

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 343 700

PS 020 424

AUTHOR Palanki, Ameetha; And Others
TITLE Mapping the Policy Landscape: What Federal and State Governments Are Doing To Promote Family-School-Community Partnerships.
INSTITUTION Center on Families Communities, Schools and Children's Learning.; Johns Hopkins Univ., Baltimore, Md.
SPONS AGENCY Department of Health and Human Services, Washington, D.C.; Office of Educational Research and Improvement (ED), Washington, DC.
PUB DATE Jan 92
CONTRACT R-117-Q-00031
NOTE 82p.
PUB TYPE Reports - General (140) -- Viewpoints (Opinion/Position Papers, Essays, etc.) (120)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Community Programs; *Cooperative Programs; Early Childhood Education; *Early Intervention; Evaluation Criteria; *Family Programs; Federal Programs; Infants; *Public Policy; *School Choice; School Community Relationship; *School Restructuring; State Programs; Toddlers
IDENTIFIERS America 2000; *Education Consolidation Improvement Act Chapter 1; Partnerships in Education; Policy Analysis

ABSTRACT

Drawing from a broad-based review of relevant research and literature, this report outlines selected national, state, and local policy developments in 1991-92 related to the collaboration among family, school, and community. Specifically, the report examines policies related to interventions for infants and toddlers; family support; coordination of health and human services with education; parent choice of schools; school restructuring; and Chapter 1. The report also develops an evaluative framework which looks at policy developments in terms of seven criteria: flexibility, intensity, continuity, universality, participation, coordination, and comprehensiveness. It is concluded that many states have taken major initiatives in the 6 policy areas, but the activity across states is uneven. A total of 30 states report some specific policy action on family support, parent action, or coordination of health, education, and other human services. Efforts to coordinate Head Start with other education, health, and social services are underway at the federal level. The U.S. Department of Education has increased its advocacy of the new flexibility in Chapter 1, but state and local responses remain disappointing. There is increased interest in linking parent education and literacy with early childhood programs. Participation by families in policymaking has been broadened to include school level governance, program planning and evaluation, and state level councils for the coordination of services. (AC)

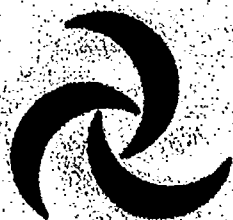
U. S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION
CENTER (ERIC)

This document has been reproduced as
received from the person or organization
originating it.

Minor changes have been made to improve
reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this docu-
ment do not necessarily represent official
OERI position or policy.

ED343700



**CENTER ON FAMILIES,
COMMUNITIES, SCHOOLS
& CHILDREN'S LEARNING**

MAPPING THE POLICY LANDSCAPE

**What Federal and State Governments are Doing
To Promote Family-School-Community Partnerships**

**Ameetha Palanki and Patricia Burch
with Don Davies**

January 1992

PS 020424

**Mapping the Policy Landscape:
What Federal and State Governments are Doing to Promote
Family-School-Community Partnerships**

**Ameetha Palanki and Patricia Burch
with Don Davies**

January 1992

Mapping the Policy Landscape:
What Federal and State Governments Are Doing to Promote
Family-School-Community Partnerships

Ameetha Palanki and Patricia Burch
with Don Davies

R117Q00031

January 1992

Published by the Center on Families, Communities, Schools and Children's Learning. The Center is supported by the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement (R117Q00031), in cooperation with the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. The opinions expressed are the authors' own and do not represent OERI or HHS positions or policies.

Center on Families, Communities,
Schools and Children's Learning
The Johns Hopkins University
3505 North Charles Street
Baltimore, MD 21218

CENTER ON FAMILIES, COMMUNITIES, SCHOOLS AND CHILDREN'S LEARNING

**A Consortium of Researchers from:
Boston University, Institute for Responsive Education,
The Johns Hopkins University, The University of Illinois,
Wheelock College, and Yale University**

**Don Davies, Co-Director
Joyce L. Epstein, Co-Director**

The nation's schools must do more to improve the education of all children, but schools cannot do this alone. More will be accomplished if families and communities work with children, with each other, and with schools to promote successful students.

The mission of this Center is to conduct research, evaluations, policy analyses, and dissemination to produce new and useful knowledge about how families, schools, and communities influence student motivation, learning, and development. A second important goal is to improve the connections between and among these major social institutions.

Two research programs guide the Center's work: the Program on the Early Years of Childhood, covering children aged 0-10 through the elementary grades; and the Program on the Years of Early and Late Adolescence, covering youngsters aged 11-19 through the middle and high school grades.

Research on family, school, and community connections must be conducted to understand more about all children and all families, not just those who are economically and educationally advantaged or already connected to school and community resources. The Center's projects pay particular attention to the diversity of family cultures and backgrounds and to the diversity in family, school, and community practices that support families in helping children succeed across the years of childhood and adolescence. Projects also examine policies at the federal, state, and local levels that produce effective partnerships.

A third program of Institutional Activities includes a wide range of dissemination projects to extend the Center's national leadership. The Center's work will yield new information, practices, and policies to promote partnerships among families, communities, and schools to benefit children's learning.

Abstract

This report outlines selected national, state, and local policy developments in 1991-92 in six areas related to family-school-community collaboration: interventions for infants and toddlers, family support, coordination of health and human services with education, parent choice, school restructuring, and Chapter 1. The report also develops an evaluative framework which looks at policy developments with seven criteria in mind: flexibility, intensity, continuity, universality, participation, coordination, and comprehensiveness.

Among the reports conclusions are:

- * Many states have taken major initiatives in the six policy areas, but the activity across states is very uneven.

- * Thirty states report some specific policy action on family support, parent action, or coordination of health, education, and other human services.

- * Efforts to coordinate Head Start with other education, health and social services are currently underway at the Federal level.

- * The U.S. Department of Education has increased its advocacy of the new flexibility in Chapter 1, but state and local response remains disappointing.

- * There is increased interest in linking parent education and literacy with early childhood programs.

- * Participation by families in policymaking has been broadened to include: (i) school-level governance; (ii) program planning and evaluation; (iii) state-level councils for facilitating coordination of services.

The authors conclude by calling for Federal, state, and local policymakers to take steps to actively coordinate policies that nurture family-school-community partnerships.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Introduction 1

I. Infants and Toddlers 10

II. Family Support 19

III. Coordination of Health and Human Services 27

IV. Parent Choice 32

V. School Restructuring 38

VI. Chapter One 44

Conclusion 51

References 57

Appendix A. 65

List of Organizational Resources

Acknowledgements

This research was supported by the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, in cooperation with the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (R117Q00031). The opinions expressed here are the authors' own and do not represent OERI or HHS positions or policies.

Ameetha Palanki is a Research Associate with the Center on Families, Communities, Schools, and Children's Learning and the Institute for Responsive Education. Patricia Burch is Senior Research Associate for the Center and Boston University School of Education. Don Davies is Co-Director of the Center.

The authors of this report would like to thank all the people and organizations who helped us compile the data for this report. We would especially like to thank the National Governors' Association, the Education Commission of the States, the Family Resource Coalition, the Head Start Bureau, the National Coalition for Title I/Chapter I Parents, Charles Glenn, and Joyce Epstein.

PREFACE

by Don Davies

Our monitoring of recent state and Federal policies demonstrates just how fashionable the topic of family-school-community partnerships has become in policy circles.

The amount of activity and interest is almost astonishing. The data base that we have accumulated in less than a year runs to more than 45 pages and we were very selective. We skimmed several of the major current educational periodicals, read Education Week and Educational Daily faithfully, followed the major reports, scanned conference programs, and sieved the voluminous mail received on this topic by this Center and the Institute for Responsive Education, but we are certain that we have overlooked many important developments, reports, and projects. We also focused on just six topics out of many.

After a month or two of looking over the policy landscape, we decided that there were six areas of policy development that were especially significant for those interested in family-community-school collaboration: interventions for infants and toddlers, family support, coordination of health and human services with education, parent choice, school restructuring, and Chapter 1. We selected these six for two reasons: 1) They were relevant to the Center's mission and projects; and 2) They are important areas for both practitioners and policymakers to know about.

This report is addressed primarily to two audiences:

- 1) administrators and other practitioners in schools and community agencies and organizations who want to be informed about Federal and state policy developments; and
- 2) local, state, and Federal policymakers who have general responsibility for budget and policy decision-making for which these topics are relevant.

The report may supplement or update the knowledge of specialists in any one of the topics (e.g., early childhood education, parent choice); although, we have not sought to provide exhaustive coverage in any one area.

The report is one of a series of reports from the first year of work (1990-91) of the Center on Families, Communities, Schools and Children's Learning. It is

part of a Center project entitled "Studies on Policies to Increase Family-School-Community Partnerships." The project has several parts:

1. Effects of Policies at the School Level

Studies of Schools Reaching Out. This study over five years addresses several questions: What formal and informal policies have what kinds of results at the local school and community level on the implementation of programs to increase family, community, and school collaboration? What programs and strategies do "reaching out" schools choose and how do they implement them? What factors, barriers, and policies impede or facilitate the implementation of such components? What are the effects of the strategies that are implemented on children and families? What strategies can be implemented in other schools?

2. Responsive Studies.

The Center will conduct a series of studies on topics to be selected. In 1992-93, two studies will be initiated. The first will focus on children from birth to three and asks "How do families use community resources to help get infants and toddlers ready to succeed in school?" and, "How can families and other community agencies share responsibility for promoting readiness?" The second study will explore a new phenomenon discovered in our first year study of schools reaching out: parent or family centers that are developing in many schools as mechanisms for parent education and family support.

3. Identifying and Mapping Federal and State Policies.

Our "mapping project" provides us with an opportunity to track selected policies related to the Center's mission and to offer guidance to parents, practitioners, and policymakers. For the first four years of the Center's existence, we will track the policies that are discussed in this report. In the final year, we will present policy manuals designed for local administrators and policymakers as well as those at the state and Federal levels.

The policy monitoring project is conducted in the overall framework of the Center's work. We believe that society and its educational institutions can do more to improve the education of all children. More will be accomplished if families and communities work with schools and with each other to promote successful students (Center on Families, 1990). Policies at all levels -- school, district, state, national (Federal

and national organizations) -- have the potential to build collaboration.

The Center's theoretical framework of overlapping spheres of influence is designed to encourage research on specific "connections in multiple environments and research that uses diverse methodologies and perspectives."

The framework facilitates our approach in this study which seeks to trace the influences of policies, programs, practices, and context. Policies and practices of family-community-school collaboration are variables which can be altered by policymakers and/or practitioners. Hence, the findings of this kind of study have practical implications.

In the introductory chapter, we will elaborate on this framework and discuss the criteria that we use to examine the developments and events which we have "mapped."

INTRODUCTION

A Statement of the Problem

Every day new studies and reports are released with a very disturbing conclusion: the current educational and human service system is failing our children. A Nation at Risk and subsequent analyses of our nation's schools brought to national attention what many families and communities already knew: high dropout rates and low student achievement meant their children were not receiving the education they would need to succeed in a changing world.

These children come from diverse backgrounds living in rural as well as urban areas. Furthermore, while single-parent households face tremendous obstacles, children living in poverty are just as likely to come from "traditional" two-parent families as single-parent households. The common stereotypes about poverty and families no longer hold true. Families are increasingly faced with multiple, interrelated problems that, if not resolved as a whole, will continue to multiply and keep these families on a downward spiral.

In their study on school reform, Marshall Smith and Jennifer O'Day (1991) find that the entire school governance structure in the United States is fragmented and often produces policies that contradict or compete with each other.

The policy generation machines at each level and within each level have independent timelines, political interests, multiple and changing special interest groups, and few incentives to spend the time and energy to coordinate their efforts. As a result, policies compete, overlap, and often conflict (Smith & O'Day, 1991).

Given this political system, it was not surprising to find fragmentation in our study of policies related to family-school-community partnerships. Our survey of existing services and initiatives suggests that this fragmented system fails to recognize the multiple problems faced by many families and their children. While new initiatives for dealing with the problems of children are proposed all the time, it is unclear how these initiatives fit together and fit into existing programs already in place.

A Time for Partnerships

Education for all children can be improved, but schools cannot be expected to accomplish educational improvement on their own. Many recent studies indicate that student achievement is enhanced through family and community involvement in the schools. It is the belief and mission of the Center that collaboration between families, schools, and communities can boost student achievement and encourage the successful academic and social development for all children.

Collaboration, however, does not just happen on the local level. Families, schools, and communities are part of Federal and state institutions. These institutions support (or hinder) and shape the processes and ideas expressed by families, schools, and communities. Without collaboration between the Federal, state, and local levels, efforts on the local level can be seriously undermined.

Federal, state, and local institutions are explicitly guided through formal and informal policies that govern and define the relationships between policymakers, administrators, teachers, social service providers, day care workers, parents, families, business leaders, and others involved in children's lives. Furthermore, policies also partly determine the limits of what is possible. For example, the America 2000 plan proposes changing Chapter 1 guidelines. Chapter 1 funds would be freed to follow students should they decide to attend another school. This proposal has principals worried that Chapter 1 programs will be diluted as students choose other schools. This policy, if implemented, could limit what some schools can do for Chapter 1 students. At the same time, this added flexibility in Chapter 1 funding could provide new money for other schools.

Policy becomes a crucial factor for promoting collaboration and partnerships. Policy is not something "they" do just in Washington. Everyone is, in a way, a policymaker. A parent sets a policy when she or he establishes an objective for academic achievement with their children or limits the amount of time to be allowed for watching television. A teacher sets policies in their own classrooms with respect to homework, conduct, and participation. A principal makes policy when she or he establishes objectives for a school or rules for student behavior. A social service agency makes policy when it determines when and how its field workers relate to school officials. A school council or a parent association sets policies about the allocation of funds for school projects. A business makes educational policy when it decides to encourage its employees to volunteer in their local schools or contributes equipment for computer labs.

Policymaking in this country is highly decentralized, which is a plus for democratic participation, but which often leads to fragmented and contradictory policies. The interest of children can be subverted when communication and coordination break down between and among the myriad policymakers.

This Center believes that children -- especially children living in poverty -- will benefit if the key individuals and institutions in their world take seriously the idea that they have a shared and overlapping responsibility for the social and academic development and success of all children. Policies at all levels, both formal and informal, can help to make the idea of shared responsibility work better in practice. To study and understand how policies across levels combine to influence practice, this project is mapping and monitoring formal policies at the Federal, state, and local levels.

Review of the Research

This report explicitly draws upon the whole child concept and other ecological models put forth by Urie Bronfenbrenner and others. The whole child concept is a "holistic" approach that places emphasis upon the connections between the multiple environments that influence child development. The child is understood to be part of a family; therefore, policies and programs that specifically target children must also take their families into consideration.

The evidence concerning the positive impact of parent/community involvement on student achievement continues to grow. Parents are more likely to be involved in their schools if teachers and other school personnel are willing to inform parents on the different ways they can help. Family differences and constraints in scheduling and education require different models of family involvement so that all families can participate in their children's learning.

The emphasis on connections in the Center's work rests on the assumption that increased family involvement by different kinds of families, including those parents that schools often label "hard to reach," requires diversified practices on the part of teachers and communities that assist and inform families on the different ways of helping with their children's education.

While past research has focused on the impact of family characteristics (such as race, social class, and structure) on family involvement, more and more studies are finding that family involvement depends upon the practices and experiences of families, schools, and communities and not on status variables.

While ecological concepts highlight the importance of looking at the multiple environments that impact child development, we need

a model that examines the connections between environments and the context in which these environments develop.

This study views the "inter-institutional connections of the school, family, and community as a set of overlapping spheres of influence on children's learning and development." This theoretical framework was developed by Joyce Epstein drawing on the ecological model of Bronfenbrenner (1979); the sociological perspectives of families as educators of Leichter (1974); the sociological perspectives on the connections between institutions and individuals (Litwak & Meyer, 1974); the partnership thesis advanced by Seeley (1981); and the long tradition of sociological and psychological research on school and family environments and their effects (Coleman et al, Epstein & McPartland, 1979, and many others).

This overlap also illustrates the permeability of boundaries between institutions and individuals which enables policymakers to re-arrange or restructure these institutions to meet the needs of children more effectively (See Figure 1).

The Framework

In this report, we expand the "whole child" concept by looking at the institutional context which frames the immediate environments that impact children's learning. So, while we are primarily interested in family-school-community partnerships, we are also examining Federal and state policies that promote or hinder local collaborations.

We have identified six major policy areas that have the potential either to foster family-school-community partnerships or to fragment the current system further. Of course, there are many other topics that could have been included. The first five of these topics represent developments and trends of considerable scope and significance.

These topics are:

1. Infants and Toddlers. Policies to stimulate family and community interventions aimed at fostering the development of very young children from birth to age three.
2. Family Support. Policies to encourage provision of educational and social support to families of children during the first two decades of their lives.
3. Coordination of Health and Human Services. Policies to encourage coordination and integration among diverse providers of human, social, health, and educational services.

4. Parent Choice. Policies to increase opportunities for parents to choose among schools.

5. School Restructuring. Policies to encourage or direct the restructuring of schools which include different roles and relationships between schools and parents and other community institutions.

The sixth topic -- Chapter 1 -- is of a different order. It is included in our tracking effort not because it is a significant new trend or development (as it is an old and well-known Federal program); but rather, the 1988 amendments made the law dramatically more flexible, encouraging the use of funds for younger children, for parent involvement, and for school-wide projects. These changes mean that Chapter 1 money is now accessible for purposes related to forging parent and community partnerships. This seems to us to be a major policy development which is affecting other state and local policies and practices.

By juxtaposing these six policy areas, we are able to evaluate the strengths and the holes or missing links that are necessary for building family-school-community partnerships. As this is the first of a series of reports on policy initiatives, this map selectively provides us with positive and negative examples of potential collaborations between levels and topics and across institutions. We do not pretend to know everything we need to in order to evaluate policy coordination, but the first step should inform a more comprehensive framework to facilitate coordination.

Collaboration among policies and programs requires an evaluative framework that is collaborative as well. If a comprehensive assessment of policies is to be attempted, then what would a comprehensive framework look like? At this time, we have identified seven criteria for evaluating policy developments. These criteria are subject to change as we continue our study over the next four years. For now, these seven criteria are: flexibility, intensity, continuity, universality, participation, coordination, and comprehensiveness.

Flexibility

A flexible policy would allow individuals to take advantage of different resources in a community and create a multi-faceted program that suits them. Flexibility also refers to making programs responsive to different kinds of needs. Rigid policies make it difficult to respond to family needs quickly and effectively. Rigid policies also create unnecessary walls between various social service agencies thereby, limiting the capacity of agencies to respond to multiple problems. Boundaries between institutions may be made more permeable by relaxing rules and regulations related to responsibilities so that more families

can participate.

Coordination between agencies and between families, schools, and communities can only occur if the agencies and institutions are flexible and if bureaucracies change their focus strongly in the interests of children and their families. For example, many family support programs that are flexible prepare parents for being active participants in their children's education; however, this training is for naught if the school system is too rigid to accept parent input (Kagan and Holdeman, 1989; Kagan, 1991).

Flexibility is required in order to maximize access to current programs and to increase participation. Services that are offered at night as well as in the daytime allow more people to take part. Classes and training programs that have day care facilities will reduce the number of young parents dropping out of these programs (Education and Human Services Consortium, 1991).

Intensity

The second criterion for evaluating policy is intensity. To put it simply, programs and policies must be strong enough to "break the cycle of disadvantage" (Schorr, 1988). Our stress on intensive programs mirrors a concern for comprehensive, continuous programs that ensure that populations most in need receive the best services. With schools, social service agencies, communities, and families working together, problems can be prevented. Teachers and parents can assess children's development and refer them to the services they need before a problem erupts (Education and Human Consortium, 1991). "Superficial" (i.e., non-intensive) programs result in the families most in need falling through the cracks which perpetuates the cycle of disadvantage.

Services can become intensive by building on each other and offering diverse options for families to create their own package of resources that cater to their individual circumstances. Research on the make-up of families reveals a diversity of families that requires a diversity of options in order to have their needs met (Scott-Jones, 1986; Epstein, 1982).

The need for intensive programs arises out of the reality that effective, sustainable programs are not yet universally available; therefore, those at-risk should have easy access to the best health, education, and social services as early as possible (Schorr, 1988).

Continuity

In order for programs to be effective and to increase access for families, services need to be continuous. Continuous programs

ease transitions between age groups and sustain programs over time. In a continuous system, programs will complement each other at all levels. Federal mandates and regulations must be continuous with programs administered on the state and local levels. Continuity, therefore, not only applies to the administering of programs on just the local level or just the state level, but also applies to the regulation and administration of policy between the local, state, and Federal levels. Fragmented services interrupt delivery of services to families while undermining their effectiveness.

Continuity requires that institutions be flexible enough and coordinated in order to respond to the needs of children and their families in transition from either home to school, between school levels, or from school to work.

Universality

Universal policies require that services and programs be made available very broadly. Proponents for universal policies argue that more families are more likely to participate if policies do not target particular populations (Engstrom, 1991).

The at-risk label implies a stigma which makes it unpalatable for families who do not wish to be associated with welfare. During fiscal hard times or in a political climate in which the welfare system is blamed for crises, the welfare stigma can also be hazardous to the development of programs. People are more likely to support programs that are inclusive rather than exclusive.

The removal of the at-risk label, however, could be detrimental to the populations who were originally targeted by the policies in the first place. If categorical funding is not used, then low-income, minority, or special education students may lose out if the money is used for other purposes. The question then becomes how to expand the at-risk definition without sacrificing the gains made by low-income, minority, or special education advocates.

Expansion of the at-risk definition enables school districts to use monies designated by category more creatively and reach more children. One example is the changes in Chapter 1 regulations that allow schools to use equipment bought with Chapter 1 money for other students when the equipment is not used for low-income students. This enables more students to benefit from resources without detracting from the needs of the targeted population.

Participation

There are two ways that families can participate in influencing decisions concerning schools and educational programs: voice and choice (Seeley, 1981). Voice gives families and community

members the opportunity to influence school planning (including spending priorities and curriculum decisions), evaluating school programs, as well as direct school governance or decision-making. Choice is the option of leaving the school or program altogether and finding another one more responsive to the needs of the individual family. These two options are effective strategies for letting educational institutions know what families need and want. Top-down, centrally administered school systems often fail to meet the diverse needs of families and communities.

Flexibility and coordination make resources available to everyone so that they may participate more effectively in society. Administration and expansion of services should include the input of families that participate. Programs and services should serve to empower families not keep them on a dependency cycle.

Coordination

Coordination refers to collaborative relationships that respect the partners involved. Coordination brings programs and people together to solve problems by sharing resources. Shared goals and working together need to be emphasized.

Coordination can save resources and approach problems more holistically and more effectively. For example, in a collaborative setting, locating social services at schools eliminates some overhead costs but allows social workers to maintain their autonomy and reach more students. What needs to be avoided is the situation where services are located at schools and the effectiveness of services are being undermined because the school personnel do not understand or want the social workers in their school. (Education and Human Services Consortium, 1991).

Another pitfall to be avoided is the implementation of programs by Federal and state agencies that target the same population but do not complement each other. This leads to duplication of effort and lack of concentration on other services needed. Again, coordination between the different levels can eliminate some of this duplication and be more effective.

Comprehensiveness

The final criterion used in this report is really the sum of the other five criteria. Comprehensiveness refers to the pulling together of different programs on the basis of need. Comprehensive programs recognize the interconnections between problems and develop varied strategies in order to resolve them. Comprehensive programs tend to target families and not just children since many children's needs reflect family needs.

Programs that are successful in reaching and helping the most disadvantaged children and families typically

offer a broad spectrum of services. They recognize that social and emotional support and concrete help (with food, housing, income, employment -- or anything else that seems to the family to be an insurmountable obstacle) may have to be provided before the family can make use of other interventions . . . (Schorr, 1988).

Comprehensive programs act under the assumption that successful learning requires that the needs of the whole child be met; therefore, these programs bring together educational, health, family support, and other human services.

Comprehensive programs require coordination, flexibility, intensity, continuity, universality, and a built-in mechanism for family and community participation in order to make these programs effective.

The above framework establishes a set of criteria to evaluate trends in our six policy tracking areas. The policy map that we have charted provides examples of what states and the Federal government are doing about promoting family-school-community partnerships.

The next six chapters evaluate sample policies based on our findings with respect to our seven criteria. Each chapter identifies key trends within our six policy topics and offers examples of each trend. The examples illustrate the kinds of programs and policies that have the potential to build coordination between families, schools, and communities on the Federal, state, and local levels. Finally, at the end of each chapter, we evaluate these policy trends according to our seven criteria.

The final chapter draws conclusions on the potential connections among the six policy developments using the seven criteria as a report card of sorts. Appendix A lists resources on these policies and programs.

INFANTS AND TODDLERS

* Reauthorization of Head Start signals renewed Federal support to provide comprehensive services to infants and toddlers. Senate and House have agreed on a 1992 budget of \$2.2 billion -- an approximately \$1 billion increase over the 1989 appropriation. The number of Parent and Child Centers, comprehensive child development and family support centers serving 0-3 year olds will be increased to at least one in every state. Head Start still serves only one-third of all eligible children.

* Federal push for coordination of early childhood education and elementary school programs. Joint ED/HHS task force formed to help local school districts ease transitions between Head Start and Chapter 1 programs.

* Reauthorization and revision of Part H of the Individuals with Disabilities Act (P.L. 102-119) to support states in offering coordinated and integrated services for disabled infants and toddlers. The Senate and House have agreed on a budget of \$175 million for 1992, a close to \$50 million increase over the 1991 appropriation.

* A few states initiate action to increase funding for infant and toddler programs. Example: Arkansas \$287.2 million Educational Excellence Trust Fund. Tight state budgets force some states to abandon proposed budget increases. Example: Colorado.

The current debate around early childhood education centers on: (1) how to reach more children; (2) how to reach younger children; and (3) how to integrate early childhood education into a comprehensive framework which includes health care for infants and their mothers, parent education, and child care support.

Our Center is interested in how home-school-community partnerships can promote school readiness for all children. The following section highlights key policies and programs identified during 1990 and 1991 as fostering coordination across local, state, and federal levels in order to address the varied needs of infants and toddlers and their families.

1. HOW TO REACH MORE CHILDREN

Increased appropriations for Federal programs is one strong indicator of the new interest in providing early intervention services to infants and toddlers. The list of Federal programs which have received or are scheduled to receive increases includes:

* **Head Start** is reauthorized for four years with funding expected to reach \$7.6 billion by 1994. The 1992 appropriation is \$2.2 billion, an approximately \$1 billion increase over 1989 appropriation.

* **Chapter 1** funds early childhood education through the Even Start programs and the Chapter 1 migrant program. Even Start's 1991 appropriation is \$49.7 million. The 1992 Even Start appropriation is \$70 million, an over \$20 million increase over 1991 appropriation. The overall Chapter 1 appropriation for 1992 is \$6.6 billion, a \$2.2 billion increase over the 1989 appropriation.

* **The Child Care Act**, enacted in 1990, gives states \$2.5 billion to help them improve access to quality child care for low-income families.

* **Part H of P.L. 99-457**, early intervention program for children who are handicapped or at-risk of developmental delay. The 1992 appropriation is \$175 million, a close to \$50 million increase over the 1991 appropriation.

A number of states have initiated increases in state funding for programs targeting infants and toddlers. As of August 1991, Arkansas, Colorado, Georgia, Connecticut, and Kentucky all had proposed budgets which include increases for programs in maternal health, Head Start matching funds, and parent education. In Arkansas, \$15 million in new funds has been approved for use in early childhood education programs such as Head Start and HIPPY.

Connecticut now provides start-up funds for Family Resource Centers. Based on the Schools for the 21st Century model, Family Resource Centers provide school-based child development and family support services to all children and families residing in the surrounding community. The program extends and strengthens services to infants and toddlers by providing (i) full-day child care, (ii) training and support to family day care providers, and (iii) school and homebased parent education for new and expectant mothers. The program is designed to encourage partnerships and shared responsibility between schools, agencies, families, and child care providers to foster a child's development.

Some increases in appropriations is an encouraging sign of new Federal and state commitment to reach greater numbers of infants and toddlers. However, even as the appropriations increase, so does the scope of the problem. The number of children living in poverty is expected to reach one child in four by the year 2000. In spite of the increases, Head Start still serves only one-third of all eligible children. The economic recession gripping the nation makes it difficult for many states to fund their own early childhood programs much less support Federal initiatives. For example, Colorado's proposed budget increase for preschoolers and the Parents as First Teachers program did not pass and spending for education remains capped.

The changing role of Federal and state agencies in administering programs can have a great impact on how many children are served. The recent consolidation of Human Development Services and the Family Support Administration within the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services places dozens of programs for children and families under one bureaucratic roof. The new Administration for Children and Families has assumed responsibility for Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC), Social Services Block Grant, Maternal and Child Health Block Grant, and well as many other programs formerly scattered among Federal agencies.

The consolidation is intended primarily to promote coordination across sectors. The consolidation also has the potential to promote increased participation in programs through more effective use of existing resources and through integration of program regulations and eligibility criteria. Earlier in the year, some state officials predicted that administration of the Federal Child Care program by the Family Support Administration would limit participation by discouraging families who qualify for assistance under the child care law from participating in programs with "welfare stigma" and limiting the participation of community child care providers through low reimbursement levels.

II. HOW TO REACH YOUNGER CHILDREN

Now that the value of early childhood education is well-accepted, the debate has moved to how to maximize the benefits through earlier intervention in a child's life. New attention is being given to designing programs which respond to both the developmental and educational needs of infants and toddlers. Some early intervention programs now not only target infants and toddlers but provide prenatal services to their parents.

Recent Federal legislation is aimed directly at the 0-3 age bracket. The reauthorized Head Start program mandates an increase in the number of Parent and Child Centers to at least one in every state. Awards have been made in all but six states. Based on the Head Start model, Parent and Child Centers are comprehensive child development and family support centers

serving 0-3 year olds. Like Family Resource Centers, Parent and Child Centers are anchored in a "family-centered, whole child approach" to early education. Educational programs are designed to stimulate a child's physical, cognitive, and emotional development. Comprehensive health and social services are provided for pregnant women, infants and toddlers, and for the family as a whole. Parents are given the opportunity to develop skills in child development and family management practices.

The regulations guiding the operation of Parent and Child Centers are intended to respond both to the varied needs of communities and the shared needs of infants and toddlers. Program developers are encouraged to design programs and test approaches based on individual community needs. The fifty plus PCC's currently in operation vary in the number of days and hours of operation and offer alternately a home-based or school-based approach. Proposed program regulations will balance this flexibility in program design with a new emphasis on performance standards. The proposed standards concern staff-child ratio, staff training, educational approaches, and teacher-child ratio.

Programs such as Parent and Child Centers reflect a new emphasis on earlier intervention to maximize benefits for children and families. The benefits of very early childhood education also can be extended by facilitating transitions between programs serving older age groups. The Head Start transition act was recently passed. Thirty-two demonstration projects were awarded \$650,000 for each of three years. Each project must include a triad partnership between a Head Start program, a local school, and an institution of higher education or other research institution and will provide and track achievement levels of Head Start participants through the third grade.

Federal agencies also are being encouraged to provide more continuous services to children across age groups. The U.S. Department of Education and the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services recently convened a task force whose objectives are sustaining the gains made by children in Head Start and other preschool programs during their early years in school and fostering the coordination of Head Start with compensatory education programs, such as Even Start. The task force has made some initial recommendations for further action by ED and HHS including:

- * Establish a national task force to develop guidelines to help local transition initiatives;
- * Help fund: (1) local transition initiatives; (2) state coordinators in charge of transition; and (3) local design of developmentally appropriate curricula;
- * Promote investigation of the effects on transition of

differences in program structure between Head Start and public schools, including salary schedules, class size and operating philosophy; and

* Include provisions for transition training in the regulations for the recently passed day care bill.

In general, state funding around early childhood education is still targeted primarily to the 3-5 age group. There is some evidence of increased state activity in providing services to children under four and their families. For example, the Parents as Teachers (PAT) program, a comprehensive parent education/child development program which originated in Missouri, is being replicated in school districts in at least six states including Rhode Island, Texas, Louisiana, Connecticut, California, and Kansas. In addition, a national center has been established in St. Louis which provides information on PAT and on-site training and support.

III. HOW TO INTEGRATE EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION INTO A COMPREHENSIVE FRAMEWORK WHICH INCLUDES HEALTH CARE FOR INFANTS AND THEIR MOTHERS, PARENT EDUCATION, AND CHILD SUPPORT.

Providing services to infants and toddlers is being considered within a new framework which recognizes the educational and health services for infants and toddlers, parent education, child care, and family support as having complementary objectives. A comprehensive framework which integrates services into a unified program demands a change in the way that schools; families; and health, social, and educational agencies do business.

Federal and state legislation can help or hinder the building of partnerships between schools, communities, and families. P.L. 99-457, Part H is an example of Federal legislation explicitly designed to foster comprehensive service delivery for special needs youngsters and their families. Part H (revised and signed into law in 1991) matches many of the criteria which we have identified as contributing to the full development of all children.

Key Aspects of P.L. 99-457, Part H

Under Title I of the E.H.A., Part H of P.L. 99-457 (P.L. 102-119), is designed to give states seed money to 1) develop and implement a state-wide, comprehensive coordinated, and multi-disciplinary inter-agency program of early intervention services for disabled infants and toddlers (0-2 years) and their families; 2) to promote coordinated payment of services from Federal, states, local and private sources; and 3) to strengthen the quality of early intervention services (Ooms, 1990).

The legislation mandates the provision of comprehensive services

to disabled infants and toddlers by requiring states to develop a multi-disciplinary assessment of the needs of the child and determination of the families strengths and needs using non-discriminatory practices. To insure that the needs of the whole child are addressed, the regulations specify ten different kinds of services and eight categories of personnel which must be provided in accordance with each Individualized Family Service Plan.

Part H gives states the flexibility to expand the reach of services for handicapped infants and toddlers. Following general guidelines, states determine what constitutes "developmental delay." The legislation also gives states the option to serve children who they deem to be "at-risk" of developmental delay. In giving states new flexibility to define eligibility criteria, the law creates the potential to serve a broader range of children with special needs.

Part H encourages highly intensive preventive service delivery which can meet the varied and long-term needs of special need infants and toddlers and their families. Requirements for coordinated program administration, child and family assessment and referral, funding mechanisms, and information systems are all intended to address the fragmentation and gaps in services which parents and professionals of handicapped infants and toddlers have criticized.

The law seeks to reconfigure the role of state and Federal agencies by requiring inter-agency coordination across agencies and sectors. A Federal Inter-Agency Coordinating Council brings together the ten agencies involved in the implementation of Part H. Each state must establish a lead agency to oversee administrative activities and a fifteen member Interagency Coordinating Council of which 20% must be parents. The legislation does not define a coordinating council at the local level.

A significant effect of the law is to separate special needs children into two different age groups (0-2) and (3-5) with each group receiving services under separate Federal programs. Disabled 3-5 year olds are served under a separate Federal program (Free and Appropriate Public Education, FAPE). Part H gives states the option of extending services to a younger age group (0-2 year olds). States participating in Part H are required to provide free and appropriate public education to all eligible 3-5 year olds in order to receive any Federal preschool funds (Family Impact Seminar, 1990).

States' Responses and Concerns

States have varied in their responses to P.L. 99-457. Building upon a long history of interdepartmental coordination, the state

of Maine has pushed beyond the mandate to create a sophisticated service delivery structure which tries to place children's and families' needs first. The components of Maine's system most relevant to this discussion include:

- * A three-tiered governance structure builds partnership across a wide range of sectors and extends cooperation down to the local level. The program is governed by the Interdepartmental Coordinating Council for Preschool Handicapped Children (ICCPHC) at the state level in coordination with sixteen Local Coordinating Committees (LCC). The state level council and the local councils must involve representatives across agencies and from the public and private sector.

- * Parents are actively encouraged to participate in the administration and the implementation of the program. Parents and other community members serve on the ICCPHC and LCC's and on various subcommittee and work groups. Each child case management team must include a child's parents. Parents receive ongoing training and support. A group of parents which recently formed to address parent issues has developed a resource guide for parents using the system and an orientation program for parents.

- * The state is in the process of developing policies which ease the transition for participants across grades and promote consistency in services as families move to different parts of the state. First, a transition policy has been developed to help address needs and issues surrounding participants' transition from the Early Intervention System into public school. Secondly, the state is in the process of coordinating eligibility criteria, procedures and service delivery methods for different groups within the programs, and designing common format for individualized family service plans.

In following the spirit of the law, the states have worked to mold the legislation to complement existing policies and to meet the needs of the state's population. For example, in dividing programs for special needs children into two age groups 0-2 and 3-5, P.L. 99-457 can obstruct states' efforts to provide continuous services to children from birth through school-age. Current efforts are focused on integrating Federal programs for different age-groups into "one comprehensive 0-5 system with common eligibility criteria, procedures, and service delivery methods." State officials now claim that in the face of impending budget cuts, Federal legislation P.L. 99-457 threatens Maine's seamless system. While the state is willing to continue funding the 3-5 age group, it says that it cannot make the same commitment to 0-2 age bracket.

Part H gives states the option of extending services to handicapped infants and toddlers but includes few significant incentives to do so. States who choose to participate are

required to provide services to all eligible children by the fifth year of the program or lose funding. Last year, Norena Hale of the National Association of State Directors of Education warned that unless states are given more time to implement the law, many would drop out of the program.

The new law gives states the option of extending services to children at risk of developmental delay. Pointing to their state's fiscal crisis coupled with lack of Federal guidelines, 15 out of the 20 states who initially agreed to include children at-risk in their program have since indicated that they are no longer planning to do so.

The flexibility given to states in determining eligibility criteria also can prevent continuity of service for mobile segments of the population, i.e. migrants and American Indians. Advocates of the needs of migrant children and American Indian children have argued that as a result of variations in state eligibility criteria many children become ineligible for services when they move with their families to a different state.

Revisions in Part H

In October of 1991, President Bush signed legislation authorizing the early intervention program for disabled infants and toddlers for three years. The new law includes major revisions which can help to strengthen partnerships between the families, communities and schools which provide services to disabled infants and toddlers. For example, the law:

- * Extends the length of the program three years and gives states an extra two years to insure coordinated services to all eligible for their programs;
- * Allows use of funds to provide free and appropriate education for children who turn three during school year "whether or not disabled children are receiving or have received services under Part H";
- * Requires states to develop policies for easing the transition for children (0-2) into the second component of the program (3-5). Policies must include a description of how families will be involved in the transition;
- * Requires that 20% of the State Coordinating Council be made up by parents. Original law required representation of three parents, irrespective of size;
- * Strengthens the role of the community in program by requiring that early intervention services be provided in "natural environments" including home and community settings to the maximum extent appropriate. Individualized family service plan

must include an identification of support services which can enhance each family's capacity to meet developmental needs of infants.

Donna Farrar at the Council for Exceptional Children reports that the reauthorization process has encouraged increased collaboration between educators and policymakers with positive results. Consensus around the bill was built through joint task forces and open hearings which included leaders in the field of special education and early childhood education.

However, in spite of general agreement that the revisions in Part H work in the interest of children, a number of larger issues still loom. For example, "Does the law's separation of eligible children into different age groups interfere with providing continuous services?" The revised law helps states to ease transition between the two age groups by allowing them to use FAPE funds for two year olds. However, separate regulations and funding requirements still govern each program.

A second issue is whether federal programs exclusively targeted to special needs children reinforce inequities within the classroom. A recent report by the National Association of State Boards of Education suggests that the Education for All Handicapped Children Act under which Part H falls, cuts off special education children from mainstream education through separate funding, facilities, regulations, teacher training and licensure. This argument suggests that even child-centered legislation, such as Part H, may not reach far enough to help all infants and toddlers succeed.

Questions such as these point to the need for continued research and evaluation of policies and programs targeted to infants and toddlers and their families. In this report, we suggest that an evaluative framework which includes criteria such as comprehensiveness, continuity, and participation be used to assess the impact of various policies and programs on children's learning. The Center's own research agenda includes a commissioned study on how communities can enhance family functioning and assist in the education and development of children birth to age 3. This study will complement the research being conducted by Sharon Lynn Kagan (Bush Center on Child Development and Social Policy, Yale University) on the benefits of various parenting training programs on children's success.

FAMILY SUPPORT

- * Increases in state family education programs including the expansion of Missouri's Parents as Teachers programs to six other states.
 - * Federal government makes commitment to child care development and financial assistance for at-risk families through passage of Child Care and Development Act of 1991.
 - * Family Support Act, reauthorization of Even Start, and Adult Literacy Act facilitate Federal integration of job training, literacy, and family support programs.
-

In the field of family support, there have been numerous recent policy developments within three main areas: family education, child care, and family literacy. The following section identifies examples of policies that exemplify the kinds of programs and policies that have the potential to forge new family-school-community partnerships.

Family Education

The first few years of a child's life can affect that child's success in school and in later life. As the first guardians of a child's development, parents provide the early experiences that anchor a child on to the path of successful development. Together, these two assumptions make up the foundation for the Parents as Teachers (PAT) program currently underway in Missouri.

In 1984, the Missouri legislature passed the Early Childhood Development Act which provided state funding to local school districts embracing the PAT program (or similar parent education programs). The act established developmental screening to detect problems that a child may have in language and speech development, hearing, sight, and motor skills, and other physical/health problems. Parents have access to classes and home visits that enable parents to assist their children at home. Through individual and group classes, parent and child classes, guidance and support, parents are exposed to various environments to learn more about how they can be more involved in their children's early development. Under the act, school districts may contract with outside agencies, school districts, or organizations to provide these services if they are unable to establish a program of their own. The program is open to all families with children under the age of five and is completely voluntary.

The Missouri PAT program is an interesting example of a family support program that embraces many of the six criteria outlined in this report including universality, continuity, flexibility, a participatory emphasis, and comprehensiveness.

The program as a whole is open to all children. As such, participation in the program is high with many districts exceeding the quotas established by the state. Although all families are eligible, many districts have emphasized reaching the "hard to reach" parent. The program is continuous in so far as the program extends from the last trimester before birth to the age of five -- when the child is eligible to enter school.

The state prioritized developmental screening and parent education through legislation on the basis that early childhood development is an investment that will pay off with lower dropout rates and less dependence on public assistance later in life. Three recent studies of the PAT program have shown increases in children's scores on comprehension and perception skills in language and intelligence (Parents as Teachers National Center, 1990).

The program attempts to be responsive to the needs of diverse families by employing various strategies. Home visits, parent groups, individual and group classes, and developmental monitoring, provide different ways of reaching parents. With monthly group meetings at the school site and at least five home visits a year, the PAT program provides considerable training for parents. Some early childhood experts, however, caution that this training falls short of the needed level of intensity.

The PAT program aims to empower parents to be more actively involved in their children's success by giving parents the knowledge and skills necessary for identifying problems and improving their children's learning at home. The parent groups also create a forum for parents to share their experiences and learn from each other.

The PAT program has established a national center that serves as a clearinghouse for information as well as on-site training and consultation services. The center also provides an inservice support system that disseminates experiences among parent educators. This relationship between the state and the local levels strengthens the program by garnering more resources and information in one central location while leaving program design and implementation to the local districts.

U.S. Senator Christopher Bond (R-Missouri) is sponsoring a bill that would make Federal funds available for PAT programs nationwide. The bill would also establish a Federal PAT center with similar functions as the PAT national center in Missouri.

The PAT program has been exported from Missouri and applied in school districts in several states across the country including Rhode Island, Texas, Louisiana, Connecticut, California, and Kansas.

The PAT program is an example of a state-wide parent education program that seeks to increase family-school partnerships. While the PAT program ends with the child's entry into school, the parents' desire for their children's success does not; therefore, the PAT program not only aims to give parents the skills to be their child's first teacher, but also creates the bedrock for further parental involvement in school by training parents to be an active partner in their children's education. What remains is for schools to open up to these parents and invite their participation.

Child Care

In September 1984, the Select Committee on Children, Youth, and Families issued a report on families and their child care options. According to the report, the options and expense of child care for working families are severely limited leaving many families without adequate child care.

The Select Committee identified three main factors that explain the current shortage of child care. The first factor has to do with an increase in the number of children under the age of ten who will require some form of adult supervision. This increase coupled with an increase in two-income families has resulted in a need for more out-of-home child care. The Select Committee found that many families have both parents working for economic reasons -- family median income had decreased by nine percent. In addition to the two-income family, there has also been an increase in single-parent households with incomes less than \$10,000.

These changing realities have increased the demand for out-of-home care without increasing the supply of child care providers. Child care tax policies and family tax credits have not increased sufficiently to assist families with the financial support they need for child care. Many working families do not earn an income high enough to take full advantage of tax credits. In addition to the financial difficulties and lack of child care providers, reports of abuse in child care settings makes it more difficult for families to find adequate, safe child care. The variability of the level of quality and services provided increases the possibilities of abuse. The child care picture is further complicated by lack of adequate family leave policies requiring families to find infant care or risk losing their jobs.

Based on their analysis of family options for child care, the

Select Committee proposed a set of recommendations to improve child care provision. Among the recommendations were:

1. amend tax policies related to families in order to insure that families are not discriminated against for income or choosing in-home care;
2. introduce safeguards to protect children from abuse;
3. implement family leave policies to give families more flexibility with infant care without jeopardizing their employment;
4. increase Federal-level reinforcement of current child care services;
5. encourage the private sector should be encouraged to take more responsibility in providing child care; and
6. initiate Federal support for schools or community organizations to provide before- and after-school care.

In November 1990, the 101st Congress passed the Child Care and Development Act that is designed to assist low and middle-income working families with child care and to broaden child care options for everyone. The Select Committee report provided a basis for the drafting of the new legislation.

Through child care and development block grants, the new child care law provides states with the flexibility to give financial support to families for the purpose of child care. It also enables states to increase the supply of child care providers. The block grants also can be used for before and after-school care either in schools or community organizations, as well as for early childhood education programs. Congress has authorized \$2.5 billion for three years towards the block grants.

In addition to the block grants, the Child Care Act authorized a five-year, \$1.5 billion entitlement program that provides financial assistance to working families who are at risk of becoming dependent upon welfare. The entitlement program is administered through Title IV of the Social Security Act and requires states to match the entitlements in order to receive assistance. Because of this matching component, many states have not taken advantage of the program.

The new law expands the Earned Income Tax Credit to include low-income working families according to family size. A new tax credit will be offered to low-income families to offset expenses connected with child health insurance as well as giving families additional credit for infants under age one.

Finally, the Child Care Act authorized \$50 million to address standards and training for adequate child care. The money is to aid states in providing uniformity in child care provision while also building in safeguards against abuse.

The new law appears to meet five of our criteria. The new law is both universal and intensive in that there are provisions for improving child care supplies for all families while also targeting low-income working families through increased tax credits. The tax credits (before the law) were open to all working families but often did not amount to much for low-income families. The new law also is continuous in so far as child care provision is expanded beyond day care definitions to include before and after school care as well as early childhood education programs.

The law introduces flexibility by stressing the importance of states in implementing standards for training and development of child care providers. States can devise strategies using block grant money more flexibly in order to meet the individual needs of their respective constituencies.

Finally, the Child Care Act is one of the most comprehensive child care laws passed by Congress. The law attempts to address the child care issue from many different angles. The law assists families financially through tax policies and direct entitlement programs. The law also encourages coordination between the state and local levels through training programs and before and after-school programs. In this instance, the Child Care Act has the potential to reassign the roles of Federal, state, and local levels in order to increase the number of child care providers.

The Child Care Act does not meet one of our criteria -- participation. The law does not have any provisions for expanding family involvement in decision-making or policy setting about child care, although the Select Committee report does mention the need for family involvement in decision-making and advisory roles and as program staff and participants. The Select Committee suggested that the security of children in child care will be greatly enhanced by more of a presence of parents in child care programs. As of yet, the act does not explicitly call for involving parents in decision-making or in an advisory role in child care programs as a provision for funding. If the law did include parent involvement in its regulations, the law could significantly contribute to the building of family-child care partnerships that could lead to family-school partnerships in the future.

Family Literacy

This final category examines three family policies that relate specifically to family literacy.

The first example to be discussed is the Even Start program administered through the U.S. Department of Education. Even Start is designed to integrate early childhood education with adult literacy and parent education.

Even Start is open to all adults who are eligible for programs specified under the Adult Education Act. Even Start programs are responsible for screening eligible parents and their children and referring them to other services if necessary. Upon screening, eligible families are placed in instructional programs that teach adults how to read and care for their children while also preparing children for school. Even Start programs have the latitude to provide support services such as transportation and child care so that more parents can participate. Parents and their children also may have home-based instruction. Money for Even Start can be used to coordinate efforts with Head Start, literacy programs, job training programs, and related services.

Even Start is a comprehensive program that offers a wide range of services through coordination with local resources and existing programs. This integrated approach enables instructors to tackle problems of adult literacy and school readiness for young children simultaneously. Flexibility in location and scheduling allow for more families to benefit from this program. Even Start is particularly flexible in that it offers support services to insure greater involvement and success of the program. The integrated nature of Even Start programs enable providers to give parents and their children intensive services that are continuous until the child reaches age seven.

Participation in program design by the families themselves is limited to the evaluation process in which an independent evaluator interviews the participating families to obtain their feedback. A parent committee that participates in the design of the program at the time of application (similar to the Chapter 1 process for schoolwide schools) could greatly enhance the future successful development of Even Start.

A cautionary note concerns funding of the program. According to current legislation, if the funding level for Even Start exceeds \$50 million, administration of the program is automatically turned over to the states and funding is allocated in the form of block grants. In the 1992 fiscal year, Even Start will exceed this limit and there is speculation that funding for some Even Start programs will be reduced as individual states decide how much to allocate to their Even Start programs. Financially-strapped states may not fund Even Start at current levels. Even Start, like Head Start,

is one of the few comprehensive, Federal programs for early childhood education, and reduced funding could seriously affect its future success.

A second example of family literacy policy is the Family Support Act passed by Congress in 1988. The Family Support Act is an inter-agency collaborative effort aimed at fighting adult illiteracy. By teaming the U.S. Departments of Labor, Education, and Health and Human Services, the Act intends to give adults the literacy skills necessary for employment. A major component of the Act is the Job Opportunities Basic Skills (or JOBS) program -- an adult literacy and basic skills program administered on the state level. By October 1992, all states must have a JOBS agency in place.

The Act has the potential for creating comprehensive family support policies and pooling more resources for accomplishing the shared goals of the Federal government and states. The policy gives states flexibility for creating literacy programs tailored for their constituencies. What remains unclear is the extent to which the Family Support Act is intensive, continuous, and participatory. More information needs to be compiled over time in order to evaluate the act according to these criteria.

Our final example is the Adult Literacy Act (P.L. 102-73) recently signed by the President in July 1991. P.L. 102-73 authorizes \$1.8 billion for literacy programs for four years including the Adult Education Act and Even Start as well as a national clearinghouse of literacy information. The law also provides \$260 million for three years in basic grants to local school districts and community organizations interested in creating literacy and basic skills training programs. The law authorizes \$25 million for the establishment of state resource centers on literacy. Five million dollars (or \$20 million for four years) encourages small and medium businesses to provide literacy skills to their workers. Finally, the act gives \$2 million for the development of family literacy programs on public television.

The Adult Literacy Act, like the Family Support Act and Even Start, is a targeted policy aimed at helping disadvantaged adults with the skills they need to be gainfully employed. The law attempts to influence the workplace, the home, and community, and the school for reaching out to adults. The continuity and intensity of the law will depend upon the individual programs funded under the basic grants.

The Adult Literacy Act could be further strengthened by coordinating literacy efforts (such as Even Start, Adult Education basic grant programs, JOBS, etc.) with health and human service programs as well as public assistance agencies. The national clearinghouse could serve as a facilitator between state and Federal agencies while also providing references for local

organizations and school districts. Without this coordinated effort, the Adult Literacy Act could result in a set of literacy programs that duplicate effort and undermine existing programs.

COORDINATION OF HEALTH AND HUMAN SERVICES

* States sponsor comprehensive, integrated services for children and their families at the school level in New Jersey, Kentucky, Connecticut, California, Hawaii, Missouri, and Wyoming.

* HHS Secretary Louis Sullivan implements consolidation of children and family services into one administration in order to foster more collaborative efforts.

* Council of Chief State School Officers initiates three-year campaign to integrate health and family services with the schools in order to meet first national goal of ensuring all children come to school prepared to learn.

A quick glance at the current service delivery system reveals a fragmented maze that fails to meet the needs of many children and families in an efficient manner. Efforts to coordinate or integrate social services and health programs take many different forms. A minimal coordinating effort could consist of informal networks between local agencies that rely on referrals to direct clients to the right agencies that can provide the most assistance. This networking can be accomplished through case management.

Other coordinating efforts include locating a multitude of services at one neighborhood site such as a school or recreation center to enable families to receive services more conveniently. Such a model of co-location is sometimes referred to as a "one-stop" service model whereby schools serve as a central place where students and their families can receive all the services they need in one phase.

Yet another example of coordinating health and related services has to do with restructuring the very agencies involved in social service delivery. This restructuring involves a new set of relationships among various agencies on the Federal (and state and local levels) in order to promote more communication and information/resource sharing to create a more efficient and cost-efficient system.

This section describes three examples -- one for each kind of coordinating effort described above.

Cooperative Referral System

The cooperative referral system is a fancy way of describing a simple agreement between agencies to direct families to the services they need. A cooperative referral system encompasses many different forms of these agreements. Case management is one

example of a cooperative referral system whereby one social service worker identifies a set of services needed by a family. The case manager then follows up to make sure the family receives the services it needs. This follow-up should provide the intensity and continuity required to make a comprehensive system work. The case management model also creates a flexible arrangement that tailors programs according to the individual needs of families.

A cooperative referral system could also be a coalition of organizations and agencies that work together to create more responsive service delivery. The coalition also serves as a locus for identifying needs and garnering existing resources and skills as well as locating new resources. An example of this type of coalition is the Floyd County Youth Services Coalition (FCSYC) in Indiana.

Through networking, advocacy, and long range planning, the Floyd County Youth Services Coalition is able to create a more coordinated service delivery system for youth. The FCSYC is able to integrate social service agencies along with other community resources such as businesses and universities in order to bolster their resource base.

The cooperative referral system is a beginning for creating a more integrated system. The cooperative nature of these agreements protects the organizational integrity of individual agencies while coordinating resources and advocating for partnerships for a more integrated delivery approach. Such an integrative approach would require a restructuring of the relationships within and between agencies.

While cooperative agreements are an important first step for creating a comprehensive service delivery system, these agreements do not redesign the relationships between agencies and the schools required for building such a system. Cooperative agreements encourage planning for future collaborations as trust and goals are shared. Cooperation also could lead to an increase in intensity and continuity as information about other programs and services are more widely disseminated.

The "One-Stop" Service Model

The one-stop service model is part of a growing trend in collaborative efforts. The main idea is to provide health and related services in one convenient location. One of the best known examples of a statewide initiative for one-stop services is the New Jersey School-Based Youth Services Program. The Center, under the guidance of Lawrence Dolan at Johns Hopkins University, is currently evaluating aspects of the New Jersey program.

Another state initiative is the Kentucky Integrated Delivery System or KIDS. This program is a "one-stop" service model that

coordinates the efforts of social service workers, public health workers, and mental health counselors in designated elementary, middle, and high schools. The program establishes a set of goals for the system and outlines the responsibilities for each agency.

A case conference team made up of the different social service workers compile a list of children and their families who are identified as having multiple problems. The team refers these children and their families to the agencies designed to help them and follows up to insure that the families receive the services they need. The program also trains school staff to understand the work of the case conference team and to adapt to the procedures necessary to make such a collaboration work.

In 1990, the Kentucky General Assembly passed the Kentucky Education Reform Act that built upon the KIDS program and expanded the program state-wide. Under the law, Family Resource Centers and Youth Service Centers (functional equivalents of case conference teams) are currently being established in schools. Funding for the program, however, has not been sufficient to cover services at all schools making state-wide implementation impossible.

The KIDS initiative is a comprehensive program that coordinates the efforts of local agencies with the public schools. The Kentucky Education Reform Act solidifies this relationship between schools and social service delivery with the institution of Family Resource Centers.

The program provides intensive services through follow-up procedures that insure families are receiving the services they need. The flexibility of the program is built into the family and child-centered approach that tailors individual packages of services for the individual needs of different families. The continuity of the program, however, relies upon the consistency of the funding from the state. Fluctuations in funding mean interruptions in service delivery. We hope that researchers in Kentucky will study the impact of school-based management and other aspects of the Reform Act upon the functioning of the Centers and see if the school councils boost participation of families in Center decision-making.

Restructuring Service Delivery

In the Spring of 1991, Secretary Louis Sullivan announced his plan to consolidate various agencies concerned with children into one administration. The Administration of Children and Families would combine income maintenance programs such as AFDC, WIC, and Child Support Enforcement along with child care programs, child health programs (the Maternal and Child Health block grants for example), foster care and adoption assistance, early childhood education programs (including Head Start), and other child related service programs.

The intent behind the consolidation plan was to create a central administrative locus from which collaborative efforts between Federal agencies dealing with children can be established. The plan would theoretically avoid duplication of services while creating a more integrative approach for serving the multiple needs of children and families.

Arguments for the consolidation plan praise the collaborative potential of such an undertaking. By placing all these agencies under one roof, so to speak, resources, information, and administrative costs can be shared and the cracks between service delivery can be mended. Such consolidation, however, is not an easy task.

Arguments against the consolidation plan stress the lack of intensiveness or balance between income maintenance programs (such as AFDC and WIC) and other services. The predominance of income maintenance programs within the new administration could overshadow the service programs that are lumped together in this plan. Particularly, there is concern from the health community about the inclusion of maternal and child health block grants in this plan that could undermine the advances made by maternal and child health advocates over the last few years.

Another concern is the commitment to collaboration. Consolidation does not guarantee collaboration. In fact, without explicit understanding and planning of collaboration between agencies (on all levels -- Federal, state, and local), consolidation could create competition among programs. Such competition could mean prioritizing funding for some programs at the expense of others. The current level of funding is barely enough to maintain many of these programs.

With these concerns in mind, HHS' new Administration of Children and Families has received cautious support from many professionals, child advocates, and agencies. As noted above, the new administration represents a great potential for collaboration between agencies that could smooth service delivery for many children. The consolidation plan has the potential to introduce more comprehensive services that are flexible to the needs of individual families. Such flexibility, however, depends upon a shift in the way social service agencies relate to each other and to families. Families must be considered as partners rather than as clients and given a more participatory role in fashioning a unique program towards self-sufficiency. Great care and planning is also required to insure that the intensity and continuity of programs are strengthened by consolidation rather than weakened by political struggles over funding priorities.

It will be interesting to note how the Administration of Children and Families will affect state and local programs. The consolidation plan could encourage states and localities to create

more collaborative systems by establishing more flexible regulations among Federally-funded programs such as Head Start and family support services. Such collaboration, however, could be undermined without adequate funding support.

PARENT CHOICE

* Cross-district choice plans implemented in eleven states: Arkansas, California, Colorado, Idaho, Iowa, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Nebraska, New Jersey, Ohio, and Washington.

* America 2000 plan proposes \$200 million fund to reward districts that implement choice plans including private school choice plans.

Parent choice means different things to different people, but the underlying premise of all parent choice programs is quite simple: parents should have the right to choose what schools their children should attend. Advocates for parent choice offer the following rationales for their position: 1) student achievement will go up because students will do well in a school that they choose to attend; 2) parental involvement will increase because schools are forced to accommodate the needs of parents and their children; and 3) schools will improve or else they will be forced to close down as enrollments drop. To put it succinctly, schools have to shape up or risk closure -- leaving only good schools open.

Many critics of parent choice, however, believe that the institution of choice plans will enable some students to leave at the expense of others. As students enroll in other schools, funding is decreased in the home school which could result in reduced programs in that school. As far as parent involvement is concerned, while choice plans allow parents to register their discontent with schools by "voting with their feet," parent input into the schools is not facilitated through choice plans. The reasons for parent discontent are not explicitly made known to the school -- so the school may not necessarily change to accommodate the needs of families. Conversely, parents may choose schools for reasons of convenience which have nothing to do with school performance.

While debates about parent choice programs continue on, the trends and debates within choice circles revolve around the following issues: 1) the extension of parent choice into private/parochial schools -- the use of public revenue to fund private institutions; 2) implementation of public school choice programs within districts (or intradistrict choice); and 3) implementing public school choice programs across district boundaries (cross-district choice). These issues are discussed in more detail in the paragraphs below.

Private School Choice: Vouchers and Tax Credits

On a general level, extending choice to include private and/or parochial schools means using public revenue to pay for private school tuitions. The form in which public expenditure takes place

varies in two ways. One way is to give low to middle-income parents a voucher that can be used to pay for tuition in private schools. Only if vouchers cover all costs will this give low to middle-income students an equal chance to attend private schools. Another way is to give parents a tax abatement or credit for a certain amount to be applied towards tuition costs.

In Epsom, New Hampshire, for example, a tax credit was offered to anyone willing to sponsor a child for private school. The interesting thing about this option was that the tax credit does not have to go to a parent but could also be applied to any sponsor (including businesses) willing to pay for a child's tuition. This program, however, was struck down by the Merrimack County Courts this year for publicly funding private and religious institutions. The district plans to appeal the ruling.

The inclusion of private schools in choice programs raises questions concerning public funds for private use. One argument against the inclusion of private schools is that although the public is paying for private education, public officials have no control over how a private school is run. The government or the public has no power to insure that these schools comply with Federal regulations -- especially those concerning special education, bilingual education, and compensatory guidelines (such as Chapter 1). Private schools are not sufficiently held accountable to public regulation, but some suggest the schools could be offered a bargain: public funds in exchange for public regulation.

While the debate over public versus private school choice continues, state and local legislators are beginning to look more closely at private school choice plans. A group of Chicago parents and taxpayers is suing the state legislature to implement a private school voucher system until the Chicago public school system is improved. On the state level, governors from Alaska, Michigan, and state legislatures in Oregon and Pennsylvania are considering private school choice plans. Milwaukee, Wisconsin has implemented a choice plan that invited the participation of over 300 students in the 1990-91 school year to attend private schools at public expense. The Wisconsin appeals court, however, struck down the private school measure and changes in the law are being considered.

On the Federal level, the America 2000 plan would set up a \$200 million fund to reward school districts that implement choice plans including private schools. President Bush is also interested in freeing up Chapter 1 money to follow students to the schools of their choice. This follow-the-child program has some schools worried because cutbacks in Chapter 1 funds would mean a reduction in programs for students who are entitled to Chapter 1. Others argue that without the follow-the-child provision, private school choice would be an option only for those who can afford it.

Intradistrict Choice Plans

Intradistrict choice plans open attendance boundaries within a public school district. Intradistrict choice plans are the most popular (and the least controversial) because they give parents a choice of schools that are relatively close to home without added political concerns such as loss of revenue at the district level. They also are easier to implement because intradistrict choice does not require legislative changes on the state level and can be put in place from the district office.

Intradistrict choice plans fall into three main categories: 1) open enrollment choice; 2) magnet schools; and 3) controlled choice. Open enrollment choice is a simple version of intradistrict choice whereby all schools within a district are opened to all students who wish to transfer from the school which they would otherwise attend. Parents apply for a school of their choice and the school makes the decision usually according to space limitations.

In magnet school programs, some schools offer specialized curricula (such as a computer science lab or a performing arts program) that attract students and their parents to the school. Parents then apply to the school and the school or district makes the decision about attendance. Sometimes, schools have selective admissions criteria for determining whether a student can enter. These criteria can act as a tracking mechanism that sorts "at-risk" students out of the program. Magnet schools have traditionally been used as a voluntary desegregation program and have been put into place in many school districts across the country.

The final category of intradistrict choice plans is universal controlled choice, which abolishes residential attendance districts and assigns all students to schools through a choice process, subject to racial and other guidelines. The guidelines assure that choice plans are not a means for resegregating the schools. In 16 Massachusetts cities, controlled choice plans have been in place for several years.

In 1979, Cambridge school officials decided to implement a desegregation plan on a voluntary basis in order to avoid the backlash witnessed in Boston years before. The first phase of the plan allowed parents to enroll their children in schools that promoted racial balance. The second phase, in 1980, established new school boundaries that mixed minority and majority populations. In 1981, the school boundaries were erased altogether and a central Parent Information Center was created where all parents must register their children. Parents indicate three choices for their children and assignments are based on racial composition.

The Parent Information Center aims to provide consistent, understandable information on all the schools and programs offered so that all parents -- regardless of education, income, or English

proficiency -- can make informed decisions about their children's education. In addition to the Parent Information Center, there is a Parent Liaison and school-based teams with parent representatives responsible for keeping parents informed about their local school.

The Cambridge choice plan gives schools flexibility to attract students while also giving parents more of a participatory role in school decision-making. The plan, like many choice plans, does not explicitly coordinate services with other community agencies although school-based health clinics are in place at the high school level and ties have been formalized with parent and community bodies. The plan provides continuous, intensive services for parents who need them in order to help parents make a good decision for their children. The controlled choice plan in Cambridge has demonstrated a definite increase in student achievement with the gap between the lowest and highest achieving schools narrowing drastically. The strong parent component of the choice plan has contributed significantly to the success of the program (Tan, 1990).

Next year, Center researchers Charles Glenn and Laura Salganik will be studying specific parent involvement and information processes in school choice programs. The study will focus on three districts in Massachusetts.

Cross-district Choice Plans

Cross-district choice plans are far more complicated than intradistrict plans. First of all, cross-district enrollment either requires formal or informal contracts between districts that wish to participate in a choice agreement or a state law that mandates open enrollment between districts.

The second complication has to do with transporting students to their new districts so that all students can participate. A failure to provide transportation will exclude those families unable to transport their children to the new district.

A third concern centers around the loss of funding and the differences in revenue spent on each child in a district that could hurt programs and the students who choose not (or cannot) to opt out of their resident school district.

Yet another concern is the regulation of parent information and making sure all parents receive enough useful information they need to make the decision. Although all these questions have been consistently raised in connection with cross-district choice plans, states continue to encourage cross-district choice in one form or another (Salganik, 1991).

In Massachusetts, a state cross-district choice plan was established by the state legislature in March 1991. The law allows students to enroll in any public school in Massachusetts so long

as the local school board that has been chosen agrees to admit non-resident children. The school board may charge tuition that is equal to the average amount spent per student at the particular school. The state is responsible for assuming the cost of this tuition by transferring funds from the state allocations of the sending district to the receiving district. The result is that sending districts lose all state aid to pay for one who chooses to leave.

The tuition rate for schools within a regional district must be approved by the regional district member from the town of the particular school. Those schools losing students to open enrollment cannot claim those students on their rolls to receive reimbursement from the state. While schools may charge a tuition rate to receive non-resident students, two school districts may enter into an open enrollment arrangement without charging tuition.

The Massachusetts choice plan has many critics. Concerns have been raised about transportation costs, funding, and the question of whether choice will be effective in improving the public schools. At this time, no funding has been allocated for transporting students to out-of-district schools. A state budget crunch and financially-strapped districts that may lose more funds raise issues of whether cross-district choice is an affordable alternative.

Others wonder how the new choice plan will work in conjunction with other programs such as the Metco project (which transports minority students from Boston to other schools in the suburbs) or informal cross-district arrangements. Will these programs be subsidized or supplanted under the new law? The law authorizes a study for evaluating transportation needs and costs as well as the impact of the new law on existing programs. It appears that many districts have taken a "wait-and-see" attitude. In the meantime, 28 districts have opened their attendance boundaries to students from neighboring districts in the 1991-92 school year.

Not all choice plans are laden with the ambiguities and difficulties of the Massachusetts program. In Minnesota, for example, choice has been effective in providing diverse options for students across district lines for over four years, in part because the issues that have plagued the Massachusetts program were anticipated and dealt with ahead of time.

In addition to the open enrollment component, the Minnesota choice plan includes three other options programs. The Postsecondary Options program allows high school juniors and seniors to attend higher education institutions to obtain academic credit at both the secondary and college level. Tuition, books, and other expenses are waived and the state assumes financial responsibility for other related costs.

The High School Graduation Incentives program enables students deemed "at-risk" of dropping out to enroll in alternative educational settings in order to receive the services they need to complete high school. The program is open to students ages 12 to 21.

The Area Learning Centers are yet another option for Minnesota students. The Area Learning Centers give high school students the opportunity to learn in cluster groups as opposed to traditional classrooms with flexible time schedules. Together with the Enrollment Options program (open enrollment) these four components make up the Minnesota school choice plan.

Other states including Arkansas, Nebraska, New Jersey, Maine, Washington, and Ohio have incorporated elements of the Minnesota model including the Graduate Incentives Program and the Postsecondary Enrollment Options. Currently, eleven states have implemented cross-district choice plans with more states looking at this option.

The Minnesota choice plan is comprehensive in that it offers four different kinds of option programs suited to differing educational needs. The Minnesota plan coordinates efforts between schools, colleges, universities, and alternative education programs creating more flexibility for students. The High School Graduation Incentives program specifically targets "at-risk" students and offers them flexibility, continuity, intensive, and coordinated services in order to reduce the drop-out rate. The array of options programs creates a universal program that insures that all students (at least in theory) have a choice to participate. What seems to be missing is a participatory role for parents and students in the decision-making. Also, it is unclear how effective the parent information process is in giving parents and students the information they need to make an informed choice.

There is a strong need for research and evaluation of parent choice programs that is separate from the ideology and politics about choice. The variety of state and district approaches to parent choice offer good natural laboratories for such studies. Some questions that have been raised have to do with the issue of transportation and guaranteeing that all students have an equitable chance for attending the schools of their choice. This Center project's interest in connections between topics raises different sets of questions including: How can parent choice be integrated with other school reform initiatives -- particularly school restructuring efforts to decentralize decision-making to the school level? How can parent choice be coordinated with school-based health and social services offered at the home school to insure continuity between services? Next year, we hope to address these issues in our research.

SCHOOL RESTRUCTURING

* School-based decision-making initiated on the state level in Kentucky. Most comprehensive restructuring of public schools including sanctions for schools that do not improve.

* Chicago school reform continues amidst controversy and court challenges.

* America 2000 plan encourages restructuring schools through the New American Schools program.

Many analysts of the nation's schools believe that the schools are failing many of our children. Solutions for reforming the schools have called for a fundamental restructuring in school operations in order to create a more responsive educational system. Among the many school restructuring proposals and experiments, school-based management and other school-site decision-making proposals have been chosen for this report because some of these efforts have the most potential for direct family involvement and community intervention in the public schools.

The following section looks at the reform efforts in Kentucky, Chicago, and the New American Schools component of the America 2000 plan.

Kentucky

The Kentucky Education Reform Act of 1990 came about in response to the Kentucky Supreme Court decision that declared funding of the Kentucky public school system unconstitutional. The Act was passed by the General Assembly in order to make the schools more equitable. The Act called for the abolition of the state department of education. The department is being reformulated by the State Education Commissioner who has the responsibility of creating a department that will be a resource to schools rather than a source of top-down directives. The restructured department is primarily responsible for providing technical assistance to schools.

The Act also establishes a Council on School Performance Standards that is charged with the responsibility of developing statewide educational standards and testing for evaluating student progress. To meet these state-wide standards, the act mandates the creation of local school councils comprised of parents, teachers, and principals.

The local school councils are empowered to make decisions about curriculum, school improvement, and budgets in order to improve their local schools according to the needs of students. The

specific powers of the councils include approving the curriculum, overseeing the budget as well as discretionary funding, and the hiring and firing of teachers.

Schools will also receive extra funding in order to meet the state-mandated standards. To provide incentives for school improvement a system of rewards and punishment has been instituted. Schools that show marked improvement will be rewarded with financial bonuses. In those schools that do not improve, parents will have the choice to transfer their children out of the low-achieving school and into a better one -- at the expense of the low-achieving school.

This choice provision has been criticized for providing little choice for rural students because a good school may be too far away. Furthermore, students left behind in these low-achieving schools will also suffer from reduced programs as a result of lost revenue. On the other hand, Kentucky is being praised for its role as a pioneer in directly tying school improvement to funding. These sanctions send out a powerful message to schools that only responsive education will be accepted. Further research on how such provisions help or hinder student achievement is needed.

In addition to school restructuring, the Kentucky Act also attempts to create a more coordinated system by relocating social services at the school site (see Coordination of Health and Human Services section of this report). The Family Resource Centers and Youth Service Centers provide counseling, health services, and screening to students and their families. The funding for these centers is tentative -- some schools with a 20% or more low-income population will be funded.

The Act is interesting because it legislates school-level decision-making from the state level as a means of introducing accountability, flexibility, and participation. The school councils have the flexibility to create individual school improvement plans in order to meet state-mandated standards. The structure of the school council invites the participation of parents.

This particular legislation is comprehensive in its scope by restructuring the entire state school system. Thus, the law not only changes the relationships between the districts and the schools but also those relationships between the state department of education and the local schools.

The state-wide mandate for reform targets all schools and therefore all students enrolled in school. The choice component, however, may hurt some students for the benefit of the rest and, therefore, must be carefully monitored in order to insure that some students do not pay an excessive price for school reform.

Although funding for the law has been authorized, there is some danger of a tax revolt that could undermine the reform. Without funding, the continuity and intensity of the restructuring effort could be jeopardized. The funding issue may make the Kentucky model unpalatable for some states even though radical, comprehensive restructuring may be sorely needed to improve the schools.

Chicago

The Chicago School Reform Act of 1988 established Local School Councils (LSC's) in all the schools. Each council is comprised of six parents, two community residents, two teachers, and the school principal. The councils are responsible for curriculum and instruction development, designating budget priorities, hiring the principal (principals do not have to vote on these decisions), and other decisions related to school-level operations.

The Chicago school reform movement is interesting because the passage and implementation of the law was spearheaded by parents, community organizations, business leaders, and state legislators. Chicago's plan establishes school-based governing councils that are primarily comprised of parents.

The Act is in its second year of implementation. The first two years have been filled with tension and anticipation as the law faced a major court battle that tested its constitutionality. In 1990, the Illinois Supreme Court declared the Act unconstitutional on the basis that it violated the one person-one vote rule. The original law stipulated that parents would vote for parents, community residents for community residents, and school staff for teachers. Since there are six parents on the council, the court ruled that they had an unfair advantage in the voting process.

In 1991, the state legislature amended the law giving each voter five votes to be cast for all the parent and community resident slots. Teachers would be appointed by the board of education from a slate of candidates chosen by the school staff. The amendments also gave principals total authority over their staff including food service and custodial employees.

Despite challenges to its constitutionality, the Chicago experiment continues to move ahead. In the first year of implementation, Local School Councils discussed issues of curriculum and instruction, school improvement, overcrowding, school safety, budgets, and personnel.

Principals and teachers remain cautiously optimistic about the potential for school reform, although they feel overwhelmed by time and budget constraints. Parents continue to feel positive overall about school reform, although with budget cuts and tensions with the board of education, there are signs of discouragement.

For example, the number of parents running for Local School Councils dropped from 17,256 in 1989 to 8,173 in 1991. The Chicago Teachers' Union started the 1991-92 school year with a threat to strike if their pay raises were not honored. And the board of education was caught holding back state Chapter 1 funds from the LSC's in order to balance the budget.

Sluggish responses to reform, budget cuts, and the recent scandal with state Chapter 1 funds have placed the board of education in an unfavorable light. Despite these setbacks, Chicago school reform continues to be a carefully monitored model for fundamentally restructuring large urban school districts.

New American Schools and The America 2000 Plan

American 2000 is a set of proposed legislation that together makes up the educational plan put forth by the President and Education Secretary Lamar Alexander. This section examines the New American Schools aspect of the America 2000 plan.

The New American Schools component of the America 2000 plan calls for the establishment of more than 535 New American Schools -- at least one school for each Congressional district. A New American School is a community-designed school that intends to achieve the six national goals outlined by President Bush and the nation's governors. The idea behind the New American Schools project is to "break the mold" of assumptions that constrain traditional schools.

Funding for the New American Schools depends upon four main points:

1. Communities must adopt the six national goals;
2. Communities must devise a strategy that involves the whole community for achieving the national goals;
3. Communities must develop the means for assessing progress (for example, a school report card system); and
4. Communities must show their ability to create and sustain a New American School.

Communities are designated America 2000 communities by the governor of each state. If Congress authorizes the program and funds it, start-up funding for these new schools will come from Congress. \$1 million will be awarded to each school in the beginning after which communities will be responsible for their own funding.

The New American Schools component of the America 2000 plan is similar to the Kentucky education reform plan in that educational standards have been established for the nation as a whole in much

the same way as the Council on School Performance Standards establishes state-wide educational goals.

Meeting these standards have been left up to individual schools in both the America 2000 plan and in the Kentucky plan. This arrangement was created in order to inject flexibility. The main (and perhaps crucial) difference between the two plans, however, is that the New American Schools project introduces flexibility by sidestepping the public school systems while the Kentucky plan builds upon the existing system and redesigns the way school decisions and processes are conducted.

While the New American Schools project has the potential to coordinate and integrate community resources with the new schools, it is not clear how the project integrates or coordinates explicitly with existing educational institutions. The New American Schools are supposed to represent models for school reform that other schools can emulate; however, if school reform is to be successful it must be implemented systemically and it is not yet clear whether the New American Schools plan will provide a systemic model for change. Reform must start by recognizing and moving from where the schools are, or old habits and ways will continue to function. It appears that reform of existing schools and the creation of future successful schools are put together as separate projects. In order to make successful achievement and development a reality for all children, coordination between these efforts will be necessary.

The New American Schools program invites the participation of communities by making the community the starting point for school reform. This initiative is significant because the community is seen as a crucial resource for making the New American Schools project work. Without community support, the schools cannot be established. The America 2000 plan calls upon local organizations, churches, families, and other neighborhood associations to create a solid base of support from which children's learning can take place.

* * *

One aspect of school restructuring -- shared decision-making -- empowers the people most directly involved in children's lives to work together for the benefit of all children.

The comprehensiveness of school restructuring efforts depends upon the scope of these efforts. While school restructuring redefines the relationships between school districts and schools, state educational agencies and school districts (and schools), and between families, communities, and schools, coordination between decisions, resources, and technical assistance at each of these levels must be consciously assembled.

Coordination is not a given. Without an explicit understanding of the responsibilities and delegation of tasks between school districts, school councils, and state education agencies, school restructuring efforts run the risk of creating more confusion than improvement.

Coordination is essential to insure that resources are used efficiently and wisely so that the needs of children are met and not complicated by further procedures. By the same token, restructuring efforts should not be used as a means for subverting intensive programs designed for "at-risk" children. Again, coordination can enhance intensive programs and provide continuous services where they are needed most.

The most immediate effect of school-based management or shared decision-making efforts is the increase in flexibility in making school level decisions. The added flexibility in decision-making also introduces an element of accountability since the decision-makers are members of the local school community rather than an impersonal office downtown.

Priorities based on the needs of students in individual schools can be recognized and responded to in a timely manner. The effectiveness of flexibility, however, relies upon funding to follow up on decisions made by local school communities. Without the funding, flexibility and shared decision-making become severely limited.

Perhaps the greatest benefit of restructuring efforts is the potential to increase parental and community participation in school decision-making. Participation enables parents and communities to communicate more directly and more effectively with schools in order to evaluate what kinds of programs are needed to improve their children's education. School restructuring has the potential to give families and communities access to the resources needed to participate in the real improvement of school programs.

CHAPTER 1

* Strategies to support program improvement and coordination of services surface as key themes as 1993 reauthorization of Chapter 1 nears. Chapter 1 has been funded at a level of \$6.6 billion for 1992 -- an approximately \$2.1 billion increase over the 1989 appropriation. Currently, the program serves close to 50 percent of the eligible population.

* U.S. Department of Education encourages use of Chapter 1 funds for early education programs to ease the transition of disadvantaged students into elementary schools. ED and the Department of Health and Human Services convene task force to encourage smooth transitions between Chapter 1 and Head Start programs.

* A few states take active steps to bolster Hawkins-Stafford Amendments mandate for comprehensive parent involvement in Chapter 1 program. Examples: Kentucky and California's Section 11500, Chapter 16 of California Education Code (formerly AB 322).

Our interest in Chapter 1 is in its largely unrealized potential to integrate school reform efforts, engage parents as partners, and decategorize students. The Hawkins-Stafford Amendments of 1988 have created a powerful new mandate which can help schools respond more directly to children's needs. With funding up \$630 million from last fiscal year, the program has the opportunity not only to strengthen but widen its impact. The following section will sketch out key aspects of the legislation and highlight recent policy developments which can support home-school-community partnerships and success for all for children.

I. KEY ASPECTS OF THE HAWKINS-STAFFORD AMENDMENTS

Program Improvement

The law redefines relationships across local, state, and Federal agencies by legislating a ground-up process of shared accountability. Each school district defines standards for both the school and the students participating in the program. The standards must be defined in terms of the basic and advanced skills which all students in a district are expected to master. The district then develops a school improvement plan for all of the schools which "have not made substantial progress" in meeting outcomes defined for school and its Chapter 1 students. The state then joins the district in developing an improvement plan for schools which have not made substantial progress after one year. The state's standards for accountability are defined by a committee which includes school

district representatives and parents. The standards developed guide states and districts in designing changes at the school level.

Children's needs serve more firmly as the reference point throughout the program. The desired outcomes which must include basic as well as more advanced skills are used not only to assess children most in need of services, but to develop and evaluate the program. Programs that are not helping children make significant gains must be modified. In addition, by requiring districts to hold the same high standards for all students, the legislation aims to insure that participating students are not denied services provided to students in the regular program.

Coordination of Programs

In addition to mandating a multi-tiered system of program improvement, Chapter 1 now requires increased coordination of programs within schools. The new Act promotes coordination of services for children in several ways. A number of Federal programs, which can complement the aims of Chapter 1 (e.g., FIRST grants, Adult Education Grants, Chapter 2 funds) were reauthorized for five years as part of the Hawkins-Stafford Amendments. The availability of these grants varies. For example, FIRST grants are limited (fourteen were awarded in 1989) and Chapter 2 grants are more freely available and may be applied to any local reform initiatives targeting program improvement and educational innovation.

LEA's also are now required to coordinate services provided under Chapter 1 with those provided to Limited English Proficient and Handicapped Children. In addition, the law mandates increased coordination between Chapter 1 and the regular program. LEA's are now required to describe their plan for coordinating instruction and other services in their Chapter 1 application. Finally, although the use of funds for preschoolers has always been allowed, 1989 revisions in regulations clarified and encouraged the use of funds for this purpose.

The Act further encourages increased coordination of programs and integrated change in schools by loosening regulations around school-wide projects. School-wide projects allow schools with a greater than 75% low-income student population to use funds to benefit all of the students in the school. The Hawkins-Stafford Amendments open the door for increased participation by schools by removing the requirement for a local match of funds.

Parent Involvement

The Hawkins-Stafford Amendments renew parent involvement as a key ingredient of program effectiveness. The 1981 Chapter 1 law eliminated the requirements for district-level and building-level parent advisory councils. The law now requires that family involvement be organized, ongoing and inclusive of parents in

planning, implementation, and evaluation. Towards this end, LEA's responsibility includes insuring that parents of participating children are made aware of the district's parent involvement policies as well as services resulting from increased program coordination, e.g. Adult Education Services. The Act's provisions for school-wide projects has the potential to strengthen parents' voices within schools. Mandated parent involvement in the development of school improvement plans gives parents the opportunity to build coalitions and advocate for shared interests.

Without explicitly doing so, the Act creates a broader definition of parent involvement which can help schools respond to the needs of diverse families and children. The Chapter 1 policy manual states that an LEA's parent involvement program must include among other things, home-based activities and training for teachers and parents and principals. The expanded definition of parent outreach loosens restrictions on the use of Chapter 1 funds for parent involvement. A wide range of activities--including parent resource centers, staff training and home-based learning activities--are now allowable program costs.

As a result of the Hawkins-Stafford Amendments, Chapter 1 legislation reflects much of the criteria defined above as supporting the Family Center's mission. In making locally determined outcomes the basis for shared accountability in program improvement, the law redefines relationships at the school, district, state and federal level in terms of children's needs. By mandating coordination of services across programs and high expectations for all children, the legislation works against categorization or labeling of children. New flexibility allowing schools to use funds for preschoolers and for home-based activities which can help promote comprehensive and preventive services. Finally, the Act's expanded definition of parent involvement can work to strengthen partnerships between home and school.

Even Chapter 1's strong Federal mandate supporting home-school-community partnerships does not insure changes at the district, school, or classroom level. With reauthorization less than a year away, policymakers and practitioners are questioning the actual impact the changes have had on children.

II. PARAMETERS OF THE CURRENT DEBATE

Program Improvement

A pivotal issue within the debate concerns the extent of Federal support for mandate and local responsiveness to changes. The evaluation of states' efforts to encourage program improvement have been mixed. The Council of Chief State School Officers recently released study, "Chapter 1 Improvement and Innovation Across the States," reports that states are responding actively to the mandate and are "administering program improvement and new provisions with high expectations" (CCSSO, 1991). CCSSO's findings contrast with

an earlier U.S. Department of Education study "State Administration of the Chapter 1 Program" which suggests that states' responses to the new mandates have been sluggish. Based upon a survey of 50 SEAs during the first year of implementation, the evaluation concludes that a majority of states are setting minimum standards to determine if schools are in need of program improvement and less than one third of states have begun to spend money for program improvement.

At the same time, Federal commitment and support for mandate is being questioned. An educational official in North Carolina reports that the state's efforts to encourage innovation at the preschool level is being frustrated by Chapter 1's emphasis on standardized tests. As a step towards encouraging innovative teaching practices with younger children, the state passed legislation in 1988 prohibiting standardized testing of students below the third grade. However, because Chapter 1 still requires standardized testing beginning in the second grade, teachers of second graders must still teach to the test.

In addition, while amendments require LEA's to modify ineffective programs, aversion to change or lack of knowledge about available alternatives can stymie improvement at the district level. Beatrice Birman, director of the National Assessment of Chapter 1 recently noted that "once local decision-makers have designed a program which meets their needs and federal guidelines, they are loath to make changes." (Harvard Education Letter, January/February, 1991).

As reauthorization nears, top education officials are sounding the program improvement gong to administrators at the state and local level. At a recent conference of the American Federation of Teachers, Mary Jean LeTendre stressed that goal of the program is prevention rather than remediation and urged a more creative use of funds. Up to this point, the focus of the program has been remediation. Of the approximately five million students currently being served by the program, only about seven percent are enrolled in Chapter 1 programs in preschool and kindergarten.

A number of states already have taken steps to encourage program improvement at district level. The McAllen, Texas school district is using Chapter 1 funds to help reach out to parents of younger children. The district actively encourages the use of Chapter 1 funds for preventive services for families including home visitors and in-school day care. The district is supported in its efforts by a state reform policy which includes parent and community involvement as a key objective.

In addition to making supportive and specific recommendations to schools, state administrators in Idaho are making sure that districts have access to new ideas and programs. Last year, the state invited Henry Levin of Stanford University to speak at the state-wide Chapter 1 conference about his Accelerated Schools project. In addition, the state regularly encourages an exchange

of ideas between schools. Once a school-initiated project shows signs of success, the state coordinates visits by other schools to see how the program works.

Coordination of Programs

An issue of great concern to our Center is the extent to which amendments have fostered coordination of services at the school level. In particular, "How has the emphasis on children's needs rather than program compliance encouraged LEA's to explore innovative ways to coordinate services to meet the specific needs of a school community?"

The CCSSO study reports that the changes in legislation have helped increase coordination from school to state level by encouraging dialogue between teachers and increasing incentives for coordination of state-wide services. The report's findings are based on survey responses by the state coordinators of education on program improvement efforts across the states.

ED's 1990 evaluation offers a somewhat different perspective. The report concludes that while states give high priority to monitoring coordination of Chapter 1 services with regular school-level programs, they place little emphasis on coordination of Chapter 1 with other state and Federal programs.

At the local level, some perceive a major problem lying in the lack of coordination across Federal regulations. Educators in Minnesota report that different Federal funding requirements make it difficult to serve special education students and Chapter 1 students in the same program (Education Daily, April 2, 1991).

The emphasis on effective coordination of services within current regulations has helped deepen the debate and brought critical issues to the fore. ED and HHS recently convened a task force to examine how to ease the transition from kindergarten into public schools. At an early meeting of the task force, Center researcher Sharon Lynn Kagan argued that despite the gains made by Chapter 1 and Head Start, there is an increasing need for more effective transitions between home and school -- between preschools and public schools and among social service providers. Kagan pointed to the "ambiguous" findings of national curriculum initiatives such as Follow-Through to stress that effective coordination depends upon continuity of philosophy, structure, and pedagogy.

The task force's draft plan for further action by HHS and ED includes establishing a national task force to develop guidelines for local transition initiatives, and providing funds for state coordinators in charge of transition. In April of 1991, state Chapter 1 Directors met to discuss the state's role in facilitating transitions at the local level.

A number of states have already taken steps to help districts coordinate services in new ways. For example, in Indiana, the General Assembly is considering funding coordinators at the local level. The coordinator's task would be to help districts utilize a combination of local, district, and state resources to coordinate services for preschoolers. In Idaho, program staff across various state education departments have been working together on a collaborative project to improve integration of services for children.

Chapter 1 also may have helped spur new concern for improving coordination of services for mobile segments of the American population. The National Commission on Migrant Education has called for an overhaul of the system which oversees the transfer of academic and health records for migrant and seasonal farm workers. The commission's draft recommendations include increasing the level of participation by states by tying system use to federal aid; and improving parental understanding of the records transferring process. In March, ED announced that it will award one grant to help a state improve intra-and interstate coordination of migrant education programs and projects. In 1989, ED recognized the needs of another segment of America's mobile population in allowing Chapter 1 funds to be used for programs for homeless children.

Parent Involvement

The Hawkins-Stafford Amendments paved the way for more comprehensive and potentially more effective parent involvement programs. However, although regular evaluation of the program is now required, the success of parent involvement program is not tied to funds or a program improvement process. Therefore, a key question is, "How far the mandate has taken schools in building stronger parent involvement programs which meet needs of diverse parents?"

Offering examples from around the country, Diane D'Angelo and Ralph Adler of RMC Research Corporation argue that Chapter 1 has catalyzed a more effective approach to parent involvement at the state and district level. Drawing upon examples from around the country, the authors point to states and districts that are using Chapter 1 funds in innovative ways (e.g., to build parent centers, to publish bilingual newsletters, or to create home learning materials).

However, the 1990 study conducted for ED concludes that a majority of states are still holding onto old patterns. While reporting that an increasing number of districts are disseminating home-based learning activities, the study finds both states and districts emphasize parent-teacher conferences as the primary vehicle for parent involvement.

A number of states are taking active steps to help schools build stronger and more comprehensive parent involvement programs. For example, California's new state policy on parent involvement backs the Chapter 1 mandate in defining parent involvement comprehensively. To give added kick to both mandates, Section 11500 Chapter 16 of the California Education Code was signed into legislation in September 1991. The new law which took effect in January, 1992 requires districts receiving state and Federal funds to develop parent involvement programs consistent with state policies and to develop parent involvement policies for schools which do not receive Federal and state funds.

The state of Kentucky has taken a different tack. The disintegration of parent councils convinced state Chapter 1 coordinators that a new strategy was needed. Supported by the changes in the law, the state developed a plan for building parent involvement from the ground up. The strategy includes: 1) holding regular regional meetings of parents, 2) hosting a state-wide parent involvement conference, and 3) training principals on changes in the law.

Kentucky's programmatic efforts are being bolstered by changes in policy and procedure. The state's Parent Involvement Policy Guide serves as a handbook to the process of developing a comprehensive parent involvement policy. In addition, each local application offers districts specific activity requirements rather than general rules. For example, a broad mandate to meet the needs of limited English proficient parents is translated into a requirement that initial contact with individual parents be made through either a telephone call or home visit by someone who speaks the language of the family.

The 1988 amendments have boosted Chapter 1's potential to support comprehensive family-school collaboration. Close to four years later, only a handful of states appeared to have taken steps to translate changes into meaningful programs for children and families. The efforts of states such as California suggest that state-level policymakers and state education agencies can take a more active role in coordinating Federal, state, district and school-level policies for Chapter 1. In the meantime, there should be increased attention to encouraging districts and schools to take advantage of flexibility and increased funding in the new law.

CONCLUSION

The 1990-1991 developments sketched in the preceding pages offer dramatic evidence of a great upsurge of policymaker interest and action in various aspects of collaboration. These initiatives redefine relationships between schools (and other educational institutions) and families and communities, especially those children and families that are seen as economically disadvantaged or otherwise "at-risk."

We think that it is useful for both policymakers and practitioners to think about and assess the developments in an analytical and constructively critical way. Applying the criteria we propose for strong programs of family-community-school collaboration is a useful starting point. These seven criteria are flexibility, intensity, continuity, universality, participation, coordination, and comprehensiveness.

We will highlight here some of the most important developments of the period November 1990-October 1991 that have been sketched in this report and point to some policy initiatives which cut across the six topics in this report and score comparatively well against the criteria we established.

1. Many states have taken major initiatives, but the activity across states is very uneven.

While the number of state initiatives is impressive, there are a few states that appear to have done little or nothing in any of the areas, and few states have taken an across-the-board approach with activities noted in all or most of the areas. (See Appendix B)

One positive development that may encourage the lagging states: the National Conference of State Legislatures has issued a new report with guidelines to encourage its members to consider a variety of "family enabling" policies. (National Conference of State Legislatures, 1991).

2. Thirty states report some specific policy action on family support, parent education, or coordination of health, education, and other human services.

Many new initiatives aim to provide family support and parent education and/or to coordinate child and family support across health, human service, and education lines. However, studies and reports from the local level continue to indicate substantial fragmentation, lack of intensity, continuity, and comprehensiveness.

However, there are a number of positive examples of initiatives that cut across two or more of the six categories discussed in this report and seem to score better against our criteria. Examples

which are described earlier in this report include New Jersey's School-Based Youth Services Program, Minnesota's Early Childhood Family Education Program, Missouri's Parents as Teachers Program, and the initiatives in Kentucky and Connecticut to establish family resource centers.

3. The newly enacted Part H of P.L. 102-119 is a significant Federal effort to combine integrated services and programming for disabled infants and toddlers.

P.L. 102-119 recognizes the need for integrated services and early intervention for disabled infants and toddlers. It also provides funding to support interstate coordinated service delivery and the integration of educational, family support, and health services for infants and toddlers with special needs.

The revised law, signed by President Bush on October 7, 1991, has increased potential to support local efforts to provide comprehensive services to disabled infants and toddlers. In the first chapter of this report, we point to the law's new mandate for increased parental participation in policymaking and its emphasis on providing continuous services across age groups important developments.

The impact of Part H on family-school collaboration is yet to be determined. A number of state program administrators have warned that coordinated services will remain a pipe dream unless states are given more flexibility around use of funds. There also is concern that program will crumble due to Federal and state funding limitations. Several participating states, including Connecticut, have indicate that they may have to drop out of program due to state's financial situations.

4. Efforts to coordinate Head Start with other education, health and social services are currently underway at the Federal level.

ED and HHS have convened a joint task force to develop an action plan to facilitate partnerships between Head Start and public schools. Initial recommendations include providing support to state and local districts in promoting effective transitions between programs. In addition, top ED officials have been actively promoting the use of Chapter 1 funds for preventive services for preschoolers. Efforts to coordinate service are critical given the fact that Head Start and Chapter 1 programs each serve only a small percentage of the eligible population.

Another important development that cuts across the infants and toddlers, family support, and coordinated services categories is the increase in the number of Head Start parent and child centers serving children from birth to age three and offering comprehensive family support services to at least one in every state. As of November 1991, awards had been made to all but six states.

5. Parent choice and school-based decision-making are two prevalent strategies pursued by various school reform movements nation-wide to increase parent participation in schools. It is not uncommon to find reform plans that combine choice with restructuring, although questions have been raised about whether they can co-exist successfully.

In Chicago, the school reform law requires that a school choice plan be implemented by the 1991-92 school year. Advocates for school choice argue that choice gives parents a sense of ownership of their school and can enhance parent participation in school decision-making. Choice also gives parents an option to find a school that better suits their children's needs.

On the other hand, skeptics of choice fear that choice will disrupt school-based planning for improvement, create a tracking mechanism that will provide options for some students but not all, and block participation of parents in school decision-making because the resident parents of a particular school are unfamiliar with the parents who choose the school from other areas of the city.

6. The U.S. Department of Education has increased its advocacy of the new flexibility in Chapter 1, but state and local response remains disappointing.

We have noted the significant changes in Chapter 1: (i) allowing the use of Chapter 1 funds for a wide range of parent/family involvement activities including helping parents support their own children's education at home; (ii) easing the transitions from preschool to kindergarten and from kindergarten to first grade; (iii) promoting integration of services and programs for handicapped, bilingual, and low-income children; and (iv) promoting planning for school improvement.

Many states and local districts have been slow to respond to the 1988 changes, but there are some positive examples of state leadership to encourage local districts the use of Chapter 1 funds for parent and community involvement activities. For example, every school district in California receiving Federal or state funds must now develop parent involvement policies which apply to all the schools in the district. The requirement that district policies on parent involvement be consistent with the state policy is an important step toward coordinating Federal, state and local school reform efforts.

7. There is increased interest in linking parent education and literacy with early childhood programs.

Programs such as Even Start, the Adult Literacy Act, and the Family Support Act have explicit provisions for more coordination between family support programs and early childhood education programs. The FY 1992 Federal budget includes increased funding for all three programs, including an increase from \$49 million to \$70 million for

Even Start, which provides funds for local school districts to combine early childhood education with parent education and literacy training.

8. Participation by families in policymaking has been broadened to include: (1) school-level governance; (2) program planning and evaluation; (3) state-level councils for facilitating coordination of services.

Only few of the state school restructuring plans appear to give much priority to involving parents in important planning, policymaking, or decision-making roles. The two most striking examples are the developments in Kentucky and the Illinois state legislature requiring restructuring in the Chicago public schools.

P.L.-102-119 paves the way for increased participation of families and communities in program design and policymaking. The new law requires families' direct input in designing individualized education and family support plans. In addition, the law has mandated that parent participation on the Inter-State Coordinating Council be increased to 20 percent.

NEEDS AND PROGRAMS OUTSTRIP RESOURCES

A large financial cloud hovers over these developments. How do we pay for them? The current recession has hit many states, school districts, and educational programs very hard. In many cases, just as states have launched new programs or sought to enrich or extend existing ones, state appropriations have been reduced and local budgets cut with resulting staff layoffs and reductions in services.

The 1990 Congressional Executive agreement on budget ceilings has also greatly inhibited the increases in funding needed to expand programs such as Head Start. Disagreements between the White House and the Congress and interparty Congressional squabbling about if and how to increase revenues, if and how to realize a "peace dividend," and about levels of and program requirements holds back a stronger Federal leadership and coordinating role with state and local governments.

Nonetheless, the new importance of these areas to many Federal and state policymakers has resulted in some increases in funding at both the Federal and state levels. For example:

* Head Start, reauthorized for four more years, will be funded at \$2.2 billion FY 1992, up from \$1.9 billion in FY 1991.

* Chapter 1 has increased from \$6 billion in FY 1991 to \$6.7 billion in FY 1992.

* At least six states have increased state funding for maternal health programs, matching funds for Head Start, and parent education.

However, it appears to us that the potential for these Federal and state initiatives to be sustained and to make a difference is endangered by economic conditions and the inability of political leadership to agree about how to pay the bill to meet needs that they are increasingly recognizing.

Our most important conclusion is that the needs far outstrip the resources, even though the policy developments are impressive and promising, and some funding increases have occurred.

NEED FOR EVALUATION AND RESEARCH

Many political and economic factors will influence state and Federal policymakers who are interested in making their initiatives more coherent and effective. We know that many of these policymakers will also be influenced by the results of research and evaluation if these results are made available to them in timely and useful ways.

In recent years, there has been an increase in useful research and evaluation related to the topics in this report, but clearly much more is needed. Over the next few years the work of the 25 Research and Development Centers created by the Department of Education's Office of Educational Research and Improvement will help to fill this need, along with the efforts of scores of other scholars in this country and overseas.

All of the projects and studies of the Center on Families, Communities, Schools and Children's Learning have direct relevance to policy decisions on the topics of this report. The Center takes very seriously its obligation to make the relevant results available to policymakers and to practitioners at all levels.

We think that there is a special need for studies and evaluations that cut across bureaucratic and programmatic lines, and consider the effects of policies on those who are served at the local level and on the practitioners asked to carry out the policies. For example, as a state attempts to develop more intense, universal, and comprehensive family support and parent education programs, what are the differential effects on different groups in the community and on the academic and social development of children? Who uses what kinds of services and programs and with what results?

We will continue to monitor and report on the developments in these areas during 1992. We will be especially alert to the impact of the economic conditions on policy initiatives at the Federal and state levels. Our focus for 1992 is to examine those policy developments that have the potential to cut across the six policy topics

identified this year. We welcome from our readers ideas and information about relevant state and Federal policies and their impact on local practices.

FINAL NOTE

Many of the policy directions noted in our mapping project in 1990-91 demonstrate the importance of the seven criteria we propose for a strong program: intensity, continuity, flexibility, universality, participation, comprehensiveness, and coordination.

In the aggregate, the Federal and state initiatives represent important beginnings toward putting into action practical ways for families, communities, and educational institutions to exercise in a collaborative spirit their shared and overlapping responsibilities for children's development.

However, Federal, state, and local policymakers need to take steps to actively coordinate policies that nurture family-community-school partnerships for the sake of meeting the needs of all children.

References and Other Relevant Readings

- Bedan, N., & Maxwell, B. (1988, September/October). Parents as teachers. Missouri Schools.
- Blackledge, B. (1991a, 6 August). ED emphasizes pre-school projects creativity with Chapter 1 money. Education Daily.
- Blackledge, B. (1991b, 15 October). ED urges early childhood educators to coordinate programs. Education Daily, pp. 4.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). The ecology of human development: Experimenting by nature and design. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Cavazos, L. (1990). Report to Congress on projects funded by the Fund for the Improvement and Reform of Schools and Teaching. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.
- Center for Law and Education. (1990). Parental involvement and program improvement in Chapter 1. Washington, DC: Center for Law and Education.
- Center for Law and Education. (1988). Congress institutes major changes in Chapter 1 and other elementary and secondary education programs. Washington, DC: Center for Law and Education.
- Center on Families, Communities, Schools and Children's Learning. (1990, 15 June). Proposal to The Office of Educational Research and Improvement [proposal]. Boston: Center on Families, Communities, Schools and Children's Learning.
- Child Care Employee Project. (1991). What states can do to secure a skilled and stable child care work force. Oakland: Child Care Employee Project.
- Children's Defense Fund. (1991b). The child care and development block grant and child care grants to states under Title IV-A of the Social Security Act: A description of major provisions and issues to consider in implementation. Washington, DC: Children's Defense Fund.
- Children's Defense Fund. (1991a). Child poverty in America. Washington, DC: Children's Defense Fund.
- Cohen, D. (1991, 24 April). HHS merges programs to aid families. Education Week pp. 1,23.
- Coleman, J. S., et al. (1966). Equality of educational opportunity. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

- Collins, R. (1990). Summative evaluative report: School-based management/shared decision-making project: 1987-88 through 1989-90. Miami: Dade County Public Schools.
- Committee for Economic Development. (1991). Unfinished Agenda. New York: Committee for Economic Development.
- Council for Chief State School Officers. (1989). Family support education and involvement: A guide for state action. Washington, DC: Council for Chief State School Officers.
- Council of Chief State School Officers. (1991). Beyond the health room. Washington, DC: Council of Chief State School Officers.
- Council of Chief State School Officers. (1991). Chapter 1 program improvement and innovation across the states. Washington, DC: Council of Chief State School Officers.
- D'Angelo, D., & Adler, R. (1991, January). Chapter 1: A catalyst for improving parent involvement. Phi Delta Kappan, pp. 350-354.
- David, J. L., et al. (1990). State actions to restructure schools: First steps. Denver: National Governors' Association.
- Day Care Services Association. (1991). Working in child care in North Carolina. Chapel Hill: Day Care Services Associates.
- Dey, J. (1990, 29 November). At-risk infants to go unserved, special educators warn. Education Daily.
- Dey, J. (1991, 12 April). Early intervention programs neglects migrants, advocates say. Education Daily.
- Easton, J. Q., et al. (1990). Local school council meetings during the first year of Chicago school reform. Chicago: Chicago Panel on Public School Policy and Finance.
- ED pushes Chapter 1 creativity but educators remain skeptical. (1991, 21 October). Education Daily. (1991, 21 October), 24, pp. 2-3.
- ED sets priorities for coordinating Chapter 1 migrant programs. (1991, 1 March). Education Daily. (1991, 1 March). .
- Education and Human Services Consortium. (1991). What it takes: Structuring interagency partnerships to connect children and families with comprehensive services. Washington, DC: Education and Human Services Consortium.
- Education Commission of the States. (1989, September). Survey of state initiatives: Public school choice. Denver: Education Commission of the States.

- Education Commission of the States. (1991). Changing delivery systems: Addressing the fragmentation in children and youth services. Washington, DC: Education Commission of the States.
- Educational Excellence Network. (1991). Chicago school reform: National perspectives and local responses (S. Clements & A. Forsaith, Ed.). Washington, DC: Educational Excellence Network.
- Engstrom, L. (1991, March). Early childhood family education: Interview with Lois Engstrom. Networking Bulletin: Empowerment and family support, II(1).
- Epstein, J. L., & McPartland, J. (1979). Authority structures. In H. Walberg (Ed.), Educational Environments and Effects. Berkeley: McCutchan.
- Epstein, J. L. (1982). Student reactions to teacher practices of parent involvement [Report-21]. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Center for Research on Elementary and Middle Schools.
- Epstein, J. L. (1987). Parent involvement: What research says to administrators. Education in Urban Society, 19.
- Ford, D. (1991). The school principal and Chicago school reform: Principals' early perceptions of reform initiatives. Chicago: Chicago Panel on Public School Policy and Finance.
- Ford Foundation. (1989). Early childhood services: A national challenge. New York: Ford Foundation.
- Glenn, C. L. (1990a). Choice of schools in six nations. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Glenn, C. L. (1990b). Parent choice in four nations. In W. Boyd & H. Walberg (Ed.), Choice in education: Potential and problems. Berkeley: McCutchan.
- Glenn, C. L. (1991). Why are they so afraid of school choice? (and what they could learn from Massachusetts). Quincy: Office of Educational Equity.
- Goodson, et al. (1991). Working with families: Promising programs to help parents support young children's learning. Cambridge: Abt Associates.
- Hausman, B. (1989, Fall/Winter). Parents as teachers: The right fit for Missouri. educational Horizons.
- Hill, P. (1991). Decentralization and accountability in public education. Santa Monica: RAND Corporation.

- Howe II, H. (1991). America 2000: A bumpy ride on four trains. Phi Delta Kappan, 73(3), 192-203.
- Kagan, S. L., & Holdeman, A. L. (1989). Family support and the schools. Family Resource Coalition Report, VIII(2).
- Kagan, S. L. (1991). America's family support movement: Today's accomplishments -- tomorrow's challenges. Family Resource Coalition Report, X(1).
- State of Kentucky. Department of Education. (1989). Kentucky Chapter 1 parent involvement policy guide to division of compensatory education. Frankfort: Kentucky Department of Education.
- Lawson, M. (1991, 8 May). Education Week, X(35). Migrant-education commission is eyeing major changes in records-transfer system.
- Leichter, H. (1974). The family as educator. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Licitria, A. (1991, 9 October). State's must end special ed's isolation, NASBE says. Education Daily, pp. 1.
- Litwack, E., & Meyer, H. (1974). School, family, and neighborhood: The theory and practice of school-community relations. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Low achievers can catch up. Chapter I expects more of schools. (1991, January/February). Harvard Education Letter. (1991, January/February).
- State of Maine. Child Development Services. (1991). Historical perspectives on Maine's 0-5 interdepartmental early intervention system. Augusta: Child Development Services, State of Maine.
- Marx, F., & Seligson, M. (1988). The public early childhood study: The state survey. New York: Bank Street College.
- Miller, J. (1991). Studies show mixed results, spure calls for changes in program. Education Week, X(35).
- Minnesota House of Representatives. (1990-1991). Open enrollment studies: A series of working papers on Minnesota choice plans. St. Paul: Minnesota House of Representatives.
- Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education. (1989). Early childhood development act: Program guidelines and administrative manual [Senate Bill 658]. St. Louis: Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education.

- Mitchell, A. (1988a). The public school early childhood study: The state survey. New York: Bank Street College.
- Mitchell, A. (1988b). The public school early childhood study: The case studies. New York: Bank Street College.
- Moore, D. (1991). Chicago school reform: The nature and origin of basic assumptions. Closer Look(No. 7). Chicago: Designs for Change.
- National Center for Children in Poverty. (1991). Number of Poor Children Growing. New York: National Center for Children in Poverty.
- National Commission on Children. (1991). Beyond Rhetoric: A new American agenda for children and families. Washington, DC: National Commission on Children.
- National Conference for State Legislatures. (1991). Parent enabling policies for education. Washington, DC: National Conference for State Legislatures.
- National Education Goals Panel. (1991). The national education goals report: Building a nation of learners. Denver: National Education Goals Panel.
- National Governors' Association. (1991). From rhetoric to action: State progress in restructuring the education system. Washington, DC: National Governors' Association.
- National Governors' Association. (1990a). Results in Education: 1990. Denver: National Governors' Association.
- National Governors' Association. (1990b). Education America: State strategies for achieving the national education goals. Washington, DC: National Governors' Association.
- National Governors' Association. (1989). Results in Education: 1989. Denver: National Governors' Association.
- National Health and Education Consortium. (1990). Crossing the boundaries between health and education. Washington, DC: National Health and Education Consortium.
- Ooms, T. (1990). Implementation of PL 99-457: Parent/professional partnership in early intervention. Washington, DC: Family Impact Seminar.
- Parents as Teachers National Center. (1990b). The early history of Missouri's parents as teachers program, 1981-9 [Report #89-3]. St. Louis: Parents as Teachers National Center.

- Parents as Teachers National Center. (1990a). The second wave. St. Louis: Parents as Teachers National Center.
- Parsons, K. (1987). Family support and education programs in the schools: Prospects and profiles. Cambridge: Harvard Family Research Project.
- Paulu, N. (1989, October). Improving schools and empowering parents: choice in American education. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Peterson, B. (1991). School restructuring. Miami: Alliance for Better Schools.
- Policy Studies Associates. (1990). State administration of the amended Chapter 1 program. Washington, DC: Policy Studies Associates.
- Population Reference Bureau. (1991). America in the 21st century: Social and economic support systems. Washington, DC: Population Reference Bureau.
- Schorr, L. B. (1988). Within our reach: Breaking the cycle of disadvantage. New York: Anchor Press.
- Scott-Jones, D. (1986). The family. In J. Hannway & M.E. Lockheed (Ed.), The contributions of the social sciences to educational policy and to practice, 1965-1985. Berkeley: McCutchan.
- Seeley, D. S. (1981). Education through partnership: Mediating structures and education. Cambridge: Ballinger.
- Seppanen, P. S., & Heifetz, J. (1987). Community education as a home for family support and education programs. Cambridge: Harvard Family Research Project.
- Smith, M., & O'Day, J. (1991). Putting the pieces together: Systemic school reform. CPRE Policy Bulletin.
- Southern Educational Regional Board. (1989). Reaching the goal of readiness for school. Atlanta: Southern Educational Regional Board.
- Swanson, D., et al. (1991, April). The impact of choice and change on the organizational health of schools in an urban setting [Paper presented at AERA conference].
- Tan, N. (1990, October). The Cambridge controlled choice program: Improving educational equity and integration. New York: Center for Educational Innovation.

- Timpane, M., & McNeill, L. M. (1991). Business impact on education and child development reform. New York: Committee for Economic Development.
- United States. Congress. (1991a, 7 October). Public Law 102-119 (102nd Cong., 1st sess.). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- United States. Congress. (1991c, 6 November). Education Daily. United States Department of Education budgets.
- United States. Congress. House of Representatives. (1991b). Individuals with Disabilities Education Act and amendments of 1991 [Report 102-198] (102nd Cong., 1st sess.). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- United States. Congress. Senate. Select Committee on Children, Youth and Families. (1988). Children and families: Key trends in the 1980s. Washington, DC: Select Committee on Children, Youth and Families.
- United States. Congress. Senate. Select Committee on Children, Youth and Families. (1984). Families and child care: improving the options. Washington, DC: Select Committee on Children, Youth and Families.
- United States. Department of Education. (1990, December). Choosing better schools: The five regional meetings on choice in education. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.
- United States. Department of Education. (1990b). Chapter 1 policy manual. Basic programs operated by local education agencies. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.
- United States. Department of Education. (1991). America 2000: An education strategy. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.
- United States. Department of Health and Human Services. (1991a). Parent and child centers program fact sheet. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.
- United States. Department of Health and Human Services. (1990a). Developing an action plan for partnerships between Head Start and public schools [Summary of HHS/ED joint meeting]. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.
- United States. General Accounting Office. (1991). Drug education: School-based programs seen as useful but impact unknown. Washington, DC: U.S. General Accounting Office.

United States. Office of Technology and Assessment. (1991b). Adolescent health: Summary and policy options. Washington, DC: U.S. Office of Technology and Assessment.

Viadero, D. (1991, 27 March). Law to aid handicapped infants faces critical test. Education Week, X(27).

Walsh, M. (1991, 22 May). Felton continues to pose logistical challenges; opponents of services wage new legal battles. Education Week, X(35).

Wilson, W. J. (1987). The truly disadvantaged: The inner city, the underclass, and public policy. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Young Kathryn T., & Marx, E. (1991). What does learning mean for infants and toddlers: The contributions of the child, the family, and the community. Boston: Center on Families, Communities, Schools and Children's Learning.

Appendix A
List of Organizational Resources

FAMILY SUPPORT

Child Care Employee Project
6536 Telegraph Ave., A-201
Oakland, CA 94609
415-653-9889

Children's Defense Fund
122 C Street, NW
Washington, DC 20001
202-628-8787

Committee for Economic
Development
477 Madison Avenue
New York, NY 10022
212-688-2063

Council of Chief State School
Officers
1 Massachusetts Avenue, NW
Suite 700
Washington, DC 20001-1431
202-408-5505

Family Resource Coalition
200 S. Michigan Avenue,
Suite 1520
Chicago, IL 60604
312-341-0900

Harvard Family Research Project
Harvard University School of
Education
38 Concord Avenue
Cambridge, MA 02138
617-495-9108

National Coalition for Parent
Involvement in Education
1201 16th Street, NW
Room 810
Washington, DC 20036
202-822-7015

National Commission on Children
1111 Eighteenth Street, NW
Washington, DC 20036

National Committee for Citizens
in Education
900 Second Street, N.E.
Suite 8
Washington, DC 20002-3557
202-408-0447

Parents as Teachers National
Center
University of Missouri
8001 Natural Bridges Road
St. Louis, MO 63121-4499
314-751-5738

Progressive Policy Institute
316 Pennsylvania Avenue, SE
Suite 555
Washington, DC 20003

Select Committee on Children,
Youth, and Families
385 House Office Building
Annex 2
Washington, DC 20515
202-226-7660

PARENT CHOICE

Center for Choice in Education
400 Maryland Ave., SW
Room 3077
Washington, DC 20202
800-442-7425

Center for Educational
Innovation
Manhattan Institute
42 E. 71st Street
New York, NY 10021
212-983-7300

Center for School Change
Humphrey Institute
University of Minnesota
301 19th Street, South
Minneapolis, MN 55455
612-625-1834

Education Commission of the
States
1860 Lincoln St.
Suite 300
Denver, CO 80295

Dr. Charles Glenn
Boston University
School of Education
605 Commonwealth Ave.
6th Floor
Boston, MA 02215
617-353-3309

Minnesota House of
Representatives
Research Department
600 State Office Building
St. Paul, MN 55155-1203
612-296-6753

**COORDINATION OF HEALTH AND
HUMAN SERVICES**

Dr. Lawrence Dolan
Johns Hopkins University
3505 N. Charles Street
Baltimore, MD 21218
301-338-7570

Education and Human Services
Consortium
c/o IEL
1001 Connecticut Ave., NW
Suite 310
Washington, DC 20036-5541
202-822-8405

Family and Youth Services
Bureau
Department of Health and Human
Services
Washington, DC 20201
202-245-0049

Floyd County Youth Services
Coalition
St. Paul's Parish House
1015 E. Main Street
New Albany, IN 47150
812-944-2972

Institute for Educational
Leadership
1001 Connecticut Ave., NW
Suite 310
Washington, DC 20036
202-822-8405

Joining Forces
400 N. Capitol Street
Suite 379
Washington, DC 20001
202-393-8159

Kentucky Integrated Delivery
System
Department of Education
Capitol Plaza Tower
Frankfort, KY 40601
502-564-2117

National Center for Service
Learning in Early Adolescence
CASE: Early Adolescent Helper
Program
Graduate Center: 25 W. 43rd St.
New York, NY 10036-8099
212-642-2947

National Coalition of Advocates
for Students
100 Boylston St., Suite 737
Boston, MA 02116

National Commission to Prevent
Infant Mortality
Switzer Building, Rm. 2014
330 C Street, SW
Washington, DC 20201
202-472-1364

National School Boards
Association
1012 Cameron Street
Alexandria, VA 22314
703-684-4000

New Beginnings
San Diego City Schools
4100 Normal Street
San Diego, CA 92103
619-293-8371

New Jersey School-Based Youth
Services Program
Department of Human Services
CN 700
Trenton, NJ 08625
609-292-7816

Population Reference Bureau
P.O. Box 96152
Washington, DC 20090-6152
800-877-9881

Resource Center on Educational
Equality
CCSSO
400 N. Capitol St., NW
Suite 379
Washington, DC 20001
202-393-8159

SCHOOL RESTRUCTURING

Center on Organization and
Restructuring of Schools
1025 W. Johnson St., Rm. 659
University of Wisconsin
Madison, WI 53706
608-263-7575

Citizens Education Center
310 First Ave., South
Suite 330
Seattle, WA 98104

Citywide Educational Coalition
37 Temple Place
Boston, MA 02111

Committee for Economic
Development
477 Madison Avenue
New York, NY 10022
212-688-2063

DOVEMASS
12 Marshall Street
Boston, MA 02108
617-742-1150

ETS Policy Information Center
Educational Testing Service
Princeton, NJ 08541-0001
609-734-5694

Institute for Educational
Leadership
1001 Connecticut Ave., NW
Suite 310
Washington, DC 20036
202-822-8405

National Center for
Restructuring Education,
Schools, and Teaching
Teachers' College
Columbia University
New York, NY 10027

National Coalition for an Urban
Children's Agenda
NASBE
1012 Cameron Street
Alexandria, VA 22314
703-684-4000

National Committee for Citizens
in Education
900 2nd St., NE Suite 8
Washington, DC 20002-3557
202-408-0447

Public Education Fund Network
601 13th Street, NW
Suite 370 South
Washington, DC 20005

Research for Better Schools
444 N. Third Street
Philadelphia, PA 19123
215-574-9300 ext. 280

INFANTS AND TODDLERS

Bush Center for Child
Development and Social Policy
310 Prospect Street
New Haven, CT 06520
203-432-9935

Children's Defense Fund
122 C Street, NW
Washington, DC 20001
202-628-8787

Child Development Services
State Office
87 Winthrop Street
State House Station #146
Augusta, ME 04333
207-623-4989

Council for Exceptional
Children
Office for Government Relations
1920 Association Drive
Reston, VA 22901
703-620-3660

Federation for Children with
Special Needs
312 Stuart Street, 2nd Floor
Boston, MA 02166
617-482-2915

Head Start Bureau
330 C Street SW Room 2054
Washington, DC 20201
202-245-0572

Anne Mitchell
Bank Street College of
Education
610 West 112th Street
New York, New York 10025
212-222-6700

National Commission to Prevent
Infant Mortality
Switzer Building, Rm. 2014
330 C Street, NW
Washington, DC 20201
202-472-1364

National Council of State
Legislatures
1560 Broadway, Suite 700
Denver, Colorado 80202
303-830-2200

National Commission on Children
1111 18th Street, NW
Suite 810
Washington, DC 20036
202-254-3800

National Governors Association
Hall of the States
444 North Capitol Street
Washington, DC 2001-1572
202-624-5300

National Head Start Association
1220 King Street, Suite 200
Alexandria, VA 22314

National Information Center for
Children and Youth with
Handicaps
P.O. Box 1492
Washington, DC 20013
703-893-6061

CHAPTER 1

ASPIRA Association
1112 16th Street, NW
Suite 340
Washington, DC 20036
202-835-3600

Center for Law and Education
236 Massachusetts Ave. NE
Suite 504
Washington, DC 20002

Center for Research on
Effective Schooling for
Disadvantaged Students
Johns Hopkins University
3503 N. Charles Street
Baltimore, MD 21218
410-515-0370

Council of Chief State School
Officers
1 Massachusetts Avenue, NW
Suite 700
Washington, DC 20001-1431
202-408-5505

Deanna H. Durrett
Policy Analyst
Indiana Department of Education
Room 229 State House
Indianapolis, IN 46204-2798
317-232-6610

William Lubosco
Deputy Director
Compensatory Education Programs
U.S. Department of Education
400 Maryland Ave. SW Suite 2043
Washington, DC 20202-6132
202-401-1682

National Association of State
Coordinators of Compensatory
Education
25 Industrial Park Road
Middletown, CT 06457
203-638-4424

National Coalition for Title I/
Chapter 1 Parents
Edmonds School Building
9th and D Streets, NE
Washington, DC 20002

National Committee for Citizens
in Education
900 Second Street, N.E.
Suite 8
Washington, DC 20002-3557
202-408-0447

National Council of La Raza
548 S. Spring St., Suite 802
Los Angeles, CA 90013

National Urban League
500 E. 62nd Street
New York, NY 10021

Parenting and Community
Education Office
California State Department of
Education
721 Capitol Mall PO Box 944272
Sacramento, CA 94244-2720

Quality Education for
Minorities
1818 N Street, NW
Suite 350
Washington, DC 20036
202-659-1818

RMC Research Corporation
400 Lafayette Road
Hampton, NH 03842
603-926-8888

Yvonne Thornton
Chapter 1 Specialist
Kentucky Department of
Education
Capitol Plaza Tower 1

END

U.S. Dept. of Education

Office of Educational
Research and Improvement (OERI)

ERIC

Date Filmed
August 12, 1992