home visiting programs also share a focus on prevention, be it prevention of low-birth-weight babies, child abuse, reliance on public assistance, learning delays, etc. Problematic behaviors that begin in a child's younger years are difficult, perhaps even impossible, to change or ameliorate later on. Home visiting practitioners believe that it is best to influence the family when the child is young, so that good behaviors, and their associated positive outcomes, are evidenced early on, and progress throughout the child's/family's life span. Beyond these similarities, however, there is much variation across programs. "Home visiting" is an umbrella term that implies a strategy for delivering a service, rather than a type of intervention, per se. Programs differ along many dimensions, including the types of families served (e.g. single, teenage mothers, families of particular ethnicities, socio-economic backgrounds, or social risk factors); targeted behaviors or outcomes (e.g. child abuse, school readiness, or mothers' employment); type of service delivery staff (e.g. nurses, or mothers from the community); ages of children targeted (e.g. enrolling pregnant mothers, or families with preschool children); length and intensity of services, types of services provided, recruitment methods, and methods of assigning families to treatment groups. The services provided in the home vary from program to program, and even within program (e.g. home safety and health training, training parents how to teach their children to read, and provision of empathetic practitioners to lessen parental stress and improve parents' state of mind).

Such variation in home visiting programs precluded the possibility of a single meta-analysis. Instead, separate analyses were conducted for groups of similar outcomes. Given that home visitation programs work with parents to improve children's lives, both parent and child outcomes were analyzed. Child outcomes were separated into cognitive, socio-emotional, and child-abuse-related groups, while parent outcomes were separated into parenting behavior, parenting attitudes, and "enhancement of life course" groups. Program efficacy was measured by weighted mean standardized effect sizes calculated for each outcome group, and the relationship between program characteristics and program success was explored within each outcome group.

Method

Literature Search

The MEDLINE, ERIC, PSYCINFO, Psychological Abstracts, and Social Work Research and Abstracts databases were searched for literature relating to home visiting programs for young children, and their reference lists and bibliographies were searched for additional relevant work. To reduce the possibility of publication bias and the file drawer problem, published authors and home visiting programs were also contacted directly and asked to contribute relevant unpublished work.

Coding of Research

Abt Associates coded research articles and reports, as part of a larger meta-analysis of family support programs (Layzer, Goodson, Bernstein, & Price, 2001). Articles were coded by two independent coders; coding discrepancies were resolved with a coding director. Standardized effect sizes, adjusted for small sample bias, were computed from statistical information reported in program evaluations (Shadish, Robinson, & Lu, 1997). In some cases this meant means and

standard deviations, *F*-tests, *t*-tests, or correlations, while in some cases it meant computing effect sizes from *p*-values and sample sizes.

Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria

Only home visiting programs conducted and reported after 1965 were considered; around 1965, such programs shifted from primarily health and safety related endeavors to the more multi-faceted, comprehensive programs that remain in existence today. Inclusion was restricted to programs conducted in the U. S., to allow for more accurate generalizations to U.S. programs. Programs designed solely for developmentally delayed, physically challenged, or chronically ill children were excluded. Programs targeting such special-needs children are likely to differ systematically from programs targeting normally developing children, and should be evaluated separately. In addition, only programs whose *primary* service delivery strategy was home visits were included. Programs including home visits as a supplement to another primary type of service mechanism, and programs in which home-visiting interventions were inextricably combined with interventions delivered through other service strategies were excluded. Only end-of-treatment measures and whole-group comparisons were included. Measures taken during treatment, follow-up data, or data resulting from any type of subgroup analysis within a study were excluded.

Outcome Groups

Outcomes were initially divided into child outcomes and parent or maternal outcomes. Child outcomes were further separated into cognitive, socio-emotional, and prevention of child abuse outcomes. Prevention of child abuse was operationalized into three categories for analysis: actual abuse, potential abuse, and parent stress. Actual abuse may have been reported or suspected.

Examples of potential abuse included number of emergency room visits, number of injuries/ingestions treated, and number of accidents requiring medical attention. Parent stress was included as an abuse category in that higher levels of stress related to parenting may result in child abuse. Parent outcome groups spanned two broad categories: enhanced child rearing and enhancement of maternal life course. Enhanced child rearing outcomes included parenting behaviors and parenting attitudes categories. Enhancement of maternal life course outcomes included mothers' education since the child was born or program inception, mothers' employment, and mothers' reliance on public assistance categories. The set of outcome groups chosen for analysis is not comprehensive. While it may be possible to analyze additional outcome constructs, the groups chosen for this meta-analytic review are representative of outcomes that home visitation researchers hope to impact most.

Data Hierarchy/Level of Analysis

Sixty of the programs reviewed met the inclusion/exclusion criteria, and provided data on outcomes chosen for analysis. Each program could be sub-divided into studies, contrasts, and outcomes. All studies within a program were included in analyses, as long as the data were independent of one another. Within a study, multiple contrasts of treatment and control groups were possible. Consider, for example, one contrast defined as home visitation versus control, and another defined as home visitation plus case management versus case management. All data-independent contrasts that isolated the effects of home visiting were included in analysis. Within a contrast, multiple outcomes were often measured both within and across outcome groups; such contrasts contributed multiple outcomes to analysis. A standardized effect size was computed for every pertinent outcome. When a contrast provided multiple measures within an outcome group,

a median effect size was computed for the particular contrast. Medians were used to reduce influence of extreme effect sizes.

The end result of these data manipulations was a set of 10 outcome groups, each with its own set of contrasts. Within each outcome group, each contrast was associated with a single standardized effect size. Each contrast, however, often contributed effect sizes to more than one outcome group.

Results

Program Characteristics

The sixty programs that contributed effect sizes can be summarized in terms of a set of program characteristics. These defining features include primary program goals, populations targeted, program services, child age during intervention, length of program, and home visitor staff type.

Primary Goals

Primary goals were the stated objectives or overall mission of each program. Up to four primary goals were coded for each program. The two most frequently reported primary goals were parent education (96.7%) and child development (85%). Parent education goals included improvement of parenting skills, behavior, and attitudes, and parent-child interaction skills. Child development goals included attempts to improve children's development or well being in any way. Programs also listed primary goals of: (a) direct provision of health care (30%); (b) parent social support: ways of making parents feel more "at ease" and providing social resources (28%); (c) preventing child abuse (18.3%); (d) parent self-help: raising parents' self-esteem, sense of competence, empowerment, leadership, or generally aiding parents gain strength in all

aspects of their lives (10%); and (e) parent self-sufficiency: job training, education, and/or literacy training (8.3%).

Populations Targeted

A small percentage of programs (6.7%) universally enrolled families. The majority of programs targeted families at some type of environmental risk (75%). This measure of risk was a more generic measure of potential negative consequences for the child that may be attributable to the environment; factors contributing to environmental risk might include low family income, welfare dependency, abuse/neglect, teenage parent, and maternal depression. Some programs targeted single, specific populations, such as low-income families (55%), families with a low-birth-weight child (15%), families at risk for child abuse or neglect (13.6%), teenage mothers (10.2%), depressed mothers (5.1%), and families dependent upon public assistance (3.4%).

Program Services

Programs offered the following services directed toward parents: parenting education (98.3%), parent social support (58.3%), parent counseling (41.7%), parent leadership/advocacy training (15%), and adult basic education (1.7%). Programs also provided information on child development (91.7%), fostered parent/child together activities (58.3%), supplied material goods to families (28.3%), provided home-based early childhood education (20%), and center-based early childhood education (15%). In addition, 38.3% of programs reported providing case management services, while 33.3% provided child health or developmental screening of some sort. Programs provided both referrals to social/health services (68.3% for parent, 50% for child) and direct provision of health care (23.3% to parent, 31.7% to child).

Child Age During Intervention

Only 3.3% of programs in this review were not targeted to a certain child age or age range. Almost 75% of programs began and ended sometime between birth and 3 years of age. Almost a quarter of programs began when children were still in utero (20% prenatal - 3 years, 1.7% prenatal - 5 years), 21.7% of programs targeted a child's first year of life, 30% targeted families with children in their first three years of life, 3.3% targeted families with toddlers (18 months - 4 years), 6.7% targeted families with preschoolers (3 - 5 years), and 1.7% targeted families with children in elementary school. Few programs were designed to accommodate a range of starting ages; only 10% enrolled children anytime between birth and 5 years of age, and 1.7% enrolled children anytime between birth and 8 years of age.

Intended Length of Program

Most programs were intended to last for 9 to 12 months (18.3%), 12 to 24 months (30%), or 24 to 36 months (23.3%). Some programs were intended to last for shorter periods of time (8.3% 0 - 3 months, 8.3% 3 - 6 months). Few programs were intended to last for 3 to 5 years (6.7%), and fewer were unbounded (5%). The intended program length reported here is not the same as the actual average length of home visits. In many cases, it was difficult to extract actual average length of home visits from reported program information.

Home Visiting Staff

Programs listed up to three staff types that worked directly with families in their homes: professionals, para-professionals, and non-professionals. Most programs (75%) employed professionals, those with formal training and education prior to their home visiting work. Para-professionals, who often came from the same community as those being visited and were often helped by home visiting programs themselves, were employed by 45% of programs. A small

number of programs employed non-professionals (8.3%), who had formal education, but no home visiting training prior to employment.

Combining Standardized Effect Sizes

Standardized effect sizes, pooled within-study variance estimates (v_i), control and treatment group sample sizes, and weights ($1/v_i$) were calculated for each contrast for each of the ten outcome groups. In cases where one contrast provided multiple outcome measures within a particular outcome group, median standardized effect size and median number of participants in control and treatment groups were the unit of analysis. This contrast-level data does not appear in text, but is contained in a Supplementary Appendix available by contacting the authors.

Random Effects Model

Support for selection of random effects model

In a distribution of effect size estimates, there are two potential sources of variation. The first, v_i , measures within-study variance, or differences between observed effect size estimates and a population effect size parameter (single δ). The second component, σ_δ^2 , measures between-studies variance, or random-effects variance. This component measures the degree to which there is variability in population effect size parameters (multiple δ_i). If there is indeed a distribution of effect size parameters (δ_i) with a true population mean (μ_δ), then it is expected that the random-effects variance component would be greater than zero (Hedges, 1994; Hedges & Olkin, 1985; Raudenbush, 1994). Random-effects variance components were estimated using a weighted model; σ_δ^2 estimates for each of the ten outcome groups are reported in Table 1, along with their corresponding statistical significance tests, Q . Random-effects variance component estimates ranged from 0.0 to .501; seven of the ten were significantly greater than zero. These results

supported the use of a random effects model to estimate mean standardized effect sizes for all outcome groups.

Weighted mean standardized effect sizes.

Weighted mean standardized effect sizes (M_{δ^*}) were computed for each outcome group. Note that in this step of the analysis, weights (w_i^*) were defined as the inverse of the variance of the estimated effects (v_i^*). Specific values of v_i^* were calculated by summing v_i (fixed-effects variance, or within-study variance) and the estimate of σ^2_{δ} (random-effects variance, or between-studies variance). Weighted mean standardized effect sizes, the number of programs contributing contrast-level effect sizes, the number of contrasts contributing to mean standardized effect sizes (k), the standard error associated with mean standardized effect sizes ($SE_{M_{\delta^*}}$), and the Z tests and p values used to determine whether standardized effect sizes differed from zero are reported in Table 2. Weighted mean standardized effect sizes ranged in size from -.043 to .318, and were significantly greater than zero for cognitive, socio-emotional, potential child abuse, parenting behavior, parenting attitudes, and maternal education outcome groups. Families from home visiting programs fared better than did control group families, on average.

Meta-Analysis “Diagnostics”

Basic diagnostics were performed to assess potential limitations to generalizations made from this meta-analytic review. These include analysis of the potential for publication bias, solution sensitivity, and solution consistency (Begg, 1994; Greenhouse & Iyengar, 1994). Should the reader wish to conduct more in-depth or further diagnostic analysis, information necessary to do so is presented in Tables 1-2 and in the Supplementary Appendix.

The possibility of publication bias was explored by examining funnel plot graphs for each

outcome group. Such funnel graphs plot sample size against effect size, and, if funnel-shaped, provide evidence against publication bias (Begg, 1994). Positively skewed graphs may indicate publication bias; small effect sizes would likely be missing from such plots because they tend to be associated with non-significant findings and non-publication. Several of the plots in this study did show evidence of positive skew, but perhaps not because of publication bias. Non-published studies with large sample sizes were included in this analysis; most contributed small, non-significant effect sizes. The lack of a lower tail may be due to few reports of significant benefit to control groups over home visited groups, which would not necessarily result from publication bias, since such results would be significant and of interest.

Solution sensitivity analysis allowed for exploration of how much any one contrast influenced the weighted mean standardized effect size. Solution sensitivity can be addressed by determining differences between (a) the mean effect size computed for the entire set of contrasts, and (b) mean effect sizes computed when, one by one, single contrasts are removed from analysis (Greenhouse & Iyengar, 1994). Such comparisons are difficult to interpret when generated from a random-effects model, however, because the weights change each time a contrast is removed. Examination of funnel plots, which highlight potential outliers or influential contrasts in terms of effect size, sample size, or a combination of the two, served as a reasonable alternative. A number of the plots had one or two potential outlier effect sizes, which all had relatively small sample sizes. Several plots also highlighted one or two effect sizes with very large sample sizes; in all cases, the effect sizes associated with such groups were close to zero. Plots evidenced variability in both sample size and effect size, but there were no obvious combination outliers.

Solution consistency is demonstrated if significance tests for mean effect size estimates are consistent under changing analytic assumptions. Model effect type (fixed vs random) and type of mean computation (un-weighted or weighted) were crossed, resulting in four different models. For eight of the ten outcome groups, all four models yielded consistent results; for seven of the outcome groups all estimates were significantly greater than zero. None of the estimates significantly differed from zero for the parenting stress group. For the child abuse group, both of the fixed-effects mean estimates were significantly greater than zero, while the random-effects estimates were not. This was due at least partly to the small number of contrasts in this group ($k = 7$). For the maternal employment group, both of the un-weighted mean effect size estimates were significantly greater than zero, while neither of the weighted mean estimates differed significantly from zero.

Factors Associated with Variability in Effect Sizes

Homogeneity Analysis

Effect size estimates for each outcome group were tested for homogeneity prior to analyses of the effects of program characteristics on effect size. A significant homogeneity test indicates that contrasts do not share a common population effect size; that is, there are one or more factors systematically varying along with effect size. Homogeneity tests were computed using Q , and tests of whether or not Q differed from zero, as defined by Shadish and Haddock (1994). Four of the child outcome groups (cognition, abuse, potential abuse, and parenting stress) and three of the parent outcome groups (parenting behavior, parenting attitudes, and maternal education) varied significantly in effect size estimates. Computed Q values and the p values associated with each outcome group can be found in Table 1. The same Q statistic was used to test for both (a)

significance of the random-effects variance, and (b) homogeneity of effect size.

Determination of Adequate Sample Size

Only outcome groups with at least ten effect size estimates and a significant amount of variability among effect size estimates were analyzed further. Child cognition, potential child abuse, parenting behavior, parenting attitudes, and maternal education groups met these criteria.

Weighted Analyses of Variance (ANOVAs)/Regressions

A series of univariate tests were conducted within each outcome group to determine if variability in effect sizes could be explained by program characteristics. When program characteristics were continuous in nature, weighted regressions were used, and when program characteristics were categorical in nature, weighted ANOVAs were used. When appropriate, post-hoc comparisons were made using Tukey HSD tests ($\alpha_{fw} = .05$). Program features used in these analyses were not analogous to those reported previously. Characteristics coded at the contrast level were used to explain variability in effect size estimates in the upcoming sections.

Program characteristics were separated into three sets for analysis: program design features, populations targeted, and primary goals. Tables 3 through 6 provide summary results for child cognition outcomes, potential child abuse outcomes, parenting behavior outcomes, and maternal education outcomes, respectively. Tables include the number of contrasts contributing to each analysis, results of statistical significance tests (F), the amount of variance in outcomes accounted for by each univariate model (r^2), and, in the case where F tests were significant, beta weight estimates or results of Tukey HSD tests. Because only one of the univariate analyses for parenting attitudes outcomes was significant, results for this group will be described only in text. Targeted populations or primary goals may have been excluded from analysis for one of three

reasons: all contrasts targeted the particular population, no contrasts targeted the particular population, or the number of contrasts in each group was too small for analysis.

Program design features.

Univariate ANOVAs were performed for: (a) type of intervention, (b) location of intervention, (c) form of family assignment to conditions, and (d) staff type. Weighted univariate regression analyses were performed for: (a) targeted child age, (b) intended length of intervention, (c) actual length of intervention, (d) average number of home visits, and (e) average number of hours of home visits.

Intervention types included single, one-time bounded studies (usually some sort of research demonstration), ongoing single-site interventions, and ongoing multi-site interventions. Type of intervention accounted for a significant amount of variability in outcomes for three of the five groups: child cognition, potential child abuse, and parenting behavior. For child cognition outcomes, ongoing home visiting programs were more successful as single-site ventures ($M = .483$, $SD = 1.83$) than as multi-site ventures ($M = .008$, $SD = 2.39$). This was also the case for potential child abuse outcomes; single-site: $M = .547$, $SD = 1.69$; multi-site: $M = -.058$, $SD = 1.10$. For parenting behavior outcomes, however, ongoing multi-site interventions ($M = .267$, $SD = 1.84$) were more successful than one-time, bounded research demonstrations ($M = .058$, $SD = 1.35$).

Location of intervention was split into four categories: primarily urban, primarily suburban, primarily rural, and a combination of location types. Only the parenting behavior outcome group evidenced a significant association with location of intervention. More specifically, suburban programs ($M = 3.35$, $SD = 2.31$) were more successful than were rural programs ($M = -.069$, SD

= 1.40).

Form of assignment to conditions included random assignment to groups, quasi-experimental assignments, and contrasts with no comparison group. No-comparison-group contrasts included pre-post designs as well as designs in which treatment groups were compared to norms. Three of the five outcomes were related to form of assignment: child cognition, parenting behavior, and maternal education. For all three of these outcome groups, quasi-experimental studies, on average, yielded significantly higher effect sizes than did studies in which families were randomly assigned. Means and standard deviations for quasi-experimental studies and for randomized studies are as follows: child cognition, $M = .365$, $SD = 1.46$ and $M = .126$, $SD = 1.39$; parenting behavior, $M = .308$, $SD = 2.27$ and $M = .056$, $SD = 1.21$; maternal education, $M = .640$, $SD = 1.75$ and $M = .100$, $SD = 1.41$.

Home visiting staff type groups included professionals, non-professionals, para-professionals, and a mix of staff types. Only ANOVAs for child cognition and potential child abuse outcome groups were significant. For the child cognition group, families visited by professionals ($M = .250$, $SD = 1.47$) fared better than did families visited by non-professionals ($M = -.070$, $SD = 2.67$), relative to control group families. For the potential child abuse group, para-professional home visitors were associated with higher effect sizes ($M = .577$, $SD = 1.30$) than were either professionals ($M = .132$, $SD = 1.32$) or non-professionals ($M = -.085$, $SD = 1.14$).

Targeted child age was operationalized as average child age at the end of treatment, because of the overlap and redundancy of the targeted child age categories. Regression analyses failed to achieve significance for all five outcome groups, indicating that outcomes did not vary

significantly according to child age.

Both intended and actual length of intervention were measured in months. Fewer programs reported contrast-level information about the actual average length of home visiting programs than contrast-level information about the intended length of the intervention. Only potential child abuse outcomes were significantly related to intended length of program. The observed beta weight of $-.015$ indicated that as programs tended to get longer, effect sizes tended to get smaller. In other words, home visited families achieved less benefit from programs, relative to control group families, as program length increased. None of the regressions analyses involving actual length of programs were significant; there was no observed relationship between actual program length and program efficacy.

Some research reports included average number of home visits received and average total number of hours of home visits received; note, however, that analyses using these variables have a considerably smaller sample size due to the fact that this information was not reported as often as other program information. The child cognition group was the only outcome group significantly related to either of these measures. As the number of home visits increased, benefit to treatment group families (relative to control group families) tended to increase, $b = .004$. In addition, as the number of hours of home visits increased, effect sizes also tended to increase, $b = .006$.

Populations targeted.

Because population targeted groups were not mutually exclusive, univariate weighted ANOVAs were conducted separately for each population targeted category subgroup. For each subgroup, effect sizes from contrasts involving that particular targeted population were compared

to those resulting from contrasts not involving the particular targeted population. For instance, one particular targeted population were families at risk for child abuse. Effect size estimates resulting from contrasts involving families labeled as at risk for child abuse were compared to effect sizes from contrasts in which families at risk for child abuse were not targeted. Analyzed targeted populations included families with a low-birth-weight child, families with low income, and teenage mothers.

Contrasts targeting families with generic, environmental risk factors did not differ significantly from other contrasts in terms of child cognition, parenting attitudes, and maternal education effect sizes. These studies did reduce incidences of potential child abuse ($M = .355$, $SD = 1.51$) more than did studies not targeting families at environmental risk ($M = -.011$, $SD = .839$). Conversely, parenting behavior effect sizes were significantly lower for studies targeting families at environmental risk ($M = .054$, $SD = 1.51$) than for other studies ($M = .300$, $SD = 1.89$).

For contrasts targeting families with low birth weight children, only child cognition and parenting behavior effect sizes differed from those of other contrasts. Contrasts targeting low birth weight children had significantly higher child cognition effect sizes ($M = .411$, $SD = 1.43$) than did contrasts not targeting these children ($M = .089$, $SD = 1.73$); these contrasts also had significantly higher parenting behavior effect sizes ($M = .482$, $SD = 1.38$) than did other contrasts ($M = .083$, $SD = 1.64$).

Contrasts targeting teenage mothers did not differ significantly from other contrasts for any outcome group except maternal education. More specifically, studies that targeted teenage mothers had significantly higher maternal education effect sizes ($M = 1.15$, $SD = .847$) than did other studies ($M = .086$, $SD = .978$).

Studies targeting low-income parents were more successful ($M = .354$, $SD = 1.69$) than other studies ($M = .086$, $SD = .978$) in terms of preventing potential child abuse. They were, however, less successful ($M = .055$, $SD = 1.59$) than other studies ($M = .206$, $SD = 1.70$) in terms of enhancing parenting behavior of treatment group families, relative to control group families. They did not differ significantly from other studies for child cognition, parenting attitudes, and maternal education outcomes.

Some contrasts involved universally enrolled families; that is, no specific population(s) was targeted, and any family could participate. When possible (when sample sizes were large enough) universal contrasts were compared to contrasts in which at least one particular group was targeted. For child cognitive outcomes, effect sizes were significantly higher for contrasts in which families were targeted ($M = .165$, $SD = 1.50$) than for contrasts in which families were universally enrolled ($M = -.104$, $SD = 3.18$). This was also the case for potential child abuse outcomes: targeted $M = .229$, $SD = 1.86$; universal $M = -.049$, $SD = .964$. However, for parenting behavior outcomes, the effect was reversed: effect sizes were significantly higher when families were universally enrolled ($M = .292$, $SD = 2.44$) than when families were targeted in some way ($M = .067$, $SD = 1.50$). Universal versus targeted comparisons failed to reach significance for parenting attitudes and maternal education outcomes.

Primary goals.

Because primary goals were not mutually exclusive, each goal was analyzed via a separate univariate weighted ANOVA, in which effect sizes from studies that defined the specified goal as primary were compared to effect sizes from studies that did not define the specified goal as primary. Consider the case where the specified primary goal is child development. Effect sizes

from studies listing child development as a primary goal were compared to effect sizes from studies where child development was not specified as a primary goal. Analyzed primary goals included child development, child abuse, health care, parent self-sufficiency, parent social support, and parent self-help.

Almost all contrasts defined child development as a primary goal, lending little power to comparisons. Contrasts in which child development was listed as a primary goal did not differ from other contrasts for any of the five outcome groups tested.

Contrasts in which prevention of child abuse was listed as a primary goal did not differ from other contrasts in terms of child cognition, parenting behaviors, parenting attitudes, or maternal education outcomes. These contrasts were associated with significantly higher effect sizes ($M = .516$, $SD = .695$) than were other contrasts ($M = .123$, $SD = 1.75$) when the outcome measure was potential child abuse.

Comparisons between contrasts in which health care was listed as a primary goal and other contrasts were significantly different only for child cognitive outcomes and parenting attitudes outcomes. Child cognitive outcomes were significantly higher ($M = .263$, $SD = 1.83$) for primary goal contrasts than for other contrasts ($M = .085$, $SD = 1.74$), as were parenting attitudes outcomes (primary: $M = .444$, $SD = 2.39$, not primary: $M = .088$, $SD = 1.21$), $p < .05$.

Contrasts in which maternal life enhancement was a primary goal were compared to contrasts in which maternal life enhancement was not listed as a primary goal. Maternal life enhancement was separated into three categories: maternal self-sufficiency, maternal social support, and maternal self-help. For maternal self-sufficiency, primary-goal contrasts had significantly lower child cognitive effect sizes ($M = .053$, $SD = 1.16$) than did other contrasts ($M = .196$, $SD = 1.94$).

For maternal social support, primary-goal contrasts had significantly lower potential child abuse effect sizes ($M = .084, SD = 1.43$) than did other contrasts ($M = .445, SD = 1.60$), but had significantly higher parenting behavior effect sizes ($M = .199, SD = 1.80$) than did other contrasts ($M = .057, SD = 1.58$). For maternal self-help, primary goal contrasts also had higher parenting behavior effect sizes ($M = .294, SD = 2.00$) than did other contrasts ($M = .057, SD = 1.51$), but had lower child cognition effect sizes ($M = -.027, SD = 2.98$) than did contrasts not listing this goal as primary ($M = .157, SD = 1.50$).

Discussion

Is Home Visiting an Effective Strategy?

In order to be considered effective, home visiting programs must help both parents, the mediators of child enhancement, and children, the group thought to ultimately benefit from home visits. In general, children in families who were enrolled in home visiting programs fared better than did control group children. Within the set of child outcomes, three of the five average effect sizes were significantly greater than zero. Only child abuse and parent stress as an indicator of potential for child abuse did not yield an average effect size significantly greater than zero. The number of contrasts contributing to each group was more than adequate, and sample sizes for each of the contrasts were of good size. Within the set of parent outcomes, three of the five average effect sizes were significantly greater than zero. Two of these included the more direct measures of parent mediation of child enhancement: parenting behavior and parenting attitudes. The more indirect measures of parent mediation of child improvement, the enhanced maternal life course outcomes, were not as influenced by home visitation. Mothers in home-visited groups did go back to school or seek out some form of education more than control group mothers, but

did not differ from control group mothers in terms of employment and self-sufficiency, or reliance on public assistance. Note, however, that a small number of programs contributed information to these outcome groups (5, 7, and 3, respectively).

As a first pass, then, this set of findings indicates that home visiting programs actually did help families. Parents received benefit from home visits in terms of their parenting attitudes and behavior--two things which should benefit their children. There is some evidence that home visiting programs encouraged mothers to return to school or seek out some form of education. This may also benefit children, although the benefit may not be realized until some point in the future. Children, also, seemed to benefit from home visits by the end of treatment. Cognitive and socio-emotional outcomes were higher for home-visited children than for control group children. The actuality and possibility of abuse was lower for home-visited children than for control group children. In terms of statistical significance, then, home-visiting programs as a whole did provide a benefit to both parents and children.

Statistical significance, however, does not necessarily indicate practical significance. Whether or not the magnitude of observed effect sizes is meaningful or important remains to be determined. Consider the average effect size for child cognitive outcomes: an average standardized effect size of .184 translates into a difference of only a few points on a standardized intelligence scale, which typically has a standard deviation of at least 10 points. The question remains as to whether or not an increase of this magnitude is worth the effort, time, and cost required to generate it. Cohen (1988) provided guidelines from which to interpret practical use for size of standardized effect sizes; a small effect size was defined as .20 or lower, a medium effect size was defined as .50, and a large effect size was defined as .80 or higher. Average

standardized effect sizes for two of the four significant child outcome groups were less than .20, and all three were lower than .25. Average effect sizes for parent outcomes were even lower--all three of the average effect sizes achieving statistical significance were smaller than .14. By Cohen's standards, all of these effect sizes would fall under the "small" category. The nature and severity of the outcome deserves consideration, as well; an effect size indicating even a fractional reduction in child abuse may have more practical significance than a small effect size relating to an IQ measure.

It is also possible that home visiting programs do have real, practical use for some families, and that these families and their program experiences differ in some systematic way(s) from those families who did not benefit from such programs. What if, for instance, 20% of families in a certain home visiting program showed significant and practical improvement? Once averaged in with the rest of the group, this improvement would likely go unnoticed, especially by the time the results of such a study contributed to a meta-analysis. There are pros and cons of aggregating information, and a meta-analytic review is an aggregate of already aggregated information.

Which Types of Home Visiting Programs Work Best for Which Outcomes?

This question was addressed with a series of univariate analyses relating program characteristics to effect size. Only child cognition, potential abuse, parenting behavior, parenting attitudes, and maternal education outcome groups were analyzed, thus no conclusions can be drawn about which program characteristics are associated with variation in effect sizes for child socio-emotional outcomes, child abuse outcomes, parent stress outcomes, maternal employment outcomes, or maternal reliance on public assistance outcomes.

A caveat before the set of program characteristic analyses are interpreted: each analysis was

performed independently of all others. It is likely, though, that program design features, populations targeted, and primary goals were related, even possibly confounded with one another to some extent. This muddies interpretation of univariate findings, and may even have resulted in alpha levels more liberal than intended. However, given that cell sizes were too small when all possible interactions and relationships were taken into account, the analyses reported here were the most precise possible. The set of analyses cannot be clearly and incisively interpreted. They may, however, suggest some themes to be taken up by future research.

Program Design Features

No clear and consistent pattern emerged across outcome groups. For three of the outcome groups, quasi-experimental designs were associated with larger effect sizes than were random assignment designs, providing some support for the idea that more rigorous programs yield smaller effect sizes than do less methodologically rigorous programs. This support was tempered by the lack of significance for the other two outcome groups tested, and by the possibility that programs that differ in terms of how they assign families to conditions may also differ systematically across other dimensions, as well.

For two child outcome groups (child cognition and potential child abuse), effect sizes from ongoing single-site programs were larger than effect sizes from ongoing multi-site programs, indicating a potential dilution effect. This finding was not consistent; for the parenting behavior outcomes, multi-site contrasts were associated with higher effect sizes than were research demonstrations, which are usually thought to be the most stringent, standardized types of home visiting treatments.

Staff type was inconsistently related to effect sizes across outcome groups. For child

cognitive outcomes, professional home visitors were associated with higher effect sizes than were non-professional home visitors. No differences were found between performance of professionals and para-professionals, even though home-visiting programs designed specifically to enhance children's cognitive abilities tend to espouse the para-professional as most capable of changing parents' behaviors. In the potential child abuse outcome group, para-professionals were associated with higher effect sizes than were professional and non-professional home visitors, providing some support for the notion that individuals who were once themselves helped by home visiting programs are better able to help parents in home visiting programs. This support is weakened, however, by the lack of significant findings across the child cognitive, parenting behavior, parenting attitudes, and maternal education outcome groups.

The location of the study was not related to effect size. Location of study was significantly related to effect size only for parenting behaviors outcomes, where higher effect sizes were associated with suburban sites, as compared to rural sites. Neither child age nor actual length of program were related to effect size for any of the outcome groups. In the one instance where intended program length was a significant predictor of effect size, the negative slope estimate ($b = -.015$) indicated that as the intended length of program tended to increase, effect sizes tended to decrease-- just the opposite of what one might expect. The number of home visits and the amount of home visits predicted effect size only for the child cognition outcome group; more specifically, more visits and more hours of visits tended to increase effect sizes. The magnitudes of the slope estimates, however, were very small ($b = .004$ and $b = .006$). This, in conjunction with nonsignificant results in the other four outcome groups tested, indicates that the effect of home visit dosage is weak at best.

Taken together, the results of program design features analyses were inconclusive. No one program feature emerged as a significant influence on effect size across outcomes. Often, when a design feature was related to effect size, the nature of the relationship changed across outcome groups. In most cases, the practical significance of mean differences and slope estimates was negligible. More often than not, design features were not related to effect sizes at all.

Populations Targeted

As a whole, targeted population analyses generated often-contradictory and hard-to-interpret results. As with the group of design features analyses, this group of analyses is inconclusive at best. Studies targeting one or more populations yielded higher effect sizes than studies in which families were universally enrolled for child cognition and potential child abuse outcomes, but yielded lower effect sizes for parenting behavior outcomes. Programs targeting families at environmental risk generated higher effect sizes than those not targeting such families for potential child abuse outcomes, but the opposite pattern was observed in the parenting behaviors outcome group. Conversely, programs targeting low-income families had higher average parenting behavior effect sizes than those not targeting low-income families, but the opposite was observed for potential child abuse outcomes.

There were a few instances when targeting a certain population of families did result in greater benefit to them. Programs targeting families with low birth weight children were more effective than were other programs for both child cognitive and parenting behavior outcomes. The meaning of this is unclear; there appear to be no logical reasons why programs targeting families with low birth weight children should positively influence child cognitive and parenting behavior outcomes without a corresponding enhancement of other outcomes, as well. Maternal

education effect sizes were higher for targeted teenage mothers than for other families. Perhaps teenage mothers are more easily persuaded to return to school than are older mothers, or perhaps it takes less effort to return to school when younger. Perhaps younger mothers return to school to earn a high school diploma, and older mothers return to school to earn a college degree, and the former requires less effort than the latter. Although these are plausible explanations, there are many others.

Primary Program Goals

If a program listed a goal as primary, it stands to reason that outcomes directly relating to this goal should have been improved upon program completion. This was not always the case. Programs listing prevention of child abuse as a primary goal were associated with less potential for child abuse than were programs not listing this as a primary goal ($p = .056$). Programs listing child development as a primary goal were expected to enhance child cognition and reduce potential child abuse, in comparison to other programs, but did not. It is possible that low cell counts and reduced power played a role in lack of findings. Programs listing maternal self-sufficiency, maternal social support, and maternal self-help as primary goals were expected to enhance maternal education outcomes and possibly even parenting behavior and parenting attitudes outcomes, as compared to programs not listing these goals as primary. They did not enhance maternal education and parenting attitudes outcomes. For parenting behavior outcomes, maternal social support ($p = .064$) and maternal self-help primary goal contrasts did yield higher effect sizes than did contrasts where these goals were not primary.

In some cases studies with certain primary goals actually worsened related outcomes. For child outcome groups, maternal self-sufficiency, maternal social support, and maternal self-help

primary goal contrasts were often associated with lower effect sizes than were contrasts not listing these goals as primary. It would seem that the opposite should be the case--when mothers lives become more settled, less stressful, and more in control, children should benefit. At the very least, these children should not fare more poorly than children in programs not listing these goals as primary. It is possible, however, that mothers who concentrate more on themselves concentrate less on their children.

Additional Sources of Variability in Effect Size

At this point the question of which types of programs work best for which types of outcomes has not been definitively answered. Some additional factors should be considered, however, before concluding that program outcomes are independent of program design. Homogeneity tests indicated that there *was* a significant amount of variability in effect sizes for certain outcome groups. The source of this variability has yet to be explained; it does not appear to consistently stem from any of the program design features, populations targeted, or primary program goals tested in this meta-analytic review. There are, however, some other factors that may have contributed to variability in outcome groups--factors that are not easily measured or accounted for.

Each program likely has a lot of internal "noise". This noise, while not easily explained and perhaps even more difficult to measure, may be related to effect size. Consider that two programs employing the same type of home visitor--professional nurses--may have nurses pursue the same goal in a different way once they enter into the home. Both prescribe that the home be made a safer environment for children, but in one, nurses are asked to interact in a much more personable, friendly, and peer-like way than in the other, which prescribes that nurses be

more professional and teacher-like. This difference is not easily quantifiable, yet it may result in a difference in observed effect size. Any number of such factors may contribute to variability in effect sizes within a particular outcome group. Consider also that just because a program reports certain goals, features, and services as delivered does not mean that this is actually the case when it comes to individual homes and families. It is likely that adherence to the program-level model is variable at the level of the home visitor. At a nation-wide workshop on home visiting (Margie & Phillips, 1999), in fact, program practitioners were clearly aware that this may represent a considerable problem for evaluation. Home visitors themselves often had very different views of the goals of their visits as compared to program mission statements, and home visitors' own views of the program goals strongly influenced their behaviors and actions with families in the home. This type of factor could easily be a source of variation in effect size, though it, too, cannot be easily measured or accounted for.

The extent to which programs strictly follow a defined model is another potential influence on program efficacy. This type of adherence is at a higher level than home visitors' adherence as described above. Programs may be represented by a broad statement of purpose in which many goals are stated, but certain ones are pushed more than others in actual practice. Programs may measure a variety of outcomes although a smaller set is the true focus. This unaccounted-for differential weighting may seriously influence findings. Factors like program quality, fidelity to treatment model, and equal weights of program goals and measures are not easily measured, nor often reported, yet they are likely to be related to effect size.

Implications and Conclusions

This meta-analytic review of home visiting programs does not completely span the field of

outcomes available for analysis. Additional outcome groups have yet to be analyzed, as do intermediate and follow-up data, and subgroup data. From the work completed in this report, however, some generalizations to the field can be made.

Home visiting does seem to help families with young children, but the extent to which this help is worth the cost of creating and implementing programs has yet to be determined. What exactly makes a home visiting program successful is unclear at this time. It is clear that home visiting programs vary greatly along a number of dimensions, some of which may not be easily measured or even explained in program reports and evaluations. Some of these potential sources of variation are reasons for home visitation researchers to consider program standardization, both within individual programs and across the field. Standardization would likely enable future meta-analytic efforts to make more definitive statements about what types of programs work best for which types of outcomes. More definitive statements, in turn, might enable home visiting researchers to tailor their programs to better meet the needs of families enrolled.

At this point, the utility of home visiting programs as a whole cannot be clearly stated. This may be due, at least in part, to difficulties in assessing the utility of individual home visiting programs. It is often difficult to both qualify and quantify development and implementation of individual interventions, and this difficulty becomes further confounded when results are collapsed across such studies. The data presented here show that home visiting programs tend to be multifaceted and complex; practitioners attempt to positively effect multiple domains, be it child socio-emotional development and safety in the house as well as maternal life enhancement or some other set. In addition, benefits to the family are often thought to arise indirectly from home visiting services, making it even harder to quantify program effects. And finally, home

visiting is a strategy for delivering a service, and not a service in and of itself. What happens while a home visitor is in the home is difficult to quantify; there are many intangible factors, such as the personality and attitude of the home visitor, that may influence success but often go unmentioned and unmeasured.

More precise and detailed conceptualization and measurement of both program intervention implementation and service delivery implementation may allow for a more clear understanding of the utility of home visiting programs. This may mean designing programs more specifically with evaluation in mind. From very early on in a program's inception, issues of who is to be most impacted, how such families will be impacted, and how this impact is to be measured should be addressed, resolved, and clearly reported, allowing for a more precise evaluation of the field as well as the potential for more success at the individual program level. At the same time, it may be possible to start thinking about the efficacy of home visiting programs in a relational sense. Cost-benefit analyses may help to more clearly outline the practical benefit of interventions delivered through home visits, and comparisons between home visiting outcomes and those derived through other service delivery strategies may further help to define the usefulness and effectiveness of home visiting as a strategy. In summation, what this meta-analytic review provides is a starting place for practitioners, program developers, evaluators, and funding agencies to *begin* thinking about the utility of home visiting as a strategy to deliver interventions to families.

References

References marked with an asterisk indicate studies included in meta-analysis.

- *Abt Associates, Inc. (1974). *Home Start evaluation study. Interim Report V: Program analysis: Instruments*. Cambridge, MA: Abt Associates, Inc.
- *Achenbach, T. M., Phares, V., Howell, C. T., Rauh, V. A., & Nurcombe, B. (1990). Seven-year outcome of the Vermont intervention program for low-birth weight infants. *Child Development, 61*, 1672-1681.
- *Arocena, M., Adams, E. V., David, P. F. (1992). Ceden's Parent-Child Program: A fair start for Mexican-origin children in Texas. In M. Lerner, R. Halpern, & O. Harkavy (Eds.), *Fair start for children: Lessons learned from seven demonstration projects* (pp. 68-90). New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- *Baker, A. J. L., & Piotrkowski, C. S. (1993). The effects of participation in HIPPY on children's classroom adaptation: Teacher ratings. *NCJW Center for the Child Report, March 1993*.
- *Baker, A. J. L., & Piatrkowski, C. S. (1996). *Parents and children through the school years: The effects of the Home Instruction Program for Preschool Youngsters*. Report submitted to the David and Lucile Packard Foundation. New York: National Council of Jewish Women.
- *Baker, A. J. L., & Piotrkowski, C. S., & Brooks-Gunn, J. (1999). Research on the Home Instruction Program for Preschool Youngsters: Understanding variation in parent involvement and assessing program effectiveness. *The Future of Children, 9*, 116-133.
- *Barkauskas, V. H. (1983). Effectiveness of public health nurse home visits to primiparous mothers and their infants. *American Journal of Public Health, 73*, 573-580.

- *Barnard, K. E., Hammond, M. A., Sumner, G. A., Kang, R., Johnson-Crowley, N., Snyder, C., Spietz, A., Blackburn, S., Brandt, P., & Magyary, D. (1987). Helping parents with preterm infants: Field test of a protocol. *Early Child Development and Care, 27*, 255-290.
- *Barrera, M. E., Cunningham, C. C., & Rosenbaum, P. L. (1986). Low birth weight and home intervention strategies: Preterm infants. *Journal of Developmental and Behavioral Pediatrics, 7*, 361-366.
- *Barrera, M. E., Doucet, D. A., & Kitching, K. J. (1990). Early home intervention and socioemotional development of preterm infants. *Infant Mental Health Journal, 1*, 142-157.
- *Barrera, M. E., & Rosenbaum, P. L. (1986). The transactional model of early home intervention. *Infant Mental Health Journal, 7*, 112-131.
- *Barrera, M. E., Rosenbaum, P. L., & Cunningham, C. E. (1986). Early home intervention with low-birth-weight infants and their parents. *Child Development, 57*, 20-33.
- *Barth, R. P. (1989). Evaluation of a task-centered child abuse prevention program. *Children and Youth Services Review, 11*, 117-131.
- *Barth, R. P. (1991). An experimental evaluation of in-home child abuse prevention services. *Child Abuse and Neglect, 15*, 363-375.
- *Barth, R. P., Hacking, S., & Ash, J. R. (1988). Preventing child abuse: An experimental evaluation of the Child Parent Enrichment Project. *Journal of Primary Prevention, 8*, 201-217.
- Begg, C. B. (1994). Publication bias. In H. Cooper & L. V. Hedges (1994), *The handbook of research synthesis* (pp. 399-410). New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- *Black, M. M., Dubowitz, H., Hutcheson, J., & Berenson-Howard, J. (1996). A randomized

- clinical trial of home intervention for children with failure to thrive. *Pediatrics*, 95, 807-814.
- *Black, M. M., Nair, P., Kight, C., Wachtel, R., Roby, P., & Schuler, M. (1994). Parenting and early development among children of drug-abusing women: Effects of home intervention. *Pediatrics*, 94, 440-448.
- *Booth, C. L., Barnard, K. E., Mitchell, S. K., & Spieker, S. J. (1987). Successful intervention with multi-problem mothers: Effects on the mother-infant relationship. *Infant Mental Health Journal*, 8, 288-306.
- *Booth, C. L., Mitchell, S. K., Barnard, K. E., & Spieker, S. J. (1989). Development of maternal social skills in multiproblem families: Effects on the mother-child relationship. *Developmental Psychology*, 25, 403-412.
- *Bromwich, R. M. (1976). Focus on maternal behavior in infant intervention. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 46, 439-446.
- *Bromwich, R., & Parmelee, A. (1979). An intervention program for pre-term infants. In T. Field, A. Sostek, S. Goldberg, & H. Sherman (Eds.), *Infants born at risk: Behavior and development* (pp. 389-411). New York: S.P. Medical & Scientific Books.
- *Brooks, M. R. (1971). A stimulation program for young children performed by a public health nurse as part of well baby care. *American Nurses' Association clinical sessions, Miami*, 128-139. New York: Appleton-Century Crofts.
- *Brooks-Gunn, J., Gross, R. T., Kraemer, H. C., Spiker, D., & Shapiro, S. (1992). Enhancing the cognitive outcomes of low birth weight, premature infants: For whom is the intervention most effective? *Pediatrics*, 89, 1209-1215.
- *Brooks-Gunn, J., Klebanov, P. K., Liaw, F., & Spiker, D. (1993). Enhancing the development

of low birth weight, premature infants: Changes in cognition and behavior over the first three years. *Child Development*, 64, 736-753.

- *Brooks-Gunn, J., Liaw, F., & Klebanov, P. K., (1992). Effects of early intervention on cognitive function of low birth weight preterm infants. *Journal of Pediatrics*, 120, 350-359.
- *Brooks-Gunn, J., McCarton, C. M., Casey, P. H., McCormick, M. C., Bauer, C. R., Bernbaum, J. C., Tyson, J., Swanson, M., Bennett, F. C., Scott, D. T., Tonascia, J., Meinert, C. L. (1994). Early intervention low-birth-weight premature infants: Results through age 5 years from the Infant Health and Development Program. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 272, 1257-1262.
- *Brooten, D., Kumar, S., Brown, L. P., et al (1986). A randomized clinical trial of early hospital discharge and home follow-up of very low-birth-weight infants. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 315, 934-939.
- *Burchinal, M. R., Campbell, F. A., Bryant, D. M., Wasik, B. H., & Ramey, C. T. (1997). Early intervention and mediating processes in cognitive performance of children of low income African American families. *Child Development*, 68, 935-954.
- *Burchinal, M., Lee, M., Ramey, C. (1989). Type of day-care and preschool intellectual development in disadvantaged children. *Child Development*, 60, 128-137.
- *Burkett, C. W. (1982). Effects of frequency of home visits on achievement of preschool students in a home-based early childhood education program. *Journal of Educational Research*, 1, 41-44.
- *Cameto, R., & Wagner, M. (1995). *US West Parents As First Teachers evaluation: Final report*. Submitted to US West Foundation. Menlo Park, CA: SRI International.

- *Cameto, R., & Wagner, M. (1996). *Evaluation of the Young Teen Parent Consortium. Final report*. Submitted to Family Service Agency of San Francisco. Menlo Park, CA: Stanford Research Institute International.
- *Campbell, F. A., & Ramey, C. T. (1994). Effects of early intervention on intellectual and academic achievement: A follow-up study from low-income families. *Child Development*, 65, 684-698.
- *Campbell, F. A., & Ramey, C. T. (1995). Cognitive and school outcomes for high-risk African-American students at middle adolescence: Positive effects of early intervention. *American Educational Research Journal*, 32, 743-772.
- *Cappleman, M. W., Thompson, R. J., DeRemer-Sullivan, P. A., King, A. A., & Sturm, J. M. (1982). Effectiveness of a home based early intervention program with infants of adolescent mothers. *Child Psychiatry and Human Development*, 13, 55-64.
- *Casey, P. H., Kelleher, K. J., Bradley, R. H., Kellogg, L. W., Kirby, R. S., Whiteside, L. (1994). A multifaceted intervention for infants with failure to thrive. *Archives of Pediatric Adolescent Medicine*, 148, 1071-1077.
- Charity Organization Society of the City of New York. *Handbook for friendly visitors among the poor*. New York: G.P. Putnam Sons, 1883.
- *Clarke, S. H., & Campbell, F. A. (1997, April). *The Abecedarian Project and youth crime*. Paper presented at the Biennial Meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development: Washington, DC.
- *Clinton, B. (1992). The Maternal Infant Health Outreach Worker Project: Appalachian communities help their own. In M. Lerner, R. Halpern, & O. Harkavy (Eds.), *Fair Start for*

Children: Lessons learned from seven demonstration projects (pp. 23-45). New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

*Clinton, B. Elwood, P., Parks, R., & Soraci, S. (1988, November). *Promoting maternal and child health in the context of rural poverty*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Public Health Association: Boston, MA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED321838)

*Clinton, B., & Larner, M. (1988). Rural community women as leaders in health outreach. *Journal of Primary Prevention, 9*, 120-129.

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

*Coleman, M., Rowland, B., & Hutchins, B. (1997, November). *Parents as Teachers: Policy implications for early school intervention*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Council on Family Relations, Crystal City, VA.

*Culp, A. M., Culp, R. E., Blankemeyer, M., & Passmark, L. (1998). Parent Education Home Visitation Program: Adolescent and nonadolescent mother comparison after six months of intervention. *Infant Mental Health Journal, 19*, 111-123.

*Currie, A. L., Gehlbach, S. H., Massion, C., Thompson, S. (1983). Newborn home visits. *Journal of Family Practice, 17*, 635-638.

*Dawson, P. M., Robinson, J. L., Butterfield, P. M., van Doorninck, W. J., Gaensbauer, T. J., & Harmon, R. J. (1991). Supporting new parents through home visits: Effects on mother-infant interaction. *Topics in early Childhood Special Education, 10*, 29-44.

*Dawson, P., Van Doorninck, W. J., & Robinson, J. L. (1989). Effects of home-based informal

social support on child health. *Developmental and Behavior Pediatrics*, 10, 63-67.

- *Deloria, D., Love, J. M., Goedinghaus, L., Gordon, S., Hanvey, R., Hockman, E., Platt, J., & Nauta, M. J. (1974, June). *The National Home Start Evaluation. Interim report IV: Summative evaluation results*. Ypsilanti, MI: High/Scope Educational Research Foundation.
- *Deloria, D., Love, J. M., Gordon, S., Hanvey, R., Hockman, R., Platt, J., Nauta, M., & Springer, N. (1974, October). *The National Home Start Evaluation. Interim report V: Summative evaluation results*. Ypsilanti, MI: High/Scope Educational Research Foundation.
- *Deloria, D., & Ruopp, R. (1975, March). *The National Home Start Evaluation. Interim report VI: Twelve-month program issues, outcomes and costs*. Ypsilanti, MI: High/Scope Educational Research Foundation.
- *Drazen, S. M., & Haust, M. (1995, April). The effects of timing, duration, and intensity of early intervention programs on school performance. Paper presented at the Biennial Meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, Indianapolis, IN.
- *Drazen, S. M., & Haust, M. (1995). *PACT Validation Study: Evidence of effectiveness section: The effects of the Parents and Children Together [PACT] Program on school achievement*. Binghamton, NY: Community Resource Center.
- *Drazen, S. M., & Haust, M. (1996, August). *Lasting academic gains from an early home visitation program*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Psychological Association, Toronto, Ontario.
- *Epstein, A. S., & Weikart, D. P. (1979). *The Ypsilanti-Carnegie Infant Education Project: Longitudinal follow-up*. Monograph Number 6. Ypsilanti, MI: High/Scope Educational Research Foundation.

- *Fellenz, P., Cerva, T., Ernst, R., Ferraro, I., Haflinger, C., Nauta, M., Ruopp, R., Tannen, B., & Warner, D. (1974, February). *The National Home Start Evaluation. Interim report IV: Program analysis*. Cambridge, MA: Abt Associates, Inc.
- *Field, T., Widmayer, S., Greenberg, R., Stoller, S. (1982). Effects of parent training on teenage mothers and their infants. *Pediatrics*, 6, 703-707.
- *Field, T., Widmayer, S., Greenberg, R., Stoller, S. (1985). Home and center-based intervention for teenage mothers and their offspring. In S. Harel, & N. J. Anastasiow (Eds.), *The at-risk infant: Psycho/socio/medical aspects*. Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brookes Publishing Co, Inc.
- *Gelfand, D. M., Teti, D. M., Seiner, S. A., & Jameson, P. B. (1996). Helping mothers fight depression: Evaluation of a home-based intervention program for depressed mothers and their infants. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 25, 406-422.
- Gomby, D. S., Culross, P. L., & Behrman, R. E. (1999). Home visiting: Recent program evaluations--Analysis and recommendations. *The Future of Children*, 9, 4-26.
- *Gordon, I. J., Guinagh, B., & Jester, R. E. (1977). The Florida Parent Education Infant and Toddler Programs. In M. C. Day & R. K. Parker (Eds.), *The preschool in action: Exploring early childhood programs* (pp. 97-127). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.
- *Gray, J., Cutler, C., Dean, J., & Kempe, C. H. (1979). Prediction and prevention of child abuse and neglect. *Journal of Social Issues*, 35, 1682-1696.
- *Gray, J., Cutler, C., Dean, J., & Kempe, C. H. (1979). Prediction and prevention of child abuse and neglect. *Seminars in Perinatology*, 5, 85-90.
- *Gray, S. W., & Ruttle, K. (1980). The Family-Oriented Home Visiting Program: A longitudinal study. *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, 102, 299-316.

- Greenhouse, J. B., & Iyengar, S. (1994). Sensitivity analysis and diagnostics. In H. Cooper & L. V. Hedges (1994), *The handbook of research synthesis* (pp. 383-398). New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- *Gross, R. T. (1990) A multisite randomized intervention trial for premature, low birthweight infants: The Infant Health and Development Program. In D. E. Rogers & E. Ginsberg (Eds.), *Improving the life chances of children at risk* (pp. 146-160). San Francisco: Westview Press.
- *Gutelius, M. F., Kirsch, A. D., MacDonald, S., Brooks, M. R., McErlean, T. (1977). Controlled study of child health supervision: Behavioral results. *Pediatrics*, 60, 294-304.
- *Gutelius, M. F., Kirsch, A. D., MacDonald, S., Brooks, M. R., McErlean, T., Newcomb, C. (1972). Promising results from a cognitive stimulation program in infancy: A preliminary report. *Clinical Pediatrics*, October, 585-593.
- Guterman, N. B. (1999). Enrollment strategies in early home visitation to prevent physical child abuse and neglect and the “universal versus targeted” debate: A meta-analysis of population-based and screening-based programs. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, 23, 863-890.
- *Hardy, J. B., & Streett, R. (1989). Family support and parenting education in the home: An effective extension of clinic-based prevention health care services for poor children. *Journal of Pediatrics*, 115, 927-931.
- Hedges, L. V. (1994). Statistical considerations. In H. Cooper & L. V. Hedges (1994), *The handbook of research synthesis* (pp. 29-38). New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Hedges, L. V. & Olkin, I. (1985). *Statistical methods for meta-analysis*. Orlando: Academic Press.
- *Hislop, C. B. (1982). An outreach approach to high risk parents and their infants. *Infant Mental*

Health Journal, 3, 111-116.

- *Honig, A. S., Lally, J. R., Mathieson, D. H. (1982). Personal-social adjustment of school children after five years in a family enrichment program. *Child Care Quarterly*, 11, 138-146.
- *Horacek, H. J., Ramey, C. T., Campbell, F. A., Hoffmann, K. P., & Fletcher, R. H. (1987). Predicting school failure and assessing early intervention with high-risk children. *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 26, 758-763.
- *Hornick, J. P., & Clarke, M. E. (1986). A cost/effectiveness evaluation of lay therapy treatment for child abusing and high risk parents. *Child Abuse and Neglect*, 10, 509-518.
- *Hutcheson, J. J., Black, M. M., Talley, M., & Dubowitz, H. (1997). Risk status and home intervention among children with failure-to-thrive: Follow-up at age four. *Journal of Pediatric Psychology*, 22, 651-668.
- *Huxley, P., & Warner, R. (1993). Primary prevention of parenting dysfunction in high-risk cases. *American Orthopsychiatric Association*, 63, 582-588.
- *Infant Health & Development Program (1990). Enhancing the outcomes of low-birth-weight, premature infants. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 263, 3035-3042.
- *Jacobson, S. W., & Frye, K. (1991). Effect of maternal social support on attachment: Experimental evidence. *Child Development*, 62, 572-582.
- *Jester, R. E., & Guinagh, B. J. (1983). The Gordon Parent Education Infant and Toddler Program. In Consortium for Longitudinal Studies (Ed.), *As the twig is bent...lasting effects of preschool programs* (pp. 103-132). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- *Kang, R., Barnard, K., Hammond, M., Ohio, S. et al. (1995). Preterm infant follow-up project: A multi-site field experiment of hospital and home intervention programs for mothers and

preterm infants. *Public Health Nursing*, 12, 171-180.

- *Karnes, M. B., Shwedel, A. M., & Williams, M. B. (1983). A comparison of five approaches for educating young children from low-income homes. In Consortium for Longitudinal Studies (Ed.), *As the twig is bent...lasting effects of preschool programs* (pp. 133-170). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- *Karnes, M. B., Studley, W. M., Wright, W. R., & Hodgins, A. S. (1968). An approach for working with mothers of disadvantaged preschool children. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 14, 174-184.
- *Karnes, M. B., Teska, J. A., & Hodgins, A. S. (1970). The effects of four programs of classroom intervention on the intellectual and language development of 4-year-old disadvantaged children. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 40, 58-76.
- *Karnes, M. B., Teska, J. A., Hodgins, A. S., & Badger, E. D. (1970). Educational intervention at home by mothers of disadvantaged infants. *Child Development*, 41, 925-935.
- *Karnes, M. B., & Zehrbach, R. R. (1977). Educational intervention at home. In M. C. Day & R. K. Parker (Eds.), *The preschool in action: Exploring early childhood programs* (pp. 75-94). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.
- *Karnes, M. B., Zehrbach, R. R., & Teska, J. A. (1971). A new professional role in early childhood education. *Interchange*, 2, 89-105.
- *Kitzman, H., Olds, D. L., Henderson, C. R., Hanks, C., Cole, R., Tatelbaum, R., McConnochie, K. M., Sidora, K., Luckey, D. W., Shaver, D., Engelhardt, K., James, D., & Barnard, K. (1997). Effect of prenatal and infancy home visitation by nurses on pregnancy outcomes, childhood injuries, and repeated childbearing: A randomized controlled trial. *Journal of the*

American Medical Association, 278, 644-652.

- *Lally, J. R., & Honig, A. S. (1977). The Family Development Research Program. In M. C. Day & R. K. Parker (Eds.), *The preschool in action: Exploring early childhood programs* (pp. 152-194). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.
- *Lally, J. R., & Mangione, P. L. (1989, April). Early intervention with low-income families: Lessons learned from the Syracuse University Family Development Research Program. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association: San Francisco, CA.
- *Lally, J. R. & Mangione, P. L. (undated). Early intervention research: Building on lessons from the 60s and 70s for programs in the 90s. Unpublished manuscript.
- *Lally, J. R., Mangione, P. L., & Honig, A. S. (1988). The Syracuse University Family Development Research Program: Long-range impact on an early intervention with low-income children and their families. In D. Powell (Ed.), *Parent education as early childhood intervention: Emerging directions in theory, research, and practice* (pp. 79-104). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- *Lambie, D. Z., Bond, J. T., & Weikart, D. P. (1974). Home teaching with mothers and infants: The Ypsilanti-Carnegie Infant Education Project: An experiment. *Monographs of the High/Scope Educational Research Foundation, 2*. Ypsilanti, MI: High/Scope Press.
- Layzer, J. I., Goodson, B. D., Bernstein, L., & Price, C. (2001). *National evaluation of family support programs final report. Volume A: The meta-analysis*. Report submitted to Administration for Children, Youth, and Families. Cambridge, MA: Abt Associates. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED462186)

- *Lazar, I., & Darlington, R. (1982). Lasting effects of early education: A report from the consortium for longitudinal studies. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 47, Serial number 195.*
- *Levenstein, P. (1970). Cognitive growth in preschoolers through verbal interaction with mothers. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 40, 426-432.*
- *Levenstein, P. (1975). Message from home: Findings from a program for non-retarded, low income preschoolers. In M. J. Begab and S. A. Richardson (Eds.), *The mentally retarded and society: A social science perspective* (pp. 305-318). University Park Press: Baltimore.
- *Levenstein, P. (1977). The Mother-Child Home Program. In M. C. Day & R. K. Parker (Eds.), *The preschool in action: Exploring early childhood programs* (pp. 28-49). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.
- *Levenstein, P., Levenstein, S., Shiminski, J. A., & Stolzberg, J. E. (1998). Long-term impact of a verbal interaction program for at-risk toddlers: An exploratory study of high school outcomes in a replication of the Mother-Child Home Program. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 19, 267-285.*
- *Levenstein, P., O'Hara, J., & Madden, J. (1983). The Mother-Child Home Program of the Verbal Interaction Project. In Consortium for Longitudinal Studies (Ed.), *As the twig is bent...lasting effects of preschool programs* (pp. 237-263). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- *Levenstein, P., & Sunley, R. (1968). Stimulation of verbal interaction between disadvantaged mothers and children. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 39, 116-121.*
- *Levitt, E., & Cohen, S. (1975). An analysis of selected parent intervention programs for handicapped and disadvantaged children. *The Journal of Special Education, 9, 345-365.*

- *Liaw, F. R., Brooks-Gunn, J., Klebanov, P. K. (1992). Cumulative risks and early intervention services in the context of poverty: The Infant Health and Development Program. Unpublished manuscript.
- *Liaw, F. R., Meisels, S. J., Brooks-Gunn, J. (1992). Effects of experience of early intervention with low birth weight, premature children: The Infant Health and Development Program. Unpublished manuscript.
- *Lieberman, A. F., Weston, D. R., & Pawl, J. H. (1991). Preventive intervention and outcome with anxiously attached dyads. *Child Development*, 62, 199-209.
- *Love, J. M., Nauta, M., Coelen, C., Grogan, M., McNeil, J., Rubin, A., Shelly, M. & Stein, M. (1976, March). *The National Home Start Evaluation. Interim report VII. Twenty-month program analysis and findings*. Ypsilanti, MI: High/Scope Educational Research Foundation.
- *Love, J. M., Nauta, M. J., Coelen, C. G., Hewett, K., Ruopp, R. R. (1976). *National Home Start Evaluation: Final report. Findings and implications*. Ypsilanti, MI: High/Scope Educational Research Foundation.
- *Love, J. M., Nauta, M. J., Coelen, C. G., Ruopp, R. R. (1975, March). *The National Home Start Evaluation. Interim report VI: Executive summary. Findings and recommendations*. Ypsilanti, MI: High/Scope Educational Research Foundation.
- *Lutzker, J. R. (1984). Project 12-Ways: Treating child abuse and neglect from an ecobehavioral perspective. In R. F. Dangel & R. A. Polster (Eds.), *Parent training. Foundations of research and practice* (pp. 260-297). New York: Guilford Press.
- *Lutzker, J. R., Frame, R. E., & Rice, J. M. (1982). Project 12-ways: an ecobehavioral approach to the treatment and prevention of child abuse and neglect. *Education and Treatment of*

Children, 5, 141-155.

- *Lutzker, J. R., & Rice, J. M. (1984). Project 12-Ways: Measuring outcome of a large in-home service for treatment and prevention of child abuse and neglect. *Child Abuse and Neglect*, 8, 519-524.
- *Lutzker, J. R., & Rice, J. M. (1987). Using recidivism data to evaluate project 12-ways: an ecobehavioral approach to the treatment and prevention of child abuse and neglect. *Journal of Family Violence*, 2, 285-290.
- *Lyons-Ruth, K., Botein, S., & Brunebaum, H. U. (1984). Reaching the hard-to-reach: Serving isolated and depressed mothers with infants in the community. In B. J. Cohler & J. S. Musick (Eds), *Intervention among psychiatrically impaired parents and their young children* (pp. 95-122). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- *Lyons-Ruth, K, Connell, D. B., Grunebaum, H. U., & Botein, S. (1990). Infants at social risk: Maternal depression and family support services as mediators of infant development and security of attachment. *Child Development*, 61, 85-98.
- *Lyons-Ruth, K., Connell, D.B., Zoll, D., & Stahl, J. (1987). Infants at social risk: relations among infant maltreatment, maternal behavior, and infant attachment behavior. *Developmental Psychology*, 23, 223-232.
- *Madden, J., Levenstein, P., & Levenstein, S. (1976). Longitudinal IQ Outcomes of the Mother-Child Home Program. *Child Development*, 47, 1015-1025.
- *Madden, J., O'Hara, J., & Levenstein, P. (1984). Home again: Effects of the Mother-Child Home Program on mother and child. *Child Development*, 55, 636-647.
- *Mahoney, G., Boyce, G., Fewell, R., Spiker, D., & Wheeden, C. A. (Undated). The relationship

of parent-child interaction to the effectiveness of early intervention services for at-risk children and children with disabilities. Unpublished Manuscript.

*Marcenko, M. O., & Spence, M. (1994). Home visitation services for at-risk pregnant and postpartum women: A randomized trial. *American Orthopsychiatric Association: 468-478.*

*Marcenko, M. O., Spence, M., & Samost, L. (1996). Outcomes of a home visitation trial for pregnant and postpartum women at-risk for child placement. *Children and Youth Services Review, 18, 243-259.*

Margie, N. G., & Phillips, D. A. (1999). *Revisiting home visiting: Summary of a workshop.* National Academy Press: Washington, DC.

*Martin, S. L., Ramey, C. T., & Ramey, S. (1990). The prevention of intellectual impairment in children of impoverished families: Findings of a randomized trial of educational day care. *American Journal of Public Health, 80, 844-847.*

*McCarton, C. M., Brooks-Gunn, J., Wallace, I. F., Bauer, C. R., Bennett, F. C., Bernbaum, J. C., Broyles, S., Casey, P. H., McCormick, M. C., Scott, D. T., Tyson, J., Tonascia, J., & Meinert, C. L. (1997). Results at age 8 years of early intervention for low-birth-weight premature infants. The Infant Health and Development Program. *Journal of the American Medical Association, 277, 126-132.*

*Mitchell, S. K., Magyary, D. L., Barnard, K. E., Sumner, G. A., & Booth, C. L. (1988). A comparison of home-based prevention programs for families of newborns. In L. A. Bond & B. M. Wagner (Eds.), *Families in transition: Primary prevention programs that work. Primary prevention of psychopathology, Volume XI* (pp. 73-98). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

- *Nagy, M. C., Leeper, J. D., Hullett-Robertson, S., Northrup, R. (1992). The Rural Alabama Pregnancy and Infant Health Project: A rural clinic reaches out. In M. Lerner, R. Halpern, & O. Harkavy (Eds.), *Fair Start for Children: Lessons learned from seven demonstration projects* (pp. 91-114). New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- *Nauta, M. J., Brush, L., Johnson, L., Affholter, D., & Hewett, K. (1980). *Evaluation of the Child and Family Resource Program (CFRP). Phase II report. Volume I: Research report*. Cambridge, MA: Abt Associates Inc.
- *Nauta, M. J., & Hewett, K. H. (1988). Studying complexity: the case of the child and family resource program. In H. B. Weiss & F. H. Jacobs (Eds.), *Evaluating family programs* (pp. 389-405). New York: Aldine de Gruyter.
- *Nauta, M. J., & Johnson, L. (1981). *Evaluation of the Child and Family Resource Program (CFRP). Phase III research report*. Cambridge, MA: Abt Associates Inc.
- *Nauta, M. J., & Travers, J. R. (1981). *Evaluation of the Child and Family Resource Program (CFRP). Phase IV analysis issues and measure selection*. Cambridge, MA: Abt Associates Inc.
- *Oda, D. S., & Boyd, P. (1988). The outcome of public health nursing service in a preventative child health program: Phase 1, health assessment. *Public Health Nursing*, 5, 209-213.
- *Oda, D. S., Heilbron, D. C., & Taylor, H. J. (1995). A preventative child health program: The effect of telephone and home visits by public health nurses. *American Journal of Public Health*, 85, 54-85.
- *Olds, D. L. (1990). The Prenatal/Early Infancy Project: A strategy for responding to the needs of high-risk mothers and their children. In R.P. Lorion (Ed.), *Prevention in Human Services*,

7, *Protecting the children: Strategies for optimizing emotional and behavioral development* (pp. 59-87). New York: The Haworth Press.

- *Olds, D. L. (1992). Home visitation for pregnant women and parents of young children. *American Journal of Public Health, 146*, 704-708.
- *Olds, D. L. (1995). Five-year follow-up of women and children enrolled in trial of prenatal and infancy nurse home visitation: Focus on maternal life course. Proposal to Smith Richardson Foundation. Denver, CO: University of Colorado Health Sciences Center.
- *Olds, D. L. (1995). Studies of prenatal and infancy nurse home visitation. Unpublished manuscript. Denver, CO: University of Colorado Health Sciences Center.
- *Olds, D. L. (1998). Home Visitation 2000. Unpublished manuscript. Denver, CO: University of Colorado Health Sciences Center.
- *Olds, D. L., Eckenrode, J., Henderson, C. R., Kitzman, H., Powers, J., Cole, R., Sidora, K., Morris, P., Pettit, L. M., & Luckey, D. (1997). Long-term effects of home visitation on maternal life course and child abuse and neglect: Fifteen-year follow-up of a randomized trial. *Journal of the American Medical Association, 278*, 637-652.
- *Olds, D. L., Henderson, C. R., Jr., Chamberlin, R., Tatelbaum, R. (1986). Preventing child abuse and neglect: A randomized trial of nurse home visitation. *Pediatrics, 78*, 65-78.
- *Olds, D. L., Henderson, C. R., Cole, R., Eckenrode, J., Kitzman, H., Luckey, D., Pettitt, L. M., Sidora, K., Morris, P., & Powers, J. (1998). Long-term effects of nurse home visitation on children's criminal and antisocial behavior: 15-year follow-up of a randomized trial. *Journal of the American Medical Association, 280*, 1238-1244.
- *Olds, D. L., Henderson, C. R., & Kitzman, H. (1994). Does prenatal and infancy nurse home

visitation have enduring effects on qualities of parental caregiving and child health at 25 to 50 months of life? *Pediatrics*, 93, 89-98.

*Olds, D. L., Henderson, C. R., Kitzman, H., & Cole, R. (1995). Effects of prenatal and infancy nurse home visitation on surveillance of child maltreatment. *Pediatrics*, 95, 365-372.

*Olds, D. L., Henderson, C. R., Phelps, C., Kitzman, H., & Hanks, C. (1993). Effect of prenatal and infancy nurse home visitation on government spending. *Medical Care*, 31, 155-174.

*Olds, D.L., Henderson, C. R., & Tatelbaum, R. (1994). Prevention of intellectual impairment in children of women who smoke cigarettes during pregnancy. *Pediatrics*, 93, 228-233.

*Olds, D. L., Henderson, C. R., Jr., Tatelbaum, R., Chamberlin, R. (1986). Improving the delivery of prenatal care and outcomes of pregnancy: A randomized trial of nurse home visitation. *Pediatrics*, 77, 16-27.

*Olds, D. L., Henderson, C. R., Jr., Tatelbaum, R., Chamberlin, R. (1988). Improving the life-course development of socially disadvantaged mothers: A randomized trial of nurse home visitation. *American Journal of Public Health*, November, 78, 1436-1444.

*Olds, D. L., Robinson, J., Luckey, D., O'Brien, R., Korfmacher, J., Hiatt, S., & Pettitt, L. (1997). Comparison of pregnancy and infancy home visitation by nurses versus paraprofessionals: A randomized controlled trial. Unpublished manuscript. Denver, CO: Prevention Research Center for Family and Child Health, University of Colorado Health Sciences Center.

*Owen, M. T., & Mulvihill, B. A. (1994). Benefits of a parent education and support program in the first three year. *Family Relations*, 43, 206-212.

*Pfannenstiel, J. C. (1989). *New Parents as Teachers Project: A follow-up investigation*.

Overland Park, KS: Research and Training Associates.

- *Pfannenstiel, J. C., Lambson, T., Yarnell, V. (1991). *Second wave study of the Parents as Teachers Program. Final Report*. Overland Park, KS: Research & Training Assoc., Inc.
- *Pfannenstiel, J. C., Lambson, T., Yarnell, V. (1996). *The Parents as Teachers Program: Longitudinal follow-up to the Second Wave Study*. Report prepared for the Missouri Dept. of Elementary and Secondary Education and the Parents as Teachers National Center, Inc. Overland Park, KS: Research & Training Assoc., Inc.
- *Pfannenstiel, J., C., & Seltzer, D.A. (1989). New Parents as Teachers: Evaluation of an early parent education program. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 4, 1-18.
- *Radin, N. (1972). Three degrees of maternal involvement in a preschool program: Impact on mothers and children. *Child Development*, 43, 1355-1364.
- *Ramey, C. T., Bryant, D. M., Campbell, F. A., Sparling, J. J., & Wasik, B. H. (1988). Early intervention for high-risk children: The Carolina Early Intervention Program. In R.H. Price, E. L. Cowen, R. P. Lorion, & J. Ramos-McKay (Eds.), *Fourteen ounces of prevention: A casebook for practitioners* (pp. 32-43). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- *Ramey, C. T., Bryant, D. M., Campbell, F. A., Sparling, J. J., & Wasik, B. H. (1990). Early intervention for high-risk children: The Carolina Early Intervention Program. In R. P. Lorion (Ed.), *Protecting the children: Strategies for optimizing emotional and behavioral development* (pp. 33-57). New York: The Haworth Press.
- *Ramey, C. T., Bryant, D. M., Sparling, J. J., & Wasik, B. H. (1985). Project CARE: A comparison of two early intervention strategies to prevent retarded development. *Topics in*

Early Childhood Special Education, 5(2), 12-25.

- *Ramey, C. T., Bryant, D. M., Wasik, B. H., Sparling, J. J., Fendt, K. H., LaVange, L. M. (1992). Infant Health and Development Program for low birth weight, premature infants: Program elements, family participation, and child intelligence. *Pediatrics*, 3, 454-465.
- *Ramey, C. T., & Campbell, F. A. (1984). Preventive education for high-risk children: Cognitive consequences of the Carolina Abecedarian Project. *American Journal of Mental Deficiency*, 88, 515-523.
- *Ramey, C. T., & Campbell, F. A. (1994). Poverty, early childhood education, and academic competence: The Abecedarian experiment. In A. C. Huston (Ed.), *Children in poverty: Child development and public policy* (pp. 190-221). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- *Ramey, C. T., MacPhee, D., & Yeates, K. O. (1982). Preventing developmental retardation: A general systems model. In L. A. Bond & J. M. Joffe (Eds.), *Facilitating infant and early childhood development* (pp. 343-401). Hanover, NH: University Press of New England.
- *Ramey, C. T., Yeates, K. O., & Short, E. J. (1984). The plasticity of intellectual development: Insights from preventive intervention. *Child Development*, 55, 1913-1925.
- Raudenbush, S. W. (1994). Random effects models. In H. Cooper & L. V. Hedges (1994), *The handbook of research synthesis* (pp. 301-321). New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- *Rauh, V. A., Achenbach, T. M., Nurcombe, B., Howell, C. T., & Teti, D. M. (1988). Minimizing adverse effects of low birth weight: Four-year results of an early intervention program. *Child Development*, 59, 544-553.
- *Rauh, V. A., Nurcombe, B., Ruoff, P., Jette, A., & Howell, D. (1982). The Vermont Infant Studies Project: The rationale for a mother-infant transaction program. In L. A. Bond & J. M.

Joffe (Eds.), *Facilitating infant and early childhood development* (pp. 259-280). Hanover, NH: University Press of New England.

*Rescorla, L. A., Provence, S., & Naylor, A. (1982). The Yale Child Welfare Research Program: Description and results. In E. F. Zigler & E. Gordon (Eds.), *Day care: Scientific and social policy issues* (pp. 183-199). Boston, MA: Auburn House Publishing Company.

*Rescorla, L. A., & Zigler, E. (1981). The Yale Child Welfare Research Program: Implications for social policy. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 3, 5-14.

*Resnick, M. B., Armstrong, S., & Carter, R. L. (1988). Developmental intervention program for high-risk premature infants: Effects on development and parent-infant interactions. *Developmental and Behavioral Pediatrics*, 9, 73-78.

*Resnick, M. B., Eyler, F. D., Nelson, R. M., Eitzman, D. V., & Bucciarelli, R. L. (1987). Developmental intervention for low weight infants: Improved early developmental outcome. *Pediatrics*, 80, 68-74.

Roberts, I., Kramer, M. S., & Suissa, S. (1996). Does home visiting prevent childhood injury? A systematic review of randomised controlled trials. *Journal of Behavioral Medicine*, 312, 29-33.

*Ross, G. S. (1984). Home intervention for premature infants of low-income families. *Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 51, 236-241.

*Scarr-Salapatek, S., & Williams, M. L. (1973). The effects of early stimulation on low-birth-weight infants. *Child Development*, 44, 94-101.

*Scott, R. (1974). Research and early childhood: The Home Start Project. *Child Welfare*, 53, 112-119.

- *Seitz, V., & Apfel, N. H. (1994). Parent-focused intervention: Diffusion effects on siblings. *Child Development, 65*, 677-683.
- *Seitz, V., Rosenbaum, L. K., Apfel, N. H. (1985). Effects of family support intervention: A ten-year follow-up. *Child Development, 56*, 376-391.
- Shadish, W. R., & Haddock, C. K. (1994). Combining estimates of effect size. In H. Cooper & L. V. Hedges (1994), *The handbook of research synthesis* (pp. 261-281). New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Shadish, W. R., Robinson, L., & Lu, C. (1997). ES: A computer program and manual for effect size calculation. Memphis, TN: University of Memphis.
- *Slaughter, D. T. (1983). Early intervention and its effects on maternal and child development. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 48*, Serial No. 202.
- *Solomon, R., & Liefeld, C. P. (1994, May). *Effectiveness of a family support center approach to teen re-pregnancy and school drop out rates*. Paper presented at Ambulatory Pediatrics Association, in Washington DC.
- *Spiker, D., Ferguson, J., & Brooks-Gunn, J. (1993). Enhancing maternal interactive behavior and child social competence in low birth weight, premature infants. *Child Development, 64*, 754-768.
- *St. Pierre, R., Goodson, B., Layzer, J., & Bernstein, L. (1994). *National evaluation of the Comprehensive Child Development Program: Report to congress*. Cambridge, MA: Abt Associates Inc.
- *St. Pierre, R., Layzer, J., Goodson, B., & Bernstein, L. (1996). *National impact evaluation of the Comprehensive Child Development Program. Final report*. Cambridge, MA: Abt

Associates Inc.

- *Stanford Research Institute (1995). *Summaries of evaluations of the Parents As Teachers Program conducted at SRI International*. Palo Alto, CA: SRI International.
- *Thompson, R. J., Cappleman, M. W., Conrad, H. H. et al. (1982). Early intervention program for adolescent mothers and their infants. *Developmental and Behavioral Pediatrics*, 3, 18-21.
- *Travers, J., Nauta, M. J., Irwin, N. (1982). *The effects of a social program: Final report of the Child and Family Resource Program's Infant-Toddler Component*. Cambridge, MA: Abt Associates.
- *Trickett, P. K., Apfel, N. H., Rosenbaum, L. K., & Zigler, E. F. (1982). A five-year follow-up of participants in the Yale Child Welfare Research Program. In E. F. Zigler & E. Gordon (Eds.), *Day care: Scientific and social policy issues* (pp. 200-222). Boston, MA: Auburn House Publishing Company.
- *van Doorninck, W. J., Dawson, P., Butterfield, P. M., & Alexander, H. L. (March, 1990). *Parent-infant support through lay health visitors*. Final report to Maternal and Child Health Service, Bureau of Community Health Services, U.S. Public Health Service, National Institutes of Health, Department of HEW. Grant MC-R-080398-03-0. Washington, D.C.: DHHS.
- *Vines, S. W., Williams-Burgess, C. (1994). Effects of a community health nursing parent-baby program on depression and other selected maternal child health outcomes. *Public Health Nursing*, 11, 185-195.
- *Wagner, M. (1993). *Evaluation of the National City Parents As Teachers Program. Summary of findings*. Submitted to the Center for the Future of Children, David and Lucile Packard

Foundation. Menlo Park, CA: Stanford Research Institute International.

- *Wagner, M., Cameto, R., & Gerlach-Downie, S. (1996, March). *Intervention in support of adolescent parents and their children: A final report on the Teen Parents as Teachers Demonstration*. Menlo Park, CA: SRI International.
- *Wagner, M., & Clayton, S. (1999). The Parents As Teachers Program: Results from Two Demonstrations. *The Future of Children, 9*, 91-115.
- *Wagner, M., Clayton, S., Gerlach-Downie, S., & McElroy, M. (1997). *An evaluation of the Northern California Parents as Teachers Demonstration. Review Draft*. Menlo Park, CA: SRI International.
- *Wagner, M., & McElroy, M. (1992). *Home, the first classroom: A pilot evaluation of the Northern California Parents as Teachers Project*. Palo Alto, CA: Stanford Research Institute Report prepared for the David and Lucile Packard Foundation.
- *Wasik, B. H., Ramey, C. T., Bryant, D. M., Sparling, J. J. (1990). A longitudinal study of two early intervention strategies: Project CARE. *Child Development, 61*, 1682-1696.
- *Wheeden, C. A., Mahoney, G., Fewell, R., & Spiker, D. (1997, April). *The effects of a comprehensive early intervention program on mother-child interaction with low-birth-weight, premature infants*. Paper presented at the Biennial Meeting of the Society for Research on Child Development: Washington, DC.
- *Wheeler, W. H. (1994, August). *A study of the Missouri Parents as Teachers Program and its effect on the readiness skills of children entering kindergarten in southwest Missouri Public Schools*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Mississippi.
- *Winters-Smith, C., & Lerner, M. (1992). The Fair Start Program: Outreach to migrant farm

worker families. In M. Lerner, R. Halpern, & O. Harkavy (Eds.), *Fair Start for Children: Lessons learned from seven demonstration projects* (pp. 46-67). New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Author Note

Monica A. Sweet, Department of Psychology; Mark I. Appelbaum, Department of Psychology.

This meta-analytic review was supported by the David and Lucile Packard Foundation. Coded data was provided by Abt Associates, who completed this work as part of a larger meta-analytic review of family support programs. Their work, funded under contract #105-94-1925, was conducted for the Administration on Children, Youth, and Families in the US Department of Health and Human Services.

A portion of this work was presented at the Home Visiting Workshop (NAS Board on Children, Youth, and Families), in Washington DC, March 1999.

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Monica A. Sweet, Department of Psychology, 0109, University of California, San Diego, 9500 Gilman Dr., La Jolla, CA 92093-0109. Electronic mail may be sent to msweet@ucsd.edu.

Table 1

Estimates of Random-Effects Variance and Corresponding Significance Tests

<u>Outcome Group</u>	<i>est. σ^2_{δ}</i>	<i>Q</i>
<u>Child Development</u>		
Cognitive	.072	257.79***
Socio-Emotional	.008	62.11
<u>Prevention of Child Abuse</u>		
Abuse	.501	70.63***
Potential Abuse	.049	49.54***
Parenting Stress	.086	10.94*
<u>Child Rearing</u>		
Parenting Behavior	.054	198.76***
Parenting Attitudes	.025	76.82***
<u>Maternal Life Course</u>		
Education	.029	59.23***
Employment/Wages	.000	16.45
Public Assistance	.010	30.76

* $p \leq .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 2

*Random Effects Model: Weighted Mean Standardized Effect Sizes for Child and Parent**Outcomes*

Outcome Group	# Prog.	<i>k</i>	M_{δ}^*	$SE_{M_{\delta}^*}$	<i>Z</i>
Child Development					
Cognitive	41	82	.184	.038	4.79***
Socio-Emotional	24	49	.096	.028	3.38***
Prevention of Child Abuse					
Abuse	7	7	.318	.282	1.13
Potential Abuse	13	16	.239	.072	3.34***
Parenting Stress	4	5	.210	.168	1.25
Child Rearing					
Parenting Behavior	37	73	.139	.036	3.81***
Parenting Attitudes	15	40	.110	.037	2.98**
Maternal Life Course					
Education	5	27	.134	.044	3.03**
Employment/Wages	7	28	.017	.018	0.99
Public Assistance	3	23	-.043	.038	1.12

* $p \leq .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 3

Program Characteristics as Potential Influences on Effect Size: Child Cognition Outcomes

	# Contrasts	<i>F</i>	<i>r</i> ²	Sig. differences or betas
<u>Design Feature</u>				
Intervention Type	82	4.05*	0.09	single site > multi site
Location	78	NS		
Form of Assignment	82	25.14***	0.39	quasi > random
Staff Type	64	3.04*	0.13	prof. > non-prof.
Child Age	82	NS		
Intended Length	82	NS		
Actual Length	47	NS		
# of Home Visits	55	4.89*	0.08	<i>b</i> = .004
# Hrs. of Home Visits	51	6.40*	0.12	<i>b</i> = .006
<u>Populations Targeted</u>				
Universal	82	8.01**	0.09	targeted > universal
Environmental Risk	82	NS		
Low Birth Weight	82	8.85**	0.10	targeted > non-targeted
Teenage Mothers	81	NS		
Low Income	82	NS		
<u>Primary Goals</u>				
Child Development	82	NS		
Prevent Child Abuse	82	NS		
Health Care	82	4.49*	0.05	primary > not primary
Mom Self-Sufficiency	82	4.16*	0.05	not primary > primary
Mom Social Support	82	NS		
Mom Self-Help	82	4.06*	0.05	not primary > primary

p* ≤ .05. *p* < .01. ****p* < .001.

Table 4

Program Characteristics as Potential Influences on Effect Size: Potential Child Abuse Outcomes

	# Contrasts	<i>F</i>	<i>r</i> ²	Sig. differences or betas
<u>Design Feature</u>				
Intervention Type	16	5.09*	0.44	single site > multi site
Location	14	NS		
Form of Assignment	16	NS		
Staff Type	16	6.34**	0.61	para > prof., non-prof
Child Age	16	NS		
Intended Length	16	4.89*	0.26	<i>b</i> = -.015
Actual Length	4	N/A		
# of Home Visits	14	NS		
# Hrs. of Home Visits	12	NS		
<u>Populations Targeted</u>				
Universal	16	4.05 ⁺	0.22	targeted > universal
Environmental Risk	16	16.86**	0.55	targeted > not targeted
Low Birth Weight	16	NS		
Teenage Mothers	16	NS		
Low Income	16	10.32**	0.42	targeted > not targeted
<u>Primary Goals</u>				
Child Development	16	NS		
Prevent Child Abuse	16	4.35 ⁺⁺	0.24	primary > not primary
Health Care	16	NS		
Mom Self-Sufficiency	16	NS		
Mom Social Support	16	8.24*	0.37	not primary > primary
Mom Self-Help	16	NS		

p* ≤ .05. *p* < .01. ****p* < .001. ⁺*p* = .063. ⁺⁺*p* = .056.

Table 5

Program Characteristics as Potential Influences on Effect Size: Parenting Behavior Outcomes

	# Contrasts	F	r ²	Sig. differences
<u>Design Feature</u>				
Intervention Type	73	3.59*		multi site > res. dem.
Location	66	3.66*		suburban > rural
Form of Assignment	73	3.47*		quasi > random
Staff Type	54	NS		
Child Age	71	NS		
Intended Length	72	NS		
Actual Length	45	NS		
# of Home Visits	50	NS		
# Hrs. of Home Visits	44	NS		
<u>Populations Targeted</u>				
Universal	73	4.91*		
Environmental Risk	73	7.79**		not targeted > targeted
Low Birth Weight	73	3.84*		targeted > not targeted
Teenage Mothers	72	NS		
Low Income	73	3.97*		not targeted > targeted
<u>Primary Goals</u>				
Child Development	73	NS		
Prevent Child Abuse	73	NS		
Health Care	73	NS		
Mom Self-Sufficiency	73	NS		
Mom Social Support	73	3.54 ⁺⁺		primary > not primary
Mom Self-Help	73	7.02**		primary > not primary

* $p \leq .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. ⁺ $p = .054$. ⁺⁺ $p = .064$.

Table 6

Program Characteristics as Potential Influences on Effect Size: Maternal Education Outcomes

	# Contrasts	F	r ²	Sig. differences
<u>Design Feature</u>				
Intervention Type	27	NS		
Location	25	NS		
Form of Assignment	27	4.30*	0.15	quasi > random
Staff Type	9	NS		small sample size
Child Age	27	NS		
Intended Length	27	NS		
Actual Length	20	NS		
# of Home Visits	6	NS		small sample size
# Hrs. of Home Visits	6	NS		small sample size
<u>Populations Targeted</u>				
Universal	27	NS		
Environmental Risk	27	NS		
Low Birth Weight	27	N/A		no targeted contrasts
Teenage Mothers	27	37.60***	0.60	targeted > not targeted
Low Income	27	NS		
<u>Primary Goals</u>				
Child Development	27	N/A		only 1 not primary contrast
Prevent Child Abuse	27	NS		
Health Care	27	NS		
Mom Self-Sufficiency	27	NS		
Mom Social Support	27	NS		
Mom Self-Help	27	NS		

* $p \leq .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.