INTRODUCTION


7. Education Commission of the States, Early Learning: Improving Results for Young Children (Denver: Education Commission of the States, 2000), 4, ECS Archives.

8. Due to its focus on preschool programs, the present analysis devotes limited attention to the history of kindergartens in the United States. Kindergartens are an important chapter in the story of early learning, but they currently fall outside the domain of “preschool” due to their integration into the public school system. Several superb studies examine the emergence of kindergarten as an educational innovation in the late nineteenth century and/or its relationship with the public school system (Beatty 1995,
9. This book uses several terms interchangeably. It refers to preschool education, child development programs, early childhood policy, and prekindergarten. These terms reflect the changing rhetoric of those who favor greater public investment in educational programs serving young children (Russell 2011; L. White 2004). They also reflect preschool service providers’ contemporary diversity.

10. Programs serving infants and toddlers also fall outside the scope of the present analysis. Beatty (1995, xi) asserts that it is “historically correct” to distinguish between preschool education and child care. Several scholars focus on child care in the United States and examine some of the policies and programs that appear in this book (Beatty 1995; Cohen 2001; Michel 1999).

11. These cost estimates include both preschool and child care programs. Focusing solely on child care centers highlights the role of the private sector. In 1990, according to one analysis, about 90 percent of American child care centers were private. Two-thirds of the private centers were nonprofit, and one-third was for-profit. The nonprofit centers included 25 percent that were independent, 15 percent that were sponsored by religious organizations, 8 percent that were run by large nonprofit organizations, and 9 percent that were run by Head Start providers (A. D. White 2005, 17).


15. In addition to complaints about the general shortcomings of the contemporary preschool system, many observers lament the poor quality of individual preschool and child care programs (Barnett and Hustedt 2003; Henry, Gordon, and Rickman 2006).

16. The historical and contemporary political conflict surrounding preschool education is multidimensional. This book focuses on the interplay between the public and the private sector and between the national government and the states, but questions of program effectiveness, appropriate curricula, and teacher certification requirements have also proven controversial. Those debates lie beyond the scope of this analysis but have been examined elsewhere (Beatty 1995; Vinovskis 1999a).

17. A “political analysis” seems especially constructive because, in the words of one scholar, “far too many ‘historians’ of particular childhood policies are insiders with axes to grind” (Sealander 2004, 181).

18. A recent comparative analysis of “family policy” concludes that fewer significant policy changes since the mid-1990s have occurred in the United States than in such countries as the United Kingdom, Germany, France, and Australia (Daly 2010).

19. Many other public preschool programs are modeled on Head Start, especially in terms of their clientele and their comprehensive programming.

20. House Committee on Ways and Means, 1990 Green Book: Background Material and Data on Programs within the Jurisdiction of the Committee on Ways and Means, 101st Cong., 2d sess. (Committee Print, 1990), 840.

21. This growth is impressive, but not all claims are based on preschool-related expenses. Claimants become eligible for the tax credit based on the expenses they incur for
children who are thirteen years of age or less. The substantial growth in claims is based on data from 1988, when the Family Support Act significantly tightened eligibility for the tax credit. It required that taxpayers provide the correct name, address, and taxpayer identification number of the dependent care provider. It also lowered the age at which a taxpayer identification number had to be submitted for children for whom the credit was claimed, from age five to age two. These more-onerous reporting requirements lowered the number of claimants from nine million in 1988 to six million in 1989. See House Committee on Ways and Means, 2004 Green Book: Background Material and Data on Programs within the Jurisdiction of the Committee on Ways and Means, 108th Cong., 2d sess. (Committee Print, 2004), 13–43.


23. This dynamic is not unusual. Third-party providers in the private sector are often the “core societal advocates” of tax expenditures because there are no interest groups that represent their nominal beneficiaries (Howard 1997, 7).

24. Head Start remains in existence nearly five decades after its creation, and its long-term political impact has exceeded that of either the emergency nursery schools or the wartime child care centers. It was created, however, as part of the broader War on Poverty, which, if successful, would not be permanent.

CHAPTER 1

1. Encouraging the involvement of the market and private sector in social provision is a distinguishing feature of liberal welfare states, of which the United States is an “archetypal example” (Esping-Andersen 1990, 27). Some comparative analyses of early childhood policy compare American programs to those in other liberal welfare states (Michel 1999; L. White 2002, 2004).


4. One might posit that public opinion represents such a mechanism. However, most studies of the relationship between public opinion and public policy suggest that public opinion sets the general ideological direction of policy but does not spur elected officials to comply with specific demands (Erikson, Wright, and McIver 1993; Stimson, MacKuen, and Erikson 1995).

5. Comparative scholarship on social policy often examines interest group politics through the lens of power resources theory, which emphasizes the significance of organized labor and social democratic political parties. Power resources theory offers valuable insights into the politics of the welfare state, but several scholars have questioned its applicability to early childhood education and care (Bonoli and Reber 2010; Morgan 2006).
11. The decentralization of political authority set forth in the Constitution has been exacerbated by Progressive Era reforms and changes in congressional operations (Steinmo and Watts 1995).
12. Federalism has been characterized as a “necessary condition for the development of American exceptionalism” (Robertson 1989, 261).
13. Federalism scholars describe an increased willingness among national officials to preempt policy decisions that were made at the state level (Zimmerman 1991).
14. Political historian Julian Zelizer (2004) argues that the complex world of political actors described by political science scholarship might help political historians develop fresh approaches and frameworks for the study of the policymaking process.

CHAPTER 2

1. Several authors examine the early history of early childhood programs in greater detail than will be pursued in this chapter. See Beatty 1995; Cahan 1989; Michel 1999; E. Rose 1999.
2. School attendance data suggest that approximately 40 percent of all three-year-olds in Massachusetts were enrolled in school as late as 1840. Attendance then steadily declined until 1860. See Kaestle and Vinovskis (1978) and May and Vinovskis (1977) for more on Massachusetts, the state for which the best data on infant school attendance are available.
4. Eliot, “Nursery Schools Fifty Years Ago,” 211.
7. Cravens (1993) examines the emergence of child development as an established science and profession in the American scientific and academic system, focusing on the history and impact of the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station. Some of the Iowa scientists, most prominently George D. Stoddard, were actively involved in political debates over the appropriate role of nursery schools.
8. Local control led the schools to take on a variety of forms. Some were connected to colleges or universities, others were part of high school home economics departments, and others were administered by local community agencies. See Sue C. Wortham, Childhood, 1892–1992 (Wheaton, MD: ACEI, 1992), 36, ACEI Archives, acc. 99–116, box 8.

11. This particular estimate may overstate peak enrollment in the emergency nursery school program. In a 1972 interview, someone who was on the faculty of the Child Development Institute at Teachers College at Columbia University when the program began claimed that the peak enrollment was in 1934–35, when seventy-five thousand children attended nineteen hundred nursery schools (Hymes 1979, 20).


13. Elizabeth Rose (1999, 145) uses language that is more flexible, explaining that the nursery schools provided services to children whose families were “on relief or near relief.” Her description confirms the targeted nature of the program.

14. Children attending WPA nursery schools represented only 5 percent of children aged two to five years who were attending school. Most of the others enrolled in kindergartens in public schools, and school attendance was higher in urban areas than in rural areas. See Mary Dabney Davis, *Schools for Children under Six: A Report on the Status and Need for Nursery Schools and Kindergartens*, bulletin 1947, no. 5 (Washington, DC: Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, 1947), 23, ACEI Archives, RG V, series 1, box 10.

15. *Federal Aid for the Day Care Program*.

16. *Federal Aid for the Day Care Program*, 44.


18. Some observers portrayed female employment as an economic necessity for individual families who had been affected by the war, arguing that the stipends received by the wives of men in the armed forces were “utterly inadequate” (*Wartime Care and the Protection of Children of Employed Mothers: Hearing on S. 876 and S. 1130 before the Senate Committee on Education and Labor*, 78th Cong., 1st sess. [1943], 91).


25. *Federal Aid for the Day Care Program*, 46–47.

26. *Federal Aid for the Day Care Program*, 47.

27. Many WPA nursery schools were converted into wartime child care centers by lengthening their hours and limiting their enrollment to children of working women. By May 1943, “1,150 of the 1,700 WPA nursery schools were operating in war-disrupted areas serving children and families regardless of income” (Cahan 1989, 42).


29. *Federal Aid for the Day Care Program*, 46.


31. *Nursery Schools Vital to America’s War Effort*, School Children and the War Se-


36. Association for Nursery Education of Southern California, Mail Survey of the Families of the Children Enrolled in the Ninety Los Angeles Child Care Center Nursery Schools, Carl Albert Center, Helen Gahagan Douglas Collection, box 17, folder 4b. The memorandum describing the survey is undated but reveals that it was mailed on July 15, 1945.


42. A similar campaign occurred in the United Kingdom, where the National Society of Children’s Nurseries pressed for nurseries to become a permanent feature of the British social service system. Legislation passed in England in 1944 and in Scotland in 1945 made “the provision of fully equipped educational centers obligatory upon all local Education Authorities for children from two years of age and up.” According to that legislation, “Parents are not required to send their children but the school authorities are required to provide suitable facilities” (Russell, “With Books and Magazines,” 59; emphasis in original).

43. Congress continued to support centers for poor children in Washington, DC, until 1953 (Beatty 1995, 192).

44. Hymes, “Road Ahead for Nursery Schools,” 36.


47. Dorothy W. Baruch, Evangeline B. Burgess, and Dorothy Blumenstock Jones, *How to Start Publicity for Nursery Education in Your Community* (Iowa City, IA: National Association for Nursery Education, 1940), 13, ACEI Archives, RG V, series 1, box 10.
48. Four states (California, Massachusetts, New York, and Washington) allocated state funds for child care immediately after the Second World War. California was the only one whose allocation preserved a large proportion of its centers (Reese 1996, 568).


51. Michel (1999, 150) argues that the largely unsuccessful attempts to extend public funding for early childhood programs provoked a “broad-ranging debate about motherhood, paid employment, and child care that eventually led to the formation of a national child care movement.” For example, postwar protests in Philadelphia illustrated mothers’ “new sense of entitlement” to publicly funded care and eventually led the city to fund centers through the 1950s (E. Rose 1999, 6). While important, these debates and developments had a limited effect on national enrollment patterns.


55. Proponents also linked the tax deduction to the Korean War and other policy initiatives. They contended that “women’s labor was necessary to the nation’s economic and security interests, claimed that the deduction would help promote rapid mobilization in a wartime emergency, and insisted that child care was as legitimate a business expense as entertainment, travel, and country club membership” (E. Rose 1999, 196).


57. This discussion of Head Start draws heavily on three excellent accounts of its emergence and early years: Vinovskis 2005, Zigler and Muenchow 1992, and Zigler and Styfco 2010.


60. During his 1964 presidential campaign, Johnson discussed education and poverty at length but did not mention preschool specifically (Vinovskis 2005, 58).


62. J. W. Getzels, “Preschool Education,” in *Consultants’ Papers, The White House*


64. Becker, “Pre-School Education.”


70. “Follow Through,” undated program summary, 1, National Archives, RG 12: Records of the Office of Education, Office of the Commissioner, Office Files of the Commissioner of Education, 1939–80, A1, entry 122, box 485. The summary includes estimates of “new obligatory authority,” the number of children served, and the number of programs for fiscal years 1968, 1969, and 1970. These estimates and the document’s reference to the “initial stages” of Follow Through suggest that it was published shortly after the program was launched in 1967. Follow Through was created as a temporary demonstration program, but it lasted for twenty-five years, despite a checkered history and disappointing results (Vinovskis 1999a, chap. 4).


72. The Coleman Report and a research monograph by Albert Jensen also placed Head Start supporters on the defensive. The former argued that schools could do little to reverse the educational disadvantages induced by poverty, and the latter emphasized the impact of genetics and heredity (Zigler and Muenchow 1992, 56–73).

ment was one of three enclosures that accompanied a letter of June 2, 1969, from the secretary to Head Start grantees.


82. Beatrice Rosenberg, Day Care Facts (Washington, DC: Women's Bureau, 1970), 1, Carl Albert Center, Fred Harris Collection, box 231, folder 19.


86. Senn, interview with Phillips, 4.

87. These two approaches are best thought of as ideal types, as no early childhood program is exclusively custodial or educational.

88. Senn, interview with Zigler, 3.
89. Senn, interview with Zigler, 31.

90. The research of Hunt and Bloom was influential, but the two scholars were not the first to challenge the notion that physical and mental development were predetermined. From the mid-1930s to the early 1950s, the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station was “the leading challenger of the field’s twin theses, the maturation theory and the idea of the fixed IQ” (Cravens 1993, 110).


92. Wortham, *Childhood*, 50.

93. Zigler described himself as a skeptic who believed that the environment affected motivation more profoundly than it affected intelligence. He participated in several heated debates with Hunt that “were advertised somewhat like competitions between rival evangelists” (Zigler and Muenchow 1992, 13–14).


97. The “laboratories of democracy” metaphor can be traced to a dissent by Supreme Court justice Louis Brandeis in *New State Ice Co. v. Liebmann*, 285 U.S. 262 (1932).


100. Several historians provide more-comprehensive accounts of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. See Bailey and Mosher 1968; Graham 1984; Sundquist 1968; Thomas 1975.


104. Undated and untitled draft, 17, Minnesota Historical Society, Manuscripts Collection, Albert H. Quie Papers, “House Republican Task Force on Tax Credits for Higher Education Files, 1965,” box 56, 146.I.12.11B. The draft appears in a folder with several documents from the first few months of 1965. It may be “A Preschool Program for Republicans,” which is referenced by another document in the folder but does not appear in it.

105. Rosenberg, Day Care Facts, 3.


CHAPTER 3


5. Education for the Urban Disadvantaged: From Preschool to Employment (New York: Committee for Economic Development, 1971), 17, Carl Albert Center, Carl Albert Collection, Department Files, box 93, folder 15. The statement endorsed universal enrollment while placing special emphasis on access for “disadvantaged” children.

6. Milton J. E. Senn, interview with Dr. Julius Richmond, July 12, 1972, 47.


8. Malone, Federal Involvement in Day Care, 10–11.

Secretary, Office File of Jule Sugarman, First Director of the Office of Child Development, 1967–69, entry 34, box 2.
12. Rosenberg, Day Care Facts, 8.
17. Rosenberg, Day Care Facts, 12.
21. “Day Care Programs Authorized by H.R. 12080,” memorandum from Lawrence C. Feldman, executive director, National Committee for the Day Care of Children, to staff, Senate Finance Committee, undated, 2, Carl Albert Center, Fred Harris Collection, box 193, folder 15.
26. Due to tight state budgets, a lack of personnel, and a lack of physical facilities, this provision spurred “relatively little new day care” (Malone, Federal Involvement in Day Care, 35–36).
27. Day Care and Child Development in Your Community (Washington, DC: Day
Care and Child Development Council of America, 1969), 13 (emphasis in original), Carl Albert Center, Fred Harris Collection, box 193, folder 15.


35. The Select Subcommittee on Education of the House Committee on Education and Labor held hearings on a similar bill with the same title during the Ninetieth Congress.


38. The bills profiled in this paragraph do not provide a comprehensive list of legislation with implications for early childhood policy but highlight the bills whose objectives resonated with those of the Comprehensive Child Development Act of 1971.


41. Milton J. E. Senn, interview with Carolyn Harmon, September 14, 1972, 3.

42. Senn, interview with Harmon, 2–3. Harmon did not join the Office of Child Development until July 1970, but she explained that upon joining the agency, she had been told about Sugarman’s activities and how they had been perceived.

43. Senn, interview with Harmon, 4.

52. Senn, interview with Edelman, 5.
54. Milton J. E. Senn, interview with Judy Assmus, September 14, 1972, 8.
55. Senn, interview with Assmus, 8.
56. Milton J. E. Senn, interview with Dr. Donald Cohen, November 1, 1972, 2.
57. The coalition also included Common Cause, the League of Women Voters, the U.S. Catholic Conference, the National Organization for Women, and organizations representing Latinos and Native Americans (Senn, interview with Johnson, 4).
58. Senn, interview with Assmus, 2–3.
59. Senn, interview with Assmus, 3.
60. Senn, interview with Johnson, 5–6.
61. Senn, interview with Johnson, 5–6.


71. Letter from Wilma Scott Heide (president) and Mary Ann Stuart (Child Care Task Force) of the National Organization for Women to secretary of health, education, and welfare Elliot Richardson, November 1, 1971, Carl Albert Center, Fred Harris Collection, box 231, folder 17.

72. Letter from Roy Wilkins, Ralph David Abernathy, Dorothy Height, Vernon Jordan, A. Philip Randolph, Bayard Rustin, Harold Sims, and Andrew Young to President Richard Nixon, November 24, 1971, Carl Albert Center, Cornelius Gallagher Collection, box 21, folder 5.

73. Milton J. E. Senn, interview with Lisbeth Bamberger Schorr and William Smith, April 23, 1974, 12. Schorr made the observation about the political strength of programs for low-income families.

74. Senn, interview with Edelman, 8.

75. Senn, interview with Edelman, 3.

76. Senn, interview with Edelman, 4–5.

77. Senn, interview with Edelman, 9.


79. Senn, interview with Edelman, 10.

80. Letter from Roy Wilkins et al. to Nixon (emphasis in original).


82. Senn, interview with Phillips, 18.

83. Milton J. E. Senn, interview with Judy Miller, October 12, 1972, 14.

84. Senn, interview with Edelman, 4.

85. Senn, interview with Harmon, 9.


89. Only New York senator James Buckley, representing the Conservative Party, at-
tacked the basic philosophical foundations of the bill. Buckley characterized it as “one of the most radical pieces of legislation ever contemplated by Congress” (McCathren 1981, 111).

96. “Statement of Senator Fred R. Harris (D-OK) on Child Development Act,” February 10, 1971, 1, Carl Albert Center, Fred Harris Collection, box 231, folder 20.
99. “Child Care: Top Priority for Women’s Rights Movement,” Voice for Children (Day Care and Child Development Council of America) 3, no. 8 (September 1970): 1, 8, Carl Albert Center, Fred Harris Collection, box 185, folder 19.
100. “Day Care and Women’s Liberation,” Voice for Children 3, no. 8 (September 1970): 4, Carl Albert Center, Fred Harris Collection, box 185, folder 19.
101. Senn, interview with Phillips, 32.
102. Letter from Agnes T. Marks, coordinator of the Legion of Mothers, to Carl Albert, June 10, 1971, Carl Albert Center, Carl Albert Collection, Legislative Files, box 132, folder 11.
104. Letter from John L. Grady, mayor of Belle Glade, FL, to Cornelius Gallagher, December 8, 1971, Carl Albert Center, Cornelius Gallagher Collection, box 21, folder 5.
106. Senn, interview with Phillips, 11–12.
110. See, for example, “Statement of Congressman John Brademas on the National Radio Networks (CBS, NBC, ABC, Mutual, Public) as Spokesman for the Congress in Responding to the Network Address on Education Made by President Nixon One Week Ago,” March 30, 1974, New York University Archives, John Brademas Congressional Papers, “Speeches: Education Response to President Nixon,” box III:12, folder 23. The date of this particular reference illustrates how advocates cited the presidential message throughout the Nixon presidency.
111. Senn, interview with Assmus, 4.
112. Senn, interview with Johnson, 8.
118. Senn, interview with Harmon, 12.
120. Senn, interview with Johnson, 8.
121. Senn, interview with Harmon, 12.
123. “Brief Legislative History of Significant Child Care Proposals,” memorandum from Earline Anderson to Walter Campbell, August 10, 1971, 2, Carl Albert Center, Fred Harris Collection, box 231, folder 18.
124. Senn, interview with Harmon, 11.
125. Senn, interview with Schorr and Smith, 16. Smith made this observation about the lobbying campaign.
126. Senn, interview with Edelman, 10.
130. Senn, interview with Johnson, 14.
131. Letter from Richardson to Brademas. The quotation appears on the third page of the enclosure accompanying the letter.
134. Senn, interview with Johnson, 13.
136. Senn, interview with Miller, 13.
137. Letter from A. Sidney Johnson III to Urie Bronfenbrenner, September 7, 1971, Minnesota Historical Society, Manuscripts Collection, Walter F. Mondale Papers, “Sub-committee on Children and Youth,” box 32, 13.3.0.3B.
140. Senn, interview with Miller, 3.
141. A family could be charged no more than 10 percent on annual incomes between $4,320 and $5,916 and no more than 15 percent on incomes between $5,916 and $6,960. Under this formula, the annual fee for a family of four earning $6,960 would be $316.20 (Congressional Quarterly 1972).
142. Senn, interview with Johnson, 14–15.
144. Letter from Lucy Wilson Benson, president of the League of Women Voters of the United States, to Carl Albert, November 30, 1971, Carl Albert Center, Carl Albert Collection, Legislative Files, box 132, folder 12.
147. Senn, interview with Assmus, 5.
156. Senn, interview with Assmus, 6.
157. Senn, interview with Johnson, 15–16.
158. Senn, interview with Assmus, 6. See Cohen 2001, chap. 2, for a more expansive discussion of the debate within the Nixon administration over the legislation, the veto, and the press conference that followed the veto.
159. Senn, interview with Harmon, 18–19.
161. Senn, interview with Miller, 10.
162. Senn, interview with Edelman, 12 (emphasis in original).
164. Milton J. E. Senn, interview with Albert Quie, April 25, 1975, 13.
165. Senn, interview with Johnson, 16.
166. Senn, interview with Harmon, 22.
167. Senn, interview with Assmus, 11.
168. Senn, interview with Edelman, 11.

**CHAPTER 4**

5. The survey also revealed that public support for kindergarten was provided in the Canal Zone, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands (“Early Childhood Education: Survey of States—1967,” 2, ECS Archives; this undated document appears in a folder that also contains a letter of January 18, 1968, and an information packet that was mailed to key figures in each of the states).
8. The commission was a nonprofit organization formed by interstate compact and designed to establish a partnership between state educators and political leaders (“The Education Commission of the States,” *Early Childhood Project Newsletter* 1 [April 1972]: 4, ECS Archives).
10. The ECS sent the packet to presidents of state education associations, commissioners, majority and minority leaders of state legislatures, chairs of legislative councils, and chairs of finance committees of state legislatures. In preparing the packet, it worked with the American Association of University Women, the Association for Childhood Education International, the National Association for the Education of Young Children, the National Committee for Children and Youth, the National Committee for the Day Care of Children, the National Committee for Support of Public Schools, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, the National Education Association, and the Department of Elementary-Kindergarten-Nursery Education of the NEA.
15. “Grant Received for Early Childhood Implementation Project—State Services Planned,” *Early Childhood Project Newsletter* 1 (April 1972): 1, ECS Archives.
18. *A Fact Sheet on the ECS Early Childhood Project*, ECS Archives (this undated flyer lists publications from May 1976 and earlier).
19. “Grant Received for Early Childhood Implementation Project,” 1.
20. *A Fact Sheet on the ECS Early Childhood Project*.
22. “Grant Received for Early Childhood Implementation Project,” 1.
27. “Grant Enables ECS to Expand Assistance to States,” *Early Childhood Project Newsletter* 8 (July 1973): 1, ECS Archives.
28. “Grant Enables ECS to Expand Assistance to States,” 1.
39. “Grant Received for Early Childhood Implementation Project,” 1.
40. “Grant Received for Early Childhood Implementation Project,” 1.
54. Senn, interview with Schorr and Smith, 14. Smith made this observation about state offices of child development.
57. Early Childhood Project, “State Offices of Child Development: Do They Work?” preliminary draft for use only at the Early Childhood National Symposium, August 1–2, 1974, 2, ECS Archives.
61. Early Childhood Task Force, *Early Childhood Programs in the States*, 60. The director of the Idaho office also noted that potential disadvantages to this arrangement included vulnerability to political change and incompatibility between previous political commitments and research.
64. “States Move Ahead,” 3.
68. “State Legislatures Focus on Early Childhood Development,” 1.
71. “Grant Enables ECS to Expand Assistance to States,” 1.
78. “Changing Times for OCDs,” 2.
80. Letter from John B. Himelrick Sr., director, Interagency Council for Child Development Services, Office of the Governor, Charleston, WV, to Congressman John Brademas, September 4, 1975, New York University Archives, John Brademas Congressional Papers, “Child and Family Services: Day Care-Pro,” box 1:04, folder 12. Himelrick’s letter noted that seventeen states had functioning statewide offices of child development, that twelve states had a grant to plan and establish an office, and that eight states had an office of child development functioning in part of the state.
100. Senn, interview with Schorr and Smith, 13–14. Smith made this observation about the role of the states.


CHAPTER 5

1. Milton J. E. Senn, interview with Carolyn Harmon, September 14, 1972, 22.
5. “Child Development,” in an issues book from the 1972 Senate campaign, Minnesota Historical Society, Manuscript Collections, Walter F. Mondale Papers, “1984 Campaign Files,” box 1611, 146.L.8.4F. This document describes eleven “criticisms” of Mondale’s child development bills and provides “answers” to each of these critiques.
6. “Governor Dunn Wants Bill Amended,” _Early Childhood Project Newsletter_ 2 (June 1972): 8, ECS Archives.
13. Milton J. E. Senn, interview with Sydney Johnson III, September 15, 1972, 21. Johnson speculated that Representative Albert Quie (R-MN) was reluctant to negotiate because of the possibility that he would be a committee chair in the next Congress.
32. Milton J. E. Senn, interview with Urie Bronfenbrenner, April 12, 1972, 29.
38. Letter from Trotter to Perkins.
39. Letter from Trotter to Perkins.
45. “Sensible Opposition,” editorial, Norman (OK) Transcript, December 17, 1975, 6, Carl Albert Center, Tom Steed Collection, Legislative Files, box 196, folder 3.
46. McGraw, ”Big Brother Child Development Bill Threatens Family,” 2.
52. Letter from Josie M. Thomas, Choctaw, OK, to Congressman Carl Albert, October 15, 1975, Carl Albert Center, Carl Albert Collection, Legislative Files, box 196.
53. Letter from Kathy Norcott, Bowlegs, OK, to Congressman Garner Shriver, October 22, 1975, Carl Albert Center, Carl Albert Collection, Legislative Files, box 196.
54. Letter from Roy L. Miller, Oklahoma City, OK, to Congressman Carl Albert, October 30, 1975, Carl Albert Center, Carl Albert Collection, Legislative Files, box 196.
55. Letter from Nancy Freeland, Oklahoma City, OK, to Congressman Carl Albert, October 29, 1975, Carl Albert Center, Carl Albert Collection, Legislative Files, box 196.
56. The correspondence that Speaker Albert received on the Child and Family Services Act fills eleven folders.
59. Robert P. Sigman, “Misleading Charges against Child Care Act,” Kansas City Star,


68. “Our Point of View: Child-Family Services,” editorial, Norman (OK) Transcript, December 1, 1975, 6, Carl Albert Center, Tom Steed Collection, Legislative Files, box 75, folder 3.


was not limited to nursery schools, and the figures cited in this paragraph are suggestive of broader changes.


78. “Child and Family Services Act: Analysis of Testimony.”


80. “Child and Family Services Act: Analysis of Testimony.”

81. “Child and Family Services Act: Analysis of Testimony.”

82. “Child and Family Services Act: Analysis of Testimony.”

83. Of the seventeen functional state offices of child development, only three were part of departments of education; the others were in governors’ offices or in departments of social or community services (Sally V. Allen, “Growing National Debate: The Schools Can/Can’t Be Trusted with Child Development,” *Compact*, February 1975, 22, New York University Archives, John Brademas Congressional Papers, “Child and Family Services: H.R. 2966,” box I:04, folder 13). This variation foreshadowed the looming battle over the appropriate role of the public schools.


87. “Summary: Joint House/Senate Hearings.” Weinberger “did not know offhand of any programs to be eliminated” when questioned about this programmatic duplication.


89. The contest between Shanker and Selden for control of the American Federation of Teachers is described in more detail in Kahlenberg 2007.

90. Shanker referred to comments by Edwin W. Martin, acting deputy commissioner of the U.S. Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, who had compared the fragmentation of early childhood policy to a “Buddhist approach to gardening.”


92. “Highlights of Meeting with Ed Zigler on October 28, 1975,” memorandum from “Mike” to “Jack,” New York University Archives, John Brademas Congressional Papers, “Child and Family Services: H.R. 2966,” box I:04, folder 15. The recipient of this memorandum was likely Jack G. Duncan, counsel to the House Subcommittee on Select Education.


96. Senn, interview with Steiner, 12.


99. The rift over the appropriate role of the public schools began to emerge before the publication of Shanker’s essay. Two members of the ECS task force debated each other at an August 1974 symposium on child development. The event was characterized as “the first public airing of these contrasting views by prominent persons in the field” (“Martin and Sugarman Debate Public Schools as Delivery System,” Early Childhood Project Newsletter 14 [September 1974]: 1, ECS Archives).

100. Shannon, “Government and Families.”


103. Letter from Jack T. Waters, major and city commander, Salvation Army, Tulsa, OK, to Congressman Carl Albert, April 2, 1975, Carl Albert Center, Carl Albert Collection, Legislative Files, box 196.


106. Steiner (1981, 42–43) speculates that Cohen withdrew due to the controversy over Patricia Fleming’s appointment as executive director and the fact that he “could look ahead to trouble because of his belief in public intervention to prevent large families.”

107. However, the administration did create the Office for Families in the Department of Health and Human Services, in October 1979 (Beck 1982, 328).

108. Cranston’s cosponsors included Harrison Williams Jr. (D-NJ), Donald Reigle Jr. (D-MI), Jacob Javits (R-NY), and George McGovern (D-SD).


111. Child Care Act of 1979: Hearings before the Subcommittee on Child and Human Development, 3.


117. *Child Care Act of 1979: Hearings before the Subcommittee on Child and Human Development*, 238. Vice President Mondale later remarked that Cranston’s queries had been “inartfully answered” and that the testimony might have been less controversial had the lack of administration support been attributed to budgetary constraints (interview with former vice president Walter F. Mondale, December 3, 2010, Minneapolis, MN).


126. House Committee on Ways and Means, *1990 Green Book: Background Material and Data on Programs within the Jurisdiction of the Committee on Ways and Means*, 101st Cong., 2d sess. (Committee Print, 1990), 840.


CHAPTER 6

1. Examining initiatives that were not adopted also provides a useful contrast with the recent state-level changes that are profiled in chapter 8. Those successful campaigns generally accommodated existing stakeholders, illustrating how the long-term impact of decisions made in the 1970s constrained policymakers’ options.


3. Several studies examine these changes in more detail. See Manna 2006; McDermott 2011; McGuinn 2006.

4. The Child Care Development and Block Grant Act of 1990 did not focus on educational services. Instead, it sought to make child care resources available to low-income families beyond those receiving welfare. It limited the national government’s role to “providing subsidies to low-income families and helping states upgrade the quality of existing [child care] services” (E. Rose 2010, 79). For more on this landmark legislation, see Cohen 2001; Lombardi 2003; E. Rose 2010.

5. At a hearing on another piece of legislation in 1988, Kennedy said, “I do not expect that as comprehensive a program as Smart Start will be enacted in this session of Congress” (Prekindergarten Early Dropout Intervention Act of 1988: Hearing on S. 2034 before the Senate Committee on Labor and Human Resources, 100th Cong., 2d sess. [1988], 2).


7. Smart Start, 329.

8. Smart Start, 63.

9. Smart Start, 259.

10. Smart Start, 240.

11. Smart Start, 253.

12. Smart Start, 226.

13. Smart Start, 335 (emphasis in original).

14. One exception was Lawrence J. Schweinhart of the High/Scope Educational Research Foundation, who described underfunded, low-quality programs as “a reckless gamble with our nation’s most precious commodity—the lives and futures of our children” (Smart Start, 318).


16. Smart Start, 76.

17. Smart Start, 161.

18. Smart Start, 272.


21. Smart Start, 42.

22. Smart Start, 42–43.

23. Smart Start, 237.

24. Smart Start, 303.
25. Smart Start, 152.
26. Smart Start, 304.
27. Smart Start, 105.
28. Smart Start, 264.
29. Smart Start, 31.
30. Smart Start, 2.

31. Smart Start, 304. The witness, Lawrence J. Schweinhart of the High/Scope Educational Research Foundation, argued that Head Start should also strive to develop stronger ties with the states.

32. Smart Start, 31.
33. Smart Start, 305.
34. Smart Start, 157.
35. Smart Start, 269.
36. Smart Start, 295.
37. Smart Start, 307.
38. Smart Start, 154.
39. Smart Start, 187.
40. Smart Start, 280.
41. Smart Start, 57.
42. Smart Start, 107.
43. Smart Start, 122.
44. Smart Start, 238–39.

45. Prekindergarten Early Dropout Intervention Act, 6.
46. Prekindergarten Early Dropout Intervention Act, 35.
47. Prekindergarten Early Dropout Intervention Act, 56–57.
50. Prekindergarten Early Dropout Intervention Act, 125.
51. Prekindergarten Early Dropout Intervention Act, 42.
52. Prekindergarten Early Dropout Intervention Act, 33.
53. Prekindergarten Early Dropout Intervention Act, 43.
54. Prekindergarten Early Dropout Intervention Act, 50–51.
55. Prekindergarten Early Dropout Intervention Act, 130.
56. Prekindergarten Early Dropout Intervention Act, 49.
57. Prekindergarten Early Dropout Intervention Act, 131.

59. See Morgan 2006 for a more detailed discussion of the tax policy changes of the 1980s and their political implications.

60. Early Childhood Education and Development Act, 42.
61. Early Childhood Education and Development Act, 163.

62. One minor policy change occurred in 1989, when the Early Start program was established. Early Start “invests in early literacy programs for very low-income families, particularly during the years leading up to a child’s third birthday” (Maeroff 2006, 29). Early Start illustrates the constraining effect of the existing policy repertoire, because both its name and its primary constituency are clearly extensions of Head Start.

63. Early Childhood Education and Development Act, 131.

65. Those who support additional public investment in early childhood programs frequently cite the Perry Preschool Program and other initiatives, but the quality of these acclaimed programs exceeds that of most other preschool programs in the United States (Vinovskis 1999a, 75). Furthermore, these multifaceted initiatives “had many moving parts, and no one can say for sure which (if any) of them mattered more than others” (Finn 2009, 49).


70. Despite widespread public support for the goal of promoting school readiness, its numerous and shifting meanings meant that “attempts to implement [the goal] faced major conceptual and practical problems” (Dombkowski 2001, 541). For an excellent account of the politics surrounding school readiness and the effort by the National Education Goals Panel and the National Governors Association to achieve it, see Vinovskis 1999b.


**CHAPTER 7**


10. This focus on early childhood programs extended to those serving children between birth and age three. The ECS, the National Governors Association, and several foundations launched initiatives on the topic in the late 1990s.


15. *Are Our Children Ready to Learn?,* 27.


17. *Multiple Program Coordination,* 21.

18. *Multiple Program Coordination,* 46.

19. *Multiple Program Coordination,* 3.

20. *Multiple Program Coordination,* 23.

21. *Multiple Program Coordination,* 16.

22. *Multiple Program Coordination,* 38.

23. *Multiple Program Coordination,* 32.

24. *Multiple Program Coordination,* 11.

25. *Multiple Program Coordination,* 12.


27. *Multiple Program Coordination,* 37.

28. *Multiple Program Coordination,* 36.


30. *Early Education: From Science to Practice,* 68.


34. *Early Education: From Science to Practice*, 5.
41. *Early Education: From Science to Practice*, 35.
42. *Early Education: From Science to Practice*, 40.
43. *Early Education: From Science to Practice*, 12.
64. *Early Childhood Education: Improvement through Integration*, 2.
65. During the debate over reauthorization, Democrats and Republicans were also divided on language that would have allowed faith-based providers of Head Start services to take religion into account when hiring employees for the program. This language, which the Bush administration endorsed, was not in the final bill.
70. Dillon, “Obama Pledge Stirs Hope.”
72. Title I distributes funds to local education agencies and public schools that have high numbers or high percentages of poor children. The funds can be used for preschool or to supplement or expand other early childhood programs. See Steffanie Clothier, Economic Recovery Funding Opportunities for Early Care and Education (Denver: National Conference of State Legislatures, 2009), 2.
73. Clothier, Economic Recovery Funding Opportunities, 3.
74. Clothier, Economic Recovery Funding Opportunities, 6.
76. Twelve of the sixteen finalists in the first phase of Race to the Top completed the early education section of the application. See Chrisanne L. Gayl, Pre-K and the Race to the Top: A Review of Early Education Proposals in States’ Phase 1 Grant Applications (Washington, DC: Pre-K Now, 2010), 2.
77. Gayl, Pre-K and the Race to the Top, 2–3.
78. Gayl, Pre-K and the Race to the Top, 6.
79. Gayl, Pre-K and the Race to the Top, 8.
81. Race to the Top–Early Learning Challenge, 3.
82. Race to the Top–Early Learning Challenge, 2.
83. Strauss, “Early Childhood Again in Spotlight.”

CHAPTER 8

2. Education Commission of the States, Early Learning: Improving Results for Young Children (Denver: Education Commission of the States, 2000), 7, ECS Archives.
3. Education Commission of the States, Early Learning, 8.
4. Education Commission of the States, Early Learning, 9.

7. For more on the role of the Pew Charitable Trusts, see Bushouse 2009 and E. Rose 2010, chap. 5.

8. A similar rhetorical transformation occurred in the context of kindergarten, where several developments in the late twentieth century “progressively recast the purpose of kindergarten education from a vehicle for young children’s development to the foundation for the individual child’s future academic achievement” (Russell 2011, 256).

9. Supporters of increased public investment carefully considered how to frame the issue. For example, focus groups in four states suggested greater public comfort with “universally available, voluntary prekindergarten” than “universal pre-K,” because the latter sounded like a mandatory program. They also suggested a preference for “government-assisted” rather than “government-run” programs, possibly due to the existing mélange of service providers (Education Commission of the States, Starting Early, Starting Now, 23).


17. Education Commission of the States, Starting Early, Starting Now, 2.


19. Education Commission of the States, Starting Early, Starting Now, 8.

20. Education Commission of the States, Starting Early, Starting Now, 3.


23. Education Commission of the States, Early Learning, 4.


26. The relevant service providers included child care facilities (18 percent), Head Start centers (7 percent), family-based care (1 percent), and other organizations (3 percent) (“Early Childhood Education Resource Materials,” 2).
28. See Bushouse 2009 for a more comprehensive description of developments in Georgia and Oklahoma.
30. Education Commission of the States, Starting Early, Starting Now, 17.
31. Education Commission of the States, Starting Early, Starting Now, 12.
32. For more on the social scientific rationale behind this approach and the perils of failing to examine multiple outcomes, see Geddes 1990 and King, Keohane, and Verba 1994.
33. In addition to the quantitative approach employed here, one can increase confidence in the conclusions drawn from primarily historical accounts by paying more-careful attention to causal mechanisms, relying on counterfactual analysis, or examining multiple policy areas (Hacker 2002).
34. Rigby 2007 describes the data on which these figures are based.
35. Two policy alignments will not be examined here. One might hypothesize that a strong Head Start community will lead states to fund only Head Start supplements. Very few states undertake such a funding approach, however, making a systematic analysis impossible. In addition, the analysis in this chapter does not examine the relationship between Head Start strength and a mixed funding approach, because its impact is unclear. Head Start supporters might appreciate the supplemental funding but worry that the simultaneous existence of a freestanding program represents a long-term threat. In addition, Head Start supplements often come with “strings attached.” Some supplements fund extended days or enrollment expansions, but in other cases, the state assumes some administrative responsibility for Head Start (Barnett et al. 2006, 31). As a result, Head Start supporters might resist the establishment of a mixed funding approach.
38. References to anticipated “positive” or “negative” relationships merit further explanation. The first dependent variable indicates whether a state does not fund preschool education. Any characteristic expected to have a “positive” impact on preschool spending will be expected to have a negative relationship with this specific outcome. The second dependent variable indicates whether a state exclusively funds a freestanding program. The expected relationships are therefore expected to hold as they are described here. For ease of interpretation, tables 2 and 3 include the expected direction of the relationship under examination.
39. The analysis in this section uses state per capita income as its proxy for the economic resources. The specific measure is per capita income (Bureau of Economic Analysis, http://www.bea.gov/regional/docs/income [accessed September 20, 2012]) divided


42. The party control measure is an updated, annual version of the data presented in Klarner 2003.

43. The “first differences” displayed in tables 2 and 3 are predicted probabilities rather than the coefficients of the original analysis. They were derived by setting all continuous variables to their means and all dichotomous variables to their modes and manipulating the quantity of interest. For such variables as the size of the Head Start community, the values in the tables display the change in the predicted probability when the quantity of interest shifts from one standard deviation below its mean to one standard deviation above its mean. For dichotomous variables like unified Democratic government, the values in the tables display the change in predicted probability when the quantity of interest shifts from zero to one. The values were derived using the statistical simulation technique and computer software described in King, Tomz, and Wittenberg 2000. The “confidence intervals” presented in the tables are 2.5 percent, 97.5 percent of the posterior distributions.

44. Technically, the results presented in table 2 indicate that wealthy states, liberal states, and states with a unified Democratic government are all significantly less likely not to allocate public funds to preschool. The formulations used in the text have been employed for ease of interpretation.

45. The effects of the remaining three variables included in the model—percentage of the state population under age five (positive), state education level (positive), and population homogeneity (positive)—do not conform to our predictions. Of these three variables, only the relationship between the state education level and the decision not to fund preschool education achieves conventional levels of statistical significance.

46. The effects of the remaining four variables included in the model—percentage of the state population under age five (negative), state wealth (negative), state education level (negative), and population homogeneity (negative)—do not conform to our predictions. Of these four variables, only the relationship between state education level and the exclusive funding of a freestanding state program achieves conventional levels of statistical significance. The negative relationships between education and preschool funding in tables 2 and 3 might reflect regional patterns. Southern states’ populations generally have less formal education, but states like Georgia and Oklahoma have been policy leaders. This southern leadership dates to the 1980s, when several regional associations called for increased investment in public schools, including early childhood programs, as part of a long-term economic growth strategy (Bushouse 2009, 19).

47. The key relationship identified in this section is robust to changes in model specification. In models using alternative measures of partisanship, population homogene-
ity, and education levels, the relationship between Head Start strength and preschool funding remains in the expected direction and achieves conventional levels of statistical significance. These results suggest that neither the absence of a relationship between ethnic and racial diversity and preschool funding nor the unexpected relationship between education levels and preschool funding decisions is an artifact of the proxies used to measure these state attributes. In another test of the robustness of the results reported here, the analysis was also performed using a random effects model. The substantive effects of the analysis hold, as the interest group variable achieves conventional levels of statistical significance in both models.

48. It might also be useful to extend the present analysis to other dimensions of preschool policy, such as curricular standards, personnel credentials, and classroom regulations. The contemporary debate over preschool education is multidimensional, and the size of the Head Start community may not be relevant in every context.


51. McNichol, Oliff, and Johnson, States Continue to Feel Recession's Impact.

52. McNichol, Oliff, and Johnson, States Continue to Feel Recession's Impact, 2.


54. Johnson, Oliff, and Williams, An Update on State Budgets, 10–11.


56. Child Care and Early Education 2009 Legislative Action, 2.


58. Child Care and Early Education 2010 Legislative Action, 4.


63. The Best of Head Start: Learning from Model Programs; Hearing before the House Subcommittee on Education Reform of the Committee on Education and the Workforce, 109th Cong., 1st sess. (2005), 32.


67. Some observers view programmatic diversity as a benefit of the status quo because it promotes parental choice and is potentially responsive to families’ divergent priorities (Finn 2009; Fuller 2007).

CONCLUSION
5. In recent years, scholarship in comparative politics has devoted more attention to the politics of education, often through the lens of political economy (Ansell 2010; Iversen and Stephens 2008).
6. One exception is Skocpol 1992, which examines the evolution of maternalist public policies at both the national and the state level in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.
7. Scholars of state politics bear equal responsibility for this lack of scholarly engagement. The theoretical advances and key concepts of the policy development approach have generally not been incorporated into state politics research (Howard 1999).
8. Interview with former vice president Walter F. Mondale, December 3, 2010, Minneapolis, MN.