## Babies are not What We Thought: Call for a New Paradigm\*

Author: Chamberlain, David B, PhD

Publication info: Journal of Prenatal & Perinatal Psychology & Health 14. 1/2 (Fall 1999): 127-144.

ProQuest document link

Abstract: None available.

Full Text: Headnote ABSTRACT: Babies are not what we thought they were in the 19th century or even twenty five years ago. Abundant new findings from experimental research, psychotherapy, and anecdotal reports have rendered traditional views of human development obsolete, yet many obstetricians and psychologists continue to view babies in 19th century terms. The author summarizes this view and its failings and assembles the evidence for a new paradigm that babies, of whatever age, are aware, expressive, and affected by their interactions with others. INTRODUCTION Babies are not what we thought they were in the 19th century or even what we thought they were twenty five years ago. During the 20th century while medicine was learning more about baby bodies, psychology was learning about their minds. The results have been surprising. The findings of psychology are so revolutionary that virtually everything we believed a quarter century ago has been discredited and a new encyclopedia of knowledge has been written about the senses, perception, cognition, communication, and personality of babies, both newborn and unborn.1,2,3,4 The implications of this revolution are especially important for everyone who has a role in bringing babies into the world: parents, childbirth educators, midwives, nurses, neonatologists, obstetricians, and pediatricians. What concerns me deeply is that medical belief and practice has not kept pace with these psychological discoveries and, if there are no major steps ahead in the next few years, obstetrics is in danger of marching straight into the 21st century with a 19th century view of infants. THE 19TH CENTURY PARADIGM In retrospect, the 19th century view of infants was based on a maximum of speculation and minimum of research. Important theorists like Sigmund Freud and Jean Piaget had minimal contact with babies and knew almost nothing about life before birth. Scientists knew a century ago that the brains of babies were small and undeveloped; they could see how poorly coordinated the motor system was and believed that babies could not organize themselves, control behavior, or attach meaning to experience. On this basis, pain and suffering were impossible, violent reactions were only "reflexes," and smiles and other facial expressions were "artifacts." Baby cries were not genuine communication signals and were not respected. When surgery was necessary, babies were paralyzed but given no anesthesia because they could not possibly remember the experience and anesthetics might do more harm than raw surgery. Doctors counted heavily on the fact that whatever they did to babies at birth or before birth would effect their physical bodies and nothing more. When male physicians took control of birth between 1880 and 1930 they brought these 19th century ideas with them. Therefore, it is no accident that the routines invented for hospital birth turned out to be painful for babies. Even the dramatic reactions to male circumcision were dismissed as something impersonal. Doctors separated babies from their mothers no matter how hard they cried or how hungry they became; babies got bottles instead of breasts, nurses instead of mothers and fathers, and group care rather than the individual care normally given by parents. For a half century now, newborns have been greeted with painful injections, skin punctures, refrigerated air, dazzling lights, stinging eye medication, were slapped to get an Apgar score, straightened out for body measurements, and had their heels lanced for blood samples. While waiting in the birth canal, some babies had their scalps pierced with electrodes. Back when no one could see into the womb, it was considered a safe place, the placenta a magic protective barrier. Inside, the fetus was considered deaf and dumb. Outside, the newborn was considered blind and senseless, belonged in a nursery in the hospital or at home, and needed sleep more than anything else. In this old paradigm the body was everything; there was no mind. Experience did not accumulate because memory and learning were impossible, and communication to or from babies was unexpected. You will recognize that many of these 19th

century ideas are alive and well today, almost a hundred years later. Let us hope they are not carried into the 21st century. Present misunderstandings about babies are founded on both ancient myths and modem scientific prejudices. The latter, which concern me in this paper, are focused mainly on how the body and brain develop from conception to birth. In the old view, development proceeded from simple to complex forms, single systems to integrated systems. The early brain was "primitive," the later brain "sophisticated" but not yet mature at birth. Structures would have to be in place before they could function, and these structures were determined by genetics, not experience. If any of the special senses were in evidence, they would not work until "wired" into the cortex some time after birth. This was the old paradigm of human development. Over the last quarter century, research has been dismantling this rickety framework piece by piece. Briefly summarizing, development can no longer be described as progressing from simple to complex, or from single systems to integrated systems.5,6 More and more functions are found to be complex at the beginning; a growing list of behaviors are labeled innate. Early brain parts are, in fact, capable of sophisticated activity and begin to function without waiting for other parts to develop.7,8 Organs begin to function while still under construction (e.g.the heart). Experience can profoundly alter development, as in sexual development.9,10 Some special senses start functioning early in gestation and are intermodal rather than separate.11,12 The fetus is not deaf. Hearing is actually a primary mode of communication and learning in utero and is adult-like at birth. A baby is not a "bundle of reflexes" or born into a state of "normal autism."13 And-most important from a humanitarian viewpoint-the receptors for pain (nociceptors) are in place long before birth.14,15 In retrospect, the old paradigm was negative and discouraging; it gave us no basis to celebrate the sensitivity, emotionality, personality, or cognitive genius of babies, left no room for amazing feats or inspiring gazes. The old paradigm was cruel to infants and failed to alert parents and professionals to their surprising intelligence. THE NEW VIEW OF BABIES A new paradigm has been taking shape gradually and with typical reluctance over the last thirty years.16,17,18,19 If the real nature of babies is finally recognized it will be because of the explosive growth of psychology (especially into the areas of mind and consciousness) and the emergence of new technologies like intrauterine photography,20 sonography,21 and radioimmunoassay7,8 which have allowed us an intimate look at human development. In an age of specialization, no single discipline has seen and described the whole infant. I do not see a new paradigm about infants being heralded in nursing, midwifery, childbirth education, obstetrics, developmental psychology, child psychiatry, or psychoanalysis. The formation of a new global vision of infancy calling for a paradigm shift may fall to those working in pre- and perinatal psychology, a broad, interdisciplinary field which gathers data from all sources.1,4,19 A new paradigm, in my opinion, should be firmly based on three kinds of data, each representing an important part of the whole picture: (1) rigorous experimental research4,22,23 (2) clinical findings24,25,26 (3) anecdotal records of personal experience.27,28,29 (Anecdotal and clinical data are at the leading edge, providing breakthroughs which are verified or clarified by systematic experimentation many years later.) In my view, abundant data from these sources permit us to confidently describe the new "baby." Different words could be used that are equally valid, of course-and I encourage you to find your own-but I would like to offer this simple statement incorporating what we now know about babies: Babies, of whatever age, are aware, expressive, and affected by their interactions with us. These traits are not mutually exclusive; they overlap and support each other. They imply an early sense of self,30 which is a sharp departure from past theories which placed selfhood and mental activity "late in the second year."31,32 Such an idea is completely incompatible with the current literature on learning in utero and at birth.4,19,146 Awareness, expressiveness, and learning from interaction may not be "developmental" in the old sense because these behaviors can be noted across the whole range of development; we should probably accept them as normal aspects of human consciousness. Let me suggest, if only in sketchy form, how these qualities have been documented. Babies Are Aware Tactile sensitivity begins in the seventh week (g.a.) and steadily enlarges to include most parts of the body by seventeen weeks and all parts by thirty-two weeks.14,21 The sense of taste blossoms and functions around fourteen weeks33,34 and taste buds seem to act like microprocessors.35 Hearing may begin early in the first

trimester36 or as late as eighteen weeks37,38 opening up a primary channel for learning and communication through most of pregnancy.39,40 The vestibular system for orientation to space and gravity must be well advanced by twelve weeks in order to play its part in the elaborate program of physical exercise which can be seen via ultrasound at that time.41 By the time of birth, awareness has grown to include a keen sense of smell.42,43 The fetus is aware of light even while the eyelids are still fused (i.e., from week 10-26) and will react to lights flashed on the abdomen.44,45 In utero, vivid awareness is expressed in a range of emotional reactions: during parental intercourse,46,47 erections while thumb-sucking,48 cries in reaction to therapeutic abortion recorded as early as twenty-one weeks14 kicking violently at loud concerts and frightening movies49 and by "squalling in the womb" in reaction to obstetrical maneuvers close to the time of birth.50,51 (This view of early emotion obviously differs from the view that emotions begin sometime after birth.)52 Also in utero, babies react to hot or cold infusions,45 sweet or bitter tastes,45,63 cease fetal breathing in reaction to vodka54 and languish in a noisy environment.55 Out of the womb, but still premature, they notice and react differently56 to their bedding. Babies seem to know when they are unwanted. Longitudinal studies in Europe of children born to parents who were denied abortions illustrate how profoundly and consistently these children were damaged.67 A recent longitudinal study in Sweden traces the ill effects of being the "wrong" sex.68 Both of these are familiar themes in psychotherapy. Awareness is required for the discriminative learning which takes place in utero, for example, the learning of music,59,60 stories,40,61 and language.36,39 Beyond language and voice recognition, some infants demonstrate telepathic82,63 awareness of their mother's thoughts and feelings. After birth, evidence of awareness is much easier to obtain and is abundant. Newborns are fully sensitive and sentient. A mature sense of smell42,43 joins the already developed faculties of taste and hearing. In addition, new visual resources permit the newborn to focus on objects in close range, scan the environment day and night,64 detect patterns, track movement, and see in color.65 Babies have depth-perception,66,67 reach out with intention,68,69 and demonstrate visual recognition memory, a benchmark of intelligence.70,71 Discriminative awareness is seen in the rapid learning of mother's face,72,73 voice,40,61 odors,74,75 body contours, 76 and day/night cycles. 77 Similarly, newborns listen differentially to various cry sounds, favoring human cries of babies their own age.78,79 Clear recognition of their own personal cries is evidence of selfawareness.80 Babies Are Expressive People often complain that babies have no language and cannot participate in meaningful communication. This overlooks the fact that babies speak a number of "universal" languages about as well as we do.4 These include especially body language in the form of movement, facial expressions, hand and finger signals, leg kicks, and a full range of vocal signals. Newborns are famous for their noises, screams, whimpers, whistles, whines, burps, coughs, sneezes, and grunts. You can also hear pleasurable coos, hums, sighs, and on rare occasions, a laugh. Movements and sounds carry information. Modern ultrasound shows us how soon the fetus goes into action moving all parts of the body in a voluntary (not reactive), spontaneous (not stereotyped), and graceful (not reflexive) way.41,81 This is a continuous form of body language with rolls, head-turning, waving, kicking, flexing the back, neck, and feet for up to seven minutes at a stretch. This self-initiated activity continues, with brief rest periods and as space permits, from the twelfth week on through gestation.82 Fingers (which will play such a big part in communication later) are busy playing with the mouth and umbilical cord.83 Hand positions at birth are revealing, especially the clenched fist.84 By twenty-six weeks the fetus has accomplished a ballet-like longitudinal roll.45 This trick is added to somersaults and other kinesthetic activities learned in the aquatic environment. When it comes to kicking and squirming it may express a preference for the music that is playing,49,86,86 resentment of a bright light aimed at the womb,44,46 or be a perfectly friendly response to a "Kick Game" being encouraged by parents.87 Probably the first evidence of emotion can be seen in squinting and scowling around twelve weeks (g.a.) and a sneer-like dissatisfaction at fourteen weeks.14 After birth, of course, we have many more opportunities to observe facial expressions. Mothers and fathers have reported seeing these expressions: interest and joy (noted by 95%), anger (78%), distress (65%), surprise (68%), sadness and disgust (40%).88,89 Emotion is another one of the

baby's "universal" languages. Researchers have filmed babies going from pleasure to rage in 30 seconds.90 Baby faces can instantly mimic adult emotional faces expressing sadness, happiness, and surprise.91,92 Another time to see a range of baby feelings is while they are asleep and dreaming.93 Observers report seeing looks of perplexity, disdain, and fright along with writhing movements of the torso, limbs, and digits as if having bad dreams. They also see smiles and looks of mild amusement, as in pleasant dreams. Premature babies dream more than anybody else and show the most smiles in their dreams, along with frowns, writhing finger movements, neck stretches, mouth movements, and vocalizations.94 We have learned from ultrasound that the beginning of REM/dreaming activity is at twenty-three weeks,96 meaning that this form of creative expression continues for up to seventeen weeks in utero. (Note that dreaming is creative, cognitive activity generated at an unconscious level and probably incorporates elements of fetal experience to date.) Baby faces tell us that their reactions to tastes and smells are about the same as ours.42,43,96 The expressions babies are most famous for are their cries, which begin much earlier than expected, in fact whenever air is available to the larynx.97 As noted previously, audible distress cries have been recorded by at least twenty-one weeks g.a.14 and squalling in the womb itself, usually provoked by obstetrical maneuvers, can be heard before birth.50,61 The range of cries uttered after birth reveal many things including fear, hunger, boredom, malnutrition, and a variety of drugeffects and diseases.98,99,100,101 Pain cries are dramatic expressions of feeling.15,102,103 Babies Are Affected By Their Interactions with Us One of the stubborn myths about babies is that they live in isolated splendor, preoccupied with themselves, and unaffected by experience. In the age of drugs, toxic materials and pollutants we have been forced to recognize that babies in the womb are not only suffering physically from their interactions with us but they are interacting emotionally and mentally as well.104 And they learn from this interaction. (1) Prenatal Interactions Remarkably, by 7 weeks, beta endorphins (a prime resource for dealing with environmental stress) are already in production.8 The rapid development of the vestibular system enables the early fetus to balance and orient itself to the reality of gravity. The burst of physical movement which occurs by twelve weeks is a self-regulated interaction; moves are perfected over time.41 After fourteen weeks the fetus controls the frequency of swallowing amniotic fluid, a selective (perhaps preferential) process.53 Later, the breathing of amniotic fluid is lowered or halted when alcohol or the toxins associated with cigarette smoking are detected in the blood stream.54 These adjustments seem intelligent. Prenates react to medical interventions with accelerated heart activity, turning, or moving away. If any air is available, they may protest from inside or outside the womb.50,51 Reactions to amniocentesis are especially revealing: a burst of body movement when struck by the needle, 105 repeatedly striking the needle barrel after being hit (this with eye lids still fused), 106 loss of beat-to-beat variability in heart rate four minutes after puncture and lasting for two minutes, 106 babies motionless for two minutes, 107 breathing significantly slower for two days and in four days still not back to the previous breathing rate.108 Psychiatric problems have been traced back to a needle hit during amniocentesis.1 Babies learn from other threatening encounters with us. Abortion attempts, not known by the children, led to annual (anniversary) suicide attempts by several teenagers at the same time of year the abortions had been attempted.109 A baby born following sexual intercourse immediately developed a "pain complex" requiring psychiatric care.110 Therapists are discovering more cases of the "vanishing twin," where psychological problems trace back to the experience of loss (consciously forgotten) of a twin in utero.111 In the womb, interactions are constant and relationships are everything. Babies and mothers eat, sleep, exercise, smoke, get sick, and take drugs together resulting in an intense rapport. If a mother is shot, yet unharmed, the baby may die 112 If a psychotic husband goes on a rampage, the baby and pregnant mother end in distress 113 Babies inside pregnant mothers going through an earthquake in Southern Italy showed (via ultrasound) intense hyperkinesia which lasted 2-8 hours; their movements were numerous, disordered, and vigorous.114 Mother's emotions of fright even from watching a video can upset babies measurably.115 A mother's chronic depression may have long-term consequences for the baby after birth.116 When babies are awaiting ultrasound for amniocentesis they are more active than when waiting for routine ultrasound.117 A three-year-old child having

spontaneous recall of life in the womb, said he didn't like his mother singing "those low notes" in her folk songs.29 He had protested the sound with increased activity but she misinterpreted his response and did it more! Parents have taught their prenates to play kicking games with them. One couple found their baby could learn to kick in a circle.87 A Canadian father who said "Hoo, hoo!" next to the womb each night found his child pushing with a foot into his cheek on whichever side he called; this happened in the twenty-fifth week of pregnancy.28 Father and baby played this game for fifteen weeks until the pregnancy ended. His next baby was able to learn this same game. In formal experiments prenates have demonstrated learning by classical conditioning.118,119 More often, in experiments using the habituation paradigm prenates show learning by distinguishing between novel and familiar stimuli.120,121,122 (2) Newborns Are Interacting Also Newborns are well-equipped for engagement with depth-perception,66 coordination of eye and hand69 mouth and hand,123 and sucking-grasping;124 they have full tactile sensitivity, and the senses are coordinated and ready for interaction. They will retreat from bright lights, obnoxious odors, unpleasant tastes, and can detect the slightest differences in temperature of things touching the skin.125 Babies interact by scanning the environment, tracking slowly moving objects, showing special interest in faces, and attempting to reach, contact, and grasp things of interest. In a hostile environment, newborns will defend themselves: The opposite leg will come up to defend another being pricked by a pin,126 arms are raised to strike and push away pressure on the chin.127 Predictably, infants cry in response to needle pricks and electric shocks127,128 and within one second will protest being pinched on the arm.129 Heel lancing, which is a deeper wound, provokes facial expressions of hurt, anger, and shock, and an elevated heart rate. 102, 130 When subjected to repeated lancing, newborns quickly learn to pull their foot away when someone tries to touch it.46 If things get worse, newborns know how to retreat and calm themselves using sleep,131 suckling,132 and by going into a trance.133,134,135 Newborns have a strong attraction to people, faces, and voices, especially those of their parents. They are born already having learned their mother's voice and to an extent her "mother tongue" both of which they seem to prefer.39,61 It takes only minutes of exposure for newborns to learn their mother's face.73,137,138 Within minutes of birth, babies can recognize and imitate manual and facial gestures 139 and emotional expressions.91 In just three days of rooming-in newborns can learn the mother's sleep/wake cycle;77 within two weeks can identify their mother's body contours in the dark76 and in the first week will react sharply if she wears a mask and is silent while breastfeeding.72 Babies are capable of rapt attention: fingers and toes aim right at the target, a behavior which can be seen in the 8-week embryo as well as the neonate. 104,140 Out of the womb, infants continue to synchronize their own behavior with adult behavior, as can be seen when breastfeeding, when making contact by gaze and touch with parents;141 while listening to human speech;142,143,144 and in using up movements to judge which voices and faces go together.146 Synchronous behavior is a complex interactive skill requiring interest, keen perception, and self control. Formal demonstrations of newborn learning and memory are abundant146,147 including classical conditioning148,149,150 operant learning,151,152 and habituation learning.153,154,155 In addition, one can point to evidence of visual memory,71,156 language memory 157, 158, 159 and procedural memory 160 Babies born with a cord wrapped perilously around the neck often develop anxiety about wearing clothing or jewelry in that location; they usually don't know why, but their anxiety is an indelible mark of memory. A baby born at 29 weeks and shunted for hydrocephalus without painkillers, learned from this experience to be phobic about medical procedures.161 At the mere sight of a hospital he would tremble, scream, struggle and vomit; he was still reacting this way at age ten. Finally, perhaps the most striking example of how babies learn from experience is how they remember their own birth. This display of cognition is conclusively validated by innocent children just learning to talk.4,27 Their spontaneous memories are accurate, cogent, and intelligently critical of how things were done at birth; they demonstrate understanding of human relationships and character, precocious comprehension of language, and reveal that babies use altered states of consciousness much as we do. None of this was expected. Perhaps for all the above reasons, experts around the world have begun to describe infants in new terms: they possess a "rational"

mind,162 are "socially attuned,"13,163 "talented,"164 "an extremely competent learning organism,"165 "precocious,"166 and "amazing."3 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS 1. The truth about infants is not told by their size, age, and motor abilities; these factors have actually obscured their real complexity and sophistication. Because their true identity is revealed by awareness and expressiveness, let us speak of sentience rather than age and physical handicaps. 2. In medicine and psychology, preoccupation with the size and function of the brain has postponed discovery of infant capabilities for a hundred years. False ideas about the brain are still the principal justification for cruel and abusive treatment. In the future, let us speak of their intelligence, rather than their brains. 3. Because babies, like other humans, are always sensitive and have personal preferences and feelings, we should no longer condone or routinize their pain. Let us speak of feelings, not "reflexes" and make it a goal to eliminate medically-caused pain from birth. 4. Because infants of all ages manifest intelligence and are learning from their experiences with us, providers of physical care should always consider the effect of a procedure on the baby's emotions and mind. Let us think mind, not just body. 5. In closing, infants are much more than we thought. Nineteenth century science was materialistic in viewing the baby as body, brain, and reflex material. The 21st century view of babies will, I believe, focus on their sensations, emotions, sense of self, personality, communication ability, mind, and consciousness. This major paradigm shift is urgently needed. Footnote \* This paper was presented by invitation to the 10th World Congress of Prenatal and Perinatal Psychology and Medicine, Cracow, Poland, May 15th, 1992. It was originally published in the International Journal of Prenatal and Perinatal Studies Vol. 4 (3 and 4), 1-17 (1992). References REFERENCES 1. Verny, T. and Kelly, J. (1981). The secret Life of the Unborn Child. Summit Books, New York, NY 2. Tronick, E. and Adamson, L. (1980). Babies as People. New Findings on Our Social Beginnings. Macmillan, New York, NY 3. Klaus, M. H. and Klaus, P. H. (1985). The Amazing Newborn. Addison-Wesley, Reading, MA 4. Chamberlain D. B. (1988). Babies Remember Birth. Jeremy R. Tarcher, Los Angeles, CA 5. Prechtl, H. F. R. (1981). The study of neural development as a perspective of clinical problems. In: Connally, K. J. and Prechtl, H. E. R. (eds.) Maturation and Development. (Clinics in Developmental Medicine; No. 77/78). J. P Lippincott, Philadelphia, PA, pp. 198-215 6. DeVries, J. I. P, Visser, G. H. A. and Prechtl, H. E. R. (1985). The emergence of fetal behavior. II. Quantitative aspects. Early Human Development 12, 99-120 7. Pert, C. B., Ruff, M. R., Weber, R. J. and Herkenham, M. (1985). Neuropeptides and their receptors: A psychosomatic network. J. of Immunology 135(2), 820-826 (Supplement) 8. Facchinetti, E, Storchi, A. R., Petraglia, F, Garuti, G. and Genazzani, A. R. (1987). Ontogeny of pituitary B-endorphin and related peptides in the human embryo and fetus. Amer J. Ob. and Gyn. 156(3), 735-739 9. Gottlieb, G. (1976). Conceptions of prenatal development: Behavioral Embryology. Psychological Review 83(3), 215-234 10. Dörner, G. (1991). Hormone-dependent brain development and behavior. Int. J. Prenatal and Perinatal Studies 3(3/4), 183-189 11. Butterworth, G. E. (1981). The origins of auditory-visual perception and visual proprioception in human infancy. In: Walk, R. D. and Pick Jr., K. L. (eds.) Intersensory Perception and Sensory Integration. Plenum Press, New York, NY, pp. 37-70 12. Papousek, K. and Papousek, M. (1982). Integration into the social world: Survey of research. In: Stratton, P.M. (ed.) Psychobiology of the Human Newborn. John Wiley, New York, NY, pp. 367-390 13. Meltzoff, A. N. (1985). The roots of social and cognitive development: Models of man's original nature. In: Field, T M. and Fox, N. A. (eds.) Social Perception in Infants. Ablex, Norwood, NJ, pp. 1-30 14. Humphrey, T (1978). Function of the nervous system during prenatal life. In: Stave, U. (ed.) Physiology of the Perinatal Period. Vol. 2. Plenum Medical, New York, NY, pp. 751-796 15. Anand, J. S. and Hickey, PR. (1987). Pain and its effects in the human neonate and fetus. New England J. Med. 317(21), 1321-1329. (Nov. 19, 1987) 16. Lipsitt, L P (1969). Learning capacities of the human infant. In: Rohinson, R. J. (ed.) Brain and Early Behavior Development in the Fetus and Infant. Academic Press, London, pp. 227-249 17. Emde, R. N. and Robinson, J. (1979). The first two months: Recent research in developmental psychohiology and the changing views of the newborn. In: Noshpitz, J. D. (ed.) Basic Handbook of Child Psychiatry. Vol. 1. Basic Books, New York, NY, pp. 72-105 18. Trevarthen, C. (1980). The foundations of intersubjectivity:

Development of interpersonal and cooperative understanding in infants. In: Olson, D. R. (ed.) The Social Foundations of Language and Thought. Essays in Honor of Jerome Brunner. W. W. Norton, New York, NY, pp. 316-342 19. Chamberlain, D. B. (1987). The cognitive newborn: A scientific update. British J. of Psychotherapy 4(1), 30-71 20. Nilsson, L (1983). The Miracle of Life [Film]. WBGH Educational Foundation, Boston, MA. 21. Hill, L, M., Breckle, R. and Wolfgram, K. R. (1983). An ultrasonic view of the developing fetus. Obstetrical and Gynecological Survey 38(7), 375-398 22. Haith, M. M. (1990). Progress in the understanding of sensory and perceptual processes in early infancy. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly 36(1), 1-26 23. Salapatek, R. and Cohen, L. (eds.) (1987). Handbook of Infant Perception: From Sensation to Perception. Vol. 1. Academic Press, New York, NY 24. Cheek, D. B. (1975). Maladjustment patterns apparently related to imprinting at birth. Amer J. Clinical Hypnosis 18(2), 75-82 25. Janov, A. (1983). Imprints. The Lifelong Effects of the Birth Experience. CowardMcCann, New York, NY 26. Levand, R. (1991). Sexual Evolution. Celestial Arts, Berkeley, CA 27. Mathison, L A. (1981). Does your child remember? Mothering magazine 21, 103107 28. Freeman, M. (1987). Is infant learning egocentric or duocentric? Was Piaget wrong? Pre- and Perinatal Psychology Journal 2(1), 25-42 29. Laibow, R. E. (1986). Birth recall: A clinical report. Pre- and Perinatal Psychology Journal 1(1), 78-81 30. Stem, D. (1985). The Interpersonal World of the Infant. A View from Psychoanalysis and Developmental Psychology. Basic Books, New York, NY 31. Kagan, J. (1984). The Nature of the Child. Basic Books, New York, NY 32. Piaget, J. (1936/1952). The Origins of Intelligence in Children. Int. Universities Press, New York, NY 33. Mistretta, C. M. and Bradley, R. M. (1975). Taste and swallowing in utero: A discussion of fetal sensory function. British Med. Bulletin 31, 80-84 34. Cowart, B. J. (1981). Development of taste perception in humans: Sensitivity and preference throughout the life span. Psych. Bulletin 90, 43-73 35. Roper, S. D. (1989). The cell biology of vertebrate taste receptors. Annual Review of Neuroscience 12, 329-354 36. Tomatis, A. (1991). The Conscious Ear. Station Hill Press, Barrytown, NY 37. Blum, T (1991). Prenatal auditive stimulation. Paper presented at the 5th Int. Congress on Pre- and Perinatal Psychology, Atlanta, GA (July) 38. Hon, E. H., Quilligan, E. J. and Disain, R. J. (1967). Auditory-evoked potential in the human foetus: A preliminary report. Acta Otolaryngologia 57, 188 39. Truby, H. M. (1975). Prenatal and neonatal speech, pre-speech and an infantile speech lexicon. Child Language 1975, a special issue of Word 27(Parts 1-3) 40. DeCasper, A. and Spence, M. (1982). Prenatal maternal speech influences human newborn auditory preferences. Paper presented at the 3rd Biennial Int. Conf. on Infant Studies, Austin, TX 41. Van Dongen, L. G. R. and Goudie, E. G. (1980). Fetal movement patterns in the first trimester of pregnancy. British J. Ob/Gyn 87, 191-193 42. Engen, T., Lipsitt, L. R. and Kaye, H. (1963). Olfactory responses and adaptation in the human neonate. J. Comp. and Physiological Psych 56, 73-77 43. Steiner, J. E. (1979). Human facial expressions in response to taste and smell stimulation. Advances in Child Development and Behavior 13, 257-295 44. Smyth, C. N. (1965). Experimental methods for testing the integrity of the fetus and neonate. J. Ob/Gyn British Commonwealth 72, 920 45. Liley, A. W. (1972). The foetus as a personality. Australian and New Zealand J. of Psychiatry 6(2), 99-105 46. Goodlin, R. C., Schmidt, W. and Creavy, D. C. (1972). Uterine tension and fetal heart rate during maternal orgasm. Ob and Gyn. 39(1), 125-127 47. Chayen, B., Tijani, N., Verma, U. L. and Gordon, G. (1986). Fetal heart rate changes and uterine activity during coitus. Acta Obstet. Gym Scandinavica 65, 853855 48. Hitchcock, D. A., Sutphen, J. H. and Scholly, T. A. (1980). Demonstration of fetal penile erection in utero. Perinatology/Neonatology 4, 59-60 49. Olds, C. (1986). A sound start in life. Pre- and Perinatal Psychology J. 1(1), 82-85 50. Ryder, G. H. (1943). Vagitus uterinus. Amer J. Ob/Gyn 46, 867-872 51. Thiery, M., Sian, A. Y. L, Vrijens, M. and Janssens, D. (1973). Vagitus uterinus. J. Ob/Gyn British Commonwealth 80,183-185 52. Greenspan, S. I. and Greenspan, N. T. (1985). First Feelings. Viking, New York, NY 53. DeSnoo, Y. (1937). Das trinkende Rind im Uterus. Monaisschriftflir Geburtshilfe and Gyndkologie 105, 88-97 54. Fox, K. E., Steinbrecher, M., Pessel, D., Inglis, J., Medvid, L. and Angel, E. (1978). Maternal ethanol ingestion and the occurrence of human fetal breathing movements. Amer J. Ob/Gyn 132, 354-358 55. Ando, Y. and Hattori, K. (1977). Effects of noise on human placental lactogen (HPL) levels in maternal plasma. Brit. J. Ob/Gyn 84, 115-118 56. Korner, A. E, Lane, N. M.,

Berry, K. L. and Rho, J. M. (1990). Sleep enhanced and irritability reduced in preterm infants: Differential efficacy of three types of waterbeds. J. Developmental and Behavioral Pediatrics 11(5), 240-246 57. David, H. P., Dytrych, Z., Matejcek, Z. and Schuller, V. (1988). Born Unwanted: Developmental Effects of Denied Abortion. Czechoslovak Medical Press, Prague 58. Stattin, K. (1991). Eighteen year longitudinal study of parent-child relationships when child was not the preferred sex. Hippocrates magazine, May/June, pp. 11-12 59. Hepper, R G. (1989). Foetal learning: Implications for psychiatry? Brit Psychiatry 155, 289-293 60. Panneton, R. Y. (1985). Prenatal auditory experience with melodies: Effects on post-natal auditory preferences in human newborns. Dissertation Abstracts B, p. 39-84 61. DeCasper, A. and Fifer, W. (1980). Of human bonding: Newborns prefer their mothers' voices. Science 208, 1174-1176 62. Cheek, D. B. (1986). Prenatal and perinatal imprints: Apparent prenatal consciousness as revealed by hypnosis. Pre- and Perinatal Psychology Journal 1(2), 97-110 63. Jones, C. (1989). From Parent to Child. The Psychic Link. Warner Books, New York, NY 64. Haith, M. M. (1976). Visual competence in early infancy. In: Held, R., Leibowitz, H. and Teuber, K. L. (eds.) Handbook of Sensory Physiology. Vol. VIII. Clip. 10. Springer, New York, NY 65. Allik, J. and Valsiner, J. (1980). Visual development in ontogenesis: Some reevaluations. Advances in Child Development and Behavior 15, 2-48 66. Granrud, C. E. (1987). Size constancy in newborn human infants. Investigative Opthalmology and Visual Science 28, 5 (Supplement) 67. Slater, A., Mattock, A. and Brown, E. (1990). Size constancy at birth: Newborn infants' responses to retinal and real size. J. Experimental Child Psychology 49(2), 314-322 68. Bower, T., Broughton, J. M. and Moore, M. (1970). Infant responses to approaching objects: An indicator of response to distal variables. Perception and Psychophysics 9, 193-196 69. Hofsten, C. von (1982). Eye-hand coordination in the newborn. Developmental Psychology 18, 450-461 70. Fagan, J. E. (1990). The pairedcomparison paradigm and infant intelligence. Annals of the N. Y. Academy of Sciences 608, 337-363 71. Slater, A. (1989). Visual memory and perception in early infancy. In: Slater, A. and Bremner, G. (eds.) Infant Development. Lawrence Erlbaum, London, pp. 43-71 72. Cassel, Z. K. and Sander, L. W. (1975). Neonatal recognition processes and attachment: The masking experiment. Paper presented to the Soc. for Res. in Child Devel., Denver, CO. See in Tronick and Adamson, 1980, Note # 2 73. Bushnell, I. W, Sai, E. and Mullin, J. T. (1989). Neonatal recognition of the mother's face. Brit. J. Developmental Psychology 7(1), 3-15. 74. MacFarlane, A., (1975). Olfaction in the development of social preferences in the human neonate. In: Parent-Infant Interactions 33, 103-113. CIBA Foundation Symposium. 75. Cernoch, J. M. and Porter, R. K. (1985). Recognition of maternal axillary odors by infants. Child Development 56(6), 1593-1598 76. Widmer, C. (1979). Postures et movements: Discrimination despersonnes chez le bebe de 0 a 6 mois. Ph.D. Dissertation: Univ. of Geneva. Thesis #93 77. Sander, L. W., Julia, H. L., Stechler, G. and Burns, P. (1972). Continuous 24-hour interactional monitoring in infants reared in two caretaking environments. Psychosomatic Medicine 34(3), 270-282 78. Simner, M. L. (1971). Newborns' responses to the cry of another infant. Developmental Psychology 5, 136-150 79. Sagi, A. and Hoffman, M. L. (1976). Empathic distress in the newborn. Developmental Psychology 12, 175-176 80. Martin, G. and Clark, R. D. (1982). Distress crying in neonates: Species and peer specificity. Developmental Psychology 18(1), 3-9 81. Prechtl, H. E. R. (1985). Ultracound studies of human fetal behavior. An editorial in Early Human Development 12, 91-98 82. Roberts, A. B., GrifFen, D., Mooney, R., Cooper, D. J. and Campbell, S. (1980). Fetal activity in 100 normal third trimester pregnancies. Brit. J. OblGyn. 87, 480-484 83. Straub, M. E. (1971). Self-stimulation in utero. Psychological Reports 28, 55-63 84. Papousek, H. and Papousek, M. (1977). Mothering and the cognitive head-start: Psychobiological considerations. In: Schaffer, H. R. (ed.) Studies in Mother-Infant Interaction. Academic Press, London 85. Clements, M. (1977). Observations on certain aspects of neonatal behavior in response to auditory stimuli. Paper presented to the 5th Int. Congress of Psychosomatic Obstetrics and Gynecology, Rome 86. Chapman, J. S. (1975). The relation between auditory stimulation of short gestation infants and their gross motor limb activity. Doctoral Dissertation, New York Univ. 87. Van De Carr, R. and Lehrer, M. (1992). The Prenatal Classroom: A Parent's Guide for Teaching their Preborn Baby. Humanics Publishing Group, Atlanta, GA 88. Johnson, W. B., Emde, R. N.,

Pannabecker, B. J., Stenberg, C. R. and Davis, M. H. (1982). Maternal perception of infant emotion from birth through 18 months. Infant Behavior and Development 5, 313-322 89. Darwin, C. (1872). The Expressions of the Emotions in Man and Animals. Murray, London 90. Eisenberg, R. B. and Marmarou, A. (1981). Behavioral reactions of newborns to speech-like sounds and their implications for developmental studies. Infant Mental Health Journal 2(2), 129-138 91. Field, T. M., Woodson, R., Greenberg, R. and Cohen, D. (1982). Discrimination and imitation of facial expressions by neonates. Science 218, 179-181 92. Field, T. M., Woodson, R., Cohen, D., Greenberg, R., Garcia, R. and Collins, K. (1983). Discrimination and imitation of facial expressions by term and preterm neonates. Infant Behavior and Development 6, 485-490 93. Roffwarg, H. P., Muzio, J. N. and Dement, W. C. (1966). Ontogenetic development of the human sleep-dream cycle. Science 152, 604-619 94. Emde, R., McCartney, R. and Harmon, R. (1971). Neonatal smiling in REM states. IV. Premature Study. Child Development 42, 1657-1661 95. Birnholz, J. C. (1981). The development of human fetal eve movement patterns, Science 213, 679-681 96, Rosenstein, D. and Oster, H. (1988), Differential facial responses to four basic tastes in newborns. Child Development 59(6), 1555-1568 97. Goodlin, R. C. (1979). Care of the fetus. Masson Publishing, New York, NY 98. Wasz-Hockert, 0., Michelsson, K. and Lind, J. (1985). Twenty-five years of Scandinavian cry research. In: Lester, B. M. and Boukydis, C. R. Z. (eds.) Infant Crying. Theoretical and Research Perspectives. Plenum, New York, NY, pp. 83-104 99. Ostwald, P. E. (1963). Soundmaking. The Acoustic Communication of Emotion. C. C. Thomas, Springfield, IL 100. Lind, J. (ed.) (1965). Newborn infant cry. Acta Paediatrica Scandinavia 163, (Supplement) 101. Lester, B. M. and Boukydis, C. E. Z. (eds.) (1985). Infant Crying: Theoretical and Research Perspectives. Plenum, New York, NY 102. Grunau, R. V. E. and Craig, K. D. (1987). Pain expression in neonates: Facial action and cry. Pain 28, 395-410 103. Porter, E. L., Miller, R. H. and Marshall, R. E. (1986). Neonatal pain cries: Effect of circumcision on acoustic features of perceived urgency. Child Development 57(3), 780-802 104. Brazelton, T. B. and Als, H. (1979). Four early stages hi the development of mother-infant interaction. The Psychoanalytic Study of the Child 34, 349-369 105. Hill, L. M., Platt, L. D. and Manning, F. A. (1979). Immediate effect of amniocentesis on fetal breathing and gross body movement. Amer J. Ob/Gyn 135, 689-690 106. Birnholz, J., Stephens, J. C. and Faria, M. (1978). Fetal movement patterns: A possible means of denning neurologic development milestones in utero. Amer J. Roentology 130, 537-540 107. Neldam, S. and Pedersen, R. F. (1980). Fetal heart rate response to amniocentesis in early pregnancy. J. Perinatal Medicine 8, 209-212 108. Manning, E, A,., Platt, L, D. and Lemay, M. (1977). Effect of amniocentesis on fetal breathing movements. Brit. Med. J. 2, 1582-1583 109. Feldmar, A. (1979). The embryology of consciousness: What is a normal pregnancy? In: Mall, D. and Watts, W. (eds.) The Psychological Aspects of Abortion. University Publications of America, Washington, DC, pp. 15-24 110. Herzog, J. (1983). A neonatal intensive care syndrome: A pain complex. In: Call, J. D., Galenson, E. and Tyson, R. L. (eds.) Frontiers of Infant Psychiatry. Basic Books, New York, NY, pp. 291-300 111. Noble, E. (1989). Resolution of habitual abortion in the survivor of a "vanishing twin' pregnancy. Int. J. Prenatal and Perinatal Studies 1(1), 117-120 112. Goodlin, R. (1979). Care of the fetus. Masson Publishing, New York, NY, p. 10 113. Sontag, L. (1966). Implications of fetal behavior and environment for adult personalities. Annals of the N. Y. Academy of Sciences 134, 782-786 114. lanniruberto, A. and Tajani, E. (1981). Ultrasonographic study of fetal movements. Seminars in Perinatology 5, 175-181 115. Correia, I. G. B. (1987). Communication in the motherly womb. Master's Degree Thesis. Federal Univ. of Rio de Janeiro 116. Zuckerman, B., Bauchner, H., Parker, S. and Cabral, H. (1990). Maternal depressive symptoms during pregnancy, and newborn irritability. J. of Developmental and Behavioral Pediatrics 11(4), 190-194 117. Rossi, N., Aweduti, P., Rizzo, N. and Lorusso, R. (1989). Maternal stress and fetal motor behavior: A preliminary report. 1989. Pre- and Perinatal Psychology J. 3(4), 311-318 118. Spelt, D. K. (1948). The conditioning of the human fetus in utero. J. Experimental Psych. 38, 338-346 119. Kaye, K. (1965). The conditioned Babkin reflex in human newborns. Psychonomic Science 2, 287-288 120. Leader, L. R., Bailie, P., Martin, B. and Vermeulen, E. (1982). The assessment and significance of habituation to a repeated stimulus by the human fetus. Early Human

Development 7, 211-219 121. Madison, L. S., Adubato, S. A., Madison, J. K., et. al. (1986). Fetal response decrement: True habitation? J. of Developmental and Behavioral Pediatrics 7(1), 14-20 122. Kuhlman, K. A., Burns, K A., Depp, R. and Sabbagha, R. E. (1988). Ultrasonic imaging of normal fetal response to external vibratory acoustic stimulation. Amer J. Ob/Gyn 158(1), 47-51 123. Butterworth, G. and Hopkins, B. (1988). Hand-mouth coordination in the newborn baby. Brit. J. ofDev. Psychology 6(4), 303-314 124. Buka, S. L. and Lipsitt, L. R. (1991). Newborn sucking behavior and its relation to grasping. Infant Behavior and Development 14(1), 59-67 125. Crudden, C. (1937). Reactions of newborn infants to thermal stimuli under constant tactual conditions. J. Exper. Psychology 20, 350-370 126. Blanton, M. G. (1917). The behavior of the human infant in the first 30 days of life. Psych. Review 24(6), 456-483 127. Sherman, M. and Sherman, L. (1925). Sensorimotor responses in infants. J. Comparative Psych. 5, 53-68 128. McGraw, M. B. (1941). Neural maturation as exemplified in the changing reactions of the infant to pin prick. Child Development 12(1), 31-42 129. Thoden, C. J. and Koivisto, M. (1980). Acoustic analysis of the normal pain cry. In: Murray, T. and Murray, J. (eds.) Infant Communication: Cry and Early Speech. College Hill Press, Houston, TX pp. 124-151 130. Owens, M. E. and Todt, E. H. (1984). Pain in infancy: Neonatal reaction to a heel lance. Pain 20(1), 774-6 131. Emde, R., Harmon, R., Metcalf, D., Koenig, K. and Wagonfeld, S. (1971). Stress and neonatal sleep. Psychosomatic Medicine 33, 491-497 132. Smith, B. A., Fillon, T. J. and Blass, E. M. (1990). Orally mediated sources of calming in 1 to 3day-old human infants. Developmental Psychology 26(5), 731-737 133. Brazelton, T. B. (1962). Observations of the neonate. J. of American Academy of Child Psychiatry 1, 38-58 134. Papousek, H. (1967). Experimental studies of appetitional behavior in human newborns and infants. In: Stevenson, H. W., Hess, E. H. and Rheingold, H. L. (eds.) Early Behavior Comparative and Developmental Approaches. John Wiley, New York, NY, pp. 249-277 135. Hopkins, B. and Wolffben Palthe, T. van (1985). Staring in infancy. Early Human Development 12, 261-267 136. Mehler, J., Bertoncini, J., Barriere, M. and Jassik-Gerschfeld, D. (1978). Infant recognition of mother's voice. Perception 7, 491-497 137. Bower, T. G. R. (1991). Learning in infancy: A 25-year retrospective. Paper presented at the 5th Int. Congress on Pre- and Perinatal Psychology, Atlanta, GA (July) 138. Carpenter, G. (1974). Mother's face and the newhorn. New Scientist 61, 742-744 139. Meltzoff, A. and Moore, K. M. (1977). Imitation of facial and manual gestures by human neonates. Science, Oct. 7, 1977, pp. 77-78 140. Trevarthen, C. (1977). Descriptive analysis of infant communicative behavior. In: Schaffer, H. R. (ed.) Studies in Mother-Infant Interaction. Chap. 10. Academic Press, New York/London 141. Sander, L. (1980). New knowledge about the infant from current research: Implications for psychoanalysis. J. ofAmer Psychoanalytic Assoc. 28, 181-198 142. Condon, W. S. and Sander, L. W. (1974). Neonate movement is synchronized with adult participation and language acquisition. Science 183, 99-101 143. Kato, T., Takahashi, E., Sawada, K, Kobayashi, N., Watanabe, T. and Ishii, T. (1983). A computer analysis of infant movements synchronized with adult speech. Pediatric Research 17, 625-628 144. Austin, A. and Perry, J. (1983). Analysis of adult-neonate synchrony during speech and non speech. Pediatric Research 17, 625-628. 145. Spelke, E. S. and Cortelyou, A. (1981). Perceptual aspects of social knowing: Looking and listening in infancy. In: Lamb, M. E. and Sherrod, L. R. (eds.) Infant Social Cognition. Clip 4. Lawrence Earlbaum, Hillsdale, NJ 146. Lipsitt, L. P. (1990). Learning and memory in infants. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly 36(1), 53-66 147. Rovee-Collier, C. (1987). Learning and memory in infancy. In: Osofsky, J. D. (ed.) Handbook of Infant Development. 2nd ed. John Wiley, New York, NY, pp. 98-148 148. Seitz, R. F. D. (1950). Psychocutaneous conditioning during the first two weeks of life. Psychosomatic Medicine 12, 187-188 149. Lipsitt, L. R. and Kaye, H. (1964). Conditioned sucking in the human newborn. Psychonomic Science 1, 29-30 150. Blass, E. M., Ganchrow, J. R. and Steiner, J. E. (1984). Classical conditioning in newborn humans 2-48 hours of age. Infant Behavior and Development 1, 223-235 151. Papousek, H. (1959). A method of studying conditioned food reflexes in young children up to the age of 6 months. Pavlov J. of Higher Nervous Activity 9, 136-140. See also Note # 134 152. Siqueland, E. R. and Lipsitt, L. P. (1966). Conditioned head-turning in human newborns. J. Exper Child Psychology 3, 356-376 153. Bartoshuk, A. K. (1962). Human neonatal cardiac acceleration to sound: Habituation and dishabituation.

Perceptual and Motor Skills 15, 15-27; see also Goodlin, R. C. and Schmidt, W. (1972). Human fetal arousal levels as indicated by heart rate recordings. Amer J. Ob/Gyn. 114(5), 613-621 154. Zelazo, P. R., Weiss, M. J., Papagiorgiou, A. N. and Laplante, D. P. (1989). Recovery and dishabituation of sound localization among normal, moderate, and highrisk newborns: Discriminant validity. Infant Behavior and Development 12(3), 321-340; see also Ando, Y. and Hattori, H. (1970). Effects of intense noise during fetal life upon postnatal adaptability. J. Acoustical Soc. of Amer 47, 1128-1130 155. Kisilevsky, B. S. and Muir, D. W. (1991). Human fetal and subsequent newborn responses to sound and vibration. Infant Behavior and Development 14(1), 1-26; see also Tarquino, N., Zelazo, P. R., Gryspeerdt, D. M. and Alien, K. M. (1991). Generalization of neonatal habituation. Infant Behavior and Development 14(1), 69-81 156. Slater, A, Morison. V. and Rose, D. (1982). Visual memory at birth. Brit. J. Psychology 73, 519-525 157. Brody, L. R., Zelazo, P. R. and Chaika, K. (1984). Habituation-dishabituation to speech in the neonate. Developmental Psychology 20(1), 114-119 158. Ungerer, J. A., Brody, L. R. and Zelazo, P. R. (1978). Long-term memory for speech in 2-4 week-old infants. Infant Behavior and Development 1, 177-186 159. Moon, C. and Fifer, W. R. (1990). Syllables as signals for 2-day-old infants. Infant Behavior, and Development 13(3), 377-390 160. Rovee-Collier, C. (1989). The joy of kicking: Memories, motives and mobiles. In: Solomon, R. R., Goethals, G. R., Kelley, C. M. and Stephens, B. R. (eds.) Memory: Interdisciplinary Approaches. Springer-Verlag, New York, NY, pp. 151-180 161. Harrison, H. (1986). Letters. Birth 13(2), 124 162. Bower, T. G. R. (1989). The Rational Infant. Learning in Infancy. W H. Freeman, New York, NY 163. Temeles, M. S. (1983). The infant: A socially competent individual. In: Call, J. D., Galenson, E. and Tyson, R. L. (eds.) Frontiers of Infant Psychiatry. Basic Books, New York, NY, pp. 178-487 164. Brazelton, T. B. (1978). The remarkable talents of the newborn. Birth and the Family Journal 5(4), 187-191 165. Bower, T. G. R. (1977). A Primer of Infant Development. W H. Freeman, San Francisco, CA, p. 35 166. Papousek, H. and Papousek, A. (1987). Intuitive parenting: A dialectic counterpart to the infant's integrative competence. In: J. Osofsky (Ed.) Handbook of Infant Development. 2nd. ed. John Wiley &Sons, New York, NY, pp. 669-720 AuthorAffiliation David B. Chamberlain, Ph.D.

Publication title: Journal of Prenatal&Perinatal Psychology&Health

Volume: 14
Issue: 1/2

Pages: 127-144

Number of pages: 18

Publication year: 1999

Publication date: Fall 1999

Year: 1999

Publisher: Association for Pre&Perinatal Psychology and Health

Place of publication: Forestville

Country of publication: United States

Journal subject: Medical Sciences--Obstetrics And Gynecology, Psychology, Birth Control

ISSN: 10978003

Source type: Scholarly Journals

Language of publication: English

**Document type:** General Information

ProQuest document ID: 198695260

Document URL: http://search.proquest.com/docview/198695260?accountid=36557

Copyright: Copyright Association for Pre&Perinatal Psychology and Health Fall 1999

Last updated: 2010-06-06

Database: ProQuest Public Health

## **Contact ProQuest**

Copyright © 2012 ProQuest LLC. All rights reserved. - Terms and Conditions