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organizations, approaches to community involvement, and community
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parent involvement, with subsections on the levels of such
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for implementation. (MBM)

PARENTAL AND COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT
IN EDUCATION AND TEACHER EDUCATION

by

Russell Dobson
and
Judith Shelton Dobson

CONTENTS

ABSTRACT

This examination of parent and community involvement in elementary and secondary education is in two parts. The brief first section considers the historical aspects, identifies the various possible kinds of involvement and the benefits that result, as well as some of the obstacles that may be encountered. The second section is an extensive review of the literature, including the following topics: community involvement, with sub-sections on the principles of community involvement, school constituency organizations, approaches to community involvement, and community education; higher education involvement, with sub-sections on community colleges, universities, teacher centers, and the preparation for and professionalization of community education; and parent involvement, with sub-sections on the levels of such involvement, a model, parental participation and attitudes, cultural identity and self-concept, academic gains, desegregation, and guides for implementation.

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TOPIC: *Parental and Community Involvement in Education and Teacher Education.*

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*Asterisk indicates major descriptor.

PART I

PARENT/COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT AND THE SCHOOL EXPERIENCE

Historically, public schools in the United States were organized through grassroots efforts at the community level and were expected to function as extensions of education in the home. The community, consisting of parents and other interested citizens, assumed an active role in determining curriculum, establishing school policy, selecting and retaining faculty, and establishing a basis for financing schools. So, in spite of the current emphasis, community and parental involvement in school affairs is not a new phenomenon. Traditionally, public education in America was never intended to be a professional monopoly. The concept of local control of education is basic to our public school system.

However, as communities and schools grew in size, boards of education were established to govern school affairs and administrators were employed to manage them. Thus, in many instances schools became bureaucraticed much like their corporate counterparts and ultimately insulated from, and insensitive to, the desires and needs of the clientele they were designed to serve (Katz, 1971).

School administrators came to view their function as assuming responsibility for the educational growth of students and home and community cooperation as a process whereby parents were simply kept somewhat informed as to the educational growth being made by their children. Teachers, in many instances, assumed what might be referred to as a "super-wisdom" position and proceeded to inform parents as to how they should rear their children.

We have developed the tradition that one role of the school is to do missionary work with parents.

> Indeed, in 1891, a meeting of educators was told that they must labor earnestly in the home as well as in the kindergarten using regular and systematic home visiting by persons specifically prepared for the work (Gordon, 1972, p. 146).

Too often parental involvement has been perceived in the following ways:

1. Teachers criticize students and parents as not being cooperative when there are discipline problems or when assigned tasks are left undone.

2. Parental conflicts with the school or school conflicts with the home are frequently assessed as a lack of cooperation.

3. The cooperative parent is often identified as one who stays home, is sometimes seen, but never heard.

4. The cooperative principal and teacher make everybody happy
(Thompson, 1968, p. 68).

Teachers have often told parents to bring their children to the schoolhouse door and leave. As Buchan (1972) has so effectively demonstrated, parental and community involvement in the school experience became relegated to menial roles such as chaperones on class excursions, guardians of the portals against potential intruders, and selfless fund-raisers at book fairs, fashion shows, and cake sales.

Community and parents now are rejecting these assigned roles and are demanding an active voice in extremely sensitive areas of decision making that, within the past 70 years, have been delegated to boards of education and school administrators. Thus, parental and community involvement in school affairs has almost come full cycle since the establishment of public schools in America. If schools are to educate effectively all children in our pluralistic society, educators must find ways actively to enlist the involvement and support of parents. As stated by Smith (1970), "Teachers are linked to parents by the children. . . . The triangle should be completed [p. 119]."

The President's Task Force on Parent Participation (1968), states:

The need for involvement by parents and family is particularly great in public programs which serve children and youth. Parents have the same goals for their children as the agencies which administer these services. They want their children to be as free as possible from disease and disability, to get all the education they can absorb and profit from, and to live a useful and rewarding life. Often, however, they don't know how to reach these goals for their children. Public agencies, on the other hand, have not been as responsive as they should be because they have often neglected to involve the parents as planners and participants in their program.

The time has come to break down these walls of separation. Public agencies have a responsibility to open up the opportunities for participation, particularly for poor people and members of minority groups. The need is all the more urgent in today's complex world in which huge organizations, impersonality, and fragmented and specialized services seem to threaten the individual's sense of significance and self-esteem [p. vii].

Thus, it seems reasonable that all people participating in the school-home-community educational experience should have ample opportunity for input into that relationship. Any smooth-running system requires maximum efficiency from all its parts. Parents, students, and other citizenry have viable and valuable contributions to make to the educational experience, but traditional approaches to parent-community involvement programs too often have discounted this factor.

In the final analysis, school-home relationships have reflected a closed system dealing with only output or propaganda dissemination to parents. It is imperative, in a democratic society, for an institution to reflect integrity by functioning as an open system. This demands that a school-home-community involvement-communication system be developed around the concept of openness. That is, the system should provide legitimate procedures for input as well as output and that the input-output system be self-regulating. This type of action changes participation by parents and community residents from that of mere bystanders to that of active participants and perhaps even decision makers in the educational experience. This open communication system necessitates that school personnel begin doing things "with" parents, children, and community citizens instead of merely doing things "to" or "for" them: the latter situation is too often the case in contemporary school-home relationships.

WHAT IS PARENT-COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT?

Community and parental involvement in the school experiences of youngsters has passed through an interesting evolution. Originally, definitions related to involvement were comparatively limited in their potential input as compared with more recent conceptualizations. Even though there were those who saw something greater in the concept of parent-community involvement, change in the definition has not come easily. Since the administration of Gallup's (1971) opinionnaire, "Third Annual Survey of Public's Attitude toward the Public Schools," parent-community involvement in the school experience has exploded as a new frontier. As interest in the phenomenon of parent-community involvement has increased, such involvement has assumed a multi-directional posture. Many different programs are functioning under the parent-community involvement banner. In a sound program of parent-community involvement, there is a wide range between activities that inform and activities that involve on a continuum ranging from the educational bystander to the educational decision-making level.

For purposes of clarity, some distinction should be made between community and parent involvement, although both are integral components of a total involvement system. Community involvement encompasses a more comprehensive base of participation and responsibility than a minutely focused parent involvement program does. The school becomes a focal point for planning, not just an educational center in the narrow sense. Functionally, this means coordinating resources to meet specified needs of a particular school and community, as opposed to establishing fragmented programs. Each community school becomes the coordinating source for the education community: this involves cooperative efforts and responsibilities reciprocally assumed by parents, teachers, students, and community residents.

Since parents are members of the community, it becomes somewhat difficult to delineate what differentiates community involvement and parental involvement. The major distinction between the two is that community involvement includes more populations and attends to more global concerns. Parental involvement is closer to the pulse beat of the local school experience.

The growing role of parents as full partners through involvement is taking many forms. For example, the AFRAM Parent Implementation Educational Model (Wilcox, 1972, p. 179) involves parents in the following decision-making efforts:

1. Recruitment, selection, and evaluation of all staff.

2. Recruitment, selection, and evaluation of instructional sponsors or the development of their own educational methodology.

3. Establishment of program policies and subsequent evaluation procedures.

4. Negotiation of contracts.

5. Development of additional resources: technical, financial, community support, etc.

6. Establishment of linkages between the local program and the local community, the local school board, the state board, the state department of education, and other appropriate federal agencies.

Pomfret (1972, p. 117) sees parental involvement as falling into three categories: service, student instruction, and decision making. Service activities are those tasks that indirectly assist the school in its prescribed activities. These activities may range from health aide and secretarial duties to assuming the role of community ombudsman.

Within the realm of instruction, the parent's role either supplements or supports the teacher's role. In the support role, the parent can assist the teacher in whatever learning activities the teacher undertakes: (1) instructional support, (2) technological support, (3) clerical support, (4) monitorial support, and (5) housekeeping support.

Exemplars of the various functions that can be performed by parents, either on a paid or volunteer basis, in each of the separate categories follow:

Instructional Support
Reading and telling stories
Listening to children read, report, or tell stories
Conducting individual or small-group drill
Assisting with any programmed materials utilized
Conducting sharing period--show and tell
Assisting with the direction of independent study
Assisting with such lessons as art, music, physical education,
     arithmetic, reading, science, health, social studies, and language
     arts, as requested by teacher

Technological Support
Operating tape recorder and record player
Operating projectors--16mm, filmstrip, slide, opaque, and overhead

Organizing groups to observe educational television
Making overhead transparencies
Coordinating and ordering films, slides, and tapes
Assisting with effective bulletin board display
Dry mounting pictures for class use

Clerical Support
Maintaining attendance records
Making out lunch reports
Maintaining cumulative records
Maintaining health records
Scoring tests
Processing books and supplies
Typing
Preparing stencils
Collecting monies
Making progress charts and teaching aids
Filing and cataloging materials
Assisting with special reports which may be required from time to time

Monitorial Support
Supervising playground, corridor, and lunchroom
Controlling classroom when the teacher is required to be away from the room
    for a few minutes
Assisting with bus trips and field trips for instruction within class-
    rooms and between classrooms
Assisting with fire drills

Housekeeping Support
Checking for proper lighting, heating, and ventilation
Helping keep furniture, books, and materials in order
Helping arrange and change interest centers
Helping children keep coat racks in order
Checking for muddy shoes and boots when children come in from the play-
    ground
Helping care for pets and plants
Checking toilets and drinking fountains

Since decision making that involves parents is a relatively new
frontier, almost anything educators attempt is an experiment. Current
programs of parental involvement in the decision-making process are being
implemented in various forms. Involvement ranges from prioritizing
educational goals to setting policy relative to staff, budget, curriculum,
and pupil policy. Gordon (1970) has identified five levels of parental
involvement: (1) audience--bystander-observer; (2) teacher of the child;
(3) volunteer; (4) trained worker; and (5) participants in decision making,
especially through advisory board membership.

Level one is typically what has occurred in school-home communication
systems. Generally, this level is represented by parent groups such as
PTAs, band clubs, quarterback clubs, open house, and parent-teacher

conferences concerning the child's grades. Efforts of this nature collapse or cause parents to assume a posture of passivity in school affairs.

Level two is related to a closed system (one-way communication) in that it makes parents aware of their educational responsibilities to their children. At this level, the focus is on assisting parents in their roles as teachers of their children.

Level three utilizes parents as volunteer aides. This can range from instruction to supervision. Parents may volunteer to teach a lesson on a trip they have taken, share a hobby with students, assist with supervision of a field trip, or be used to free teachers for team meetings and planning sessions.

Level four involves parents as trained workers. The use of teacher aides in public school classrooms shows promise of becoming one of the most lasting and significant changes that the teaching profession has experienced for several years. A number of state departments of education have established guidelines spelling out the functions and training of these paraprofessionals in an attempt to guarantee the quality of adults who come in direct contact with students.

The fifth, and possibly most threatening to many school personnel, is the involvement of parents at the decision-making level. Generally, the vehicle for involving parents at this level has been through the establishment of advisory boards.

There is the ever-present danger that community and parental involvement can become phony. The term "community and parent involvement" falls into the category of easily verbalized phrases which meet with everybody's immediate approval. Often, little effort is devoted to analyzing what is meant by such a concept, and consequently, legitimate courses of action are not always established. In the final analysis, judgment must be based on effective collaboration between community residents, including parents and students, and the school in all decision-making processes.

WHY SHOULD WE INVOLVE THE COMMUNITY AND PARENTS?

There is considerable evidence that the public is discontent with services provided by their schools. This dissatisfaction is exemplified by an increase in truancy cases, job mobility of top-level school administrators, failure of bond issues to gain a favorable vote, and the taxpayers cry for accountability. American public education, designed to educate all children, appears to be at a crisis point in the minds and attitudes of the public. Paradoxically, the demand for total community control of the public school experience has begun to decline. Alert school systems are now beginning to ask why communities have assumed a posture of increased interest in the school experience.

Public concern has probably increased for several reasons. First, there appears to be an almost total lack of communication with parents in regard to educational purposes as they relate to the curriculum of

the school and to known stages of child development. Second, there appears
to be a lack of open communication between the educational system and
public concerning the purposes of education. Third, there seems to be
a total absence of public schools working in full partnership with
families, particularly low-income families. Fourth, there seems to be
a lack of recognition on the part of universities and colleges of the
need for educationally related services to fit the realities of the
communities they serve. And finally, in rural areas, small elementary
schools located in isolated communities serve as "feeder" schools for
larger high school districts. The further the attendance center is from
the student's immediate community, the less sensitive the curriculum
and instructional program is to the student's personal and/or educational
needs, interests, and concerns.

Historically, uniformity in public schools was considered a guar-
antee to equal educational opportunity for all. However, the attempt to
adjust a uniform educational process to a pluralistic society has resulted
in the opposite. Fantini (1972) states, "Alienation, loss of cultural
identity, human classification (slow, deprived, disadvantaged, with con-
comitant self-fulfilling prophecies), absenteeism, rebellion are often the
results of uniformity in public education [p. 675]."

The poor of our country are required to attend school. The school
becomes a second home. Yet many poor, both children and parents, often
view the schools with suspicion, if not hostility. The result produces
a paradox: poor parents and children are pro-education though often
anti-school. Too often, low-income parents are silent bystanders in
the educational experiences administered to their children. This has
generated feelings of inadequacy, alienation, and frustration which lead
ultimately to feelings of powerlessness and hopelessness.

Parental influence in the development of human efficacy has been
established, both from theoretical perspectives and empirical data.
The physical, social, emotional, and intellectual components of every
human being have been determined to some extent by the influences of
parents or parent substitutes. Since parents play a vital role in the
formation of each subsequent generation, an informed adult population
appears to be a prerequisite to the attainment of a democratic society
which both subscribes to and facilitates the realization that each human
being should achieve his fullest potential.

In light of these conditions, it seems reasonable to propose a
school-home-community involvement and communication system whereby
families from all socioeconomic levels can become actively involved
in the education experiences of their young. Karnes et al. (1972, p. 150)
establish that any feasible model for parental involvement must follow
a clearly delineated set of assumptions:

1.   Family members will find the time to become involved if the
      involvement is meaningful.

2. Parents are easiest to involve when their goals and values
   are in agreement with those of the school, and most difficult
   when there is a great discrepancy in the match.

3. Parents will become involved to the extent to which they
   participate in decision making.

4. Parents will involve themselves most when professional per-
   sonnel show a genuine respect for the family members as
   individuals.

Proponents for parent-community involvement advance many arguments
for the benefits of such interaction: more citizen participation in
school elections (Gittell, 1968); increased sense of racial pride
(Lauter, 1968); decline of truancy (Fantini, 1968), and finally, when
parents are directly involved in their youngsters' school experience,
the tendency for student achievement levels to rise (Cohen, 1969;
Shelton and Dobson, 1974). Some critics suggest that higher socio-
economic status (SES) parents are more directly involved in school
affairs and their children have higher achievement scores. They argue
that SES, not the involvement, is the variable influencing the
achievement. However, Schaefer (1971) reports that:

   The amount of parental involvement in the child's education
   may explain up to four times as much of the variance in the
   child's intelligence and achievement test scores at age eleven
   as the quality of the schools. Douglas, in a national sample
   of 5,000 children in England, found that parent interest and
   involvement with the child's education were far more important
   than the quality of schools, even after statistically controlling
   for family socioeconomic status [p. 19].

School and community must constantly adjust to each other and collectively,
cooperatively, and continuously pursue "quality" education. Fantini (1969)
states:

   Participation by the clients of the city public schools--the parents
   and community residents; in other cases the students themselves--
   represents the emergence of two important publics that separately
   or together yield an enormous amount of energy. This energy
   can combine with that of the professional to bring about needed
   fundamental reform of our urban schools . . . [for] basic changes
   are not likely without the support of parents, community residents,
   and students [p. 26].

COMMUNITY CULTURE AND PARENT-COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

There is no one model of parent-community involvement that will work
in all communities. Many ventures in establishing community and parental
involvement programs have fallen short of anticipated outcomes. School
personnel, historically insensitive to their clientele, have not analyzed
community culture.

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As a consequence, there have been multiple approaches to parent-community involvement. To the segregationists, parent-community involvement meant interaction with neighborhood schools while to the militants, it meant community control. To central administrations, parent-community involvement was, in too many instances, a method for co-opting the parents. To higher education, parent-community involvement meant increased credit hours through evening classes. However, viable community and parental involvement becomes the device through which community needs and school programs are matched. Initially, the responsibility for coordinating such a function probably lies with the school.

Proponents of community and parent involvement assume, perhaps naively, that if parents and other community persons control the schools that serve them, the quality of education will necessarily improve and concomitantly, the educational program will be more compatible with or perhaps even reflect the needs of local children. Too often these same proponents have had a simplistic conception of the school's position in relation to the local community. There is a danger that parent-community involvement may result in parochialism, to reactionary teaching strategies, the rise of self-serving power elites, and other adverse results (Bendiner, 1969).

Historically, parent-community involvement in public schools has been approached by both theoreticians and practitioners within the context of socioeconomic status. Although SES provides some reasonable insights into what may be expected of parents and community, more sensitive and adequate indicators are needed. Agger and Goldstein (1970) conclude that cultural class indicators are more powerful than SES in predicting basic attitudes of community and parents toward the public school system. They view SES as determined by formal education and view cultural class as reflected by attitudes toward such things as fiscal expenditure, innovation, and trust of school officials. Clark (1971) supports this position when he states that a "systematic classification of different types of values is an important step [p. 4]."

Therefore, if cultural class is used as an indicator of parent and community attitudes toward the public school by school personnel, then educators must ask what vehicle for perspective the community uses in establishing this attitude. Pomfret (1971) asserts that there are three concepts: norm, role, and the school as a social organization. Norms are the expectations of what ought to occur; while role generally refers to the set of essential behaviors that are enacted by individuals in a given situation. Role relationships refer to the way in which people respond to each other according to the role assigned to them by norm. In any social organization role relationships will tend to be enhanced or deteriorate according to sensitivities--a reflection of norm expectation, which is a reflection of cultural class attitude.

Pomfret (1972) presents a strong argument when he states:

If neighborhood parents are expected to participate in the school's instructional and decision-making activities for the

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express purpose of altering existing practices, then principal, teacher, parent, and student roles have to be redefined and existing role relationships altered. Parents, instead of being isolated and passive receivers of school information, can become an active, powerful, and informed source of school policy [p. 123].

Most theoretical approaches used in explaining community culture and public schools usually ignore community as a subsystem of a larger society and fail to take into account the influence of the larger society on school-related matters. McGivney and Moynihan (1972) suggest that the school should be viewed not only as a subsystem of the community in the traditional context, but also as a subsystem with links to the larger society. Thus, school and community would have reciprocal impact. The school can be viewed as a conduit through which mass society influences local tradition. Figure 1 is an attempt to reflect this phenomenon schematically.

Figure 2 schematically presents three different positions of school-community interface. In Type A, the school and community are functioning with incongruent values. At least two possible explanations exist for this phenomenon; either the school is more attuned to local subculture and the community more sensitive and receptive to the influence of larger society, or vice versa. Type B exemplifies complementary school and community culture as far as some aspects of the school program are concerned. In Type C, school and community are working harmoniously on almost all aspects of the school experience with the community demonstrating faith in the schools by being somewhat indifferent toward some aspects of the school experience. From the perspective of both the community and the school, this would probably be an ideal interaction process; the schools would be sensitive enough to the community to respond to the culture, yet autonomous enough not to be hindered by its problems.

There is an inherent danger of establishing a paradox in parent-community involvement programs; the possibility exists that there may be a direct trade-off between effectiveness and grassroots activity. Falkson (1972) concludes, "The ability to influence complex urban bureaucracies requires well-developed political skills that only a small elite in any community are able to master [p. 39]." The necessity for being sensitive to and/or being able to analyze the community culture before undertaking a massive school-community-parent communication-involvement system is stated by McGivney and Moynihan (1972):

We believe that an understanding of the predominate value orientations and resources of both the school and community, and the systemic linkages of both of these subsystems to each other and to wider society provide a framework of powerful heuristic value of this purpose [p. 224].

OBSTACLES TO COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

Since Sputnik, and even before, public schools have come under the critical evaluation of their communities. Students, parents, and other

FIGURE 1

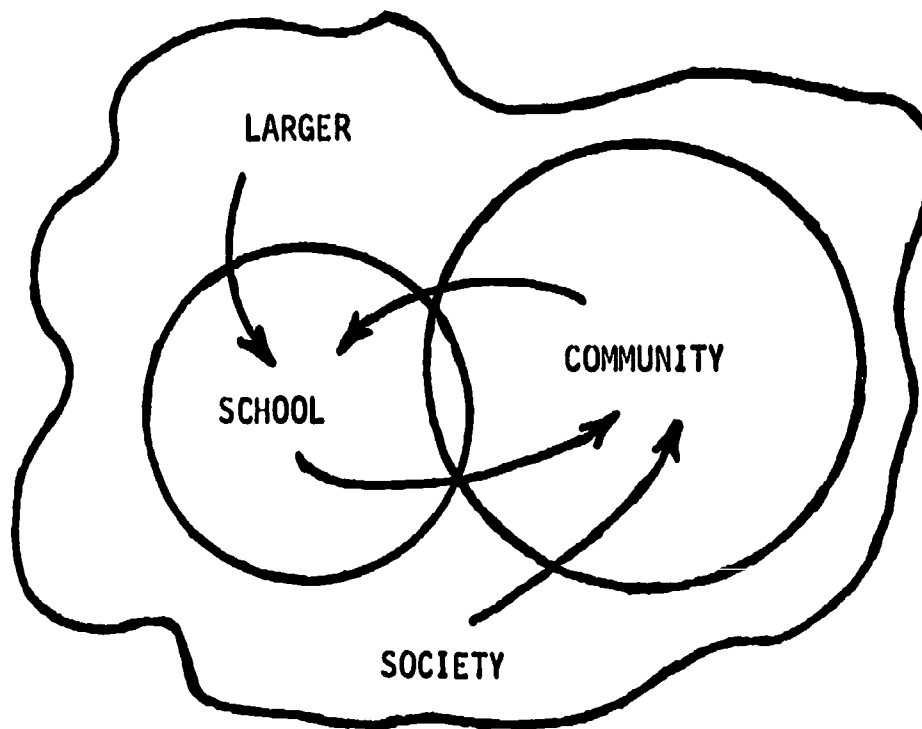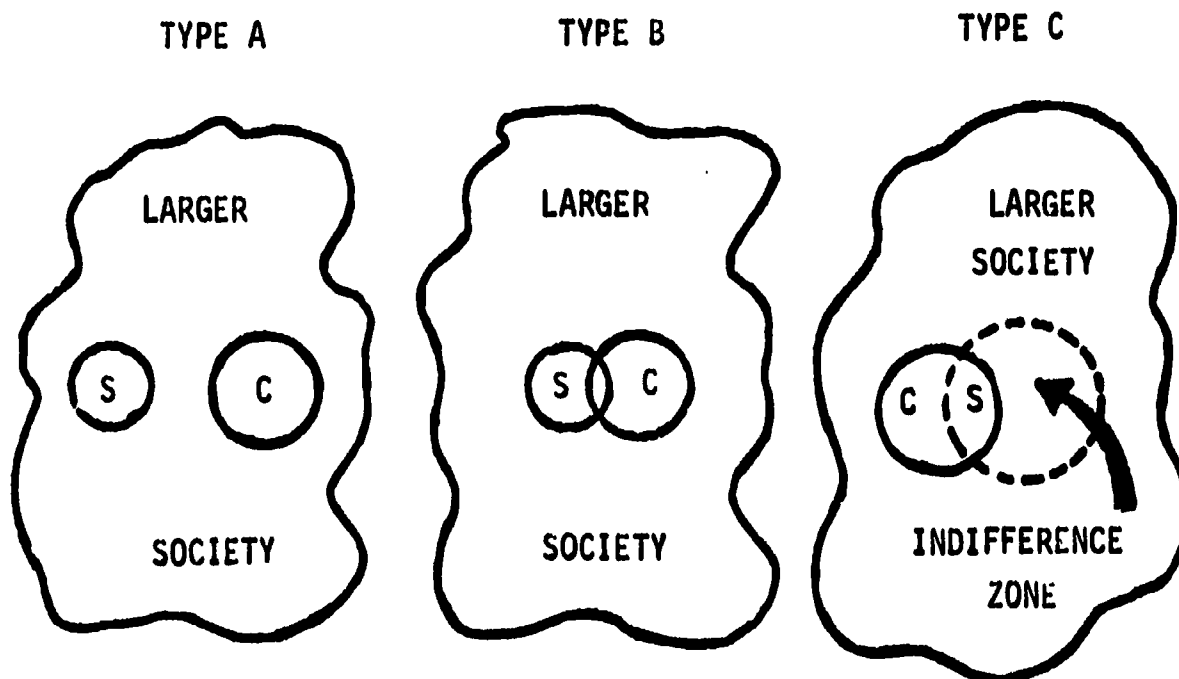## SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY AS SUBSYSTEM OF LARGER SOCIETY

FIGURE 2

THREE DIFFERENT STANCES OF SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY ACCORDING TO CULTURAL HARMONY

interested citizenry have shifted their expressed dissatisfaction from
dress codes and other human rights-related activities to not only
questioning, but sometimes challenging the school's educational pro-
grams, purposes, and goals. In many instances this evaluative process
has tended to unsettle administrators, faculty, and ultimately, boards
of education. Groups outside the traditionally considered constituencies
are also raising questions in criticism of the school experience. Thus,
from both internal and external sources, schools are being barraged by
a variety of unsettling demands and influences. Ironically and paradoxically,
all of this has come about at a time in which public schools have
become significant societal surveyors of culture and intellectual matters.
In essence this means that public schools have come of age only to discover
that they are not what they thought they were, or at least not what many
want them to be (Beane, 1973).

No wonder the schools have earned such a community-perceived posture
considering their behavior toward parent-community involvement over the
past 30 years! Beane (1973) presents an accurate description of
institutional attitudes toward community involvement when he states:

> Indeed, if one were to document school community relations
> over the past few decades, it would be clear that public
> participation has been manifested generally in two ways.
> First, as an outgrowth of the benevolent attitude that the
> public school should periodically bear descriptions of school
> programs and, secondly, as a means for promoting budget and
> board issues prior to a vote. It is surprising that this
> obvious form of manipulation went so long unchallenged [p. 26].

Thus, until the past few years, political insulation gave educators
latitude to prescribe what they determined best for youngsters. This
has allowed schools to pursue a course of self-destruction, not only
being insensitive to clientele involvement, but in most instances
totally ignoring the notion.

Educators have become so insensitive to communit; needs that they
fail not only to consider parent-community needs when making school
decisions, but also to define the concept. The failure to define
the concept of community has hindered the development of school-
community involvement projects. Definitions of community range from
pressure groups to leaders of business and professional ranks who
generally support the schools. However, Weeres (1971) found that
community-school politics were dominated by organizations not primarily
concerned with the reform of current instructional practices. For
example, small businessmen's leagues and homeowner's associations
were more concerned with such problems as racial stability of neighbor-
hoods and the esthetic appearance of school buildings than with dropout
rates, pupil achievement, and the training and promotion of personnel.
If educators view community as those who have a vested interest in the
schools, then this means everyone, for schools are a critical instrument
in society. Beane (1973) recognizes two basic groups that constitute
a community:

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1. The school community which consists of those persons
   directly involved in the school.

2. The community-at-large which consists of all those
   persons who reside, work, and pay taxes in the community
   and who send their children to school [p. 26].

To define community is not enough; strategies have not been designed
to provide for feedback from the community. School communication pro-
grams are usually concerned strictly with disseminating information: this
may be one of the reasons schools are experiencing a shortage of public
confidence. Escott and Banach (1972) emphasize this point:

> School administrators are rarely advised of the need to get
> information from the people. It frequently appears that we
> have disregarded the listening habits we try to cultivate
> in our students and constituents [p. 12].

The "power from politics" syndrome of educational leaders that
occurred as a reaction in the 1930s to the machine-dominated city
council and mayor's office has caused schools to move away from
parent-community involvement programs. Nonpartisan boards, elected at
large, with board budgetary powers, were given sole responsibility for
the public schools. Freed from political constraints, educators were
able to apply their professional expertise in upgrading school programs.
Paradoxically, this insulation from politics of a corruptive nature has
been used too often to shut out most other, in many instances legitimate,
community interests. Falkson and Granier (1972) describe this as a
problem of bureaucracy: "The political bosses could have been voted
out of power, but the new civil-servant elite has been only marginally
responsive to the electorate [p. 38]."

This seemingly impregnable insularity of the educational bureaucracy
has served as a focus for dissatisfaction with the quality of the
educational experience and the accompanying sense of powerlessness
for mobilizing forces toward community control. Although the desire
for total community control is currently declining, its explosive
potential has caused administrators in both rural and urban environments
to re-evaluate the "insulation" and to attempt to develop a more workable
balance between aroused citizenry and an insensitive educational machine.
Decentralization is the strategy that most large school systems are
pursuing. Although decentralization probably will not result automatically
in improved education, it may provide neighborhood schools with an opportunity
to consider the needs and concerns of its clientele. Proponents of
decentralization view the control of the neighborhood school from afar
(centralized control) with suspicion. Cunningham (1969) is one who believes
decentralization is a partial answer.

> What we have to do in our ghettos is invent the grass
> rootism that has served so well in rural America. Ghetto
> residents' decisions affect the lives of their children.
> We must live through the agonies of extreme decentral-
> ization, including community control, if our inner city

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Americans are going to develop any kind of capacity for
self-government [p. 63].

Ghetto communities are impatient with their level of involvement in
the education of their young. Pomfret (1972) advances two theories con-
cerning negligible lower-class participation in school involvement: (1)
the status frustration hypothesis and (2) the material deprivation
hypothesis. The status frustration model assumes the presence of a high
aspirational level on the part of parents and students, but because of
institutional barriers, individuals can do very little. The material
deprivation perspective assumes that occupational and income barriers
have to be modified to motivate community and/or parental involvement.
If we assume that schools and community share a common goal of increased
involvement, then barriers or obstacles to this goal must be carefully
analyzed and methodically eliminated by school personnel working har-
moniously with the community.

TRENDS IN INVOLVEMENT

As demands for total community control have begun to subside, schools
and communities are struggling to develop and implement viable models of
parent and community involvement. Writing about the growing role of local
citizenry in the schools, Deshler (1972) states:

Recently . . . we have seen in the Middle West homework
policies determined by parents of elementary school
children, a new principal selected on the basis of
criteria established by parents in cooperation with
the school board, and a court action brought by a 15-
year-old junior high student who wanted a place on the
ballot in a school board election [p. 173].

Why the continued interest by citizenry in the concept of community
involvement? Most public schools fail to relate to the multicultural
ethnic styles of the community. School systems have established public
relations programs instead of community relations programs; public
relations programs have been primarily concerned with disseminating
information or reporting to the school's clientele what is being done
for them. Attempts are made to sell the public on the school program,
e.g., pass bond issues. Cunningham (1971) points this out:

Very few efforts of a continuing type have been mounted
which allow parents and students opportunities to share
their feelings about the schools with school officials.
Information flow has been primarily one way. Legitimate
outlets have not been provided for protest or discontent.
PTAs and similar organizations have often ruled discussions
of local school weaknesses out of bounds in order to per-
petuate a peaceful, tranquil, and all-is-well atmosphere
[p. 179].

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Out of this insensitiveness to or unwillingness to relate to a multi-cultural clientele, especially low-income minority groups, has grown a demand by the community for schools to be held accountable. The demand for accountability has come about due to the mushrooming costs of school programs, poor academic performance of students, and inconclusive results of federal programs (Lessinger, 1971). The trend toward accountability and concomitant involvement by local citizenry in determining school policy, including goal setting, is established. By the fall of 1973, 27 states had enacted laws which featured some aspect of accountability (De Novellis and Lewis, 1974).

Although states' plans for accountability differ, they have certain elements in common--Several states have developed statewide educational goals or objectives--Fifteen states have instituted statewide programs to assess student achievement--The allocation of state resources is often dependent upon compliance with some aspects of an accountability plan--Thirteen states have legislated some type of accounting system that relates program, management, and budget--Nine states have passed legislation regarding evaluation of professional personnel [p. 10].

Although educational accountability, quite possibly, is already becoming an overused phrase, many public school administrators are visibly attempting to design and implement accountability programs that will indeed involve parents and community at the decision-making level.

Another trend toward viable parent-community involvement has emerged as a consequence of the social conditions prevalent in our society. Rhetoric developed around "future shock" and "consciousness III" is being expressed in the form of romantic appeal for participatory, instead of representative, democracy as a strategy to replace the dehumanizing practices and behaviors too often expressed by bureaucratic institutions.

Olsen (1972) warns that:

Human community--a profound and effective sense of common unity--is the essence of any enduring free society. With-out that fundamental public sense of shared basic values, of widespread community aspiration, no democratic framework is likely to survive for even another generation. If we are to continue as a free and culturally pluralist people, we must immediately find ways to build up the psychological basis for genuine community development--in family groups, in neighborhoods, in urban areas, in geographic regions, in the nation, and in the larger world of human beings on this planet [p. 176].

It seems that contemporary proponents of community involvement have established in their own minds that true commitment comes only through meaningful involvement. To believe that the trend toward decentraliza-tion will necessarily result in parent-community involvement is probably a mistake. But the administrator who views parent-community involvement as

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a contemporary educational issue or fad is equally wrong. Should we have parent-community involvement? To what extent? These are questions that reflect conventional wisdom. The trend has been established, and enlightened school people are swiftly designing implementation procedures. A review of the literature on accountability, community education, decentralization, student and parent unrest, and the use of parapro-fessionals and volunteers seems to document that the trend toward parent-community involvement has been established.

SUMMARY

If public schools are to regain the credibility once assigned to them by the public, then means of involvement and open communication with the schools' clientele must be established. Historically, when public schools were first established in America "grass rootism" was prevalent, but as schools grew in size the educational experience became more and more bureaucratic and insensitive to and insulated from parent-community input. Communication became a one-way track. Administrators incorporated an industrial or corporate model to sell the public on the schools' activities. To say that the public has lost faith in their school system is to state the case mildly. Continual failure of the public to support school bond issues, questioning of school policy and curricular offerings, vocal dissatisfaction with the performance of school personnel, and the current demand for accountability are but a few examples of this dissatisfaction.

Typically, schools have been influenced by middle-class people who established the school norm; however, more recently, minority group people have been demanding and becoming active participants at the decision-making level. There is a crucial concern of low-income and minority group parents that their children are the victims of institutionalized racism.

Educators must mount a new effort to demonstrate, with integrity, that the schools are indeed public. Progressive educators are already involved in designing ways to involve parents and community as co-partners in the school's functions. Advisory groups, decentralization, and employ-ment of paraprofessionals are but a few of the current trends being utilized to establish open communication.

The underlying assumption of community and parent involvement seems to be that all persons affected by a school decision have a right and a responsibility to participate in the decision-making process. To achieve the objective of working as copartners with parents and community will probably demand a change in attitude on the part of many educators. Community relations programs need to replace public relations programs, and these must operate with honesty and integrity. To accomplish this, a greater degree of sensitivity will be required on the part of most educators.

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PART II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Participation in decision making is generally accepted as one of the basic tenets of democracy. Simon (1955) stated the participation hypothesis: ". . . significant changes in human behavior can be brought about rapidly only if the persons who are expected to change participate in deciding what the change shall be and how it shall be made." Lewin, Lippit, and White (1939) conducted classic studies in which adults and children fulfilled several tasks under varying leadership styles: democratic, laissez-faire, and authoritarian. The researchers found that members of the democratic groups who were provided opportunities for participation in decision making were more satisfied and enthusiastic about the tasks and maintained a higher level of production than members of the authoritarian groups. Verba (1961) hypothesized, after citing several studies, that group members, given situations of participatory decision making, identify with the task and are reinforced by accomplishing it. The rewards of participatory group membership come from the decision making in approaching the task and in great productivity. The preceding studies indicate that participation in decision making enhances both the instrumental and affective realms of human behavior within organizations.

Public education in America was never intended to be a professional monopoly. Fantini (1972) emphasizes that the concept of local control of education is basic to our public school system. However, Abbott (1973) states that most schools have never been committed to the development of a partnership in education with the parents of the children that they serve. Too often the school has viewed parental involvement as an intrusion. In many instances parents either (1) sent their children to school feeling that the professionals know best, or (2) left the child at the classroom door at the request of the teacher or principal. Abbott (1973) states that ". . . in that kind of relationship many real possibilities for growth are lost [p. 56]."

Fullmer and Bernard (1968) emphasize that the work of the home and school are inseparable, for both are concerned with the directed learning processes of children. Menacker (1974) acknowledges the pre-eminent influence of the families of students and emphasizes the need for positive, proactive programs of parental and community contact. Carkhuff (1971) stresses the need for community educational programs that facilitate human development:

> We cannot experiment with the lives of others. We can no longer afford to fail. We must afford success! Too many more lives will be wasted--theirs and ours [p. 67].

A number of services provided by our public schools, community agencies, and institutions of higher education are child centered and tend to focus on only one child or adult member in the family. There is a tendency to overlook the dynamics of family life, the composition

of the family, and the relationship between and among parents and
children. Many of these services also are developed and administered
in terms of what professionals think is best for the client rather than
taking into consideration the needs and goals of his parents or other
significant adults. Parents (and other community residents) must be
provided with various means of cooperative planning and implementation
of services for children and themselves. Through active participation
in developing, planning, and implementing educationally related services,
the individual family members, as well as the family unit, may be strengthened
and may find a significant, productive place within the community.

This chapter will focus upon a selected review of literature con-
cerning community, higher education, and parental involvement and the
impact upon the school and community experiences of children and adults.
Emphasis in each of these three areas will be focused upon attitudinal
changes, student motivation and achievement, parental and student
aspirations, curricular changes, and existing program attempts.

COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

Initially, public schools were built and geographically located
to serve local communities. These public schools were organized through
grassroots efforts and were seen as extensions of education in the home.
Deshler and Erlich (1972) comment that communities once took lively
interest in determining curricula, hiring teachers, and managing school
finances. However, as the schools expanded in numbers and size, boards
of education were elected or appointed to coordinate and handle school
affairs. Governance of schools then passed from the community residents
to professional administrators. Rogers (1968) states that with the
professionalization of education, especially in the large urban areas,
came school programs that tended to be increasingly unresponsive to the
unique needs of the various communities.

Principles of Community Involvement

Fantini (1969) states four principles that he believes must be
considered in the pursuit of quality education that is responsive to
community needs and expectations. These principles are (1) public
accountability and the control of education, (2) the importance of process,
(3) the potent force of expectancy, and (4) the impact on socializa-
tion. In explaining his first principle, Fantini emphasizes the need
for public schools to belong to the citizens: the people should determine
policies and objectives of education and the professionals should imple-
ment these objectives in the schools. While working on an equal basis
with community residents, both school personnel and community members
may develop many new understandings, and, therefore, cooperative efforts
in the pursuit of quality education may result.

The importance of process is the second principle Fantini presents.
He states that community members simply are not willing to be receivers of
various programs done to and for them: people, instead, are seeking

self-determination and control over their present lives and their futures. Involving community members in the decision-making process that affects their schools is of utmost importance in increasing student motivation and student achievement.

The third principle, stated by Fantini, is expectancy, a reiteration of Rosenthal's (1968) self-fulfilling prophecy. As community members (including parents and children) become active participants in school reform, they very likely will develop high expectations. As the children in school respond to raised expectations, improved self-assurance and academic achievement may result.

In discussing his fourth principle, Fantini stresses that children's families, peer groups, and schools are the three major factors in the development of their socialization processes. If tensions exist between and among these factors, then there is the possibility that the child's socialization processes will be affected adversely. If, however, these three influences send out noncontradictory messages to the child, the child will reap the benefits of improved self-concept, greater achievement, and greater congruency in his world.

School Constituency Organizations

The low level of education available to ghetto children is reflected in their above-average dropout rates and below-grade-level academic proficiencies as reported by Clift (1967), Edwards (1965), Levine (1966), Norton (1967), Pressman (1970), Tannenbaum (1966), and others. Falkson and Gardiner (1972) state that discontented parents frequently question the competencies of the professional educators who direct the school systems. Conflict between school and community seems virtually inevitable. The lack of effective input from the inner-city community into the educational decision-making process has become the issue over which the most violent political conflict has occurred. Blumenberg and Marmion (1972) state that establishment of a school-community advisory council will facilitate rapport between advocates of radical change and uncritical proponents of the status quo. Beane (1973) maintains that the most desirable way of dealing with the general management and guidance of community involvement in educational planning is through the establishment of a district-wide steering committee or educational council. He presents case studies of four districts illustrating alternative strategies for developing school-community cooperation.

Mauch (1969) states that new ties between school, community, and parents have been formed through Title I (Elementary and Secondary Education Act) monies and the concomitant necessity of community advisory boards. He cites examples from various regions of the country and describes the differing types of participation. Campbell (1972) reports that although the community school council is not unique to Flint, Michigan, the tie to the administrative structure is exceptionally firm. Each community school in a neighborhood has a community school council and citizens' block clubs. These organizations discuss local and city needs, and their ideas are transmitted to the board of education and sometimes to city officials.

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Menhin (1969) maintains that citizens do not want to have control over the schools--they merely want to be consulted and respected. Successful parent-community participation, therefore, depends upon the open-mindedness of both educators and parents, according to Pellegrino (1973).

Falkson and Grainer (1972) state that school constituency organizations have developed in two distinct directions. One approach is a voluntary-association model such as the Parent-Teachers Association (PTA). Emphasis in the second approach is placed on the active advocacy of the constituent viewpoint. The users of this approach, such as the Citizen's Advisory Committee (CAC), stress political pressure. Within the context of these organizations, the community and educational professionals are supposed to mediate their differences concerning the improvement of the quality and relevance of education.

Few systematic empirical studies have been conducted on the impact of these two types of organizations on the major issues of school politics. Since comparative analysis of the effects of the PTA and the CAC models is meager, Falkson and Grainer (1972) attempted to assess the relative impact of each constituent organizational type on parental attitudes toward three major issues of inner-city school politics: (1) upgrading the quality of academic services, (2) relating education to the dominant ethnic styles of black communities, and (3) ameliorating the feelings of powerlessness toward neighborhood schools. The results of their study indicated that when asked, "Do you think parents of school children here in your district are allowed much say in the way things are done in the schools?" 93 percent of the PTA respondents, 81 percent of the nonaffiliated respondents, and 70 percent of the CAC respondents felt there was positive parental influence. Therefore, the investigators conclude that PTAs generated attitudes supportive of established school systems while CACs generated more hostile attitudes. They suggest, however, that these findings be interpreted cautiously and considered more for their suggestive rather than conclusive qualities.

Falkson and Grainer (1972) add that generally the CAC is an elitist organization while the PTA conforms more closely to a democratic decision-making model. Support for this categorization emerged from an analysis of constituent responses to: "Do you think there are committees that people like yourself work on which help run things at (local school)?" While 86 percent of the PTA respondents answered in the affirmative, only 36 percent of the CAC respondents did likewise. Therefore, the PTA constituents felt that the PTA served to represent them in local school affairs by a much larger percentage than the CAC respondents did. In addition, nearly two-thirds of the PTA respondents believed themselves to have an influence in what their constituency organization decided to do while 50 percent of the CAC respondents felt unable to exert meaningful influence in group decision making. The researchers concluded that direct parental participation in neighborhood school affairs may be reduced by the CAC presence, and social distance between the school and community may be increased rather than decreased.

The PTA, according to Falkson and Grainer (1972), functions as a formal voluntary association, linking the community to the school through a representative group of parents. However, PTAs generate manageable forms of citizen participation entirely consonant with the goals and objectives of school bureaucracy; no challenges to authority occur. The CAC organization does provide some potential for the emergence of grassroots oppositional politics. The PTA's program consists of two basic components: (1) a communication channel between school and community in directing parental opinions to the principal and transmitting administrative comments back to the parental community and (2) provision of auxiliary services for the school. The CAC viewed itself more as a local board of education: CAC respondents defined their function as the investigation of those school-related matters which were of concern to parents. CAC members felt that they should be consulted on all major administrative policy decisions. Falkson and Grainer (1972) report that approximately one-third of both the PTA members and the unaffiliated parents, compared with almost one-half of the CAC participants, were dissatisfied with the quality of educational services available to them. Therefore, parent membership in either the PTA or CAC seems to have little impact upon actual positive program changes, at least from the membership's perspective. Atkinson (1972) reports that there also are growing feelings among teachers that parent-teacher groups are no longer needed. One could hypothesize that alternate means of actively involving parents, teachers, and community members in school affairs are needed.

Approaches to Community Involvement

Rosenberg (1973) describes three types of approaches that educators have used in dealing with parents and other community members. Educator A maintains a sharp distinction between the professionals and the lay public. A public relations approach is designated as the method of Educator B. This educator faithfully keeps parents and other community residents informed concerning those activities and policies he wishes them to support. This approach is characterized by dissemination of information from the school to the public. Only Educator C who takes a community relations approach deals with each lay person on a person-to-person basis and not as an "it." The community relations approach leads to an "I-Thou" relationship--this is "our" school, for two-way communication exists. Information is disseminated to the public; however, input from the public is sought and incorporated within school policies and programs.

Herman (1972) expands the number of publics with which a school administrator must deal from two--parents and other community residents--to include teachers and students as well. He presents a Maximization of Communications Model and describes the components which provide varied avenues for school output to and input from parents and other community residents, as well as the teaching staff and students. His model reflects an attempt to develop a total communication system which is designed to provide for broad-based community understanding and support for the educational programs. He cautions that a total communication system is constantly being modified in order to meet needs and changing situations.

The need for avenues of open communications between and among the four publics of the school (parents, teachers, students, and community) is documented by Mort and Vincent (1946), who found that many community people felt as if the schools were run by someone in a distant place because they have no voice, no control and their questions went unanswered. Likewise, Becker (1953), Griffiths (1963), and Willower (1963) reported the powerlessness which school principals, department heads, and teachers feel because they have no avenues of communication for making their needs known or for participating in decisions in which they are experts and which truly affect them.

Without open dialogue between parents and school personnel, Becker (1953) suggests that parents may appear threatening to school officials. Often teachers and principals attempt to prevent any event which would give parent and/or community groups a permanent place of authority in the school situation.

Hicks (1942) hypothesizes that community control seems to be a way of creating a more flexible and efficient educational system, one with greater potential for meeting the needs of individual communities. Both Westby (1947) and Jansen (1940) also stress the need for the people of the community to have the power to make decisions that will have a real effect on the operations of their school. Establishing a viable communications system between the school and the publics within a large school system may be an extremely difficult task and yet may be one alternative to complete community control.

Decentralization. Cillie (1940) relates bigness to inflexibility and powerlessness at all levels of the administrative structure. In their investigation, Barker and Gump (1964) found a consistent positive correlation between school size and the level and type of participation of the students and between student participation and student morale. Identity crises, for example, were far more prevalent in the large schools studied. Mort and Cornell (1941) found that when school size is held constant, even district size can enhance or diminish participation of parent and teacher groups.

A comprehensive investigation of the issue of district size and participation was conducted by Gittell (1965), who analyzed the role of the major decision makers in the New York City public school system. She found that local and civic groups such as the United Parents Association or the Parent Teachers Association had little effect on decision making; their potential power as pressure groups was usually lost because of the time and red tape involved in getting any action.

Curriculum revision. Gittell's (1965) description of the manner in which decisions were made about curriculum states that generally curriculum specialists, teachers, principals, parents, and community groups had no voice in the decisions. Administrators external to the school and classroom were responsible for curriculum development and changes.

Kerensky and Melby (1971) express the belief that social changes have made existing education "ineffective and obsolete [p. iv]." In order to change the conventional high school curriculum which Olsen (1972) describes as "archaic, obsolescent, and static [p. 117]," he suggests that secondary schools experiment with life-concern-centered curriculum. This type of curriculum reflects the idea that all life educates and confronts students frankly and creatively with timely issues. The exact delineation of the life activity areas selected is less important than the use of the concept itself in curricular redesign by the four publics: parents, school personnel, community residents, and students. Olsen (1972, p. 177) suggests the following areas for consideration:

1. Securing food and shelter
2. Protecting life and health
3. Exchanging ideas
4. Adjusting to other people
5. Sharing in citizenship
6. Controlling the environment
7. Educating the young
8. Enriching family living
9. Appreciating the past
10. Meeting religious needs
11. Engaging in recreation
12. Enjoying beauty
13. Asserting personal identity

From the previously cited studies, one can hypothesize that if school system size were decreased through decentralization, participation could possibly be enhanced for students, parents, school personnel, and community residents, thus creating more productive and satisfied participants. However, lines of communication between the school and the four publics must be opened and maintained if true total community involvement in the school experience is to become a reality.

Alternative schools. Kammann (1972) presents a convincing argument in support of school boards creating a plan for family choice within the local public schools. He points out that a choice among truly different educational approaches would satisfy the diverse requirements and values of our society in a way not possible right now. One of the important benefits is the residual effect of assuring parents that they have some say in their children's education and an alternative if things don't work out in one school. Kammann describes implementation procedures for three possible methods of offering choice. These are: Plan 1, full implementation within a district; Plan 2, autonomous schools; and Plan 3, choice within the neighborhood schools.

Cable (1973) describes the evolution of schools formed by groups outside the public system and established under the jurisdiction of the Toronto Board of Education. The development is presented in terms of the financial, legal, and administrative arrangements made by the schools and the board.

Glatthorn and Briskin (1973) describe an alternative high school that purchased a mobile motor home for student travel that included art, politics, and language tours. They conclude that both students and staff members benefited by getting to know each other better: the trips became a laboratory in human relations.

Workshops for participating citizens. Establishing and maintaining open lines of communication between and among the school and its publics is not a simple procedure. Workshops for training lay persons are a necessity and yet may be a hindrance to the ideal of community participation. Lutonsky (1973) reports a strategy for community participation at the instructional level and in the training of parents in decision-making processes at the Southern Colorado State College Portal School Development Site Project. Three different types of community participation were identified by those in this particular project: (1) community presence or attendance at meetings, (2) community participation in instructional decisions, and (3) community involvement in administrative decisions. This project hopes to encourage community residents in working with the school to establish neighborhood resource centers, in serving as resource persons to the school in curriculum development, in supervising and/or participating in recreational activities, and in soliciting the involvement of school staff members in neighborhood activities.

At the first level of involvement, the objectives are (1) to develop abilities on the part of both community people and the school system to identify and articulate specific sources of fear, frustration, and confusion toward one another and (2) to develop a climate allowing for free expression of feelings.

At the second level of involvement are (1) to identify specific individual and community resources of both an environmental and cultural nature that could enhance a child's educational experience in the school and (2) to establish the confidence to stress those resources to school system personnel and to build receptivity on their part to integrate these resources within the school curricular program.

At the third level of involvement, the objective is to provide training in decision making and problem solving for those who have emerged as genuinely representative of the community. These lay persons would then serve on the various advisory councils.

Readiness workshops involving small-group and individual activities in communications are deemed necessary for both community persons and school staff. A danger that is inherent in such an undertaking is that these training programs may lead to a new structure in the larger community. This danger is mentioned by Falkson and Grainer (1972) who suggest that the Citizen's Advisory Committee (CAC) may become an elitist organization.

Recognizing that there are obstacles that must be overcome in establishing and implementing community involvement seem secondary to Kerensky and Melby (1971), who insist that the involvement of lay and professional people, the strength of the community school, may bring to reality the American dream of an educational system sensitive to human concerns and personal dignity.

Current program attempts. Many individual teachers and some school systems are currently attempting to incorporate community involvement as a continuous, integral part of the school experience. According to Morris (1972), more and more businesses feel that as community leaders they should work to enrich the life of the community they serve. Many businesses sponsor a variety of community service events or cosponsor school programs with a local industry. Pickarts (1973) describes a program, sponsored by the Division of Career and Continuing Education of the Los Angeles City Schools, which for several years has offered classes for parents on their role in teaching children to read.

Woolnough (1972) states that an effective way for students to learn science concepts and methodology is to work on problems which scientists are attempting to solve in their laboratories. He describes an actual program of cooperation between students and a research laboratory in the community. Abeles (1973) explains an interdisciplinary environmental program initiated at the University of Wisconsin at Green Bay, that is designed to utilize the community as a learning resource and to stimulate university/community interaction. The watershed project involved university and high school students, faculty, and the community.

Community members were invited into classrooms in Portland, Oregon to supplement teacher instruction, according to Guernsey (1969). A special appeal was made for the involvement of senior citizens who were given free passes to attend school sporting events. The reactions from all those involved were favorable, according to the investigator.

Aguayo (1974) reports that participants in the Sun Valley-Las Casitas Youth Employment Program, 14- and 15-year-old students, demonstrated an increase in school attendance. A community group composed of interested residents and representatives from agencies and the schools held weekly meetings and implemented a program to employ 90 neighborhood youths. The school counselor helped in placement, in monitoring job performance, and in paying the youths. There was a 68 percent increase in school attendance by the participants, the 90 part-time employed youths. The investigator also reported that there was a 36 percent decrease in arrest for robbery in the neighborhood during the initial period of operation. Community residents are now functioning in a much more active role in continuing the program.

Community Education

Community involvement, therefore, is an initial step to total community education. Current thought concerning the basic ideas of community education is summarized by Kerensky (1972) as:

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1. Community education is not a product but a process attempting to educate and mobilize community members in developing and implementing educational goals.

2. Community education requires new administration processes for incorporating the ideas, wants, and needs of local citizens into the educational system.

3. Community education is a viable alternative to decentralize and debureaucratize the American schools.

4. Community education attempts to mobilize and coordinate human and physical resources available in each community that tend to function independently.

5. Community education seeks to mobilize the entire community as teachers and as learners.

Brackett (1972) lists several books as antecedents of modern materials dealing with community education: *The School and Society* and *Democracy and Education* by John Dewey; *The Community School* by Samuel Everett; *Selected Community-School Programs in the South* by William Knox McCharen; and *Community Schools in Action* by Elsie Clapp. The reader is referred to Brackett's (1972) article for more recent books recommended for those interested in or involved in community education. She cites Seay and Crawford's *The Community School and Community Self-Improvement* as undoubtedly influencing officers of the Mott Foundation to contribute to the extensive development of the community schools in Michigan.

Reddick (1973) states that "in a comprehensive community education program the student body includes everyone who can benefit from a learning experience [p. 12]." Totten and Manley (1970) describe the scope of the concept of community education as:

. . . the unborn as well as the aged, the healthy as well as the ill, the affluent as well as the poverty burdened, the learned as well as the illiterate, the employed as well as the unemployed, the executive as well as the laborer, leaders as well as followers, and parents as well as children [p. 4].

Goals of community education. Reddick (1973) reiterates goals of community school programs as stated by Totten and Manley (1970, pp. 2, 4) as creating a home-school-community relationship that will enable each resident of the community to have an opportunity to (1) develop an adequate self-image, (2) establish appropriate life goals, and (3) develop his/her personal traits and abilities to the highest possible degree. Other goals of community school programs include (4) enabling each school facility to serve as a human development laboratory; (5) eliminating barriers to social progress such as prejudice, bigotry, selfishness, and indifference; (6) raising the level of literacy among people of the community; and (7) creating and implementing a learning program

which will enable all persons to fulfill their unmet learning needs on a lifetime basis. A program based upon such goals develops its curriculum based upon the needs and desires of the people it serves and makes its facilities and personnel available both day and night, twelve months a year.

Financial considerations. A concern that is often voiced when educators begin to consider such a comprehensive program as community education is that of financing. According to Pappadakis and Totten (1972), traditional education has drawn upon all known revenue-producing sources and community education will continue to do so. These sources include the taxation of property and services at local, state, and national levels; individually paid tuition and fees; fines and forfeitures; and gifts. Totten and Manley (1969) have shown that when all schools in a district are converted into community schools or multipurpose human development laboratories on an organized basis, the increased cost is between 6 and 8 percent. The typical percentage distribution of added costs is 41.9 percent, half-year salary for community education coordinator (if she teaches half-time, one-half of the salary can be charged to instruction); 19.6 percent, full salary of coordinator during summer weeks; 13.1 percent, staff salary, mostly on an hourly rate; 9.8 percent, custodial assistance; 6.5 percent, lighting, heat, and water; 2.6 percent, telephone; and 6.5 percent, equipment and miscellaneous. They add that the 6 to 8 percent needed for community education programs may come from rearrangement of priorities.

Current state of community education research. Van Voorhees (1972) contends that there is currently little research that either supports or denies the effectiveness of community education; community education is still supported by the logic of the process itself, as opposed to facts. He summarizes the agenda of a symposium, concerning research needs in community education, held at the Institute for Community Education Development, Ball State University. The symposium was sponsored by the Institute and the National Community School Education Association (NCSEA) and was partially funded by the Sears Foundation.

People involved in community education and research at various levels from across the country identified needed research relating to (1) the state of the art (analytical); (2) a model for community education (theoretical); and (3) future development strategy (operational). Task Force I (analytical) focused upon assessing what currently exists in community education. Discussions centered upon evaluation techniques, funding practices, community organizations and development, definitions of community education, long-range effects, agency relationships, and societal problems. Research is particularly needed which focuses on the changes that have taken place in the attitudes, behaviors, and life styles of people living in communities experiencing various levels of community education development.

Task Force II (theoretical) decided that community educators must seek answers to questions concerning appropriate community involvement

models, school and agency working relationships, long-range goals, and administrative structure. They also discussed the need for research to explore appropriate training programs for community educators, techniques of initiating community education's overall processes, methods of financing, and university responsibility.

Task Force III (operational) centered their discussions on the need to design a master plan for community education research. Some headway is currently being made to develop a community education research map.

Warden (1973) has devised 125 questions within 14 topical areas that he believes will provide guidelines for future plans and action concerning community education and its performance in relationship to processes designed to foster and enhance the development of the entire community. Van Voorhees (1972) concludes that community education research can become a reality if educators "borrow from other disciplines, revise the dissertation structure and coordinate the process [p. 205]." He suggests the following research questions concerning community education:

1. Is there a greater use of facilities by people of all ages through a community education program?

2. Is there greater average education accomplishment?

3. Is there a greater community interest in education?

4. Is there improvement in the standard of life in a community?

5. Is there an increase in the achievement level of minority group children?

6. Is there a reduction of crime?

7. Does community education enhance the self-image of people and communities?

HIGHER EDUCATION INVOLVEMENT

The roles and responsibilities of institutions of higher education within the community and particularly in the implementation of public school educational programs has been argued and discussed since the time of Thomas Jefferson. The increase in the number of community colleges during the past decade plus the current emphasis upon total community education has encouraged both community residents and community college personnel to re-evaluate the role of higher education in total community development.

Community College Involvement

Logsdon (1972) presents guidelines for establishing the role of the community college in total community education. They are:

1. The community college president must gain support from faculty and provide specific responsibilities through administrative organization for staff involvement.

2. Definite procedures must be established for obtaining community involvement from all geographic areas and ethnic groups.

3. State legislation is necessary that allows the community college to be flexible, to adapt quickly and efficiently to local conditions.

4. Community college programs must be articulated with other educational opportunities available in the community.

5. Counseling services must be provided. Counseling for personal and vocational concerns, as well as training in human relations and human development, must be a part of the community colleges' role in individualizing and personalizing instruction.

6. Continuous contact must be maintained with all the schools in the area.

7. Evaluation of the programs implemented in line with the community education concept must be continuous. Follow-up studies, questionnaires, rap sessions, and face-to-face discussions provide such feedback. Evaluative data must be disseminated to the community college staff, the governing board, and to the community itself [p. 198].

Some community colleges are beginning to work cooperatively with their communities for the betterment of both. A report of the National Dissemination Project for the Community Colleges (1973) supplies details of a community involvement program in the state of Washington offering credit for community-based learning. The report states that the community involvement program facilitated the development of a community-based learning program, developed a structure enabling students and faculty to participate in decision making, created a mechanism for channeling college resources into the community, functioned as positive public relations for the college, facilitated use of the open-door policy, and aided efficient utilization of the tax dollar.

McKernan (1972) reports that one community and the local college jointly sponsored a wine festival to raise funds for student financial aid. Casse (1972) describes the content and experiences of participants in a course on drugs for local adults and school teachers offered by Kirkwood Community College in Iowa. The objective was to establish a continuing effective program to control drug usage in the entire community.

University-Community Involvement

During the decade of the sixties and into the mid-seventies, tremendous emphasis has been given to the role of the urban university in

solving current social issues. Ross (1973) presents the political, sociological, economic, and cultural effects of the university-city relationship. He points out three major aspects of university-city relationships: (1) the impact of the university on local government, (2) the growth of external and internal university involvement in urban affairs, and (3) the strengths and weaknesses of both universities and local governments as they attempt to interact beneficially with each other. Seary (1972) states that as the four-year college and the university contribute to the development of community education, perhaps they will feel as if they belong to the community. As institutions of higher education, they must assume an active responsibility for their communities, a goal they have often stated, but seldom implemented.

Shaw and Tronzo (1972) state that the university is responsible to its surrounding community as well as to its internal constituency and must therefore consult with community organizations and win their approval for plans for expansion. They stress that urban universities must face common problems with surrounding communities when expanding. Community organizations have questions concerning the necessity for campus expansion, the revelation of university plans to the community, university sensitivity to the problems of resident relocation, the failure of the university to include multi-use buildings in its plans, and university efforts to reconcile differences with the community.

Shaw (1973) reports three views on the University of Pittsburgh campus expansion: the views expressed on this topic were voiced by a university representative, a city planner, and a community leader. Three main conclusions were drawn:

1. The main concern of the university was with the development of its own physical plant and not with community development. However, both the community member and the city representative expressed concern with the interrelationships and consequences of residential, commercial, and institutional development.

2. The university generally approached expansion pragmatically, viewing its constituency as regional and national. In contrast, the community and the city were concerned with the university's impact on the community and expected the university to adhere to a higher standard of citizenship and service than other institutions.

3. The university was not responsive to changes in societal values which would have required citizen input in institutional planning.

Biggs and Barnhart (1972) studied the relationships between various personal and social characteristics of a random sample of 254 citizens and their satisfaction with their local university. They concluded that most urban citizens had university-related experiences and believed that faculty and students were sincere and hardworking. Most respondents were satisfied with different facets of university life, endorsed the

principle of campus freedom of expression, but were opposed to the goals of students when active methods of dissent were utilized. Urban citizens' satisfactions with the university were related to their perceptions of campus life as it related to the work ethic and Americanism.

The Student Consultant Project (SCP), described by Jarema (1973), is a university-based operation in Pittsburgh which has been channeling university resources into the community since its inception in October 1969. To ensure or elicit outside support (moral and possibly financial), an elected board of directors was formed "to provide continuity and communications between the SCP and business concerns; provide leadership for the development of SCP philosophy and goals; oversee SCP action; and supervise and audit financial affairs of SCP including approval of budgets [p. 11]." SCP goals as stated by Jarema (1973) are:

1. To help create black economic power in Pittsburgh by strengthening client businesses or organizations, by creating additional jobs and by raising managerial skill levels and pride of our clients.

2. To focus the attention of the business school faculty upon pressing problems facing the Pittsburgh black business community.

3. To open up a channel of communication between the business students and black businessmen.

4. To provide students with practical field experience working with businesses during the school year [p. 11].

Field experiences or internships for their students within the community are often sought by university faculty. Kiel (1972) investigated the educational impact of service-learning internships arranged in North Carolina. He reports that the results indicated that the learning benefits most frequently felt by student interns were (1) the development of more hopeful, knowledgeable, and concerned attitudes toward community problem solving; (2) increased motivation to work and learn in communities; (3) the opportunity for personal learning in the realm of action; and (4) immediate impact on student intern behavior and plans for the future. The learning impact of the internship is greatly reduced, however, according to the investigator, by the lack of follow-up when the student returns to campus.

According to Reddick (1973), community education which attempts to provide educational programs and services for all people of all ages within the community may be a potential answer to many of our most pressing social problems such as the rising rate of juvenile delinquency and crime, racial and socioeconomic segregation, and the waste of human potential in elementary and secondary school dropouts. In 1968, the late Lyndon B. Johnson said, "Schools will not serve children well unless they also serve the entire community. We need to develop a new concept--the community school [p. 45]."

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Preparation for and Professionalization of Community Education

If, indeed, community education has the potential to solve some of our country's serious and all-encompassing social problems, then it is imperative that institutions of higher education, especially those involved in teacher preservice and inservice education become initiators of the needed changes. Institutions of higher education must become innovators and catalysts of changes in the quality of education in a pluralistic society.

Totten (1971) reports that in a questionnaire investiga' :·n, respondents almost unanimously agreed that the concept of community education should be included as a part of the general education courses leading to a bachelor's degree. He adds that 90 percent of the respondents indicated that the study of the community education concept and the functioning of the community school should be required of all preservice teacher candidates. The:efore, participation in community organization and activities is an important part of the total experience of the undergraduate student. Totten contends that community education is interdisciplinary: the curriculum draws upon all fields of learning for content and, as a result, is designed to enrich all fields of learning.

According to Campbell (1972), the seven state universities in Michigan, in cooperation with the Mott Foundation, have initiated a master's and doctoral degree program to prepare community education leaders. He states that most of the graduates of the program are currently implementing community education ideas into practice in their present educational positions.

Bush (1972) reports that while the seven Michigan universities provide the disciplinary and degree capability, the Flint Public School system provides the internship experiences. The Mott Foundation has provided $5,000 and $8,000 fellowships to support selected interns to study for one year at the master's or doctoral level. The year of study is designed to provide interns with knowledge, experience, and a degree appropriate to qualify for leadership positions in the nation's school systems.

Campbell (1972) reports that in 1955 an initial community-school workshop was held in Flint, Michigan. Twice each year since that time people from all disciplines have come to these workshops to study community education. Short-term and special institutes also are provided by the seven Michigan universities for credit or as inservice experience for those people wishing to learn more about community education.

The National Community School Education Association (NCSEA) was organized in 1966. Each year this association holds a national meeting for its members and others who have community education interests. Bush (1972) states that the National Center for Community Education (NCCE), like the seven Michigan universities in the consortium, is a

leadership development center, a clearinghouse, a service agency, a human resource, and an initiator of exemplary programs and experimental projects.

Constraints to community education. Alternatives to traditional four-year teacher preparation are being attempted not only in Michigan, but in all sections of the country. Workshops and institutes currently are being held on campuses and in the field in order to provide inservice education for helping certificated teachers not only gain new competencies but also upgrade existing skills. Methods of community involvement are being stressed. However, the administration and its flexibility and openness are still the key to successful innovation.

Mort and Cornell (1941) conducted several studies concerning school administration and from their research maintain that the educational quality of school districts could be measured by their adaptability to change. They used a district's adaptability rating and found correlations between such characteristics as its financial policies, its size, and the degree of lay and professional participation in the district.

Preservice education. Harris (1972) describes a parent-community program in an experimental school in the Richmond public school system. One of the goals of this school was that it provide a learning environment not only for children but also for parents, teachers, administrators, and the community. The relationship of parents and the local school administration to the university was seen as vital: the university provided valuable input into curriculum development. Faculty members from the School of Education served on planning committees and also became members of the advisory board of the school, which also consisted of parents, teachers, school administrators, and representatives of the State Department of Education. A joint appointment was made in the fall of 1971 so that one university educator devoted one-half time to the public school system. The university has also been instrumental in recruiting student volunteers for activities and university faculty for inservice education programs.

Home visitation experiences were suggested by Sneed (1957) for inclusion in teacher education programs as a means of helping prospective teachers understand the importance of home-school cooperation and of assisting them in gaining confidence in home visitation processes. She proposes that programs of preservice teacher education should:

1. Encourage prospective teachers to assist with the work of community agencies where home visiting is an established part of their programs,

2. Emphasize the values of home visitation and use role playing as a means of helping students grasp some of the techniques,

3. Provide opportunities for home visiting during the student teaching period,

4. Encourage future teachers to visit homes with experienced teachers in their home community during the summer or before school begins, and

5. Help student teachers see opportunities for teacher-pupil-parent planning as homes are visited.

Clothier and Hudgins (1972) report that preparation of well-trained, effective, committed teachers appears to be the basis of a solution to the downward spiral of inner-city educational opportunities. They discuss a trend toward making teacher education more flexible in providing realistic preparation for potential inner-city teachers. They point out that (1) prospective inner-city teachers must be aware of life in the inner city and the problems facing teachers and pupils as they work together; (2) the urban school system must be an integral part of any program designed to prepare inner-city teachers; and (3) an interdisciplinary approach to the preparation of teachers is necessary in order that they become more familiar with the inner-city environment. They add that the Career Opportunities Program (COP) of the Bureau for Educational Personnel Development, U.S. Office of Education offers a new pattern of teacher preparation for inner-city schools. Under this program, young people from low-income areas are given the chance to learn supporting roles in inner-city classrooms. They conclude that such apprenticeship activities with appropriate college credit could possibly lead to a new, less formal avenue for inner-city teacher education.

Howsam (1972) stresses the need for the teaching profession to develop its role and influence in the areas of teacher preparation and professional competence. The organized teaching profession should be (1) strongly represented on the governing bodies of teacher education and viewed as a full partner with the faculty of teacher education and (2) strongly supported by the universities.

Inservice education. Aubrey (1972) emphasizes the need for public school counselors to serve as change agents in the school by working not only with children, but with parents and teachers. He states:

> . . . parents and teachers represent two of the most powerful environmental factors in the development of youngsters. By directly affecting the attitudes and behaviors of these groups, the elementary counselor-consultant indirectly exerts tremendous influences over the major environmental figures in the lives of children [p. 91].

The independence of the school and other community institutions is undergirding the school's primary function of helping children acquire competence in meeting their life tasks and in adapting creatively to change, according to Arndt (1973). She discusses three factors which may hinder students in assuming social responsibility as adult citizens. She believes that instruction inputs may be highly incongruous with prior experiences of disadvantaged children and, therefore, may disrupt sequential learning. She also argues for collaboration between schools

and other community agencies. The third factor relates to collaboration in behalf of children, with stress on the necessity for involvement of parents and referrals to community agencies. She concludes that pupil personnel workers must give effective leadership within both school and community to enhance children's motivation and opportunities to learn.

Hillman (1968) describes a Parent-Teacher Education Center designed to help parents, teachers, and children learn to work together more cooperatively and effectively. The following goals were established:

1. To provide counseling for individual families concerning parent-child, teacher-child, and child-child relationships.

2. To provide an opportunity for parents in the group to learn more effective ways of raising children.

3. To provide an inservice training opportunity for the teachers in the group.

Hillman stresses that because of its educational emphasis, the center can be the focal point of a preventative program through group work with teachers and parents.

Franken (1969) describes Project ABC, an inservice education program. Project ABC refers to increasing awareness of the behavioral dynamics of children. The project was funded through a Title III, ESEA grant, and counselor-consultants reached teachers through local and area-wide inservice meetings, workshops, and a monthly newsletter. The importance of the relationships between the teacher and the child and his peers was emphasized. Teachers were encouraged to explore new ways of observing and understanding the feelings of children through observation checklists, sociometrics, role playing, creative writing, and art. Franken reports that the high demand for Project ABC services and the enthusiastic response of teachers could be interpreted subjectively as a positive reception of the project's activities.

Mankato State College (1972) currently offers a college curriculum of varying credit hours for specially tailored courses and consultative aids for teachers in the local school system in Albert Lea, Minnesota. The plan permits teachers to contract with the university, individually or in groups, for specific projects dealing with problems in the local school system. This course work has resulted in the creation of many pilot programs now implemented in the schools.

These programs by universities, colleges, and school districts are examples of attempts to provide viable means of inservice education for teachers and/or parents which have the potential of making a difference in the school experiences of children. Other projects also have been implemented with varying degrees of success. Well-designed research concerning such programs generally is lacking. Currently, the concept of the teacher center is gaining much attention for its proponents argue

that the teacher center has the potential of a collaborative and coopera-
tive effort by schools, community, and institutions of higher education.

Teacher Centers

Smith et al. (1969) present an argument for the establishment of
centers for teacher education in or close to the schools. They add
that universities and colleges have adequately prepared teachers in the
general theories of teaching, but have neglected their clinical training.
Schaefer (1967) points out the need for the establishment of centers
within schools and/or school districts in which teachers could continually
study curricular and instructional alternatives and pursue the scholarly
study of their own teaching.

A teacher center, according to Schmieder and Yarger (1974), is:

A place, in situ or in changing locations, which develops
programs for the training and improvement of educational
personnel (in-service teachers, pre-service teachers,
administrators, para-professionals, college teachers, etc.)
in which the participating personnel have an opportunity
to share successes, to utilize a wide range of education
resources, and to receive training specifically related to
their most pressing teaching problems [p. 6].

Through a review of the literature, they found there are basically seven
organizational types of teaching centers. The current emphasis is upon
cooperation and consortia in the teaching center movement in America:
generally, the consortium includes a school system and an institution
of higher education.

Joyce and Weil (1973) present a review of the literature concerning
the concepts of teacher centers and describe several attempts at imple-
mentation of the concepts. They contend that the teacher center may
bring about continuous staff education which "will enable schools to
develop unique character because their teachers will be able to learn
how to work in new ways required by unique approaches [p. 17]."

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

According to Fantini (1972) and Pellegrino (1973), efforts in
establishing parent participation generally have taken different forms
including participation for (1) instructional support; (2) public rela-
tions; (3) community service; (4) planning, accountability, and govern-
ance; and (5) crisis intervention. Crisis intervention is found when
parents band together to resolve a crisis that has arisen. Although
this type of participation is generally of short duration, parents under-
stand the issues, such as double sessions, school busing, the need for a
new school, and drug concerns, and they can see some immediate results.
Pellegrino (1973) states that "the current educational trend is one of
reform, and it is essential that the public reasserts its rightful role
as co-partners in such important business [p. 8]."

Gallup (1972) reports that in a national survey, 57 percent of the respondents stated that the chief blame for children doing poorly in school could be placed on the children's home life. He concluded that if a child's success in school is largely dependent upon his home life, certainly more time and effort should be devoted to finding out ways to deal with these home factors.

Parent participation in the school experience of their youngsters involves a multiplicity of factors which can produce conflict and confrontation (Pellegrino, 1973). He feels that perhaps parents depend, to a large extent, upon the initiative and leadership of educators as to what parental participation is wanted within the school. He calls upon parents to present their ideas to the administration concerning their active participation in school life so that they assum? their true role as full partners of the professionals in the education of their children. He continues:

> . . . parent participation should not be restricted to
> some tasks no one else wants to do, but should involve
> parents at all levels of the school system according to
> their interests and capabilities. . . . parent particip-
> ation means an active, sustained, intelligent, continuous,
> and responsible presence of parents through a school system.
> If we believe that the school exists to serve the community,
> then who knows the community better than the parents who
> live therein? [p. 6].

One means of ascertaining the perceived educational needs of children is simply to ask parents. Sherats (1972) reports that in interviews with 149 Menominee parents whose children attended schools from kindergarten through high school, he found most parents were interested in the schooling of their children. According to the investigator, 83 percent of the parents placed a high value on formal education, and approximately 97 percent appeared to have given consideration to the educational needs of their children. No longer can school personnel hide behind the often-used phrase "parents just don't care." Through involving parents in school activities, school personnel may discover quite the opposite. Rothenberg (1972) studied school use and community and professional interaction in a New York school complex. She found that with parental involvement, parents become increasingly aware of their educational rights and responsibilities. She reports many ongoing activities and repeats instances of parents and teachers working together and, therefore, recognizing the agreement in their goals for children. Kopita (1973) has collected 48 document abstracts advocating methods by which the school can involve parents in the education and social development of the child.

Levels of Parental Involvement

Gordon (1970) identifies the following five levels of parental involvement in school: (1) observer, (2) teacher of the child, (3) volunteer, (4) paraprofessional, and (5) decision maker. Most public schools involve

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parents at level one only. Greenwood, Breivogel, and Bessent (1972) describe the five levels of parent involvement identified by Gordon (1970) and present activities at each of these levels as implemented in the Florida Follow Through Program. They stress the need for educators to think through the kind and amount of parental involvement that they are promoting within their own communities.

Teacher of the child. Educating low-income parents so that they may assist in the teaching of their own children has become a major focus in the field of early childhood education during the past two decades. These educators have begun attempts to make positive changes in the home environment of the child rather than simply condemn the environment. The realization that the home and school must enter into a truly open, cooperative partnership is now beginning to receive attention from public school personnel.

Packer and Cage (1972) identify two important factors in the home environment: (1) the parents' expectations about their childrens' education and (2) the provisions they make for helping them learn. They add, however, that parents' feelings about themselves are also significant. Nelson and Bloom (1973) concur, stating that parents should be involved in the school experience of their children not only because of the potential of parents in reinforcing positive growth but also as resource persons for teachers. They describe specific examples of how parents may be actively involved with children, teachers, and other parents.

Auerbach and Roche (1971) describe how a spontaneous neighborhood venture of preschool play groups, established by a group of mothers for their children, grew into a human relations experiment in which all elements of the local population were included and integrated. With support from the Ford Foundation, many approaches were implemented in which parents from varying backgrounds could learn together for and about their children. The book explains what one small community-within-a-community was able to accomplish in a struggle to resolve group tensions and purposes. According to the authors, this approach exemplifies a pragmatic approach in which human values in a democracy were implemented into service.

Many parents need assistance in understanding their important role in motivating their child to achieve academically (Smith, 1970). Parents can communicate to the child that education is important by becoming involved in school activities. She suggests parent inservice meetings for communicating to parents specific activities that they may engage in with their children at home.

Tanzman (1972) and Ungaro (1972) describe programs that have been implemented for the purpose of helping parents see themselves as educational resources for children and showing them that activities at home do provide meaningful educational experiences. Ungaro (1972) particularly stresses the need for parents and children to have a thorough understanding of their responsibilities.

Volunteer. The idea of parents and/or students at various levels of their educational development performing volunteer services at school is not new. For some time educators have realized that parents, community residents, and the schools must be partners in working together in creating better and more successful educational experiences for children. Each individual school must develop its own volunteer program based upon the needs of its particular student population. However, the following four points may provide guidelines for schools wishing to begin or enlarge their present volunteer program:

1.   Teachers, principals, and a group of parents should develop a realistic plan of how and where volunteers are to be used.

2.   Communication channels should be established with all potential volunteers.

3.   Volunteers should be placed where their talents may be used to the best advantage.

4.   Volunteers' contributions should be needed and expressions of appreciation should be extended.

Taylor (1972) suggests that volunteer parents must have a willingness to try anything once, should possess a sense of humor, and should find genuine pleasure in the company of children. Wall (1972) describes a program of parent volunteer tutors established to give children per onal attention and individual help while Fireside (1972) suggests that volunteer parents share hobbies such as sewing and cooking with small groups of children. Moore (1972) describes a tutoring program in which college students tutor children wherever there are children: in a free corner, in a migrant labor camp, in a community recreation hall, or at the school. The tutors work closely with the classroom teachers who have asked for their services. Project SERVE, Summer Enrichment in Memphis, Tennessee, involved the recruitment of college students and junior and senior high school students as tutors. A manual, High School Student Volunteers (1972), was written for school officials who want to learn more about the high school volunteer movement as well as for those who are already involved in coordinating student volunteer activities. Experience has shown that students work most effectively in their communities and derive the most educational benefits when the school supplies the essential element of coordination.

Paraprofessional. Lefkowitz (1973) presents the point of view that because teachers have failed to react to the growing numbers of paraprofessionals being hired by school systems, teachers are being doomed to second-class status. However, Johnson (1967) states that the clamor for aides has come from both teacher groups and the federal government. He adds that teachers have asked for paraprofessionals to undertake some of the nonprofessional duties that many teachers are required to perform, while the federal government has viewed employment of auxiliary personnel primarily as a method of attacking the national poverty problem.

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Michael (1973) refutes Lefkowitz's (1973) point of view and chal-
lenges teachers to assume professional status and truly to consider
and implement procedures to help humanize the schools by helping both
teachers and students. She states that no one has suggested that
teacher aides replace professional teachers. Her views are supported
by Laing (1972) who emphasizes the need for employing paid and volunteer
aides to assist the teacher in many ways according to their own individual
abilities.

Decision maker. Raffel (1972) analyzed the relationship between
parental preferences and school functioning in 10 elementary schools
in the Boston public school system. He found that parental attempts to
alter responsiveness of school functioning to parental preferences was
greatly limited within the school system. Nonrepresentativeness was
found to be a function of (1) the inability of parents to organize for
collective action; (2) the inability of principals to influence teachers;
(3) the power of senior teachers to select their school; (4) the lack of
perceptual accuracy of teachers about parents and their educational
preferences; and (5) the lack of legitimacy many parents, teachers, and
principals hold for parental influences over teacher behavior.

Methods of reporting to parents and involving parents as decision
makers in school experiences are described by Abbott (1973). He believes
that in a sound program of community involvement there is a balance between
and among educators, parents, and community. He cautions, however, that
educators must not always expect the public to respond to them unless
they respond to the public. Therefore, communication is a two-way approach
or exchange.

Decision making by parents and community residents may take the
form of either elected or appointed community action councils as
described previously. However, Thomson (1972) stresses the need for
educators to implement a more individualized decision-making program
for each student and his/her parents. He suggests that helping the
student learn is a partnership commitment and that each year's goals
for an individual student should be agreed upon by his family, the school,
and the student. He continues:

> At a time when educational goals vary significantly from
> family to family, individualized accountability should
> generate a considerable degree of student and parent com-
> mitment. When the parent and the student both participate
> in the identification of desired behavioral outcomes, and
> when they understand their respective obligations as well
> as the reasons the school recommends a particular approach
> to achieve these goals, then we will have gained a joint
> understanding comparable to that achieved between the
> frontier school master and his pupil's parents [p. 49].

Models for Involvement

The AFRAM Parent Implementation Education Model (Wilcox, 1972) has as its philosophy that:

> . . . parents/families have a natural, non-negotiable right/
> responsibility to guard the right of their children, to be
> perceived as human and educable, as members of a family and
> as members of a community and to be involved in shaping the
> content and policy of their (children's) educational programs
> [p. 49].

Karnes, Zehrbach, and Teska (1972) present a model for parental involvement which they believe will reduce two factors that have been obstacles to true family involvement in school experiences: (1) the attitudes of professional personnel, and (2) the lack of skills in working with parents. The main areas of their model, ASTEM, are acquaint, teach, support, expand, and maintain.

She' on and Dobson (1373) explain a family-school communication model in which the elementary school counselor serves as organizer and coordinator of the various parent-community-school activities. Dobson and Shelton (1973) also present FICS, a more global approach to family and community involvement in the school experiences of children. They describe possible implementation procedures for initiating and/or expanding family, community, and higher education services into a meaningful approach in the local school. Shelton and Dobson (1973a) present a model of family involvement and communication designed for implementation in schools whose population is composed of Native American children from low socioeconomic homes. This model, Native American Family-Involvement Communication System (NAFICS) evolved after meetings with parents and community residents in one eastern Oklahoma rural school district. This grassroots approach to parental participation is mandatory in organizing and implementing a truly democratic parental involvement program.

An initial step in attempting to plan and organize family and community involvement may be an assessment of parental and community perceptions of the schools. Weiner and Blumberg (1973) have constructed the Parent-School Communications Questionnaire (PSCQ) to measure parental perceptions of school factors within the following five areas:

1. Mechanical--the process through which parents make contact with personnel.

2. Outreach--the attempt by school personnel to contact parents.

3. Organizational Climate--parental perceptions of the general character of the school.

4. Interpersonal Climate--quality and nature of parent-teacher interaction.

5. Influence--parents' perception of the impact of their rela-
    tions with school personnel.

Responses are made on a five-point Likert-type scale. The authors feel
that the results of the field testing of the PSCQ indicates its potential
as a tool to assist school administrators in testing parental perceptions
of the current status of their schools.

Nelson and Bloom (1973) caution that school personnel, especially
the elementary school counselor, should interview the prospective parent
volunteers or potential paraprofessionals to clarify their suitability
for a specific task. Shelton and Dobson (1973) and Wall (1972) stress
the need for inservice education for staff and training of volunteer and
para professional parents or community members prior to implementation
of an active involvement program. The quality of parental and community
involvement is paramount: quantity is secondary.

Many possible models depicting meaningful ways for schools, parents,
and community to work cooperatively toward the goal of providing per-
sonalized, quality education for all citizens are available. Implementa-
tion strategies have been delineated. Research documenting the effects
of community and family involvement on student performance, although
quite sparce, is continuing to expand. The remaining sections of this
chapter are devoted to research and/or recommendations for future research
and program attempts in parental involvement.

Parental Participation and Attitudes toward School

Participation in the school has been shown to be related to parent
attitudes and behavior. Cloward and Jones (1963) found the involvement
of parents in school affairs to be positively correlated with parental
evaluations of the importance of education and their attitudes toward
the school as an institution. Other studies have shown that even
limited participation by parents in school affairs correlates with
heightened pupil development. Schiff (1963) reports that parent partici-
pation and cooperation in school affairs led to pupil achievement,
better school attendance and study habits, and fewer discipline problems.
The pupils whose parents participated in school experiences showed
significantly more improvement in gains on a reading test than did pupils
whose parents did not participate.

Jablonsky (1973, p. 6) reports that schools which open their doors
to parents and community members have greater success in educating chil-
dren. The change in perceptions of parents actively involved in school
affairs seems to benefit their children. Hess and Shipman (1966, p. 35)
studied the effects of mothers' attitudes and behavior toward their
children in selected test situations. They conclude that involving
parents in school activities may assist the child in developing more
positive impressions of the school, of the teacher, and of himself.

Rankin (1967) investigated the relationship between parent behavior and achievement of urban elementary school children and found differences between the attitudes and behavior of mothers of high-achieving and low-achieving children. Two of the general areas in which differences were found were (1) the ability of the mothers to discuss school concerns and (2) the ability of the mothers to initiate conferences with school personnel.

Brookover et al. (1965) compared the self-image and academic achievement of three low-achieving junior high school student groups. One group received weekly counseling sessions, a second group had regular contacts with specialists in certain interest areas, and the third group consisted of students' parents who met weekly with school personnel to discuss their children's development. At the end of the school year, the first two groups showed no measurable development in either self-concept or academics. The third group, whose parents had become involved in the school and their children's development, showed growth in positive self-concept and significant growth in academic progress.

Shelton and Dobson (1974) found that parent and teacher involvement through a series of home visits significantly increased the average daily attendance and achievement of students whose homes were visited. They conclude that (1) perhaps the home visits implied a real interest in or concern for the children and therefore created in the parents a more positive attitude toward school; (2) the home visits may have also created an interest in school on the part of the child; (3) through the home visitations, perhaps teachers learned of children's needs and interests and utilized these in relating curriculum to each individual child; and (4) perhaps the child felt the special concern and interest shown in him and therefore tried to fulfill the teacher's expectations.

According to Roessel (1963), since Navaho Indian parents and community members obtained voting power concerning school policy and membership on local school boards, student enthusiasm has increased. He concludes that making the school an integral part of the community and recognizing the importance of native Indian culture through active decision making and involvement of parents was the impetus for an increase in student enthusiasm for learning.

An English as a Second Language (ESL) project (1972) was conducted for parents of Mexican-American students in the Florence-Firestone neighborhood of Los Angeles. The major part of the curriculum was built on home-school communication to allow parents to learn the language of the school setting. Other objectives were (1) to establish more effective dialogue between home, school, and community and (2) to encourage involvement in PTA, school board, and other public meetings. A bilingual counselor implemented counseling services for parents and students, and 29 teachers offered morning and evening ESL classes for two academic years. Child care was available for day classes. Bilingual teacher aides were hired as a part of the project. Seventy special lessons in home-school-community communication skills were developed stressing the audiolingual approach. Positive project accomplishments were high attendance of Mexican-American

parents at parent and civic meetings, in group orientations and individual counseling, and in the numerous social and cultural activities held on school sites. Student surveys also indicated the ESL lessons were instrumental in creating a better understanding of the school system as evidenced by the positive opinion of the project held by parents, community leaders, and school personnel.

Lawrence (1972) describes a parent discussion group organized by the teacher and the school nurse which met for lunch one day a month in order to provide opportunities for parent-parent and parent-school personnel interaction. Although this program did not have outside funding and did not include the personnel of the ESL project described previously, Lawrence maintains that the attendance at the parent discussion groups increased steadily throughout the year, indicating that needs of the parents were being met.

Pallister and Wilson (1970) compared aspirations, attitudes, and knowledge of the educational system of working-class and middle-class mothers. They found that working-class mothers knew much less about the educational system and were less eager for their children to continue with post-high school education. Working-class parents tended to be underambitious and to underestimate their children's intellectual ability; while middle-class parents tended to be ambitious, sometimes beyond their children's intellectual capacity.

In conducting a home tutoring program, Schaefer (1969) found that the children of parents who showed less interest in the program obtained less positive results. Gray (1971) suggests that the attitudes of parents regarding their children's educational development can be positively changed through a sequence of well planned and coordinated home visits by school personnel.

Packer and Cage (1972) report data obtained from studying school systems across the country using the Florida Parent Education Follow Through model. Mothers' attitudes toward themselves and education changed significantly. Mothers in large urban areas showed the most change in regard to their own self-concepts and their expectations and provisions for the education of their children.

Brown et al. (1971) state that working with young children and their parents, particularly those from the lower socio-economic level homes, has been the major focus of the Demonstration and Research Center in Early Education (DARCEE) at Peabody College. The program emphasizes the development of aptitudes and attitudes for achievement. The DARCEE model is based upon a conviction that a more processlike approach to classroom operation, parent involvement, and training has a higher probability of achieving effectively than a productlike approach does.

The DARCEE long-range goal is for children to develop into personally and socially effective and happy adults who possess the accompanying

attitudes and the necessary competencies to make this possible. They view self-confidence as a positive attitude toward self and others and as a positive identification with one's own ethnic group. Therefore, the program is geared to encourage and to increase the child's self-confidence and his interest in learning.

An essential of the DARCEE program is parental involvement. Parents are actively included in the program in an effort to enhance the educability of their child through seeing themselves as effective change agents in their homes and communities. Methods that have been included to achieve parental involvement have been home visitation by trained personnel, guided observations in the classroom, and actual classroom participation by parents. The DARCEE approach to home visiting with parents of preschool children is explained by Giesy (1970). DARCEE personnel suggest that classroom observation and participation may be used to supplement home visiting in a parental involvement program. Dokecki, Bridgman, and Horton (1971) have prepared a guide for training family day-care workers.

Campbell (1972) reports that the home-school counselor in Flint, Michigan works with mothers in the local school attendance area. These home-school counselors were selected because of their warm-hearted, kind personalities and, as a result, have been able to establish a positive relationship with neighborhood patrons. The home-school counselors provide assistance to mothers on rearing children, stretching family budgets, using surplus foods, and other consumer information.

Dinkmeyer and Arciniega (1972) emphasize the importance of the school counselor in creating new ways for involving significant adults in the educational enterprise. Beale (1974) describes the use of a guidance drama as a means of encouraging mutual concerns-sharing by parents. He contends that parents, through their association with other parents in a guidance drama, can learn more about their own feelings and realize that others, too, sometimes feel discouragement, disappointment, fear, and confusion in their parental roles.

Wechsler (1971) investigated the use of small-group counseling designed to improve the attitudes of mothers toward their academically underachieving sons and the effects upon the boys' self-concept and perceived maternal acceptance. Students whose mothers participated in group counseling experienced enhanced degrees of self-acceptance three weeks and six months following the termination of counseling. The investigator concludes that the insight gained by the mothers seemed to have far-reaching effects on the entire family.

Platt (1971) found significant improvement in behavior of children as rated by their teachers and parents with a guidance approach that included counseling children in groups, consulting with their teachers, and conducting parent education groups. In explaining the Adlerian family education model Christensen (1972) and Hillman (1968) emphasize that parents are encouraged to become involved in a dialogue with teachers and counselors and to learn viable child-rearing and adult-child interactions.

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Price (1971) recommends parent discussion groups in encouraging mothers to believe in their own capacity to deal honestly with their children:

> Motherhood is one of the most difficult of professions, most often achieved through tradition, instinct, and repetition. Mothers need mothers for support and inspiration [p. 92].

She calls upon the elementary school counselor to reach out to parents in an attempt to increase their capacity for mothering. Shelton and Dobson (1973) agree that this is a necessary and desirable function of the elementary counselor.

These investigations and the descriptions of existing programs of parental involvement seem to indicate that parental involvement in the school experience is associated with attitudes and behavior not only of children, but of parents as well. Parental participation may change the attitudes of the parents toward the schools and the goals of education. In addition, through involving parents in the process of education, they may come to acquire certain skills of teaching which then can be applied in the home situation.

Parental involvement in the school experience, however, not only is associated with attitudes and behavior of children and parents, but seems to influence teacher attitudes toward children. Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) report that children who profited from positive changes in teachers' expectations of their ability all had parents who were involve! at least to some degree in their child's development in the school and who were distinctly visible to the school personnel. Parental participation makes parents more visible to school personnel and to the child, and it may indicate to both the importance of education.

Cultural Identity and Self-Concept

The active involvement of parents in school affairs and other community activities may also enhance cultural identity and self-concept, which in turn may raise achievement. Chilman (1966) states that parental patterns most characteristic of the very poor are an anticipation of failure and a distrust of middle-class institutions such as schools. A study of life in central Harlem reports that children growing up in the inner city tend to sense their parents' feelings of powerlessness and assume they have little or no control over their fate (HARYOU ACT, 1964). Seasholes (1965), in an analysis of the political socialization of blacks, reaches this same conclusion. Weinstein and Fantini (1971) agree when they comment that the major concerns of children (especially poor children) are (1) self-image, (2) alienation, and (3) lack of control over their environment.

Coleman et al. (1966) contend that the child's sense of control over his environment is one of the strongest factors influencing his

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achievement. They conclude that it may be more important to achievement than school characteristics are.

In a study of low-income, working-class families on the lower East Side of New York City, Cloward and Jones (1963) found that families believed that work and education would result in getting ahead. Socio-economically middle class parents tended to believe that schooling and hard work resulted in success, while low socioeconomic parents felt that success was largely related to "who you know" or "luck." They stress that parents of all socioeconomic classes who were involved in schools tended to believe that the school and education could actually effect change in their children. Perhaps their participation in the school gave them a greater sense of control than those parents who were not involved in school matters.

Lopate et al. (1970), in a review of literature concerning decentralization and community participation in school experiences, state that the sense of control of one's destiny is only one affective variable which has been found significantly to influence development. Other related variables that are acknowledged as important in the child's development are (1) self-concept, (2) motivation, (3) peer relationships, (4) school and home environment, (5) level of aspiration, and (6) teacher attitudes.

Zigler (1966) suggests that the affective areas of development may be far more amenable to change than the cognitive areas. He states that changes in the quality of intellectual development may be more related to prior changes in the affective domain than to cognitive intervention. Research conducted by Shelton and Dobson (1974) substantiate Zigler's statement. Focus on changing the learning environment and improving the relationship among school, family, community, and ethnic reference groups tends significantly to influence intellectual functioning of children. Perhaps educators should focus on the affective domain and de-emphasize the need to create new learning devices which focus only on basic cognitive processes. Dewey's position early in the twentieth century, that schools could best teach children by developing them emotionally and socially, is once again receiving attention after the emphasis shifted to intellectual achievement and cognitive skills as a result of the Sputnik crisis of the 1950s.

An affective area which shows potential for enhancing the performance of children is the improved self-image resulting from active parental involvement in the school. Parental participation can integrate the child's school and home life and provide him with a model of participation and control in a major area of his life.

Parental Involvement and Academic Gains

In interviews with 1,045 mothers, Gallup (1969) found that 70 percent of high-achieving first-graders were read to regularly in their early years, while only 49 percent of low-achieving first-graders were read to

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by their mothers. Irwin (1967) persuaded 55 mothers of one-year-old children to read aloud to them for a minimum of ten minutes each day. The speech development at 20 months of age was advanced beyond that of a comparison group who had not been read to by their mothers.

Ware and Garber (1972) found that the availability of materials in the home for the child seems to be important for predicting school success. This finding indicates that without a certain minimum level of materials in the home the prognosis for school success is poor. They also found that a parent's awareness of the child's development, the way in which a parent rewards his child, expectations the parent has for the child's schooling, and the reading press the parent places on the child are also related to the child's school success. Therefore, home-centered activities which enhance these interactive relationships may increase the possibility of the child's school success.

In conducting a review of systems designed to assess the nature of a parent-child teaching situation, Streissguth and Bee (1972) found the systems to require extensive time periods and special apparatus for their administration. However, Guinagh and Jester (1972) have developed an instrument, Parent as Reader Scale (PARS), which they state is a simple, economical, and easily administered instrument to measure the teaching ability of the parent. The PARS is a scale which allows an observer to rate the parent-child interaction as the parent shows the child a storybook. The authors believe that the simplicity of the instrument makes it possible to use the PARS not only to assist mother and child dyads, but also as a springboard for training parents how to read to their children with more skill. Since the PARS may serve as a guide to help parents develop skills in reading to their children, the authors believe that reading may then become an experience that will be maintained because it is enjoyed.

Data have been gathered in England by Burt (1973) and Arvidson (1959), in Australia by Keives (1970), and in the United States by Dave (1963), Wolf (1964), and Weiss (1969) which support performance. Techniques for examining the home environment have been lengthy and difficult to administer and score. A shortened version of Wolf's questionnaire, the Home Environment Review (HER), developed by Garbor (1970), was employed by Garbor and Ware (1970) to examine relationships between measures of the home environment and a measure of intelligence. A relationship was found between the child's achievement in school and the quality of his home environment.

Schaefer (1971) reports that the amount of parental involvement in the child's education may explain up to four times as much of the variance in the child's intelligence and achievement test scores at age eleven as the quality of the schools (see p. 8 of this paper for elaboration).

Shaw (1969) investigated the feasibility of parent group counseling with parents of first- and seventh-grade youngsters referred for academic difficulties. Parents of first-grade children noted changed child behavior earlier than seventh-grade parents did, but both noted changes in

a positive rather than a negative direction. All parents recommended parent group counseling to friends who had children with academic problems. In another investigation of parent study groups, Gilmore (1971) found that children whose parents received either individual or group counseling showed significant differences in grade point averages in reading, spelling, and arithmetic when compared to children whose parents had not taken advantage of counseling.

Landsberger (1973) describes the results of North Carolina's early childhood education phase-in program of state kindergartens. A major aspect of the program was the planning and operation of a support system that provided necessary skills, knowledge, enthusiasm, and interpersonal relationships. Meetings and workshops were held to encourage dialogue between and among teachers, principals, superintendents, parents, social workers, and nurses. Landsberger's study indicates that children showed positive changes in their classroom behavior during the school year, and a follow-up study indicated that these changes were maintained during the children's year in first grade. The follow-up also showed that the former kindergarten pupils had a much lower failure rate in the first and second grades than had those who did not attend kindergarten.

Levenstein (1972) describes an experimental Mother-Child Home Program, MCHP, shown to be cognitively effective in a laboratory setting over a period of five years and reports the results of the same program field-tested in the community. The MCHP is aimed at the prevention of educational disadvantagement in students and involves interveners called Toy Demonstrators (TDs) who visit two-year-olds and their mothers together in their homes. The TDs main job is not to teach, but to demonstrate to the mother, through verbalized play with the child, how to interact verbally with the child to foster his conceptual growth at this particular period of language acquisition. Each week the TD brings a gift of a carefully selected toy or book which acts as stable verbal interaction stimulus material. The TD involves the mother with the purpose of rapidly transferring to her the main responsibility for promoting verbal interaction with her own child. The program is based upon the belief that a mother, whatever her education, can learn to teach her child the concepts and cognitive skills he needs at this age.

The children (N=137) produced the predicted I.Q. gains: 17 points in one year, if professionals were in the role of TD; the same gain in two years, if nonprofessionals were the TDs. The children also tended to retain their gains at least into kindergarten, to achieve academically at grade level in first grade, and to have above-average psychosocial attitudes in school. Levenstein recommends that if cognitive gains continue after the children have spent a second year in the field-testing replications, then the MCHP will be proved as a valuable intervention program for prevention of educational disadvantagement in low-income groups.

A word concerning the selection of the TDs seems appropriate at this point. The original TDs were social workers with master's degrees.

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The later TDs were an educationally and vocationally varied group of relatively unscreened nonprofessionals trained by the original professionals. This second group of TDs proved as effective in two years as the professionals had been in one, and children experiencing them retained their I.Q. gains into kindergarten (the highest grade at date of publication) with high psychosocial ratings by both nursery and kindergarten teachers. Paid high school-educated interveners with no prior job skills were as effective as volunteers with college degrees, some of them with experience as teachers.

Rosen and D'Andrade (1959), Bing (1963), and Wolf (1964) provide evidence that a mother's high aspiration for her child concerning school achievement influences the child's motivation to achieve and therefore his actual achievement. These investigations and reports of programs, along with those previously mentioned in the section dealing with parental participation and attitudes toward school, suggest several plausible hypotheses concerning the manner in which parental involvement affects pupil development, especially academic achievement. Parental participation in school experiences allows parents visibility to school personnel and increases communication between family and the school; this increased communication may facilitate mutual acceptance. Parental involvement in school may convey to both school personnel and the child that education is valued. Parental participation may give parents a greater sense of control over their environment by having input into school policy and decision making. Parental involvement may also increase parental teaching skills which can then be applied in the home.

Academic Achievement and Desegregation

Since the 1954 Supreme Court school desegregation decision, educators have focused on changes in school ethnic composition as one means of creating quality education for all children. Communities have responded to the courts' demands with open enrollment policies, busing, rezoning, school site selection, and school construction. An example of the partial achievement of these objectives is the one-way flow out of the ghetto school and into the middle-class white school. St. John (1968) emphasizes that "resegregation" has occurred through tracking as well as through the white flight to the suburbs.

Lopate et al. (1970) state that a number of studies suggest that although largely white schools with a small proportion of minority groups may offer the best conditions for producing school achievement, the value of community and group integrity has been severely underplayed. Data from the U.S. Civil Rights Commission (1967) study, *Racial Isolation in the Public Schools,* show that although achievement was greatest in the predominantly white integrated schools, students in 90 percent "segregated" schools in black neighborhoods had higher achievement scores than did those attending schools with approximately 50-50 ethnic composition.

Recognizing the relative ineffectiveness of past efforts to integrate the schools, many educators and parents emphasize the importance

of strengthening the integrity of the neighborhood school and the community it serves. According to Lander (1954), delinquency in Baltimore is related to the *anomie* of a neighborhood, and conversely a lack of delinquency is related to neighborhood stability and identity. Thus, for schools to be most effective, change may be needed in the school and in the relationships between the school and the local community. Perhaps, then, education will become more relevant to the students and community and cultural integrity will be prized.

Additional Methods of Parental Involvement

Involving the significant adults in a child's life in his school experiences may include many different methods at each of the levels of involvement stated by Gordon (1970). Dickerson (1973) describes a program in which children were granted home privileges for acceptable social and academic behavior at school. Each child was given 10 daily evaluations that included one for social and one for academic behavior. A specific number of "good" cards had to be earned at school each day in order that a child be granted privileges at home. This program was not continuous, but was generally phased out after a two- to three-week period. Research documenting the effectiveness of the program was not reported.

Kahl (1973) and Fedderson (1972) describe a more personal means of communicating with parents through the use of teacher-parent conferences. Kahl (1973) suggests that teachers have conferences with children prior to seeing parents in order to encourage self-evaluation on the part of the students. Besides sharing information with parents at parent-teacher conferences, Fedderson (1972) proposes that newsletters are helpful in providing information to parents and in soliciting needed parent volunteers. Atkinson (1972) emphasizes that parental support is essential for future teacher welfare and mentions that in St. Louis teachers are being encouraged to telephone parents, while in Connecticut some districts are experimenting with having adults attend regular classes. These more personal contacts among teachers, parents, and students are being encouraged by enlightened school personnel throughout the country.

South Douglas County, Oregon has a project which serves preschool children from three to five years old and handicapped children from birth to age five. The program is designed to establish a parent-school partnership to bring teaching ideas and materials to the homes of participating families. The parents control the educational process, aided by community coordinators who visit homes once every two weeks to explain each learning package to parents; assist, if requested, in teaching the tasks; and suggest additional materials and methods.

Banks and Brooks (1971) state that school counselors must develop systematic parent programs in order to establish two-way communication with the home. They report an attempt to implement the "Parent Principle" through a series of parent discussions. Discussion topics center on (1) the developmental needs of children during middle childhood; (2) the home management concerns of efficient use of time, talents, and money; and (3) the pressures of our changing society which may create strains

on individuals. During the academic year, they reported that there were over 200 parents involved in the discussion series; an average of 20 parents attended each weekly meeting.

A parent program at Devereux Day School was described by McWhirter and Cabanski (1973). The four aspects of the program were:

1. Individual contact with parents by school psychologists who aided in modifying feelings, attitudes, and approaches which could be harmful to the child's optimal development.

2. A Parents Aid Program (PAP) which involved parents in the school program by having them visit the school and observe educational processes in operation.

3. A parent educational group which provided didactic input and group discussion on a wide variety of basic issues.

4. Counseling groups aimed at discussing specific problems or concerns with emphasis upon emotional catharsis and the development of more effective communication patterns.

Over three-fourths of the parents of children enrolled in the school were included in some aspect of the parent program. Informal feedback obtained from parents suggested that they found the experience beneficial and wished to have the program continue. Teachers indicated that the parent program was helpful to them in two areas. They noticed more positive behavioral changes in those children whose parents were regularly attending the groups than they did in those children whose parents did not attend. The teachers also felt that the program had lightened their load of unnecessary parental complaints and questions so that they spent more time with those parents who had a realistic need of contact with teachers.

In a study investigating parent-teacher intervention with inappropriate behavior of emotionally disturbed pupils from four larger inner cities, Csapo (1973) concludes that parent and teacher intervention, both at home and at school, can result in a greater reduction in the frequency of an inappropriate behavior than can parent or teacher intervention alone. She states that the reduction of inappropriate behavior was greater when a similar program was administered both at home and at school. Therefore, parent-teacher communication and cooperation is essential.

Jones (1970) states that home visits help teachers gain empathy by being exposed to a child's home environment and also permit parents to remain in familiar territory. She provides a rationale for home visits, which is (1) to build trust in parents and children; (2) to help the teacher gain an understanding of the child; and (3) perhaps, to facilitate the enrichment of the home as a learning environment.

Through home visits, teachers felt they learned about the physical, economic, and social conditions of homes and acquired a better under-

standing of the relationships within the family and community (Sneed, 1957). Home visits also helped teachers in planning the curriculum so that the needs of pupils and families were more appropriately satisfied. Parents also reported benefits from the home visits in that they received an understanding of what the curriculum included and its values, and as a consequence they were more interested and willing to participate in program planning. Therefore, the personal contact through home visits gave teachers opportunities to interpret the school program and gain active parent involvement in the school experience. Sneed (1957) also felt that the values home visiting had for curriculum development also were values for teaching. Home visitations by teacher (1) brought encouragement and support from parents for their children's work and their assistance with instructional activities, (2) uncovered new information about pupils' home activities and new resources for instruction, (3) improved teacher-pupil relations with consequent improvement of learning, (4) improved teacher-parent relations by "selling" the teacher to the parent and getting her accepted in good faith, and (5) helped the teacher to evaluate her instruction.

Among the implications for educators, which Landsberger (1973) states come from increased parent-teacher contact through home visitation, are the following:

1.   . . . parents are important educators and the home is the environment where much learning takes place. . . . The school teacher who reaches these home teachers and develops a partnership with them can help parents pursue developmental activities that will benefit their children. . . .

2.   . . . the school needs parents as much as parents need the school; the partnership must be as active at school as it is in the home. . . . The school also has need for the counsel, and for support in the community, of well-informed parents whose involvement has been invited and encouraged [p. 13].

Marion (1973) emphasizes that children benefit when home and school have a positive relationship and when each is aware of the needs and the goals of the other. She stresses that it is the responsibility of the teacher to initiate contact with parents and to open lines of communication. In order to do this, she suggests many methods but concentrates on the idea that parents should have an area within the school to call their own, a "Parent Space." Marion suggests that the parent space (1) be an information center for school and community; (2) introduce parents to activities in school which can be carried on in the home; and (3) be used for follow-up of parent meetings or study groups.

Shelton and Dobson (1973) concur with this suggestion and propose that the parent room be staffed by paraprofessional and/or volunteer parents. They maintain that the parent room can also become a workroom where parents may volunteer to run dittos or engage in other duties for teachers. They also suggest that the parents that staff the room may wish to organize

a part-time employment service to secure baby-sitting and lawn-mowing jobs for students and to secure much needed help for community residents. They add that functions of the parent room may be as narrow or encompassing as the needs of the school community warrant.

Reuben (1970) describes one New Jersey community's attempt to involve parents through the use of cable TV. Shows were taped for in-school use for students and for out-of-school use for adults. An orientation session for the parents who were provided a manual with guidelines for motivating children proved to be an effective involvement procedure. Reuben (1970) stated:

> Educators have come to recognize that informed parents and
> taxpayers are likely to be more understanding and supportive
> of the schools' efforts, and that parental involvement during
> (and even as a forerunner to) the formal teaching process is
> highly desirable [p. 24].

Criscuolo (1971) describes a reading program that receives support from parents, teachers, and community groups. Parents of primary grade children were involved in a workshop and actually constructed reading games and devices to use with their children. A publication was also distributed to parents giving specific suggestions on helping children at home. Lapp (1972) reported the strategy adopted by Fairfax County Public Schools for the implementation of Elementary Science Study (ESS) materials in the schools. The plan for implementation included (1) inservice for teachers in the use of the materials and (2) establishment of an instructional materials processing center which employed community people on a part-time basis to construct and replenish materials for use in the classroom. These parent activities, constructing reading games and science materials, could have been delegated to paraprofessional or volunteer parents who staff or visit the parent room.

Although most attempts to involve parents and community members in cooperative ventures with school personnel have been implemented at the elementary-school level, there is the need to ensure that parent-community involvement also is continuous through the middle-school and high-school educational levels. Plesent (1971) describes a program sponsored by a PTA in the Herrick School District, Long Island, New York that attempted to inform students, teachers, and parents about drug abuse and facilitate discussion between and among these groups. A committee set up courses for parents which were designed to help students who were having trouble with drugs. Rattray (1973) describes "Project Try," which was an attempt to promote and maintain effective communication between and among parents and students by school counselors at College Park High School in Pleasant Hill, California. On written evaluations of the weekend retreat, composed of 35 participants (students, parents, teachers, and counselors), all stated that the program should be continued. Most of the participants remained enthusiastic following the retreat, as indicated by attendance at follow-up meetings, parental visitation of the school, and greater student-participant enjoyment at school. Written evaluation of a follow-up

retreat, funded by the school district, community service clubs, and private donors indicated that participants continued to be enthusiastic.

Guides for Implementation

Chisholm (1972) presents a guide with suggestions for organizing programs and workshops for parents of children in cooperative preschools. Workshop topics, suggestions for selecting speakers, ways to encourage the attendance of fathers, and a checklist for use in pre, aring for a workshop are discussed.

Feiber (1973) has edited a guide to the city resources of Charlotte, North Carolina and suggests that it may be used as a model for other communities. The guide lists community business men and women, organizations, institutions, and individual citizens willing to provide real-life illustrations of subjects to classrooms.

Bridgman et al. (1971) have prepared a handbook to aid the family day-care worker. The handbook presents practical ideas for things to do to help children grow emotionally and physically while learning.

Biglin and Pratt (1973) have compiled a guide for parents of American Indian children to provide (1) basic information on the operation of federal and public schools; (2) practical suggestions on how parents can become involved; and (3) guidelines for the parents to prepare their children for educational success better. The authors also have prepared slide/cassette presentations; they are "Help Begins at Home," a presentation designed to provide Indian parents with practical suggestions for preparing their preschool children for school; and "Passing of the Sun," a presentation which provides information on school operations, administration, and parental involvement.

The National Education Association (1972) has published several pamphlets that provide information relative to workshops for parents and teachers. These may serve as a guide for planning and organizing parental involvement in public schools.

SUMMARY

The effects of participatory decision making in facilitating positive changes in the behavior of those involved consistently demonstrates the importance of actively involving individuals, students, parents, community residents, and school personnel in decisions which affect them. Educational research indicates that children's achievement tends to increase when their parents, or other significant adults, are actively involved in the process of education. The improved achievement may be due to the narrowing of the gap between the goals of the schools and of the home and to positive changes in teachers' attitudes resulting from a deeper understanding of the child through parent visibility at school. Children may also make gains in achievement because they have an increased sense of control over their

own destiny when their parents are actively engaged in decision making in their school. The children may also have a greater sense of worth, which is essential if they are to achieve, through parent and community groups effecting educational changes.

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