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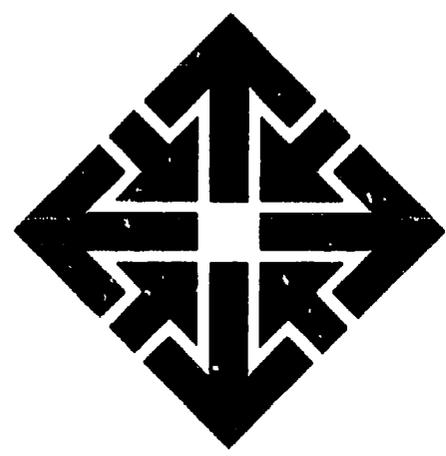
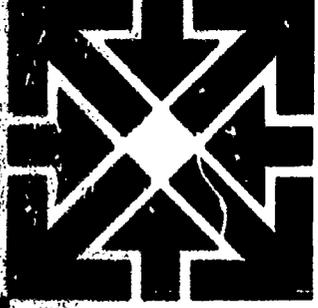
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ABSTRACT

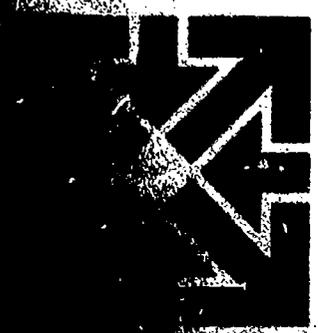
Guidelines for transforming and improving the nation's public schools are presented in this book, with a focus on the regional laboratory's program for educational change. The program is organized around "designing schools for enhanced learning" and is based on three principles--a focus on learning, a systemic approach to change, and building a sense of community. Four essential components of the process are examined: classroom practice; policies and structures; student support strategies; and family and community involvement. Five chapters describe each stage of school restructuring--getting started, exploring options, preparing for change, making change, and continuing to change. Each chapter focuses on key tasks and considerations, presents sidebars describing activities and giving program examples, and concludes with a relevant school vignette about a "Kindle the SPARK" participant. An essay on early childhood education concludes the book. Thirty-four figures are included. Appendices contain selected references, an annotated bibliography, and a list of resource organizations. (105 references) (LMI)

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THE SPARK

*An Action Guide for
Schools Committed to the
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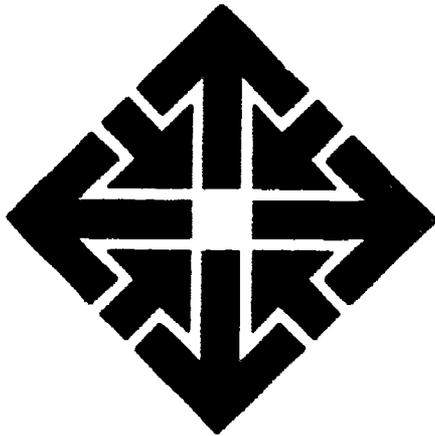
LESLIE F. HERGERT
JANET M. PHLEGAR
MARLA E. PÉREZ-SELLÉS

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The Regional Laboratory
for Educational Improvement of the Northeast & Islands



KINDLE THE SPARK



**An Action Guide for
Schools Committed to the
Success of Every Child**

**Leslie F. Hergert
Janet M. Phlegar
Marla E. Pérez-Sellés**

**and a special chapter
contributed by
Kenneth P. Counselman**

**The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast & Islands
300 Brickstone Square, Suite 900, Andover, MA 01810**

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The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement
of the Northeast & Islands
300 Brickstone Square, Suite 900
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FOREWORD

We live in a time when all society's institutions are rethinking their missions and their ways of work. National governments, businesses both large and small, medical and social service providers, state and local agencies, and others are all making fundamental changes. So, too, are schools. In the United States, schools are involved in numerous efforts to produce complex change, which goes by a variety of names -- restructuring, redesigning, school-based management, shared leadership, and vision schools are some examples. Some of these efforts were born of a sense of obligation -- a belief that students need more than we have been able to provide; some, from a sense of opportunity -- a view that the present is a time when all things are possible.

Educators - in schools, universities, government agencies, and communities -- have become increasingly concerned about those students whom our current system of schooling is not serving well. We know that what's best for one student is not necessarily best for all. But -- and it's an interesting but -- what's better for low achieving students does seem to be better for other students as well. Who can argue with the merits of expectations of higher achievement, alternative strategies to help more students succeed, improved self-esteem, a sense of school community, or families and community members more involved with their schools and children? Improving education for the least successful of our students enhances it for all.

But this is not a time to develop a new blueprint or model for all schools. We know that each is different and that each needs a different approach to meet its unique challenges. Yet while each school must find its own way and develop its own set of solutions, it helps to learn from other schools and resources proven successful in other settings. The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands exists to promote the use of research-based knowledge and proven experience to improve education. This Action Guide is one way we hope to help schools and communities learn from the experiences of other schools and the resources they have found to work.

Since individual students are even more varied than schools, we can no longer think about making schools work for "the student." Rather, we must think about all the different students we have, each of whom comes to schools with a rich array of experience, a wide range of needs, a set of particular learning styles or preferences, and other differences that we must begin to view as potential resources rather than as potential problems.

For the last three years, The Regional Laboratory's At-Risk Youth Initiative led us into new territory. The SPARK schools with whom we worked experimented with new ways of teaching and supporting learning, with new ways of organizing and working with communities to best serve students they thought were at risk of school failure. The schools learned that major change was needed to help all students succeed, and we were reminded that major effort is needed to support schools as they change.

Now The Regional Laboratory has undertaken a new program of work organized around "designing schools for enhanced learning." This work centers around three principles for change in schools: a focus on learning; a systemic approach to change; and building a sense of community. Partly because of our experience with the SPARK schools, we have learned to emphasize collaborative critical inquiry and to maintain a focus on honoring diversity in our schools and in our society.

This Action Guide can be a tool for educators and parents who believe in these principles and who are committed to work toward transforming their schools. We think this is an exciting, even daunting, challenge that is worth the best efforts of us all. We invite you to join us in making schools work for the success of all students.

David P. Crandall
Executive Director
The Regional Laboratory

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This book is the culmination of a three-year project that involved not only the authors but educators, parents, and students in many schools, districts, and organizations. Without their efforts and learnings, we would not have had anything to write!

I would like first to acknowledge the contributions of my coworkers, Jan Phlegar, Marla Pérez-Sellés, and Sheila Roman. Janet and Marla, in addition to their work with schools and other agencies, helped conceptualize the book, both before and during the writing. They not only shared their expertise, they shared some of the writing. Sheila coordinated the production of numerous drafts and proofed them all, offering a "parent's perspective" from time to time. The four of us comprised The Regional Laboratory's At-Risk Youth Initiative staff from 1987 to 1990 and we were a great group -- supportive, challenging, and fun! Thanks to you all; you made this project better by your contributions and your help and support throughout the effort were invaluable.

Many others contributed to our view of this book and how it could be most helpful to people in schools. Before we started writing, we convened a focus group of educators from local schools and districts and state education agencies. Cheryl Williams led the group, which included the following: Frank Antonucci, Amado Cruz, Gary LeBeau, Carol Murphy, Sue O'Neill, Louise Penpeck, Janis Rennie, and Mary Wesson. They encouraged us in this effort and told us what would be most useful for them. We thank them all, and we hope the final product is as useful as they hoped it would be.

We were also helped by a wide range of reviewers from school districts, state education agencies, The Laboratory's Board of Overseers, and our colleagues in-house. Their comments were insightful, and they suggested changes that we tried to incorporate. Thanks are due to Richard Ayers, Sonia Caus-Gleason, David Crandall, Caryl Cohen, Sharifa Dulberg, Alice Evans, Dan French, Bill Gauthier, Susan Loucks-Horsley, Dotty McGowan, Elliot Salow, Deborah Stewart, Lillie Stone, John Watkins, and Diana Whitelaw. Special thanks to George Springer, who read not one, but two drafts and whose enthusiasm provided needed encouragement!

Finally, thanks are due to the Lab's production team. Janet Angelis was a wonderful editor and production manager -- she knows schools as well as she understands good writing and her questions and comments were an invaluable part of her editing. We worked almost side-by-side in the last few months and her contributions were wide ranging and much appreciated. And for their patience and perseverance, in not only typing but for formatting every page, our thanks to the Lab's word processing staff, Clif Lund-Rollins, Lynne Murray, and Sue Smith.

LFH

INTRODUCTION

If you are reading this book, you are probably concerned about schools. You may even be considering making changes in your school, having reached a point of sufficient dissatisfaction with the way things are that you want to help improve them. You are not alone.

Today, many schools and school districts in the United States are making major changes: undertaking restructuring projects, school-based management, and/or projects to enact new rules in federal categorical programs. Such efforts reflect a widespread desire on the part of educators and others to make our schools more effective. They are rethinking the way our schools are organized, including what and how they teach, in order to better reach a larger number of students than we do now.

This book is for people who are involved in these kinds of projects, people who are willing to make major changes so that their schools can succeed with all students, especially those students who currently experience school failure. We wrote it out of our experience working in and with schools where large numbers of students were failing to succeed and whose staff and community worked in a variety of ways to better serve those students -- and consequently all their students. We think that what we all learned from this experience might help many others, including:

- committees on dropout prevention or at-risk youth,
- people responsible for Chapter 1 schoolwide or program improvement projects,
- planning committees involved in Effective Schools or other school improvement efforts,
- schools involved in restructuring efforts, and
- school-based management committees.

School failure can look like many things: students don't attain the reading skills they need; they fail their courses; they cut classes and misbehave; they graduate without the skills necessary to productively live their lives. The schools we worked with, like you, decided to turn around that experience of school failure. All made some progress; none are finished.

We call the process of turning school failure around "kindling the spark" -- the spark of ability in each and every child as well as in every school. We believe that each child has that spark of ability that must be kindled if the child is to reach his or her full potential. We have also found it in every school -- a spark for teaching and learning that must be nurtured in order to keep the light of learning burning brightly for students and staff alike. Kindling these sparks is not a one-time effort; like tending a fire, it is an ongoing task to make sure

that light and heat are ever present. The fire may burn low from time to time, but we must never let it go out completely.

Some may think that kindling the spark is a matter of trying harder, renewing energy, or adding special programs to solve special problems. Yet, too often educators have added programs and worked long and hard hours without achieving the success for which they had hoped. The times, and our students, have changed so much (and will continue to change) since schools were organized as they are now that we must consider fundamentally different kinds of schooling.

In fact, our schools as they are currently designed do a very good job. As Charles Willie says, "It is strange that the United States, which has achieved almost universal education at the elementary and secondary levels, is so unhappy with this miraculous accomplishment as to pronounce it mediocre and to contend that because of this accomplishment the nation is gravely at risk" (1987).

In the early 1980s, nearly 86 percent of people aged 25-29 had completed high school, as compared with only 50 percent of the same age group in 1950; in our grandparents' day, even fewer people graduated from high school. Moreover, schools today serve large numbers of poor as well as students with disabilities -- students and limited English proficient students who often used to drop out of school in the early grades or never enter school at all.

Yet, while schools have come far in achieving "universal education," they have a long way to go. The overall high school dropout rate hovers around 25 percent (although some students who drop out do complete high school at a later time) and is much higher in our largest cities. An even larger percentage of students

graduate without the skills and knowledge to survive in the workplace and contribute to the community. Accomplishments that may have been adequate in the past are not good enough for the future, because both our student population and the demands of the workplace have changed.

Students who fail in school come from every race and culture, from every kind of ethnic, religious, and socioeconomic background. In this country, most student dropouts (those who don't graduate from high school) and most students at risk of dropping out are white, English speaking, and from families that live above the poverty level. But young people who are poor and from "minority" cultures that have been oppressed and locked out of opportunity are proportionately

Figure 1. The Changing Student Population

Children of color make up 30 percent of America's youth under age 18. In 1988, more than half of the school population in the District of Columbia (96%) and three states (Hawaii 76%, New Mexico 57%, Mississippi 56%) were children of color.¹

► The fastest growing group between 1980 and 1989 was Asians, increasing by nearly 80 percent. Hispanics increased by 39 percent, American Indians by 22 percent, Blacks by 14 percent, and whites by 7 percent.¹

► Over 15 million children in the U.S. (24%) live in single parent households. The average income for female led households with children was \$11,299 in 1988 (compared with \$38,206 for married households).²

► In United States prisons, 82 percent of prisoners are high school dropouts. The United States now has the third highest incarceration rate in the world, after the Soviet Union and South Africa.²

► At age 18 and 19, more than 31 percent of Hispanics are dropouts, compared to 18 percent of Blacks and 14.3 percent of whites.³

¹ "Demographics for Education Newsletter," Center for Demographic Policy, Institute for Educational Leadership, June 1990.

² Ibid, March 1990.

³ National Council of La Raza as reported in *The Boston Globe*, July 17, 1990.

Figure 2. The Labor Market

- ▶ In today's job market, 82 percent of the jobs require at least four years of high school. In the future, 87 percent will require high school completion.¹
- ▶ The largest growing job group is that of technical workers, projected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics as growing over 31 percent between 1988 and 2000.²
- ▶ While three of the four occupations offering the greatest number of jobs do not require a high school diploma, many of those jobs -- janitors, maids, waiters -- pay very poorly.³
- ▶ A person working full time making a minimum wage of \$3.80 an hour makes less than \$8000 a year. The poverty level for a single mother with two children is \$9056.³
- ▶ Of new workers, 18 percent will be white males and the other 82 percent will be a combination of female, nonwhite, and immigrant groups that are currently the lowest paid.³

¹ Experience for Hire: Closing the Skills Gap with Army Alumni, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1990.

² "Workers for Hire," American Demographics, March 1990.

³ "Demographics for Education Newsletter," Center for Demographic Policy, Institute for Educational Leadership, March 1990.

more likely to drop out of school and experience school failure. Native Americans, Hispanics, and Blacks are all overrepresented in the dropout statistics, as are students who are poor and students with limited English proficiency. The dropout rate for Hispanic students is over 40 percent, and the rate for Native American students is worse. Yet, recent improvements in the dropout rate and achievement scores for African-American students suggest that, when schools and communities work together to build on the strengths of students, progress is possible.

Most of our educators are white and middle class, and, not surprisingly, U.S. schools have historically done best with white, middle class students. But the student population is becoming increasingly more diverse, even as the teaching and administrative staff stays the same. As the proportion of minority students in our schools increases -- students whom our schools have served least well in the past -- educators are challenged to find ways to be more successful with these students. Figure 1 shows some of the facts about changing populations that schools must consider.

Why the Need for Change?

We cannot afford to let our students fail. Our society needs all its young people to learn skills that enable them to contribute as neighbors and citizens, to be able to work and earn, and to be able to continue learning throughout life. Students cannot be allowed to leave school without adequate literacy, numeracy, and interpersonal skills. Most jobs in this country already require that workers be able to read and communicate in English, that they have work attitudes such as responsibility and perseverance, that they be able to work cooperatively with a diverse array of fellow workers, and that they be able to learn new skills and jobs throughout their lifetimes. And there is no indication that these demands will lessen in the years ahead.

Industry no longer provides the large numbers of entry-level jobs that allowed illiterate and unskilled workers with diligence and perseverance to learn skills and move up. Rather, today's entry-level jobs either require skill or are dead end jobs with few opportunities for advancement. As James Comer said on a PBS series on urban education, "[Before, youngsters] could leave school and still achieve all their adult responsibilities. . . . Today's youngsters must finish high school to have a reasonable chance to succeed in the job market. That's the difference" (1989). See figure 2 for information about the changing workplace.

Because of the changing student population and changing workplace demands, it is time for educators to rethink the way that schools are structured and organized and then be prepared to make substantial, not cosmetic, changes. We must think about the wide diversity of students who come into our schools and design a complete and comprehensive system that teaches all those students.

We must build respectful partnerships with the parents and families of all the students in our schools. We must provide supports for students requiring special resources, and we must collaborate with community agencies to provide those supports.

Recent History of School Change

As we initiate school change today, we would do well to look at and learn from the solutions that have been tried over the past thirty years. In the 1960s, school reforms focused on providing services for particular groups of students who were not succeeding in school -- for example, federal programs to serve poor, handicapped, and bilingual children, as well as alternative schools for students who were disaffected from traditional schooling.

The 1970s and early 1980s focused attention on the individual school as the locus of change through school improvement and school effectiveness projects. The Effective Schools movement made a case that schools could make a difference in the lives of poor and minority children and described characteristics of schools that had done so. Another set of reform efforts aimed at preventing dropouts and meeting the needs of older "problem" students -- both through alternative schools where students could receive more personal attention, and special programs created to meet identified needs of potential dropouts or students called "at risk."

Most recently, there seems to be developing widespread agreement that piecemeal changes and narrowly focused improvements are not enough. People and organizations both within and outside of education are calling for and initiating efforts to "restructure" education. Several of the categorical federal programs have begun to promote a more integrated approach for serving their students. The reauthorization of Chapter 1, the federally-funded program that serves the disadvantaged, encourages greater flexibility in using its funds for school improvements in schools with large numbers of eligible children, rather than restricting services to targeted disadvantaged children. The U.S. Department of Education's Office of Special Education Programs is promoting more integrative and inclusive education for children and youth with disabilities and shifting its emphasis to improved student outcomes. And the Perkins Vocational and Applied Technology Education Act Amendments of 1990 promote coordination between basic skills/regular education and vocational education.

Teachers' unions, states, and others are supporting experiments to "restructure education." Some of these focus on governance and control issues, such as the contracts negotiated in Miami, Rochester (NY), New York City, and Boston that include provisions for school-based management and decision making, and similar but more radical reforms initiated in Chicago and Kentucky. Others such as Ted Sizer's Coalition of Essential Schools focus on the substance of schooling that emphasizes a streamlined curriculum and in-depth

understanding of content covered. Several state restructuring projects encourage schools to experiment to be as creative as possible.

Over a three-year period, The Laboratory's *Kindle the SPARK* project worked with and studied the efforts of seven schools to better serve their "at-risk" students. The schools are located in five Northeastern states, and each school is different: in location -- big city, small city, small town, country; in student populations served -- Black, Hispanic, Cambodian, Passamaquoddy Indian, and white; and in grade level configurations -- K-6, K-8, 6-8. Six of the schools stayed with us for all three years; one dropped out. All of the schools made considerable changes -- they trained teachers and adopted new ways of teaching; they added new student support groups and after-school activities; they increased parent involvement; they increased staff participation in school decision making. None of the schools consider themselves finished with their improvement efforts. Vignettes from the "SPARK schools," as we call them, appear throughout this book.

We also worked with and learned from a number of others:

- junior and senior high school dropout prevention programs in Rhode Island,
- New York City schools in the United Federation of Teacher's Schools of Tomorrow . . . Today restructuring project, and
- school districts in Vermont planning communitywide dropout prevention efforts.

Each of these projects took a different approach to increasing school success for all students.

Our Principles and Components of Restructuring Schools

This book proposes that in a school seeking to better serve all its students, educators mobilize all the constituents of the school community to work together to think anew about their children and about what is known about learning, teaching, and supporting learning and teaching, and to develop a new kind of schooling that works for all the children of that community.

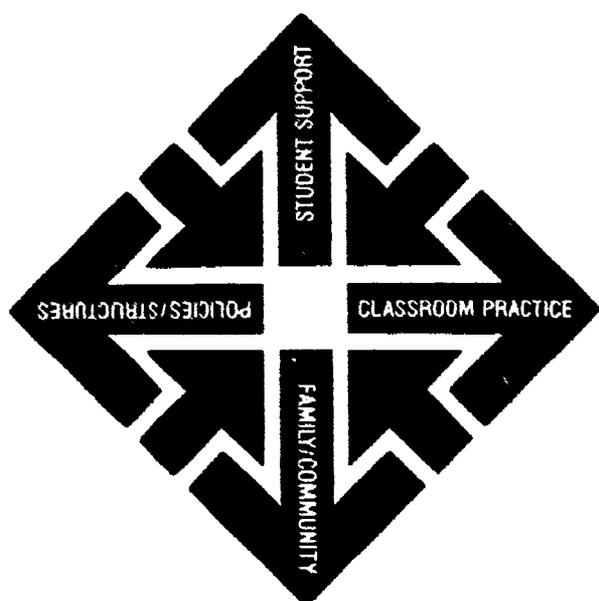
If it is to succeed, such work must be based on some underlying principles. We suggest the following:

- All children can learn; schools are responsible for helping all children learn.
- Diversity is a positive fact of life that, when valued and used, enhances learning.

- All students should be treated with respect; some students need more personal attention than others to learn and should be able to receive the attention they need.
- Decisions about schooling are generally better when multiple perspectives are brought together and all concerned groups are involved.
- A school's many programs and activities need to be coordinated to form a cohesive whole.
- Connecting the school with the community -- its resources and its best values -- helps provide support for students to learn.

We also suggest that there are four essential components to be considered by any school rethinking its structure and program. We come back to these components several times throughout the text as we discuss the various stages of restructuring. They are:

- **Classroom Practice.** Learning should be the focus of any change effort. There is a considerable knowledge base of effective teaching practice, and we feature those practices that have been shown to be especially effective with students who currently have trouble learning in school.
- **Policies and Structures.** Policies and structures must support the learning of all students, encourage their positive attitude toward school, and enable teachers to provide students with personal attention and enhance their own professional development.
- **Student Support Strategies.** Some students will always need more and special kinds of support than others. Each school should provide supports that meet the needs of its particular student group.
- **Family and Community Involvement.** While the school has primary responsibility for teaching students academic content, its staff is not the only group to teach all that a child learns. Schools should work with families and communities to support the learning and development of the community's children.



School and District Roles

The school is the focus of this book because that is where students spend their schooling time. However, many educational issues cannot be resolved at the school building level. The district and the larger community play an important role in supporting school efforts.

Moreover, although this book concentrates on schools from kindergarten to high school, we recognize that people are learning all their lives and their learning needs before and after traditional schooling years must be attended to. Because of the critical importance of learning in the earliest years of life, we asked Ken Counselman, an early childhood specialist, to contribute a special chapter to this book. In it he points out the importance of the preschool years to the success of any plan to help children succeed, and he suggests several ways for a school improvement team to become early childhood advocates.

At the district level, planning and leadership for a districtwide educational mission can be a major support to the schools. District leaders can and should insist on the primacy of the school. They should develop and communicate firmly a commitment to diversity and to helping all members of the school community value and use this diversity. District planning groups should examine district policies with an eye to how they enhance or impede student learning and attitudes toward learning. They should also consider how policies, practices, and budgets can support learning for the adults of the school community -- teachers, administrators, and other staff.

District planning should pay special attention to children's transition years -- entering the earliest school grades, during early adolescence, and completing high school. In the early grades, schools must ensure that all students master skills in language and numeracy, and at the same time experience school as a place that will support their growth. As students reach the middle grades, their schools need to be structured and staffed to provide them with the personal attention and social support they need as they go through a time of major physical and personal development. In high school, students' diverse interests and needs must be met, as well as their need to feel connected to the school. Students need support in planning and preparing for the transition to work or to higher education.

District staff can also work to enlist the support of the entire community for its schools. First, schools must be committed to involving parents, including those parents whose children are most in need, in supporting their children's education. But the district staff can be most helpful in enlisting the support of non-parent community members. Public relations campaigns to enlist the community's pride in and support for its schools, as well as efforts to develop partnerships with businesses, higher education, and community organizations, may be initiated and coordinated at the district level.

In redesigning schools, our challenge is not only to think new thoughts but also to build on the past. The Effective Schools programs, for example, have shown that schools can succeed in teaching all their children. Educators in special education, bilingual education, alternative education, and employment training have developed skills and successful programs that meet the special needs of specific groups of children. It is time to bring together all that is known about teaching, learning, and positive learning environments.

Yet none of the solutions of the past are enough -- all can be criticized on some grounds: some are too narrowly focused; some do not reach all students; many are conducted in isolation; others accept the status quo of what schools teach and how they are organized. Your job is to make a fresh start, at your school, with your students, rethinking what those students need to learn and what their teachers need to be able to teach them, so that your school can succeed with *all* your students.

Using This Action Guide

As a Corita Kent poster said several years ago, "There are no rules for leaping into the new, for no one has ever been there before." Building on the principles and essential components we have outlined, and learning from the past, each school will experiment and find its own way to build its own future. We see this book not as a rule book or blueprint, but rather as a resource that we hope helps you in the work ahead. The programs and approaches we suggest come with no guarantees, but they have worked before in other schools just like yours.

We suggest an effective way to use this book is to skim through it quickly to see what is here. Then, as you and your team work together, you can turn to those sections that have what you need. Although we have organized it according to the stages in a change process, you do not have to follow our order. For each stage we have included text on the key tasks and considerations for that stage as well as sidebars of activities or program examples for your team to use. And each stage ends with a relevant vignette from a school in the SPARK project. Following the essay on Early Childhood Education, you'll find a set of Appendices that can lead you to additional print and person resources. Appendices A and B list several books and articles for further reading on the topics covered in this book. If you want to seek help from a person or an organization, you'll find in Appendix C lists of many helpful organizations whose job it is to provide technical assistance in specific areas.

In each school, old patterns must be broken and new visions allowed to form. We hope this book provides you with new ideas, perspectives, and possibilities that you can draw on in your own unique way. The pieces of this book fit together not like a puzzle, which has one solution, but like a kaleidoscope, whose images flow together in many different ways depending on how you turn it. Your task is to choose the pieces that work best for your school, combining and recombining them in new ways until you achieve the pattern that is most beautiful for your school, the one that helps all your students prepare for their future.

STAGE 1: GETTING STARTED

In beginning any kind of change or improvement effort, three things are necessary:

- *Knowing why you are doing it*, which means knowing what prompted the change effort, what your purpose is for being involved, and why others want to participate.
- *Having a base of support*, including others in the school who have similar interests and people whose support you need to make changes.
- *Knowing what you want to accomplish*, even if it is just in a general way.

In this section, we address these three tasks and suggest several ways to accomplish them. No matter how clear you think you are on any one of these tasks at the beginning, in interacting with other people and in collecting information you will change and develop and expand your own ideas.

We begin by describing how to establish a team, your first base of support. We then describe several starting points and ways to set specific targets for change. Although the other tasks need not be done in the order in which we present them, we strongly advise everyone to establish a team as step one. After that, you may choose another order, and you may want to revisit a particular task at a later stage in your change effort. In fact, we advocate "rolling planning," that is, developing a vision, gathering data, setting targets, and then going back and revising the vision. Another team may act very differently than yours, and as an example, we provide a vignette at the end of this section of the way another school has done these tasks.

ESTABLISHING THE TEAM

Many school improvement and restructuring projects today require the use of a representative leadership team, and for good reasons: A team brings multiple perspectives. A team allows tasks to be shared among several people. Most importantly, a team enables implementers to participate in decision making, which tends to lead to better decisions and support for them.

The makeup and authority of these teams vary from project to project. If you are part of a team that is required by state mandate or negotiated contract, you should become familiar with the requirements that affect you. Even if you are not required to work with a team, we recommend that you do so.

For some districts, using a team for leadership -- sometimes called shared leadership or shared decision making -- is an innovation in itself. For some, teams have been used poorly in the past. We would like to save you time and wasted effort by making recommendations that stem from experience working with teams in hundreds of schools. One thing we have learned, however, is that every school is different, and that there are exceptions to every recommendation. You will have to decide what will work best in your situation. We recommend the following:

The leadership team should represent the important groups related to the school and should always include the principal, several teachers, relevant support staff, and parents. We advocate school-wide change and wish to stress that *all* the children in the school (including those in special education, bilingual education, and vocational programs) need to be represented, as do *all* the teachers in the school (including teachers in physical education and fine and practical arts). Teachers should represent different grade levels, departments, and funded programs. Support staff could include counselors, social workers, and others who work with those students of concern. Parents should be representative of the various groups served by the school and should have links to other parents.

Optional members of the team might include:

- district administrators, such as a curriculum director, dropout prevention coordinator, or Chapter 1 director;
- paraprofessionals, secretaries, and security or custodial staff who have a strong rapport with targeted students;
- students, especially those in the upper grades;
- youth workers from social service or community agencies; and

- employers in the community or representatives from such agencies as the Chamber of Commerce, private industry councils, or youth employment agencies.

The team should include people with a strong connection to the young people of the school, especially those children and youth of most concern. The team should be balanced to represent racial and ethnic groups served by the school, various levels of experience in the school, and any other factor you know is important. Team members should be people who have a broad perspective about the issues facing you, who are open to change, and who love and appreciate the children your school serves. It is most important that the team be widely respected as a group that will serve the best interests of the whole school.

In some schools, team members are elected by their constituents; in others, they are carefully selected by the principal or other authorized leader. There are pluses and minuses to each system. Election offers more assurance that team members represent their constituencies. At least those voting have agreed that this person is acceptable to them. However, elections can result in a team that does *not* represent all racial, age, or other groups in the school. Selection allows the person who does the selecting to consider several things at once in choosing people who each represent several groups. But if the selector is insecure or controlling, she or he can choose people who all think alike and who merely rubber-stamp what the selector wants.

To be an effective working group, the team should be large enough to be representative but small enough to be able to make decisions. We think the best teams consist of between ten and fifteen members. If the team is much bigger, decision making will take forever; if much smaller, you may leave out an important perspective or constituency group. (Later, we discuss ways for the team to involve the whole faculty and other groups.)

Team composition and selection can take time. It is often difficult to include representation of all concerned parties while keeping the group to a manageable size, but it *can* be done. Time spent early on to ensure a strong, representative, and respected leadership team is time well spent.

Can previously established groups be used? Many schools already have a school improvement council formed for some other purpose. This group can certainly serve as the leadership team for this effort if it meets all the following conditions:

1. It represents the key groups in the school, including parents.
2. The staff and parents *feel* that the group has done a good job of representing them.
3. The members are willing to shift or add responsibilities.

If this will be a new group and similar groups do exist, you will need to figure out how the groups will relate to one another, how to ensure there is no duplication of efforts, and how to avoid conflicts.

We have seen two problems frequently. In some schools, the whole faculty wants to act as the team. We do not recommend this for several reasons. The team is needed for leadership and coordination. It is very difficult for twenty or more people to provide leadership and coordination. Leadership and coordination will then default to the principal or to a very small group. Moreover, a large faculty group makes it difficult for parents to be effectively represented. We have seen schools effectively organized into subcommittees, each working on a different problem, but in those schools, a representative leadership team coordinates the whole. One exception to this recommendation might be in small rural schools with fewer than fifteen people on the faculty; even here it will be worth considering how to effectively include parents' voices.

We also do not recommend that people be allowed to participate on the team only when they want to. Such an open group is fine for discussion but not for decision making. It is too difficult to move discussions steadily forward when different people arrive and want to discuss last week's agenda. It is possible to have leadership team meetings with an empty seat or two for visitors or to have the meetings be open for visitors.

Both of these problems generally stem from the faculty's fear of being left out of the process. We strongly recommend that the team find ways to communicate regularly with the whole staff and with other affected groups, such as district administrators and parents, for input (before a decision is made) and feedback (after a decision or plan is made). We use the word *communicate* (and not, for instance, *inform*) because communication should be a two-way street, with opportunity on both sides to listen and influence.

Some schools post or distribute, at least to all faculty, the minutes of their meetings. In addition, at key points in the process, the team should solicit input from all key groups, should engage the whole faculty or a parent group in discussions, and should provide reports on progress to various people.

Initial Team Activities

At the first few meetings of the team, it is important to develop ground rules for involvement and to help all members feel valued and included. The first thing most team members want to know is "What have I gotten myself into?" This kind of concern will surface even when people have been given prior information. People want and need to feel that their time will be well spent, that they have something to contribute, and that others value their opinions.

The first meeting will set the tone for everyone involved. It should answer people's questions and allow people to get to know

Figure 3. Icebreaker Topics

- ▶ A memory of a good or terrible school experience you had as a child
- ▶ A memory of your favorite teacher
- ▶ A positive experience you had in this school
- ▶ The most important quality for a school
- ▶ How schools are different now from when you were young
- ▶ What you wish you had learned in school

one another in the context of this group. Even though in most buildings, teachers know one another, some people in the team will probably be new; parents especially may feel that everybody else knows one another. All members should begin by introducing themselves and their roles and say a little about what interested them about being on the team or what concerns they want to see the team address. You may want to record these first comments on large paper or a blackboard for everyone to see and think about, but you need not discuss them at this time. You might think of an icebreaker (for example, see figure 3) that allows each person to share something that is likely to be new to everyone else. It is important for everyone to get to talk at the first meeting, which means that at least some talk must be about things that everyone can talk about.

Everyone will want to know about the work of the team. A review of the team's responsibilities should include:

- *The charge of the team*, either specifically or in general, and the scope of its authority. Is the team's charge to prevent dropouts, to find new ways to use Chapter 1, to help more disadvantaged students succeed, or to restructure the school? Each of these differs in specificity. The charge may be more or less specific than these. Will this team have the authority to decide certain things, and if so, what? Or is it an advisory group, and if so, to whom does the team give its recommendations? Does the principal or other administrator have veto power? Be as honest as possible about these matters -- it is worse for people to think they have power that they don't have than to learn up front the limits of their authority.
- *An overview of the process*, reviewing the steps in the process, an approximate timeline, and how this work fits with other projects in the school.
- *Responsibilities of members* to participate in discussions and to listen to one another with an open mind, as well as any expectations for work outside the team meetings, including research or linking back to groups represented (the staff, parents, district office).
- *Answering questions* from the group or developing common answers. Some people may ask what the project is, some may ask if "they" (the superintendent, school board, or others) will really let the school change, some may ask other questions for which there is no straightforward answer. If you are leading the meeting, your job is to be clear about limits you know about, be positive about the group's ability to make a difference, and help the group develop its own answers when possible.

Figure 4. Beginning To Define an Ideal School

- ▶ What should students know and be able to do when they graduate?
- ▶ Do we accomplish that? For all students or for only some? If for only some, which students do we fail?
- ▶ What would it take for all of our students to achieve those things?
- ▶ What resources do we have that help achieve these goals? What barriers keep us from achieving them?

Each person should first write down her or his answers so that you can see the initial differences. All responses should be recorded on large paper so that everyone can see and discuss them. In your discussion, concentrate not on who is right or wrong but on understanding what each person means. Clearly, this is not a discussion that will be finished in an hour or two, although you should be able to hear from everyone and clarify responses in that amount of time. Over the next few months, you will be working toward consensus on what is most important. You may want to save these early responses to see whether and how they change over time.

A good activity for an early meeting is to discuss what an ideal school for this community or for your kids would look like. This is a topic to which everyone can contribute, and there are no wrong answers. Let people think for a minute or two and jot down notes if they wish. Then ask a series of questions, beginning with "What should students know and be able to do when they graduate from this school?" Figure 4 suggests a set of questions you might ask as well as some guidelines for discussion.

Organizing for Work

The team itself should decide how often the team will meet and other logistics of meetings. We recommend that the team meet at least once a month, more frequently at the beginning in order to get some momentum going. If the first meeting can be two or three hours, so much the better; people will get to know one another, and you can have substantive conversation. You will also need to decide when the team will meet, how long meetings will last, and where meetings will be held. An important piece of information to have is how people will be released from their other duties, including whether stipends or child care will be available.

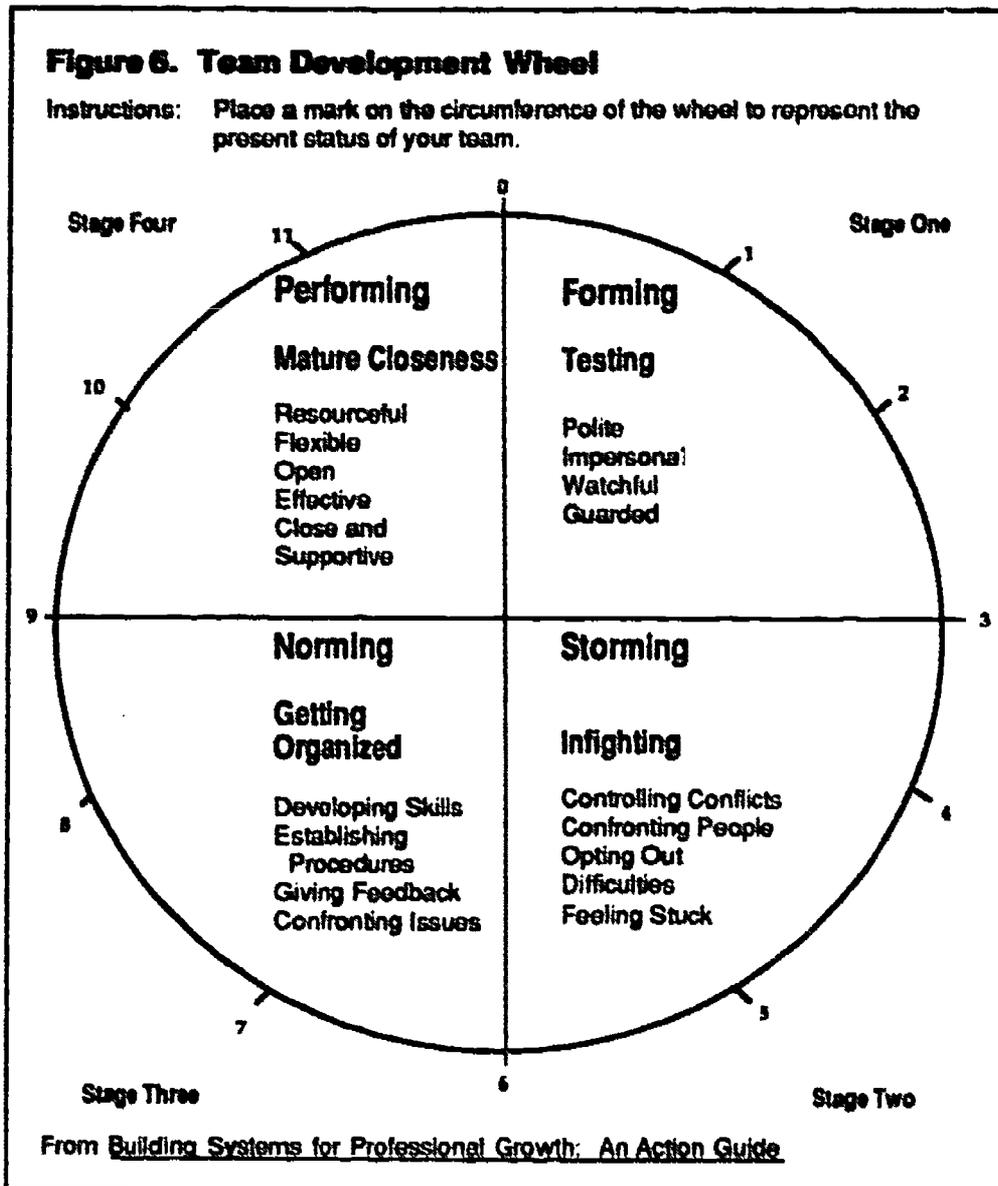
Two roles are particularly helpful for effective group functioning: convener and recorder. The convener, who leads meetings and keeps discussions on track, is usually the principal or designated leader of the group. Another possibility is to choose a new convener for each meeting. The recorder, who takes notes of the meeting and distributes them to team members and others as the team decides, can also be a permanent or rotating position. Other helpful roles are the timer, who helps the convener time discussions and activities, and the reflector, who reflects about the tone of the meeting at the end. Although it is not essential to have different people in these roles, it helps spread responsibility for productive meetings across the

team, and it provides a way for people to be involved from the beginning.

Meetings work better when there is a reasonable agenda and everyone knows what the agenda is. A reasonable agenda is one that has a chance of being accomplished in the time you have. One or two people -- the team leader, the meeting's convener, or one or two meeting planners -- could be responsible for developing agendas before the meeting and sending them out ahead of time or bringing them to the meeting. Or the group can develop its own agenda at the beginning of each meeting. If one or two people develop the agenda,

Figure 5. Sample Agenda

<u>Topic</u>	<u>Time</u>	<u>Person</u>	<u>Outcome/Action</u>
Announcements - new equipment - grant proposal	5 minutes 5 minutes	Principal	information
Vision - revision	30 minutes	MH	consensus on vision
Plan for Sharing Vision - meetings - newsletter	20 minutes	JF	plan and assignments
Organize Committees	15 minutes	RB	list of committee assignments



there should be time provided at the start of the meeting for team members to add their own items. Agendas, with approximate times for each item, should be posted on large paper or handed out to all members. Figure 5 offers an example.

At the beginning of the team's work, people are usually hesitant to talk, especially about what they think is most important. They may be very polite with one another, or they may cluster in small groups. Everyone wants to know what this group is going to be like and how they should behave in it. After this initial hesitancy, arguments may erupt. If you are dealing with important or controversial issues, and if there is diversity (of roles, opinions, or ethnicity) on your team, there will likely be different opinions and behaviors. Differences may lead to disagreement and even anger at times. If you do not have this experience, it may be that you have no diversity -- in which case, you don't need a team -- or that you are not dealing with the differences. Most teams have some arguments. As team members resolve their differences, they can develop new ways of looking at the issues and new

ways of working together. Only later will the team start performing as a leadership group. These stages are so common that people who do a lot of group process work refer to them as forming, storming, norming, and performing (see figure 6):

- Forming -- getting to know one another and the issues; early discussions may be over-polite or involve bickering over small things as people figure out what the group will be like.
- Storming -- airing differences in views of the task and ways to act in the group may lead to arguments.
- Norming -- developing ways to hear and use differences, ways to work together as a group.
- Performing -- working together as a group to get things done.

Some groups move through the stages more quickly than others, although norming is usually the longest stage. Some get stuck in one stage. Most groups recycle through the stages at different times in their history. When differences are too great and not resolved in the storming stage, a group may split and dissolve. In well-functioning groups, storming allows differences to surface and be dealt with.

STARTING POINTS

An important part of getting started is finding a place to start. Most people using this book know they want to change, have some evidence that points to problems, and have been struggling to find solutions for some time. But you may be surprised to find that others in your school community have different perceptions about what the problem is or different ideas about what the solutions should be. Your task is to develop enough agreement on what to change and why so that your school can start making changes to help all of your students succeed.

Schools and educators (like all people in all organizations) get stuck in ways of thinking, especially about hard-to-solve problems. To move forward, you will need to develop new ways of thinking. Sometimes, just talking to other people in a structured way will jostle your thinking, but it can be helpful to do new things that will get everyone thinking in new ways. There are several ways to get started; we suggest three alternatives for you to use:

- Envision the school as you want it to be.
- Analyze the current situation, focusing on what is.
- Scan the environment for available resources.

You may start with any one of them; choose the one that appeals to your team the most. Later, you may want to come back and do the others as well.

Let's say that you begin by developing a vision of what you want your school to be. This is a good way to think big about the changes you want to make -- a must for restructuring schools -- and a good consensus-building activity before you get into specific changes. At some point, you may want to collect data about the way things are now and then do an environmental scan to find out what resources are available. Or, you may scan the environment for resources and solutions and then collect data on those areas on which you are focusing.

We caution you not to spend too much time on these diagnostic tasks early on. Students change, data get old, and you will change your mind about what you think is important. Diagnosis is a recursive activity, a procedure that can repeat itself indefinitely or

until a specified condition is met. It is better to do some diagnosis, then experiment, then reflect, then do more diagnosis than it is to do diagnosis for more than a year trying to "get it right." You will learn more by trying and failing and reflecting than you will by collecting mounds of data. Build in adequate time for experimenting and reflecting on your experiments -- that is where you will learn the most.

Your early discussions should lead to a decision to take one of the alternatives we suggest above: envision what could be, analyze what is, or scan the environment for what is available.

Envision What Could Be

Visioning is a method that appeals to people who want to think "big picture" or who are sick of looking at data. Peter Block (1987) says, "A vision statement is an expression of hope, and if we have no hope, it is hard to create a vision." But as team members work together to develop a vision of their ideal school, hope can be renewed. A vision statement is different from a mission statement in that it describes how we want things to be. Block says it is "the deepest expression of what we want . . . a dream created in our waking hours of how we would like the organization to be."

What will students learn in your ideal school? What will they know and be able to do when they leave? What will students and adults be doing to learn? What will the school look like? You could develop your vision around the four essential components of schooling:

- What is going on in *classrooms*?
- What does the *schedule* of the school day and year look like, and what *policies* guide the school?
- What kinds of *supports* are available for students?
- How are *families and community members* involved with the school?

Figure 7 shows how these topics could be considered and developed. Adapt and add to it for your own use.

These questions repeat and extend the ideal school activity we suggest as a starting point for an earlier meeting of a team. Here your team will work together to flesh out this vision statement, over time developing themes or threads of the vision and weaving them together. Discussing each person's vision of a successful school for your children and working to develop a common vision allows you to identify and share values and ideals.

After the team has developed a vision, it should be shared with the whole faculty for revisions and reactions. One New York City

Figure 7. The School We Want To Create

► **Classroom Practices:**

What are students doing? What are adults doing?

What skills and knowledge do students learn?

What learning materials are available? What does the class look like?

► **Policies and Structures:**

What does the school look like?

What kinds of rules are there?

How is the day organized? How is the year organized?

► **Student Support Services:**

What personal and family support services are available and who provides them?

► **Family and Community Involvement:**

How do families relate to the school?

How does the school relate to the rest of the community?

Figure 8. Possible Sources of Data

- ▶ Records -- students' grades and progress reports, results of standardized test scores, attendance and discipline records, dropout statistics.
- ▶ Classroom visits -- observe learning activities and student responses to them, student behaviors, amount of teacher talk, and so on.
- ▶ Student, parent, or teacher interviews -- select a sample of groups you are most concerned about; select interviewers carefully.
- ▶ Parent, teacher, student surveys -- make them short; distribute and collect them in a meeting, class, or open house (students tend to be less good about completing surveys, so make sure this is the best tool).
- ▶ Student shadowing -- follow students around for a day, pairing selected team members or others chosen for their sensitivity with students representing various groups in the school.

school posted the team's vision, complete with visuals, in the teachers' room with markers attached for teachers to add comments, questions, and decorations. Then the staff agreed to a common vision for the school.

After identifying which parts of the vision are shared by all, discussion should revolve around what parts are already in place, what is keeping you from achieving this vision, and how you can work to achieve it.

Analyze What Is

There are two ways to begin to analyze together what is going on at your school: (1) develop a people profile of students, staff, and community members, or (2) develop a component profile of the school and its district and community as an educational system.

Your team can begin by sharing members' perceptions about what important issues affect the success of your students and school and then should seek data to confirm or change your perceptions. Data can come from many sources (see figure 8). We usually think of data as numbers and charts, but data also come from interviewing people, observing classroom and school activity, and surveying parents and community members.

Data collection is a perfect activity in which to involve the whole team as well as other people. Do not hire a researcher or evaluator to do this work. It is an important learning activity. Research groups could be set up on different topics; people could be assigned a task in pairs or groups of three or four. It will help the research group to identify questions they are interested in answering. Questions may come from the initial perceptions of the group; for example, the group thinks that African American students in your school do not achieve academically as well as other groups, so you want to find evidence to show whether this is true or not. Questions may also come from simple curiosity; for example, what do the students who are in trouble think about the school, or what do parents think about the school and about their own role in educating their children? Find ways to gather data that will surprise you and help you think in new ways about your students.

Two things are especially important:

1. *Think about clusters of students* rather than the "typical student" or the "typical at-risk student." (In a diverse school, there is no single typical student.) Examine numerical data (test scores, attendance and discipline records, and the like) by race and gender to determine whether some groups show up in some categories more than the average. This is called disaggregation of data and can often be done by computer. You can also look at teacher-student interactions by race and gender, by observing classes and counting the amount and kind of interactions, and you can make sure to interview or survey

Figure 9. Systemic School Change Assessment

Essential Elements for Systemic School Change	Needs/Problems	Satisfaction Rating		Solutions/Strategies
		Low	Hi	
1. Creating a Mission Statement				
a. A mission statement has been developed which articulates a vision that all children can learn; and that supports the emotional, social, intellectual, and physical growth and development of students.		1	2 3 4	
b. The mission statement was developed with wide input from students, parents, staff, and community members.		1	2 3 4	
c. School policies, programs, and practices have been reviewed and revised to reflect the principles of the mission statement.		1	2 3 4	

Sample from *Changing Schools and Communities: A Systemic Approach to Dropout Prevention*. Reprinted with permission of the Massachusetts Department of Education.

students who represent the various groups in the school.

2. Find out about the strengths of students of concern. What are their good qualities? What programs, practices, or people have succeeded with these students? When do they seem to do well in school? How can you find out students' strengths? Are there different strengths among the students, by race, gender, or other category?

Your goal is to develop a profile of the people of your school, focused on those areas of greatest concern to your team and school. Try not to let data collection be an overwhelming task or to take so long that you have used up people's time and energy on this preliminary task. *Collect or examine data only when you need it to move forward.*

A component profile looks at your school system and what is in place in order to teach all students. One way of doing this is to use a list of components that are shown to be important to the success of all children and compare it with what exists in your school system. In *Changing Schools and Communities: A Systemic Approach to*

Dropout Prevention (French and Hergert 1990), the Massachusetts Department of Education identifies fifteen elements as essential, among them the following:

- shared decision making
- inclusive school climate
- supportive and flexible school policies
- clustering and program diversity
- teaming of staff
- flexible scheduling
- interdisciplinary curriculum
- innovative instructional strategies
- student support focus
- parents as active participants
- creative staff development
- community collaboration

Figure 9, a sample page from that publication, shows how each component is defined and described more fully on an assessment instrument that enables school districts to identify needs, rate their degree of satisfaction, and recommend solutions.

Scan the Environment for What Is Available

A third way to start is with the resources available. Often, schools have been so focused inward that they are not aware of the available resources and opportunities in the district or community or in the field of education at large. Resources include other agencies that work with your students and their families, businesses that could work with the school on some project, state or federal funding opportunities, and successful programs or practices in other school districts. Figure 10 offers a chart of a dozen categories of community agencies, associations, and services that can be filled in by your staff (as in the sample) with those available in your community.

Scanning for resources may give people a positive way to get started. Sometimes people need to be motivated to see that change is possible, that there are other ways of doing things. Learning about an outside resource or a new educational practice can stimulate new thinking and begin to foster new hopes. It is important to look for resources that suit schools at least somewhat like yours so as to reduce the number of "it'll never work here" comments. A rural school with few businesses in the community will not be helped by learning about an urban school's partnerships with numerous businesses and agencies that are within walking distance. Similarly, a classroom practice that works well in a homogeneous town may not work so well in a city school with students from diverse backgrounds.

Methods of locating and exploring classroom practices are probably familiar to you. Your team could find and review written materials: articles, newspapers, brochures. Study groups could be established to read and discuss topics. Or you could go into the community and visit other schools. Several schools we worked with sent people to conferences and workshops

Figure 10. Community Resources

<u>Social Service</u>	<u>Service Clubs</u>	<u>Clinics</u>	<u>Hotlines</u>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dept. Youth Services • Jewish Family Services 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Zonta • Delta Sigma Theta Educ. Con. • Black Business Alliance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • school clinic • hospital clinic • teen pregnancy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • teen suicide • substance abuse
<u>Youth Programs</u>	<u>Churches</u>	<u>Homeless Shelters</u>	<u>Day Care</u>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Scouts • Boys & Girls Clubs • YM/YWCA • AIDS/Pear Leadership 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • First Baptist Youth • Methodist Alateen • Presbyterian Young Life • CYO 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • mens' shelter • family shelter • meal program • Short Stop 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Boylston Child Care • Kiddy Care • Dandelion (slots for welfare) • SMILE
<u>Child Advocacy</u>	<u>Cultural Advocacy Groups</u>	<u>Immigrant Services</u>	<u>After School Programs</u>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • advocates for children • parents of children with disabilities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • NAACP • Alianza Hispana 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CASA language classes • Welcomes Program • IBA 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • community schools • library club • parks program • field trips

on topics of interest to them, then asked them to report on what they learned; sometimes teachers were able to begin to experiment with a new practice on their own and discuss their experiences. Less familiar to most school people is the wide variety of community resources.

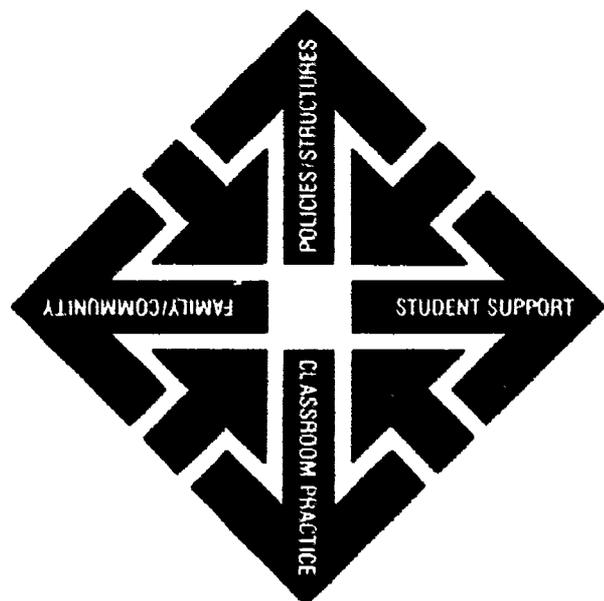
This is a perfect opportunity to involve individuals other than just those on the team. Research or discussion groups could be organized on topics and time could be made available on staff meeting agendas to share findings. Our Appendix includes books and articles that could be read and discussed by group members.

A Final Word on Gathering Data

As you review the above suggestions, you will see that you have probably already collected some data that can be used. Use our suggestions to build on your earlier work; do not repeat it unless your data needs to be brought up to date or your team feels that it would be good for everyone to learn together. We estimate that a thoughtful start can be made in three or four months. Remember, this task is one you will circle back to later to gather more focused information, to find out things you didn't think of at first. Your team will be learning and growing together as it considers these early issues.

If you gather numerical data in this phase, be sure to keep it. Later, it will come in handy to compare where you started with what happens after you make some changes. If you chose to develop a vision first rather than gather data, don't worry, you can gather data to show where you began later in the process.

Throughout this book, we suggest you look at four components of the school community that can directly help children succeed in school: classroom practices, policies and structures, student support services, and family and community involvement. Below are examples of data to collect for each of the four components:



- Classroom practices -- student achievement data (test scores, portfolios, demonstrations, teacher reports); strategies in use.
- Policies and structures -- attendance, retention, graduation and dropout data; policies themselves; how school is organized.
- Student support services -- students with special problems (course failure, learning disabilities, pregnancy, parenting, substance abuse); programs available.
- Family and community involvement -- numbers of participants at various kinds of events; kinds of participation currently available; community agencies and members involved in the school.

SETTING TARGETS FOR CHANGE

If you don't know where you are going, you won't know when you get there. At some point, the team must set specific targets for the school, both short-term and long-term. What do you want to accomplish? What will success look like for your school? Targets should describe the outcomes you want for both your students and the school.

Start by thinking about learning outcomes for your children. Are there specific areas you want to improve, or certain children you want to reach better? What do you want children to learn, and how will you measure their learning?

Some schools want, and need for a variety of reasons, to raise students' scores on specified standardized achievement tests. This is a tangible outcome for you to address. You may want to supplement that kind of outcome with targets related to other kinds of student learning. For example, some schools have had goals related to improving students' reading scores and at the same time have worked to increase children's enjoyment of reading.

Other kinds of student outcomes may relate to their school attendance, their involvement in school activities, or their attitude toward school or the value of school for their life.

The second kind of target is changing the school itself: its structure, scheduling, or roles and relationships. Often, though not always, these changes come from a desire to be more effective with students. Sometimes, they come from a desire to change working relationships among the staff. Improving staff morale and school climate can certainly lead to positive effects on the children. We encourage you to keep the primary focus on student learning -- especially if there are significant student learning challenges -- and to consider other changes to be intermediary goals in support of the primary goal of student learning.

Having said that, we recognize that student learning is a difficult, and long-term, goal to achieve. Some schools start with smaller tasks (building improvement, staff committees) in order to work together with a good chance of early success. We suggest that you develop no more than three or four broad targets and work on them over time, setting short- and long-term objectives.

We recommend setting targets after you have done some thinking together; some experimenting; some work to sort out the interests, needs, and commitment of all the parties involved. Targets should be moderately well accepted throughout the school community -- you will have enough difficulty agreeing on solutions. Targets should also be challenging; you will break them into more easily doable goals later. Research has shown that the more a school tries to do, the more it achieves. **It is best to think big and to act in small steps.**

Here are two ways to take on the task of setting targets. One is traditional goal setting; the other involves developing a vision or

working on the one you started earlier.

1. *Goal setting.* Identify all the areas you want to address in your plan and develop goals for each. This may mean separate areas such as student achievement, parent involvement, or positive climate. Or it may mean that you will focus on student achievement and choose areas that relate to that such as language development and study skills; parent involvement that supports students' learning may be a focus here.

What do you want to achieve? Yes, you want to improve students' achievement, but what does that mean, in what area, and how will you measure it? You may find that there are different answers to these questions, even among a team that has just agreed that student achievement is the focus.

Remember, goals should be SMART -- Specific, Measurable, Attainable, Realistic, and Timebound. Make sure that you have met these five criteria in each of your goals. Is the goal clear to everyone? How will you measure its attainment? Can you do it? By when? Figure 11 offers an example of a goal setting worksheet with SMART goals.

You may have been working on several goals at once. Review all of them together, and make sure that the timelines are manageable. Develop a timeline that has you stretching yourself but that can be met. Do more than one thing at a time. Don't try to do everything at once.

2. *Vision building.* Develop a vision of the school you want, with students learning what and how you hope they will. If your team

started with this activity, you developed an outline. Now is the time to fill in the missing pieces and add the colors. If you started by gathering data about your students or the resources available, this is the time to dream.

What are the components of the school you want? What would it look like? What are students doing? What are they learning? Are different groups of students doing different things? What are adults doing?

Now come back to the present and describe what parts of that vision are in place and what you need to work on to reach your ideal. The richer and more specific your vision, the more you will have to work with. For example, let's say that one component of your vision is that each student will work on independent learning projects with an adult coach. What will the schedule

Figure 11. Sample Goal Setting Worksheet

Goal: To involve 75 percent of the school's families in some activity related to the school by the end of the school year.

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Person Responsible</u>	<u>Deadline</u>	<u>Resources Available</u>
1. Open House - send flyer home and call each family - plan involving program	LG	11/15	money for refreshments teachers aide to call
2. Family Learning Activities - develop activities to send home, each grade level - follow up with parents, students - meeting/workshop for teachers	MR and team of 3 teachers	11/15	- open house - paper and new copy machine
3. Social Event	RB	12/15	catereria

have to look like? What do students need to know and be able to do in order to effectively engage in this kind of project? What do the adults need to know in order to be effective in their role? Identify all the activities that need to be done and create a timeline for them.

School Vignette

Mary Curley Middle School, Boston, Massachusetts A Functioning Team

We arrived at the Mary Curley Middle School at 2:00 p.m. for a planning team meeting scheduled for 2:30. People soon began drifting in, alone and in small groups, bringing crackers and cheese, fruit and cookies, soft drinks and coffee and tea. Soon, around twenty people were seated in a big circle of chairs in a cleared out classroom. The facilitator, an outside consultant hired with funds from a dropout prevention grant, started the meeting.

We learned from the principal, and from the minutes that were handed out, that the team consisted of teacher volunteers, some counselors and social workers, staff from the Private Industry Council and the School Volunteers of Boston, a parent who worked in the office, and the school's administrators.

The team was organized into three task forces to be able to get more done in smaller groups. The groups each focused on a topic: high school transition, community partnerships, and staff development. The Staff Development Task Force was concerned about helping the staff better understand the various cultural groups of students within the school, primarily African American and Hispanic groups. They proposed workshops for all faculty on multicultural education and intercultural understanding.

STAGE 2: EXPLORING OPTIONS

At some point in your process, and sometimes even before the process begins, you will come upon a program or approach, a new way of doing things, that appeals to you or the team. You may even have started this planning effort in order to get people to buy into a great idea you have in mind. If several people like the specific solution, it is especially easy to latch onto it and begin to move toward implementation.

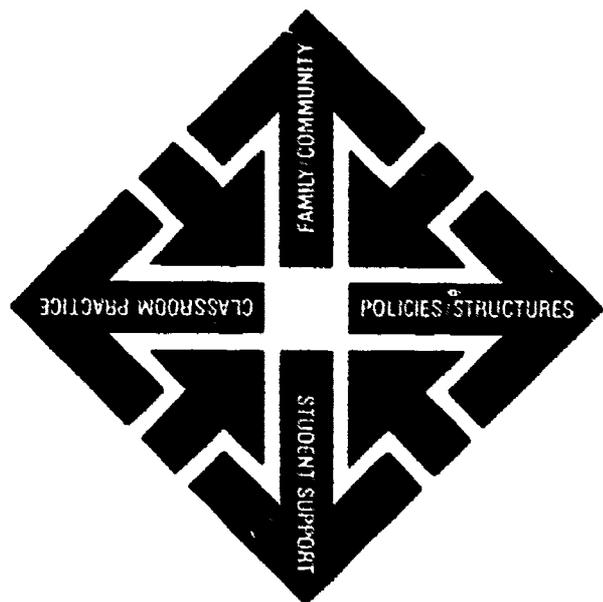
If you come upon this "ideal solution" very early in your process, or if just one or a few people decide that you've found the ideal solution, we urge you to STOP. Hold yourself back from committing to one solution too early. In other words, look for alternatives. Experience in school after school has convinced us that people get into the most trouble when they commit themselves to a single solution too early. Sometimes, the "solution" has little or no relationship to the diagnosed need. Sometimes, a quick choice leads to later implementation problems, because groundwork hasn't been laid. Or one person or group may get attached to one particular solution, and all discussion from that point on turns into an argument (civil or otherwise) about the merits and shortcomings of that solution. We encourage you to explore a wide range of options to achieve your goals or make your vision a reality.

Review the four components of the kaleidoscope again: *classroom practices*, *policies and structures*, *student support services*, and *family and community involvement*. In this section, we introduce strategies for each that have worked to help marginal or discouraged learners succeed in school. For most strategies, we also feature one effective program and give contact information.* Not all the options we present here are philosophically consistent with one another; you will have to choose those that suit your school best.

Based on your initial data gathering activities, your team may already have selected one or two components to target. If not, you may want to scan this entire section and then choose where to focus.

We should note that our descriptions of each strategy are both limited and extremely brief. We want to give a bird's eye view of many different strategies for each component. If your team is interested in a strategy, you will definitely need more information. For example, we feature cooperative learning as a strategy that works and describe just one cooperative learning program, but there are several different cooperative learning programs that you could consider. And you'll need more detailed information about the one we include.

Wherever possible, you will want to identify specific programs so that you can have access to trainers for your staff, other schools that have implemented the program, and materials that make the practice



*The strategies featured in the Classroom Practices section all have considerable evidence of effectiveness, research and evaluation data that have held up over several years. The strategies in the other sections are drawn from many sources -- some have not been evaluated as rigorously.

easier to use. A thoughtful approach will consider programs in light of your overall vision and will integrate programs into a cohesive whole. We encourage you to take the time to find out what others have developed and shown to be effective before trying to develop your own program from scratch. Adopting a program or practice will save considerable time and money in the long run.

You can get more information in several ways. Starting with this book, Appendix A: Selected References provides a list of articles we used, organized topically. You and your fellow team members may know of other articles on the topic of interest, and of course you can contact your district office, professional associations, and college libraries. Appendix B: Annotated Bibliography comments on dozens of resource books, some of which include program descriptions. And the Resource Organizations listed in Appendix C can be contacted to find out what services they offer. Of these organizations, some (desegregation assistance centers, multicultural service centers) have expertise on particular problems and populations; others (National Diffusion Network Facilitators, regional laboratories) are knowledgeable about research-based programs in many educational subjects.

And don't forget the most common ways that educators explore options -- contacting professional colleagues and attending conferences. Colleagues in neighboring districts or schools similar to yours can often give you information and suggestions about programs and consultants they have used. Attending conferences, workshops, and university courses puts you in touch with other sets of programs and schools. Both of these sources are more time consuming than going to a resource organization because they usually uncover fewer resources per contact. Nevertheless, they are worth using.

CLASSROOM PRACTICES

From years of research on effective teaching and effective classroom practices, teachers have accumulated knowledge about what works in the classroom with the least successful students. These practices are effective with all students, but it is critical to use them with those students who are not achieving. Even more important than the specific practice is for teachers to have an underlying belief that every child can learn and that it is up to schools to find the best ways to facilitate that process. Here we feature four excellent approaches to working with marginal or discouraged learners:

- Aces in the Classroom -- teaching what is most worth learning
- Alternative Paths to High Achievement
- Action in the Classroom -- successful classroom strategies
- Attitudes for Success -- for teachers and students

Aces in the Classroom

We need to concentrate on teaching what is worth knowing, the most important knowledge, skills, and attitudes -- the "aces" of the curriculum. Teaching the aces means that we concentrate on what is truly important. That means going for fewer things in depth rather than trying to cover many different topics and skills in a superficial manner. Rather than asking students just to memorize facts and events, we need to help them thoughtfully develop ideas with supporting evidence or to accurately summarize the cause and effect relationship between several events.

Depth versus breadth is a classic curriculum dilemma. Each school is presented with a myriad of requirements and pressures from the local school district and community, the state and federal government, and other sources. New concerns often become new courses to be added to an already crowded curriculum. Schools need to negotiate the maze of regulations and requirements that can fragment the curriculum. It is important for local school districts to stand back and examine what knowledge is of most worth and how it can best be acquired. Ruthless cutting of content coverage to focus the curriculum may be required. Another approach is to go for "two-fers," teaching two things at once, integrating content material and skill development.

Teaching the aces also means knowing why we are teaching particular content and skills. We need to have the big picture in focus and understand why we are choosing each supporting

The Classroom Practices section is based on a framework developed by Janet M. Phlegar called "The Quadruple A+ Approach to Success with Discouraged Learners."

component in the curriculum. Our understanding of why needs to be so thorough that it is easy to be clear about it when the student inevitably asks, "Why do we have to do this?" Discouraged learners are among the most likely to ask for justification for what we ask them to do.

To achieve this clarity, teachers need a thorough understanding of the subject area, as well as an opportunity to process the structure, goals, and objectives of the particular curriculum. Obviously, this is good practice, but why does it become particularly important for dealing with those students who are not doing well? Thorough understanding is necessary to be able to probe all the possible connections for the student, to help set the context where the student can begin to construct meaning. Just being able to demonstrate the potential usefulness and relevance of the information will not be enough to convince or engage all discouraged learners. It is a necessary but not an adequate condition. Even a discouraged learner knows when he or she is in the company of an adult who has thought through the whys and wherefores. This force is recognized even by those most turned off by school, and that very fact indicates that it is the exceptional teacher and classroom that operate in this manner. The least successful students understand when they are in a class with purpose, one that the teacher sees as important.

Each district will need to make its own choices about content and curriculum. However, we believe that the following three areas are essential for all learners:

1. *Language development.* In modern society, it is essential that all people be able not only to use oral language effectively but also to have literacy skills (reading and writing); in the United States, it is essential for people to be able to communicate in English. All children need to learn these language skills in school and to master enough skills to be able to work productively and to participate as citizens in a democratic society. We will not enter the debates here about the best way to teach children to read or the best way to teach children a second language. We will say that there are many programs and approaches that have demonstrated success in teaching children these skills, and schools need to find those programs that can provide evidence of success and that suit the educational philosophy of their teachers. Figure 12 describes a language arts program developed to be culturally compatible with a particular population, native Hawaiians.

It is especially difficult for teachers to value the language skills of children whose language use is different from their own. Thus, children who come from poor or uneducated homes and children who speak a different language may use language in ways that teachers do not understand. We have heard many teachers say of at-risk children, "They don't have any language skills." Nearly all children have language skills -- they communicate with their friends and family and even with the teacher. What they may not

Figure 12. KEEP (Kamehameha Elementary Education Project)

The Kamehameha Elementary Education Project is a successful language arts program designed for underachieving native Hawaiian children, a group who typically had done poorly in language arts. Believing that cultural compatibility is important to children's learning, anthropologists and educators worked together to develop this classroom program. Studies of native Hawaiian children in the classroom and at home found that adult-child interactions are usually mediated by other children. The KEEP program organizes children into small groups for peer supported learning and allows for some non-academic peer interaction as well. The teacher is free to introduce new academic skills (using individualized diagnostic-prescriptive instruction) and to focus on comprehension oriented reading instruction. Teachers work strategically to extend children's ability to attend to adult instruction.

CONTACT:

Dr. Kathryn Au
Director
KEEP Project Team
Early Education Division
Kamehameha Schools
Kapalama Heights, HI 98017
(808) 832-3000

Figure 13. Project REACH

Project REACH is a multicultural education program that is designed to be integrated into regular history and social studies curriculum in both elementary and middle grades. Its aim is to increase knowledge and tolerance for multicultural diversity. There is no need for special staff or facilities. Participating teachers are trained by project staff or by certified trainers before using the material in their classrooms. The program has four phases:

- **Communication Skills**, in which students gain awareness in self-awareness and interpersonal skills.
- **Cultural Self-Awareness**, in which the students become aware of the richness of their own culture and of the cultural diversity that exists in their school.
- **Multicultural Knowledge**, in which students become aware of the rich diversity that reflects the experiences and contribution of the ethnic and cultural groups that make up the United States.
- **Cross Cultural Experience**, in which students use the knowledge and sensitivity they have gained from the previous phases of the program and participate in a series of person to person interviews with people from various cultural communities.

CONTACT:

Gary Howard, Executive Director
 Bettie Sing Luke, Program Director
 238 North McLeod
 Arlington, WA 98223
 (206) 435-8682

have is reading skill, skill at using "school language," or the skills to explain or describe clearly. The teacher needs to be able to recognize what skills the student does have and build on those. (Shirley Brice Heath's study, cited in Appendix A, describes the different ways Black and white children in a Southern school district, raised in separate communities, used language. Teachers learned to recognize and build on the different strengths of their students.)

Similarly, children who come to school speaking a language other than English may be literate in that language or not, and the language skills they possess need to be recognized and built on. Other factors, too, will affect their English learning: their attitude toward learning English, their experiences in both this country and in their old one, and their cognitive ability, to name just a few.

◌. *Multicultural education.* Perhaps more than any other, the United States is a country of many cultures. Yet few of these cultures and their contributions to our society are taught in school. Moreover, as the world becomes more and more interdependent and as businesses increasingly operate in several countries, economics and cultural styles have become intertwined. Yet most students in the United States know very little about Asian countries or about the cultures of South America or Africa.

All students need to know more about different ways of thinking and living; they need to understand that their way is just one of many. And they need to understand so that they can appreciate the different cultures that make up our own country. These are needs for all students, not just for racial and ethnic minority students, because all of our students need to be able to live with and understand people and cultures that are different from their own. School systems with large numbers of racial and ethnic minority students usually have made efforts to include more about different cultures in their curriculum. But more needs to be done to educate all of our children for the future. All schools must teach about different cultures, and all schools must go beyond simply adding new curriculum units to including multicultural approaches to the entire educational experience.

Multicultural education includes learning about cultural differences, attending to students' culturally embedded learning styles and schooling needs, teaching skills for working with cultural differences, developing a school climate that honors and celebrates diversity, and building healthy human relations within and beyond the school community (see figure 13, for example).

3. *Secrets of school success.* Discouraged learners usually need help learning the secrets of school success -- those behaviors and methods that successful students often use unconsciously or learn easily. Among the secrets to teach are the school's expectations for students as well as studying and test-taking skills. Many of

these strategies can help less successful students find handles that make school more understandable and more workable for them.

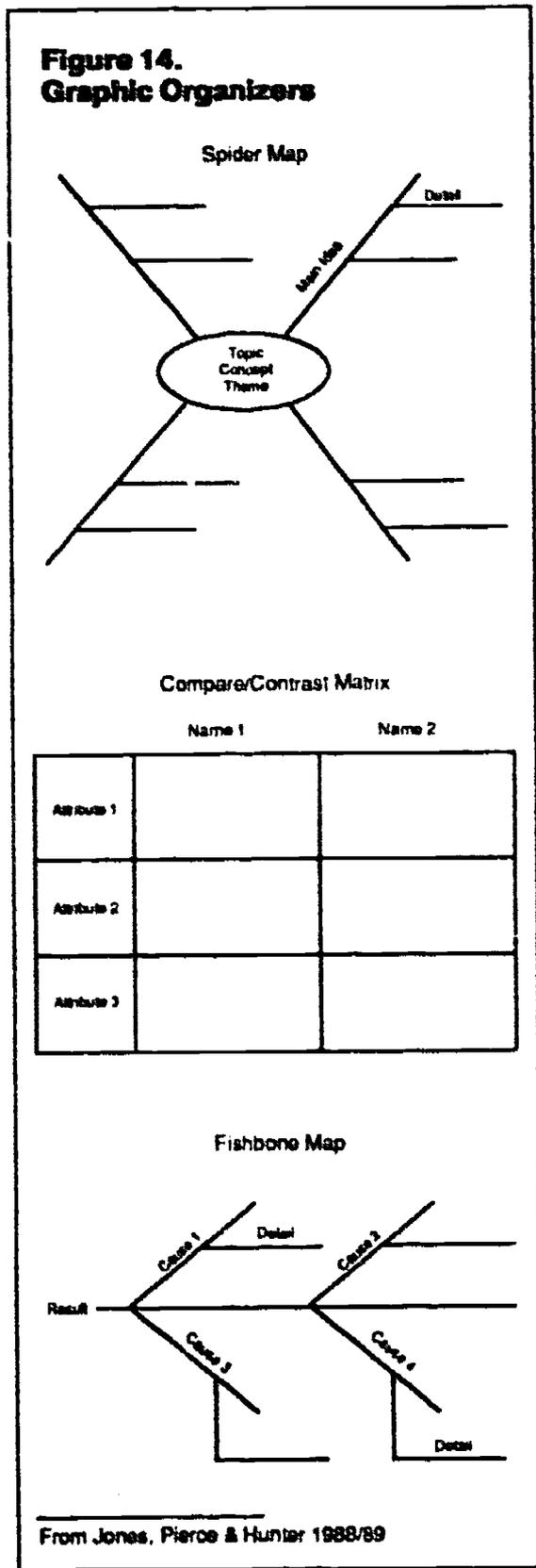
The following are two examples of the kinds of skills and information that can be taught:

School expectations. In most American schools, rules are written into student handbooks. But many school expectations are never written down, especially those that reflect the cultural norms of the country, community, or school. Immigrant or transient students may have a particularly hard time understanding these "unwritten rules." Verbalizing such expectations may help these students as well as other children who do not understand your expectations. For example, students may be expected to share their opinions and discuss interpretations (not just recall facts) in class, or students may or may not be allowed to touch the teacher. Try to recognize and express unwritten expectations. Students or teachers from other countries or cultures who have been here a while can help you identify those norms and expectations they had to discover on their own.

Study skills. There are many ways of studying, but often students are not taught much about them. Explicitly teaching how to skim a book chapter (look at pictures and headings for clues, ask yourself questions about what is likely to be included in the chapter, and so on) can help many students acquire these skills. Graphic organizers like those depicted in figure 14 can help, too. For example, often students are told to outline a paper before writing it, but many students don't think in this linear way and cannot write an outline. A freer form "web" may help students get related ideas down on paper and begin to organize them. Other graphic organizers can help students see comparisons between different groups being covered in a unit, for example, or see cause and effect relationships. For more visually oriented students, these graphic pictures of the readings can make the difference between understanding and failure.

Test-taking skills can be taught also and can help students better understand how to use their time during test taking, as well as help build confidence and a feeling of control.

Often study skills are taught to young students and neglected in the later grades where the emphasis is on content. Teachers at all grade levels should include study skills explicitly.



Alternative Paths to High Achievement

At the same time that we focus on what is essential to teach, we must also provide multiple ways for students to learn. Students come to our classrooms from a variety of backgrounds, bringing with them diverse skills and styles of learning.

Figure 15. HOTS

HOTS (Higher Order Thinking Skills) is a thinking skills program designed and validated for students in compensatory education programs. Instead of reteaching information students did not previously learn, HOTS teaches thinking skills that students need to learn content the first time it is taught in the classroom.

The program defines the four key general thinking techniques as:

- ▶ metacognition -- consciously applying strategies to solve problems;
- ▶ inference from context -- figuring out unknown words and information from surrounding information;
- ▶ contextualization -- generalizing ideas from one context to another; and
- ▶ synthesis of information -- combining many sources of information and identifying what is needed to solve a problem.

The HOTS curriculum first provides students in grades 4 to 7 with a variety of interesting and difficult problems and a systematic method of practicing the four key thinking skills. At the end of the second year, the program begins to make direct connections between HOTS activities and the general school content. The method also has merit for regular and gifted students.

CONTACT:

Stanley Pogrow
University of Arizona
College of Education
Tucson, AZ 85721
(602) 621-1205

One way schools have tried to meet students' diverse needs in the classroom is through "ability grouping." For some subjects, grouping students with similar skills makes sense. This is especially true when students frequently move between groups. Ability groups lets students be with skill peers, and it allows teachers to differentiate instruction.

Yet even the term "ability grouping" points to some of its problems. Too often it has encouraged us to think of students as having a fixed ability on a continuum from "smart" to "dumb." Ability grouping in the early grades may lead to separate tracks in later grades -- tracks that separate students, label them, and limit their access to school resources.

Those students who are labeled "special ed," especially those separated from regular classes, rarely get out of the special ed track, and they become part of a system targeted to their disability rather than their abilities. And students in vocational education programs rarely have access to advanced academic classes, even those with no prerequisites.

Students have a better chance at success when the curriculum is presented in a variety of ways. Most curriculum specialists now recognize that relatively few subjects must be presented in a single, hierarchical sequence. Students do not have to be able to read at an advanced level before they can learn higher order thinking skills. In fact, many students are more complex and creative thinkers than their reading and writing skills indicate. For these students especially, learning to develop alternatives, make decisions, and solve problems related to interesting situations may provide additional motivation for mastering basic skills, as well as learning to learn. Figure 15 describes a successful higher order thinking skills program that has been developed and used in compensatory education classes.

Students who do not succeed when a subject is presented in one way may benefit from some repetition. But it is also important to look for other ways to present the information to overcome the barrier to learning. Sometimes, it helps to allow students to move to and achieve success on a different task rather than going over and over one on which they are not meeting success.

It is critical to recognize that different people learn in different ways. Some learning style theorists focus on preferences for taking in, storing, and processing information -- through listening, seeing, or touching, for example. Others focus on differences between abstract and concrete information. Related work is being done on multiple intelligences by Howard Gardner at Harvard University (see, for example, Gardner 1983). There are numerous frameworks for analyzing different learning styles. See Appendix A for references.

Many theorists point out that only a small minority of learners are "auditory," or learn best by simply listening to someone speak. Yet the majority of secondary classrooms rely on the lecture method to convey information. Moreover, schools tend to reward and test primarily verbal facility. Clearly, we need to present key concepts

and information in a variety of ways to reach more learners and we need to test knowledge in a variety of ways.

Discouraged learners often have a learning style that doesn't fit very well in school. They may be active or tactile-kinesthetic learners; that is, they like to "do stuff." Since most teachers neither have this same learning preference nor have had training in how to accommodate it, it is not surprising that few classrooms above the third grade include much, if any, activity of this kind.

Action in the Classroom

The effective teaching practices mentioned in this section are ways to make the classroom more active for students. They produce great gains for low-achieving students, and they can be effective with all learners. With more and more teachers demonstrating the benefits of heterogeneous grouping for all students, teachers who use these strategies can teach students of diverse learning styles and ability levels in the same classroom, encouraging each to contribute according to her or his strengths.

Experiential Learning

Experiential learning is often defined as "learning by doing." It is most central in early childhood education, vocational schools, and alternative schools, where teachers combine academic skills with hands-on experience. But many more classrooms can integrate experiential learning as well as vocational applications of academic skills. Experience can be brought into the classroom in many ways; active exploration of the community, science experiments, simulations, and dealing with student, classroom, and community real-life experiences are but a few examples (see figure 16 for a classroom that combines several).

The key elements of experiential learning are that it is based on students' interests and concerns; that it includes activity (which can mean writing or genuine discussion); and that it connects with the world outside the classroom.

Continuous Progress Models of Instruction

Another instructional approach that has been shown to yield significant academic gains for discouraged learners is the continuous progress model or, more specifically, the concepts from mastery learning. Both of these approaches allow for variation in learning rates among students. They divide the learning into well-defined instructional objectives, and they move the student through rapidly. Mastery learning sets one high standard and then demands that all children meet it. Some will need more time or help on the task than others, and this can be provided by tutors, homework, or other means. The National Diffusion Network programs DISTAR, ECRI,

Figure 16. Foxfire

The widely popular Foxfire books (which became the basis of a Broadway play) grew from the efforts of teacher Eliot Wigginton in Rabun County, Georgia, to reach disaffected teenagers. For over 20 years Wigginton has refined the process of learning and using language arts. The Foxfire approach involves students in exploring their community, writing and producing books, magazines, and videos. Some of the key principles of Wigginton's approach include: building on students' own interests; real life connections between students' work and the surrounding community; students' active learning and constant acquisition of new skills; attention of the quality of work and development of new skills; attention paid to the audience for the work; and teamwork, with a focus on peer teaching and the teacher as a guide and collaborator. The Foxfire Fund, Inc., helps to develop networks of teachers committed to these principles, hosts conferences and other adult learning activities, and produces educational materials.

CONTACT:

Eliot Wigginton
The Foxfire Fund, Inc.
P.O. Box B
Rabun Gap, Georgia 30668
(404) 746-5628

**Figure 17.
Team Assisted
Individualization (TAI)**

Team Assisted Individualization (TAI) has students work in heterogeneous learning teams on individualized materials. Students check each other's work and manage most of the mechanics of the individualized program, freeing the teacher to provide direct instruction to individuals and small groups. Features of the program include:

- ▶ A computerized diagnostic/placement test;
- ▶ Assignment of students to 4 to 5 member heterogeneous teams;
- ▶ Structured individualized curriculum materials;
- ▶ Team scores and group recognition;
- ▶ Homogeneous teaching group work; and
- ▶ 185 well-defined, objectives-based instructional units appropriate to grades 3-8.

CONTACT:
Marshall Leavey
TAI Project
The Johns Hopkins University
3805 North Charles Street
Baltimore, MD 21218
(301) 338-7570

and others are based on mastery learning principles (see Appendix C for contact information).

Some students who need to see "the whole picture" before learning the parts may not do well with this approach.

Cooperative Learning

One of the things even discouraged learners like about school is being with other kids. Cooperative learning allows students to work in groups to learn, encouraging both positive interdependence and individual accountability. Students share a learning goal and are responsible for learning from and for teaching their fellow students. Discouraged learners not only receive strong social messages about the importance of cooperation and collaboration from this style of teaching and learning, but they actually learn more, as do all students.

Many kinds of cooperative learning approaches are being used (see, for example, figure 17). Some provide more explicit teaching of social skills; some are more structured than others; some emphasize groups grades more than others. In all, however, students work in small groups to learn subject material. We believe it is best when cooperative learning groups are heterogeneously mixed so that students learn that everyone has something to contribute. Groups must be taught how to work together.

Attitudes for Success

The final A is for Attitude -- our attitude toward less successful students as well as their attitude toward learning and school. It is difficult (for both the teacher and the student) to be positive about success when failure has been repeated again and again. Both may give up trying and may seek others to blame. Yet it is essential to break the blaming-failure cycle and to develop attitudes for success.

The importance of teachers' expectations on students' achievements has been well documented and is intuitively understood by those in the classroom. What has not been so easy to comprehend or act on is how teachers can truly change their attitudes so that they hold high expectations for all children, even those who have not performed well in school until that point.

The key to dealing with this chicken-and-egg question is to begin by changing behavior. We know certain moves that teachers make signal to a child that the teacher expects the child will know the answer to a question or will do well at something. Teachers wait longer for a response from a child when they expect that child knows an answer. The proximity of a teacher in the classroom to a child, as well as other nonverbal behavior, sends many clear messages to children about how the teacher sees them. We also know that teachers give more specific (and therefore more meaningful) feedback and praise to students they see in a positive way.

**Figure 18.
TESA (Teacher Expectation and
Student Achievement)**

TESA is an inservice training program for teachers of all subjects, grades K through college level. The program identifies extensive research showing that teacher interactions with students they perceive as low achievers are less supportive and less motivated than their interactions with students they perceive as high achievers. Teachers are trained to use an interaction model involving specific supportive and motivating techniques with all students in a nondiscriminatory manner, accelerating academic growth of perceived low achievers.

Instruction is organized into five instructional units that are presented at monthly workshops. Following each workshop a teacher is observed by a fellow workshop participant who provides feedback on the teacher's interactions with targeted students. The observation provides motivation to the participating teachers to practice the various techniques and methods learned in the workshops.

CONTACT:

Elsa Brizzi, Program Director
Los Angeles County Education
Center
9300 East Imperial Highway
Room 246
Downey, CA 90242
(213) 922-6111

Monitoring our behavior and then making adjustments will go a long way to communicating high expectations to all children. Whether through structured programs such as TESA (see figure 18) or through more informal observations (self or peer), teachers can learn to change their behavior. As children begin to respond to this treatment, a new cycle may begin to alter the beliefs of teachers.

Children, too, must learn to develop new attitudes about their school abilities and actions. Teachers' behavior changes will influence children's attitudes about themselves, but children's ineffective attitudes can also be dealt with directly. Many children and youth who do not do well in school or who are having a difficult time in life do not see a relationship between cause and effect in their own behaviors. They do not grasp the point that their actions might cause certain results; rather, they attribute results to luck (good or bad) or to the behaviors of others or society. They almost never cite their own effort or actions as having any effect on the results.

Although we cannot control everything in life, we can learn to take responsibility for our own actions. We can help children see that they can make things happen, at least in the classroom, and help them see the results of their behaviors. We can also help them confront injustice when they encounter it and help them learn to take a stand and contribute positively to their world. And we can introduce them to people, through real-life visits and books, who have worked to make a difference.

Students can learn to set and reach meaningful and worthy goals for themselves. Teachers can capitalize on the work of Olympic athlete Marilyn King, outlined in the book, *Dare to Imagine: An Olympian's Technology* (Whisler & Marzano 1988). King demonstrates how to clearly envision a goal and what it looks like to do it right. She goes through the strategy of "mental rehearsal" and explains how that technique dramatically improves actual performance. Other aspects of the approach include breaking down the goal into definable steps needed to reach it and then taking clear action on those steps every day. Being clear about what the goal is and spelling it out in a "contract" that has some significance is a way to help a student set and meet attainable goals.

POLICIES AND STRUCTURES

Policies and structures are the mechanisms that support the educational enterprise. They reflect deep-rooted values and beliefs, although once adopted, the underlying belief system is usually not actively considered. Thus, without periodic review, a policy or structure is likely to outlive its usefulness. The segmented comprehensive high school -- with its tracks for vocational, regular, and college-oriented programs and forty-five minute periods -- is an artifact of an earlier era. It was developed as a solution to keep

**Figure 19.
Questions To Ask About
Policies**

- ▶ Does this policy encourage students to stay in school until graduation?
- ▶ Is this policy fair to all groups of students?
- ▶ Is this policy applied fairly to all students? (Examine data to see if some groups are represented more than others.)
- ▶ Does this policy set a positive tone for all students in the school?

more immigrant and poor students in school. Today, we see that it may have negative consequences (program fragmentation, segregation of students) as well as the positive ones for which it was developed.

Often, policies and structures are not within the control of the school; they may be established by the district or by the state or federal government. A school-level team may have to negotiate with people at these other levels in order to make changes. Currently, several federal programs (e.g., Chapter 1) have been reauthorized to allow for experimentation and better coordination of services, and many state education agencies are allowing schools to be more flexible so as to better serve students. It is worth exploring with staff in your state agency those restrictions that you *think* are keeping you from changing; you may find the help you need to make a change.

Often, when new practices are being introduced, it becomes clear that old policies or structures are in conflict with them. For example, a school may be developing new approaches to increase student attendance, but the school may have a policy in place that requires students to be suspended after certain infractions. Or a school may want to introduce a collaborative teaching model yet not have any time built into the schedule for teachers to learn or meet for planning.

Although policies and structures should both support practice that leads to learning, they perform different functions and should be examined separately. Below we suggest some principles to use in examining each. Some districts may examine their policies and structures as a preliminary step to schoolwide change. Some schools may want to initiate a set of practices, then change a policy or structure to be more supportive of their primary change.

Review *policies* to determine whether they provide an atmosphere of support and encouragement for students. Do they encourage students to stay in school? Are they enforced fairly? Figure 19 suggests some additional questions, and the list below suggests the kinds of policies that affect student life in the school and attitudes toward school.

- academic and graduation requirements
- student grouping -- ability grouping, tracking
- promotion and retention
- attendance
- discipline -- suspension, expulsion
- targeting students for services
- sexual and racial harassment

Structures organize time and space in the school system and provide coordination mechanisms. Structures include the length and

**Figure 20.
Questions to Ask
about Structures**

- ▶ Do our structures provide various ways to meet students' diverse needs?
- ▶ Do structures allow flexible times for learning activities, both for subjects and for specific activities?
- ▶ Do structures allow for and facilitate personal interaction between adults and students?
- ▶ Do structures allow meaningful participation of students and adults in the life of the school?
- ▶ Do structures allow for time for the professional growth of the faculty and other staff?
- ▶ Do structures enable the school to teach all students what they need to learn and create a sense of community among all members?

times of the school day and year, the organization of the school day into periods, grade level groupings, organization of the school, and how programs are organized and interact with one another. Examine school structures to see how they might provide more support for students' learning. For example, do they support students' need for personal attention at each stage of their development? Figure 20 suggests some additional questions to ask about structures.

Below are some sample structures that have been used successfully to better support student learning.

- *Clusters and schools within schools* have been created in larger middle and high schools to create more personal and sometimes more differentiated environments; in elementary schools, grade clusters (for example, K-3 and 4-6) allow teachers and students to be more flexible about activities. By creating clusters of students and assigning a group of teachers who share the same group of students, teachers and students get to know one another better and students have a smaller unit of the school to relate to; hence, belonging can be enhanced. Clusters also facilitate teachers sharing information and coordinating work and activities.
- *Block scheduling* provides periods longer than the standard 45 minutes and offers teachers more flexibility. For example, some elementary schools provide two hours or more of uninterrupted block time for language arts, allowing the teacher to include reading, writing, spelling, and skill development activities in different proportions on different days or to relate the various activities to one another. In middle or high schools, block scheduling can allow for the in-depth exploration of certain subjects and activities that would take longer than a standard period; it can also allow teachers to combine subjects.
- *Common planning time* can facilitate teachers sharing and planning together in a grade level, subject area, or other grouping. In team teaching, common planning time is essential to allow the team to plan together, but it can be used for other purposes as well.
- *Mainstreaming or program integration* between special programs (special education, Chapter 1, or bilingual education) and regular classrooms is currently occurring in many schools. In these programs, children targeted for special services sometimes receive tutoring or special help in the classroom by specialists who come in at certain times. Sometimes, whole classes are grouped for specific activities, as when a bilingual class and a monolingual English-speaking class are paired for activities or second language instruction.

- *Cross-grade grouping* allows students from various grades to be grouped for instruction. Most typically used for reading in the early grades, cross-grade grouping allows teachers to put together reading groups that may include some children from each of the first three grades.

STUDENT SUPPORT STRATEGIES

When students begin to lag behind academically, misbehave in school, or have high absence rates, they are showing outward signs of disconnectedness from the school and their own education. The students may have trouble learning or following the rules of the school, or they may have personal or family troubles that cause problems in school. Whatever the cause, the school needs to have strategies to provide assistance to both the students and their teachers. In elementary schools, teachers tend to know the whole child better and to create a more personal environment for learning. But many children also need individualized attention, personal relationships, and caring throughout their adolescent years as well. In the middle and high school years, larger schools that provide a wide range of educational opportunities for students run the risk of limiting the personal attention that is so important for some students. School structures were discussed in the previous section on "Policies and Structures." The following strategies have been successful with students in numerous schools.

Teacher Assistance Teams (TATs)

Also known as building-based support teams as well as by numerous other names, TATs are composed of teaching experts drawn from different parts of the school; the team advises other teachers on problems in the classroom. Originally created to enable regular and special education teachers to share expertise so as to enable more children to succeed in the regular classroom, TATs can be a great tool for fostering teacher collegiality, improving problem-solving systems, and expanding teachers' repertoires of teaching strategies and techniques.

Teachers request assistance from the TAT on a problem child or situation. The TAT meets to help the teacher diagnose the problem more carefully, sometimes observing the situation, and then proposes several solutions to the teacher, who chooses one to try. The TAT helps the teacher with the strategy and supports the teacher during a specified period. The TAT follows up with the teacher to assess whether the strategy worked and to decide what to do if it did not. The TAT helps the teacher decide when to call in special assistance from a psychologist, special education or bilingual education teacher, or other resource, and when to refer a child to a special classroom.

**Figure 21.
School 20 Mentoring**

In Albany, New York, a program to pair community mentors with 5th and 6th grade students has had great success. Concerned that most at-risk children lack a role model of success or enough adult support to imagine themselves as valuable, School 20 recruited community members to become mentors. The school made a special effort to enlist African American and Puerto Rican mentors to serve their particular populations. Grandparents are a major part of the program and in some cases are paid a stipend.

Recently the program has created more involvement with the community through a successful school to business alliance. That alliance has made possible such features as a career day and educational field trips. Students' horizons have been expanded academically, socially, personally, and occupationally.

It is important that team members be regarded as supportive and nonjudgmental by teachers seeking their advice.

Mentoring Programs

Mentoring programs pair students with adults who act as advocates, patrons, or sponsors, offering support, guidance, and assistance through a specified time. Some mentoring programs use school staff (teachers, guidance counselors, and sometimes all personnel in the building) as mentors, whereas others draw from a pool of volunteers from the business or residential community. Some mentors are paired with the student for less than a year; others are paired throughout high school.

Mentoring occurs naturally in many facets of our society, especially in business or work settings when a more experienced or upper-level staff member recognizes potential in a talented worker and develops a relationship of support and advocacy with this person. In the school setting, mentoring programs are deliberately established to bring students in contact with an adult in the hope that this adult becomes a significant other for the student. With this expectation in mind, a climate that encourages and sustains trust becomes essential. These programs have worked particularly well with students who are at risk of failing school (for example, see figure 21).

Because structured mentoring is artificial, and at-risk students' positive qualities are not recognized readily by many people, it is important that mentors be chosen and assigned who believe in the untapped potential of the children they mentor. A mentor who is not receptive to the needs of the mentee or who exhibits a condescending or patronizing attitude will not be able to offer the socialization and skills development that mentoring programs attempt to provide. The number of mentees a mentor has and the frequency and length of contact hours vary depending on the objectives of the program. Successful mentoring programs share the following characteristics:

- Mentoring is an important component of a larger scale program with broadly defined goals; it does not stand alone.
- Mentors are voluntary recruits who understand the problems of at-risk youth and are willing to adopt an advocate role.
- The program is supported by the administrative staff.
- After careful selection of mentors and mentees, pairing is made with the provision of a trial period when renegotiation of the pair is allowed.
- Goals and expectations are clearly defined, and close monitoring is provided.

- Mentees are voluntary participants in the program.

Tutoring

Providing one-to-one or very small group help on work covered in class by the teacher has consistently demonstrated benefits for children. Some children need more help and more time to master skills and material; for some, the extra personal attention is important. Some programs use trained teachers as tutors; some, adult volunteers; and some, peer or student tutors. Peer tutors do not have to be drawn from only the most successful students; research has shown that tutors can be helped to improve their own skills in the act of tutoring. Peer tutoring can be structured in many ways:

- higher grade students tutoring lower grade students in a specific skill or subject matter;
- bilingual students helping English-speaking students to learn their native language; English-speaking students helping newcomers to learn English;
- students who have mastered a skill helping those who haven't.

Student Support Groups

Support groups can be established for students with common problems, for students determined to be at risk of school failure, or for all students in a school. Those organized for specific groups with a common problem might serve teen parents, substance abusers, or children of alcoholics. Some schools organize the whole school into support groups, each with a teacher advisor. These groups allow teachers and students to interact on non-academic subjects, create a collegial environment, and work on interpersonal or "school life" issues. In the most successful of these programs, the students are grouped heterogeneously, and there is regular time in the schedule for planned activities. Often the teacher is committed to home visits and out-of-school activities as well as in-school time.

Peer Mediation Programs

Peer mediation programs select and train students to be effective conflict mediators and negotiators. Students who successfully complete the training are designated as conflict mediators to act as neutral parties when conflict arises in settings outside the classroom. A mediator is an active listener who guides the conflicting party through a process of reflection and analysis of the situation until a consensus between the two opposing parties is achieved (see figure 22). Mediators do not intervene in serious conflict situations. In these cases, the principal, teacher, or security person takes charge of the situation.

Figure 22. Peer Mediation

In the Cambridge (MA) public schools selected students in the 7th-8th grades and in the high school have been trained as conflict mediators to intervene with their peers to resolve arguments and disagreements. While some conflicts, especially those with the potential for violence, are referred to adults, many disputes can be resolved by student mediators. Sometimes mediators intervene in a situation they observe; sometimes they are asked to help solve a problem. Mediators learn to separate and interview the people involved in the problem, then to help the people share their concerns with each other and negotiate an agreement acceptable to both. Agreements are written down and monitored for compliance.

FAMILY/COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

Children are educated in many ways by many people. Parents are their first educators, as are other members of their family and neighborhood. Many other people and groups also educate children in various ways; older children on the streets and playgrounds, community members, churches and youth groups, even gang leaders all contribute to the education of our young people. James Comer (1988) points out that children's education is stronger and more influential when there is continuity of values and shared responsibility between the school and community.

In this section, we first describe ways for schools to involve the families of their students, and then we discuss school relationships with community agencies.

Family Involvement

Most parents want to support their children's success in school, but they often don't know how to do so or their ideas of what support means are different from those of the school. Most schools want parent involvement, but they may have a limited idea of what that means, and they may not know how to effectively involve parents.

As Anne Henderson (1987) says in *The Evidence Continues To Grow*, "When parents are involved, children do better in school, and they go to better schools." Parent involvement is important for several reasons:

- to increase understanding between the family and the school;
- to improve support for the school and its program; and
- to increase support for students' achievement.

Students need home support for their schooling. Educators in schools where children have been unsuccessful often say, "Our parents don't want to be involved" or "Our parents want to help but they don't have the time or the ability" or "Our kids are at risk because their parents aren't involved." In trying to increase parent involvement, a school should consider many factors. A booklet published by Fordham University and the Institute for Responsive Education (1989) says that parent involvement works best when:

- parents and teachers build new relationships;
- leadership is effective and caring;
- there are many ways to get involved;

- there is communication with everyone;
- schools remove some of the barriers to participation; and
- connections are made with community agencies.

In many homes and cultures, a variety of family members, friends, or neighbors may play the roles that most schools in the United States consider the sole province of parents. Grandparents, older siblings, aunts and uncles, godparents, and church members may play an important role in the life and education of the child. Each school must know its community and families and be open to the varieties of families that can provide support to children.

There are a number of ways to involve families in the school, and each has a different outcome. Many educators have read the literature that says that when parents are involved, student achievement improves. But all kinds of family involvement do not necessarily lead to better student achievement. Increasing community attendance at children's performances in the school may help students feel valued and may increase community support for the school, but it will not improve students' achievement in school. Schools need to think about what purpose they want served by family involvement and target their activities to that purpose. One school may want help from the family in supporting their children's learning; another may want community support for the school and its activities. Each of these is a different goal that may be achieved through many activities.

Below is a list of kinds of activities that connect the home and the school, starting with the least involving and ending with the most involving.

Communicating about School Activities and Child Progress

We believe it is the school's responsibility to make extra efforts to communicate with the family so that parents and teachers can understand one another and the child better. By communicating with one another, parents and teachers can develop a more complete picture of the whole child: teachers gain insight into the child's needs, abilities, and background; parents gain understanding of the child's performance in school; and all are able to learn more about one another's expectations.

The school has an obligation to communicate to parents in ways they can understand. Most schools with substantial numbers of families who speak another language now translate materials sent home -- including letters, notices, or newsletters -- into that language. If your school has only recently received a new immigrant group, you will need to find ways to communicate in the native language. Simple translation may not be enough, however. A direct translation from English to Khmer may not be understood if the English version uses educational jargon or other words unlikely to

Figure 23. Sample Items for a Parent Newsletter

- ▶ Student writing and art
- ▶ Topics or themes that classes will cover
- ▶ Special events
- ▶ Pointers for helping students with homework
- ▶ Profiles of selected students or teachers
- ▶ Award winners (try to look for a variety of activities: service, improvement, athletic, academic, and others)

be understood or if it is written with assumptions about prior knowledge (for example, about how schools work or the role of parents). Materials sent home should be in simple language that an older child, who may be called on to translate, can read and understand.

Try to communicate about positive things so that when you must communicate about negative things, you have a backlog of positive experience. Figure 23 provides a list of items that could be included in a newsletter for parents.

Help at School

For many schools, parent involvement means coming to school, whether to attend performances and ceremonies, participate in conferences and open houses, or assist with class activities. When school people complain about the lack of parent involvement, they often mean that parents don't come to school.

In the schools we have worked with, parents cited logistical reasons for not coming to school: transportation problems, need for babysitting, safety at night. Parents may also be uncomfortable coming to school. They may not speak English confidently, they may feel they do not know how to act properly, or they may be reminded of their own negative experiences at school.

Schools need to make sure that there is a welcoming atmosphere for all visitors. This may mean educating office and custodial staff and security guards -- often the first people one encounters in visits to schools -- and reinforcing the need to be courteous and helpful to all visitors. Schools also must know the needs of their community. It makes no sense to get babysitters for a meeting no one attends or to hold meetings at night in a neighborhood where many people are available during the day.

Schools need to offer many different kinds of opportunities for family members to help support their children. Award ceremonies and student performances may attract grandparents and other relatives. Some family members can visit classes to share a skill or experience if it is only once or twice a year. Sending food or family artifacts is another way families can help.

Most important, recognize the help you get and build on it to get the help you want. One school in the Virgin Islands complained that parents came to the school only for an annual social event. But hundreds of family and community members came to that event. Such participation builds a feeling of connectedness in that community and support for the school. Social events bring people in. The next step is to get some of the people who come to help with other school activities.

Help at Home

When children get help at home on their school work, their school achievement improves, especially in those areas on which parents

work with their child (Henderson, 1987). Even parents who are illiterate or less educated than their child can support the child's studying and learning.

Teachers often want parents to help children with their homework and, in less educated communities, despair of getting that kind of parent involvement. Some teachers are afraid that parents do not have the skills to help effectively. But research conducted by Joyce Epstein has shown that most parents, even those with limited education, *want* to help their children and are able to if they are given guidance by the teacher. Schools can help parents help their children at home by providing suggestions on ways to help and activities to do with their children (Epstein 1989).

Here is another example of the need to broaden our expectations of what help involves. The most basic kind of help parents can provide is time and space to do homework. Parents can be informed -- through workshops, flyers, or home visits -- of the importance of regular homework. They can make the kitchen table the homework space for an hour before or after dinner. They can ask about homework, make sure it is being done, and see that it is brought to school.

Help that involves more of the parents' time and thought is reading aloud and discussing school subjects. Many parents, other relatives, and older siblings can read to elementary school children, especially in the early grades, and should be encouraged to do so every day. Family members who read only in another language can read books in their native language; what is important is reading and the closeness it fosters. If parents and other adults are not able to read, older siblings can read to younger ones (good practice for both), and the child can read to the parents. Teachers can provide easy-to-read books that go along with classroom work.

Teachers can also send home information about subjects to be covered in class in a given week and encourage parents to ask their child about one or more of them. The simple act of asking shows children that their parents are interested and gives an opportunity to summarize and share a new learning. Some topics may even lead to interesting conversation.

The most involving help at home is for parents to help with homework (see figure 24). This involves extra work for both teachers and parents. Teachers must assign some work that parents can oversee and may want to ask specific questions of parents such as, "Did your child seem to understand this assignment?" or "Was your child able to complete the assignment?" Teachers could give parents a help assignment once a week and could experiment to find the subjects and kinds of work that parents like and are able to do best.

Parent Participation in Governance and Advocacy

Fewer parents and community members will be involved in governance and advocacy than in other activities. Yet many schools achieve considerable involvement on various committees. When

Figure 24.
**TIPS (Teachers Involve Parents
in School Work)**

TIPS involves parents in their child's education through a series of structured activities in elementary and middle school math, science, social studies, and art. Parents see what their children are working on and provide knowledgeable help if needed. TIPS provides the structure and activities to elicit parent participation. For example, the components of the math program are:

- ▶ Look This Over -- a sample problem that has been done in class.
- ▶ Now Try This -- a trial example for the student and parent to do together.
- ▶ Practice -- a series of problems to be completed by the student. This is treated like homework.
- ▶ Home-to-School Communication -- an opportunity for parents to record their observation of the student's skill and progress.

CONTACT:

Joyce L. Epstein
The Johns Hopkins University
3505 North Charles Street
Baltimore, MD 21218
(301) 358-7570

Chicago's school-based councils were formed in 1989, more than 2,000 parents ran for the elected seats on the councils. In Cambridge, Massachusetts, parents and community members participate on all staff interviewing committees. We have already encouraged you to have parents and community members on the planning committee for your school restructuring effort; and in some communities and states, they are required members for mandated programs (for example, New York City's and Boston's new school-based management/shared decision making initiatives).

In addition to parent and community participation on advisory and decision-making committees and groups, parents can play an important role in advocating for their own children. In special education cases, some parents have proved to be effective advocates for their children. Parents can learn about special programs and services that their children are eligible for and work to get them. The school system should have numerous ways to inform parents of the resources available.

Figure 25 shows a guide for step-by-step planning of parent involvement activities. You can use it as a handout with your team or as a checklist for planning.

Community Involvement

The community includes more than just the families of the children in your schools. It also includes all the organizations and groups that represent potential resources for the school, as well as the individuals who do not have children in the school but represent potential supporters and allies. Businesses that might employ your students or provide extra resources, social service agencies that work with your students in other settings, universities, and social clubs are all part of the school's larger community and can be partners in educating the children of the community. In this section, we focus on organizational collaborations and ways that schools can work to forge ties with businesses, social agencies, and groups.

In Stage 1: Getting Started, we suggested that you identify key organizations in your community such as businesses, social service providers, youth serving agencies, advocacy organizations, and church and fraternal organizations. If you did not do that at the beginning of this process, now would be a good time to do it. It is likely that you will find more than you thought. Even in rural areas where organizations are scarce, you will probably find several resources that you hadn't thought of before, especially if you include your surrounding geographic area and state agencies.

One of the biggest problems for schools in working with other organizations is finding the time to make and develop contacts. This is not usually a job that teachers can do because their time during the day is so booked. In some schools, the principal has taken on the job of making community contacts; in others, social workers or counselors have been able to make time to do it. Dropout

Figure 25. Planning a Parent Involvement Initiative

1. **Parent involvement should be everyone's responsibility. Consider setting a districtwide or schoolwide goal around increasing or deepening parent involvement. Identify roles and responsibilities for everyone and prepare them for their new roles through informational materials or training. Remember, secretaries, custodial or security staff may be the first people your parents meet in the school. Make sure all staff are welcoming to visitors.**
2. **Assign one person in the school to coordinate parent involvement as a paid part-time job, if possible, or as an extra assignment. At the same time, establish a parent involvement committee of staff and parents to organize events and activities to reach out to parents. If you already have a PTA or PTO, consider whether its role might be expanded or whether the school should have a temporary additional group with a particular purpose, such as outreach. The coordinator should be the contact point for activity and should organize others, not be responsible for doing all parent involvement activity.**
3. **Learn about the families, communities, and cultures of your students. Find "cultural guides," people who can give the staff trustworthy insights into the community without stereotyping. You may find a parent, a secretary, or a paraprofessional who lives in the community and is reflective about the culture. An expert from a local advocacy group or university may be helpful in a different way. Whomever you ask to be your cultural guides, make sure to get someone who presents a knowledgeable and positive picture of it and who can relate to teachers.**
4. **Analyze what you are currently doing to involve parents. Gather all the efforts -- of the school and of individuals -- and any data about them (for example, number of people who attended an event or who receive a newsletter). Then set goals that build on your successes; your goals might be to increase numbers or to involve people in new activities.**
5. **Involve the community in problem solving: Ask advice of community agencies and advocacy groups; make home visits or telephone calls to interview a cross section of parents; send home a survey to all parents or survey them at an event with high attendance, such as a social or open house. Transportation, babysitting, and traveling safely at night are common barriers to parents coming to the school. But in each community, the barriers are different. Find out what the most significant barriers are for your parents and work to remove them.**
6. **Schedule a variety of school events and interview parents there. Keep track of who attended and the ideas expressed. Possible activities include:**
 - ▶ coffee with the principal
 - ▶ student assemblies and awards days
 - ▶ open house with a speaker on a topic of interest
 - ▶ social events
7. **Organize a group of teachers, parents, or both teachers and parents to develop home learning activities for each grade level and subject. Encourage or mandate all teachers to send them home once a month, and follow up on whether and how parents use them.**
8. **After a period of experimental activity, develop a plan for the year that shows events coordinated with the school schedule, people assigned responsibility for organizing the events, and so forth.**
9. **Establish a monitoring system to keep track of numbers and responses to each activity you try. For selected activities, you might want to follow up with short evaluation forms or phone interviews.**
10. **At the end of the year, celebrate your efforts. Then analyze what worked best, how things could be better, what you now know, and what you do not know.**

Figure 26. New York University Stay in School Partnership Program

The Stay in School Partnership is a program for high school students operated jointly by NYU and the New York City Board of Education. Its objective is to create a partnership between the university and the high school by establishing a supportive and helpful relationship between NYU graduate students and selected high school students. The program aims at dealing with the whole adolescent who may have both academic and counseling needs. The graduate student plays many roles -- tutor, mentor, role model, and advocate for the student. Training for the graduate student is conducted through a six-credit course that combines both the theoretical aspects of work with adolescents as well as the practical aspects of planning and operating the program on a daily basis.

Many of the students in the program are recent immigrants, over age, and may have been out of school for many years. Some are homeless, pregnant, from single parent homes, or in need of ESL training or assistance with reading, writing, and math.

prevention coordinators or other special project staff may have a more flexible schedule that allows them to take on this role. Some person or small group should be assigned this task.

Another problem faced by those trying to develop cross-agency partnerships is a communication barrier. Businesses and agencies occupy worlds different from schools. Educators, businesspeople, and social workers all speak different languages -- they use the same words differently, they use different jargon, and most important, they see the world differently and make different assumptions about how things work. Because of these differences, people in one world often think that there is something wrong with people in another. It helps to learn as much as you can about the people you are contacting, to think about what they might want to get out of the relationship you are going to propose, and how you can help them meet their needs.

As in everything, there are different kinds and levels of relationships. The following are a few we thought of, to which you can add your own.

1. *Resources.* Businesses are often asked to contribute money for particular programs (a career education program, for example) or projects (painting the school auditorium). But businesses, social agencies, and other organizations and groups can be asked for other kinds of help as well. For example, mentors can come from community organizations and fraternal organizations. Social service agencies may be able to offer after-school programs so that the school doesn't have to set up its own. Businesses may be willing to provide equipment, food for special events, or space for meetings or training.

2. *Partnerships.* Partnerships are longer-term relationships that may involve multiple activities. Some partnerships are voluntary, others are contractual. Businesses that "adopt a school" and university partnerships with schools are two common examples of voluntary partnerships (see, for example, figure 26). Schools in some cities (New York and Providence are two) contract with social service agencies to provide services to their students rather than adding more counselors or social workers to the school staff.

3. *Collaboration.* Some schools initiate or participate in groups of youth-serving agencies that start a common activity such as a community survey on child care needs. Sometimes an activity is itself the reason to bring two or more agencies together. Some schools that have health clinics have asked the local hospital to staff and operate the clinic on school property; other clinics have been started at the hospital's request to the school.

School Vignette

Shurtleff School, Chelsea, Massachusetts Beginning with structural change

The Shurtleff School has initiated major changes in language arts teaching. They made a language block of the morning, divided each class of twenty-five in half, and assigned students to Chapter 1, ESL, remedial, and regular classroom teachers for small group instruction. The change was a change in the structure of the school day but did not mandate any particular instructional strategy. As before, all teachers could choose their own ways of teaching.

But the Shurtleff did not leave the teachers on their own. Using external funds, they hired an assistant principal to monitor the project and consult with teachers. They used desegregation funds to buy new instructional materials that would reflect the cultures of the Hispanic and Southeast Asian students they serve, to provide stipends for team leaders, and to fund special activities. They provided teachers with planning time and found free workshops on topics that teachers had expressed interest in -- multicultural education and teaching marginal learners.

STAGE 3: PREPARING FOR CHANGE

If you've just read through the numerous programs and strategies presented in Stage 2, your head may be spinning! So let us remind you that our intent was to present a variety of *options* so you could choose those that suit your needs, or generate your own ideas, and/or develop your own program. One school team may select a single program as the centerpiece of its redesign effort. Another may recognize that ten of these programs already exist in their school and see that what is needed is a central vision and coordinating mechanism to pull them all together. Still a third may choose to use several of the practices listed as ideas to develop its own program.

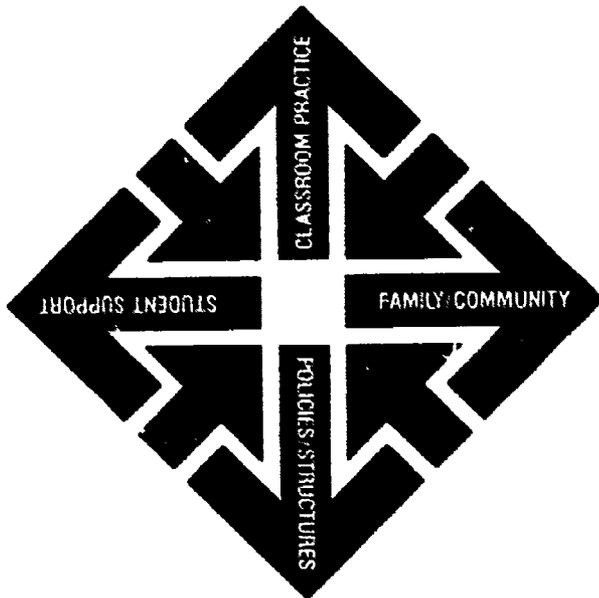
This is the time to revisit the starting point you selected in Stage 1 -- assessment or environmental scanning -- to rethink where you want to go and what you want to accomplish. Consider where the energy is in your team and in your school -- where the most interest, enthusiasm, perceived need, or resources are available. This reassessment may lead you to focus on one of the major components of school change or on sub-areas in more than one component. You may want to draw a "big picture" for the long term and choose to start with short-term goals and activities for the first and second years.

After connecting with your goals or vision, the key is to review options carefully and make deliberate decisions about what practices will help you reach them. Unless practice or behavior changes, nothing changes. If everyone in the school changes something different, there will be no systemic change aimed at enacting a shared vision or reaching shared goals. Without careful planning to implement decisions, including who will do what and how to get support for the new plans, school teams usually accomplish little.

This stage is organized into three major sections:

- Reviewing Options
- Making Decisions
- Planning Implementation.

We present two alternative strategies for reviewing options before deciding on new programs or practices. We then examine some of the essentials of good decision making and conclude by offering suggestions for developing a plan and building support for it.



REVIEWING OPTIONS

Figure 27. Sample Categories of Criteria

- ▶ Underlying philosophy
- ▶ Staff requirements
- ▶ Cost -- amount and kind (staff development, materials, etc.)
- ▶ Student grouping and role
- ▶ Population
- ▶ Materials and equipment required
- ▶ Time required -- amount, configuration of time
- ▶ Administrative support required

Whatever program or practice you ultimately choose should be attractive to most of the people affected (all if possible). To find such an option, you need to know what people find important about the solution to the problems your team has identified. What is important usually relates to educational philosophy, personal interests and abilities, or values.

You also need to consider constraints. Selection criteria may relate to using current staff, materials or space, or not costing more than a certain amount. Or they may relate to a current district priority or funding source.

When you come to criteria that seem to be in conflict, always ask proponents and opponents, "What interest is behind this for you?" When you know what people are trying to do (preserve, accomplish, or keep from happening), it is often possible to combine things in new ways to meet all (or almost all) of the most important requirements. Figure 27 suggests several categories of criteria to consider.

Once you have a list of five to ten criteria agreed on by the whole team, and then by the staff and other significant groups, you will want to use them to analyze whatever options you consider. You may look for options that will suit the criteria, or you may have some options in mind that you can analyze by seeing how well they meet your criteria.

Sometimes, as you review and consider programs or ideas, you will find that one or more of your criteria is not so important as you thought. That is fine. Before you abandon it too quickly, however, be sure to discuss and consider the change seriously. It is unlikely that you will find anything that will meet all your criteria. But you should be able to meet most of them, especially the important ones.

If you are looking into a solution that another school has recently developed or an idea that someone has, you may be able to adapt the idea or practice in order to better meet your criteria. Always consider this possibility. But if you are examining a program or practice that is fully developed (a validated program, for example), you will need to check with the developer before you can change the program. Otherwise you are unlikely to obtain the results you desire.

Two alternative ways of going through a systematic review of multiple alternatives are:

- Develop criteria, seek a number of alternatives to meet the criteria, and explore those alternatives.
- Take the programs and practices that each of you is attracted to, and identify the specific qualities that attract you. Work as a team to see if these qualities match the list of criteria you have developed.

MAKING A DECISION

Most of the schools in our project never made a formal team or schoolwide decision to take on a particular approach. Rather, they went through periods of experimentation (some staff trying out various practices), or the principal decided to appoint someone to oversee a new initiative such as parent involvement, or an opportunity presented itself such as a proposed project receiving outside funding. These actions evolved into decisions.

If you are working to make major change in your school, it is highly likely that there will be several initiatives going on at once. Ideas or proposals that involve more than one person usually need to be decided on or agreed to before they can be enacted. The principal can act as the solitary clearinghouse and decision maker, but we think it is better for the planning group to be involved in sharing these decisions.

In restructuring or renewing a school, there will likely be no single decision but rather multiple decisions that evolve at different points in time to start new overlapping initiatives. In one of the SPARK schools, for example, a new grant funded several after-school programs for students, a parent involvement coordinator was appointed and started several new activities, and the planning group explored alternative ways of teaching reading in the early grades. These all involved decisions made in different ways -- one was made at the district level, one by the principal, and one by a group. Even when one major decision is to be made -- for example, to restructure the school day or ways of grouping students and staff -- it is likely that numerous smaller decisions will follow about specific new practices to introduce, staff development needs, or ways to coordinate all that is going on.

As in all decision making, shared decisions must be thought through carefully. Your team should know beforehand

- who will be involved in the decision,
- at what level each group will be involved, and
- how decisions will be made.

Who Will Be Involved In Making the Decision?

It may seem obvious that if a team has been appointed and is working together, the team makes the decision. But it is not quite that obvious. Even if the team negotiated the limits of its authority in the beginning of the process, at the point of deciding to do something new, you should think again about issues of authority and support. Decisions can be vetoed or blocked even after they are made. Sometimes a team has only limited authority, and you know that you need final approval from a specific administrator. (In some

Figure 28. Two Ways to Involve Faculty

► A committee identified three programs of classroom practices (each of which included instructional materials, strategies, and training) that met all of their criteria for a new program to improve instruction for all students. They got sample materials and information kits for each program and brought them to a faculty meeting for all to review using the criteria which had earlier been refined and approved by the entire faculty. Faculty input was used to select the final program.

► A committee, with strong principal support, agreed to initiate a mentor program in the school. The principal announced that the program would be started, and the committee led faculty discussions to identify people's concerns and needs, given the decision.

school-based management projects, for example, it is specified that the building principal has veto power.) Some decisions may involve people or regulations outside the school at the district or state level. Clearing a decision with authorities who could block it is wise. You may do this informally before you make the decision to sound out whether there are special considerations or likely opposition. You may also need to formally seek a waiver of a contract specification or a regulation.

Beside authorities, a team needs to consider those who will implement a decision. Team decisions can be blocked by faculty and others if they oppose your plan. You will need to think about obtaining support for the particular change you want to make. How will you inform and involve the rest of the staff? It is worth thinking about who the implementers will be and how they are likely to respond to the team's ideas. Ideas that are widely opposed are not likely to be well implemented. Figure 28 offers two different ways a committee might involve its faculty in a decision.

One thing to consider is when to discuss "near decisions" with the constituency groups represented on your committee. Each team member should have access to a particular group and could be responsible for polling that group. Clearly, parents are the most difficult group to involve because they are the largest and likely to be most diverse in their opinions. You will need to work hard to plan how to include parents appropriately.

At What Level Will Each Group Be Involved?

The above discussion of whom to involve raises the issue of how to involve them. There are different levels of involvement, and problems occur when the team or an administrator thinks involvement means one thing, and a constituency group thinks it means something else. Three levels of involvement are:

- input or advice
- collaboration
- reaction

Is the team making a decision or giving advice to the principal? Is the faculty participating in the decision directly or giving input to the team? Will the team make a decision and present it to the PTO for a reaction or involve the PTO in the decision? These are just a few questions to help your thinking about your own situation. The more people involved in a decision, the longer it will take. Some decisions (those that can be carried out by a few supportive people, for example) do not need everyone to be involved. Some decisions involve one group more than another; the adoption of a new teaching strategy such as cooperative learning, for example, may be decided primarily by teachers, with input from parents.

How Will Decisions Be Made?

At the point at which a decision is about to be made, two things must be clear: what the decision itself is and what will constitute a decision. It is important at this point to put the decision into words, preferably in writing. This may mean "making a motion" or otherwise stating clearly the decision you propose. You may or may not be open to adaptations to your wording -- "friendly amendments," in the terms of Robert's Rules of Order -- but the team will see and hear exactly what the decision involves. Writing the decision on a chalk board or large newsprint paper allows all to see the wording as well as any changes the team proposes.

There are many ways to make a decision, and your team must figure out its decision policy -- the principal's decision alone, or if shared, majority rule, support of a specified percentage of the team, or consensus. The more people who have to agree, the longer it will take to make the decision. Remember, consensus means only that everyone agrees to go along with the decision -- one or two people may agree to "stand aside" to allow the team to reach consensus.

Discussion can result in adapting a decision. Sometimes discussion that takes place before a decision is healthy and works out problems. But beware of protracted and angry discussions; they usually signify too little support for the idea, and you should go back to the drawing board.

PLANNING IMPLEMENTATION

As you hone in on a program or practice you want to adopt, you probably will begin to think about what it will mean to implement it. Doing so should help you to identify groups and interests you may need to involve and to decide how best to involve them -- whether in the decision making process, planning for implementation, or both.

A number of planning forms and formats are available to help you. Generally, these forms ask you to indicate next steps, designate a responsible person, and determine a timeline. Choose a form that works for you and use it to help you identify the people whose support your plan will need if it is going to work to make your school a place where all students can succeed.

Subcommittees can make a large task manageable and can help a team tackle more than one thing at a time. Each subcommittee should, if possible, be representative of various groups. For example, a subcommittee on classroom practice, in addition to teacher volunteers, should include parents and representatives from programs like Chapter 1 or bilingual education.

The remainder of this chapter offers suggestions for building support for any plan you develop. You'll note that many of these

suggestions involve both making the decision and planning implementation.

Solicit Input

Decide with the team whose input you need: faculty, administrators, and others. You may want to send a draft copy of your plan to all faculty and ask for comments. You may want to schedule a staff meeting to present the draft plan and then discuss it. If you do this, make sure you allow sufficient time and structure for discussion. Make clear what kind of input you are asking for. You may want to involve the whole faculty in making the decision, or you may be informing faculty of the decision and involve them in planning how it will be implemented. Two examples of the way a committee sought faculty input can be found in figure 28.

While you are still developing your plan, it is wise to get preliminary input from authorities who will have to give some kind of approval later. Usually these people will be administrators, but members of the school board, the head of the teachers' union, or a staff person from the state department of education might also be included. As you are developing the plan, seek informal advice from these key people to determine their interests and concerns and to get their ideas. You will need to decide whom to approach, how to present the plan as a developing proposal rather than as a *fait accompli*, and when to present it.

Often your plan, even though it is just for your building or some of the classrooms within it, may affect the work or plans of others. For example, block scheduling for language arts in early elementary classrooms will affect all the programs and staff who take students out of class for supplemental services. Or a voluntary parent involvement thrust conducted by one or two teachers may result in parents approaching other teachers who will need to be prepared to respond.

Even when your plans do not affect others, you will want and need the support of others in the school system. Every system has influential people who do not necessarily hold a formal position directly related to your plan. Think about who those people are. It may also turn out that your plan is in competition with others for funding, something may be brewing in the central office, or you may come up against unexpected opposition later on. It helps to have supporters in different parts of the school system.

With all this input, you will be able to develop a terrific plan, one that will work for the people who will implement it and one that has support where it is needed.

Get Formal Approval from Appropriate Administrators

Some plans need only the formal approval of the principal to be carried out. Others may need to be presented to the superintendent,

Figure 29. Negotiating Commitment

- ▶ Who will implement?
 - Name
 - Role
 - Grade
- ▶ What is their time commitment?
- ▶ How will the principal support implementers?
- ▶ What training will they get?
- ▶ What other support will they get?

school board, or other district administrator. Still others may need the approval of state education agency officials. You should think about the best way to present your plan for approval. This will depend on the role of the people involved, on their personal styles and preferences, and on what you are asking for. You may send a copy of the plan and offer to discuss it, schedule a meeting to discuss an outline you present at the meeting, or describe key points of the plan and follow up by sending the plan itself. Your presentation may be formal, with slides or overheads and handouts, or it may be extremely informal. Think strategically.

If you are asking for funding, you will need to know the state and organization of the budget and have a budget proposal for consideration and justification for each item. You will need to think about staff costs and materials, of course. But you should also think about funds for consultants, training, travel, and how staff time will be covered for extra work (stipends for summer or weekend work or workshops, substitutes to be released from class) and clerical support.

Identify Implementers

You have delineated in your plan what implementation includes. You will need to decide who will do it. Will everyone be an implementer? If not, will you seek volunteers or select people? Sometimes it is best to have at least one person per grade level; sometimes any volunteers are okay, and sometimes you want to ensure that some staff are included because they are especially good at the task or because they are highly regarded.

Develop specific agreements with pilot implementers that include what they are committing to do, for how long (preferably a year or what is left of it), and what kind of support they will get. An example of clarifying the implementor's commitment can be seen in figure 29.

Plan Evaluation

An essential part of planning the implementation of a new practice is planning how you will evaluate it. Don't wait until a year has gone by to figure out what evaluation data you need. Start now by revisiting or establishing objectives for the project in measurable terms. (You may want to reread "Setting Targets for Change" in Stage 1.) Ask yourselves what you want to accomplish -- by the end of the first year and in the long term. Then, consider what evidence of success you and others would find convincing and plan how you will get it.

Some person or group should be assigned responsibility for developing an evaluation plan and seeing that it is carried out. The plan should include two kinds of evaluation: evaluation of the implementation itself and evaluation of the outcomes, or in evaluator

talk, formative and summative evaluation. While you may want to hire a consultant to help you with some aspects of the evaluation, you should look for someone to work *with* you, not someone who will do the work. Evaluation should help people reflect about what they are doing and what they are learning as they do it. It should also help give you evidence about what you are accomplishing.

The evaluation plan should include the time and resources needed to carry out the kind of evaluation you want. It should include checkpoints, interim measures, and ways of assessing how people are feeling about the new practice. By identifying early what you will be looking for you can collect any baseline data you might need or want for future comparisons. You might want to assemble data about current practice -- e.g., actual or estimated numbers, the perceptions of various groups -- so you can later see what you have accomplished.

School Vignette

Governor Longley School, Lewiston, Maine Making a Decision

The team at the Governor Longley School had conducted a needs assessment and knew that they wanted a new curriculum or teaching strategy that would help their at-risk children learn to read. They were exploring several options when they heard that Robert Slavin of Johns Hopkins University would be speaking to a small group of people from the SPARK schools. The principal and two teachers came to the presentation and became interested in Slavin's newly developed program, Success for All (SFA), a language development program for the early grades. They liked what they heard and provided articles about the program to the faculty. There was general interest in exploring the possibility of using SFA in the school.

The principal and a master teacher went to Baltimore to see the project in action. They then invited one of the project developers to Lewiston to speak to the district staff, members of the school board, and others. There was a free exchange of ideas about the best ways to teach, including discussion of the whole language approach that the district was initiating. Finally, financial considerations led to a decision not to adopt the SFA program. But the Governor Longley staff decided to use several parts of the program: diagnostic tools, cross grade grouping, and coordinating Chapter 1 work closely with classroom teachers.

Careful exploration of a program does not always lead to a yes decision, but it does lead to a careful decision.

STAGE 4: MAKING CHANGE

Change doesn't just happen. People make it happen. Change in schools happens only when people give up old ways of doing things and start doing new things. This is never easy. You may change common practice: teaching strategies, curriculum, the school schedule, staffing arrangements. Or you may start new programs: a peer support group for failing students, parent involvement activities, collaboration with community agencies. Either way, change disrupts the familiar and makes things uncomfortable for a while. Restructuring a school involves making significant change, which usually means making many changes at once. You and your team will become jugglers -- starting some balls up in the air while catching others, keeping many things moving and not bumping into one another. You may choose to begin new activities as an experiment, with just a few volunteers or in just a few places, or you may begin full scale implementation of a new program or practice.

Implementation is the place where most change in schools fails. Either people -- after all their discussing and planning -- do not make any changes, or they start to implement some new practice, run up against numerous problems, and quit; or they make changes that are too little to make much difference. In this section we help you identify and avoid these problems.

In projects that maintain the regularities (staff, schedule, basic outline of the curriculum, etc.) and change only discrete pieces, the implementation phase may be clearer -- you decide to develop or adopt one or more innovations, then you implement (although nothing is *that* neat!). But in a serious school redesign effort, implementation will be messier. There will be fewer givens and more moving parts -- everything may be up in the air. You may experiment with numerous changes at once, which could involve starting new practices (such as grouping students in new ways or initiating new parent involvement activities) while developing staff skills (such as training all teachers in TESA, Teacher Expectations for Student Achievement). In such cases, each bundle of new practices can be considered an innovation and should be planned around.

This section begins with the first task of implementation -- describing what you are about to implement. We then discuss ways to provide two kinds of support for implementation: 1) support for the individual needs of the people doing the implementing and 2) attention to fitting the new practice into the organization. Finally, we look at implementation issues for each of the four parts of the kaleidoscope, the components of school change -- *classroom practice, policies and structures, student support strategies, and family and community involvement.*

DESCRIBING A NEW PRACTICE

While it may sound obvious or unnecessary to describe what you intend to implement, this step is often left undone, an omission that causes problems. Educators may say they are adopting school based management or cooperative learning or a new emphasis on parent involvement, but nobody defines exactly what those terms mean. Sometimes, the lack of definition allows people to develop their own definitions. But often, individuals or groups affected have different definitions in mind and may become angry or feel duped when they discover that their idea is not the same as someone else's. Whose version of cooperative learning are you adopting? What does a classroom using cooperative learning look like? What grouping, learning, and testing strategies will you use? By describing what is

expected, everyone will share the same definition (or at least know what definition is operable) and the same expectations.

At some point, either while planning implementation or early in the implementation process, you should define as clearly as you can, *in writing*, the essential elements of your new program. Think of each part of your change effort, then of the components of that part. It might help to think of how the new practices are different from what you have been doing. It might be important to write down the underlying principles of the new approach. It will definitely be important to describe the practice as it looks in action, as well as related activities.

If you are adopting a developed program, many of the details should be available to you. You will want to note where you are making changes from the original, either only using certain parts of a program or adapting a particular part and how. If you are developing your own program, write down all the specifics you can think of, and recognize that your list of essential elements may not be complete.

Two of our colleagues have developed a concept called the Practice Profile (Loucks & Crandall 1982), one feature of which is a Component Checklist (see figure 30) that requires identifying the essential components of

Figure 30. Component Checklist for Assessing Classroom Equity

Component	Ideal Variation	Acceptable Variation	Unacceptable Variation
Physical Environment	Teacher visually portrays males and females in both traditional and non-traditional roles, and includes representatives of various races and cultures in pictorial displays.	Teacher provides neutral visual images in pictorial displays.	Teacher visually portrays people only in roles traditional for their race, sex, or culture. Teacher portrays only one sex, race, or culture in visual displays. Teacher's visual displays portray sex, race, or ethnic stereotypes.
Curriculum	Teacher's classroom activities are multi-cultural and sex fair. The teacher includes classroom lessons to increase awareness and counter the past effects of bias and discrimination.	Teacher's classroom activities are multi-cultural and sex fair.	Teacher does not include the contributions of women or minorities. Teacher presents stereotyped views of groups of people.
Language	Teacher uses inclusionary terms for people in all written and oral communication. Teacher works with students to help them develop inclusionary language forms and encourages all students to use those terms in their own communications. Teacher discusses the negative impact of the use of derogatory terms in reference to race, sex, or ethnic groups.	Teacher uses inclusionary terms for people in all written and oral communication.	Teacher uses derogatory terms in reference to any race, sex, or ethnic group. Teacher repeatedly uses sex-limited language. Teacher repeatedly mispronounces student names. Teacher allows students to use derogatory terms in reference to any race, sex, or ethnic group.
Teacher Attention	Teacher provides the same amount of teaching attention to all students, with individual differences based on the student's need and style. Teacher directs the classroom discussion so as to enable all students to participate.		Teacher provides student-attention based on 'gender', race, sex, or nation of origin. Teacher allows a student or group of students to dominate the class.

Excerpt from "Measuring Equity in Education" in *Equity and Excellence* (1986). Reprinted with permission.

each practice, then developing short and specific descriptions of the component in its ideal, acceptable, and unacceptable states. The ideal offers a goal to strive toward, even though not everyone may achieve it, especially at the beginning of use. The unacceptable provides the contrast of practice that is incompatible with the underlying principles of the program.

As you think about describing your new practice or program, you may want to think about the following:

- **WHAT** -- What activities make up this practice? What are people doing? What materials, space, etc., are critical to these activities?
- **HOW** -- How are the activities best carried out? What philosophy or approach is important? How does this approach show itself? How will results be measured?
- **WHO** -- Who are the key people to carry out the activities and who are the key targets of the activities? What are they doing?
- **WHEN** -- How often and for how long is the new practice expected to be carried out? Is time of day important?

These elements may not all apply to all practices, nor are they comprehensive. However, they may help you begin to describe explicitly the pieces and parts of your new program.

The Component Checklist can be used to describe something as concrete as a new curriculum or as intangible as an "equitable classroom." (We have used it for both.) It can be used to make expectations clear, to monitor and support implementation, and to conduct research on the program. The important thing is to identify all the component parts of a program and the specific essential elements for each component. In addition to figure 30, the section of text called "Special Implementation Considerations" gives more example of elements for each of our four major components of school change.

SUPPORTING IMPLEMENTATION

For each significant new strategy (practice, program, policy) you choose to implement, people will have concerns. When people express concerns about trying something new, they are sometimes labelled "resistant." Some people will oppose new practices just because they are new; some will oppose a particular new practice because they do not think it is a good idea or, because it is against their values or beliefs. It is important to recognize that nearly all people -- both those who voice opposition and those who don't --

have concerns about doing new things or doing things in new ways. It is natural and normal to have these concerns, and people should be supported to resolve their concerns.

In addition to the needs of the individuals involved in implementation, the organization itself needs to attend to incorporating something new into itself. It is a rare new practice that easily fits into the old organization -- remember the Biblical adage about not putting new wine into old wineskins. It is definitely possible to fit new practices into old organizations, but it takes attention and care to do so.

Support for Individuals

When people start to do things differently they progress through recognizable and predictable levels of use over time, and at each level they experience different concerns. This is the heart of the Concerns Based Adoption Model (CBAM), developed at the University of Texas at Austin over ten years ago and corroborated in numerous research studies in different settings since then. (See figure 31.)

When individuals first learn about a new practice that they

consider using, they have informational and personal concerns. They want to know what the practice is and what it involves for them. They wonder, "How will this new practice affect me?" "Will I be able to do it?" "Do I want to do it?"

As they begin to use any new practice, they struggle with how it works and with the details of its logistics. These management concerns include, "How can I organize myself to do this new thing?" and "Why does everything take so much time?" Only after they have mastered these concerns can they begin to deal with the impact of the new practice and with how to make it more effective. Teachers implementing a new classroom practice usually experience management concerns for at least a year.

We have found that the Concerns Based Adoption Model applies to all new practices from experiential education to becoming a new parent! CBAM can help you provide appropriate support to implementers

Figure 31. Stages of Concern about the Innovation

- 6 **REFOCUSING:** Concerns focus on exploration of more universal benefits from the innovation, including the possibility of major changes or replacement with a more powerful alternative. Individual has definite ideas about alternatives to the proposed or existing form of the innovation.
- 5 **COLLABORATION:** Concerns focus on coordination and cooperation with others in use of the innovation in order to better meet the needs of students.
- 4 **CONSEQUENCE:** Concerns focus on the impact of the innovation on students in his or her immediate sphere of influence. The focus is on relevance of the innovation for students, evaluation of student outcomes, and changes needed to increase student outcomes.
- 3 **MANAGEMENT:** Concerns focus on the processes and tasks of using the innovation and the best use of information and resources. Issues related to efficiency, organization, management, scheduling, and time are utmost.
- 2 **PERSONAL:** The individual is uncertain about the demands of the innovation, his or her inadequacy to meet those demands, and his or her role with the innovation. Concerns focus on his or her role in relation to the reward structure of the organization, decisionmaking, and consideration of potential conflicts with existing structures or personal commitment. Concerns about financial or status implications of the program for self and colleagues may also be reflected.
- 1 **INFORMATIONAL:** Concerns focus on getting general awareness of the innovation and learning more detail about it. The individual is interested in qualitative aspects of the innovation such as general characteristics, effects, and requirements for use.
- 0 **AWARENESS:** There is little concern about or involvement with the innovation.

Original concept from Hall, Wallace, and Dossett (1973), as it appears in Loucks-Horsley and Steigelbauer (in press).

through all the stages of concerns. That means that school administrators and change leaders need to provide encouragement and "how-to" training in the beginning, provide tangible help for implementers when they are struggling with management concerns, and set up ongoing support systems to support users as they strive for greater impact on student learning.

Most important, it means providing time and funds for ongoing staff development that includes training, coaching, and various kinds of consultation for problem solving. We cannot stress enough how important it is to provide these kinds of staff development opportunities and to provide them *over time* -- for at least a year after a new practice is introduced. Too many districts budget staff development money for trainers only at the beginning of implementation and set aside no funds for consultants or others to help later on, when implementers are experiencing management concerns. Even worse are districts and schools that initiate new programs with no provision for staff development and support. Below we offer an ideal schedule for providing workshops and help, followed by suggestions for acceptable lower cost ways to do each.

1. Short information session -- for all staff, even if only some will be engaged in implementation, a one- to two-hour session describing the new practice and answering questions. This session should provide the answers to people's information concerns, while being sensitive to their personal concerns. That means anticipating their questions both about the practice and how it will be implemented and supported in your school. Ideally the session should be conducted by both an expert in the program, its developer or representative, and a local administrator, either the principal or another responsible administrator who can answer questions about how it will happen here.
2. Initial training -- for those people who will be implementing the new practice, emphasizing what to do and how to do it rather than grand concepts and theories. Participants should leave this training knowing what they should do on Monday, or whenever they are to begin the new practice. Training time depends on the practice; most packaged programs have developed a training approach and schedule that covers what they deem necessary. If you are implementing practices that have limited or no well-developed training, you should expand what is available and/or develop your own training to help implementers get started.
3. Coaching and problem solving sessions -- for implementers, held periodically with consultants or others knowledgeable about the practice. As implementers spend time implementing the new practice, they will need help in making the practice their own, in doing something new that is difficult, in dealing

with a problem never mentioned in training. Individual coaching sessions with an experienced practitioner or problem solving sessions led by skilled and experienced practitioners are invaluable techniques to help the novice practice new skills and resolve management concerns. The ideal is to schedule such sessions regularly throughout the first school year, with time for the expert to visit classrooms and observe teachers.

4. Peer support groups -- for implementers to get together to discuss what they are doing, to coordinate their work or share strategies, and to identify common problems for an expert consultant or the administration to deal with. Peer support groups can be helpful at any time in the implementation process. When they are used with new implementers, it is essential that participants have access to concrete help, whether by an expert in the new practice or by administrators who can provide answers or resources. Without more knowledgeable help, support groups of novices can result in "shared ignorance" or gripe sessions. Later, as implementers become more comfortable and skilled with the innovation, peer support groups can meet on their own, generating and sharing their own solutions.
5. Follow-up training -- for implementers, answering their implementation concerns and introducing new concepts, underlying principles, or additional elements of the program. Follow-up training should be scheduled in the middle of the first year of implementation.

Ideally, training sessions and consultation should be provided by an expert consultant (who can be an experienced teacher) who is thoroughly knowledgeable about the program and how it works in practice, one who can answer any "how to" or "what if" questions and who also understands the underlying philosophy and conceptual basis of the program. The trainer should be credible and should emphasize the practical. Ideally, too, implementers should be given sufficient time to learn, plan, and get the support they need for effective implementation.

But even if funds are short, there are creative ways to provide all of the above support activities throughout the first year of implementation. Below are some lower cost alternatives we have seen:

1. An information session provided by an administrator or staff member who has become knowledgeable about the program and who can tell how it will be implemented in this school; when questions are asked that the local expert cannot answer, she or he can research the answer by calling the developer or reading material and reporting the answers to people later.

Figure 32. Combining Implementation Support with Reflection

Group sessions are ideal for gathering data for evaluation. They often reveal the number and type of critical incidents and concerns. And they are opportunities for reflection.

Recording concerns or issues that come up provides a record against which to measure progress.

Ask questions that remind implementers of their purpose, and help them look ahead to the future.

2. Initial training provided by a local experienced implementer from another district or school, who should be less expensive than an outside consultant, or by a *pair* (not a single person) of experienced, trusted, and previously trained staff who have had sufficient time to use the new practice to be comfortable with it and to have worked out some kinks.
3. Consultation for coaching and problem solving provided by a more experienced user of the practice, or by telephone with an expert, or by an experienced district-level administrator.
4. Time for peer support groups provided by arranging schedules so that teachers can get together or by hiring substitutes to release teachers at the same time. It is essential that teachers have the opportunity to get together and share their experiences during implementation of any new practice.
5. Follow-up training provided by many of the suggestions above.

The activities and timelines we suggest above are just that -- suggestions. The best way to find out people's concerns is to ask them. Some member of your team could be responsible for interviewing or surveying implementing teachers two or three times in the first year by simply asking, "What are you concerned about relative to _____ (the innovation)?" and "What help could you use right now?" The answers to these questions will tell you a lot about the kinds of staff development activities to provide as well as other kinds of support implementers need. Group sessions can also be used to gather information. As figure 32 suggests, use such sessions not only to support implementation, but to encourage reflection and to gather data for evaluation.

For in addition to training and staff development, people implementing new practices need various kinds of support from administrators or from your leadership team. One person, or a group of people, should be responsible for "monitoring" the implementation, not in a punitive way but to keep tabs on how things are going, provide an encouraging word now and then, identify potential problem areas, and resolve small problems as quickly as possible. For example, one team member might visit implementers' classrooms from time to time (making sure to be helpful and non-judgmental) or chat informally with them to see how things are going with the new practice. Or the principal might schedule periodic meetings with the new parent coordinator to hear about what is happening or being planned, and to discuss and resolve problems.

Implementers should also be protected from extra demands for a while, they should be allowed to complain (a certain amount!) and receive sympathy, and they should be celebrated when things go right. School leaders should make it clear to everyone that this experiment is important and that the extra efforts of implementers are appreciated.

Fitting the Practice into the Organization

Beyond providing implementers with the support they need for doing new things and keeping at it, someone must pay attention to how the new practice will fit into the school and the district. In most schools this responsibility is the principal's, but depending on the focus of change, it could become the job of the team leader or other designated leader. Even though your team probably did some of this work while planning implementation, it is worth examining this area when you are in the middle of implementation. People and circumstances change, and new practices often have unintended or unanticipated consequences. Remember that almost any new practice of any significance will affect more people than just the implementers.

An important first step in beginning to ensure that a new practice becomes part of the organization is to communicate about it. It will help to think about:

- who needs to know about what you're doing and how things are going;
- whose schedule or plans might be affected by what you are doing;
- who needs to approve or support what you are doing.

Here are some examples of people to consider:

- *District Administrators*, including the superintendent, should be kept informed of how the implementation is going. They need to know in order to represent it well to their constituencies; they will not be happy if they hear about a problem or concern first from a parent or school board member. Also, you need their general support in case you later want to ask for something (an increased budget, a waiver from some regulation). If state officials (e.g., Chapter 1, special education) are involved in your plans, they will also need to be kept informed, through informal contacts as well as formal reports you will be asked to file. When thinking about district or state officials, think about how best to keep them up to date: when and how often to update them, whether to talk informally or send written memos. Your decision should take into account the personal styles and preferences of the people involved, the norms of the organizations, and your purpose.
- *Non-implementers in your building*, if any, are often forgotten in the attention needed by the implementers. Those teachers and other staff who are not involved in the new practice need to be kept informed too. They may hear rumors, which may

be incomplete or even false. You want everyone to hear the true story, because you want their support, if only to tell a positive story outside the school. If you are implementing a pilot program, you want other staff to develop interest in participating later. Consider whether to schedule periodic reports from implementers at staff meetings, with time for them to answer questions, or to send a regular written update to staff about activities. It is also vitally important to provide time and mechanisms to share non-implementer problems and resolve them.

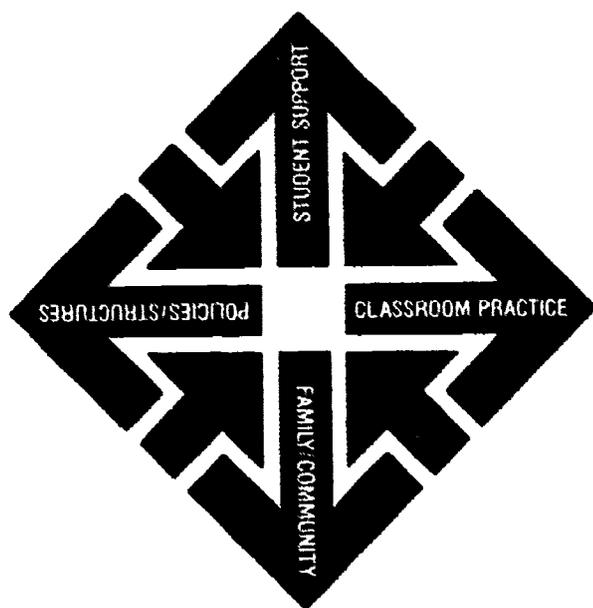
- *Selected people in other parts of the district* might help solve problems or just be supportive. Examples are staff development coordinators, Chapter 1 or bilingual education staff, people in other buildings doing similar work (principals, social workers, parent coordinators).
- *Parents and community members* need to be informed periodically about how things are going. Again, depending on how big or controversial the new practice is, strategic choices must be made about how and when is best to do this. Consider having an information session, demonstration, or report by participants at a parents' open house, or sending a written report home. You will need to decide whether, when, and how to inform the local media -- media coverage can be a boost to staff and community morale or a major headache (when it calls too much attention to the school too soon, or when it attracts opposition).

But communication is not enough. It is also important for leaders to ensure coordination with other parts of the organization. Coordination requires that you know what is going on in other parts of the school, district, and/or community so that you can anticipate and avoid or respond to clashes. Sometimes non-implementers are affected by a practice in ways that you did not anticipate, for example a school adopts a block schedule for basic skills that causes problems for the specialists' schedules. Or a school or district initiates new practices in several areas that conflict with each other. Sometimes practices cross over the turf of two or more programs and administrators. The leadership team needs to know about these problems and negotiate solutions.

A third leadership function is building political support. This involves knowing your school system, thinking strategically, and negotiating agreements. It is not enough to secure administrative approvals at the start of a project. You will need to ensure that you continue to have both administrative support as well as a broad base of active or quiet supporters. In most communities administrators, school board members, and professional association leaders are people whose ongoing support is needed. In some communities various other groups have clout and special concerns to attend to.

Heterogeneous grouping has been blocked in more than one community by parents of "gifted" or honors students. Hispanic parents may be an organized group who will support a particular program and advocate for it. Know your community and build the support you need.

SPECIAL CONSIDERATIONS



Each of the four major components of change -- classroom practice, policies and structures, student support strategies, and family and community involvement -- is different and will require different implementation considerations. Below we identify some special considerations for each component by suggesting a set of more specific elements within each as well as some resource and fit problems.

Classroom Practice

Classroom practice will always include the same set of elements but their character and relative importance will differ from program to program. Elements will nearly always include the following:

- content or curriculum
- learning activities
- grouping of students
- materials
- use of time
- role of the teacher
- role of the student
- measurement of learning

A considerable number of defined and developed classroom practice programs are available. Therefore, you can identify your criteria and needs and seek those programs that best suit them. Often, program developers have designed a training and support plan and can identify qualified trainers. In addition, you will probably be able to find schools that are using any program you are considering. Adopters of a program are an extremely valuable resource: teachers, principals, and others in adopting schools can give you the kind of practical and specific help you most need in the beginning of implementation. It is extremely helpful to see a program in action and to talk to other teachers and administrators about how to use it. Even if you cannot find a school near enough to visit, you can call and talk to principals and teachers. By checking around, using your own sources and the resources in the Appendices, you should be able to find schools using any of the practices described in this book.

Problems with fit show up when programs compete for scarce resources, especially time and money. In addition, pay special attention to classroom practices that involve coordination between programs such as special education, Chapter 1, dropout prevention. Each of these areas will have its own staff, regulations, and ways of doing things. Implementing something new across programs may require negotiating to reach consensus on areas of differences.

Policies and Structures

Policies and structures are like empty vessels that may or may not be filled by new practices. Changing policies and structures requires major effort; it is often time and energy consuming, but when achieved, it can feel like a major accomplishment. However, no policy or structure change is enough by itself. In order to affect students and faculty in significant ways, policy and structural changes must be translated into changes in behaviors and practices.

A suspension policy aimed at keeping students in school, for example, will keep more disruptive students in school. What are you going to do with them? Probably teachers and other staff will need training in alternative discipline methods, and the school may also need some kind of in-school suspension program.

Changing a large high school into houses with groups of students and teachers is a good idea for creating smaller communities. But for those communities to be closer knit and to mean something, people need to do things differently. Will there be time in the schedule for students to interact with teachers? For teachers to interact with each other? What will they do with that time? Will classes operate differently?

The elements to consider in working for a policy or structural change involve thinking about the practices and programs that will be needed to help people to change their behaviors, to fill the "empty vessel" with meaningful change. Resources and issues of fit will depend on the practices initiated to enact the policy and fill in the structure. Thus, changing the policy or structure will probably be only a first step that requires other steps to make it meaningful.

Student Support Strategies

Elements of student support strategies are somewhat like classroom practices. You can think about the following:

- activities
- student role, adult role
- time -- when, how often, how long
- space, materials
- philosophy or approach
- how success will be measured

For most of the student support strategies discussed in Stage 2: Exploring Options for Change, you will find some programs that have been well defined and "packaged" and many others that have not been. In this arena, you will want to be careful to find the strategy that best suits your philosophy and values, as well as your setting, whether it is well packaged or not. Spend some time defining the important elements of whatever strategy you select.

You will need to figure out how to prepare the staff who will implement the strategy. If trainers or consultants are available, great! But trainers may be hard to find. If you have trouble finding trainers or consultants, try to find people who have implemented a similar strategy to talk through with your staff how they introduced the strategy, what kinds of problems they encountered, and how they resolved problems. If you are starting a support group for troubled teens, for example, the group leaders may benefit from training on group counseling and facilitation, even if that training is not part of a packaged program. You should certainly visit schools using strategies you are interested in to talk to people using them. You will get invaluable information, even if it's how *not* to start. Your implementers should also read articles and meet to discuss how to begin and what kind of support they need.

Community agencies may be an excellent source of programs, trainers, and other help. Your state education agency and the agencies listed in Appendix C may be able to refer you to consultants. Even more helpful for these particular strategies might be social service agencies or state agencies overseeing youth, welfare, or other human services. Social workers may be the best resource people for this kind of program. Ask around or interview potential consultants to see if they take the approach you want, have people skills, and are good trainers.

Family and Community Involvement

This is another area, like Student Support Strategies, where specific programs are rare but practices abound. A few programs like TIPS (see Figure 24, Stage 2) have trainers and materials, but mostly you will find ideas and activities in bits and pieces (in other schools, in articles) that you will have to stitch together into your own patchwork quilt. Elements include:

- staff roles -- for the principal, teachers, and others;
- purpose -- build community, give extra help to children;
- kinds of activities -- adult, adult-student, social, educational;
- expectations and agreements -- for both staff and community;
- frequency;
- monitoring and support.

Some schools we worked with found it helpful to begin with a workshop for faculty and parents emphasizing family involvement, then worked in small groups for the rest of the year planning and

carrying out various activities. Some combined family and community involvement by working with community advocacy groups to involve family members in different ways.

You will need to think through how your staff will be involved in these activities, what will constitute significantly new behavior for them, and what kind of help they may need.

School Vignette

Curiale School, Bridgeport, Connecticut Supporting Change through Communication

When Bridgeport received a grant from the Annie B. Casey Foundation, the Curiale School, a large school that serves both elementary and middle level students, got some of the money to start after-school programs for its middle grade students. Soon a flurry of programs had begun: tutoring, crafts, first aid, sports. The principal appointed one teacher, a former police officer, to coordinate the program; teachers were hired to provide the programs.

But the faculty who were not involved were never quite sure about what was going on. So much attention went into getting the new programs started that the regular faculty was left in the dark for awhile. And the school itself was so crowded, there wasn't even a teachers' room or mailboxes for teachers to share information.

The management team decided that a mechanism to facilitate communication was a necessary first step to get the faculty involved and keep information flowing. A central area was designated for staff mailboxes and one team member built them. Now the team sees that all staff are kept informed about school activities through regular notices and a monthly calendar of special events.

STAGE 5: CONTINUING TO CHANGE

When you reach this stage in your process of change, it may not feel like a separate stage at all. Rather, you will reach a point in implementing a new practice or set of practices when you will want and need to assess whether these practices are having the positive impact you intended. If they are, you'll need to integrate them into your ongoing system. In most comprehensive school change efforts, many things will be going on at once, all in different stages of development: you will be starting one project, assessing another begun earlier, and setting up a task force to begin planning a third.

This section encourages you to reflect on the changes you have made. It includes three parts:

- Evaluation -- assessing the changes, whether they are working and have potential for achieving the student impact needed
- Institutionalization -- making sure things that work "stick" or become part of the fabric of your school system
- Moving On -- recycling to other change elements and making changes in other parts of the school.

EVALUATION

We have seen many schools put so much energy into the front end of the change process, or get so excited by the new levels of people involvement, that they never look at whether the new practice has made any difference for the students or achieved the goals they wanted to achieve. On the other hand, we have seen people in many schools and communities expect to see student learning increase dramatically in a year, and be disappointed or angry when it doesn't.

Increased student learning is a long-term goal that will not happen overnight. It will not happen at all without direct intervention with students. While this may sound obvious, we often do things that don't directly link with the outcomes we want for a variety of reasons. For example, many educators think that if parents become more involved in school, students' test scores will go up, or that if students' attendance improves, their test scores will go up. While both parent involvement and school attendance are important, neither *by itself* will result in increased test scores. Sometimes, even when implementing a new teaching practice, test scores will not go up in the first year, and may even go down as teachers and students adjust to the new practice. Moreover, test scores are not always the best measure of student learning.

While better student learning is the ultimate goal of your team's change efforts, you may be implementing many new practices that do not have a direct impact on student learning. They may set a more positive climate, support teachers' development, or enhance coordination, to name a few alternative positive outcomes. Each of the four components of change proposed in this book, and each strategy within them, will have its own goals and outcomes and will need to be evaluated differently.

This section is not a primer on evaluation -- there are already many good resources on evaluation (see Appendix B: References). But we do suggest some approaches to consider in evaluating the changes you make. They include evaluating implementation before impact, collecting multiple data, and reporting evaluation findings to appropriate groups.

You may be asking if it is important to do an evaluation, even if you don't have to. The answer is YES. You and others in your school are putting a great deal of time and energy into making changes. You need and want to know whether the change was worth the cost. So the first audience for the evaluation is you and others involved in making the changes. The second important audience for evaluations are those to whom you are accountable -- administrators, school board members, parents, and other taxpayers and clients. They need to know what progress is being made, what positive outcomes there are, what learnings are coming about. You and they need to know first how things are working, then later if the new practice works.

Implementation Evaluation First

It is important to begin by evaluating the implementation of the new practice -- How are things working? -- before trying to evaluate its impact. That is, you will need to know whether and to what extent the change has actually been made. One way to do this is to make and use a Component Checklist as described in Stage 4 (see figure 30). Using such a checklist, you can see which aspects of the practice or set of practices are actually being used by those responsible for implementing it, and which are not. Let us say that a key component of your new Family Involvement Program is for family members to help students with their homework. You interview teachers and a sample of parents and ask to review homework assignments. You find that either teachers have not been sending instructions home with children or that parents have not been completing their part of the assignments: the program has not been fully implemented. You will need to address the problem of how to get people to actually participate before you try to evaluate the new practice to see whether it has improved students' homework.

For the first year of a new practice it is best to evaluate only implementation, if you can. This kind of evaluation is related to monitoring and supporting implementation, as we discussed in Stage 4. You can do this in several ways: by interviewing those involved -- staff, students, parents; by observing and documenting classes, programs, or activities; or by sending brief written surveys to staff and others who would be useful informants.

Once you know what people are doing and not doing, what elements they are comfortable with and which they are struggling with, you will be able to help them implement the new practice better. You will also know what is going on and can report to those who need to hear reports. Reports can mean telling stories that indicate something new is going on that has potential for important change; reports can mean formal updates to a group or decision maker.

Figure 33. Questions for Evaluation

- ▶ What is the purpose of your evaluation?
- ▶ What do you want to know?
- ▶ How will your new practice get you to where you want to be?
- ▶ Where do you need to look for answers?
- ▶ What do you need to do?
- ▶ How are you going to use what you learn?

Impact Evaluation

At some point when people are implementing most of a new practice or practices, you will want to know whether the changes they have made are achieving the results you hoped for. The question you will be asking is: What impact is the new practice or set of practices having on the target audience? To find out you will need first to review the goals you set in choosing what practices to implement. If you have not already done so, you will also need to select ways to measure the attainment, or progress toward attainment, of those goals (see figure 33).

Usually, two kinds of impact are possible: impact on the school and impact on the students. You should strive for both. Impact on the school may mean that something new is going on, that teacher

morale or communication has improved or that a new schedule is in place. Impact on the students (or other target audience) is harder to obtain and even harder to measure. We suggest that you use a combination of data sources to try to find out what impact the new practice is having at both the individual and organizational levels.

In the area of *Classroom Practice*, you will need to find ways to assess student learning, a difficult task that we will not attempt to deal with here. We do encourage you to supplement the standardized tests you will probably use with other ways of assessing student learning, to be "community savvy" about what you need to do about standardized tests, and to assess students' attitudes toward the changes in the classroom. Most of the developers of the classroom practices we describe in this book can provide suggestions about ways to evaluate.

We also suggest that you consider using other assessment measures -- in addition to standardized tests -- include interviewing students about their attitude toward school and collecting stories of critical incidents or turning points for them. Similarly, you can interview teachers to hear their stories and vignettes about successes or problems and obtain their assessment of the new practice and its potential.

In the areas of *Student Support Strategies* and *Family and Community Involvement*, there are several things to assess: participation rates, satisfaction of staff and participants, and results. How many students participate in or have indicated an interest in the new Peer Mediation program? Do staff and/or students think it is having a positive effect and what kind? Have student conflicts been reduced or been more quickly or satisfactorily resolved? Have parents' attitudes about the school changed? What do parents think about their involvement in their child's schooling?

Assessing Policies and Structures requires also assessing the practices you adopted to implement them. If, for example, your policy was to reduce tracking and increase heterogeneity in classrooms, you may be able to assess whether classrooms are more heterogeneous than they were before, and even whether groups within classrooms are more heterogeneous. But, without assessing classroom practice, it will be hard to say whether the new grouping itself had any positive or negative impact on students.

As you begin to implement any new practice, you should collect data to show your starting point or baseline. You may have done this earlier in assessing your current situation, but you may not have done it for each practice. For example, for a new Family Involvement Program, list all the kinds of involvement you had previously (open houses, parent conferences, concerts, committees, etc.) and list the number of participants for each; if you didn't keep track of these numbers before, approximate (for example, see figure 34). If you are trying to increase the number of people involved in school activities, develop ways to collect numbers this year. If you are trying to change the type of family involvement, figure out how

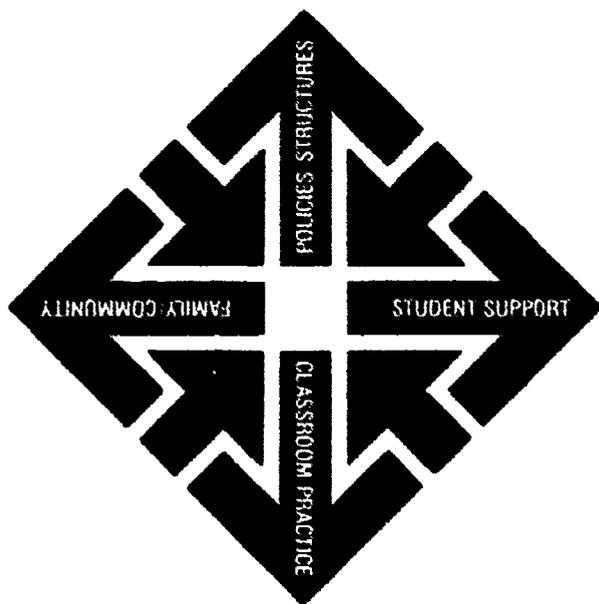


Figure 34. Sample Tally Sheet To Track Progress

Family Involvement Program			
type of activity	est. no. participants last year	no. participants this year	
open house	250	316	
parent conferences	300	312	
concerts	200	247	
committees	20	55	

to show that while numbers may not have increased, the depth or significance of the involvement has.

You want to collect information that will convince people that your efforts have been worthwhile. Often, we think about giving a report to a funding source, or convincing the school board or district administration that time and funds have been well spent. But it may be yourselves more than anyone else who need to see the change and its impact. You have been working hard to achieve something. Change comes slowly and it is rare to reach your goals. It is important to have a record of where you were to begin with, so you can see how far you have come.

INSTITUTIONALIZATION

This word does not mean you should enter an institution at this stage, although you may feel you need it! Rather it means planning -- planning to keep those practices that are working well and achieving the results you want. Saxl (1989) describes it as "incorporating a change into the school structure so that it remains a stable element in the school's daily operation."

Considerable research over the past 15 years has shown that even when a new practice works well it won't automatically continue in a school without conscious effort. Moreover, it is worth making a deliberate decision that *this* practice is one you want to keep. Yes, we do intend to imply here that you should discard some new practices -- those that don't work for you, those that cause unintended negative consequences, those that are too much trouble for the results they yield.

Continuing a successful program in the school involves several different things. It means making a decision about how the program will be maintained. Newness fades, priorities change, and attention wanes. You will need to think carefully about what this practice needs in order to survive and thrive. Needs may include: staff assignments, training for newly hired staff, time in the schedule, materials and supplies, space in the building. You will need to negotiate for these essentials and figure out how to make the program permanent.

In planning for staff needs, you will want to consider questions like the following: Will the current implementers continue, and if so, for how long? Will use of the program be expanded to all staff in the building, and how? Will it be mandated or will there be a new round of volunteers? How will you train and prepare new implementers, new staff? Who will be responsible for overseeing the practice?

In a small school, the principal probably has been and will continue to be the person responsible for oversight and management. But in a high school where a practice has been started by one

person or a group of people, someone will need to think about the best permanent "home" for the practice and negotiate carefully with the appropriate administrators. For example, a dropout prevention coordinator may have started a student support group and has shown that it is effective. Now may be the time to make it a regular part of the counseling program.

Time and money are two big factors in maintaining a new practice. Sometimes an outside agency (a business, foundation, or government agency) has funded a new program; sometimes, the local district has supported a special project. Where will the support to continue it come from? At a minimum, time for the practice will need to be set aside -- and you'll need to determine how much time is needed and where it fits in the schedule.

You'll also need to know if the program requires funds for materials, supplies, or training in addition to supporting peoples' time.

Last, and most important, is administrative attention and support. As a practice becomes less new and more "the way we do things here," it will require less attention. Nevertheless, if it is not seen as important by administrators, or at least by a few key people, it will not be planned into the budget or planned around when the *new* program is introduced. If the program is working well and producing the results your school needs, it should receive the support it needs, minimal though that may be, in order to stay alive.

MOVING ON

As one practice succeeds or at least gains steady legs, you will see other things that need changing. You will realize that students can do even more, or that a policy change requires support strategies, or that it is time to take on a new challenge. You may decide to start all over again at the beginning of this book -- diagnosing needs in a new area of the school, reviewing alternative solutions, choosing and implementing some, evaluating and maintaining those that work best. The challenge never ends, as schools need to be ever-learning, ever-changing, ever-growing entities. Each school needs to find its own cycle of comfort with change, allowing for plateaus of relative stability before the next change effort, and it is up to sensitive educational leaders to keep in touch with the school's need in this regard and to manage the cycle of change and stability. But the school that is constantly examining itself, and changing in response to changing student and teacher needs, is a learning and growing community.

School Vignette

A Fictional School Continuing To Change

The Harriet Tubman Middle School had had an exciting time for the past five years. They had eliminated all pull-out and separate programs, except bilingual education, and initiated heterogeneous grouping for all students (including special education students). To support this major change, they had trained all teachers in cooperative learning techniques, worked with the community to develop and adopt a major curriculum innovation that infused African content into the curriculum, introduced a buddy system for immigrant students and newcomers from Puerto Rico (who make up about 25% of their student population), and initiated a now highly acclaimed transition program to help students prepare for high school. They had introduced each new program thoughtfully, with the help of task forces of teachers and parents. For the past year, they had been assessing their innovations, and they knew that the ones mentioned worked for their students. A few other things had been started and dropped, but these worked. Teachers were happy with the way students were learning, and both students and teachers showed a new excitement for school.

Having spent a year assessing where they were and running teacher renewal groups to refine the curriculum and their use of cooperative learning, the management team felt they were ready for a new challenge. They decided to try two new things: to give all students the opportunity to learn a second language and to set a goal of 100% parent involvement. They knew that the two goals would relate to each other: they would need the support of both the Hispanic parents who were predominantly in the bilingual education classes and the African American parents who made up about 70% of the school community. Since many of the parents in the Tubman community were poor and worked two jobs or took care of small children, they knew that they had to redefine parent involvement so that all their parents COULD contribute something. They also knew that they had a hard job ahead. But they felt confident that, with the help of all the members of the school community, they could do it – because Tubman was a community now.

They started to make their new plans . . .

EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

by Kenneth P. Counselman

Wheelock College

Board Member: New England, Massachusetts, and Boston Chapters of the National Association for the Education of Young Children

I am confident that any school restructuring team will recognize the years before a child enters kindergarten as a period crucial to the child's development. Children's experiences in those early years will have a direct impact on your school's ability to achieve your goals. The fictional Harriet Tubman Middle School described at the conclusion of Stage 5 obtained support from parents and the community, in part, through an organized program that prepared students for the transition to high school. Similarly, by becoming advocates of early childhood education, an elementary school team can support the transition of very young children to the public school kindergarten. Such an effort could help create a cadre of parents committed to school and community involvement and a group of children open to learning and therefore at less risk of later school and social failure.

Early childhood educators have long been concerned with those elements of a child's life that traditionally have been outside the boundaries of a typical elementary school day. By concentrating on children's social, emotional, and physical -- as well as intellectual -- development, early childhood educators have created programs that incorporate the principles outlined earlier in this guidebook. These include the belief that all children can learn and have the right to receive the attention and respect they deserve. In addition, this book has pointed out that all schools should value diversity, be cohesive and coordinated, and reflect the best values of the community. Finally, one finds in these pages the insistence that everyone who has a stake in the success of an individual child has the right to be involved in educational decision making on that child's behalf.

Beliefs of Early Childhood Educators

The developmentalist approach to education used by early educators is expressly dedicated to these same principles. We believe that *all* children progress through specific cognitive stages and that it is the function of the adult to make sure that this progress is successful and meaningful for each child.

In high quality early childhood settings, all adults respond quickly and directly to a child's needs, desires, and messages, varying their responses according to the child's individual style and ability. In addition, quality programs provide a setting in which the "range of appropriate behaviors, activities, and materials for a specific age

group" is matched with an understanding of individual growth patterns, strengths, interests, and experiences. This attention to developmental appropriateness guides all of our work with young children and provides a structure for us to truly integrate our work in reaching the "whole" child (Bredekamp 1986).

Bredekamp presents specific examples of developmentally appropriate practice (as well as inappropriate practice) for clusters of ages from birth through age 8. Practices are grouped according to teaching strategies, integrated curriculum, guidance of social-emotional development, evaluation, grouping and staffing, as well as other categories.

Good early childhood educators celebrate individual differences and major cultural contributions and recognize society as a complex tapestry of many diverse traditions. Parental and community involvement and support are essential to the very existence of many programs, and we cherish their input.

Good pre-Kindergarten programs recognize the developmental needs of three and four year olds. They do not push children to read or learn numbers before they are ready but they do prepare children for learning in school. Children need concrete experiences before they are ready for abstract learning. Good pre-school programs provide a rich environment that stimulates the child's senses and learning, emphasizes play and manipulative activity, and follows the child's interests.

"Children making soup, for example, are learning the names of the vegetables (vocabulary), the shapes of the vegetables (geometry), the weights of the ingredients (math), and the effect of heating up the contents (science) -- not to mention social cooperation in making and enjoying a consumable product" (Elkind 1988).

David Weikart (1989) of the High/Scope Educational Research Foundation has defined high quality, effective early childhood programs as having the following characteristics:

- a clearly stated curriculum featuring child-initiated activities;
- , at least two adults for each group of sixteen to twenty preschool children;
- a well-educated early childhood staff engaged in continuing training and curriculum examination and refinement;
- effective observation procedures; and
- the active involvement of parents and good administrative backup.

Practical Applications

Early childhood programs share with elementary schools an awareness of the difficulty of putting these developmental principles into practice. Consequently, we subscribe wholeheartedly to the concept of school teams setting specific restructuring targets and propose that one of the targets be consistent and ongoing support for quality settings for young children.

Within the context of quality education are many different models of working with those children at risk of failing to succeed in the current school setting. The two programs described below provide examples of some of the ways in which early childhood education can provide support for the goals of a school team. One of the programs, Head Start, demonstrates how one goal, parental involvement in the education of their children, can be achieved satisfactorily through a repeated effort to reach it. The other program, the Perry Preschool Project, shows how intervening at a crucial point in a child's early life can improve the child's performance not only in later schooling but, more importantly, in her or his life in the community and in the world of work.

Head Start

J. McVickar Hunt's *Intelligence and Experience* (1961) and Benjamin Bloom's *Stability and Change in Human Characteristics* (1964) provided the intellectual impetus for establishing Head Start with the rather startling idea that perhaps 50 percent of all later variation in cognitive skills in a human being could be accounted for by the age of four (Cahan 1989). Head Start began as a brief summer program in 1965 to provide "compensatory" education for poor children, who were seen as lacking the kinds of experience and opportunities available to children in more prosperous homes. Presently, more than 90 percent of Head Start families live below the poverty line, and half are headed by single parents (National Head Start Association 1990).

The "compensatory" model eventually became a point of contention between Head Start and advocates of the poor who believed that such models attacked or denigrated the home cultures of children. A more important effect, however, and one that your team may wish to consider in your own formulation of policy and action, has been the impact of Head Start on parents, families, and communities. The Cooke memo of 1965, which outlined the philosophy of Head Start, focused on the "whole" child, the child within the context of family and community.

Instead of viewing parents and families as passive recipients of services, Head Start works to involve parents as active, respected members of the learning team. Indeed, the Westinghouse study of 1969 found that the most important achievements of Head Start do not deal with the cognitive gains of children at all, but rather with

the strong parental approval of the program and its effects on their own lives. Over the years, it has become obvious that

parents who participated in Head Start were able to exercise control over their own lives by influencing decisions about the care of their children. Many parents gained career training and even employment. Others learned how to affect political institutions. According to the parents' own testimony, their improved self-esteem changed their relations to their children and to their communities (Zigler and Valentine 1979).

It is estimated that two-thirds to three quarters of all parents are active in part of the program (Washington and Oyemade 1987). Last year over 400,000 parents volunteered in Head Start programs and "36 percent of the staff were parents of current or former Head Start children" (Mallory and Goldsmith 1990). In the long run, Head Start's contribution may be measured less by the performance of children (although it is conclusive that strong parental involvement is essential for success in school) but more by its effect on parents (Zigler and Valentine 1979).

In looking at Head Start, school improvement teams have the advantage of being able to study two contrasting approaches to parental involvement. One approach saw lack of parenting skills as the major problem and viewed Head Start as a vehicle to introduce parent education into school programs.

The other wanted to involve all parents at all levels of policymaking and saw control of schools as a way to enlist the poor in helping to achieve political change and the eradication of poverty. Political realities in individual communities will determine which model of involvement is most appropriate in any given school or district. However, advocacy of early educational programs by school teams will be an important element in helping those teams achieve parental involvement in schools.

Perry Preschool Project

Organized in Ypsilanti, Michigan, in 1962, the Perry Preschool Project provides another example of how preschool education can help a school realize school success for more students. This project was an early intervention experiment that took 123 poor children aged three and four and randomly divided them into an "experimental group which received a high quality preschool program and a control group that received no preschool program" (Weikart 1987). All the children were drawn from a single school attendance area.

In the program teachers organize the classroom around a set of key experiences and help children learn to think (i.e. classify, order, predict consequences) by asking questions. Children learn actively from direct experience with people and real objects, and from application of thinking to their experiences.

When the High/Scope Educational Research Foundation launched a longitudinal study on the later lives of children who had been enrolled in this program, researchers found significant results. The study found that by age 19 those who had been enrolled in the high quality preschool program were less likely to be classified as mentally retarded, had higher high school completion rates, and were more likely to attend college or to be enrolled in a job training program. More of those who had been enrolled in the high quality preschool program held jobs (50 percent versus 32 percent), more supported themselves (45 percent to 26 percent). Significantly fewer of the preschool enrolled students had been arrested for criminal acts (31 percent versus 51 percent), female former students had a birth rate almost half that of the control group, and overall, the former Perry Preschool Project students were much less likely to be on public assistance. Estimating the cost of special educational programs, crime prevention and rehabilitation, welfare assistance, and increased taxes amounted to approximately \$28,000 per participant, compared to an initial investment of \$5,000 per child, per program year (Weikart 1987).

The Head Start and the Perry Preschool programs are only two of many models of early intervention in the lives of children and families before they reach kindergarten age. Neither model is perfect, and the information obtained from them may not necessarily be extrapolated to all children enrolled in early childhood education. They are, however, examples of programs that may help school restructuring teams achieve their own goals for children and families *before* they reach the public schools.

Advocacy as a Role for School Restructuring Teams

How can your team become an advocate of early childhood education as a way to help you achieve your own goals in the school restructuring process? There are several steps you might take:

1. You can begin to collaborate with other groups to ensure the quality and availability of early childhood education in your community. By joining such groups as the local affiliate of the National Association for the Education of Young Children, a school team can learn more about the developmental process in young children as well as develop strategies for seeing that community programs are based on that process.
2. Teams can step into the public policy process and join (or form!) advocacy coalitions to promote local, state, and federal legislative action favoring families and young children; in addition, teams could convene "summits" of local groups concerned with the welfare of young children to push for legislation, funding, and public support for that welfare.

3. Your team could help establish a local community resource center, making available to all parents, teachers, and administrators in the community information and materials on a wide range of topics.
4. You could join early childhood educators and representatives from the corporate community in working groups "to develop new collaborate private sector initiatives" to ensure the quality and availability of programs for young children in the community (National Head Start Association 1990).
5. Perhaps on a more practical level, your team could look for surplus space in school facilities and determine if that space could serve as a meeting area for early childhood organizations or parent support groups -- or as classroom space for young children enrolled in local programs.
6. To help increase parent involvement in schools, your team could organize and ensure the quality of baby-sitting pools in order to enable parents to attend conferences, work parties, or support groups, all organized and supported by the team.

In addition, elementary school teams could assist teachers in implementing developmentally appropriate curriculum for their classrooms so that the gains experienced by young children in the earlier years would be strengthened and encouraged. In this way, social, emotional, physical, and intellectual growth could begin to be seen more as a part of a continuum in which many different persons have valuable insights and perspectives.

Secondary school teams could promote in-depth child development courses in those schools where none presently exist. Establishing child care centers for teen parents and/or school staff serves a number of purposes -- providing a site where students in child development courses can observe and interact with young children, helping to make employment more attractive to potential staff members, and allowing teen parents to remain in school and complete their education. Many high schools have service and pre-professional affinity clubs for students. Your team might take the lead in helping students find service work as assistants in child care settings; aides in child life programs in hospitals; volunteer fundraisers in community life programs in hospitals or in community early childhood programs; or health and safety/drug and alcohol abuse prevention educators of young children. In addition to the practical experience and self-esteem that the high school students would gain, they would also serve as role models for their peers.

By identifying challenges that require community efforts and governmental action, convincing the public and government to accept responsibility for helping to meet those challenges, developing and adopting acceptable community solutions, and monitoring and

evaluating the results in individual programs, teams could become true advocates not just for change within the local confines of individual schools, but educational changes within the larger structure of society (Goffin and Lombardi 1988). By fostering this belief in change and by forging these links with early educators and their associations, teams could truly achieve a comprehensive, systemic approach toward making schools effective for *all* learners.

APPENDIX A: SELECTED REFERENCES

The following references are organized to correspond to the sections of the text.

INTRODUCTION

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APPENDIX B: ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

A selected, annotated bibliography on America's children and youth at risk, 1980-1990

Banks, James A., and Cherry A. McGee Banks, eds. *Multicultural Education: Issues and Perspectives*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1989.

Cultural diversity, exceptionality and school reform are the subjects of this volume, which includes substantive discussion of race, social class, religion, gender, ethnicity, language, and mental ability testing. The demographic changes that have occurred as a result of the Immigration Reform Act of 1965 and Civil Rights legislation in the 1960s and 1970s provide the impetus for this inquiry.

The book takes a hard look at the inter-relationships both in and outside of school that influence student behavior and thus inhibit or contribute to academic achievement. School culture and existing power relationships are among the structural elements that must come under critical scrutiny. Key concepts used throughout the book are defined in a glossary, whose inclusion makes the text accessible to the general reader as well as to the professional.

Beane, James A., and Richard P. Lipka. *Self-Concept, Self-Esteem and the Curriculum*. New York: Teachers College Press, 1986.

A theoretical background on the development of self-concept and self-esteem and related curriculum at the various grade levels, this book offers a useful combination of research and practice. The authors preface the inquiry with a consideration of how the values communicated by teachers and administrators influence the values of young people attending school. Empirical evidence gathered from the fields of educational psychology and curriculum development are utilized to present the case for careful scrutiny of established patterns of reinforcement of individual behaviors in schools. Examples of positive curriculum reinforcements and specific teacher-learner interactions are included. The descriptions are clear and offer exciting propositions for creating stimulating classroom learning centers.

Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development. *Turning Points: Preparing American Youth for the 21st Century*. Washington, DC: author, 1989.

This already well-known document challenges educators, legislators, philanthropists, and community and business leaders to mobilize their creative talents towards expanding learning opportunities for students in the middle grades. Recognizing that early adolescence is a period of phenomenal growth and development, the Council agrees that the middle grades are perhaps the nation's most powerful resource for redirecting the spirit and energies of our youth towards fruitful learning. The document seeks to address "the volatile mismatch" that exists between the organizational structure and curriculum in middle grade schools and the intellectual and emotional needs of young adolescents. The report concludes with a vision of young adolescents who have been well served by the nation's schools.

Comer, James P. *School Power: Implications of an Intervention Project*. New York: The Free Press, 1980.

In 1967, poor Blacks in the city of New Haven, Connecticut, were the beneficiaries of years of educational neglect and the attendant social ills that plagued the municipality and the local public school system. A grant from the Ford Foundation provided the initial funding for the School Development Program, which has since been recognized nationally as a model design for creating learning opportunities that contribute to the success of underachieving minority children. A joint venture between the Yale Child Study Center and the New Haven School System, the project is a classic example of the potential for collaborative planning and cooperative responsibility as a strategy for enabling the educational, psychological, and personal growth of underachieving students.

Committee for Economic Development. *Children in Need: Investment Strategies for the Educationally Disadvantaged.* New York: author, 1987.

Recommended strategies for meeting the needs of the educationally disadvantaged include "early and sustained" intervention beyond the classroom walls in partnerships with families, schools, business, and community organizations as well as fundamental restructuring of schools and school systems. The appeal of making an investment in the country's economic future as a participant in the global market is a compelling one. The need to ensure the production of a qualified workforce, coupled with changing demographics, mandates substantial investment in coalition building and fundamental restructuring of the nation's schools. The report urges a three-pronged strategy for improving schools and identifies existing program alternatives.

Conrath, Jerry. *Full Year Prevention Curriculum: Secondary Dropout Prevention.* Gig Harbor, WA: author, 1988.

This self-published curriculum guide is intended for use with a companion handbook of guidelines, *Our Other Youth*. It includes activities for students on such topics as internal responsibility and control, creative thinking, personal economics, and academic skill practice. The activities are easy to use and are presented in a sequenced curriculum for use with a self-contained class of "dropout probable youngsters." Some activities help develop math skills, creative and critical thinking, and vocabulary related to students' lives and experiences.

While Conrath rejects the "ugly names" and "crude insults" usually applied to students in trouble, his own terminology -- "dropout probable youngsters," "social mortalities" -- does not seem much better. Moreover, while he refers to a strategy of "relief, recovery, reform," he offers very little school reform.

We include this book because it is one of the few we have seen that provides teachers with classroom lessons, many of which look like they might be useful in integrated classrooms.

Council of Chief State School Officers. *School Success for Students At Risk: Analysis and Recommendations of the Council of Chief State School Officers.* Orlando, FL: Harcourt Bruce Jovanovich, 1988.

This volume chronicles the Council of Chief State School Officers' commitment to "Assuring School Success for Students At Risk." It consists of twelve original papers presented at the CCSSO's Summer Institute in 1987 and the report and recommendations of its Study Commission.

The book takes up the challenge posed by the Carnegie Forum to "work smarter" and presents the views of many noted educators, researchers, and business leaders in the field of public and private partnerships. Contributors to this volume include Asa G. Hilliard III, James Comer, and Marian Wright Edelman.

The report concludes with a model statute provided as an example of a practical implementation of CCSSO's policy statement. The specific provisions of the statute are based upon the experiences of various states. From cover to cover, this book is a "must read" for those who have not already done so.

Davidson, Judith, and David Koppenhaver. *Adolescent Literacy: What Works and Why.* New York: Garland Publishing, Inc., 1988.

The authors present a programmatic approach to adolescent literacy based upon case studies, observations of reading programs around the country, and a comprehensive review of the literature. They report the findings of the Project on Adolescent Literacy, conducted by the Center for Early Adolescence in 1985. Philosophically, the book reflects the wisdom and sound judgment of many others in the field, namely that "good early adolescent literacy programs can make good readers and writers out of students that school and community have despaired would ever learn." Developmental responsiveness to the physical, socioemotional, and cognitive needs of early adolescents is key to successful programs. The idea that success can be replicated is a central belief.

Dougherty, Van. *The First Step: Understanding the Data*. Denver: Education Commission of the States, 1987.

This paper focuses on understanding the uses of new and existing data as the first step towards realizing the magnitude, scope and nature of some of the problems facing youth in the at-risk category. The author examines the types of information commonly available to policymakers and explores some of the salient issues that emerge in the process of collection, interpretation, and use of the data for improving educational options for all children. This document provides a helpful analysis and rationale for developing accurate data collection procedures.

Earle, Janice, Virginia Roach, and Katherine Fruser. *Female Dropouts: A New Perspective*. Alexandria, VA: National Association of State Boards of Education, 1987.

A variety of research efforts have focused on the factors that lead girls to drop out of high school, including female socialization patterns, learning styles, and pupil-teacher interactions. Researchers found that a number of factors apply equally to male and female dropouts. Other factors appear to affect females more than males. The authors discuss recommendations for educators, program administrators, policymakers, and researchers.

Fennimore, Todd F. *A Guide for Dropout Prevention: Creating an Integrated Learning Environment in Secondary Schools*. Columbus, OH: National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1988.

A Guide for Dropout Prevention is not just for vocational educators but for all concerned about secondary schools. It provides a conceptual framework for developing a plan for restructuring a secondary school, an overview of a strategic planning process, and a number of effective strategies to create an integrated learning environment.

While the book is a little difficult to read, it is a gold mine of useful resources for anyone interested in making major changes in a high school. It provides short descriptions of a number of alternative

schedules (year-round schools, extended class periods), classroom practices (competency-based education, applied learning), and ways to focus on career exploration throughout the curriculum. This guide provides a new way of thinking about high school that integrates academics and career preparation for all students.

Kunjufu, Jawanza. *Developing Positive Self-Images and Discipline in Black Children*. Chicago: African American Images, 1984.

The author appeals to educators and parents to recognize that developing positive images and providing discipline is a collective responsibility and that African American children need "a frame of reference that is consistent with their culture." The author discusses the political, curricular, and parental implications of accepting the challenges presented by the preponderance of educational, social, and interpersonal reinforcements of low self-esteem and patterns of undisciplined behavior among Black children. The intricacies of the relationship between childhood, education, the economy, and other societal influences form a practical base for the ensuing discussion of effective education.

Kunjufu advocates a return to phonics as the solution to reducing illiteracy among Blacks in particular, and in the country at large. Kunjufu is also an advocate of behavior modification models for altering the psycho-social development of Black children. Whether one agrees with the methodology or not, the book invites a thoughtful query into the issues of self-esteem, self-image, and discipline in Black children.

Lehr, Judy Brown, and Hazel Wiggins Harris. *At-Risk Low-Achieving Students in the Classroom*. Washington, DC: National Education Association, 1988.

Lehr and Harris offer observations of successful teaching strategies that emphasize the development of the total child. They begin with a fruitful discussion of the consequences of labeling. How students are treated is of primary concern. The terms at risk or low achieving are used in this monograph

to define students who are "not working up to potential." Attention is given to differences in learning style, effective schools research, Invitational Education theory and practice, strategies for parent involvement, and instructional processes. They provide descriptions of successful programs.

This short book presents a number of practical strategies for teachers, although they vary in their utility and applicability.

Lewis, Anne. *Restructuring America's Schools*. Arlington, VA: American Association of School Administrators, 1989.

An insightful analysis of divergent views about restructuring schools. The data is representative of the opinions of various participants and initiators of local and national school reform in the last decade. The author uses simple language to codify the process of restructuring in terms that are readily accessible to general readers. The book provides a concise overview of the subject, which is particularly useful as an introduction to the field.

Loucks-Horsley, Susan, and Leslie F. Hergert. *An Action Guide to School Improvement*. Alexandria, VA, and Andover, MA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development and The NETWORK, Inc., 1985.

School Improvement is used in the broad sense to include "the pursuit of any goal that benefits students and that has as its focus the classroom and school building." These goals may range from curriculum and instruction to discipline, school climate, and instructional leadership. The authors present concrete ideas and strategies for finding solutions to persistent and unanticipated problems at the school site level and they name seven steps to effecting local school improvement. Some of their beliefs are admittedly defiant of conventional thinking. The authors invite the reader to accept these procedural recommendations in the spirit of a "good cook" who selectively chooses a unique blend of ingredients combined with personal style that fit their particular needs.

This compact guide is action packed. Each chapter features dialogue between the authors that allows the reader to vicariously participate in the process of formulating practical approaches to school improvement. Federal, state, and regional resources are cited in the appendix.

Massachusetts Advocacy Center. *Before It's Too Late: Dropout Prevention in the Middle Grades*. Boston: Massachusetts Advocacy Center and the Center for Early Adolescence, 1988.

This monograph is written in response to the idea that success in school and the attendant stresses experienced by students are heightened at the middle school level. The intent is to synthesize current thinking on school reform, dropouts, the effective schools movement, and successful practices in the middle grades. The report examines the data gathered in the National Center for Education Statistics' High School and Beyond study. Recommendations include: add-on programs which, in partnership with external organizations, provide needed academic, vocational, and human services for students who are experiencing difficulties in the middle grades; structural reforms at the school and district level designed to change harmful practices and policies that undermine students' academic success and developmental progress; state-level reform that supports local school improvement efforts. The writers of this report regard the middle grades as the most critical period in the development of "vulnerable" students, i.e., those at risk.

Massachusetts Advocacy Center. *The Way Out: Student Exclusion Practices in Boston Middle Schools*. Boston: author, 1986.

The search for equity and excellence in the nation's public schools is the focus of this report. Attention is given to special education, bilingual education, discrimination, and the education of children of refugees and recent immigrants through examination of the practices of Boston's middle schools. The report is written from the perspective that all children are entitled to attend school and to receive an education that is both "equitable and excellent."

Recommendations center on strategies for systemic reform. The central tenet is that "schools must be organized and administered so as to serve the population they actually have, not the population they wished they had." Much recent literature repeats this theme as the basis for restructuring schools.

Miles, Matthew, and Karen Seashore Louis. *Improving the Urban High School: What Works and Why.* New York: Teachers College Press, 1990.

Based on five in-depth case studies of selected secondary schools in large cities, supplemented by a national survey of improving high schools, this book provides a helpful look at the process of improvement. After an introduction which covers the territory of high schools and change leadership and management, the authors take us into five schools that experienced varying degrees of success in change efforts which they undertook during the late 1980s. The cases describe the schools in 1985, after some change had already taken place, and again in 1988, and include for each a "reflective review" of what happened and why. Topics covered include vision building, handled here in a practical and usable way, finding and using resources, the day-to-day change process, and the functions of leadership and management for change, both of which are needed. The book is laid out with numerous headings and conclusions set off, making it easy for the busy administrator to read and refer to.

National Coalition of Advocates for Students. *Barriers to Excellence: Our Children at Risk.* Boston: author, 1985.

This landmark report of the Board of Inquiry is directed to students, parents, educators, policymakers, and interested citizens. It is the result of hearings held throughout the country to determine the scope of the problems facing students who do not succeed in schools and the attendant difficulties experienced by them during the transition from school to work. This document set the stage for school reform in the latter half of the decade.

The writers of this report, namely Harold Howe II, former United States Commissioner of Education, and Marian Wright Edelman of the Children's Defense Fund, communicate genuine concerns for the nation's children and promote educational equity with an obvious sense of compassion and pragmatism. Excellence, equity, and accountability are signalled as critical indicators of school improvement. This prescription for the 1980s seems especially relevant for the 1990s.

National Coalition of Advocates for Students. *New Voices: Immigrant Students in U.S. Public Schools.* Boston: National Coalition of Advocates for Students Immigrant Student Project, 1988.

This report of the Immigrant Student Project replicates the methodology of the earlier Board of Inquiry and offers additional evidence that restructuring schools is the route to discover ways to meet the needs of increasingly diverse student populations. The focus is on the new wave of immigration of the 1970s-1980s. Leadership development, resource allocation, equity, and access for newly established immigrant self-help groups are the major themes. Cross-cultural issues, language differences, temporary and long-term familial separation, legal status, racial tension, and the stresses of war are among the topics discussed.

Natriello, Gary, ed. *School Dropouts: Patterns and Policies.* New York: Teachers College Press, 1986.

This volume is a collection of articles from noted educators who are concerned about the problems of students who fail to graduate from high school. The authors examine dropout patterns and policies designed to reduce the incidence of leaving school prior to completion. The articles include: discussions of data collection procedures employed in a sampling of major school districts nationwide and implications of these divergent statistical processes for the quality of information available on the incidence of dropouts; several in-depth analyses of the High School and Beyond Study conducted by the National Center for Education Statistics; an ethnographic study of a New York City high school; a study of the impact of

recent reforms on students who are least likely to graduate; and implications of all of the above for continuing research.

This volume presents a panoply of ideas that focus the debate on meeting the needs of students for whom traditional educational models have failed.

Ogden, Evelyn Hunt, and Vito Germinario. *The At-Risk Student*. Lancaster, PA: Technomic Publishing Co., Inc., 1988.

The authors offer a kaleidoscopic view of the problems encountered by young people over the entire span of their developmental years beginning in pre-school and continuing into young adulthood. They advocate a K-12 approach that attends to issues such as child abuse and neglect, substance abuse, suicide, teen pregnancy, AIDS, and anorexia. They propose achieving a state of "wellness" in schools through the development of appropriate curriculum and the creation of supportive learning environments for all students, particularly those who are at risk. The book is aimed at empowering teachers and administrators to identify the array of psycho-social factors that inhibit learning, to develop responsive curricula and support strategies, and to make appropriate referrals as necessary. The appendix lists several resource agencies in each of the indicated service categories. Abbreviated descriptions of educational programs that work are also provided.

Orr, Margaret, T. *Keeping Students in School*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1987.

This book is intended as a resource for educators, school board members, public officials, labor leaders, and policymakers who share responsibility for attending to the myriad needs of keeping America's students in schools and reconnecting those who have already dropped out. The author addresses the major issues relative to both dropout prevention and "dropout rescue" through the lenses of fourteen successful programs around the country that offer alternative approaches. The scope of programs range from those that offer supplemental services to those that provide comprehensive planning and service delivery in both rural and urban settings.

Appendix C provides a list of programs and contact persons for each site described in the preceding eight chapters. This book has utility and readability for a wide audience including professionals, parents, advocacy groups, and community service personnel.

Perez-Selles, Marla S., and Nancy Carmen Barra-Zuman. *Building Bridges of Learning and Understanding: A Collection of Classroom Activities on Puerto Rican Culture*. Andover, MA: The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands and The New England Center for Equity Assistance, 1990.

Written by teachers for teachers who are interested in "infusing multicultural concepts into their curriculum," this volume offers an interesting collection of activities for approaching learning about history of Puerto Rico and its people. Activities are designed to be relevant to all students regardless of their own cultural background. The use of clear and simple language and the flexibility to adapt to different subject areas enhances the book's appeal.

Phlegar, Janet M. and Raymond M. Rose. *At-Risk Students: Approaches to Identification and Intervention*. Providence: Rhode Island Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 1988.

"In most cases, if we try to deal with dropouts, we are too late to be effective. The focus for schools and the community needs to be on the early identification and treatment of at risk youth," state the authors of this booklet. Their approach allows schools to place the emphasis on students who are still attending and increases the likelihood that schools can make a difference. This short guide describes three basic approaches for assisting students who are at risk: academic, advocacy, and structural. The recommendations include interagency, family, and community collaboration.

Much of the information contained in this guide is applicable to other settings and offers a starting place for designing local strategies to fit the particular needs of the student population.

Presselsen, Barbara S., ed. *At-Risk Students and Thinking: Perspectives from Research*. Washington, DC, and Philadelphia: National Education Association and Research for Better Schools, 1988.

This volume presents the philosophical underpinnings and research support of strategies for teaching thinking as a pedagogical approach to working with students who are at risk of failing or dropping out of school. Each of the seven chapters is organized around the principle that higher order thinking skills, including cognitive development, "ought to be an educational goal of all America's school-aged children." Addressing the huge disparity between this goal and current practice is the subject of the several expositions.

Instructional techniques, classroom organization, school leadership, and legislative and financial support are among the topics included. Practical discussion questions are posed at the end of each chapter.

Rich, Dorothy. *Mega Skills: How Families Can Help Children Succeed in School and Beyond*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1988.

Recognizing the family as the first teacher, the book describes literally hundreds of activities that parents and children can do together to support classroom learning. The ten "mega skills" include academics as well as the intangible skills of motivation, self-confidence, responsibility, and caring for and about others. In essence, these are "the values, attitudes, and behaviors that determine success in and out of school." The body of the text characterizes the work of the Home and School Institute. The "recipes" for learning at home are enriched by references to children's literature and listings of organizations to which parents can turn to for help on a variety of subjects.

One limitation is that the author seems to assume that parents have extensive time, energy, and English reading ability. Therefore, in many instances, the simplest ideas seem a bit removed from the day to day realities of many poor families. This book is most useful as a resource for a parent coordinator or trainer.

Schorr, Lisbeth B. *Within Our Reach: Breaking the Cycle of Disadvantage*. New York: Doubleday, 1989.

This comprehensive look at the problems of poor children and interventions that have proven successful is a must read for anyone concerned about our current and future society. Schorr examines several areas -- health, early pregnancy, child care, as well as schools -- to learn what is known and what needs to be done. She says, "I was astonished to find how much we knew. And I was dismayed at how little of this knowledge was being utilized to change the prospects for the children growing up in the shadows, the children most at risk."

In each chapter, Schorr not only describes the depth of the problem, drawing extensively on research, but also programs that work. Some of the education success stories are James Comer's School Development Program, Head Start, Central Park East School in New York City, and the Perry Preschool Project.

Sinclair, Robert L., and Ward J. Ghory. *Reaching Marginal Students: A Primary Concern for School Renewal*. Chicago: McCutchan Publishing Corp., 1987.

Attending to the needs of marginal youth is essential to school reform and renewal. This book provides an in-depth analysis of the myriad circumstances that impair student success in schools and looks at the process by which students either return to full involvement in school or become increasingly alienated. The authors undertake a bold critique of the institutional purposes served by allowing large numbers of students to persist in unproductive and unsuccessful environments. They offer a perspective on both existing and desirable school programs and policies for teaching students in the margins.

The observations and recommendations presented reflect the experience of students and teachers and focus on the school as the locus of reform. The leadership of teachers and principals is viewed as central to the success of any proposed reform efforts. Sinclair and Ghory suggest ways to begin conversations at the school site for effective reform.

Slavin, Robert, Nancy Karweit, and Nancy Madden. *Effective Programs for Students at Risk.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1989.

This book is a compilation of effective school programs from preschool through the elementary grades, collected as part of the work of the Center for Research on Elementary and Middle Schools at Johns Hopkins University. The authors look at numerous categories of programs and practices: pullout programs, classroom programs, preschool and kindergarten programs, and various aspects of Chapter 1 and special education programs. They apply rigorous criteria to a large number of programs from across the country and identify and describe those that are most effective.

While the writing is somewhat academic, this book provides useful information on numerous programs and practices. Research methods and findings are briefly described as are the criteria for effectiveness the researchers used.

Tiedt, Pamela, L., and Iris M. Tiedt. *Multicultural Teaching: A Handbook of Activities and Resources.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1990.

Tiedt and Tiedt present a strong case for multicultural education based on three driving assumptions: "every child is a member of a particular culture which is part of his/her prior knowledge and influences his or her response to schooling"; "all education is inherently multicultural, for it is delivered by and addressed to individuals who represent varied cultures"; and "multicultural education is an integral part of the curriculum, not a separate course or a series of varied discrete activities added to an existing prescribed curriculum."

Each chapter is preceded by a list of objectives for the reader and followed by a summary, questions for applications, and a list of resources. It contains a number of activities for teachers to use for classroom instruction; these seem most appropriate for elementary classes.

The content covers a comprehensive array of topics and issues associated with multicultural education. It establishes a strong rationale based on historical and sociological data (although we object to a listing of nine "geographical races") and connects

multicultural concepts to identity and self-esteem, good interpersonal relations, stereotypes and expectation, and living in a global village.

Office of Educational Research and Improvement Urban Superintendents Network. *Dealing With Dropouts: The Urban Superintendent's Call to Action.* Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, 1987.

This volume presents a superintendent's action plan for keeping youngsters in school until graduation along with six strategies recommended at the regular meetings of the OERI-sponsored urban superintendents network held in 1986 and 1987. Early intervention, school climate, high expectations, strong teachers, varied instructional programs, and collaborative efforts are the major strategic components. Program descriptions accompany each of the six strategies. References are organized in parallel fashion.

University of the State of New York, Albany. *Students At-Risk: An Occupational Education Perspective.* Albany: author, 1989.

This publication presents a compilation of information relating to at-risk students intended for those who are interested in developing a statewide network. The information summarizes policy studies and program innovations in the state of New York as well as national studies on the subject. A listing of other resources and exemplary projects is also provided.

Valdivieso, Rafael. *Must They Wait Another Generation? Hispanics and Secondary School Reform.* New York: ERIC Clearinghouse on Urban Education, 1986.

Valdivieso addresses the need for secondary school reform, policy trends, and the inadequacy of existing reforms that fail to recognize important needs of the Hispanic population. The latter category includes: excessive student-to-counselor ratios, failure to establish the connection between attending school

and employment, and poor understanding of adolescent development on the part of practitioners and administrators. Specific strategies for reorganizing and attracting older dropouts back to school are discussed.

Wehlage, Gary G., Robert Rutter, Gregory A. Smith, Nancy Lesko, and Ricardo R. Fernandez. *Reducing the Risk: Schools as Communities of Support*. London: Falmer Press, 1989.

Assuming that practitioners have devised and implemented effective strategies for school improvement, this volume takes a bottom-up look at school reform for students at risk of dropping out. The authors examine fourteen successful secondary school programs designed to prevent students from dropping out. Schools selected provide a broad-based representation of the at-risk population, which is defined to include urban minorities of various racial, ethnic, and socio-economic groups; poor rural whites; Native Americans; and middle class whites. The authors discuss the social and economic impact of effective school reform on the national agenda and offer specific policy recommendations in three areas: developing viable alternative schools; implementing systemic reforms; and building community partnerships that include the provision of jobs for students who are at risk.

The book makes a significant contribution to the literature and sensitizes the reader to the complexity of problems faced by students, teachers, school administrators, parents, business leaders, and policymakers.

Weis, Lois, Eleanor Farrar, and Hugh Petrie, eds. *Dropouts from School*. Albany: State University of New York Press, 1989.

This book is written from the perspective that it makes good economic sense to spend available dollars on dropout prevention and crisis intervention programs to keep young people in schools. The essays presented include current thinking and research conducted by a host of recognized writers in the field. Among these are: Michelle Fine, John Ogbu, and Gary Wehlage. The question of why students drop out is of primary concern. The volume addresses the validity of minimum competency testing, the variety of factors within and outside of schools that impinge upon dropping out, and the complexities of the at-risk learner. Economic, sociocultural, and political issues are considered in the context of finding practical solutions to the problems of dropouts in urban and rural communities.

APPENDIX C: RESOURCE ORGANIZATIONS

A listing of the following agencies and organizations, nationwide: Regional Educational Laboratories ■ Regional Resource Centers ■ Chapter 1 Technical Assistance Centers ■ Chapter 1 Rural Technical Assistance Centers ■ Multicultural Resource Centers ■ Desegregation Assistance Centers ■ National Diffusion Network State Facilitators

REGIONAL EDUCATIONAL LABORATORIES

Ten Regional Educational Laboratories serve all states and U.S. jurisdictions, each bringing research and sound practice to improve education in its designated region.

Northeastern Region

Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New York, Puerto Rico, Rhode Island, Vermont, Virgin Islands

The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands
300 Brickstone Square, Suite 900
Andover, MA 01810
(508) 470-0098

Mid-Atlantic Region

Delaware, Washington, D.C., Maryland, New Jersey, Pennsylvania

Research for Better Schools
444 North Third Street
Philadelphia, PA 19123
(215) 574-9300

Appalachia Region

Kentucky, Tennessee, Virginia, West Virginia

Appalachia Educational Laboratory
1031 Quarrier St.
P.O. Box 1348
Charleston, WV 25325
(304) 347-0400

Midwestern Region

Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, Wisconsin

North Central Regional Education Laboratory
1900 Spring Road
Oak Brook, IL 60521
(708) 571-4700

Southeastern Region

Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina

Southeastern Regional Vision for Education
School of Education
University of North Carolina
Greensboro, NC 27412-5001
(919) 334-5100

Central Region

Colorado, Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Wyoming

Mid-Continent Regional Educational Laboratory
2550 South Parker Road, Suite 500
Aurora, CO 80014
(303) 337-0990

Southwestern Region

Arkansas, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Texas

Southwest Educational Development Laboratory
211 East Seventh St.
Austin, TX 78701
(512) 476-6861

Northwestern Region

Alaska, Idaho, Montana, Oregon, Washington

Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory
101 S.W. Main Street, Suite 500
Portland, OR 97204
(503) 275-9500

Pacific Region

Hawaii and other U.S. affiliates in the Pacific Basin

Pacific Region Educational Laboratory
1164 Bishop Street, Suite 1409
Honolulu, HA 96813
(808) 532-1900

Western Region

Arizona, California, Nevada, Utah

Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development
730 Harrison Street
San Francisco, CA 94107-1242
(415) 565-3000

REGIONAL RESOURCE CENTERS

Regional Resource Centers provide consultation, technical assistance, and training to state education agencies and others on special education, related services, and early intervention.

Region 1

Connecticut, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New York, New Jersey, Maine, Vermont, Rhode Island

Northeast Regional Resource Center
Trinity College
Colchester Avenue
Burlington, VT 05401
(802) 658-5036

Region 2

Delaware, Maryland, Washington, DC, Virginia, West Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, North Carolina, South Carolina

Mid-South Regional Resource Center
University of Kentucky
113 Mineral Industries Building
Lexington, KY 40506-0051
(606) 257-7937

Region 3

Georgia, Alabama, Florida, Mississippi, Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands, New Mexico, Texas, Oklahoma, Arkansas, Louisiana

South Alatin Regional Resource Center
Florida Atlantic University
1236 North University Drive
Plantation, Florida 33322
(305) 473-6106

Region 4

Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota

Great Lakes Regional Resource Center
700 Ackerman Road, Suite 400
Columbus, Ohio 43202
(614) 447-0844

Region 5

Montana, Wyoming, North Dakota, South Dakota, Utah, Colorado, Nebraska, Kansas, Iowa, Missouri, Bureau of Indian Affairs

Mountains Plains Regional Resource Center
Utah State University
Exceptional Child Center/UMC 68
Logan, Utah 84322
(801) 752-0238

Region 6

Alaska, American Samoa, Commonwealth of Northern Mariana Islands, Guam, Trust Territories of the Pacific, Washington, California, Hawaii, Arizona, Nevada, Oregon, Idaho

Western Regional Resource Center
College of Education
University of Oregon
Eugene, Oregon 97403
(503) 346-5641
FAX: (503) 346-5639

CHAPTER 1 TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE CENTERS

Chapter 1 Technical Assistance Centers provide technical assistance, consultation, training, and other such assistance as will help state and local educational agencies improve the quality of education provided to educationally disadvantaged children participating in Chapter 1 programs.

Region A

Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Puerto Rico, Rhode Island, Vermont

RMC Research Corporation
400 Lafayette Road
Hampton, New Hampshire 03842
(603) 926-8888
(800) 258-0802

Region B

Delaware, District of Columbia, Indiana, Kentucky, Maryland, Michigan, Ohio, Pennsylvania, West Virginia

Advanced Technology, Inc.
One Park Fletcher Building
2601 Fortune Circle East
Indianapolis, IN 46241
(317) 244-8160
(800) 456-2380

Region C

Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia

Educational Testing Service
250 Piedmont Avenue, Suite 1240
Atlanta, Georgia 30308
(404) 524-4501
(800) 241-3865 (From Region Only)

Region D

Illinois, Iowa, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Wisconsin

Research and Training Associates, Inc.
10950 Grandview, Suite 300
34 Corporate Woods
Overland Park, KS 66210
(913) 451-8117
(800) 922-9031

Region E

Arkansas, Arizona, Colorado, Kansas, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Texas, Utah

RMC Research Corporation
Writer Square
1512 Larimer Street, Suite 540
Denver, CO 80202
(303) 825-3636
(800) 922-3636

Region F

Alaska, California, Hawaii, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, Oregon, Washington, Wyoming

RMC Research Corporation
2570 West El Camino Real, Suite 610
Mountain View, CA 94040
(415) 941-9550
(800) 451-4407

CHAPTER 1 RURAL TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE CENTERS

Chapter 1 Rural Technical Assistance Centers provide technical assistance, consultation, training, and such other assistance as will help state and local educational agencies improve the quality of education provided to educationally disadvantaged children participating in Chapter 1 programs in rural areas.

Region 1

Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Rhode Island, Vermont

RMC Research Corporation
400 Lafayette Road
Hampton, New Hampshire 03842
(603) 926-8888
(800) 582-7175

Region 2

Delaware, District of Columbia, Indiana, Kentucky, Maryland, Michigan, Ohio, Pennsylvania, West Virginia

Advanced Technology, Inc.
One Park Fletcher Building
2601 Fortune Circle East
Indianapolis, IN 46241
(317) 244-8160
(800) 456-2380

Region 3

Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia

Advanced Technology, Inc.
One Decatur Square, Suite 150
150 East Ponce de Leon Avenue
Decatur, GA 30030
(404) 377-8130

Region 4

Illinois, Iowa, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Wisconsin

Research and Training Associates, Inc.
10950 Grandview, Suite 300
34 Corporate Woods
Overland Park, KS 66210
(913) 451-8117
(800) 922-9031

Region 5

Arkansas, Arizona, Colorado, Kansas, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Texas, Utah

RMC Research Corporation
Writer Square
1512 Larimer Street, Suite 540
Denver, CO 80202
(303) 825-3636
(800) 922-3636

Region 6

California, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, Oregon, Washington, Wyoming

Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory
101 S.W. Main, Suite 500
Portland, OR 97204
(503) 275-9584
(800) 547-6339

Region 7

Alaska

Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory
101 S.W. Main, Suite 500
Portland, OR 97204
(503) 275-9584
(800) 547-6339

Region 8

Hawaii

RMC Research Corporation
850 Richards Street, Suite 501
Honolulu, HI 96813
(808) 523-1372

Region 9

Puerto Rico

The Regional Laboratory for Educational
Improvement
of the Northeast and Islands
276 Coll y Toste
Hato Rey, PR 00919
(809) 763-8334

Region 10

Bureau of Indian Affairs Schools

Research & Training Associates, Inc.
34 Corporate Woods, Suite 300
10950 Grandview
Overland Park, KS 66210
(913) 451-8117
(800) 922-9031

MULTICULTURAL RESOURCE CENTERS

Multicultural Resource Centers provide training and technical assistance services on bilingual education and English as a Second Language to educators and community members.

Service Area 1

Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island

Brown University
New England Multifunctional Resource Center
345 Blackstone Blvd.
Weld Bldg.
Providence, RI 02906
FAX: (401) 863-3700

Service Area 2

New York State

Hunter College and The Research Foundation
of the City
University of New York
695 Park Ave., Room 924 West
New York, NY 10021
FAX: (212) 772-4941

Service Area 3

Pennsylvania, Ohio, West Virginia, Virginia, Kentucky, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, District of Columbia

Mid Atlantic MRC
8737 Colesville Rd., Suite 900
Silver Spring, MD 20910
FAX: (301) 588-5947

Service Area 4

Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee

Florida Atlantic University
College of Education FAU-MRC
College of Education MT17,
500 NW 20th St.
Boca Raton, FL 33431
(800) FAU-MRC1
(800) FAU-MRC0
FAX: (407) 367-2319

Service Area 5

Arkansas, Illinois, Indiana, Louisiana, Missouri

InterAmerica Research Associates
Midwest Bilingual Education MRC
2360 East Devon Ave., Suite 3011
Des Plaines, IL 60018
(312) 296-6070

Service Area 6

Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, Wisconsin

Wisconsin Center for Education Research
University of Wisconsin, Madison
1025 West Johnson St.
Madison, WI 53706
FAX: (608) 263-6448

Service Area 7

Texas

Southwest Education Development Laboratory
211 East 7th St.
Austin, TX 78701
FAX: (512) 476-2286

Service Area 8

Oklahoma, Kansas, Nebraska, South Dakota, North Dakota

University of Oklahoma
Division of Continuing Education and Public Affairs
555 Constitution Ave.
Norman, OK 73037
FAX: (405) 325-1824

Service Area 9

Idaho, Oregon, Montana, Washington, Wyoming

Interface Network, Inc.
4800 SW Griffith Drive, Suite 202
Beaverton, OR 97005
FAX: (503) 626-2305

Service Area 10

Arizona, New Mexico, Utah, Colorado, Nevada

Multifunctional Resource Center AMR/0208
Arizona State University
College of Education
Tempe, AZ 85287
FAX: (602) 965-2012

Service Area 11

Southern California, including Imperial, Los Angeles, Orange, Riverside, San Bernardino and San Diego counties

Multifunctional Resource Foundation
San Diego State University
636 Alvarado Court, Suite 226
San Diego, CA 92120
FAX: (619) 594-4570

Service Area 12

Northern California, all counties north of & including San Luis Obispo, Kern, & Inyo

ARC Associates, Inc.
310 Eighth St., Suite 220
Oakland, CA 94607
FAX: (415) 763-1490

Service Area 13

Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands

Metropolitan University
Apartado 21150
Rio Piedras, PR 00928
FAX: (809) 766-1763

Service Area 14

Hawaii, American Samoa

ARC Associates, Inc.
1314 South King St., Suite 1456
Honolulu, HI 96814
FAX: (808) 531-7802

Service Area 15

Guam, and other Pacific entities

University of Guam
Project BEAM, College of Education
UOG Station
Mangilao, GU 96913
FAX: (671) 734-3118

Service Area 16

Alaska

Interface Network, Inc.
3650 Lake Otis Parkway, Suite 102
Anchorage, AK 99508
FAX: (907) 563-8181

DESEGREGATION ASSISTANCE CENTERS

Desegregation Assistance Centers provide training and technical assistance services to local schools and school districts on issues related to race, sex, and national origin, equity, and compliance with laws that promote equal educational opportunity.

Region 1

Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont

The NETWORK, Inc.
300 Brickstone Square, Suite 900
Andover, MA 01810
(508) 470-1080

Region 2

New Jersey, New York, Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands

Metro Center
New York University
32 Washington Place -- Room 72
New York, NY 10003
(212) 998-5110

Region 3

Delaware, District of Columbia, Maryland, Pennsylvania, Virginia, West Virginia

Mid-Atlantic Equity Center
The American University
5010 Wisconsin Ave., N.W.
Suite 310
Washington, D.C. 20016
(202) 885-8517

Region 4

Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, South Carolina, Tennessee

Southern Education Foundation
135 Auburn Avenue
Atlanta, Georgia 30303
(404) 523-0001

Region 5

Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, Wisconsin

The University of Michigan
School of Education
PEO -- Room 1005
Ann Arbor, Michigan 48109-1259
(313) 763-9910

Region 6

Arkansas, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Texas

Intercultural Development Research Association
5835 Callaghan, Suite 350
San Antonio, TX 78228
(512) 684-8180

Region 7

Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska

Kansas State University
School of Education
Bluemont Hall
Manhattan, KS 66506
(913) 532-6408

Region 8

*Colorado, Montana, North Dakota, South Dakota,
Utah, Wyoming*

Mid-continent Regional Educational Laboratory
Equity Division
2550 South Parker Road, Suite 500
Aurora, CO 80014
(303) 337-0990

Region 9

Arizona, California, Nevada

Southwest Regional Laboratory for Educational
Research and Development
4665 Lampson Avenue
Los Alamitos, CA 90720
(213) 598-7661

Region 10

*Alaska, Hawaii, Idaho, Oregon, Washington,
American Samoa, Guam, Northern Mariana Islands,
Trust Territory of the Pacific*

INTERFACE
4800 SW Griffith Drive
Suite 202
Beaverton, OR 87005
(503) 644-5741

NATIONAL DIFFUSION NETWORK STATE FACILITATORS

The National Diffusion Network (NDN) is a dynamic system for sharing successful educational programs among schools, colleges, and others. Exemplary programs developed by local schools are identified and funded to provide training and materials to others. In each state a facilitator serves as a link between the schools in its jurisdiction and NDN programs across the country.

Sandra Berry
Alaska Dept. of Education
Pouch F, State Office of Education
Juneau, AK 99811
907-465-2841

Maureen Cassidy, Coordinator
Alabama Facilitator Project
Division of Professional Services
Room 5069 -- Gordon Persons Building
Montgomery, AL 36130
205-242-9834

Susan Juergensmeier
Arkansas Department of Education
Arch Ford Education Bldg.
State Capitol Mall, Room 111
Little Rock, AR 72201
501-682-4568

L. Leon Webb
Educational Diffusion Systems, Inc.
161 East First Street
Mesa, AZ 85201
602-969-4880

Jane E. Zinner
California State Facilitator Center
1575 Old Bayshore Highway
Burlingame, CA 94010
415-692-2956

Charles D. Beck, Jr.
Education Diffusion Group
3800 York St., Unit 8
Denver, CO 80205
303-837-1000, Ext. 2136

Appendix C

Jonathan Costa
RESCUE
355 Goshen Road
Litchfield, CT 06759
203-567-0863

Susan C. Williams
District Facilitator Project
Eaton School
34th and Lowell Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20008
202-282-0056

Carole White
State Facilitator Project
Department of Public Instr.
P.O. Box 1402
John G. Townsend Building
Dover, DE 19901
302-736-4583

Sue Carpenter
Public Schools Resource Center
State Facilitator Project
Florida Dept. of Education
Knott Building, 325 W. Gairo Street
Tallahassee, FL 32301
904-487-1078

Frances Hensley
607 Aderhold Hall, UGA
University of Georgia
Athens, GA 30602
404-542-3322

Francine Grudzias
Hawaii Educational Dissemination
Diffusion System (HEDDS)
Office of Instructional Services
595 Pepeekeo Street, Bldg. H.
Honolulu, HI 96825
808-396-6356

Michelle Soria-Dunn
Iowa Department of Education
Grimes State Office Building
Des Moines, IA 50319
515-242-5988

Ted L. Lindley
State Dept. of Education
Len B. Jordan Office Building
650 West State Street
Boise, ID 83720
208-334-2186

Shirley M. Menendez
1105 East Fifth Street
Metropolis, IL 62960
618-524-2166

Lynwood Erb
Project Director
Indiana Facilitator Center
Logansport Community School Corp.
2829 George Street
Logansport, IN 46947
219-722-1754

James H. Connett
Kansas State Facilitator Project
KEDDS/LINK, Staff Development Center
3030 Osage Street
Wichita, KS 67217
316-833-3971

Barbie Haynes
Department of Education
Capitol Plaza Tower Office Bldg.
Frankfort, KY 40601
502-564-6720

Brenda Argo
Facilitator Project
State Dept. of Education
ECIA Chapter 2 Bureau
P.O. Box 94064
Baton Rouge, LA 70804
504-342-3375

Nancy Love
The NETWORK
300 Brickstone Square, Suite 900
Andover, MA 01810
508-470-1080

Appendix C

Raymond Hartjen
Maryland Facilitator Project
Educational Alternatives, Inc.
P.O. Box 265
Port Tobacco, MD 20677
301-934-2992

Elaine Roberts
Maine Facilitator Project
Maine Center for Educational Services
P.O. Box 620
Auburn, ME 04210
207-783-0833

Carol Wolenberg
Michigan Department of Education
P.O. Box 30008
Lansing, MI 48909
517-373-1807

Diane Lassman
The EXCHANGE
CAREI-166 U Press
2037 University Avenue, SE
University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, MN 55414
612-624-0584

Jolene Schulz
Missouri Facilitator Center
1206 East Walnut
Columbia, MO 65201
314-875-8782

Bobby Stacy
Mississippi Facilitator Project
State Dept. of Education
P.O. Box 771
Jackson, MS 39205
601-359-3498

Ron Lukenbill
State Facilitator Project
Office of Public Instruction
State Capitol
Helena, MT 59601
406-444-2080

John Hawes
North Carolina Facilitator Project
North Carolina Department of
Public Instruction
116 W. Edenton Street
Raleigh, NC 27603-1712
919-735-7037

Charles DeRemer
Dept. of Public Instruction
State Capitol
Bismarck, ND 58505
701-224-2514

Elizabeth Alfred
Nebraska Dept. of Education
301 Centennial Mall
P.O. Box 94987
Lincoln, NE 68509
402-471-3440

Jared Shady
New Hampshire Facilitator Center
80 South Main Street
Concord, NH 03301
603-224-9461

Katherine Wallen
Educational Information and Resource
Center
N.J. State Facilitator Project
700 Hollydell Court
Sewell, NJ 08080
609-582-7000

Amy L. Atkins
DEEP Project
Univ. of NM, College of Education
Onate Hall, Room 223
Albuquerque, NM 87131
505-277-7991

Doris Betts
Nevada Department of Education
400 West King Street
Capitol Complex
Carson City, NV 89710
702-885-3136

Laurie Rowe
NY Education Department
Room 860 EBA
Albany, NY 12234
518-474-1280

C. William Phillips
Ohio Facilitator Center
Ohio Department of Education
Division of Inservice Education
65 South Front Street
Columbus, OH 43215
614-466-2979

Deborah Murphy
Oklahoma Facilitator Center
123 East Broadway
Cushing, OK 74023

Ralph Nelsen
Columbia Education Center
11325 S.E. Lexington
Portland, OR 97266
503-760-2346

Richard Brickley
Facilitator Project, R.I.S.E
725 Caley Road
King of Prussia, PA 19406
215-265-6056

Elba Encarnacion
Center for Dissemination, 5th Floor
Department of Education
P.O. Box 759
Hato Rey, PR 00919
809-753-1645

Faith Fogle
R.I. Facilitator Center
Roger Williams Bld.
22 Hayes Street
Providence, RI 02908
401-277-2617

Peter Samulski
State Facilitator Project
S.C. Department of Education
1429 Senate Street
Columbia, SC 29201
803-734-8116

Donlynn C. Rice
South Dakota Curriculum Center
205 West Dakota Avenue
Pierre, SD 57501
605-224-6708

Reginald High
College of Education/Capitol BERS
University of Tennessee
2046 Terrace Avenue
Knoxville, TN 37996-3504
615-947-4165

Judy Bramlett
Education Service Center
Region VI
3332 Montgomery Road
Huntsville, TX 77340-6499
409-295-9161

Lyle Wright
Utah State Facilitator Project
Utah State Office of Education
250 East 500 South
Salt Lake City, UT 84111
801-538-7822

Judy McKnight
Virginia Facilitator Project
The Education Network of VA
3421 Surrey Lane
Falls Church, VA 22042
703-698-0487

Lois Habteyes
Virgin Islands Department of Education
P.O. Box 6640
St. Thomas, VI 00801
809-774-0100, Ext. 211

Appendix C

Howard Verman
Trinity College
Colchester Avenue
Burlington, VT 05401
802-658-7429

Keith Wright
15675 Ambaum Blvd., S.W.
Seattle, WA 98166
206-433-2453

Will Ashmore
Department of Public Instruction
P.O. Box 7841
Madison, WI 53706
608-267-9179

Cornelia Calvert Toon
State Department of Education
1900 Kanaawha Blvd. E.
Building #6, Room B-252
Charleston, WV 25305
304-348-2193

Nancy Leinius
Wyoming Innovative Network System
State Department of Education
Hathaway Building
Cheyenne, WY 82002
307-777-6226

Today more than ever before, it is essential that all our students acquire the knowledge, skills, and attitudes they need to lead productive lives. Although our population and society have changed greatly in the last half century, most of our schools have not. For several years educators, policymakers, parents, and other citizens in the region served by The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands have been concerned about the high percentage of children whom our schools do not seem to be serving well. In collaboration with state departments of education and others, The Regional Laboratory has worked with several schools, districts, cities, and states to change schooling so that more students -- particularly those most at risk of failing or dropping out of school -- stay in school and achieve at higher levels.

As a regional laboratory, one of our responsibilities is to document efforts such as these and share knowledge with others. That is the purpose of this book. In it we have tried to capture what we have learned from schools that have made concerted efforts to improve their classroom practices, policies and structures, student support strategies, and family and community involvement in order to enable more students to succeed.

Kindle the SPARK joins other Regional Laboratory products, publications, and services that promote the use of the best available research and practice to help educators and policymakers make schools places where all students can succeed. The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands is one of ten regional laboratories nationwide and is sponsored primarily by the United State Department of Education's office of Educational Research and Improvement. The Regional Laboratory has been serving the educators and policymakers of New England, New York, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands since 1985. For more information about any of our programs, products, or services, call or write:

 **The Regional Laboratory**
for Educational Improvement of the Northeast & Islands

300 Brickstone Square

Suite 900

Andover, Massachusetts 01810

508/470-0098