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ABSTRACT
        This paper summarizes research related to parental
involvement and academic achievement in urban schools, and discusses
an approach to parent participation in an urban school in Minnesota.
It includes discussion of barriers, values, visionary leadership,
achievement, action plans, and conclusions. Barriers to parental
involvement include language, especially for limited English speaking
people, mistrust of the school system, racial tension, and poverty.
Research offers suggestions for ways schools can develop action plans
to overcome these barriers. An example of the promotion of parent
involvement is given in the study of a Minnesota urban school that
serves approximately 500 students in the intermediate grades.
Seventy-eight percent of the students are students of color, and 93%
receive free or reduced-price lunches. One of the school's operating
committees focuses on family and community involvement. In 1994
telephone interviews and informal dialogue were the methods used to
generate parental involvement. Parents were invited to an open house,
community meetings, a spaghetti dinner, and a November luncheon
meeting and raffle. Trust, money, and time were the key factors that
slowed progress and narrowed the parameters of the program, but its
successes were evident in increased parent attendance at meetings and
increased expressions of parent opinion. Nineteen appendixes present
a model for school reform and supporting information, including
parent letters and worksheets, used to promote involvement. (Contains
4 appendix figures, 8 appendix tables, and 41 references.) (SLD)

The Effect of Parental Involvement
on Academic Achievement in
Elementary Urban Schools

By
Sandra L. Edwards

A Summary Paper Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the
Administrative Licensure Program
Saint Mary's University of Minnesota
April 17, 1995

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This paper is dedicated to God, my parents Lewis and Merithol Jackson,

husband Jesse, and sons André and Mark Anthony.

Review of Research

This paper summarizes research related to parental involvement and academic achievement in urban schools. It includes discussion of barriers, values, visionary leadership, achievement, action plans, and conclusions.

History

This section examines recent history of policies encouraging parental involvement in schools.

The 1960's.

President Lyndon B. Johnson's mid-60's plan for the Great Society focused on empowering poor parents to help themselves by using the resources of the school system for economic advancement. Head Start, Follow Through, and Job Corps programs were introduced with a $1.5 billion allocation (Motsinger, 1990).

Conklin discussed these programs as follows:

> Beginning in 1965, a series of innovative programs, all funded under the Community Action Program (CAP) budget, but with separate budget lines and centralized rules, attained the greatest popularity. These included Legal Services, Project Head Start (a type of community-organized nursery-kindergarten program for under-privileged children), Upward Bound (a special program to enable talented but poor children to qualify for college), and Neighborhood Health Centers. (p. 222)

Conklin continued by describing the Job Corps program:

> The Job Corps was only the largest and most controversial of the other Office of Economic Opportunity (OEO) programs. The Job Corps

targeted one of the most intractable problems in America--how to utilize the skills of young high school dropouts, particularly those from urban ghettos. To be eligible for the Job Corps, one had to be outside the normal schooling process and without employment. The Corps paid all travel and maintenance costs, provided thirty dollars a month allowance, and also gave a credit of fifty dollars a month to each trainee, collectible upon completing the program. (p. 225)

Patterson stated several characteristics of the Head Start program: (1) "Educational experiences, (2) A hot meal every day, (3) A physical and dental examination at the start of the school year and health care if they need it and (4) Educational tests to measure their development" (p. 59). The Kansas City Head Start model allowed parents to become classroom aids, to receive daycare for their youngsters, to take jobs in the program, to receive additional education and training and to participate in parent councils and advisory councils.

The 1970's

The 70's did not show an increase in parental involvement. Title I programs required advisory councils who were decisive. Parents and educators experienced difficulty working together as their roles shifted. Although parents were given large amounts of decision-making power, they were generally viewed as outsiders who were enthusiastic. In fact, parents were perceived as lacking basic skills necessary for leadership roles in advisory councils. Since educators had formal training in school affairs, they demonstrated reluctance in sharing positions of power with parents.

Moreover, parents became passive with teachers about their children's
behavior and assignments. Fewer parents were visible in the schools as
volunteers. Similarly, there were smaller amounts of parent and child
interactions in the home (Motsinger, 1990).

The 1980's

Educators were harshly criticized for low test scores and high drop-out
rates in the 80's, and there was a systemic move to establish "excellence in
education." This goal was to be accomplished by focusing on the
improvement of teaching. As more middle class parents fled to the suburbs,
urban schools were faced with larger segments of the student population
experiencing economic strife. Sometimes these economic gaps caused marital
problems or the inability of the family to supply basic needs. The 80's
witnessed the effective schools movement. Parental involvement was
consistently included on the list of factors characterizing effective schools
(Motsinger, 1990).

Language

Ascher's work (1988) discussed the language barrier that affects Asian/Pacific American parents. Since English is not the native language of this subgroup, communication is difficult between parents and school personnel. Some Asians are reluctant to participate because they believe schools have the expertise, resources, and right to make all decisions. Moreover, they feel that children are treated equally according to their cultural, linguistic, and socio-economic backgrounds (Tran, 1982). Some individuals frequently display a large degree of trust in a system when language is a barrier; nevertheless, anguish, frustration, and fear may have surrounded the early educational experiences of parents.

Cooper and Jackson observed the dilemma of non-English speaking, poorly educated, and possibly illegal alien parents who are trying to deal with the hierarchy in the school system. They found that these people believe PTA and other groups are designed for the benefit of the system. This style does not meet their parenting, language, or survival skills in urban settings (1989).

Finders and Lewis saw the impact of survival skills on language and the lack of written literacy skills. Parents who dropped out of school needed to support the family or care for siblings. Limited schooling impaired parental help on homework beyond the primary level. A compounded problem exists when the dominant language in the home conflicts with assignments in English. Frustration also exists because the schoolwork is not accompanied by directions or explanatory material (1994).

An additional complication regarding the language factor involves bilingual education being equated with a handicapping condition, with remediation, and with bussing. In Texas, for example, bilingual programs are housed in various parts of school districts. Bussing is required to reach the instructional sites. Therefore, many parents fear coming to school speaking Spanish (Rudnitski, 1992).

Epstein's (1986) survey of parents, teachers and school administrators revealed five types of parent involvement in the schools and classrooms. The types were listed as parenting, communicating, volunteering, learning activities at home, governance and advocacy (appendix G). In addition, the data supported these conclusions as follows:

> . . . providing for their children's basic child-rearing needs and school-related requirements for supplies and space to work; school-home communication; involvement at school, primarily by assisting with teaching, supervision, administrative tasks, parent organizations, fund raising, community relations, and political awareness; involvement in home learning activities; and involvement in governance and advocacy activities. Each category represents a number of types of involvement, and for each type, the special needs of Limited-English-Proficient (LEP) parents and their children must be considered. (p. 1)

The school must work as a team with LEP parents to help them understand school practices and opportunities for the youngsters. Moreover, the school must make every effort to understand the families' cultures, strengths, and goals.

Mistrust

Poorer parents often recall many negative experiences in their school-related activities. Schools are supported by a tax base from property owners, and since landowners typically sit on the board, many poor parents view schools as institutions for the elite. Many school personnel stress the importance of parents as the primary teacher; nevertheless, large groups of parents are excluded from participation by scheduling factors, limited communications, and an unwelcome climate in the site (Edwards and Young, 1992).

Alienation can also be expressed by school personnel. Parental intimidation can be a source of discomfort. According to Swap (1991, p. 6): "Teachers often have reservations about the competence of parents to support their children's educational achievement, and many have concerns about too much intrusion of parents into areas that have traditionally been under their control."

After discovering that the literature substantiated parents and teachers jointly meeting higher educational goals, Moles advocated the benefits of long-range comprehensive parental involvement (1982). Educators and parents had mixed feelings, mistrust, and questions about their roles in the educational process. Sometimes serious barriers hindered group progress and the attainment of common goals.

Mistrust is also cited in Lewis' research on young urban parents. Lewis contended (1992) that parental involvement is not stable because educators are not knowledgeable about family cultures. In addition, issues are not discussed

which may have a direct correlation to parenting skills, poor communication, and alienation from the schools. She feels that parents are interested but reluctant to participate because of mistrust and racial tension.

Many educational reforms in the eighties ignored parents. Some reform systems tried to assimilate them into the school structures. Neither of these approaches considered the American family's changing structure, culture, or needs. Eventually some reformers realized that parental roles have to address the changes in the family, society, and schools (Cooper and Jackson, 1989).

Rudnitski (1992) supported this viewpoint and suggested that parental involvement must be coupled with other substantive measures. Safety, comfort, shared values, dedication, cooperation, and love were the roots of the Alliance School. These characteristics were displayed in the daily actions of all people. A review of the literature shows that people of diversity with low socioeconomic status feel less affinity for the school than their middle-class counterparts (Litwak & Meyer, 1974). Feelings of alienation have emerged from the reproduction of the main class structure in our democratic society (Katz, 1975; Ogbu, 1977; Tyack, 1981). Marginalization of poor parents has occurred because they have not been able to communicate with schools. Marginalized parents feel inadequate and capable of failure, and have poor self-esteem (Liontos, 1991 b). Alliance School strived to break the barriers of mistrust for its parents and students (in Rudnitski, 1992).

Mistrust is perpetuated when some parents are unable to communicate with the school because of insufficient English skills, economics, or emotional and time constraints in the daily life cycle (Bastion, Fruchter, Gittell, Greer &

Haskins, 1986 in Rudnitski, 1992). Alienation is also expressed from non-immigrant minorities as follows:

> Non-immigrant minorities, even though they may highly value
> education for their children (Ascher & Floxman, 1985), may have
> negative associations with schools which could add to feelings of
> alienation (Lightfoot, 1978). Though they may want a better life for
> their children, non-immigrant minorities are less likely to "buy the
> middle class white myth that achievement through education will lead to
> economic or other benefits." (Ogbu, quoted in Reeves, 1988, in
> Rudnitski, 1992, p. 4)

Racial Tension

Societal changes in the fifties and sixties raised the consciousness of citizens about equal status as a prerequisite for the reduction of prejudice. Banks (1993, p. 43) stated that future school reforms should seek to reduce the growing racial tension and violence in U.S. society. It will take both structural reforms, such as desegregation, and curricular reforms to accomplish this objective.

Public information gives credence to the importance of sufficient health care and nutrition, preschool education, and the involvement of nurturing adults to prepare children for academic success. It is also known that a variety of teaching methods is necessary to accommodate the different learning styles of each youngster. Another premise is that schools work best when teams of people work in cultures that allow them to respond to changing circumstances. Nevertheless, action is not always prevalent in school sites.

Maybe parents across the nation have different per ptions of success as it impacts their particular environment. A significant majority of parents report excellence in the school. On the other hand, a significant group believes schools are in crisis (Molnar, 1994). "City school reform often presents a challenge to racial and class prejudices. Perhaps the growing gap between those who attend public schools in cities and those who pay for them overwhelms us" (p. 59). Many city schools are allowed to exist with substandard structural staffing, maintenance, and up-to-date teaching materials. "At their heart, however, the problems of city schools are the result of our failure to place school reform inside of a broader vision of social and economic justice and our unwillingness to engage in the kind of political activity necessary to realize that vision" (p. 59). Molnar (1994) believes that many hard workers in city schools show evidence of success in spite of their circumsta ces. Nevertheless, their good work must be coupled with our support. "And if they don't succeed, ultimately none of us will" (p. 59).

Like Molnar, Ayers (1994) believed educational resources must be allocated in an equitable manner and that justice should be the common denominator. Children who exhibit the greatest need deserve the maximum amount of help. Ayers saw school personnel developing a common cause with students and parents. He said that we must be willing to view problems as shared and social, and solutions as collective and manageable. Parents must be seen as self-motivated problem solvers instead of passive bystanders. The people who possess the problems are key to devising the solutions.

Race is another bias that governs some class organizations. Epstein gathered data from 94 elementary schools to study the degree and effects of resegregation. She reported that "(1) positive attitudes toward integration influence teachers' selection of grouping practices that promote student interaction; and (2) less resegregative classroom structures are more advantageous for Black students' achievement" (Epstein, 1985, p. 1).

Poverty

As a result of his personal experiences, readings, and research, Motsinger (1990) asserted that "the developers of Teacher Expectation and Student Achievement (TESA) workshops found that teachers do tend to give high achieving students more attention than those who lag behind" (p .5). Underachieving children feel disliked by the instructor. Parents then feel, "it is because we are poor," and resentment grows (p. 5).

Several schools are left with disproportionate numbers of poor students because many middle class families move to the suburbs. Motsinger also reported U.S. Census Bureau estimates that present 400,000 people leaving rural America in 1989. Rural and urban schools frequently are left with those who are too poor to move to the suburbs. Numerous young and elderly citizens comprise the remainder of the population. This fact may account for the absence of a school in a small community (TSCA, Winter 1989, 2, No. 2, p. 1 in Motsinger, 1990).

To further complicate many poor children's attainment of skills, some communities have a substantial number of poor families with either single or traditional parents. These parents have often had to work overtime or

maintain two jobs to provide basic needs for their loved ones (Motsinger, 1990). Work forces have previously provided adequate wages for high school graduates and drop-outs through manufacturing industries. Current wages are not commensurate with the costs of rearing families. Poverty- stricken citizens are often concentrated in similar surroundings. Many mothers have chosen to work longer hours outside the home to break cycles of stress and desolation (Edwards and Young, 1992).

Researchers generally agree that economic isolation and poverty will accelerate in a couple of years (Ascher, 1988; Edwards and Young, 1992; and Banks, 1993). Ascher (1988, p. 111) stated "In 1985, the after-tax income of the typical female-headed household with children was 39.9% of the income of the typical U.S. household with children" (in Center on Budget and Policy Priorities, 1987, p. 111).

Economic isolation seems to be a deterrent that is eroding a significant proportion of minority families. When the Black middle-class moves out of the urban environment, groups known as the "underclass" become primary dwellers. These groups have a limited opportunity to improve environmental and social conditions. They are susceptible to crime, violence, drug addiction, poor housing, homelessness, and welfare dependency. Feelings of resentment may be expressed to friends, family members, and researchers (Ascher, 1988). These isolated areas and feelings could account for a reluctance to seek help from educational institutions. A small segment of this group may affirm the school's inability to provide relief for their immediate needs (1988).

Poverty could also account for adaptations in child rearing. Ascher (1988) reported, "Families are also comprised of more than one relationship. With 64% of all American mothers of school-age children in the work force, 'latchkey' children are becoming increasingly common, and mothers' and fathers' time increasingly constrained" (in Swap, 1987, and Bastian, 1987, p. 111). Institutions are experiencing difficulties when they try to contact the child's caretaker. Care providers can range from paid helpers to grandparents, step-parents, aunts, uncles, foster-parents and shelters (Ascher, 111).

According to Edwards and Young (1992), "The proportion of children living with one parent jumped from 12% to 24% during the period of 1970 to 1989" (p. 73). The research also revealed the traditional African-American extended-family involvement in child rearing is still prevalent in today's culture. There has been an increase in the percentage of grandpa ts parenting grandchildren during the last 20 years. Parenting has extensions that include adoptive parents, reconstituted, and blended families (Edwards and Young, 1992).

Lewis' research also revealed a central problem which tends to be related to some poor families. Urban schools will need to cope with the consequences of teenage pregnancies. Danziger and Farger (1990) stated, "These families headed by single mothers comprise the fastest growing category of family groups" (in Lewis, 1992, p. 3). Many unwed mothers are in a higher risk group for ending their formal education, having additional children without getting married, and needing additional support services. Children need mothers who can provide literacy-rich home environments that

often foster better readers in the school. There is also a need for verbal interaction that stimulates thinking. Young mothers may not have had extensive stimulating experiences in school if they were recent drop outs (Lewis, 1992).

Sigel found, "When parents use low-level or authoritative oral strategies with preschool children, the children perform poorly on tasks requiring memory or problem-solving" (in Lewis, 1992, p. 3). According to Iglesias (1992), research does not describe the process used by parents for school preparation. He argues that it perpetuates stereotypes of particular groups (in Lewis, 1992). Low socio-economic families or those with literacy deficits can provide reading opportunities for their youngsters. Library visits and family discussions can be instrumental for this task (Lewis, 1992). Similarly, Scott Jones (1987) expressed the followed viewpoint:

> Low-income, minority parents who want to help their children with home learning in the early grades, and do so, have varying skills. Such differences are one of the reasons why Iglesias (1992) argues that parenting and parent involvement programs should be tailored to the individual needs of each family instead of forcing every family to fit into a single type of program. "It is essential," he says, "that we begin asking families what they want, rather than providing them only those services which are immediately at our disposal." (in Lewis, 1992, p. 4).

Cooper and Jackson suggested the following:

> If parent power and energy are to be harnessed to the education of a city's poorest and neediest students, new models of parent participation

and involvement are necessary, ones that stress greater collective, community values and en wer families as key decision makers. School reforms in 1984-1988 were directed to client demands, market forces, autonomy and decentralized demands, minimum standards, and greater state involvement (1989, p. 267).

Examples are given in appendices E to F.

A study measured the effect of single and married parents in their interactions with elementary schools and teachers. Data was compiled from a survey of 1269 parents. Single parents comprised 24 percent of the survey. Results indicate that initial differences are due to other family and school circumstances. "Race, parent education, grade level, teacher practices of parent involvement, and overall teacher quality significantly influence paren: reports of teachers practices" (Epstein, 1984, p.1). Single parents felt more pressure than married parents to participate in learning experiences at home. Married parents were more involved in helping teachers at school. Additional results showed that "single parents had better relations with teachers whose philosophy and practices lead them toward more positive attitudes about parents" (1984, p. 1). Teacher leadership determined parents' awareness and appreciation of school programs and teachers. Criteria were not based on marital status.

Values

Although values are generally associated with the affluent or middle class groups in society, poor people also have goals and values. In the attempts of poor people to transform the culture in the service of school

reform, several researchers (Comer, 1970, 1980, 1988; Levin, 1987;

Hopfenberg, Meister, & Rogers, 1990) saw nurturing and supportive

environments for children and adults that were built on values and principles

guiding the relationship (in Swap, 1991). Levin focused "on three principles

(unity of purpose, empowerment with accountability, and building on

strengths) and seven values (equity, participation, communication/community,

reflection, experimentation, trust, and risk-taking)" (in Swap, 1991, p.10).

Motsinger spoke of a mutual understanding concerning values that existed

between the home, urban, and rural schools.

Can families automatically assume that schools will teach students their

values? Can the schools teach the skills which will prepare youngsters for

their roles in society? Motsinger said that the understanding no longer exists

(1990). The historical studies conducted by Ascher (1988) reported that a

mutual understanding seemed to break down in some urban areas. This could

be attributed to middle class families' reaction to declining test scores,

increased violence, and the growing preponderance of poor and minority

children in the schools. "Many families, particularly poor ones, find it

difficult to 'join' an organization that is dominated by middle-class norms"

(Cooper and Jackson, 1989, p. 266).

One theme appearing is that cultural mismatches can occur. For

example, a teacher could innocently ask a child to translate for the parent at a

conference. The child and adult are perceived as equals in the family

structure. There is a clear violation of the natural role of family membership.

Another evolving theme is independence. Parents view daily tasks and chores

as motivators for independence. They are weaning the child into an adult. Although parents recognize the importance of school, coaching a child with his or her homework is viewed as an obstruction to educational ownership (Finders and Lewis, 1994). The current theme is "those other parents" don't care. Institutions seem to categorize nonparticipating parents as those who are deficient in specific areas and need remediation. Active parents are expected to have a knowledge base about the mission of the school that matches the institution goals and objectives. A perception is voiced that "those other parents" cannot be benefit participants unless they are trained (Finders and Lewis, 1994).

<div align="center">Visionary Leadership</div>

New approaches are being sought to help parents access resources and participate in schools featuring a welcoming environment. Blendinger, Jones, Heath and McLaughlin acknowledged the importance of these steps. They concurred that the steps may be insufficient for several poor communities. An ecological approach is offered that strengthens all aspects of the child's development. This alleviates some of the antiquated assumptions about family and community on which our schools are built (in Edwards and Young, 1992).

Schools will need to promote parental involvement in connection with the social context. Since social, emotional, physical, and academic growth and development are inextricably linked, sites may need to refer youngsters to social services and health departments. An added dimension would be to become "Multiple-service brokers" for children (Edwards and Young, 1992).

We have to engage in the educational, social and psychological dimensions of our children's lives. Practices will need to change to include the general well being of children (Edwards and Young, 1992).

Future reforms will require enlightened leadership engaging in uniting all the stakeholders to prioritize the agenda. The focus should be on the mission, the communication of goals to the larger community, and the assurance of an adequate delivery system. Although educators are extremely close to the issues, school reform tends to be dominated by politicians and community partners. Public opinions for more accountability and fewer excuses for failure are the core of the reform movement. Public sentiment is demanding that schools become more effective (Banks, 1993). Coleman and Hoffer (cited in Ascher, 1988) suggested an

> expanded vision of those who should be called on to participate in the
> task of educating our nation's students. . . . The Committee for
> Economic Development advocates a particularly strong role for
> business, both as a pacesetter in educational change and an advocate in
> support of educational programming and funding. (Ascher, 1988, 119-
> 120)

Swap cited salient reasons for visionary leadership (1991, p. 12) as follows: (a) to build group investment and excitement about the challenge of school reform, (b) to build capacity in group members to change practices and attitudes, (c) to consolidate and celebrate gains. A model for school reform is located in appendix A.

"Research continually shows that when principals do not endorse the reform efforts, those efforts fail" (Kijai and Non ,an, 1990 in Swap, 1991, p. 12).

A long-term commitment will be needed by school leaders to implement the change in beliefs about culture and intelligence, the abilities of urban students, and the teacher's role.

By showing their support for teachers' efforts (for example, time for teacher inquiry and collaboration) and by demonstrating the use of the Urban Learner Framework's principles in their decision making, school leaders can take a first step toward achieving a more enduring form of change. (Pajares 1992, in Newcombe and Williams, 1994, p. 77)

During an interview with Brandt (1989), Joyce Epstein identified five types of parent involvement through her work with teachers, administrators, policy leaders and other researchers. She stated that the five types occur in different places, require a variety of materials and processes, and lead to different outcomes. Epstein emphasized that large numbers of practices could be designed to enhance each of the five types of involvements. New methods of sharing information can alleviate blame and distress for the inability to participate. Home involvement should be a priority and participation should be stressed at all grade levels. Data from deprived communities indicate that poor parents want their children to succeed. Therefore educators should assess the existing practices in the school site and begin by hiring a part-time coordinator to work with teachers and develop materials. The research team found subject-specific connections between teacher's practices of parent

involvement in reading and gains in students' reading achievement. The new task involves making a similar connection for mathematics and science, where home involvement is more difficult to arrange. "Teacher Involve Parents in Schoolwork" (TIPS) manuals are available in Minneapolis and St. Paul School districts. Administrators can use these strategies to make their schools more effective.

In Radcliffe, Malone, and Nathan's survey to determine whether prospective teachers and administrators are required by the 50 states and District of Columbia to learn how to involve parents, the surveyors traced the affect of parental involvement on achievement as shown in the research of Epstein (1987; 1989), Comer (1988), Henderson (1987), Wahlberg (1984), Elam (1989), Swap (1993), and others. The main conclusion of the survey is that "the vast majority of states do not require most teachers or administrators to study parent involvement, or to develop skills in promoting parent involvement" (1990, p. i). More specifically, the survey presented the following conclusions:

1. Only seven states require principals or central office administrators to study parent involvement, or to become proficient in promoting parent involvement.

2. Only fifteen states require most or all teachers to study or develop abilities in parent involvement.

3. Only six states specifically require junior high/middle school teachers to study or achieve competency in encouraging parent involvement.

4. Only six specifically require secondary teachers to study or become competent in promoting parent involvement.

5. Fourteen states specifically require elementary teachers to study or become competent in this area.

6. Twenty states require educators preparing to work in the field of early childhood education to study or develop skills in parent involvement.

7. Twenty-six states require teachers working with handicapped or disabled students to study or become competent in this area (1994. p. i).

Every prospective administrator and teacher should study and develop skills in promoting parent involvement. A detailed summary of the findings with legends and notes appear in appendices J to K.

Achievement

The surveys conducted by Motsinger (1990) showed that differences between high and low achievers had a parental involvement factor. Data was gathered from high achieving juniors and seniors in high school, high school age prison inmates, and drop-out students who had enrolled in a GED program. These students had similar experiences with teachers in elementary and middle schools. Several significant differences were drawn from the data:

1. The public school is designed and managed for the highly motivated student who gets along well with adults, especially teachers.

2. The personal profile of the drop-out student is very similar to that of the inmate.

3. The educational level of parents will be the predictor of the educational level of the youth.

4. Personal attention is a better motivator than money and special privileges.

5. Church attendance has a positive influence on youth.

6. Mothers are the most influential people on young people, be the youth high achievers, drop-outs or inmates.

7. A positive cohesive relationship is the number-one factor in influencing student behavior.

8. Having two parents will give a student a 200% better chance at success in school (Motsinger, 1990, p. 8)

Educators recognize the human costs of society's failures and changes in the classroom. When concepts regarding family and school practices are not

congruent with reality, tension and blame move back and forth between the home and the school (Edwards and Young, 1992). Parental involvement has been a dominant theme in literature for approximately three decades. "Studies point to higher student achievement when parents participate in school activities, monitor children's homework, and otherwise support the extension into the home of the work and values of the school" (Edwards and Young, 1992, p. 73).

As schools are restructured to foster academic success, educators will need to address the interpretation of test scores. Inclusion needs to be taken into account when U.S. test scores are compared to those in other countries. American education serves different racial, ethnic, language, and economic groups. Forty-two million youngsters receive an education that varies from excellent to poor. Low-income students and students of color seem to represent the numbers who receive a poor education (Banks, 1993). Banks uses the term restructuring "to refer to the implementation of programs designed to improve the organization and performance of schools" (Banks, 1993, p. 43).

Much of what researchers know about achievement comes from studies using preschool and elementary populations, low-income schools, or ethnicity. General findings indicate that "the more parents participate in a sustained way, at every level--in advocacy, decision-making and oversight roles, as fund-raisers and boosters, as volunteers and paraprofessionals, and as home tutors-- th . better for student achievement" (Ascher, 1988, p. 113). Henderson found that parental involvement not only helps youngsters to be more effective but

also enables them to go to better schools. She said, "There is no best way to involve parents, but . . . parents need to be involved in a variety of roles over a period of time" (in Swap, 1991, p. 3). Moreover, the involvement should be well-planned, comprehensive and long-range. Although significant achievement gains are noteworthy, many studies indicate that poor students still lag behind the national average (Gillium, 1977; Walherg, Bole, and Wakman, 1980; Tizard, Schofield, and Hewison, 1982; Cochran, 1987; and Swap, 1990a; in Swap, 1991, p. 3).

Henderson (1988, p. 61) summarized the research of Benjamin Bloom (1985) and Urie Bronfenbrenner (1984) in her article in Educational Horizons as follows:

> These studies show that creating a positive learning environment at home has a powerful impact on student achievement. Exceptionally gifted students, for example, nearly always have parents who have been enthusiastically involved in every aspect of their development. Low income, low achievers whose parents are counseled in positive home teaching techniques make significant, lasting gains in intelligence (in Cooper and Jackson, 1989, p. 285).

Newcombe and Williams (1994) offered a different approach to achievement by presenting four assumptions that characterize urban learners positively. These youngsters are described as capable, motivated, and able to build on cultural strengths. Negative labels use the following descriptors: lacking ability, culturally deprived, unmotivated, at risk. Current and visionary views about these learners are listed in appendix I. Positive

assumptions must guide all decisions about urban learners as follows: (a) Culture and cognitive development are interrelated. (b) Education must foster the full potential of every urban learner by appreciating group membership and individual diversity. (c) All educational systems must value and care for the learner and the community. (d) All individuals are both learners and faciliators of learning (p. 76).

At Research for Better Schools, Newcombe and Williams have used the Urban Learner Framework to give in-depth meaning to the phrase "all children can learn" (p. 76). The framework focuses on four themes. First, urban students come to school with cultural strengths and experiences that need to be woven into the curriculum and daily routines of the school. "Culture is a more powerful explanation of differences between student groups than either genetics or socioeconomics" (Banks, 1988, in Newcombe and Williams, 1994, p. 76). "By culture, we mean traditions, language, and daily experiences of the home and community" (Ladson-Billings 1990, Tharp and Gallimore 1988, Tharp 1989, 1992, in Newcombe and Williams, 1994, p. 76). Second, culture is important in cognitive development. Gardner, (1993), and Sternberg, (1985) stated that "intelligence is modifiable, multifaceted, and mediated by the cultural environment. These new understandings have clear implications for urban educators (in Newcombe and Williams, 1994, p. 76). Previous psychological research suggested intelligence is genetically determined and fixed at birth. Third, learning is affected by motivation, effort, and innate abilities. Youngsters need school environments that allow them to learn from total commitment, strong efforts, and mistakes (Bernal 1992, Stevenson and

Stigler 1992, in Newcombe and Williams, 1994). Fourth, urban students are resilient. Many urban learners grow into responsible, productive adults despite adverse conditions in their neighborhoods. Resilient behavior is evident in the learner's ability to show social competence, autonomy, problem solving skills, and a sense of the future. "Many educators need to revise their perspective of urban youth from students at risk to learners displaying resilience" (Bernard 1991, Winfield 1991, Rutter 1987, in Newcombe and Williams, 1994, p. 76).

The research further revealed structural change and racial integration can have a positive affect on resilient learners. Rosenbaum et al. (1987) are currently evaluating the effect of the Gautreaux Housing Program on educational dreams and success of low income mothers and children. These families volunteered to be relocated to white middle-class suburbs of Chicago for better housing accommodations. After a period of time involving racial malices and adjustments to higher school standards, the educational achievements of the children improved significantly (in Slaughter-Defoe, 1991).

In other research by Comer, Rosenbaum, and their colleagues, evidence suggested "that when social and educational policies designed to support the responsibilities of parents of school-aged African American children are enacted, the children benefit educationally."

In these struggles over closing the gap in achievement for children of color, Comer saw evidence of a central theme. Contrasts between a child's experiences at home and those in school deeply affect the child's psycho-

social development. Hence, academic achievement is influenced. Comer and

his colleagues at Yale University initiated an intervention project at two inner-

city schools in New Haven. The two K-4 and K-5 elementary schools were

described as 99 percent black and poor. The fourth graders in the original

schools showed steady achievement in reading and math from 1969 to 1984.

A consistent 1984 level of achievement has been maintained since that time.

Although both schools began with 30th percentile rankings, by 1984 they

were at the 60th percentile.

In more recent times, the Comer Model has been implemented in

approximately 50 schools across the country. Ten black elementary schools in

Prince Georges County, Maryland, showed California Achievement Test score

gains from 1985 through 1987 that were greater than the positive gains in the

entire county system.

Comer's research further revealed information regarding the history and

development of the School Development Program:

> The program was structured around a view of child development which
>
> takes into account that children are born helpless and grow via five
>
> critical development pathways: The socio-interactive, or how a child
>
> interacts with others; the psycho-emotional, concerning such factors as
>
> personal control; the moral; the linguistic; and the intellectual and
>
> cognitive. The motivation to learn grows out of the interrelationships
>
> among these areas, and children from marginal backgrounds may not
>
> perform or behave well in school due to different patterns of

development, resulting in negative attachment and the eventual inability to influence the child positively (Comer, 1993, pp. 1-2).

Since school climate impacts learning and achievement, School Development Program members formed governance and management components:

Three mechanisms (a governance and management team, a mental health team, and a parent's program); three operations (a comprehensive school plan, staff development activities, and ongoing assessment and modification); and three guidelines (a policy of not laying blame, decision-making by consensus, and full participation without paralyzing the leader) (p. 2).

In addition to governance and management components, teacher practices were studied concerning parent involvement on student achievement test scores. Epstein took longitudinal data from 293 students in grades 3 and 5 who took the California Achievement Tests in the fall and spring of the 1980-81 school year. The students were in 14 classrooms where the ratio of teacher support for home learning activities varied from strong to frequent to non-users. Strong teacher parental advocates had classes of students who made higher gains in reading than other children. Math achievement did not appear affected by parental involvement. "These results are the first to link particular teaching practices concerning parent involvement to the actual responses of the parents and the change in achievement of their children (1984, p. 1).

Action Plan

All parents want to help their children but may not know how they can

be involved with only limited resources and limited time available to them.

Rich (1985) suggests a simple plan which includes the following: (a)

bilingual media campaigns on the important role of the home in educating

children; (b) stress by ministers and other respected leaders of the importance

of this route; (c) family learning centers in schools, store-fronts and churches

that offer help (that is bilingual, when necessary) to parents wanting to help

their children learn; (d) bilingual hot-lines for parents who need help in

helping their children with their homework; (e) learning activities created by

the schools that parents can use at home with their children (in Ascher, 1988,

p. 118).

Rich (1985) offered some considerations to generate better

communication between schools and single and working parents. He

summarized these as giving parents advance notice about meetings, a

welcoming environment for guardians regardless of marital status, scheduling

evening meetings with child care, educational program choice, before and

after school child care, using sensitivity to child care needs when school

cancellations are necessary, acting as a facilitator for teen, single, working,

and custodial-parent peer support groups, and providing regular updates on

classroom activities with helpful resources for home learning (in Ascher,

1988).

Another simple approach to parent involvement is the **Parent**

Involvement Continuum, which uses categories of activities where parents

can play active or passive roles (appendix D). This strategy was developed by Cervone and O'Leary, who are trainers and project coordinators of the BICO Special Needs Educational Collaborative in North Attleboro, Massachusetts (1982).

Education through partnership is another plan that operates on the supposition that a "top down bureaucratic" approach to educational practice and policies should be reduced. The partnership will be a viable means of promoting success with the values of a democratic society. A mutual relationship should be established with varying expertise, roles, and control over the work that needs to be accomplished (Seeley, 1982).

Becker and Epstein (1982) identified 14 techniques for parental involvement in teaching activities at home. After being examined by a state-wide survey, the techniques were condensed into five approaches. The techniques were described as reading and listening, family games related to school work, contracts for supervision and assistance of homework, learning through discussing, and developing teaching and evaluation skills in parents (in Moles, 1982). Highlights from research on tutoring can be found in appendix B.

The literature is extensive and suggests encouraging parental involvement in urban schools. Besides Epstein's five types of parental involvements, Lewis reports collaboration as a sixth type of involvement added to Epstein's original research. Collaboration is described as schools linking with agencies, businesses, cultural organizations, and other groups to share responsibility for the education of children (in Lewis, 1992, p. 4).

Cooper and Jackson tried another approach to the Epstein model. They used the 1988 basic framework, which included home and school relationships, parental volunteer work at school, parental involvement in learning activities at home, and efforts to support the school's mission. A sixth type was added to include parents as individual decision makers. Using choice and magnet school plans, parents select schools for their children. Type seven encourages parents to be social network members in self-help and school improvement (Cooper and Jackson, 1989)

Traditional hierarchical parental models have failed to benefit many low-income or non-English-speaking urban families. Standard models usually consisted of structured institutions requiring membership and elected officials. Close identification with school management systems, tea socials, and occasional fund raisers attracted a small number of young parents. "Unless families are empowered and involved beyond joining the parent association, many urban parents, it seems, find these structured, organized groups too formal, off-putting, and distant--failing to meet their needs" (Cooper and Jackson, 1989, p. 266).

Type six involvement is predicated on the fact that parents know what is best for their children. Hence, "parent involvement through individual choice making was enhanced through magnet schools (see Cooper, 1987; Metz, 1986; Blank, 1983), open enrollment schemes, alternative schools, schools within schools, and other approaches" (in Cooper and Jackson, 1989, p. 267). Many poor parents have experienced difficulty with the choice issue because the application process was complicated. Consequently, poor children have

lost opportunities as more affluent parents transferred their children to magnet schools for arts, sciences, and aviation courses. Approximately 48% of other New York families made a good adjustment regarding choice for their high school children.

Type seven involvement is through community self-help and networks. The culture of the community is used to help all interested parents. Direct school contact facilitates GED courses, parenting skills, and learning English as a second language. In fact, this self-help network can attack local community problems using the school as a homebase. Moreover, schools can become pivotal agents for eliminating problems rather than for creating problems. Traditional hierarchical systems of parental involvement will need to change to individualistic and collectivist models. The latter form allows the family to use the school and make a choice about the attendance area. Several school districts previously designed the pupil assignment procedures. Poorer parents lacked resources to move into more expensive communities to gain access to better private or public schools (Cooper and Jackson, 1989).

Cooper and Jackson (1989) stated that New York City would be an ideal place to see how parents fit into the educational scheme. There are approximately 180 different ethnic/language groups (with a large Spanish-speaking community), 930,000 pupils, 1,000 schools, and over 100,000 staff.

Type 7 involvement was funded with $800,000 for 1987-1989 through the efforts of Harrison J. Goldin, comptroller. The goal was to help schools create networks and community groups which focused on common needs, interests, and values of the family. The following plan of action evolved:

1. A Parent Orientation Program, POP, was designed. Each school was required to provide a minimum of three orientation sessions. These sessions were for kindergarten parents and third-grade parents.

2. A team consisting of a teacher, parent, and paraprofessional from each school was trained to plan and conduct the orientation program at the school.

3. In addition, six school districts prepared the school's curriculum guide for each grade, kindergarten to third grade. The guides were written in all languages commonly used in these communities (English, Spanish, Chinese, Vietnamese, etc.).

4. Activities were conducted at more than 80 schools selected for POP. Hands-on workshops were particularly popular. Parents made home-study materials (books, games, clocks) to use with their own children at home (Cooper and Jackson, 1989, pp. 275-276;

Evaluations from this project produced many favorable responses. For example, "I feel that I can teach my own child now and I don't need expensive equipment to do it at home" (p. 276). A mother remarked, "The best thing that happened was that we sat down together with the teachers and discussed the different programs, skills. We found out that the home and school are working for the same things . . . being able to help my child and not to fight one another" (p. 276).

Another form of this model was used in P.S. 1 Brooklyn, District 15. The population was 99% Hispanic with a strong core of active parents in the school. The orientation plan consisted of three major components which were

(a) preparing home study materials for parents to use with their children, (b) hiring four teachers with POP funds to spend four days scanning the curriculum in reading, writing, simple mathematics and science, and (c) working with parents at grade level workshops (Cooper and Jackson, 1989). Kindergarten and first grade workshops offered strategies to help parents organize stimulating and exploratory home environments. Teachers emphasized the importance of patience as parents helped with reading readiness and communicative skills. Grades two and three centered on subject areas for topic discussions. In addition, discussions also featured information on child abuse, students'/parents' rights, access to student records, and other parental issues. Reviews of the book, It's Okay to Say No by Golant and Crane, also were distributed for discussion (1989)

P.S. 1 exhibited a mix of strong formal structure and informal cultural identification between the home and school in the Brooklyn Community. Most people were bilingual and comfortable working together in the school setting. "While P.S. 1 might be an urban school, it operated like a nineteenth century 'village school,' a special place for parents and their children, and for the school staff" (p. 279).

Similarly, District 4 (Manhattan's East Harlem) represents a strong example of parent involvement in urban New York City education. Parents can choose educational options in elementary and middle school. Magnet school options include the Bridge School and popular East Harlem Block Schools. These schools were planned during the 60's freedom movement and

later acquired by the New York City Board of Education and the Academy of Environmental Sciences.

A district-wide approach is recommended in these statements:

1. **A total commitment.** Central office deputies and superintendent attend parental meetings. Additional funding has been provided to expand the program.

2. **Project PLAN** (Parent Leadership Assistance Network). Parents train other parents to be leaders and set up associations in schools where they are nonexistent. Organizational skills, values and purposes, and systemic comprehension are taught in the workshops. Recruitment is premised on touching base with power figures such as superintendents, principals, family assistance personnel, drug counselors, drop-out prevention programs, PTA presidents, and health aids.

3. **PIP in the schools.** The funding base was enlarged and each parent in the program was asked to bring five additional parents to each of the nine workshops. Certificates of participation were awarded to the candidates. East Harlem parents heard nine relevant topics that addressed their needs. The topics included Teenagers and Drugs, Aids in Our School and Community, How to Strengthen PTA's, How to Tutor Your Child at Home, Immigration Rights, How to Sensitize Teachers and Administrators about Racism and Culture, School Boards--What They Do and How They Get Elected, and How to Run an Effective Meeting.

Moreover, parents, teachers, and administrators were able to meet informally at two retreats. The first Parent Institute Leadership Retreat

discussed leadership techniques and skills. Three assumptions were listed as follows: (a) Parents must regain their responsibility for educating their children from the church or state through parental involvement. (b) Parents should demand quality as paying consumers of education. (c) Since parents are outside the system, they can use objectivity analyzing quality in the educational framework.

The second retreat conference offered additional satisfaction. One parent stated, "The best that happened was that parents and administrators got to experience each other's roles and realize each others' feelings and what they wanted for the future of their children" (p. 281). Another parent commented, "It empowered me to feel I can go quite a long way with these wonderful people" (p. 282).

4. **Monthly Leadership meetings.** The superintendent's office was the forum for school leaders to network, share community and school news, and energize their commitment. A yearly theme is emphasized for clarifying a purposeful mission for the group. Raymond Rivera, parent coordinator, stressed the importance of group unity and instilling self-confidence in the new leaders. He also reminded leaders to choose speakers who could move the mind, spirit, and behavior of the audience.

5. **Involving the entire district.** Parent involvement is a goal of the district. In fact, the program is supported from central offices to schools. A full-time non-district organizer has been appointed from the community. Since several meetings are held in the superintendent's office, parents know

their participation is significant because the superintendent is visible at many of the meetings (Cooper and Jackson, 1989).

In studying the viewpoints of parents for teachers and administrators to promote active involvement, Finders and Lewis (1994) compiled the following suggestions: (a) clarify how parents can help, (b) encourage parents to be assertive, (c) develop trust, (d) build on home experiences, (e) use parent expertise (pp. 52-53).

Rudnitski's observations showed that academic achievement can be increased when barriers are eliminated and systemic changes take place. The Alliance School initiated a partnership with Holmes Group University. Success was based on a shared system of values that nurtured the importance, respect, and inclusion of parents and their children in the process of education. Parents were accepted regardless of economic status or family structure. A feeling of unity and community existed because the school was flexible and open to change as the needs of the community, the parents, the teachers, the staff, and the children changed. Institutional integrity fostered a commitment to act on the value systems of respect for children, their parents, their cultures, sharing and love. Integrity was evident during inconvenience and did not require pay or recognition (1972).

Comer's (1988) research in New Haven indicated the importance of inducing teachers and administrators to focus on student development. Educators will need training to develop new ways of thinking about the impact of social development and academic ability in determining student achievement. "At the national level, Comer calls for the establishment of a

National Academy of Education which could set national priorities, conduct assessment research, learn how to implement these approaches to school work, and identify new research priorities" (Lezotte in Comer, 1988, p. 2). He describes a "misalignment" existing in the school for poor children. Programs and processes should promote a "bonding" between the developmental background of the home and school. It would be extremely powerful if children were welcomed with this technique when they exited the school bus for their initial experience in the classrooms. These efforts need to be reemphasized in middle and high schools. Because the elementary homeroom teacher concept changes dramatically at the next academic levels, it is necessary to promote personal relationships to help the youngsters feel a sense of connection to the team and program.

Becher's (1985) research looked at 200 studies that dealt with the family's role in achievement through parent education programs, home-based reading readiness activities, and improving parent-teacher relationships. She found high achievement patterns in children whose parents set high expectations, provide frequent interaction, use more complex language and problem solving strategies, and have positive relationships with the teacher. Home visits are emphasized instead of group meetings. In addition, structured and concrete tasks are stressed for parents. Extended contacts are suggested over an eighteen to twenty-four month period. The most salient idea to foster is that parents should be involved in a realistic and respectful manner. This involvement should coincide with their interests and capabilities. Becher used these ideas to formulate two sets of principles that govern effective programs.

A similar study was conducted by Henderson (1987). She collected 49 studies using an Educational Resource Information Center (ERIC). These studies were completed within the last twenty years. Positive results occurred whenever parents were involved in their children's education. Good community and school relationships were additional elements fostering achievement. On the other hand, children with similar aptitude and family background scored lower if their parents were not involved. Failing students improved when parents intervened. The major findings from these studies indicate:

1. The family, not the school, provides the primary educational environment for children

2. Involving parents in their children's formal education improves student achievement

3. Parent involvement is most effective when it is comprehensive, well-planned, and long-lasting (Gordon, 1978).

4. Involving parents when their children are young has beneficial effects throughout a student's entire academic career (Lazar, 1978). While the effects are particularly strong at the early childhood and elementary levels, there are also significant benefits from involving parents continuously through the intermediate and high school years (McDill, 1969).

5. Involving parents only in their own children's education at home is not sufficient to effect school improvement. A school's average level of achievement, as opposed to individual test scores, does not appear to rise unless parents are involved in the school (Wagenaur, 1977).

6. Children from low-income and minority families derive greater benefit from their parents' involvement in schools than do children of middle-class families. Parents do not have to be well-educated to make a difference (Irvine, 1979).

7. Students' attitudes about themselves and their sense of control over their environment are critical to achievement. These attitudes are formed primarily at home but can be influenced by school policy (Mayeske, 1973).

8. Children are profoundly influenced by the ways in which home and school interconnect with each other and with the entire community (pp. 1-2).

Epstein, researcher and keynote speaker at the Humphrey Center for School Change in Minnesota, suggested that "schools are most effective when they recognize they have a shared partnership with parents" (1990, p. 3). She discussed the difficulty some schools have putting the importance of parent involvement into action that leads to meaningful involvement. Purposeful involvement promotes the overlapping influence of the home and the school. "The image of separate spheres of influence guided schools from the beginning of the century well into the 1950,'s (p. 3). Through her studies Epstein has drawn four conclusions about parent involvement:

1. **The most basic and compelling reason to involve parents is student success.** Research shows that when parents feel a part of their child's education, the student is more likely to stay in school, and more likely to achieve.

2. **Parent involvement is necessary from kindergarten through grade 12.**

We need to remember that each year students attend school, they also attend home. That influence, plus the fact that the needs of elementary students means it is important to keep parents active in education. They still influence in important ways and we need them.

3. **Parent involvement is a process, not an event.** A PTA meeting is an event, and it's important, but it's not the same as involvement, Epstein cautioned. "In improving school-family relationships we need to talk in terms of at least a three-to-five-year commitment, and preferably an on-going commitment," she said. She urged schools to evaluate current parent involvement and determine where they want to be in 1993 and plan to get there.

4. **Parent involvement is not a substitute for excellent school programs.** Schools must provide good curriculum and instruction. "Parent involvement can't solve all your problems," said Epstein. "We need to have the best schools and the best parent involvement so we can help all children" (p. 3).

Conference participants worked in eight teams to generate ideas to increase Parent-Educator Partnerships in Minnesota. The strategies were categorized and then prioritized: (a) Ideas requiring no additional funding, (b) Ideas requiring small amounts of funding, (c) Ideas requiring significant amounts of funding, (d) Ideas requiring no institutional change, (e) Ideas requiring institutional change. (p. 5)

Summary

Educators need formal training that addresses sensitivity to barriers in educating low socio-economic students in urban schools. Different styles of learning will need to be explored within relevant curricula that touches personal and community values. Proactive steps must be taught regarding accessing business partnerships. Moreover, educators will need to be change agents who promote collaborative models of parental involvement. This involvement will consist of sensitivity training regarding barriers and decision making, respecting the literacy levels of parents, awareness of daycare issues, establishing goals, using time, money and resources to reach the goals, and granting permission to the members to disagree. Finders and Lewis speculate that "when we reexamine our assumptions about parental absence, we may find that our interpretations of parents who care may simply be parents who are like us, parents who feel comfortable in the teacher's domain" (p. 54).

The writer is optimistic that visionary leaders, parents, children, community agencies, and partners will continue to build two-way bridges of communication to ensure student success.

This concept of communitarian networking is very much the way urban parental involvement should go. The commitment should be total; district personnel, from top to bottom, must be involved. Parents should come to realize that they are important, not only as parents for their own children, but as part of the reform effort in their and other children's schools" (Cooper and Jackson, 1989, p. 283).

There are many effective parental involvement models being used across the country. Samples are cited in the Appendix. These models reflect the need for school reform at the local, state, and national levels, which will allow us to compete in the global economy.

Schools will need to focus on educating children and their families. The time has come to stop shifting the blame for failure. All parties need to become more accountable for success or failure. Even though parental involvement is a significant factor for improving achievement, other innovative measures will need to be studied. We must persevere and be sensitive as we educate diverse groups of people. We have to accept diverse relationships within the homes and the numerous levels of active and passive parental involvement programs that are available. The home base must be supported as the nurturing framework for socialization in informal and school-directed learning tasks.

Additional research is needed to create understandings about parental involvement and achievement in urban schools. The literature should focus on middle and high school grades. Numerous studies have been done at preschool and elementary sites. Will long range parental involvement efforts throughout the grades significantly change achievement in the urban schools? Long range comprehensive efforts could be significant in the change cycle.

School districts must embrace parents as partners, co-teachers, and friends of education. Welcoming attitudes, commitments in terms of inclusion in the mission/goal statements, and budget allocations for transportation, daycare, parent rooms, and workshops are necessary components of a

successful parent involvement program. New parental roles are connected to school, home, and community networks. Parents need to be a part of the decision-making processes and given a large amount of choice in their children's education.

The writer believes that the present time offers a unique opportunity for us to engage all the stakeholders in active or passive levels of interaction on behalf of the child. This belief is expressed in the old African proverb, "It takes a whole village to educate a child."

<div align="center">Application of Research</div>

An urban school in Special School District Number 1 serves approximately 500 students in 4th, 5th, and 6th grade. Seventy-eight percent of the student body are students of color (African American - 57%, Asian American - 13%, Native American - 6%, Hispanic - 2%) 22% are European American. Although the school experiences an approximate mobility rate of 45%, 80% of the students on the average are enrolled in the site for a full year. Support Services for 1994-95 are scheduled for 90% of the 4th grades for Chapter I assistance. Fifteen percent of the population receive Special Education service and 9% receive LEP assistance. Nine percent of the staff consists of persons of color.

Students in this attendance area are in the lower socioeconomic bracket. Ninety-three percent receive free and reduced lunches. Even though the population tends to lack balance because of the large numbers of resilient youngsters, the school's California Achievement Test Scores are comparable to schools with fewer resilient conditions. Sometimes these conditions are

expressed in suspensions, which result from behaviors; for example, fighting, lack of cooperation, profanity, and disrespect to staff.

The urban school's mission is to provide a nurturing environment that promotes learning for all students. Continuous cognitive and social growth equips students to be strong, independent, and knowledgeable citizens in the twenty-first century. These growth patterns should decrease the gap in achievement for this population as compared to the district-wide average.

Four major committees are in the urban school: 1) Student Performance; 2) Effective Instruction and Curriculum (Staff Development); 3) Family and Community Involvement; and 4) Climate. A site-based governance team directs the committees. Each committee develops a goal, action plan, and evaluative tool to address the school's main goal. Planning sheets are provided in appendix H. The governance team receives periodic reports from each committee.

Sequence of Process

Telephone interviews and informal dialogue are the methods that generated parental involvement ideas in the spring and summer of 1994. A core group of parents and staff expressed a desire to hear more about the writer's research model for parent involvement. The August harvest activity was used as an invitation to interact with the Northeast community. Conversation centered on parental involvement and school choice.

For Step one, plans are discussed in the September staff meeting. In Step two, teachers are encouraged to use volunteers in the classroom. Paperwork is completed by the intern principal. Then each teacher discusses

the model and encourages parents to sign a list indicating an area of interest at Open House. For Step three, the intern principal extends a personalized invitation in each classroom at Open House. This invitation encourages participation in one or more of seven types of involvement. Step four is to compile the lists. Parental Involvement Committee members divide the lists and call parents on a staff development day. A uniform parental telephone jingle is designed. A sample is listed in appendix O. In Step five, LEP (Limited English Proficiency) and Chapter I lead teachers hold separate meetings according to their district guidelines and in Step six, they conduct the next meeting in a neighborhood community center or library where the students reside. The lead teachers also provide a translator, daycare, refreshments, and flexible agenda. In Step seven, choose a date for a combined meeting of parents from separate parental and special interest groups. A flyer needs to be created which advertises the meeting and gives parental information to the planners. An example is listed in appendix P. For Step eight, the intern principal calls several community agencies who can provide free speakers. In Step nine, the intern principal visits the urban community school on election day to welcome community members and seek volunteers for the school. The suggested topic is "Instilling values in our children." For Step ten, committee members organize a November luncheon meeting with a speaker and turkey raffle. Turkeys are donated by local merchants. Daycare and transportation will be provided. Student-designed placemats will be used along with commercial decorations which include balloons. The format of this meeting includes the speaker, a question and

answer period on the topic, large postal boards indicating Epstein's and Cooper and Jackson's major types of parental involvement, and a forum for addressing needs. Parental types of involvement are listed in appendices F, L and M. Concerns and other suggested directions for the newly forming parental group are discussed.

The intern principal and members of a welcoming committee are posted at all entrances to welcome parents/guardians. In addition, welcome banners are designed and posted on the outside and entry areas of the school. Step eleven is to incorporate the ideas from this meeting into a building goal with action plans. The Parental Involvement Committee discuss the ideas and plan future activities based on parental input. For Step twelve, individual parental groups continue to function and provide additional choices for varying parental needs. For Step thirteen, a parental corner is published in the Wednesday Newsletter. This section of the publication summarizes meetings that take place and gives parenting tips. In Step fourteen, committee members meet representatives of the clergy and community agencies who are in the attendance area of the student population to gather ideas regarding effective ways in which the school and representatives can support parents and students. In Step fifteen, the intern principal commits to participating in three urban school community council meetings this year. The goal is to establish a partnership that will foster communication about academic achievement. Equally important, the partnership will strive to bring harmony to the north and northeast communities.

Even though the process was well planned, three significant obstacles affected progress.

Barriers

Trust, money, and time are key factors that slowed progress and narrowed the parameters of the program. Some groups would not move forward until concerns were addressed and resolved. The concerns involved changing student bus stops, a child's hair being cut by a student after she was subjected to profanity and physical assault, and the amount and frequency of homework. The LEP team and administration worked with the transportation department to change the stop. In addition, the LEP team escorted the parent to the police station to file a report. A Hmong officer at this precinct can be contacted if further problems occur. Asian parents present at the meeting expected large amounts of homework on a daily basis. The Lehman Center provided homework packets that were used for extra credit. A highly respected educator in the Hmong community was invited to address the staff about a variety of issues. They feel that their children watch too much television. Educators were advised that gang prevention discussion might encourage their children to imitate gang-type behaviors. Some Hmong parents feel the laws in the United States are too lenient. This is a recurrent theme throughout many cultures. Some groups seemed to be more vocal based on the number of negative experiences that they encountered.

A large group of staff members is consistent in believing that parental caring does not coincide with visibility in the school. This area still needs to be addressed.

Intern principals, LEP, Chapter I, and Parent Involvement Committees must design yearly programs with inclusive cost analysis data. These monies must be line items on budget sheets. The program cannot operate effectively when resources are limited. Schools are allocated specific funds for parental involvement.

Parents would like a balance of evening and day meetings to accommodate working parents. Furthermore, it was suggested that daytime meetings should be scheduled between 9:00-11:00 a.m., or 1:00-3:00 p.m. Parents of kindergartners need to be home when youngsters arrive. Another request indicated that the site needed to alternate to meet the needs of north and northeast parents. Since teachers are already spending time on tasks at home and volunteering to help with evening tasks, a home-school liaison person should be hired as the parental involvement coordinator. Committee members who accept the extended time tasks should be paid with stipends. Compensatory time is recommended if stipends are not available. The next paragraph shows the results of the first stages of planning.

Success Models

Thirty parents, six times the normal attendance rate, were present at the November meeting. Over three hundred parents/guardians and children attended the spaghetti dinner and talent show. This was also record-breaking attendance in the history of the school. The comments were very favorable and indicated that people had a good time. Steps one through ten have been accomplished at this time. Flyers and planning sheets for this process are listed in appendices Q to S.

Recommendations

Administrators need to think about the issues in this project as they plan parental involvement programs. Support will be needed from central administration. Minneapolis Public Schools have central administrative support in terms of budget and a goal statement. To illustrate, this position is backed by a program of Family and Community Services. The program publishes a bulletin entitled "Family Involvement in Education." On the whole, the program provides training for parents through the "Parent Institute." In particular, this organization will help educators design parenting rooms. Of course, schools must have visionary administrators and site-based teams who can see the positive impact of this program on achievement beyond the horizons.

Moreover, a flexible budget must be in place for parent and teacher training, capacity building activities such as a parent room, make and take items, parent bulletin boards, and guest speakers/presenters (parents, teachers, others). Evaluations should be consistently applied in the parental model. Leaders must accept and allow parents/guardians to be active and/or passive participants in their child's education. Since parents enjoy seeing their children on stage, committee members should encourage a student performing component with any parental activity. All free media sources such as bank displays, radio stations, local cable networks, and neighborhood newspapers should be utilized for advertising each event. Every experience in a child's life should be viewed as a teachable moment.

Finally, this interaction will increase learning and build self-esteem.
Epstein's TIPS, (Teachers Involve Parents in School) work program is
available through the Minneapolis Public Schools' Teaching and Learning
Center. TIPS provides instructional techniques for homework in grades K-8
in different subject areas.

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Appendix A

Model for School Reform

Mission

Goals and Priorities

Management and
decision-making
structures

Educational
content,
instructional
practices,
educational
"infrastruc-
ture"

School
Culture:
Norms
and
values

Programs and
activities for families, staff and community

Continuous
Evaluation
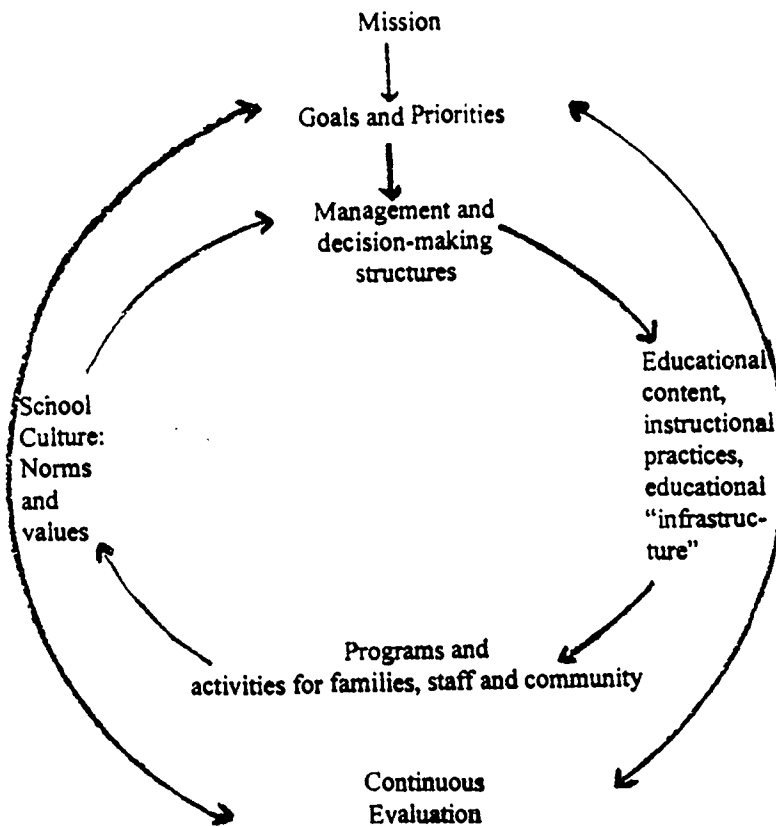
Enabling Factors

- Effective leadership
- Support from central administration
- Compatible policic (local, state, national)
- Capacity-building activities
- Resources

Source: Swap, S. (1991). Can parent involvement lead to
increased student achievement in urban schools? (Report
No. VD 028 102). Chicago, IL: American Educational
Research Association. (ERIC Reproduction Service No. ED
333-079)

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Appendix B

Highlights from Research on Tutoring

Effective parent involvement programs offer various forms of training and opportunities for parents to work with schools and teachers. Parent participation usually begins with contacts (notes, phone calls, visits) in which teachers report on student progress and parents indicate whether they are willing and able to assist. The second stage of parent participation involves home learning activities.

Among the methods parents use to help students learn are:
- Reading activities in which parents listen, correct, and praise their children's reading
- Discussions (based on teacher-suggested guidelines) about television programs that parents and children watch together
- Family games that relate to school work
- Instructional techniques designed for parents to help with homework.

Both to initiate and maintain contact with parents, school districts offer such services as telephone hotlines, which parents can call for information about school activities and homework assignments; workshops where parents can learn to make simple instructional aids or develop tutoring skills; parent-teacher conferences where instructional ideas are explored; and individually prescribed home learning activities for students in areas where they are academically weak.

Although public opinion polls indicate that both teachers and parents favor more parent involvement, many programs face obstacles, the most common including:

- Parents' and teachers' conflicting family commitments and time constraints
- Parents' and schools' differing perceptions of learning priorities
- Teachers' low expectations of parents' efforts
- Teachers' inability to handle their students' family problems
- Parents' inability to help students with homework they don't understand
- A history of negative communications between the home and school.

Certain prevailing beliefs about parent participation do not stand up to research findings. It appears, for instance, that parents' level of education has no connection with their ability to use at-home instructional techniques or with their willingness to help; that working mothers are just as able to help their children as nonemployed mothers; and that teachers do not necessarily work better with highly educated parents.

SOURCE: Moles, O.C. (1982). Resource information service:
            Synthesis of recent research on parent participation in
            children's education. Educational Leadership, 40, pp.
            44-47.

Appendix C
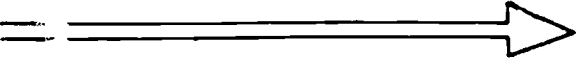
Sequential Model for Family-School
Collaboration for Children's Learning

INPUT		OUTPUT
Data on children's learning	1. Recognition of Critical Importance of Family-School Collaboration	Share national research with community; ask for help
Relationship-building activities		
Capacity-building activities	2. Family and Community Involvement in Developing Joint Mission	Share process and results with community
Capacity-building activities	3. Family and Community Participation on Steering Committee, Task Forces to develop goals, objectives and priorities	Share process and results with community
Resources	4. Selection of activities, structures, and programs to:	Newsletters
		Newspaper articles
	Improve two-way communication	Scrapbooks
Capacity-building activities		Children's Journals
	Provide mutual support	Videos
Exposure to good models	Enhance learning at home and school	Cable
	Promote joint decision making	Outreach Strategies
Data on children's learning and on adult experiences	5. Family and community involvement in assessing children's success and the usefulness of specific activities, structures and programs to achieve the mission (go back to #3)	Share process and results with community
		Request expanded involvement

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SOURCE: Swap, S. (1991). Can parent involvement lead to increased student achievement in urban schools? (Report No. VD 028 102). Chicago, IL: American Educational Research Association. (ERIC Reproduction Service No. ED 333-079)

Parent Involvement Continuum			
Parents as Passive Participants Good News Notes	Open House	Welcoming Committee	
60 Second Phone Calls	Audiovisual Presentations	Parent Bulletin Board	
Star of the Week	Potluck Supper	Information on Home and Weekend Activities	
Newsletter	Father's/Mother's Sibling's Day	Information on Community Resources	
	Spring Fling	Lending Library (Book, Toy, Record)	
	End-of-the-Year Picnic	Classroom Observations	Make and Take Workshop
Call-in Times	The Gym Show	Workshops on Topics of Interest to Parents	Teachable Moments
Parent-Teacher Conferences		A Course for Parents	Parents Teaching in the Classroom
Parents as Active Participants Home-School Notebooks		Parent-to-Parent Meetings	Parent Objectives in the IEP
(Parent Leaders)	(Parent Leaders)	(Parent Leaders)	(Parent Leaders)
Reporting Progress	Special Events	Parent Education	Parents Teaching

Parents as Passive Participants ——————————————▶ Parents as Active Participants

SOURCE: Cervone, B. T., & O'Leary, K. (1982). A conceptual
            framework for parent involvement. Educational
            Leadership, 40, 48-49.

Type 6: Parent Decision Making (consumer activities).
- Become aware of educational choices available to children at different ages and stages
- Become aware of the local school "market"
- Visit possible schools and school "fairs" to learn about programs
- Examine other Information
- Select a school and apply
- Make arrangements for children to attend and succeed.

Figure 2: Parent Involvement In School Selection

Type 7: Parent Community Networks
- Assume that all parents have strengths and interest in education
- Assume that parents themselves need schooling
- Assume that parent communities and networks are high on "social capital", support for school
- Build on cultural traditions of community and parents
- Develop schools as a "place" for parents to congregate, solve problems, using a "Parents' Room" in the school
- Organize parent groups in schools and district-wide
- Work through existing relationships, as between district offices and school leadership, to help parents
- Increase communications through parent organizations and individuals.

Figure 3: Parent Networks and Community Involvement

SOURCE: Cooper, B., & Jackson. B. (1989). Parent choice and empowerment: New roles for parents. Urban education, 24, pgs. 268 & 270.

Appendix F

II. INDIVIDUAL
DECISION-MAKERS
Choice of schools
-Active role in visiting
schools
-High influence" of choice
on schools programs

I. HIERARCHICAL
PARTICIPATION

-Structured part of school
-PTA/PTO groups
-Formal membership

III. COLLECTIVE PARENT
NETWORK

-Built on strength of local
school community
-Assumes common interest
and universal value of the
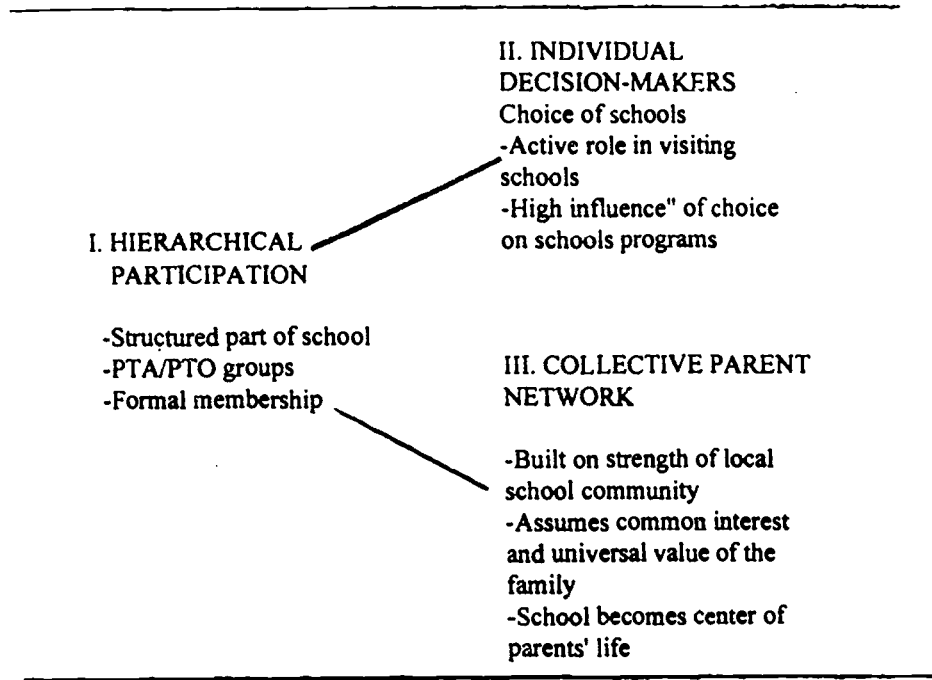family
-School becomes center of
parents' life

Figure 4: Evolution of Parent Involvement

SOURCE: Cooper, B., & Jackson, B. (1989). Parent choice and
empowerment: New roles for parents. Urban Education,
24, P. 271.

Appendix G

Five Major Types of Parent Involvement

Type 1. The basic obligations of parents refers to the responsibilities of families to ensure children's health and safety; to the parenting and child-rearing skills needed to prepare children for school: to the continual need to supervise, discipline, and guide children at each age level: and to the need to build positive home conditions that support school learning and behavior appropriate for each grade level.

Type 2. The basic obligations of schools refers to the communications from school to home about school programs and children's progress. Schools vary the form and frequency of communications such as memos, notices, report cards, and conferences, and greatly affect whether the information about school programs and children's progress can be understood by all parents.

Type 3. Parent involvement at school refers to parent volunteers who assist teachers, administrators, and children in classrooms or in other areas of the school. It also refers to parents who come to school to support student performances, sports, or other events, or to attend workshops or other programs for their own education or training.

Type 4. Parent involvement in learning activities at home refers to parent-initiated activities or child-initiated requests for help, and ideas or instructions from teachers for parents to monitor or assist their own children at home on learning activities that are coordinated with the children's classwork.

Type 5. Parent involvement in governance and advocacy refers to parents' taking decision-making roles in the PTA/PTO, advisory councils, or other committees or groups at the school, district, or state level. It also refers to parent and community activists in independent advocacy groups that monitor the schools and work for school improvement.

SOURCE: Minnesota Chapter of the National School Public
Relations Association (1990). Parent-educator
partnerships: Acting on the vision. Minneapolis:
University of Minnesota, p. 20.

Appendix H

Examples of Practices to Promote, and Outcomes from, the Five Types of Parent Involvement				
Type 1 Parenting	Type 2 Communicating	Type 3 Volunteering	Type 4 Learning at Home	Type 5 Representing Other Parents
Help All Families Establish Home Environments to Support Learning	Design More Effective Forms of Communication to Reach Parents	Recruit and Organize Parent Help and Support	Provide Ideas to Parents on How to Help Child at Home	Recruit and Train Parent Leaders

A Few Examples of Practices of Each Type

School provides suggestions for home conditions that support learning at each grade level. Workshops, videotapes, computerized phone messages on parenting and child-rearing issues at each grade level.	Teachers conduct conferences with every parent at least once a year, with follow-up as needed. Translators for language- minority families. Weekly or monthly folders of student work are sent home and reviewed and comments returned.	School volunteer program or class parent and committee of volunteers for each room. Parent Room or Parent Club for volunteers and resources for parents. Annual postcard survey to identify all available talents, times, and locations of volunteers.	Information to parents on skills in each subject at each grade. Regular homework schedule (once a week or twice a month) that requires students to discuss schoolwork at home. Calendars with daily topics for discussion by parents and students.	Participation and leadership in PTA PTO or other parent organizations, including advisory councils or committees such as curriculum, safety, and personnel. Independent advocacy groups.

A Few Examples of Outcomes Linked to Each Type

		Parent Outcomes		
Self-confidence in parenting. Knowledge of child development. Understanding of home as environment for student learning.	Understanding school programs. Interaction with teachers. Monitoring child's progress.	Understanding teacher's job and school programs. Familiarity with teachers. Comfort in interactions at school.	Interaction with child as student at home. Support and encouragement of schoolwork. Participation in child's education	Input to policies that affect child's education. Feeling control of environment.

		Student Outcomes		
Security Respect for parent. Improved attendance. Awareness of importance of school.	Student participation in parent-teacher conferences, or in preparation for conferences. Better decisions about courses, programs.	Increased learning skills receiving individual attention. Ease of communication with adults.	Homework completion. Self-concept of ability as learner. Achievement in skills practiced.	Rights protected. Specific benefits linked to specific policies.

		Teacher Outcomes		
Understanding of family cultures, goals, talents, needs.	Knowledge that family has common base of information for discussion of student problems, progress. Use of parent network for communications.	Awareness of parent interest, in school and children, and willingness to help. Readiness to try programs that involve parents in many ways.	Respect and appreciation of parents' time, ability to follow through and reinforce learning. Better designs of homework assignments.	Equal status interaction with parents to improve school programs. Awareness of parent perspectives for policy development.

From: J. L. Epstein. (Forthcoming). "Five Types of Parent Involvement: Linking Practices and Outcomes." In *School and Family Connections: Preparing Educators to Involve Families*

Appendix I

Figure 1	
Toward a New Vision of Urban Learners	
Current View	A New Vision
Deprived	Culturally Different
Failing/Low Achieving	Unrecognized Abilities/ Underdeveloped Potential
Unmotivated	Engaged/Self-Motivated/Effortful
At-Risk	Resilient

SOURCE: Newcombe, E., & Williams, B. (1994). Building on the strengths of urban learners. <u>Educational Leadership</u> <u>51</u>, p. 77.

Appendix J

States Requiring Parent Involvement - through specific coursework and/or competency requirements

	General Prof-essional Cert.	Elementary	Jr. High Mid. Sch.	Secondary	Special Education	Other Endorsements	Admin-istrator	Comments
Alabama	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	c	No	1
Alaska	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	None	No	2
Arizona	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	a,b,c,d,e	No	
Arkansas	Yes	No	No	No	No	None	No	3
California	Yes	No	No	No	No	None	No	4
Colorado	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	b,d,e,f	Yes	5
Connecticut	No	No	No	No	No	None	No	
Delaware	No	No	No	No	No	c	No	
Dist. of Columbia	No	No	No	No	Yes	b	No	
Florida	No	No	No	No	Yes	f	No	6
Georgia	No	No	No	No	Yes	b	No	7
Hawaii	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	None	No	8
Idaho	No	No	No	No	Yes	b	No	
Illinois	No	No	No	No	No	b	Yes	
Indiana	No	No		No	No	None	No	9
Iowa	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	b	Yes	
Kansas	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	b,d	No	10
Kentucky	No	Yes	No	No	No	None	Yes	
Louisiana	No	No	No	No	Yes	None	No	
Maine	No	No	No	No	Yes	None	No	11
Maryland	No	No	No	No	No	None	No	
Massachusetts	No	No	No	No	Yes	None	No	
Michigan	No	No	No	No	No	None	No	
Minnesota	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	b,c,d,f	No	11
Mississippi	No	No	No	No	No	None	No	
Missouri	No	No	No	No	Yes	b,f	No	
Montana	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	None	No	
Nebraska	No	No	No	No	No	None	No	
Nevada	No	No	No	No	No	None	No	
New Hampshire	No	No	No	No	Yes	b,c	No	
New Jersey	No	No	No	No	No	None	No	
New Mexico	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	c,d	No	
New York	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	None	No	12
North Carolina	No	No	No	No	No	None	No	
North Dakota	No	Yes	No	No	No	b,c	No	
Ohio	Yes	No	No	No	No	None	No	13
Oklahoma	No	No	No	No	No	None	No	14
Oregon	No	No	No	No	No	None	No	
Pennsylvania	No	No	No	No	Yes	None	No	15
Rhode Island	No	No	No	No	No	None	No	
South Carolina	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	None	No	8
South Dakota	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	b	Yes	
Tennessee	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	b,f	Yes	16
Texas	No	No	No	No	No	b	No	
Utah	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	b,c,d	No	
Vermont	No	No	No	No	No	None	No	
Virginia	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	b	No	
Washington	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	
West Virginia	No	No	No	No	Yes	a,b	Yes	17,18
Wisconsin	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	b,c,d	No	
Wyoming	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	b,d,e,f	No	19
Totals	15	14	6	6	26	(b)=20	7	

A-1

Source: Malone, M., Nathan, J., & Radcliffe, B. (1994). Training for parent partnership: Much more should be done. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, Center for School Change, Hubert H. Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs, p. 16.

Appendix K

LEGEND AND NOTES

Legend - Other Endorsements

a.	Gifted and Talented	d.	Bilingual Education
b.	Early Childhood Education	e.	English as a Second Language
c.	Reading/Language Arts	f.	Counseling

Key to Chart Notes

1. Although Alabama does require a specific course that includes the topic of parent involvement, parent involvement is just one component within a "Special Education Survey" course.
2. According to Alaskan Department of Education officials, some teacher education programs are accredited using NCATE standards, others are approved using NASDTEC standards. Findings for Alaska reflect both as sources of standards.
3. Arkansas' information reflects the recent move from specific course requirements, to state and NCATE prescribed standards and competencies.
4. California's recently passed parent involvement legislation was included in the analysis of parent involvement certification/accreditation requirements.
5. On May 12, 1994 Colorado adopted new certification/accreditation rules as part of the Educator Licensing Act of 1991. These rules are included in our analysis.
6. Although not considered parent involvement under our definition, Florida's competencies for their certification examination mention that parents should be consulted with when teachers are dealing with "misconduct, interruptions, intrusions, and digressions."
7. Information from Georgia reflects standards as described in program approval matrices used by the State Department of Education and through informational interviews with Department of Education officials.
8. Hawaii and South Carolina Department of Education officials indicated in phone conversations with us that NASDTEC standards were the primary requirements used to approve teacher education programs. Therefore, information from these two states is from the NASDTEC standared.
9. Correspondence from Warren K. Garner, Executive Director of the Indiana Professional Standards Board indicated that there were no parental involvement requirements at any point during the Indiana teacher certification process.
10. Kansas State Board of Education officials indicated that their teacher certification process is currently being revised. We used the most current information that could be obtained for purposes of our analysis.
11. Maine and Minnesota use a combination of course requirements and standards/competencies in their certification rules. Because of the interchangeable nature of the information, we counted any parent involvement requirements as falling into both course requirement and standard/competency categories.
12. New York's certification examination reflects parent involvement knowledge in their general professional knowledge section.
13. Ohio is curently revising its teach certification proces.. Althoguh a draft of final recommendations to the State Board of Education contained several promising examples of parent involvement standards, we did not include these in our analysis because as of May 20, 1994, they had not been adopted.
14. According to State Department of Education officials, Oklahoma is currently revising their general professional certification requirements.
15. Within Pennsylvania's special education requirements, the only mention of parental involvement we found was in their Vocational Special Needs endorsement information.
16. Tennessee's State Department of Education Officials indicated that no specific coursework is prescribed by the state. Course requirements are set by teacher education programs.
17. West Virginia's standards/competencies were provided in the form of study guides for their Education Personnel Preparation Testing Program examination.
18. In the adminstrative category, West Virginia requires parent involvement skills only for the position of Supervisor of Instruction.
19. Wyoming provided no specific course requirements for teacher or administrator certification. Only competencies and standards were analyzed.

A-2

SOURCE: Malone, M., Nathan, J., & Radcliffe, B. (1994). Training for parent partnership: Much more should be done. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, Center for School Change, Hubert B. Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs, p. 17.

Appendix L

THE FIVE TYPES OF PARENT INVOLVEMENT

Checklist for an Effective Parent School Partnership	TYPE 1 Parenting	TYPE 2 Communicating	TYPE 3 Volunteering	TYPE 4 Learning at Home	TYPE 5 Representing Other Parents
One way to start improving your school's parent-school partnerships is by assessing present practices, says Joyce Epstein. The following questions can help you evaluate how well your school is reaching out to parents.	**Goal** Help all families establish home environments to support learning	**Goal** Design more effective forms of communication to reach parents	**Goal** Recruit and organize parent help and support	**Goal** Provide ideas to parents on how to help child at home	**Goal** Recruit and train parent leaders
• Which partnership practices are currently working well at each grade level? • Which partnership practices should be improved or added in each grade? • How do you want your school's family involvement practices to look three years from now? Which present practices should change and which should continue? • Which families are you reaching and which are hard to reach? What can be better done to communicate with the latter?	**Practices** • School provides suggestions for home conditions that support learning at each grade level. • School provides workshops, videotapes and/or computerized phone messages on parenting and child-rearing at each grade level.	**Practices** • Teachers conduct conferences with every parent at least once a year, with follow-ups as needed. • Language translators are provided for minority families. • Weekly or monthly folders of student work are sent home and reviewed; parental comments returned to teacher.	**Practices** • Set up parent center where volunteers can meet and where resources for parents are located. • Send out annual postcard survey to identify all available talents.	**Practices** • Distribute calendar listing possible topics for discussion by parents and students.	**Practices** • Become involved in independent advocacy groups and participate in and/or lead PTA/PTO or other parent organizations.
• What costs are associated with the improvements you want? • How will you evaluate the results of your effort? • What opportunities will you arrange for teachers, parents, and students to share information on successful practices in order to strengthen their own efforts?	**Outcomes** **For Parents** increased self-confidence in parenting; increased knowledge of child development **For Students** respect for parent; improved attendance **For Teachers** understanding of family cultures and values	**Outcomes** **For Parents** understanding school programs, monitoring child's progress **For Students** better decisions about courses and programs **For Teachers** use of parent network for communications	**Outcomes** **For Parents** understanding teacher's job; increased comfort in school interactions **For Students** practice in communicating with adults **For Teachers** readiness to try programs that involve parents in new ways	**Outcomes** **For Parents** interaction with child as student at home **For Students** achievement in skills practiced **For Teachers** better, more efficient designs of homework assignments	**Outcomes** **For Parents** input into policies that affect child's education **For Students** rights protected **For Teachers** awareness of parent perspectives for policy development

This and additional information on parent involvement will appear in Epstein's forthcoming book. School and Family Partnerships: Preparing Educators and Improving Schools, *to be published by Westview Press, Boulder, CO.*

April, 1993

SOURCE: Epstein, J. (1994a, November) <u>Practical tips for building more effective educator-family partnerships, K-12.</u> Paper presented at the meeting of the Center for School Change, Hubert H. Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs, Minneapolis, MN.

Appendix M

Epstein's Additional Type of
Involvement

Type 6

Collaboration Exchanges
with Community

Goal

Identify and utilize resources
from available community groups
and agencies

Practices

* A school coordinates referrals
or access of students and
families in community health,
cultural, recreational, business
and social support agencies.

* Establish connections between
and among those that share
responsibility for students'
education and future.

Outcomes

For parents --

education in child/adolescent
development and knowledge of
local resources.

For students --

curriculum and extra-curricula
experiences enhanced: careers
explored.

For teachers --

increased support of volunteers
and mentors.

SOURCE: Epstein, J. (1994a, November) Practical tips for building more effective educator-family
            partnerships, K-12. Paper presented at the meeting of the Center for School Change,
            Hubert H. Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs, Minneapolis, MN.

Joyce L. Epstein
Center on Families, Communities, Schools
and Children's Learning
Johns Hopkins University

NAME_____   SCHOOL_____

PLANNING MORE EFFECTIVE FAMILY-SCHOOL-COMMUNITY PARTNERSHIPS

Our Goal: Elementary, middle, and high school staffs and parents can start to plan a comprehensive program to improve family, school, and community connections by reviewing their present practices. Schools at all levels can work toward more productive and inclusive programs. The goal is to involve all parents in their children's education in ways that help the students, teachers, and families.

This Activity: This worksheet can be used by teachers, principals, other administrators, and parents to plan and then discuss school, family, and community connections for their school. Students, too, can be involved in planning. (Or, a team may consider groups of schools at the district level to plan for a broader program of school, family, and community partnerships.)

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1.   STRENGTHS

What are the strong points right now in your school's program or practices for involving families in their children's education? (Think of your school's practices at each grade level that involve parents at school and at home.)

GRADES	SUCCESSFUL PRACTICES	HOW TO EVALUATE
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

SOURCE: Epstein, J. (1994a, November) Practical tips for building more effective educator-family partnerships, K-12. Paper presented at the meeting of the Center for School Change, Hubert H. Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs, Minneapolis, MN.

2.   WEAKNESSES

What are the weak spots right now in your school's practices of partnership with families and community groups? What needs to be improved or added to your program?

(Think of your needs at each grade level such as volunteers, or better communications from school to home, or how parents could help children at home, or other specific improvements.)

GRADES	PRACTICES WE NEED TO IMPROVE OR TO ADD	HOW TO EVALUATE

3.   HARD-TO-REACH FAMILIES

In your school, who are the parents who are hardest to reach? How might more parents, different parents, or all parents be involved and better informed about school programs and their children's progress?

(Think of each grade level and consider families where both parents work, where there is a single parent who works during the school day, those who cannot read well, those who cannot speak English well, young parents, and other "HARD-TO-REACH" families.)

GRADES	WAYS TO INVOLVE OUR FAMILIES WHO ARE HARD-TO-REACH	HOW TO EVALUATE

4.   PLANNING: A COMPREHENSIVE PROGRAM OF 6 TYPES OF SCHOOL AND
        FAMILY CONNECTIONS.

Over the next three years, what would you like to see as an overall, excellent school-family-community
program of partnerships in your school? Think of each of the six major types of family-school-community
connections. How might a comprehensive program develop at your school in Year 1, Year 2, Year 3?

TYPE I   Helping families build home conditions for learning.

OVERALL GOAL(S)	NEEDED ACTIVITIES	WHO WILL BE RESPONSIBLE?	EVALUATION (HOW COULD THIS BE EVALUATED?)
YR 1			
YR 2			
YR 3			

TYPE II   Improving communications from the school to the home and from the home to the
school.

OVERALL GOAL(S)	NEEDED ACTIVITIES	WHO WILL BE RESPONSIBLE?	EVALUATION (HOW COULD THIS BE EVALUATED?)
YR 1			
YR 2			
YR 3			

TYPE III   Increasing productive volunteers at the school building.

OVERALL GOAL(S)	NEEDED ACTIVITIES	WHO WILL BE RESPONSIBLE?	EVALUATION (HOW COULD THIS BE EVALUATED?)
YR 1			
YR 2			
YR 3			

TYPE IV   Improving family involvement in learning activities at home.

OVERALL GOAL(S)	NEEDED ACTIVITIES	WHO WILL BE RESPONSIBLE?	EVALUATION (HOW COULD THIS BE EVALUATED?)
YR 1			
YR 2			
YR 3			

TYPE V   Extending families' roles in PTA/PTO, advisory councils, committees, advocacy groups, Chapter I leadership, school-site management teams, etc.

OVERALL GOAL(S)	NEEDED ACTIVITIES	WHO WILL BE RESPONSIBLE?	EVALUATION (HOW COULD THIS BE EVALUATED?)
YR 1			
YR 2			
YR 3			

TYPE VI   Improving collaborations and exchanges with the community - businesses, community agencies, cultural organizations, and other groups to help students, families, and the schools.

OVERALL GOAL(S)	NEEDED ACTIVITIES	WHO WILL BE RESPONSIBLE?	EVALUATION (HOW COULD THIS BE EVALUATED?)
YR 1			
YR 2			
YR 3			

DEPARTMENTAL
CORRESPONDENCE

Appendix O

Minneapolis Public Schools
Minneapolis, MN 55413

75

Date___October 10, 1994___

To___Family & Community Involvement Committee___

From___Sandra Edwards, Intern Principal___

Subject___"Parental Involvement Telephone Jingle"___

(Identify yourself). Thank you for your interest in the formation of a parent group. We will plan our first meeting for November 17, 1994 at 11:00 a.m. A delicious meal, speaker, transportation, and daycare will be provided. The purpose of the meeting will be to share concerns, needs, and questions regarding your child's success at an urban school. This will be your group. You will have the power to decide what it does and where it should meet.

It is important for us to have your current telephone number and address during the next couple of weeks for a "follow-up" contact. We would like you to jot down a few ideas or concerns for the meeting.

Will you need daycare? What are the ages of your children? Do you need transportation?

Thank you very much for your time. I am looking forward to seeing you. Please call and ask for (your name) if you have any questions or concerns.

		(Circle one)	
1.	Do you need daycare?	YES	NO
2.	What are the ages of your children?	YES	NO
3.	Do you need transportation?	YES	NO

SE/dmm
10/10/94

SOURCE: Anonymous (1994). Parental involvement telephone jingle.

Appendix P

Turkey Raffle!

PARENT MEETING
Wednesday., Nov. 16th
11:00 A.M.
Interesting Speaker!
Delicious Lunch!
Fun Prizes!

Please return with your child by Friday, Nov. 11th
I can come to the meeting on Nov. 16th. Yes No
Do you need day care? Yes No
Do you need transportation? Yes No

Child's Name and Room _____
Parent's Name _____
Address _____
Phone _____

Source: Anonymous (1994). Invitation to parent meeting.

Appendix Q

Invitation to our
Spaghetti Dinner
and
Talent Show

Where: Your School's Name
When: Thursday, Feb. 2, 1995
Dinner - 5:30 p.m.
Talent Show - 6:30 p.m.

Please return by Friday, Jan. 20th.
We will be attending: (check one)
Dinner _____ Show _____ Both _____
Number of adults _____
Number of children _____
Do you need bus transportation?
(circle one) yes no
Child's name _____

SOURCE: Anonymous (1995). Invitation to spaghetti dinner and talent show.

Appendix R

January 20, 1995

To All School Staff:

On Thursday evening, February 2, at 5:15 a free spaghetti dinner will be served to parents and staff who attend. This dinner is being held in conjunction with the talent show at 6:30. The Family-Community Involvement Committee needs to know how many of you will attend, volunteer your time, or both.

_____ Yes, I will volunteer a 1/2 hour of my time.

_____ No, I cannot attend.

Please check the shift that you can help us.

Number in your party that will eat. _____

_____ 3:15 - 3:45 set up

_____ 5:15 - 5:45 serving food

_____ 5:45 - 6:15 serving food

_____ 6:15 - 6:45 clean up

Staff Member's name _____

Thank you,

(Your signature)

P.S. Please put in my mailbox by Tuesday, January 31.

SOURCE: Anonymous (1959). All school staff memo.

1/19/95

Agenda for the Family-Community Involvement Committee

Results of the Teacher Survey on the urban school
Fun Night next September 1995

Spaghetti Dinner: February 2, 1995, Thursday 5:00 p.m.

1. Cost - Free
   Funding: ESL, Chapter I, Parent Involvement (P.I.) $400-00

2. Advertising - additional notices

3. Decorations

4. Plates, silverware and napkins

5. Food (pick up) (from where?)

6. Serving spoons and aprons (Bring these)

7. Schedule for helpers - how many?
   a. set up
   b. serve
   c. clean up

8. Child care?

9. Number of people?

10. Drawing for prizes

Next Parent Involvement Meeting

1. Date

SOURCE: Anonymous (1995). Agenda for the Family-Community
           Involvement Committee.