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ABSTRACT

This publication presents a set of readings and tools that accompany the education modules "Enhancing Classroom Approaches to Addressing Barriers to Learning: Classroom-Focused Enabling." Together, they delineate a preservice/inservice teacher preparation curriculum covering how regular classrooms and schools should be designed to ensure all students have appropriate opportunities to learn effectively. The readings directly expand on topics discussed in the education modules: what good teaching involves; engaging students in learning; real and valued options and decision making; general strategies for facilitating motivated performance and practice; special classroom assistance to engage, guide, and support students who need more; and beyond the classroom--roles teachers must play in enhancing a comprehensive approach for addressing barriers to learning. The toolkit is grouped into four of the six basic areas of the enabling component: classroom focused enabling (e.g., self-study survey, student-led conferences, and pre-referral process); support for transitions (self-study survey, examples of work in this area, and welcoming strategies for new students); home involvement in schooling (self-study survey and examples of work in this area); and community outreach for involvement and support (e.g., self-study

surveys, examples of work in this area, and using volunteers effectively). (SM)

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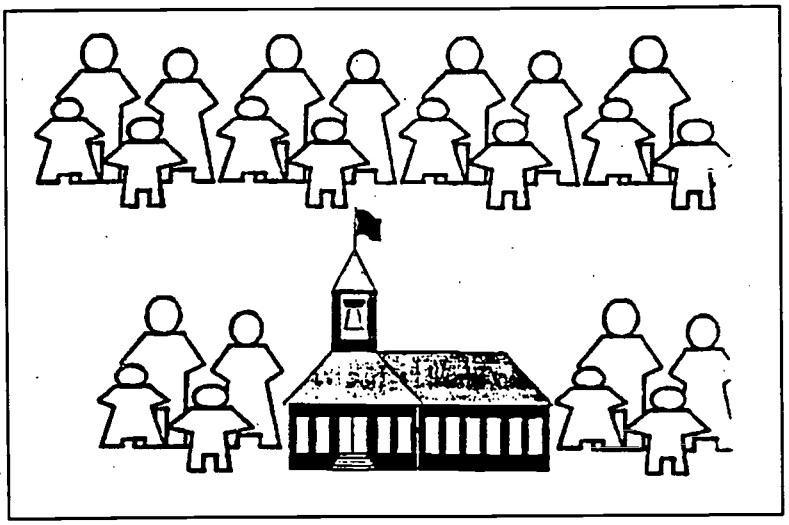

Accompanying Readings & Tools for

Enhancing Classroom Approaches for Addressing Barriers to Learning:

CLASSROOM-FOCUSED ENABLING

February, 2001

The center is co-directed by Howard Adelman and Linda Taylor and operates under the auspices of the School Mental Health Project, Dept. of Psychology, UCLA, Los Angeles, CA 90095-1563 Phone: (310) 825-3634.
Web site - http://smhp.psych.ucla.edu

Support comes in part from the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, Health Resources and Services Administration, Maternal and Child Health Bureau, Office of Adolescent Health, with co-funding from the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration's Center for Mental Health Services.

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HRSA
Health Resources and Services Administration
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CMHS
Center for Mental Health Services
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Support comes in part from the Office of Adolescent Health, Maternal and Child Health Bureau (Title V, Social Security Act), Health Resources and Services Administration (Project #U93 MC 00175) with co-funding from the Center for Mental Health Services, Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. Both are agencies of the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

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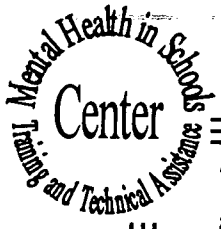
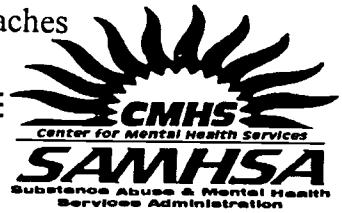
If you know of something we should have in the clearinghouse, let us know.



The *Center for Mental Health in Schools* operates under the auspices of the School Mental Health Project at UCLA.* It is one of two *national centers* concerned with mental health in schools that are funded in part by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office of Adolescent Health, Maternal and Child Health Bureau, Health Resources and Services Administration -- with co-funding from the Center for Mental Health Services, Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (Project #U93 MC 00175).

The UCLA Center approaches mental health and psychosocial concerns from the broad perspective of addressing barriers to learning and promoting healthy development. In particular, it focuses on comprehensive, multifaceted models and practices to deal with the many external and internal barriers that interfere with development, learning, and teaching. Specific attention is given policies and strategies that can counter marginalization and fragmentation of essential interventions and enhance collaboration between school and community programs. In this respect, a major emphasis is on enhancing the interface between efforts to address barriers to learning and prevailing approaches to school and community reforms.



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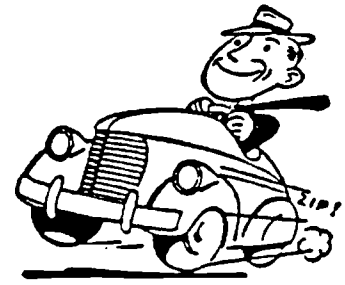

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Preface

It is the supreme art of the teacher to awaken joy to creative expression and knowledge.

Albert Einstein

Included here are a set of readings and the beginning of a tool kit. These are intended to accompany the continuing education modules entitled: *Enhancing Classroom Approaches to Addressing Barriers to Learning: Classroom-Focused Enabling* (see below for a description).

The modules and accompanying materials represent our attempt to delineate a preservice/inservice preparation curriculum covering how regular classrooms and schools should be designed to ensure *all* students have appropriate opportunities to learn effectively. This, of course, includes the many who manifest commonplace behavior, learning, and emotional problems Our Center's intent is to place these resources in the hands of school administrators, teacher educators, teachers, school support staff, those who train pupil service personnel, community members, and others. In addition, we are making them directly available to everyone as a form of independent continuing education.

As is the case with the all our Center's work, many staff and graduate and undergraduate students have contributed. Of particular note is the many hours spent by Ashley Borders, Taraneh Roohi, and Perry Nelson, but many others over many years have shaped the work, and of course, the readings and tools come from a variety of sources and talented professionals. The material represents a timely and progressive approach to the topic. At the same time, the content, like the field itself, is seen as in a state of continuous evolution. Thus, we are extremely interested in receiving your feedback. In the coming years, we expect to make improvements and refinements based on feedback from the field. If you care to provide feedback at this stage, please do so by sending us your comments.

As a reminder about the content of the continuing education modules:

- Module I provides a big picture context for understanding the problems schools face and why every school must develop a component to address barriers to learning. Such a component is referred to as an Enabling Component – a component designed to enable learning by addressing barriers to learning. As outlined in Module I, this component encompasses six programmatic areas. One of these areas is designated as *Classroom-Focused Enabling* – which is designed to enhance classroom teachers' capacity to address problems and foster social, emotional, intellectual, and behavioral development.

- Module II focuses on the nuts and bolts of Classroom-Focused Enabling – covering how teachers can transform the larger class by developing small learning groups and independent learning options in order to enhance student engagement, facilitate positive learning, prevent problems, and provide special assistance. The practices discussed engender well-managed classrooms and accomplish this in ways that minimize the overreliance on "social control" strategies that have come to characterize too many teacher-student interactions. The aim, of course, is to enhance student achievement and to do so in an environment that engenders a sense of community and mutual caring in classrooms and throughout a school.

- Module III explores the role teachers can take in ensuring their schools provide a context that supports and enhances classroom learning.

The modules can be downloaded from the Center web site – http://smhp.psych.ucla.edu – or ordered for the cost of copying and handling.

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READ MORE ABOUT IT . . .

As indicated in the continuing education modules and units, the following are a small set of brief readings that directly expand on topics discussed. Many of the references included in the modules and units and at the end of most of the readings provide even more indepth ideas and practices for subsequent effforts to expand your knowledge and skills.

Enabling All Students to Succeed: What's a Teacher to Do?

Unit A: What is Good Teaching?

More about: >*Collaborative Classrooms* 1

Unit B: Engaging Students in Learning: Real and Valued Options and Decision Making

More about:

>*The Curriculum Belongs to the Students* 3
>*Learner Options and Decision Making to Enhance Motivation and Learning* 7
>*Curriculum Tips for Enhancing Motivation* 18

Unit C: General Strategies for Facilitating Motivated Performance and Practice

More about:

>*Changing Schools through Experiential Education* 21
>*Some Thoughts About Grouping* 23
>*Team Teaching* 27
>*Phasing into Learning Centers* 30
>*Authentic Assessment* 31
>*Some Thoughts About Talking with Students* 33
>*Diversity in the Classroom* 36

Unit D: Special Classroom Assistance to Engage, Guide, and Support Those Students Who Need More

More about:

>*Understanding the Causes of a Student's Problems* 40
>*Teaching Students with Learning Disabilities To Use Learning Strategies* 44
>*About Shy or Withdrawn Students* 48
>*The Rescue Trap* 50
>*Including Students with Disabilities in General Education Classrooms* 52

Beyond the Classroom: Roles Teachers Must Play in Enhancing a Comprehensive Approach for Addressing Barriers to Learning

More about:

>*Resource Coordinating Teams to Integrate Programs and Services* 54
>*Working Relationships* 55

Read more about it . . .

Excerpts from

WHAT IS THE COLLABORATIVE CLASSROOM?

by M.B. Tinzmann, B.F. Jones, T.F. Fennimore, J. Bakker, C. Fine, and J. Pierce (1990), NCREL, Oak Brook,

. . . Research indicates successful learning . . . involves an interaction of the learner, the materials, the teacher, and the context. The chief characteristic of a thinking curriculum is the dual agenda of content and process for all students. Characteristics that derive from this agenda include in-depth learning; involving students in real-world, relevant tasks; engaging students in holistic tasks from kindergarten through high school; and utilizing students' prior knowledge.

Characteristics of a Collaborative Classroom

Collaborative classrooms seem to have four general characteristics. The first two capture changing relationships between teachers and students. The third characterizes teachers' new approaches to instruction. The fourth addresses the composition of a collaborative classroom.

1. Shared knowledge among teachers and students

The teacher has vital knowledge about content, skills, and instruction, and still provides that information to students. However, collaborative teachers also value and build upon the knowledge, personal experiences, language, strategies, and culture that students bring to the learning situation.

2. Shared authority among teachers and students

Collaborative teachers differ in that they invite students to set specific goals within the framework of what is being taught, provide options for activities and assignments that capture different student interests and goals, and encourage students to assess what they learn. Collaborative teachers encourage students' use of their own knowledge, ensure that students share their knowledge and their learning strategies, treat each other respectfully, and focus on high levels of understanding. They help students listen to diverse opinions, support knowledge claims with evidence, engage in critical and creative thinking, and participate in open and meaningful dialogue.

3. Teachers as mediators

As knowledge and authority are shared among teachers and students, the role of the teacher increasingly emphasizes mediated learning. Successful mediation helps students connect new information to their experiences and to learning in other areas, helps students figure out what to do when they are stumped, and helps them learn how to learn. Above all, the teacher as mediator adjusts the level of information and support so as to maximize the ability to take responsibility for learning. . . .

4. Heterogeneous groupings of students

The perspectives, experiences, and backgrounds of all students are important for enriching learning in the classroom. As learning beyond the classroom increasingly requires understanding diverse perspectives, it is essential to provide students opportunities to do this in multiple contexts in schools. In collaborative classrooms where students are engaged in a thinking curriculum, everyone learns from everyone else, and no student is deprived of this opportunity for making contributions and appreciating the contributions of others.

Thus, a critical characteristic of collaborative classrooms is that students are not segregated according to supposed ability, achievement, interests, or any other characteristic. Segregation seriously weakens collaboration and impoverishes the classroom by depriving all students of opportunities to learn from and with each other. . . .

Teacher Roles in a Collaborative Classroom

A way that teachers facilitate collaborative learning is to establish classrooms with diverse and flexible social structures that promote the sort of classroom behavior they deem appropriate for communication and collaboration among students. in collaborative classrooms, modeling serves to share with students not only what one is thinking about the content to be learned, but also the process of communication and collaborative learning. Modeling may involve thinking aloud (sharing thoughts about something) or

demonstrating (showing students how to do something in a step-by-step fashion).

Coaching involves giving hints or cues, providing feedback, redirecting students' efforts, and helping them use a strategy. A major principle of coaching is to provide the right amount of help when students need it – neither too much nor too little so that students retain as much responsibility as possible for their own learning.

Student Roles in a Collaborative Classroom

Students also assume new roles in the collaborative classroom. Their major roles are collaborator and active participator. It is useful to think how these new roles influence the processes and activities students conduct before, during, and after learning. For example, before learning, students set goals and plan learning tasks; during learning, they work together to accomplish tasks and monitor their progress; and after learning, they assess their performance and plan for future learning. As mediator, the teacher helps students fulfill their new roles.

Interactions in a Collaborative Classroom

The collaborative classroom is alive with two-way communication. A major mode of communication is dialogue, which in a collaborative classroom is thinking made public. A major goal for teachers is to maintain this dialogue among students.

Challenges and Conflicts

When teachers and schools move from traditional to collaborative instruction, several important issues are likely to arise. They are important concerns for teachers, administrators, and parents.

Classroom Control. Collaborative classrooms tend to be noisier than traditional classrooms.

Preparation Time for Collaborative Learning. Many teachers already have created engaging units and activities that are easily implemented in a collaborative classroom. Teachers can also share their plans with each other. Indeed, if we expect students to collaborate, we should encourage teachers to do the same!

Individual Differences. Among Students In response to the first issue, many collaborative teachers have expressed surprise when seemingly less-able students had insights and ideas that went way beyond what teachers expected. Further, if each student contributes something, the pool of collective knowledge will indeed be rich. . . . Data suggest that high-achieving students gain much from their exposure to diverse experiences and also from peer tutoring.

Individual Responsibility for Learning. Ideally, assessment practices should be changed so that they are consistent with collaboration, with a new view of learning and with a thinking curriculum. Some advise making individuals responsible for subtasks in group work and then determining both group and individual grades.

Conflict of Values. Hardly a person exists who eagerly gives up familiar ways of behaving to attempt something that is unknown and is likely to have many challenges of implementation. This problem requires leadership, support, and time to address. Staff development needs to address teachers' concerns. . . .

The authors conclude by emphasizing the importance of connecting school learning to everyday life and by highlighting that research stresses teachers should:

- Assume the learner is competent
- Know the learner
- Share an interest in the task at hand with the learner
- Follow the learner's lead
- Capitalize on uncertainty

Resources

Johnson, D.W., & Johnson, R.T. (1989). Cooperation and competition: Theory and research. Edina, MN: Interaction Book Company.

Palinscar, A.S. & Brown, A.L. (1989). Classroom dialogues to promote self-regulated comprehension. In J. Brophy (Ed.), Teaching for understanding and self-regulated learning (Vol. 1, pp. 35-71). Volume 1. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Slavin, R.E. (1987). Cooperative learning and the cooperative school. Educational Leadership, 45(3), 7-13.

Read more about it . . .

Excerpts from

THE CURRICULUM BELONGS TO THE STUDENTS

by J. Passe (1996). *When Students Choose Content: A Guide to Increasing Motivation, Autonomy, and Achievement.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin

Every teacher faces a unique set of challenges. Students are so different from year to year, day to day, subject to subject, even hour to hour, that planning is often an exercise in taking risks and working with uncertainties.

. . . Usually, the reaction to content will differ from student to student in the same class. We often teach to half the class, struggling to reach the rest. A handful of students are sometimes deemed unreachable. Some teachers, when confronted with these dilemmas, shrug their shoulders. The curriculum, as they see it, is beyond their control. It is determined by the state, by the district, by the end-of-year tests, or by the textbooks. All they have to do is instruct. If the curriculum is inappropriate or boring or irrelevant, there is nothing they can do.

It does not have to be that way. Teachers can and do make curricular decisions, whether they realize it or not. They choose to emphasize certain topics, hurry through others, or maybe even skip a portion of the official curriculum. Many will introduce their hobbies or interests, such as quilting, skiing, or the Renaissance, even if it is not a designated topic in the curriculum guide. They do not do it to be "subversive," necessarily, but because those decisions are best for the children they teach. They are exercising their professional responsibilities.

Parents and administrators do not object when teachers' curricular decisions are responsible ones. Only the foolish or harmful decisions are likely to lead to negative consequences. Indeed, the best teachers we know are the ones who adjust the curriculum to meet their students' needs.

These exemplary teachers have earned their reputations because their students are motivated to learn. They not only lead the horses to water, they put salt in their oats to make them drink! But not every teacher has the gift of making outstanding curricular decisions. And sometimes even the most astute teachers will make mistakes.

The possibility of making poor curricular decisions is reduced when students are given the responsibility of choosing content. Students tend to select topics that interest them, thus avoiding motivation problems. Their choices reflect their actual needs, rather than those perceived by adults. It makes for a more efficient curriculum development process.

Curricular decision-making power belongs in the hands of students because it is their lives that are being affected-their day-to-day school lives and also their future lives. Giving them this power is not a fad, or a way for teachers to pass the buck. It is a method of developing autonomy, motivating children to learn, and developing strong citizenship skills. . . .

Benefits of Including Students in Curricular Decisions

Involving students in curricular decision making improves . . . :

- *Autonomy*
- *Student Learning*
- *Motivation*
- *Classroom behavior*

Autonomy

Dewey sees autonomy as a major ethical responsibility of the school, one that will give the student "such possession of himself that he may take charge of himself; may not only adapt himself to the changes which are going on, but have power to shape those changes" . . . . In an earlier work, he predicted that by "providing [the child] with the instruments of effective self-direction, we shall have the deepest and best guarantee of a larger society which is worthy, lovely, and harmonious" . . . .

The need to develop autonomous individuals was also cited by Piaget, who differentiated between autonomous, or self-directed, individuals and heteronomous, or other-directed, individuals. The latter were described as conforming, egocentric, rigid, and dependent, holding a blind faith in

authority. Developing and maintaining a dynamic democratic society, one of the major goals of the educational system, requires a citizenry with more characteristics of autonomy and fewer of heteronomy. . . .

Gaining the right to political autonomy has been, and continues to be, a difficult task for most of the world's peoples. Carrying out citizenship responsibilities may be less traumatic, but it too is a challenge. Citizens are not born with the ability to manage their affairs, whether on a societal or individual level. Citizenship knowledge and skills must be learned. Although families, churches, and community organizations are valuable in developing autonomous citizens, schools also can play a major role in the process. . . .

Student Learning

Students often describe school content as irrelevant and boring . . . . The content may be interesting or valuable to academics, teachers, and the general public, but the learner is the prime audience. Subject matter that the child views as irrelevant causes the child and the curriculum to be set against each other. . . . The subject matter . . . has no direct relationship to the child's present experience. It stands outside of it. . . . The material is not translated into life-terms, but is directly offered as a substitute for, or an external annex to, the child's present life.... It remains an idle curiosity, to fret and obstruct the mind, a dead weight to burden it. . . .

In other words, such content is unlikely to be learned. In a well-meaning attempt to transfer important knowledge to students, we educators sometimes present knowledge for knowledge's sake. The students do not appreciate it, apply it, or retain it. School becomes a place of absurdity, in which children perform tasks not because they are useful in the present or the future, but because they have been required to do so by some higher authority

Depth is another consideration. Dewey pointed out that subject matter that does not come from the students' interests becomes shallow.

Those things that are most significant . . . and most valuable . . . drop out. The really thought-provoking character is obscured, and the organizing function disappears. Or, as we commonly say, the child's reasoning powers, the faculty of abstraction and generalization, are not adequately developed.

In other words, children do not learn to think under these circumstances.

Motivation

Student motivation, which is a constant concern of teachers, is a related issue. According to Dewey:

> *There are not only no facts or truths which have been previously felt as such with which to appropriate the new, but there is no craving, no need, no demand.*

Faced with students who do not seek to learn the subject matter, teachers are forced to rely on motivational techniques or reward systems to get students to learn the material. Such attempts remove the intrinsic reward that comes from learning. It is no wonder that students are slow to gain an appreciation for school knowledge and skills. On the other hand, if the content has [as Dewy states] *an appropriate place within the expanding consciousness of the child, if it grows into application in further achievements and receptivities, then no device or trick of method has to be resorted to in order to elicit "interest."*

Deci's Findings on Motivation

Recent research on motivation tends to support Dewey's thesis. Deci reviewed dozens of studies related to factors that enhance intrinsic motivation and interest, including several that focused on public school classrooms. He concluded that "social contexts that allow the satisfaction of three basic needs (autonomy, competence, and relatedness) will promote intrinsic motivation." It is the role of the teacher or parent, he suggests, to "take account of the person's dispositions and the available affordances, so as to create an optimal person-activity match." When teachers do provide for autonomy, competence, and relatedness, "optimal educational outcomes" result.

Student involvement in curricular decision making can create the social contexts that Deci recommends for increased intrinsic motivation and, ultimately, optimal educational outcomes. The first context, autonomy, is, of course, the basic goal of the process. The entire process is designed to develop a sense of autonomy in the students we teach.

A sense of competence, the second context, will promote motivation only when it is self-determined. The student must have a sense of personal causation for whatever outcome was achieved. . . . Thus, when students have input into educational activities that turn out to be successful, the resulting sense of competence will promote intrinsic motivation. However, when students have little say in the decision-making process, even a successful activity will not promote a sense of competence.

The third context, relatedness, is established through genuine interpersonal involvement. When students negotiate curriculum choices with each other and their teachers, they interact over matters with tremendous relevance to their daily lives. The decisions they make determine whether what they do in school will be of interest and importance. They will, therefore, put energy into their interpersonal relationships in order to make decisions that will please each other. Out of this mutual satisfaction comes relatedness.

In classrooms and schools that do not have student curricular decision making, there is little opportunity to develop a sense of relatedness during academic activities. Important discussions and decisions take place on the playground, in after-school activities such as clubs and organizations, or on the trip to and from school. Those are times when an adult is not making decisions for the children. Feelings of relatedness must be brought into the academic classroom. Otherwise, according to Deci's studies, students will not be intrinsically motivated by school activities.

Classroom Behavior

Teachers spend far too much time attending to student misbehavior. Goodlad (1984) has estimated that 40% of classroom time is devoted to behavior control. Although that percentage must vary considerably among teachers, anyone concerned with quality education recognizes the need to minimize misbehavior.

To solve a problem, we must first define it. Misbehavior, in this case, refers to the most common frustrations teachers have in trying to promote learning: unnecessary talking, failure to follow directions, incomplete assignments, and other off-task behavior. It does not include such serious matters as fighting, stealing, and drug abuse, although, as you will see, these problems are often outgrowths of the more common misbehaviors.

The next step in solving a problem is to analyze its causes. Why do students misbehave? . . . [Some] cannot be directly addressed by schools.

Boring Tasks

There is one cause of misbehavior that schools can address – the boring, trivial nature of school tasks. . . . Children spend thousands of valuable school hours completing exercises that offer no intrinsic satisfaction. They may, for instance, be copying sentences from the chalkboard, correcting textbook passages that lack capital letters, or completing a series of quadratic equations. Children learn at an early age that some of these "busywork" activities have no value outside the classroom. The only reason to participate, therefore, is to receive a good grade or avoid punishment.

Many teachers assign busywork activities as a management device. Even though the activities may have some educational value in terms of practicing skills, they are often used to keep students occupied while the teacher tends to other instructional chores. The sameness of these exercises may be appealing to some students because they tend to reduce the high level of anxiety that accompanies more challenging tasks. Unfortunately, when time is spent on such lowlevel activities, there is insufficient opportunity to prepare students for the more demanding expectations of the school's curriculum. . . . The students may, for instance, be able to color a map of Africa but may not be able to analyze current events in that continent.

The irony of using busywork as a management device is that such activities promote misbehavior. Students are most likely to hold unnecessary conversations or stare out the window when they are not interested in the task at hand. But when students have chosen the content, boredom is minimized. School activities will be started and finished with enthusiasm only when the students look forward to learning whatever the activities have to offer them.

Think about the chores you had when you were growing up. You probably hated having to wash

dishes or mow lawns. Boredom comes when we are obligated to perform tasks that we do not wish to do. We usually completed the tasks at the very minimal level of performance. As adults, we may still dislike those same chores, but we do them, and do them well, because they serve a purpose. Dishes are washed because cleanliness is essential to health. We mow because we want the lawn to look good. We are motivated to work hard when the end result is meaningful and useful. Otherwise, like our students, we misbehave.

Somewhere along the way, we have learned the value of preliminary tasks. The self-discipline that comes from that lesson is best learned when we are responsible for our decisions. Lazy dishwashers grasp the consequences of dirty dishes when ants have infested the kitchen. Whoever was supposed to mow the lawn recognizes why neighbors are sending dirty looks across the hedges. By the same token, students who do sloppy schoolwork may need to learn the long-term consequences-not just low grades or missed recess, but lack of knowledge and skill for subsequent school tasks. The tendency toward misbehavior is reduced when students choose to learn preliminary knowledge and skills (such as multiplication facts or the key elements of the Bill of Rights) because they recognize their value.

Now, take this train of thought one step further. Sometimes we perform tasks with relish. We take pleasure in decorating the house for the holidays or planning an exciting lesson that we look forward to teaching. The same is true for learning. Why else would anyone choose to take adult education courses in gardening, home repair, or stamp collecting? Learning is entertaining when the lessons are of value. There is no misbehavior in these classes.

The following story, taken from my own experience, illustrates what I mean.

> One evening, when I was a fourth-grade teacher, I received what I thought was an irate phone call from a parent.
>
> "What have you been doing with those kids?" asked Rodger's mother.
>
> I tried to imagine what I had done wrong. "I'm not sure what you mean," was my hesitant response.
>
> "Rodger went down to the basement to do some school project at 2:15 this afternoon and he won't even come up for dinner. I have never seen him so excited about an assignment! What are you having them do?"
>
> It really was nothing special. Instead of assigning topics for the unit on research skills, I let them choose their own. Rodger had chosen the history of baseball. He must have been enjoying it. Isn't that what education is supposed to be about?

Teachers are continually concerned about time. They are often forced to hurry through the content, settling for only shallow coverage. Ultimately, important segments of the curriculum go untaught. Drama, science experiments, debates, and other meaningful learning experiences may be sacrificed because of schedule considerations. Now, imagine what could happen if the 40% of classroom time that is spent on behavior management were substantially reduced. Such a saving in time can be achieved when students are intrinsically motivated to learn. The comfort and security of a well-behaved classroom is an additional bonus for student and teacher alike.

Read more about it . . .

LEARNER OPTIONS AND DECISION MAKING TO ENHANCE MOTIVATION AND LEARNING

If Maria dreams of being a musician and wants to spend time learning more about music, is this an option? If David's great passion is collecting baseball cards and memorizing facts and statistics about the game, can his program include a project focusing on baseball? James is curious about electronics, but he doesn't want to take a standard electric shop course because making buzzers and one-tube radios seems pretty far removed from television and computers. Can he have time to explore the topic in ways that uniquely interest him?

And if Maria, David, and James are allowed to pursue such content, what outcomes (skills, knowledge, and attitudes) and what level of competence (budding awareness -- moderate levels of mastery) should be expected from their activity?

Content and Outcome Options

From a motivational perspective, the answers to such questions are reasonably clear. Learners should be able to explore content that has personal value. In the process, they should be helped to pursue outcomes and levels of competence that reflect their continuing interest and effort (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Stipeck, 1988).

Most individuals will find personal reasons for acquiring basic skills and information while exploring intrinsically valued content. For example, the more James pursues his interest in electronics, the more he will discover that he needs to improve his reading and math skills. Thus, his ongoing exploration of electronics can indirectly lead to a personal desire to improve math and reading as he comes to view these skills as a means to his ends -- rather than as something everyone else wants him to do.

There are three ways in which classroom content and outcomes can be readily expanded to provide a broad range of interesting options. The first involves expanding options to include a wide sampling of topics that are currently popular with the majority of the students (see Feature 1). The second way involves asking students, especially those who still think there are too few positive options, to identify additional topics they would like to have included. Third, there are options the teacher identifies as important and worthwhile, which hopefully can be introduced in ways that expand student interests.

The more severe the student's learning problem, the more that variations from established content and outcomes can be argued as worth offering to mobilize and maintain the student's motivation. Indeed, with a severe motivation problem, it may be necessary to include options not usually offered to such students (e.g., auto mechanics, video production, photography, work experiences).

Even more controversial may be the necessity to allow such students to "opt out" of certain content courses (e.g., reading, math) for a while. This occurs most frequently with students whose failures have led them to strongly avoid particular subjects.

Along with strong dislikes, students with motivation problems often have an area of strong interest that can be made the focus of their program. The intent in doing so is to allow a youngster to explore some intriguing area in depth and in ways that uniquely interest him or her.

Actually, such a comprehensive discovery oriented project can be a useful option when any student wants to learn a great deal more about a topic. Projects give an intrinsic sense of form, direction, and immediacy to learning. (Any of the examples in Feature 1 may be undertaken as a project.)

Moreover, in pursuing comprehensive projects, students not only can discover more about a specific content area, they can also rediscover the personal value of improving reading, language, and other basic skills. After all, what makes certain skills "basic" is that they are necessary for pursuing many interests and tasks in daily living. When students come to understand this, they often develop a renewed interest in learning such basic skills.

Feature 1: **Popular Content Options**

The following topics have been extremely popular with the majority of students with whom we work. Although the topic may be one that is regularly taught in schools, the reference here is not to a set curriculum. Students usually are interested in how a topic relates to the world as they know it, or they are intrigued with some exotic subtopic. They do not want to pursue a set curriculum.

- Animals – care, training, and breeding; incubating chickens; learning about prehistoric and exotic animals and about those who live in special climates
- Arts and crafts – expressive drawing and painting; constructing and building, exploring the work of others
- Career and vocation – adolescents, in particular, often want presentations about opportunities to observe jobs that may be worth pursuing
- Computers – basic uses, graphics, language and logic
- Consumer activity – comparing prices, learning about false advertising and advertise gimmicks, learning how to find a particular product
- Cooking to eat and sell – food planning, purchasing, and preparation keyed to specific interests of the students involved
- Creative writing – fiction and poetry
- Cultures of other peoples – comparing the way one lives with how others live (e.g., rituals, beliefs, music, food, dress, art, education)
- Design – graphics, drafting, architecture, construction
- Drama – writing plays; acting, staging performances; observing and criticizing TV, film, and stage productions; learning more about favorite people and current trends in theater, film, and TV
- Driving – most teens have a strong interest in preparing for driving
- Health and safety – first aid, CPR, personal care, sex education
- History – specific events such as invention of the automobile, space exploration, World War II; the background to a current event, such as the turmoil in the Mideast
- Math puzzles and measurement – number and graph puzzlers; how to handle one's money; how to keep records on material related to one's hobby; how to measure in pursuing a particular interest, such as model building, wood construction, cooking, sewing, computers, video; how to compare sizes and weights; creative activities using math
- Motor trends – almost everything related to cars and motorcycles has proved to be of interest to one student or another
- Music – learning to play an instrument or sing, reading music, composing, learning more about favorite people and trends, reviewing and critiquing
- Newspaper and yearbook publication – all facets of planning, preparing, and distributing publications
- Photography – camera operations, picture composition, darkroom skills, creating interesting effects, displays
- Private enterprise/running a business – establishing and running a small business for profit at school, such as a small food service or offering for sale products that are made on the premises
- Psychology – learning more about the views of others in one's immediate environment, understanding why specific individuals and groups behave as they do
- Science – underwater creatures and plants, especially those that can be seen by scuba diving; electricity, especially as used in everyday life; chemical reactions; personal anatomy and biology; current events in science and medicine
- Space – other planets, space travel, constructing and flying rockets
- Sports – learning more about the present and past of favorite personalities, events, and equipment; learning to coach or referee
- Travel – learning what's interesting to visit locally and what's worth seeing in other countries, planning and taking trips, learning to use public transportation; learning about travel aids and skills such as map reading
- Video – writing, producing, acting, directing, camera work, editing
- Work experience – some students want to include work experience as part of their school program in order to earn needed money or to feel a sense of competence

A major concern in expanding options is that additional materials usually are needed. This concern can be minimized by asking those interested in the option to help gather the desired materials. (When topics are popular, several class members usually can be mobilized.)

In general, the many options illustrated here suggest that rather than going "back to basics" it may be better to go "forward to basics" by enabling students to rediscover intrinsic reasons for learning such skills. While we're discussing the matter, we also should reemphasize that there has been a broadening of current views about what is and isn't a basic skill. There is more to coping with everyday situations than having competence to use the three Rs. Another prominent set of basic skills that students need, for instance, is the ability to interact positively in social situations.

Calls for "back to basics" underscore the fact that there is always a conflict between required curriculum content and topics that have contemporary interest and are popular. From a motivational perspective, it would be nice if a way were found to achieve some sort of satisfactory balance. This might result in a decrease in time devoted to the established curriculum but, hopefully, also would increase positive attitudes toward learning and school. Even if such a balance seems unnecessary for most students, it does appear justified in cases of learning problems, since the established curriculum has proved not to be effective.

Process and Structure Options

Content, of course, interacts with processes. An exciting presentation can make a topic really come to life. As with content and outcomes, there are three ways in which process options can be readily expanded -- by adding procedures that are widely popular, by adding those of special interest to specific students, or by adding those newly identified by the teacher.

Again, we stress that students who have learning problems will have had negative experiences with a variety of instructional processes. Therefore, it is necessary to show them there are good alternatives to the procedures that led to their failures. For example, in pursuing projects, students with reading problems cannot be expected initially to rely heavily on reading. Visual- or audiovisual-oriented material, such as picture books and magazines, films and filmstrips, records, videotapes and audiotapes, field trips, teacher and other student presentations -- all can be used. Products can include some written and some dictated material, along with artwork (drawings, graphs, model constructions, photographs, collages) and oral presentations.

James, for example, failed a seventh-grade social studies class and was scheduled to repeat it. The curriculum content for the course consists of specific historical, political, and cultural events and some basic geography. At the end of the course, students are expected at least to be able to identify the events and geographical features covered and to use source materials (atlas, almanac, encyclopedia, card catalogue) for finding additional historical and geographical material. More ambitiously, the intent is to equip students with the knowledge to analyze and discuss significant past events and relate them to life today.

The class James failed used primarily the following procedures:

- Each week the teacher assigned a chapter to be read and questions to be answered and turned in; then, there was a multiple choice, true-false test on the material at the end of the week.
- In class each day, the teacher spoke about the material covered in the text and had the students take turns sharing their answers to the assigned questions. Once a week they practiced looking up assigned material in atlases, almanacs, etc. Once a month they went to the library to learn how to use its resources.
- During the year, each student was to present four current events to the class on topics relevant to the material being discussed.
- Three times during the school year, films were shown.
- Students who wanted extra credit could do a special term paper chosen from a list of topics the teacher had prepared or could choose three books from a prepared list and do reports on them.
- Grades were based primarily on test scores and extra credit work. However, grades were lowered when current event presentations or answers to the assigned reading questions were poor.
- When students, such as James, were found to be having difficulty, the teacher recommended that the parents spend more time helping with homework or find a tutor.

Because James failed the class, it seems reasonable to consider the procedures as not a good match for him. Indeed, if in repeating the course he was confronted with the same processes, it would not be surprising if his behavior reflected a good deal of avoidance motivation. What would a set of alternative procedures look like? An example is provided in Feature 2 (also see Feature 3).

Feature 2 : **Offering Alternative Processes for the Same Content**

A teacher using a topic exploration approach might proceed as follows:

- Rather than assign material, the teacher prepares ten varied topics covering the course content. He also identifies a long list of activities for pursuing such topics, each of which includes use of the desired basic research skills.
- At the beginning of the course, the teacher uses the first few classes to explain the ten varied topics and to help the students explore and choose from them.

He explains that each student can choose one or more topics and can choose from among a wide range of activities in learning about a topic. He also notes that each student can choose to work on a topic alone or in a small group. To help students get a good idea of the choices, he uses pictorial aids, an overhead projector, and filmstrips. The bulletin boards contain a variety of materials, such as pictures of other places and other times, historic newspaper clippings, and brief descriptions relevant to understanding the topics and activities being explored. There also are examples of what students have done in the past. A variety of pertinent reading material at different reading levels (magazines, pamphlets, fiction, and different texts) have been placed on the shelves and some opened for display. The teacher encourages the students to get up and look through the materials and to talk about the various alternatives. He answers questions as they arise. Finally, the teacher asks if any of the students have any relevant and feasible topics and activities they would like to have added. The one guideline he invokes is that groups have no more than four members.

- After aiding the students in choosing their topics and related activities, the teacher meets during class times with groups and individuals to assist and provide support and resources as they pursue their topics.
- Throughout the year, students share what they have learned about their topics with each other. (For example, one group studying how the effects of slavery are still felt in current race relations performs a play they have written. Another group studying the western movement in the United States forms a wagon train to experience the process and problems involved in undertaking such a trek [budgeting, buying supplies, dealing with changes in the weather, surviving harsh terrains]; they report their progress and adventures periodically to the rest of the class. One student chose to study the development and forms of money used from ancient times to the present and, as soon as the information is gathered, reports on each historical stage. Another student decided to learn research skills by tracing her "roots", she not only shares her family history with the class but also is able to tell the others about a wide range of available historical resource material.)
- To link the material together and cover anything that might be missed, the teacher prepares a series of periodic presentations (lectures, films, video) and related supplementary reading and discussions.
- Each student turned in a written progress report summarizing what he or she had learned about the topic at the end of each month. Multiple-choice, true-false, and essay exams were given at midyear and at the end of the year. The reports and exams were used to evaluate how well the students had learned what the course was intended to teach. Students who had trouble reading or writing were given the exams orally. Grades were based on a combination of effort and performance.

Besides specific processes, there is the matter of structure. Maria, David, James, and Matt need and want different amounts of support, direction, and external control (or limit setting) to help them learn. They have each identified some things they can readily do on their own, but they know there are tasks and situations they will handle better with help. To have their changing needs matched, they must have the option of working alone or seeking support and guidance as often as is appropriate.

It is to be expected, of course, that those with the lowest motivation are likely to need the most support and guidance. At the same time, they are likely not to seek help readily. Moreover, those with avoidance motivation tend to react negatively to structure they perceive as used to control them.

In general, a greater range of options with regard to content, outcome, process, and structure are required for those with motivation problems. We will return to this topic after stressing the importance of options designed to enrich the experience of schooling and living.

Enrichment, Discovery, Inquiry, and Serendipity

As important as specific planning is, it is a mistake for school programs to overprescribe the specifics of what and how to learn. There must be time for sampling and exploring unscheduled topics and activities. This, of course, assumes there are interesting things available to investigate. The time for exploring can be viewed as an enrichment opportunity.

Some remedial programs are much too preoccupied with a student's problems and the tasks that must be pursued in remedying them. When this happens, enrichment experiences tend to be ignored and the learning environment takes on an air of pathology, drudgery, and boredom -- all of which are contrary to enhancing motivation.

The model provided by programs for the gifted is a good example of the type of environment that may have a positive motivational impact on any learner. Such programs offer a rich set of learning centers that focus on topics such as those listed in Feature 1 and on many more. Enrichment activities are useful for enhancing motivation and reducing negative behavior and, of course, can lead to important learning.

Feature 3: **Different Processes/Outcomes**

In recent years, there has been a major push for greater accountability in education. Everyone agrees that school programs should be more effective. But not everyone agrees with the extreme emphasis on highly specific objectives as advocated by some evaluators, especially when such evaluation ignores the processes used to reach desired objectives.

Some evaluators have even gone so far as to say they don't care what means are used as long as the ends are achieved. This extremist view ignores a simple fact: although two procedures may accomplish the same set of narrow objectives, they also may produce a variety of other different outcomes.

Take the approach used with James and the one described in Feature 2, for example. A motivational perspective suggests the two courses may lead to very different attitudes about the material learned. Lecture/text/test approaches tend to produce a distaste for social studies, history, geography, and similar subjects and for those who teach them. Moreover, teachers who teach in this way find little satisfaction in the process other than the sense of having pulled another group of students through.

In contrast, exploratory approaches lend themselves much better to personalization of learning and thus to the fostering and enhancement of intrinsic motivation along with the learning of specific content and skills. Moreover, students and teachers seem to find many personal satisfactions (i.e., valued learning and special friendships).

Although enrichment activities may be seen as a frill for many students, it is seen as important, motivationally, for students with learning problems. The richer the learning environment, the more likely students will discover a variety of new interests, information, and skills.

From a motivational perspective, enrichment options are not designed to teach specific information and skills. There are, of course, specific, and often predictable, outcomes that come from contact with any topic. However, almost by definition, an enrichment option produces many incidental and unpredictable (serendipitous) outcomes.

Furthermore, enrichment activities are not designed to operate as if everything a student learns is taught by the teacher. The "hands-on" nature of enrichment centers encourages independent exploration, experimentation, and learning. As questions arise, students can choose to use whatever information or help is available.

In the end, what students learn depends a great deal on their interests and effort. Some may decide to pursue a topic in great depth and to acquire a good deal of mastery over it; others may simply dabble and gain a surface awareness, which they may or may not follow up on later.

As a general strategy, enrichment opportunities can be established by offering an attractive set of discovery and inquiry centers and helping the students explore the materials and ideas. Let's look at Maria's experience with an enriched program.

> Maria's teacher explains that there are a variety of centers in the room which will change as the school year progresses. At the moment, there are centers dealing with electricity, tropical fish, computers, chemical reactions, African cultures, creative math, and many more. In order to offer a variety of centers each week, some are offered twice and some three times a week.
>
> Maria is given a chance to sample the centers. She then is given the opportunity to choose one or two topics that really interest her. It is made clear that these are "electives" and that she can drop out at any time.
>
> Maria is attracted to the tropical fish. She wants to know if it is hard to take care of them. She thinks she'd like to have some at home. Where do you buy them? Are they expensive? How long do they live? The teacher answers a few of her questions and then points out that there is a group meeting on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday. They are learning all about where the fish come from, which can live with each other, how to breed them, and whatever else the group wants to explore about aquariums and fish.
>
> Maria is intrigued but a little suspicious. She wants to know if the activity includes reading or other assignments and tests. The answer is an unequivocal no. She can come and learn whatever she wants, in the way that she wants, and no one will ask her to prove anything. It is her questions that are important – not the teacher's.
>
> It is all so inviting that Maria decides to give it a try. And she finds it's as good as it looks and sounds. As she attends regularly, it becomes evident to all who observe her that she is a bright, interested, and attentive learner whenever she is motivated by the topic. She remembers what she has learned and works well with others.
>
> Not long after joining the group, her teacher notices Maria has gone to the library and checked out picture books on tropical fish. A few days later, Maria approached her to ask for a little help in reading some of the captions.

Options for Those with Motivation Problems

The first sep in working with such students involves exploration to find what the individual's interests are: Sports? Rock music? Movies? Computer games? Such personal interests are used as a starting point. A student's interests are explored until he or she identifies a related topic, no matter how unusual, that he or she would like to learn more about (see Feature 4).

After identifying a topic, learning activity options are reviewed to find those that are a good match with the student's needs, interests, and styles. For example, talkative students may prefer to work in small discussion groups. Other students will want a work area that is private and quiet. Students with high activity levels may choose to work with manipulable materials. Most will prefer to work on time-limited activities.

In accommodating a wider range of behaviors, classroom rules and standards are redefined to accept behaviors such as nondisruptive talking and movement about the classroom. For some individuals, certain "bad manners" (e.g., some rudeness, some swear words) and eccentric mannerisms (e.g., strange clothing and grooming) may have to be tolerated initially.

The most basic process option, of course, is that of not participating at times or at all.

> There are times when David simply doesn't feel like working. He wants the option of drawing, playing a game, or resting for about an hour. There are days when Maria doesn't want to go to school. And there came a day when James concluded he was ready to drop out of school.

Which, if any, of these should be offered as options? For whom?

Feature 4: **Options for Students with Motivation Problems**

Harry comes to school with no intention of working on what his teachers have planned. He will spend as much time as he can get away with talking with his friends and looking for some excitement to make the time pass faster. He is frequently in the middle of whatever trouble is occurring. Everyone is waiting for him to do something bad enough that he can be removed from his present class.

There is an alternative to letting this tragedy run its course. Time can be spent helping Harry identify one area of personal interest that he would like to learn more about (e.g., pop culture, rock music, current teenage fashions). Then, a personalized program can be developed based on a topic he would like to explore and ways he would like to explore it.

Approached in this way, most students like Harry will identify a topic and activities that interest them. However, one topic and a few activities won't fill up much time - perhaps an hour, maybe less. What then?

Well, Harry could be asked to pursue a regular program for the rest of the school day; but the odds are that he would simply resume his previous pattern of negative behavior. In the long run, this would probably defeat what the alternative program is trying to accomplish.

Our solution to the problem is as simple as it is controversial. We have students such as Harry attend school only for that period of time during which they have planned a program they intend to pursue. Our reasoning is twofold: (1) we know that students tend to work best when they are working on what they have identified as desirable, and (2) for students like Harry, it seems likely the rest of the time is wasted, including getting into trouble. Obviously, if they are not at school a full day, they are less likely to get into as much trouble. But, more important, the less we are in the position of coercing them, the less we are likely to cause the variety of reactive misbehaviors that characterize such students. Moreover, we find that once we no longer have to do battle with them, many youngsters evolve an increasing range of academic interests, including renewed interest in becoming competent in the areas of reading and writing. The energy they had been devoting to fighting teachers and school may now be redirected to exploring what it is they are interested in doing for themselves. As Harry's range of interests increase, he will want a longer school day and is likely to make better use of it.

We recognize the many practical, economic, and legal problems involved in cutting back on the length of a student's school day. However, we think these problems must be contrasted with the costs to society and individuals of ignoring the fact that for certain students a lengthy school day interferes with correcting their problems. Indeed, in some cases, it only makes the problems worse.

For older students, of course, a shortened day paired with a parttime job or apprenticeship may be a most productive experience. Among the results of work experiences can be an increased feeling of self-worth and competence and enhanced intrinsic motivation toward overcoming learning problems. A job also can provide a student with a source of income, which may be needed, and can even help to establish career directions.

At this point, you may think that such options are too inappropriate even to consider. However, as you reflect on what you have been learning and as you move on to read more about learner decision making, hopefully, it will be clear that the type of options discussed are fundamental to addressing motivational differences.

Decisions about *participation* are the primary foundation upon which all other decisions rest (Adelman, et al., 1984; Taylor, et al., 1985). If the individual initially does not want to participate or subsequently comes to that point of view, all other decisions become highly problematic.

For students diagnosed as having learning disabilities, the decision process related to participation begins with the discussions about placement. Whether a student with problems is placed in a special program or maintained in

regular classes, the immediate motivational concern always is whether the individual has decided that the program is right for him or her. And, of course, even if the initial answer is yes, the student's perceptions of the situation may change. Thus, decisions about placement must be continuously reevaluated.

The next most basic decisions are those related to *specific program options*. The objective is to help the student pinpoint alternatives that match personal interests and capabilities. Again, initial decisions have to be modified in keeping with changes in the students' perceptions of what is a good match.

As the following discussion illustrates, the best decision making processes include opportunities to physically explore and sample options. Thus, all initial decisions can be seen simply as extended opportunities to investigate options.

In overcoming severe motivational problems, it appears important not to insist that a student continue to work in areas she or he wants to avoid. This strategy is intended to reduce the type of psychological and behavioral reactions that occur when individuals think they are being forced to do something they don't want to do. In particular, we don't want to increase avoidance, either in the form of withdrawal (including passive performance) or of active resistance (e.g., disruptive behavior).

Thus, if a student initially indicates not wanting instruction in a specific area, it seems wise to hold off instruction temporarily -- even in basic skills, such as reading or math. The time is better spent on activities that may eventually lead to renewed interests in the avoided area.

Not providing instruction as a step in renewing positive interest in an area seems to go against common sense. We recognize that this is a controversial and, for some, an alarming strategy. It is not one to be adopted lightly or naively, and remember, it is a strategy to deal with motivation problems. From a motivational perspective, it is clearly rational to pursue areas of positive interest. And the case can be made that to focus solely on positive interests may be the best way to eventually overcome motivation and skill problems related to reading and other basics.

Let's look at Maria in this context.

> Maria doesn't want reading instruction. The teacher agrees to set her reading program aside for now. If reading were completely ignored, the best outcome the teacher should expect is that Maria's avoidance motivation would not be significantly increased. For many persons, this might be an acceptable outcome with regard to art and music and other areas not seen as basic skills. It would not be acceptable to most people when it comes to the three Rs. Fortunately, what makes basic literacy skills basic is that most facets of daily living involve their application. Moreover, the fact that they are designated as basic makes them a major point of focus by almost everyone in the society.
>
> Thus, it is likely that most of what Maria chooses to learn about at school and much of her other experiences will lead to frequent natural encounters that cause her to realize that she has a personal need for such skills. And, of course, these daily encounters inevitably bring her into contact with people who convey to her their assumption that she already has or is in the process of acquiring such skills. These experiences affect her feelings and attitudes about acquiring basics.
>
> As Maria's intrinsic awareness of the value of basic skills increases, she can be helped to learn any specific skills she identifies as needed in coping with natural encounters. Eventually, Maria should arrive at a level of motivational readiness at which she will accept the teacher's offer to pick up with formal reading instruction. Equally important, if her intrinsic motivation has increased enough, the time she spends reading may be considerably greater than the time spent in formal instruction.

Appropriate decision processes, then, can increase personal valuing and expectations of success, thereby enhancing motivation for learning and overcoming problems. By "appropriate" processes, we mean those that enable a student to self-select from desirable and feasible options. Besides improving motivation, such processes also provide opportunities for strengthening a student's ability to make sound choices.

Students, of course, may differ greatly in their motivation and ability to make decisions (see Feature 5). That is why we believe learning to make decisions should be a basic focus of instruction and why it is so important to be ready to help youngsters with decision making.

Feature 5: **Are Students with Learning Problems Competent to Make Good Decisions?**

Making a sound decision involves having the necessary information about alternatives and about positive and negative outcomes. It also involves having the competence to evaluate available information. Not surprisingly, when someone is perceived as not competent to decide, they often are not given the information or opportunity to prove the perception is incorrect.

Who is competent to decide? This is one of the more difficult and controversial questions confronting professionals, parents, and society in general.

Is it a matter of age? Education? Intelligence? If someone has a learning problem, are they less competent to make certain decisions than individuals without learning problems?

As yet, there are no satisfactory answers. There is, however, a rapidly growing body of research on the competence of youngsters with and without learning problems to participate in decision making (e.g., Baumrind, 1978; Melton, 1983; Weithorn, 1983).

Findings to date suggest that many youngsters and their parents believe that children as young as ten should participate in making decisions about everyday matters such as what clothes to buy and wear, what food to eat, what time to go to bed, and what friends to make. Parents and youngsters also generally agree that minors (thirteen and older) should participate in decisions regarding school programs and placements and physical and mental health treatment. Studies comparing youngsters' and adults' decisions as to treatment and research participation indicate that the decisions of children as young as nine are similar to those made by adults; and by the time they're fourteen, minors seem able to think as competently as adults in weighing certain decision risks and benefits.

In contrast to this research, studies of practitioners' views of minors' competence tend to be less optimistic about youngsters' competence to decide. Unfortunately, research on practitioners, views of minors' competence to participate in decision making is sparse. In a survey of mental health professionals, we found that slightly less than half of those who were willing to respond indicated they asked clients under eighteen to participate in the treatment decision. However, those who did ask, asked children as young as twelve. Moreover, this group of professionals judge that 72 percent of those they asked did turn out to have the necessary level of competence for making the decisions. Of particular relevance to the ideas presented here, the reason most cited for why they asked children to participate in such decision making was to enhance the motivation for treatment (Taylor, et al., 1985).

Despite the inadequacy of the available literature, findings to date support the importance of avoiding presumptions about students' lack of competence. Furthermore, classroom programs ought to be designed to facilitate and not delay development of increased levels of decision making competence. And, finally, we suggest that motivation often can be enhanced by encouraging students' participation in making decisions.

None of what has been said here is meant to imply that students will always make good decisions; nor will they always stick to a decision nor should they. All we are proposing is that students (with and without learning problems) should be offered a wide range of learning options and should be helped to sample the options so that they have reasonable information upon which to base decisions. Moreover, after they have experienced an activity for a brief while, they may well decide that they made a mistake, and so all such decisions should be renegotiable. As we understand motivation and learning, such options and renegotiations are major factors in determining whether students want to follow through on decisions and whether they become good at making decisions.

Steps in Helping Students Make Decisions

In helping with student decision making, it is useful to view the process as a series of steps.

First, a student must understand the value of making her or his own decisions. Minimally, this means the student's knowing that the process provides opportunities for taking greater control over one's life and overcoming one's problems.

> "We want to work with you in ways you think are good. Therefore, we've put together as many helpful and exciting learning opportunities as we could. While we think there are many good choices, we know that you are the best judge of what you like. So the first thing you might want to do is to look over and sample some of these options and see if any appeal to you. You may also want to suggest some other topics and activities. We only want to work with those that you choose as worth doing. We want you to have more control over your activities and program schedule than may have been the case in the past. Would you like to take some time and see what's available?"

Second, the process must include ways for students to actively sample and select from available options and to propose others whenever feasible.

> "You can spend some time looking over the various options, including watching other students who have chosen them. As you do this, I will be glad to answer any questions you may have. We can also talk about other things you would like to do and learn about that may not be here yet. Let's try to find a topic that personally interests you. The important thing is that you get a chance to decide which things you want to spend your time at school learning about."

Third, working out program details should be done as soon as choices are made. This is necessary so that the student is clear about the implications of following through on decisions. With such information, a student can either back off from a choice because it involves too much work or can publicly commit to follow through.

> "Let's talk about your decision to learn how to use a computer. That group meets each day, over ten weeks, for an hour a day. Before you get to do graphics, you will have to spend the first week learning basic computer operation. There is some reading material available; if you need help, several advanced students will be ready to explain the basics to you. If that sounds O.K. to you, write it on your posted schedule, and you can begin tomorrow."

Fourth, from the moment the student begins an activity, it is important to monitor motivation. If interest drops, the activity should be altered to better match the student; and if it can't be modified, the student should have the option of changing activities.

Teacher frustration is a frequent problem in helping students to make decisions and to improve their ability to do so. Many of a student's initial decisions don't hold up well. For a variety of reasons, a student may quickly lose interest in a topic or activity. This may happen, for example, if a youngster has a disability or does not work hard enough. However, early in the efforts to help youngsters make effective decisions, such "blaming" conclusions about why a particular choice didn't work can be premature and harmful. In general, when early decisions must be altered, it is important both to avoid blaming the student and to help students avoid blaming themselves.

On the other hand, if the student manifests the common tendency to externalize blame (i.e., the activity is described as too hard or too boring), it may be useful at first simply to accept the reasons at face value. By working on changes that reflect the individual's stated "alibis," in time, it will become evident whether the student is merely making excuses.

Again, the point is that the ability to make good decisions is learned (see Baron & Brown, 1991). Making decisions and evaluating their outcomes can be a good process for developing this basic skill. However, if the process is contaminated by accusations and blame, motivation for decision making can be undermined. As with all areas of learning, interactions over time will clarify whether students who continue to make poor decisions do so because of developmental or motivational problems.

Dialogues with Students

As suggested already, decision processes that lead to positive student perceptions involve ongoing dialogue between student and teacher. One result is a series of mutual agreements about what is to be done and how to proceed.

The mechanism for carrying on the dialogue often is called a *conference*, and the agreement often is referred to as a contract. However, terms like *conference* and *contract* do not convey the full sense of what is involved and at times have been interpreted in ways that are contrary to the meaning used here.

From a motivational perspective:

- Decisions must not be made for the student.
- Decisions must be modifiable whenever necessary.
- Dialogues should be designed to give, share, and clarify information seen as potentially useful to a student who is making a decision.
- Dialogues should involve not only conversational exchanges but also actual exploration and sampling of options.

The importance of the dialogue as a two way process cannot be overemphasized. A conference should be a time for persons to say what they need, want, and are hoping for from each other. When problems exist, time should be devoted to problem solving. One conference often is insufficient for arriving at a major decision. Therefore, the dialogue is an ongoing formal and informal process.

Summing up

Although the stress here has been on student decisions, good agreements are not one-sided. In general, the processes are meant to establish, maintain, and enhance a positive commitment on the part of both the student and the teacher toward working in a collaborative relationship. Such a relationship is seen as fundamental to the correction of learning problems.

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Excerpted from:

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Read more about it . . .

Excerpts from

Curriculum Tips for Enhancing Motivation

by P. Theroux (1994). *Developing Intrinsic Motivation*
http://www.crcssd1.calgary.ab.ca/tech/otn/learn/motivation.html

The teacher's role has changed in recent years. There has been a shift of emphasis from instructional techniques to developing learning techniques. Our role is no longer that of the "sage on the stage". Today our role leans more towards facilitator or "guide on the side". Our role is to increase student motivation and develop the skills or strategies that make a student more competent and to structure the learning environment so that students are able to take ownership of their own learning. Fortunately, many of the strategies that "empower" and "engage" students also lead to increased motivation. The focus here is on the strategies that teachers may use to develop and maintain motivation in school age students . . . .

1. Teach Them How to Make Their Tasks More Manageable

Narrowing or broadening the topic to a challenging but manageable size is very important for developing motivation. However, it is not just sufficient for us to just give them manageable activities. Not only is this an essential problem solving strategy, but it is also an essential life skill. Children need to know how they can make their own activities more manageable. Even the most challenging tasks can be made more manageable by breaking them down into smaller parts and then prioritizing the steps. As each small part is achieved a measure of success is attained. As the successes mount up students begin to recognize their own enthusiasm for learning. (Effort and Struggle during skill development results in Success and Motivation)

2. Use Ambiguity Occasionally

Give children opportunities to learn strategies for dealing with ambiguity and or frustration. Some children are convinced that every question has only one right answer. Help them realize that there is often more than one right method or answer. If they see all questions as being either right or wrong they will probably see themselves as being good when they are right and bad when they are wrong. This doesn't leave much room for motivation.

Brainstorming with someone else is an excellent strategy for looking for alternative interpretations of and solutions to problems of ambiguity. Frustration can be motivating when you have problem solving strategies and you see problems as something to be solved rather than to be avoided. Unmotivated underachieving students frequently use avoidance rather than an effective strategy when frustrated.

3. Offer Open-ended Activities to Develop Creativity

Give them opportunities and strategies to develop their creativity. Students perform with higher motivation when their creativity is engaged. Challenge students to construct original and creative products to support their written reports.

4. Teach Students to Evaluate Themselves

Self-evaluation needs to address the questions: "What was done well?" and "How can it be improved?" It is far more powerful for students to recognize the answers to these questions than it is for them to be told the answers.

Student self-evaluation is often difficult for the first few attempts. Students want to achieve a high evaluation but are reluctant to "brag" about their success. It has been my experience that the majority of students lean towards being too hard on themselves, but some students can be unrealistically generous initially. The ability to realistically evaluate ones own performance improves with practice and is both empowering and highly motivating.

5. Competition

Competition can enhance or reduce motivation depending on how it is used. It is good for some, but it may result in a few winners and many losers. Unmotivated and or underachieving students often have difficulty dealing with defeat. Until they are ready to cope with defeat it is more productive to encourage students to compete against their own performance rather than with someone else's.

Competing against oneself under controlled conditions means that everyone wins. Use the clock. Time their performance for 1 minute, estimate what can be accomplished in 5 minutes. And challenge them to beat their own record over a longer time span. Gradually increase the time factor and expectations. You can challenge students to compete against their own performance in the quantity and quality of their productivity, within a specific time frame or it can be used to increase on-task behavior or decrease inappropriate behavior. In fact most criteria which can be used to evaluate progress can be used for a student to compete against his/her own previous performance.

The long term goal is to teach children to loose gracefully and use defeat as motivation to improve. (See self-evaluation.) Eventually students must be encouraged to see "failure" as a positive experience. Every loss in competition and every failed attempt is an opportunity to learn what can be improved.

6. Students Need to Understand the Relevance of All Their School Activities

Students who do not understand the relevance of a school activity are not usually motivated to accomplish it unless they are motivated to please the teacher. (External motivation.) Clearly establish the expected goal and required method. Let the students know the benefits that will be realized. This is especially important when no choices are being offered.

7. Perfectionism - Is It Good or Bad?

Perfectionism goes beyond trying to do ones best. Perfectionism is getting hung-up on being perfect. Students need to take pride in their work but perfectionists allow their fear of making a mistake to inhibit progress. It can be seen in the child who keeps erasing everything, or keeps starting over making slow progress or not finishing. It can sometimes be seen in the child who procrastinates too much, forgets homework or loses work rather than admit it is not perfect.

These children need to learn that completing work on time is more important than being perfect, attempting is more important than succeeding, and failure is an opportunity to learn. Students need to see us (teachers and parents) making mistakes occasionally. We need to model and demonstrate the process of learning and recovering from our mistakes. And we, as teachers need to remember that if it can be done perfectly, it is probably too easy. If it is perfect they are probably practicing (rehearsing) previously acquired knowledge or skills and may be learning nothing new at all.

8. Reinforce Required Strategies

One reason students have difficulty sustaining their motivation when working independently is because they either don't understand or don't remember the required strategies. Never assume a student knows how to do something independently unless you see it demonstrated.

Also children can sometimes remember all of the steps within a required strategy and still not understand why they are doing them. Conversely they can understand the strategy but forget the steps or the sequence involved. As Graham Foster has often said: "Just because it's been taught, doesn't mean it's been caught."

The strategy therefore is to make sure that the skills required for an independent task are readily available when a student is expected to apply them. This can be done by oral review, by having students keep a note book on skills and strategies, or by using posters and skill charts on the walls. When a student appears unmotivated to work independently have him/her demonstrate that he knows what to do. Don't be unduly influenced by their ability to verbalize instructions. Verbalizing instructions means they remember the steps, it does not necessarily mean they know how to do them.

9. Teach A Variety Of Organizational Strategies

Students need to know that there are countless numbers of effective organizational strategies. Initially it may be sufficient to have at least one effective method. However, as teachers we need to remember that non-sequential organization is not necessarily disorganized. Some children are very organized but they may be non-sequential or non-linear in their thought patterns. For these children a linear sequence of steps 1-10 may be inhibiting. They may be confused by what seems to be a logical sequence for a sequential thinker.

A variety of organizational strategies encourages students to build on the strength of their own thinking style, and they will develop an arsenal of strategies to chose from. Eventually they will learn to vary the strategy to suit the requirements of the task.

10. Role Models

Some apparently unmotivated student are not really unmotivated but are motivated to follow an inappropriate model. For example a significant person in their life might be demonstrating the role of "drop-out", "non-academic", "unsuccessful" or the "I didn't need to work because I was so clever or because it is boring " type. These students need a positive role model. Parents should be encouraged to fill this role, or an uncle, aunt, brother, sister, or even . . . the teacher.

Teachers can become role models for students. We can demonstrate being an effective writer, an independent learner, a good loser etc. When time permits it is highly effective to model quality work by rewriting a few of their sentences or brief note facts (jot-notes) and ask them to decide which is better and why. Peer editing or self evaluation where rubrics and/or specific criteria is applied to the self-evaluation process can also serve to illustrate good work habits and quality work.

11. Use Computers

Most students are intrigued by computers. Applications such as Word Processors, Desktop Publishing Programs and Authoring programs permit students to revise and edit their work many times without the tedious process of rewriting it over and over. The computer produces a neat and attractive presentation which encourages students to take greater pride in the quality of their work....

Developing quality presentations using authoring software, or presentation software, such as PowerPoint, is also highly motivating for students. It may be necessary to allow the students to experiment with all the sounds, animations, transitions and special effects the first time they use the program. However, we need to guide student in the practice of using special effect in moderation to emphasize only the most important points.

Equally motivating (and not nearly as difficult as some teachers may think) developing web pages to present student work is one of the most highly motivating activities. If Internet access is a concern, Web pages can be run right off a disk for viewing only from within the classroom with a single (possibly portable) computer, or they can be posted on the Internet for all of the world to see.

Developing computer skills frequently motivates students to want to produce high quality work, especially when their work is on view for parents and peers.

Read more about it . . .

Excerpts from

Changing Schools through Experiential Education

by P. Walker and A. Richards (1992). ERIC Identifier: ED345929

In its efforts to restructure schools, the education community has begun to address the challenge of designing a curriculum that young people find significant. This Digest describes how experiential education can help provide such a curriculum and the impact it can have on students, teachers, administrators, and school organizational structures. It also describes ways experiential education can help educators make the transition from a traditional program to an activity-based program requiring the collaboration of teachers and students.

Description of Experiential Education

Experiential education is the process of actively engaging students in an experience that will have real consequences. Students make discoveries and experiment with knowledge themselves instead of hearing or reading about the experiences of others. Students also reflect on their experiences, thus developing new skills, new attitudes, and new theories or ways of thinking (Kraft & Sakofs, 1988).

John Dewey (1938) was an early promoter of the idea of learning through direct experience, by action and reflection. This type of learning differs from much traditional education in that teachers first immerse students in action and then ask them to reflect on the experience. In traditional classrooms, teachers begin by setting knowledge (including analysis and synthesis) before students. They hope students will later find ways to apply the knowledge in action. Despite the efforts of many would-be reformers, recent reports by researchers such as Goodlad (1984) and Sizer (1984) suggest that most teaching, particularly at the high school level, still involves the teacher as purveyor of knowledge and the student as passive recipient of it.

Some Examples of Experiential Education

Examples of experiential education abound in all disciplines. In her book, *Living Between the Lines* (1991), Lucy Calkins states,

> *If we asked our students for the highlight of their school careers, most would choose a time when they dedicated themselves to an endeavor of great importance...I am thinking of youngsters from P.S. 321, who have launched a save-the-tree campaign to prevent the oaks outside their school from being cut down. I am thinking of children who write the school newspaper, act in the school play, organize the playground building committee.... On projects such as these, youngsters will work before school, after school, during lunch. . . .*

There are other examples. High school English classes in Rabun Gap, Georgia have published the Foxfire books and magazines for over 25 years (Wigginton, 1985). Students research the culture of the Appalachian mountains through taped interviews and then write and edit articles based upon their interviews. Foxfire has inspired hundreds of similar cultural journalism projects around the country. One widely adopted form of experiential education is learning through service to others (Kielsmeier & Willits, 1989). An example is Project OASES (Occupational and Academic Skills for the Employment of Students) in the Pittsburgh public schools. Eighth graders, identified as potential dropouts, spend three periods a day involved in renovating a homeless shelter as part of a service project carried out within their industrial arts class. Students in programs such as these learn enduring skills such as planning, communicating with a variety of age groups and types of people, and group decision-making. In carrying out their activities and in the reflection component afterward, they come to new insights and integrate diverse knowledge from fields such as English, political science, mathematics, and sociology.

Changes in Roles and Structures

Whether teachers employ experiential education in cultural journalism, service learning, environmental education, or more traditional school subjects, its key idea involves students taking on new active roles. Students participate in a real activity with real consequences.

Besides changing student roles, experiential education requires a change in the role of teachers. When students are active learners, their endeavors often take them outside the classroom walls. Because action precedes attempts to synthesize knowledge, teachers generally cannot plan a curriculum unit as a neat, predictable package. Teachers become active learners, too, experimenting together with their students, reflecting upon the learning activities they have designed, and responding to their students' reactions to the activities. In

this way, teachers themselves become more active; they come to view themselves as more than just recipients of school district policy and curriculum decisions.

As students and teachers take on new roles, the traditional organizational structures of the school also may meet challenges. For example, at the Challenger Middle School in Colorado Springs, Colorado, service activities are an integral part of the academic program. Such nontraditional activities require teachers and administrators to look at traditional practices in new ways. For instance, they may consider reorganizing time blocks. They may also teach research methods by involving students in investigations of the community, rather than restricting research activities to the library (Rolzinski, 1990). At the University Heights Alternative School in the Bronx, the Project Adventure experiential learning program has led the faculty to adopt an all-day time block as an alternative to the traditional 45-minute periods. The faculty now organizes the curriculum by project instead of by separate disciplines.

Helping with the Transition

At first, these new roles and structures may seem unfamiliar and uncomfortable to both students and adults in the school. Traditionally, students have most often been rewarded for competing rather than cooperating with one another. Teachers are not often called upon for collaborative work either. Teaching has traditionally been an activity carried out in isolation from one's peers, behind closed doors. Principals, used to the traditional hierarchical structure of schools, often do not know how to help their teachers constitute self-managed work teams or how to help teachers coach students to work in cooperative teams. The techniques of experiential education can help students and staff adjust to teamwork, an important part of the process of reforming schools.

Adventure is one form of experiential education that is highly effective in developing team and group skills in both students and adults (Rohnke, 1989). Initially, groups work to solve problems that are unrelated to the problems in their actual school environment. For example, in an adventure course designed to build the skills required by teamwork, a faculty or student team might work together to get the entire group over a 12-foot wall or through an intricate web of rope. After each challenge in a series of this kind, the group looks at how it functioned as a team. Who took the leadership roles? Did the planning process help or hinder progress? Did people listen to one another in the group and use the strengths of all group members? Did everyone feel that the group was a supportive environment in which they felt comfortable making a contribution and taking risks?

The wall or web of rope becomes a metaphor for the classroom or school environment. While the problems and challenges of the classroom or school are different from the physical challenges of the adventure activity, many skills needed to respond successfully as a team are the same in both settings.

These skills - listening, recognizing each other's strengths, supporting each other through difficulties - can apply equally well to academic problem-solving or to school-wide improvement efforts. . . .

Summary

Experiential education can change schools because it requires new roles of students, teachers, and administrators. It can provide a different, more engaging way of treating academic content through the combination of action and reflection. . . .

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Some Thoughts on Grouping

Some of the advantages of group work quoted by teachers who use it are that group work helps children to learn by co-operation, learning partly from each other and gaining respect for each other's strengths and weaknesses. It removes the sense of failure from slow learners and encourages children to become self-reliant and work at their own pace. It allows teachers to be available, to deal with individuals and to tailor a range of tasks for children's needs and abilities more conveniently and appropriately than in individual or whole-class teaching.

M. Sands. Teaching Methods: Myth and Reality. In *Mixed Ability Teaching: Problems and Possibilities.* In M.I. Reid, L.R. Clunies-Ross, B. Goacher, & C. Vile (Eds) (1986). The NFER-Nelson Publishing Company Ltd.

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. . . It is impossible to deny that the sheer practicalities of a mixed-ability class at any age or stage of education will necessitate that a good deal of the work be tackled at an individual or group level. There must be severe limitations on the amount of work that can profitably be undertaken at the same level by the whole class. The technique of working through individual and group assignments, therefore, becomes a very important weapon in the armoury of the teacher of a mixed-ability class.

Content

Our main concern is with the techniques of the individual or group assignment and the first question that arises is that of how to decide on the content of such assignments. . . . Many teachers have chosen the theme approach as one that gives most of the advantages of the free situation but protects them from a crippling variety of demands. A broad area of work is selected and pupils are offered a range of choices within that area. It is felt that this kind of approach has advantages for the pupil also in so far as, if the theme is well chosen, he can see his work in a context which is broader than the immediate task confronting him but not so broad as to be entirely beyond his own horizon. The main purpose of a theme, then, is to provide a framework in which both teacher and pupil can work securely, profitably and successfully. . . . A good theme will be one which will provide teacher and pupil with both a structure and as much freedom as each can tolerate.

To provide a coherent structure for the work of teacher and pupils, a theme must be a theme in the full sense of the term. There must be a unity to all that is studied under the label of any particular theme and that unity must be based on a logical rather than a contingent association of those subjects or areas of enquiry that are being subsumed under this particular heading. If we do not hold on to this as a basic principle, then the idea of a theme loses all point, since there will no longer be any coherence either within the separate areas of the individual pupil's own work or between his work and that of his fellows. To use a theme as the basis of a programme of any kind entails a concern for giving the work of all pupils this kind of coherence and point.

Several further factors must be borne in mind when a theme is being chosen. The ages, interests, aptitudes and abilities of the pupils concerned must

clearly be a prime concern. A theme must provide pupils with scope for work of a kind they can cope with and profit from. A second important consideration must be the competences of the teacher - or of the team of teachers, if this approach is being used in conjunction with team-teaching. It would be very foolish of a teacher to select a theme which required him to break new ground on almost every front to cope with all that pupils might want to work on within the theme and to take advantage of the opportunities it might offer to further their education. Thirdly, a theme should be chosen with a clear view of the goals that it is hoped will be achieved by it or the principles that it is intended shall inform the work of every pupil . . . . Finally, regard must be paid to the local conditions that prevail in the school and its neighbourhood.

Once a theme is chosen, the next decision that must be made is whether all the pupils will work on the same things and engage in the same activities or whether they will be allowed to choose their own field of study, and devote their attention to that. It may be felt, for example, that our goals will best be achieved if every pupil is required to look at the theme from a number of different points of view and to experience all or several of the activities planned. . . . A history teacher might set up an exploration of Norman England by requiring all pupils to work in turn on the details of the Battle of Hastings, the armour and weapons in use at the time, the castles, the Domesday Book, monasteries, feudalism, the open-field system and so on, and by arranging for these separate enquiries to be related to each other in such a way as to build up for each pupil a clear picture of the age. In this kind of situation, where the 'circus' approach is regarded as the best method of achieving one's aims, this stage of preparation requires the careful planning of each of the activities or areas of study seen as essential to the achievement of the whole and of the means of bringing them together. Once this has been done, the problem of content has been solved.

However, it may be felt that what is needed is to encourage each pupil to pursue in depth only one or two aspects of the theme, to share his findings or the findings of his group with the others in his class and to see other aspects of the theme by looking at the work of other individuals or groups. A theme such as "Communications" - a very popular theme in situations where an interdisciplinary approach is being deliberately fostered - is one where it is often felt that children can be helped to see the point and can come to understand the importance and relevance of communications in human development by each exploring one or two aspects only, provided that they are given plenty of real opportunities to share their findings with each other and can thus see the many different sides to the concept. . . . Some may be led by their interests into approaching the topic from an historical point of view and working on the history of the development of roads, canals, railways or sea-transport; others may prefer to consider the geographical problems that are involved; others still may be drawn to an exploration of the scientific aspects of communication, the development of the telegraph, telephone, radio or television, as well as of various forms of mechanical propulsion. . . . In this way, each pupil can have the benefit of working to some depth in the area that is of most direct interest to him while gaining some view of the breadth of the theme by seeing what his or her colleagues are doing.

We should not forget that one of the main arguments in favour of this kind of approach is that working through pupils' own interests brings great gains in motivation and that the best way of getting pupils to work is to allow them to work on things that interest them. . . . Intrinsic motivation can only be achieved if we allow a pupil to select his own work and to become absorbed in it.

It must be stressed that while accepting the motivational value of working through pupils' interests, teachers must be prepared to make firm decisions about what these interests lead their pupils to undertake. . . . Pupils will tend to be interested in the superficially more attractive aspects of a topic and will need to be led into those aspects which are less exciting but which may be necessary to give coherence to the whole and to promote understanding. If education is to mean anything it must involve the extension and development of pupils' interests rather than the mere satisfaction of them. . . . It may be true that what is worthwhile can only be defined in terms of what is worthwhile to the pupil, but if the teacher is to play any positive role in education, it must be by his or her skill at developing the potential of the individual pupil revealed through his interests

rather than merely feeding those interests in the way that anyone with an adequate supply of paper, paint and other materials might do. What is being argued is that the pupil has a right to contribute to the discussion of his own education, but that he is not competent to decide entirely for himself its goals, content or methods. It is the failure to realize this and the resulting involvement of many pupils in totally undirected activity that has led to most of the criticisms that have been made of "free" methods in schools.

Method

With a theme chosen in the light of these considerations, and decisions of content made or at least principles established upon which they will be made, the teacher's next problem is to put all of this into action.

The first task in any educational undertaking is to get the right psychological "set", to arouse interest, to ensure motivation, so that the teacher must begin by trying to communicate to all of his pupils the interest that it is hoped he himself already has in the project he has planned and to show them that there is something of interest and value in it for everyone. There are several ways in which this can be attempted.

Many teachers favour the "impact session", the "key" or "lead" lesson, as the most effective method of arousing interest. The new work is introduced to the pupils by a presentation of as stimulating and exciting a kind as can be devised... Films, audio- or video-tapes, filmstrips and other such aids will obviously offer enormous advantages. Visiting speakers can also contribute a lot to this kind of exercise. . . . It is particularly useful to consider what parents might be able to offer in this kind of situation, since among them will be experts of all kinds whose knowledge can be tapped - without fee - and this is one way of involving them in the work of their children in a more direct and mutually profitable manner than that offered by a Parent Teacher Association.

A second method of arousing the interest of pupils, which may be applicable to some kinds of theme, is a visit or series of visits to places in the locality that have some bearing on the area of work to be explored . . . . Much can be done to arouse interest in certain kinds of theme by this kind of planned outing.

A third way of stimulating the interest of pupils in the work about to be undertaken is to surround them with examples of what they could do and perhaps also with the material and equipment they might be working with. This kind of technique has proved highly successful in many infant and junior classrooms where teachers have long known the value of creating a number of displays, each related to some particular interest or activity - measuring, weighing, number, reading and so on - and allowing children to be stimulated simply by looking at these displays in passing, as it were.... One can imagine secondary pupils being equally excited if, on entering a science laboratory, they found the apparatus, equipment and materials laid out and were allowed to browse among it for a while. To surround pupils by visual and other examples of what one has in store for them may be, therefore, as good a way as any of arousing their enthusiasm.

If we have been successful in presenting the project to our pupils in a stimulating way and arousing their interest, the result of our efforts will be a class of pupils, eager, or at least willing, to get to work. Our next problem is the organizational problem of getting them started on their individual or group assignments. As far as possible, this should have been planned well in advance. No matter how great the interest we have aroused, it cannot be maintained for long unless we are ready to follow it up by providing pupils with the wherewithal to begin their work. If we are engaged in the kind of project where the syllabus has been preplanned, then it is a matter merely of good classroom organization and of having clear instructions, perhaps in the form of work-cards, and the necessary materials ready to be able to get them all down to work very quickly. The same is true if we are adopting a "circus" approach. We may be prepared to allow them some freedom in choosing where they will begin or which group they will work with, but there is nothing really complex about getting this kind of thing off the ground.

Once again it is in the freer situation that the problems are most acute. If we are really prepared to consider suggestions from the pupils, this can be a very lengthy business and without careful organization can result in chaos. . . . It is not difficult for teachers to foresee most of the lines of enquiry that children are likely to come up with and, as we have said, the initial programme should

have been framed to promote interest in the kind of thing the teacher is prepared for. And so many pupils can start work right away, even in this free kind of atmosphere. Again workcards may be useful in providing initial guidance and the teacher must see that the resources and materials needed are ready to hand. If most can be started off in this way, the teacher is free to deal with the other cases, those with suggestions that were not foreseen and which will need careful thought and evaluation and the inevitable group of pupils who are not stimulated, inspired or even mildly interested and will need to be privately and individually stimulated or, in the last extreme, directed into something, if they are not to constitute a disruptive influence on the work of others.

From this point on, the teacher's job is to keep a careful watch on the progress of each pupil and each group of pupils. He must make sure that his pupils are really working and getting full educational value from what they are doing, that they are working with understanding and not 'going through the motions' without thinking about what they are doing. He must ensure that as far as is possible they have the materials and resources they need. He must see to it that the initial impetus of interest is maintained as long as is possible and added impetus provided as and when it seems necessary for individuals or for the whole class. He must be on the lookout for opportunities to extend the range of their work by leading them on from the point where they started to further developments that, left to themselves, they would not have contemplated or to turn them in the direction of something new if they appear to have exhausted the vein on which they started.

However, there are certain general points that he needs to keep in mind as he guides his pupils' work in this way. To begin with, he must not lose sight of the danger, already referred to, that this kind of approach can lead to undirected and haphazard learning and can degenerate into activities that have no real educational value. . . . It should not be the intention to set up a kind of hobbies club in which pupils do what they want and teachers provide them with the materials they need and help out with the difficult bits....The teacher should be doing as much, if not more, teaching in this kind of situation as he does in a more formal lesson and the pupils should be working as hard, if not harder, since they should be engaged on tasks which stretch them and which make more demands than anything which they would choose to do at home as a pastime. This approach is, after all, a method of teaching, not an alternative to teaching.

A second danger of this kind of approach is that it can easily lead to a concentration on fact-finding exercises to the detriment of other activities, perhaps of a more creative kind, that are equally important elements in education. It is easier to view enquiry, 'finding out', as something that results in the acquisition of a lot of propositional knowledge than to see that there can be other methods of exploring the world about us -through art, craft, dance or drama for example - that may not result in propositional knowledge but can certainly bring understanding of a different kind which is just as important....The teacher who is aware of the danger of allowing such projects to develop into fact-finding exercises and of the need to promote other kinds of activity must work specifically for this, and lead pupils into it by means of what he presents to them, what he encourages them to follow up and the emphases he gives to the work.

Read more about it . . .

Excerpts from

Team Teaching

by A.V. Kelly (1978). *Mixed Ability Grouping: Theory and Practice.* London: Harper.

Why Team Teach?

Team Teaching can increase both variety and flexibility. There is more scope for working through pupils' interests, since we no longer have to decide either to limit their range to the area of competence of one teacher or to expect that teacher to extend his area of competence to the point where in becoming wide it will also become dangerously thin, where he may become a jack of all trades and master of none. A team of teachers will bring many areas of competence and expertise into play and no member of it need surrender or compromise his specialisms. Indeed, he may in this situation be able for the first time to make full use of skills and knowledge that previously he had little or no scope for, since an interest-based approach, as we have seen, may allow for new developments in content beyond the traditional school subjects.

Team-teaching can also provide a useful flexibility of groupings, since with a number of teachers available pupils can be divided into groups of varying sizes according to the needs of any situation. Sometimes much time and energy can be saved by taking the whole group together for a presentation, lecture, visiting speaker or other such event that is felt to be appropriate and valuable for all; at other times, divisions can be made into groups of normal class size or into smaller groups of, say, four or five pupils for tutorial or other purposes, again according to need.

A related point that should not be overlooked is the scope that a team teaching scheme offers for providing support for those teachers who, for a variety of reasons, may need it. Every school contains staff members whose contribution to the education of its pupils will be enhanced by the support they can gain from membership of such a team.

A final point that must be made in listing some of the advantages of team-teaching is the fact that it gives teachers greater opportunities for discussing their work with each other. The individual teacher in his classroom is like a goldfish in a bowl, cut off from others and from the world outside. Some informal discussion often does go on in the common room, but there is nothing like a common task for generating real discussion between people. A team-teaching assignment makes it impossible for teachers to avoid constant and rigorous debate and reappraisal of the principles underlying their teaching, the content of their work and the methods that will best enable them to achieve their goals.

How much time is needed for Team Teaching?

There is no one answer to the question of how much time should be allocated to this kind of work, since almost every variation can be observed. As so often is the case, it is a matter of adapting to local conditions. . . . In practice it is a matter of extracting what time is possible in the face of the many other competing interests . . . .

What must be noted is that this kind of teaching is impossible in single periods of forty minutes or so. If the interest of the pupil is to be maintained, he must be given the opportunity to put in a decent amount of work on whatever he is engaged on each time he comes to it. He must be allowed to become absorbed in what he is doing, to see some positive reward for his efforts and to end each session with the knowledge that he has made observable progress. Some will not be absorbed, of course, or will finish a particular piece of work quickly. These can be moved on to something else. But the pupil who is involved must be given time to achieve something substantial. . . . It is often said that children cannot concentrate for long periods of time – this has been the justification of the short school period – but we have all seen quite small children "lost" in something that really interests them for much longer periods than that. It is this ability to become absorbed in something of genuine interest that we must try to capitalize on

Furthermore, the teacher needs substantial blocks of time with his/her pupils. In a situation where s/he is not offering them all a short formal lesson

but is concerned to work with groups or individuals engaged on different kinds of work, s/he needs time to get around to all of them, to see where they have reached, to advise on where they should go next, to prod those who are slacking, to make sure that the eager ones do not lose their enthusiasm through a lack of books, materials or encouragement. To ask anyone to work in this way in forty-minute bursts is to invite failure for the project and neurosis for the teacher. . . . Blocks of time roughly equivalent to three normal periods seem to be the optimum here. This is why many schools prefer to allocate whole afternoons to work of this kind rather than whole mornings which in most schools are rather longer.

Considerations for Planning and Organization

Paradoxically, the more freedom it is intended that the pupils should have, the more detailed needs to be the preplanning and organization of the project. This is the first point that must be made clear. Many teachers feel that there can only be freedom for pupils if they go into their classrooms without any plan or preconceived ideas, to "see what happens", "play it by ear", "allow it to develop spontaneously" or with some other such intention that makes them sound more like jazz musicians going to a jam-session than responsible educators setting about their task. The best one can say about this view is that it reveals some confusion over the concept of "freedom". The only freedom a teacher can be concerned with is that kind of freedom that is not at odds with the requirements of an educational situation. To create an educational situation requires great skill on the part of any teacher and, no matter how experienced s/he is, a great deal of forethought, preplanning and careful organization. This is especially necessary when it is a coordinated piece of team-work that is required. Nothing that can be done in advance should be left to the hurly-burly of the classroom itself, but at the same time one must not preplan that which should be left for on the spot decision and thus impose a rigidity that will deprive both teachers and pupils of the kind of freedom this approach is designed to give them.

The first point that will need to be clarified is the area of responsibility of each member of the team. Some teams will include administrative staff; in time there may be assistants or aides formally employed in schools, some of whom will be attached to teaching teams; some teams may already include other non-teachers invited to make some specific contribution to the work. It is assumed that the role of such members of the team will be clear.

The position of the teacher-members must be made equally clear. Some, or all, may be expected to take existing forms or classes within the project, particularly where, as perhaps with younger pupils, it is intended to maintain the security that comes from membership of a single, stable group, or it may be the intention to regroup the pupils according to the areas of their interests, so that some or all of the teacher-members of the team may be required to take responsibility for groups of pupils working in particular areas. . . . Pairing of teachers might also be used where appropriate, two teachers being given joint responsibility for a larger group. On the other hand, it may be the intention that one or two teachers be given a roving commission. . . . There are many possibilities here. What matters is not so much the particular form of organization that is chosen as that each member should be clear about it and about his own responsibilities within it and that at any one time every pupil should know which teacher is immediately responsible for his work.

Once the team has been given a definite structure . . . , attention must be turned to planning for the work . . . . In the first place, a clear view of the principles or aims of the project should be reached . . . . Then attention must be turned to method. There are two aspects of this. First, as much detailed preparation as possible needs to be made for the activities that pupils are likely to be engaged in and the subject-matter they are likely to need to have presented to them in one form or another. Secondly, careful planning is necessary of an organizational structure that will ensure the continued smooth running of the exercise.

We must next prepare for the fevered enquiries we are hoping to provoke. We must be able to get those who are ready down to work immediately, before their enthusiasm wears off, and to do this we must have the necessary materials and apparatus prepared and some clear indication of how they can best get started. . . . We must also do as much work as possible ourselves in the area or areas of enquiry we are to be responsible for, since we need to be able to deal with questions that the pupils will raise, we need to be able to offer many ideas for lines of enquiry to pupils

who have not been initially fired to explore anything and we need the background knowledge that will enable us to lead all pupils on from where they start to something that is worthwhile and which stretches them. All of this preparation needs to be done by the team and for the team; teachers must learn to live with a situation in which material they themselves prepare is used by others. This is what collaborative team-work implies.

No matter how thorough the preparation of material has been, little will be achieved unless equal care is taken in creating an efficient organizational structure within which the work can go on. . . . Very detailed arrangements must be made for the initial grouping of pupils if this is to be done on a basis other than the existing class divisions, and for their movement from one group to another if and when this becomes appropriate. . . . Arrangements should also be made for pupils to see each other's work. This is especially important where each is being allowed to explore in depth one aspect of the theme only.

Perhaps the most important area where detailed organization is required is that of keeping an up-to-date record of the whereabouts, the assignment and the progress of each individual pupil. Unless this can be done, team-teaching will offer countless opportunities for timewasting, repetition and even truancy. . . .

Finally, the winding up of an exercise of this kind needs to be carefully planned, as does a method of evaluating what has been achieved. Again, it is essential that the team plan this as a team, so that the way of drawing things to an end can be agreed by all and the methods of evaluation such as to ensure that what each member of the team has been doing can be properly assessed.

This underlines the need, therefore, for continuous planning and evaluation throughout the period of the project. . . . Preplanning can provide too rigid a structure; this can only be avoided if the team meets regularly to evaluate progress and make further plans in the light of experience. . . . Often this is left to informal contact of team members over coffee, lunch and so on. Too much is at stake for it to be left to casual contact of this kind. Team meetings should be formally time tabled to take place regularly when all members of the team can attend. They should be as frequent as seems necessary, but there should never be fewer than one per week. The success of team-teaching depends on careful organization and the coordination of the efforts of all members of the team. . . .

Team-teaching offers teachers a great deal of scope for new, interesting and rewarding work. It is one way of taking advantage of some of the opportunities offered by a mixed-ability form of organization and an increasing number of schools are adopting. . . .

Read more about it . . .

Excerpts from

PHASING INTO LEARNING CENTERS

by M.M. McCarthy (1977). The how and why of learning centers. *Elementary School Journal, 77*: 292-299.

Step I

- Introduce an activity to the entire class and have pupils complete it independently.
- Practice similar activities until most pupils can complete the task from the directions without asking further questions.
- Increase the length of the activity until most pupils can work independently for the time desired.
- Increase the complexity of the directions until most pupils can follow several steps from one initial set of directions.
- Give directions in color codes or in written form until most pupils can complete the activity without pupil/teacher interaction.

Step 2

- Place two activities (or sets of activities) in different sections of the room. Divide the pupils into two groups and alternate the groups between the two centers for a designated period of time.
- Devise an information system for recording activities completed in the centers....Initially, all pupils could be brought back together to record what they have done in each center. After they have become accustomed to this procedure, they could record their activities individually as they leave each center.
- Five minutes before time to change centers, ask the pupils to put materials away and clean up the center area. Be certain to reinforce cooperative behavior during this time.
- Increase the number of activities in each center to accommodate different ability levels.
- Increase the number of centers or concurrent activities. There is practically no limit as to options available. Among the possibilities are three or more centers; one teacher-directed activity and two centers; or small-group instruction for one group of pupils, follow-up seatwork for another, and center activities for a third.
- If certain children repeatedly leave the center where they belong, have more structured activities available for them.
- Have several interest-based centers, and let the pupils choose where they will spend their time. Pupils could stay in one center the entire block of time that has been designated for center activities or perhaps divide the time between two centers. Name tags placed on tag boards at each center are useful for monitoring pupils' whereabouts.

Step 3

- Establish several centers and determine where students will work on a daily or weekly basis.
- Let pupils choose their centers on a weekly basis within certain guidelines. For example, the teacher might ask that each pupil attend a reading center twice a week. The ground rules could even be individualized for each child.
- Pupils could fill out a brief contract with the teacher at the beginning of each week. ...The contract should be evaluated at the end of the week, and adjustments should be made for the following week's activities.
- Have pupils independently choose their centers and activities and mount their names on the tag board to indicate where they are working. At the end of each day pupils would fill out a form recording the activities completed. Some ground rules would have to be enforced. It might be necessary to have a rule that no more than five pupils could be at one center at any time. In addition, the teacher would have to monitor the activities chosen to insure that the choice of each child is appropriate.

The success of learning centers hinges on the teacher's planning. It may be helpful to organize the transition to learning centers by using a calendar or a simple flow chart. Goals should be set, along with target dates for reaching each stage of the plan. By listing the skills that must be learned before moving to a more complex stage, one can be certain that the pupils and the teacher master the prerequisites before undertaking more sophisticated tasks. If a class moves into learning centers in an organized manner, taking small steps at a time, many of the pitfalls that could cause failure and frustration can be avoided.

Read more about it . . .

Excerpts from

Authentic Assessment

by G. Wiggins. (1990). *The Case for Authentic Assessment.* ERIC Digest. ED328611

Assessment is authentic when we directly examine student performance on worthy intellectual tasks. Traditional assessment, by contrast, relies on indirect or proxy "items"--efficient, simplistic substitutes from which we think valid inferences can be made about the student's performance at those valued challenges.

Do we want to evaluate student problem-posing and problem-solving in mathematics? experimental research in science? speaking, listening, and facilitating a discussion? doing document-based historical inquiry? thoroughly revising a piece of imaginative writing until it "works" for the reader? Then let our assessment be built out of such exemplary intellectual challenges.

Further comparisons with traditional standardized tests will help to clarify what "authenticity" means when considering assessment design and use:

* Authentic assessments require students to be effective performers with acquired knowledge.Traditional tests tend to reveal only whether the student can recognize, recall or "plug in" what was learned out of context. This may be as problematic as inferring driving or teaching ability from written tests alone. (Note, therefore, that the debate is not "either-or": there may well be virtue in an array of local and state assessment instruments as befits the purpose of the measurement.)

* Authentic assessments present the student with the full array of tasks that mirror the priorities and challenges found in the best instructional activities: conducting research; writing, revising and discussing papers; providing an engaging oral analysis of a recent political event; collaborating with others on a debate, etc. Conventional tests are usually limited to paper-and-pencil, one- answer questions.

* Authentic assessments attend to whether the student can craft polished, thorough and justifiable answers, performances or products. Conventional tests typically only ask the student to select or write correct responses--irrespective of reasons. (There is rarely an adequate opportunity to plan, revise and substantiate responses on typical tests, even when there are open-ended questions). . . .

* Authentic assessment achieves validity and reliability by emphasizing and standardizing the appropriate criteria for scoring such (varied) products; traditional testing standardizes objective "items" and, hence, the (one) right answer for each.

* "Test validity" should depend in part upon whether the test simulates real-world "tests" of ability. Validity on most multiple-choice tests is determined merely by matching items to the curriculum content (or through sophisticated correlations with other test results).

* Authentic tasks involve "ill-structured" challenges and roles that help students rehearse for the complex ambiguities of the "game" of adult and professional life. Traditional tests are more like drills, assessing static and too-often arbitrarily discrete or simplistic elements of those activities.

Beyond these technical considerations the move to reform assessment is based upon the premise that assessment should primarily support the needs of learners. Thus, secretive tests composed of proxy items and scores that have no obvious meaning or usefulness undermine teachers' ability to improve instruction and students' ability to improve their performance. We rehearse for and teach to authentic tests - think of music and military training - without compromising validity.

The best tests always teach students and teachers alike the kind of work that most matters; they are enabling and forward-looking, not just reflective of prior teaching.

Excerpted from:
C. Grace. (1992). *The Portfolio and Its Use: Developmentally Appropriate Assessment of Young Children.* ERIC Digest. ED351150

One method of authentic assessment is to assemble and review a portfolio of the child's work. The portfolio is a record of the child's process of learning: what the child has learned and how she has gone about learning; how she thinks, questions, analyzes, synthesizes, produces, creates; and how she interacts – intellectually, emotionally and socially – with others. Arter and Spandel define the portfolio as a purposeful collection of student work that exhibits to the student, or others, her efforts or achievement in one or more areas. According to Meisels and Steele, portfolios enable children to participate in assessing their own work; keep track of individual children's progress; and provide a basis for evaluating the quality of individual children's overall performance. Wide use of portfolios can stimulate a shift in classroom practices and education policies toward schooling that more fully meets the range of children's developmental needs.

Components of a Portfolio
The portfolio can include work samples, records of various forms of systematic observation, and screening tests. Engel emphasizes that "work samples meet the need for accountability while recognizing and supporting individual progress." They keep track of a child's progress – in other words, they follow the child's success rather than his failure. Teachers and parents can follow children's progress by reviewing children's writings, drawings, logs of books read by or to them, videos or photographs of large projects, tape recordings of the children reading or dictating stories, and so forth.

Portfolio Authenticity
Decisions about what items to place in a portfolio should be based on the purpose of the portfolio. Without a purpose, a portfolio is just a folder of student work. The portfolio exists to make sense of children's work, to communicate about their work, and to relate the work to a larger context. . . . According to Murphy and Smith, portfolios can be intended to motivate students, to promote learning through reflection and self-assessment, and to be used in evaluations of students' thinking and writing processes. . . . Portfolios should contain a statement of purpose and a wide variety of work samples, including successive drafts of work on particular projects. Children should be involved in choosing items to preserve so that they can analyze their work themselves.

Using the Portfolio in Evaluation
The material in a portfolio should be organized by chronological order and category. Since all information in the portfolio is dated, arranging the work samples, interviews, checklist, inventories, screening test results, and other information should be simple. Meisels and Steele suggest further organizing the material according to curriculum area or category of development (cognitive, gross motor, fine motor, and so forth).

Once the portfolio is organized, the teacher can evaluate the child's achievements. Appropriate evaluation always compares the child's current work to her earlier work. This evaluation should indicate the child's progress toward a standard of performance that is consistent with the teacher's curriculum and appropriate developmental expectations. Portfolios are not meant to be used for comparing children to each other. They are used to document individual children's progress over time. The teacher's conclusions about a child's achievement, abilities, strengths, weaknesses, and needs should be based on the full range of that child's development, as documented by the data in the portfolio, and on the teacher's knowledge of curriculum and stages of development.

The use of portfolios . . . provides teachers with a built-in system for planning parent-teacher conferences. With the portfolio as the basis for discussion, the teacher and parent can review concrete examples of the child's work, rather than trying to discuss the child's progress in the abstract.

Conclusion
Appropriate assessment of young children should involve the children themselves, parents, and teachers. The portfolio method promotes a shared approach to making decisions that will affect children's attitudes toward work and school in general. It frees the teacher from the constraints of standardized tests. Finally, using portfolios in assessment allows teachers to expand the classroom horizon and enlarge each child's canvas. Thus, the teacher can focus on the child and develop an intimate and enduring relationship with him.

Read more about it . . .

Some Thoughts About Talking with Students:

To help others, it is of great value and in many instances essential to know what the one you want to help is thinking and feeling. The most direct way to find this out is for the person to tell you. But as David Nyberg has cautioned, individuals probably won't tell you such things unless they think you will listen carefully. And the way to convince them you will listen carefully is to listen carefully.

Of course, you won't always hear what you would like to hear.

Teacher: Well, Jose, how do you like school?
Jose: Closed!

Engaging in Dialogues

In general, effective communication requires the ability to carry on a *productive dialogue*, that is, to talk with, not at, others. This begins with the ability to be an active (good) listener and to avoid prying and being judgmental. It also involves knowing when to share information and relate one's own experiences as appropriate and needed. The following are suggestions for engaging students in productive dialogues.

I. Creating the Context for Dialogues

- Create a private space and a climate where the student can feel it is safe to talk.
- Clarify the role and value of keeping things confidential.
- Pursue dialogues when the time, location, and conditions are right.
- Utilize not just conferences and conversations, but interchanges when working together (e.g. exploring and sampling options for learning.

II. Establishing Credibility (as someone to whom it is worth talking)

- Respond with *empathy, warmth, and nurturance* (e.g., the ability to understand and appreciate what others are thinking and feeling, transmit a sense of liking, express appropriate reassurance and praise, minimize criticism and confrontation).
- Show *genuine regard and respect* (e.g., the ability to transmit real interest, acceptance, and validation of the other's feelings and to interact in a way that enables others to maintain a feeling of integrity and personal control.
- Use active and undistracted listening.
- Keep in mind that you want the student to feel more competent, feel more self-determining, and feel more related to you (and others) as a result of the interchange.

III. Facilitating Talk

- Avoid interruptions.
- Start slowly, avoid asking questions, and minimize pressure to talk (the emphasis should be more on conversation and less on questioning and on nonsensitive topics related to the student's main areas of personal interest).
- Encourage the student to take the lead.
- Humor can open a dialogue; sarcasm usually has the opposite effect.
- Listen with interest.
- Convey the sense that you are providing an opportunity by extending an invitation to talk and avoiding the impression of another demanding situation (meeting students "where they are at" in terms of motivation and capability is critical in helping them develop positive attitudes and skills for oral communication).
- Build on a base of natural, informal interchanges throughout the day.
- When questions are asked, the emphasis should be on open-ended rather than Yes/No questions.
- Appropriate self-disclosure by another can disinhibit a reluctant student

- Pairing a reluctant student with a supportive peer or small group can help
- Train and use others (aides, volunteers, peers) to 1) enter into productive (nonconfidential) dialogues that help clarify the learner's perceptions and then 2) share the information with you in the best interests of helping the learner
- For students who can't seem to convey their thoughts and feelings in words, their behavior often says a lot about their views; based on your observations and with the idea of opening a dialogue, you can share your perceptions of what a student seems to value and expect and ask if you are right
- Sometimes a list of items (e.g. things that students like/don't like to do at school/after school) can help elicit a student's views and open up a dialogue
- When students have learning, behavior, and emotional problems, find as many ways as feasible to have positive interchanges with them and make the positive contacts outweigh the negatives
- ***Remember:*** Short periods of silence are part of the process and should be accommodated.

Providing Feedback and Encouraging Student Autonomy

Excerpted from Faber, A. & Mazlish, E. (1999). *How To Talk So Kids Will Listen & Listen So Kids Will Talk, 20th Edition.* Avon Paperbacks.

Giving Praise:

1. Describe what you see. - "I see tidy desks, people sitting in their seats, and pencils poised to begin writing."
2. Describe what you feel. - "It was a pleasure to read this paper!"
3. Sum up the praiseworthy behavior with a word. - "You assigned tasks to everyone in the group, took notes on your research, and then wrote up your group presentation together. That's what I call *organization*!"

Giving Negative Feedback:

1. Express your feelings about the work/assignment/behavior - without attacking the child. - "I'm disappointed about the hitting that I just saw going on." "I'm concerned because this paper was unorganized."
2. State your expectations. - "I expect for all children in this classroom to be safe and respect others." "I expect to see evidence of an outline, and for you to come to me if you are having problems BEFORE you turn in the assignment."
3. Show to student how to make amends. - "What Johnny needs is an apology. What I need is a contract that you won't hit in this classroom again." "What this paper needs is a revised outline."
4. Give the student a choice. - "You can write Johnny an apology or tell him in person." "You can turn in a new outline for 10 points or redo the entire paper for 20 points."
5. Problem-Solve. - "What can we work out that you will do in the future when you get mad, instead of hitting?" "What can we agree to do for future papers so that this doesn't happen again?"

Providing Feedback and Encouraging Student Autonomy (cont.)

Encouraging Autonomy:

1. Let students make choices. – "Are you in the mood for working in groups today, or on your own?"
2. Show respect for a student's struggle. – "Long division can be really hard to do. Sometimes it helps to..." "I could see that this was a tough assignment for you."
3. Don't ask too many questions. – "I'm happy to see that you finally turned in the assignment."
4. Don't rush to answer questions. – "That's an interesting question. What do you think?"
5. Encourage students to use outside sources. – "Maybe the encyclopedia would have the answer to that one."
6. Don't take away hope. – "So you want to build the blocks up ten feet high! That should be an experience."
7. Stay out of the minutiae of student's lives. – Do NOT say: "Why do you write with your nose on the paper?" "Take your hair out of your eyes. How can you see what you're doing?"
8. Don't talk about a student in front of him – no matter how young the child.
9. Let a student answer for herself.
10. Show respect for a student's eventual "readiness." – "I'm not concerned. When you're ready, you'll start singing with us."
11. Watch out for too many "No's." Instead:
    - Give information.
      Student: Can I go out to the playground now?" Instead of, "No, you can't."
      Give the facts: "We're starting an art project in five minutes."
    - Accept feelings.
      Student: "I don't want to take the test now. Can't we wait until tomorrow?" Instead of, "No, we have to take the test now!" Accept feelings: "I can see if it were up to you, you'd put off the test." (As you pass out the tests) "It's really scary to take tests sometimes."
    - Describe the problem.
      Student: "Can we eats snacks now?" – Instead of, "No, we can't. You'll just have to wait."
      Describe the problem: "I'd like for us all to be able to eat. The problem is that the library doesn't allow food because it can damage the books."
    - When possible, substitute a "yes" for a "no."
      Student: Can we go to the playground?" Instead of, "No, you haven't had your lunch yet."
      Substitute a "yes": "Yes, certainly. Right after lunch."
    - Give yourself time to think.
      Student: "Can we postpone the test?" Instead of, "No, we can't!"
      Give yourself a chance to think: "Let me think about it for the rest of the period."

Read more about it . . .

Diversity in the Classroom

The Family and Youth Services Bureau of the U.S. Dept. of Health & Human Services states that programs:

> are moving from the individually-focused "medical model" to a clearer understanding of the many external causes of our social problems...why young people growing up in intergenerational poverty and amidst decaying buildings and failing inner-city infrastructures are likely to respond in rage or despair. It is no longer surprising that lesbian and gay youth growing up in communities that do not acknowledge their existence might surrender to suicide in greater numbers than their peers. We are beginning to accept that social problems are indeed more often the problems of society than the individual.
>
> These changes, however, have not occurred without some resistance and backlash, nor are they universal. Racism, bigotry, religious discrimination, homophobia, and lack of sensitivity to the needs of special populations continue to affect the lives of each new generation. Powerful leaders and organizations throughout the country continue to promote the exclusion of people who are "different," resulting in the disabling by-products of hatred, fear, and unrealized potential.
>
> ...We will not move toward diversity until we promote inclusion... Programs will not accomplish any of (their) central missions unless... (their approach reflects) knowledge, sensitivity, and a willingness to learn.
>
> From *A Guide to Enhancing the Cultural Competence of Runaway and Homeless Youth Programs*, from the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (1994).

All efforts to address barriers to learning and promote healthy development must consider significant individual and group differences. The following pages focus on understanding and celebrating diversity.

Excerpted from:
L.Derman-Sparks (1989), *Anti-Bias Curriculum: Tools For Empowering Young Children.* ERIC/EECE Digest. Washington, DC: NAEYC.

Following Banks' notion of multiple identities (Banks, 1988, p. 43), every child comes to school with an ethnic identity, whether or not these identifications are conscious or unconscious. This identification must be recognized and respected by the teachers. It must be the basis for the learning activities in the classroom. The point here is to acknowledge differences rather than ignore them. It is equally critical that the children recognize and appreciate their own ethnicity and learn to appreciate those of the other children in the class. This recognition of individual ethnic identities is the beginning point, it is a connector of both the teacher to the student and the students to each other. It is the basic building block in the learning process which requires knowing where the child is relative to him/herself and the content to be addressed. This ethnic identification is a continual point of focus throughout the educational process and is the basis for developing the next level of identification, which is a national identification.

The national identity of the individual requires his/her understanding and commitment to the

democratic ideals such as human dignity, justice and equality. Here the focus is on becoming effective members of a democratic society. An individual's strong national identification is essential to his/her development of a global identity. As our society becomes more and more dependent on other societies, it is critical that the schools address the problems of the world as a whole. The development of the global identification provides the students with the opportunity to see how as a nation we fit into the world society. It allows the students to better understand that the actions of a nation must not only be viewed in terms of the implications for that nation but what are the effects on the whole world. Children who have developed both a strong ethnic and national identity should have the perspective to also develop a global identification which should in turn make them better citizens of the world community.

Multicultural Education is education that allows all students to reach their potential as learners. It respects diversity while teaching all children to become effective and participating members of a democracy. It respects individuality while promoting respect for others. It emphasizes the contributions of the various groups (e.g., ethnic, gender, religious, sexual orientation, etc.) that make up the population of this country. It focuses on how to learn rather than on learning specific information. It acknowledges that different children have different learning styles. It emphasizes understanding in terms of different perspectives rather than learning just the facts. It takes into consideration the learner and his or her relationship to the material. It recognizes that the measure of one's learning is not only the new information or understandings that one has gained but also includes the extent to which the learner has changed relative to the material. It helps the students make sense out of their everyday life. It facilitates communication between students, their teachers and the rest of society. It encourages students to learn how to resolve conflicts in non-violent ways and finally, it promotes world peace and harmony. Developing a multicultural classroom means more than adopting a multicultural curriculum. [There are] 3 major components:

The Curriculum:

Includes contributions made by different ethnic groups, perspectives of different ethnic groups, provides positive models of different ethnic groups, provides opportunities for students to discuss racial and ethnicity related questions in a non threatening atmosphere, encourages interactions between children from different ethnic groups in learning activities, encourages children to bring examples of everyday life into the classroom as part of their learning.

The Teacher:

- Every teacher must reflect on his or her experiences and assess his or her attitudes, prejudice, values as they relate to dealing with people from different ethnic groups.
- Support groups for teachers need to be formed where they can openly discuss and debate multicultural issues. These groups need to be multicultural groups of small enough size that everyone has an opportunity to participate.
- Inservice training needs to be provided to all teachers using new materials in order that they feel comfortable in using them.

The Students:

Every student, no matter what age, comes to school with a set of values which reflects his or her upbringing. Many of these values are related to their perceptions about different ethnic groups. In the multicultural classroom these values need to be made explicit and explored. It is important that classroom rules reflect the value of diversity and respect for different cultures while at the same time realizing that a climate conducive to learning is required. (Covert, 1996)

Excepted from J. Bisson & L. Derman-Sparks (1992). *Implementing an Anti-Bias Curriculum in Early Childhood Classrooms.* ERIC Identifier: ED351146

Children are aware of differences in color, language, gender, and physical ability at a very young age. Numerous research studies about the process of identity and attitude development conclude that children learn by observing the differences and similarities among people and by absorbing the spoken and unspoken messages about those differences. The biases and negative stereotypes about various aspects of human diversity prevalent in our society undercut all children's healthy development and ill-equip them to interact effectively with many people in the world. Consequently, anti-bias curriculum seeks to nurture the development of every child's fullest potential by actively addressing issues of diversity and equity in the classroom.

Specific curriculum goals of anti-bias curriculum are to foster each child's:

- construction of a knowledgeable, confident self-identity;
- comfortable, empathic interaction with people from diverse backgrounds;
- critical thinking about bias;
- ability to stand up for herself or himself, and for others, in the face of bias.

A belief in the value of human diversity and the fair treatment of all people is a prerequisite for doing anti-bias work. When teachers become committed to learning how to implement anti-bias curricula in their settings, they seem to go through four identifiable phases.

Creating the Climate

Phase one involves teachers raising their own awareness of anti-bias issues related to themselves, their program, and the children in their care. A support group is essential for this process. Cooperative learning is the best method for developing anti-bias awareness and knowledge. Everyone needs the diverse perspectives and honest feedback of peers to develop new insights and teaching practices. Support group members may be other staff, parents, or early childhood teachers who want anti-bias curriculum for their children. Groups should meet regularly--at least once a month. Group members can build self-awareness by asking introspective questions and talking over responses with others committed to doing anti-bias work. Useful questions are, How did I become aware of the various aspects of my identity? What differences among people make me feel uncomfortable? When have I experienced or witnessed bias in my life and how did I respond? Group members should work toward facing biases and discomforts and eliminating their influence on teaching.

Another step in this process involves finding out what ideas children have about diversity by observing and interviewing them. Teachers can ask questions such as, What do you know about Indians? What makes you a girl or boy? What kind of work could this person do? (while showing a picture of a person in a wheelchair). Teachers can evaluate children's answers for signs of misinformation and discomfort. Responses alert the teacher to necessary directions for curriculum activities. The reading of research studies about children's development of identity and attitudes will also fill out the framework for curriculum decisions.

Evaluating the classroom environment and beginning to make necessary changes is the third component of phase one. Teachers must take a critical look at all the materials in the classroom environment, asking themselves what messages about diversity the children get from the materials. Do children see abundant images of people that reflect diverse abilities and current racial, ethnic, gender, and economic diversity? Do the images include depictions of important individuals who participated in struggles for justice? (See the first chapter in Derman-Sparks, 1992 for ideas.) After this evaluation, teachers can make a plan for buying and making needed new materials and eliminating inappropriate stereotypical materials.

Finally, teachers can begin to identify parents who might be interested in anti-bias curriculum, and invite them to participate in the process of changing the environment.

Non-Systematic Implementation

In the second phase, a teacher begins to explore the process of doing anti-bias activities. "Teachable

moments" that arise from observing and interviewing children are one starting point. For example, the arrival of a child who uses leg braces may stimulate questions or discomfort from some children. The teacher can get ideas about what to do by reading relevant curriculum materials, talking with other teachers about how they might handle the situation, and taking the plunge of initiating some activities. A teacher who observes children insisting on role-playing only stereotypical gender roles in dramatic play could initiate activities that expand children's awareness of gender roles. These might involve visiting workplaces, inviting visitors to the classroom, or reading a book about girls and boys doing nontraditional as well as traditional activities.

Teacher-initiated activities are another starting place for exploring anti-bias curriculum. For example, an activity about skin color, such as mixing paints to find children's individual skin colors, can be included in the frequently used curriculum theme of "I'm Me; I'm Special!"

In this second phase, it is crucial to begin involving all parents. Parents should be informed about how and why anti-bias activities are now part of the children's curriculum and invited to participate. Newsletters, parent meetings, and individual conferences are all useful. Plan a parent education session about how children develop identity and attitudes.

As teachers explore the process of doing anti-bias work with children and parents, they also continue their own personal growth on anti-bias issues. Once implementation is underway, ongoing support groups remain essential to share the successes, evaluate the mistakes, provide encouragement, and plan what to do next.

Systematic Implementation

After spending some time trying out anti-bias activities, a teacher is ready to do more systematic, long-term planning. The teacher can step back, take a look at what has happened, and ask, What issues have surfaced? What has been accomplished? What areas need further work?

Teachers can consider ways to regularly integrate all anti-bias goals and issues into all aspects of the ongoing curriculum. Children's backgrounds and developmental needs should be taken into account in the planning of culturally inclusive curricula. Parents should regularly be involved in the planning and implementation of activities, and in group discussions about specific anti-bias issues. Teachers should continue to work on personal issues that arise in the course of teaching children and parents and continue to meet with a support group.

Ongoing Integration

In this phase, the anti-bias perspective becomes a filter through which the teacher plans, implements, and evaluates all materials, activities, and interactions with children, parents, and staff. Learning about diversity and equity permeates all activities. As children engage in activities, they respond with comments and questions that become further "teachable moments." Teachers then plan more activities in response, which in turn lead to more teachable moments from the children, and the cycle continues as a part of daily classroom life. The teacher adapts curriculum to the changing needs of children; continues to consult with parents about their current issues; and continues to deepen his or her own awareness of anti-bias issues. Doing anti-bias curriculum is now a way of life.

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Read more about it . . .

Excerpts from

Understanding the causes of a student's problems

from the Center's Continuing Education Module: *Addressing Barriers to Learning: New Directions for Mental Health in Schools*

The following is a way to think about the implications of a broad framework for understanding the causes of students' problems.

This way of thinking offers a useful *starting* place for classifying behavioral, emotional, and learning problems and helps avoid overdiagnosing internal pathology.

As illustrated below, such problems can be differentiated along a continuum that separates those caused by internal factors, environmental variables, or a combination of both.

Problems Categorized on a Continuum Using a Transactional View of the Primary Locus of Cause

Problems caused by factors in the environment (E)	Problems caused equally by environment and person	Problems caused by factors in the the person (P)
E (E↔p)	E↔P (e↔P)	P
Type I problems	Type II problems	Type III problems
• caused primarily by environments and systems that are deficient and/or hostile • problems are mild to moderately severe and narrow to moderately pervasive	• caused primarily by a significant *mismatch* between individual differences and vulnerabilities and the nature of that person's environment (not by a person's pathology) • problems are mild to moderately severe and pervasive	• caused primarily by person factors of a pathological nature • problems are moderate to profoundly severe and moderate to broadly pervasive

In this conceptual scheme, the emphasis in each case is on problems that are beyond the early stage of onset.

To highlight a few points about the illustration:

- Problems caused by the environment are placed at one end of the continuum and referred to as *Type I problems.*
- At the other end are problems caused primarily by pathology within the person; these are designated as *Type III problems.*
- In the middle are problems stemming from a relatively equal contribution of environmental and person sources, labelled *Type II problems.*

Also note that in this scheme, diagnostic labels denoting *extremely* dysfunctional problems *caused by pathological conditions within a person* are reserved for individuals who fit the Type III category.

> Obviously, some problems caused by pathological conditions within a person are not manifested in severe, pervasive ways, and there are persons without such pathology whose problems do become severe and pervasive. The intent is not to ignore these individuals. As a first categorization step, however, it is essential they not be confused with those seen as having Type III problems.

At the other end of the continuum are individuals with problems arising from factors outside the person (i.e., Type I problems). Many people grow up in impoverished and hostile environmental circumstances. Such conditions should be considered first in hypothesizing what *initially* caused the individual's behavioral, emotional, and learning problems. (After environmental causes are ruled out, hypotheses about internal pathology become more viable.)

To provide a reference point in the middle of the continuum, a Type II category is used. This group consists of persons who do not function well in situations where their individual differences and minor vulnerabilities are poorly accommodated or are responded to hostilely. The problems of an individual in this group are a relatively equal product of person characteristics and failure of the environment to accommodate that individual.

> There are, of course, variations along the continuum that do not precisely fit a category. That is, at each point between the extreme ends, environment-person transactions are the cause, but the degree to which each contributes to the problem varies. Toward the environment end of the continuum, environmental factors play a bigger role (represented as E<--->p). Toward the other end, person variables account for more of the problem (thus e<--->P).

Clearly, a simple continuum cannot do justice to the complexities associated with labeling and differentiating psychopathology and psychosocial problems.

Furthermore, some problems are not easily assessed or do not fall readily into a group due to a lack of information and comorbidity.

> Starting with a broad model of cause, however, helps practitioners counter tendencies to prematurely conclude that a problem is caused by pathology within the individual and thus helps avoid blaming the victim (Ryan, 1971).
>
> It also helps highlight the notion that improving the way the environment accommodates individual differences may be a sufficient intervention strategy.

Outlined on the next page is an aid for thinking about the many causes of learning, behavior, and emotional problems.

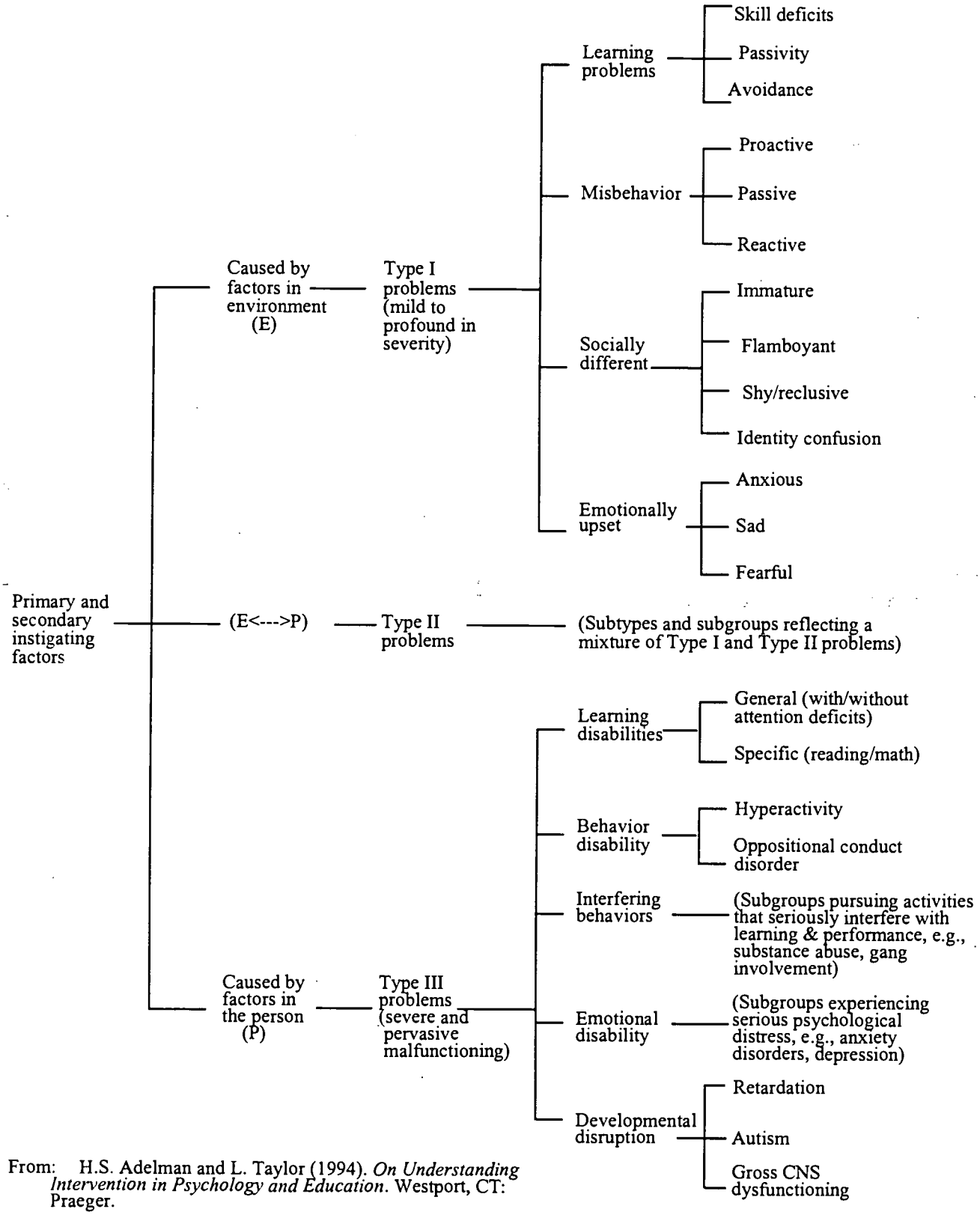
Factors Instigating Emotional, Behavioral, and Learning Problems

Environment (E)	*Person (P)*	*Interactions and Transactions Between E and P**
(Type I problem)	(Type III problems)	(Type II problems)
1. Insufficient stimuli (e.g.,prolonged periods in impoverished environments; deprivation of learning opportunities at home or school such as lack of play and practice situations and poor instruction; inadequate diet)	1. Physiological insult (e.g., cerebral trauma, such as accident or stroke, endocrine dysfunctions and chemical imbalances; illness affecting brain or sensory functioning)	1. Severe to moderate personal vulnerabilities and environmental defects and differences (e.g., person with extremely slow development in a highly demanding environment, all of which simultaneously and equally instigate the problem)
2. Excessive stimuli (e.g., overly demanding home, school, or work experiences, such as overwhelming pressure to achieve and contradictory expectations; overcrowding)	2. Genetic anomaly (e.g., genes which limit, slow down, or lead to any atypical development)	2. Minor personal vulnerabilities not accommodated by the situation (e.g., person with minimal CNS disorders resulting in auditory perceptual disability trying to do auditory-loaded tasks; very active person forced into situations at home, school, or work that do not tolerate this level of activity)
3. Intrusive and hostile stimuli (e.g., medical practices, especially at birth, leading to physiological impairment; contaminated environments; conflict in home, school, workplace; faulty child-rearing practices, such as long-standing abuse and rejection; dysfunctional family; migratory family; language used is a second language; social prejudices related to race, sex, age, physical characteristics and behavior)	3. Cognitive activity and affective states experienced by self as deviant (e.g., lack of knowledge or skills such as basic cognitive strategies; lack of ability to cope effectively with emotions, such as low self-esteem)	3. Minor environmental defects and differences not accommodated by the individual (e.g., person is in the minority racially or culturally and is not participating in many social activities because he or she thinks others may be unreceptive)
	4. Physical characteristics shaping contact with environment and/or experienced by self as deviant (e.g., visual, auditory, or motoric deficits; excessive or reduced sensitivity to stimuli; easily fatigued; factors such as race, sex, age, or unusual appearance that produce stereotypical responses)	
	5. Deviant actions of the individual (e.g., performance problems, such as excessive errors in performing; high or low levels of activity)	

*May involve only one (P) and one (E) variable or may involve multiple combinations.

From: H.S. Adelman and L. Taylor (1993). *Learning problems and learning disabilities: Moving forward.* Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole. Reprinted with permission.

The following diagram uses an understanding of person, environment, and interactional causes to outline and differentiate among the types of problems seen among students.



From: H.S. Adelman and L. Taylor (1994). *On Understanding Intervention in Psychology and Education*. Westport, CT: Praeger.

Read more about it . . .

Excerpts from
TEACHING STUDENTS WITH LEARNING DISABILITIES TO USE LEARNING STRATEGIES

by N. Sturomski. (1997). *NICHCY News Digest 25*

It is no secret that many students find learning a difficult and painful process. Learning may be made more difficult by any number of factors, including inadequate prior knowledge, poor study skills, problems with maintaining attention, cultural or language differences, and . . . the presence of a learning disability. . . .

The Need to Be Strategic Learners

Notwithstanding the difficulties that students with learning disabilities often experience with learning, they have the same need as their peers without disabilities to acquire the knowledge, skills, and strategies – both academic and non-academic – that are necessary for functioning independently on a day-to-day basis in our society. Perhaps one of the most important skills they need to learn is *how* to learn. Knowing that certain techniques and strategies can be used to assist learning, knowing which techniques are useful in which kinds of learning situations, and knowing how to use the techniques are powerful tools that can enable students to become strategic, effective, and lifelong learners.

Teachers can be enormously helpful in this regard. They can introduce students to specific strategies and demonstrate when and how the strategies are used. Students can then see how a person thinks or what a person does when using the strategies. Teachers can provide opportunities for students to discuss, reflect upon, and practice the strategies with classroom materials and authentic tasks. By giving feedback, teachers help students refine their use of strategies and learn to monitor their own usage. Teachers may then gradually fade reminders and guidance so that students begin to assume responsibility for strategic learning.

What, Exactly, Are Learning Strategies?

Simply put, learning strategies are the tools and techniques we use to help ourselves understand and learn new material or skills; integrate this new information with what we already know in a way that makes sense; and recall the information or skill later, even in a different situation or place. When we are trying to learn or do a task, our strategies include what we *think* about (the cognitive aspect of the strategy) and what we *physically do* (the behavioral or overt action we take).

Strategies can be simple or complex, unconsciously applied or used with great awareness and deliberation. Simple learning strategies that many of us have used, particularly in school settings, include: note-taking, making a chart, asking the teacher questions, asking ourselves questions, re-reading when something does not make sense, looking at the reading questions before beginning reading, checking our work, making an outline before beginning to write, asking a friend to look over our composition, rehearsing a presentation aloud, making up a goofy rhyme to remember someone's name, using resource books, drawing a picture that uses every new vocabulary word we have to learn, or mapping in sequence the events of a story. Complex strategies tend actually to be a set of several different strategies that are used in tandem (and recursively) to accomplish a complex learning task such as writing a composition or reading a passage and answering questions. For example, a complex set of strategies for writing a composition might involve three recursive stages: planning, writing, and revising. Each of these stages can involve using many different strategies. When planning, for instance, we might think hard about the audience that will be reading what we've written (e.g., what do they need or want to know, or how can we best capture and hold their attention?), write an outline, and identify points where we need to gather more information in order to write effectively. When actually writing, we might focus on stating our main ideas well, supporting them with appropriate details, and summarizing our main points in the conclusion. Revising may have several mini stages: looking back while writing to make sure we're following our outline (or deciding to abandon parts of the outline), laying aside the composition for a day, then rereading it with a fresh eye. We might also check to make sure we've

used correct punctuation and grammar, consult a dictionary or other resource guide when we're uncertain, and ask someone else to read what we've written and give us feedback. We also move back and forth between these three stages--thinking and planning, writing for a while, rereading to see how we're doing, thinking of how to fix mistakes or add new information, writing again--and on until we're finished.

Strategies can also be categorized in many different ways. Distinctions have been made, for instance, between cognitive and metacognitive strategies. *Cognitive strategies* help a person process and manipulate information -- examples include taking notes, asking questions, or filling out a chart. Cognitive strategies tend to be very task-specific, meaning that certain cognitive strategies are useful when learning or performing certain tasks. *Metacognitive strategies* are more executive in nature. They are the strategies that a student uses when planning, monitoring, and evaluating learning or strategy performance. For this reason, they are often referred to as self-regulatory strategies.

The use of metacognitive strategies indicates that the student is aware of learning as a process and of what will facilitate learning. Taking the time to plan before writing, for example, shows that the student knows what is involved in writing a good composition. Similarly, he or she might monitor comprehension while reading and take action when something does not make sense -- for example, look back in the text for clarification or consciously hold the question in mind while continuing to read. Evaluating one's work, learning, or even strategy use is also highly metacognitive in nature, because it shows that a learner is aware of and thinking about how learning takes place.

Metacognitive strategies are at the core of self-regulated learning, which, in turn, is at the core of successful and lifelong learning. Self-regulation involves such strategies as goal-setting, self-instruction, self-monitoring, and self-reinforcement . . . . It's easy to see why self-regulated learners tend to achieve academically. They set goals for learning, talk to themselves in positive ways about learning and use self-instruction to guide themselves through a learning problem, keep track of (or monitor) their comprehension or progress, and reward themselves for success. Just as students can be helped to develop their use of cognitive, task-specific strategies, so can they be helped to use self-regulatory, metacognitive ones as well. In fact, the most effective strategy interventions combine the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies.

Effective Teaching Methods

Just as there are effective approaches to learning, there are effective approaches to teaching. A great deal of research has been conducted into the nature of effective teaching, and much has been learned, ... such as teaching in small steps, practicing after each step, guiding students during initial practice, and providing all students with opportunities for success. . . . successful teachers use lesson strategies to provide students with both direct instruction and the opportunity for practice. Lesson strategies include: communicating the rules and expectations of the lesson, stating instructional objectives and linking them to previous lessons, providing numerous examples, prompting student responses, and providing drill and further practice immediately following incorrect responses. . . . effective teachers limit seatwork activities, provide ample opportunities for student overlearning through teacher questioning, and allow time to socially interact with students....

Teaching Students to Use Learning Strategies

As with the basic tenets of effective teaching, much has been learned through research regarding effective learning strategy instruction. A well articulated strategies instructional approach known as the Strategies Integration Model (SIM) . . . .

First, of course, the teacher must select a strategy -- most likely, a set of strategies -- to teach to students. The decision of what strategy to teach, however, should not be arbitrary. Rather, the strategy should be clearly linked to (i.e., useful in completing) the tasks that students need to perform and where they need to perform them. When the strategy instruction is matched to student need, students tend to be more motivated to learn and use the strategy. . . .

[Then:]

1. Pretest Students and Get Them Interested in Learning the Strategy Although the teacher may not wish to call this step "testing," it is nonetheless important to know how much the students already

know about using the strategy and to secure their commitment to learning the strategy from top to bottom.

Letting students know that gains in learning can occur when the strategy is used effectively is one of the keys to motivating them. Studies have shown that it is important to tell students directly that they are going to learn a strategy that can help them in their reading, writing, or whatever skill is being addressed through the strategy. They also need to know that their effort and persistence in learning and in using the strategy can bring them many learning benefits. . . .

The pretest should be primarily focused on completing the task (e.g., reading a passage and answering questions). Following the pretest, the class should discuss results. How did students do? Were they able to perform the task successfully? What types of errors did they make? What did they do, or think about, to help themselves while taking the pretest? What difficulties did they have, and how did they address those difficulties? If students did not perform particularly well, the teacher then indicates that he or she knows of a strategy or technique that will help students perform that task more successfully in the future.

Obtaining a commitment from students to learn the strategy, according to the SIM model, can involve any number of approaches, including discussing the value of the strategy, the likelihood that success will not be immediate upon learning the strategy but will come if the student is willing to persevere and practice the strategy, and the teacher's own commitment to helping the students learn the strategy. . . .

2. Describe the Strategy. In this stage, ... a clear definition of the strategy must be given, as well as some of the benefits to learning the strategy. The teacher should also identify real assignments in specific classes where students can apply the strategy and ask students if they can think of other work where the strategy might be useful. Students should also be told the various stages involved in learning the strategy, so they know what to expect....During the description stage, the class may also discuss how this new approach to a specific task differs from what students are currently using. The stage should conclude with a review of what has been said.

3. Model the Strategy. Modeling the strategy for students is an essential component of strategy instruction. In this stage, teachers overtly use the strategy to help them perform a relevant classroom or authentic task, talking aloud as they work so that students can observe how a person thinks and what a person does while using the strategy, including: deciding which strategy to use to perform the task at hand, working through the task using that strategy, monitoring performance (i.e., is the strategy being applied correctly, and is it helping the learner complete the work well?), revising one's strategic approach, and making positive self-statements. . . . .

4. Practice the Strategy. Repeated opportunities to practice the strategy are important as well. The more students and teachers collaborate to use the strategy, the more internalized the strategy will become in students' strategic repertoire. Initial practice may be largely teacher-directed, with teachers continuing to model appropriate ways of thinking about the task at hand and deciding (with increasing student direction) which strategy or action is needed to work through whatever problems arise in completing the task.

Students may also be called upon to "think aloud" as they work through the practice tasks, explaining the problems they are having, decisions they are making, or physical actions they are taking, and what types of thoughts are occurring to them as they attempt to solve the problems, make the decisions, or take the physical actions. These student think alouds should increasingly show the strategy being used to help them complete the task successfully.

In the beginning, students should practice using the strategy with materials that are at or slightly below their comfort level, so they do not become frustrated by overly difficult content. Using materials that are well matched to the strategy is also important, because then students can readily see the strategy's usefulness. As time goes by and students become more proficient in using the strategy, materials that are more difficult should be used.

5. Provide Feedback. The feedback that teachers give students on their strategy use is a critical component in helping students learn how to use a strategy effectively and how to change what they are doing when a particular approach is not

working. Much of the feedback can be offered as students become involved in thinking aloud about the task and about strategy use, in the modelling and practice steps described above. It is also important to provide opportunities for students to reflect upon their approach to and completion of the task. What aspects of the task did they complete well? What aspects were hard? Did any problems arise, and what did they do to solve the problems? What might they do differently the next time they have to complete a similar task?

The Importance of Positive Self-Statements

Teachers may find that it's important to address the negative feelings that many students with learning disabilities have about learning and about themselves. Often, these students believe that they cannot learn, that the work is simply too difficult, or that any success they might achieve is due to luck. They might not readily believe they can achieve success in learning through their own effort and strategic activities and thoughts, and so they may not persist in using strategies. Just as teachers can help students develop strategic approaches to learning, teachers can help students learn to attribute success in learning to their own effort and use of strategies. Modeling positive self-statements, and encouraging students to use such self-talk, are essential.

Examples of positive self-statements that attribute success to effort and not to luck include: "I can probably do this problem because I've done similar ones successfully." "I'm usually successful when I work carefully and use the learning strategy correctly." "If I make a mistake, I can probably find it and correct it."... Changing students' perceptions about themselves and about the connection between effort and success can be a vital element in their willingness to keep trying in the face of challenge, using learning strategies as a valuable tool.

6. Promote Generalization. It is important for students to be able to apply the strategy in novel situations and with novel tasks. Surprisingly, many students will not recognize that the strategy they have been learning and practicing may be ideal for helping them to complete a learning task in a different classroom or learning situation . . . .

Therefore, teachers need to discuss with students what generalization is and how and when students might use the strategy in other settings. An important part of this discussion will be looking at the actual work that students have in other classes and discussing with students how the strategy might be useful in completing that work. Being specific --actually going through the steps of the strategy with that work -- is highly beneficial. Students can also be called upon to generate their own lists of instances where they might apply the strategy in other classes. Additionally, teachers may wish to coordinate between themselves to promote student use of strategies across settings, so that the strategies being taught in one classroom are mentioned and supported by other teachers as well. All of these approaches will promote student generalization of the strategy.

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Read more about it . . .

ABOUT SHY OR WITHDRAWN STUDENTS

Excerpts from *Teaching Problem Students* by Jere Brophy (1996). New York, Guilford. Adapted as an ERIC Digest, entitled "Working with Shy or Withdrawn Students." ED402070; Publication Date: 1996-11-00

Among students who are (compared to their peers) inactive in the classroom, many are well adjusted academically and socially but relatively quiet and content to work independently. Some are problematically shy or withdrawn in varying degrees . . . . [The focus here is] on the middle range of such students, who are commonly described as SHY (inhibited, lacking in confidence, socially anxious) or WITHDRAWN (unresponsive, uncommunicative, or daydreaming).

A degree of shyness is normal whenever social expectations are new or ambiguous. Shyness begins to emerge as a problem if it becomes not merely situational but dispositional, so that the child is LABELED as shy. Especially if the child internalizes this label, a generalized pattern of shyness may become established and begin to include such additional symptoms as diffidence about entering social situations, discomfort and inhibition in the presence of others, exaggerated self-concern, and increasingly negative social self-concepts . . . .

Varieties and Causes of Shyness and Withdrawal in the Classroom

Symptoms of shyness or withdrawal may appear as part of the student's overall personality or as a situation-specific response to a particular stress factor. Children are especially susceptible to self-consciousness in social situations that make them feel conspicuous and psychologically unprotected. Other types of social unresponsiveness may result from specific experiences or environmental causes. Some children have not developed effective conversational skills because their parents seldom converse with them or respond positively to their verbal initiations, and they have not had much opportunity to interact with peers. This circumstance may explain some of the shyness seen in kindergarten and first grade. Children starting school for the first time may exhibit . . . fear of the unknown or unwillingness to be separated from the parent . . . . Social anxiety can also develop as an ongoing reaction to repeated failure, mistreatment, or rejection from adults or peers. Some students may show good peer group adjustment and ability to interact socially with the teacher, but they may display communication apprehension when asked to answer academic questions, perform in public, or engage in an activity that they know will be evaluated. Finally, many students experience at least temporary social adjustment problems when they change schools or classes.

Suggested Strategies for Coping with Shy or Withdrawn Students

Strategies for coping with shy or withdrawn students include peer involvement, teacher interventions, and other kinds of psychological interventions.

Peer Involvement. . . . Such efforts might include involving shy students in cross-age tutoring programs, creating opportunities for them to play in pairs with younger children, enlisting peers as confederates to draw out withdrawn children, and involving them in small group, cooperative classroom activities.

Teacher Interventions. Brophy surveyed effective teachers to find out how they responded to shy students. The most commonly mentioned responses included (1) changing their social environment (e.g., seating them among friendly classmates or assigning them to a partner or small group), (2) encouraging or shaping increased responsiveness, (3) minimizing stress or embarrassment, (4) engaging shy students in special activities, and (5) involving them in frequent private talks. Conspicuously absent from these teachers' responses was emphasis on threat or punishment.

Other Interventions. . . . recommendations from school psychologists for coping with general student shyness or withdrawal echo many of these same themes. They suggested encouraging children to join volunteer groups or

recreational organizations outside of school; involving them frequently in small-group, cooperative interaction with peers; using them as peer tutors; determining their peer preferences and seating them near preferred peers; leading but not forcing them to communicate; avoiding putting them in situations that would be embarrassing or frightening; and assigning them to messenger roles or other tasks that require communication. For students whose withdrawal symptoms include excessive daydreaming, researchers suggest calling on them frequently, standing near them to ensure attention, making sure that they get started successfully on their assignment at the beginning of work time rather than scolding them for daydreaming, stressing the need for attention and participation, and assigning partners to work with them and keep them involved. The following specific teacher strategies for coping with shy or withdrawn students are suggested by the work of several researchers over the last two decades . . .

- use interest inventories to determine interests of shy students, then follow up by using these interests as bases for conversations or learning activities;
- display their (good) artwork or assignments for others to see in the classroom;
- assign them as a partner to, or promote their friendship with, a classmate who is popular and engages in frequent contact with peers;
- check with these students frequently if they are prone to daydreaming;
- help shy children to set social development goals and assist them by providing training in assertiveness, initiating interactions with peers, or other social skills;
- provide them with information needed to develop social insight (e.g., explaining that new students often have trouble making friends at first, or that teasing does not necessarily mean that peers do not like you), suggesting ways for them to initiate productive peer contacts or to respond more effectively to peer initiations;
- provide them with a designated role that will give them something to do and cause them to interact with others in social situations in which they might otherwise become shy and retreat to the fringes of the group;
- teach them social "door openers" for greeting others and speaking to them in person or on the telephone, especially assertive requests ("Can I play, too?");
- make time to talk with them each day, even if just for a few minutes, and listen carefully and respond specifically to what they tell you; and
- use bibliotherapy materials such as "The Shy Little Girl," a story by P. Krasilovsky about a sad and shy girl who becomes more outgoing.

Shy children [also] may need direct instruction in social skills, such as those included in various social skills training programs intended for elementary school students. . . .

Conclusion

Teachers may be able to help shy and withdrawn students considerably by using strategies that are relatively easy to implement and well matched to the teacher's basic role as a helpful instructor to students. These strategies include providing self-concept support, encouragement, and opportunities to develop confidence and comfort in the classroom to shy and inhibited students, as well as closer monitoring, improved nonverbal communication, environmental engineering, and instructive suggestions or demands for improved concentration designed to maintain the attention of students prone to withdrawal or daydreaming. Most teachers seem to develop an intuitive understanding of some of the needs of shy or withdrawn students, but many could meet these needs more effectively by systematically applying the principles and strategies highlighted here.

Read more about it . . .

THE RESCUE TRAP

So you want to help! That's a nice attitude, but it can sometimes lead to trouble--especially if you aren't aware of the interpersonal dynamics that can arise in helping relationships. Several concerns have been discussed in the psychotherapy literature. One that almost everyone has experienced has been described as a "rescue."

> A *rescue* is helping gone astray. Rescues encompass a cycle of negative interpersonal transactions that too commonly arise when one person sets out to intervene in another's life in order to help the person.

Think about a time when someone you know told you about a problem she or he was having. Because the person seemed not to know how to handle the problem, you offered some suggestions. For each idea you offered, the person had an excuse for why it wouldn't work. After a while, you started to feel frustrated and maybe even a bit angry at the person. You may have thought or said to the individual, "You don't really want to solve this problem; you just want to complain about it."

> In rescue terms, you tried to help, but the person didn't work with you to solve the problem. The individual's failure to try may have frustrated you, and you felt angry and wanted to tell the person off. And that may only have been the beginning of a prolonged series of unpleasant interpersonal transactions related to the situation.

If you were ever in such a situation, you certainly experienced the price a person pays for assuming the role of rescuer. Of course, you know you didn't mean to become involved in a negative set of transactions. You wanted to help, but you didn't realize fast enough that the individual with the problem wasn't about to work with you in order to solve it. And you didn't know what to do when things started going wrong with the process.

> If you can't remember a time you were the rescuer, you may recall a time when someone tried to rescue you. Perhaps your parents, a teacher, or a good friend made the mistake of trying to help you when or in ways you didn't want to be helped. The person probably thought she or he was acting in your best interests, but it only made you feel upset -- perhaps increased your anxiety, frustration, anger, and maybe even made you feel rather inadequate.

Rescue cycles occur frequently between teachers and students and parents and their children. Well-intentioned efforts to help usually begin to go astray because someone tries to help at a time, in a way, or toward an end the person to be helped doesn't experience as positive.

> Let's take the example of a teacher, Ms. Benevolent, and one of her students, Jack. Ms. Benevolent is a new teacher who has just begun to work with a group of students with learning problems. She sees her students, Jack included, as handicapped individuals, and she wants so much to help them.

Unfortunately, Jack doesn't want to be helped at the moment. And when he doesn't want to be helped, Jack is not mobilized to work on solving his problems. Indeed, efforts to intervene often make him feel negative toward his teacher and even toward himself. For example, he may feel anger toward Ms. Benevolent and feel guilty and incompetent because of not working to solve his learning problem. Ironically, not only doesn't he see the teacher as a helper, he also feels victimized by her. In response to these feelings, he behaves in a self-protective and defensive manner. Sometimes he even assumes the stance of being a helpless victim. ("How can you expect me to do that? Don't you know I have a learning handicap?")

> Because Jack continues to respond passively or in ways the teacher views as inappropriate, eventually she becomes upset and starts to react to him in nonhelpful and sometimes provocative ways. She may even have a tendency to subtly persecute Jack for not being appreciative of all her efforts to help him. ("You're just lazy." "If your attitude doesn't improve, I'm going to have to call your parents.")

The more the teacher pushes Jack to act differently and attacks him for acting (and feeling) as he does, the more likely he is to feel victimized. However, sooner or later he is likely to become angry enough about being victimized that he reacts and counterattacks. That is, if he can, he shifts from the role of victim to the role of persecutor.

> When interveners who see themselves as benevolent helpers are attacked, they may tend to feel victimized. Indeed, the experience of having been unsuccessful in helping may be sufficient to make some interveners feel this way. As Jack shifts to a persecuting role, Ms. Benevolent adopts a victim role. ("After all I've done for you, how can you treat me this way?" "All I'm trying to do is help you.")

Of course, interveners are unlikely to remain victims for very long if they can help it. If they do, "burn out" may well occur.

> Sometimes, after the fighting stops, the parties make up, and the intervener starts to see the other person's behavior as part of the individual's problems and tries once more to help. However, if great care is not taken, this just begins the whole cycle again.

How can the cycle be avoided or broken? One of the essential ingredients in a good helping relationship is a person who wants to be helped. Thus, it is necessary to be sure that the person is ready and willing to pursue the type of help that is being offered.

> If the person is not ready and willing, interveners are left with only a few options. For one, the intervener can choose to give up trying to help. Or if it is essential that the individual be *forced* to do something about the problem, the intervener can adopt a socialization strategy. Or effort can be made to explore with the individual whether he or she wants to think about accepting some help. In effect, this last approach involves trying to establish motivational readiness.

Read more about it . . .

Excerpts from

Including Students with Disabilities in General Education Classrooms. ERIC Digest #E521.(1993)

The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) requires that a continuum of placement options be available to meet the needs of students with disabilities. The law also requires that: "to the maximum extent appropriate, children with disabilities ... are educated with children who are not disabled, and that special classes, separate schooling, or other removal of children with disabilities from the regular environment occurs only when the nature or severity of the disability is such that education in regular classes with the use of supplementary aids and services cannot be attained satisfactorily." IDEA Sec. 612 (5) (B).

One of the educational options that is receiving increasing attention is meeting the needs of students with disabilities in the regular classroom. This digest is written for the practitioner who is working in the regular class environment with students who have disabilities.

Years of research have contributed to our knowledge of how to successfully include students with disabilities in general education classes. Listed below are the activities and support systems commonly found where successful inclusion has occurred.

Attitudes and Beliefs

- The regular teacher believes that the student can succeed.
- School personnel are committed to accepting responsibility for the learning outcomes of students with disabilities.
- School personnel and the students in the class have been prepared to receive a student with disabilities.
- Parents are informed and support program goals.
- Special education staff are committed to collaborative practice in general education classrooms.

Services and Physical Accommodations

- Services needed by the student are available (e.g., health, physical, occupational, or speech therapy).
- Accommodations to the physical plant and equipment are adequate to meet the student's needs (e.g., toys, building and playground facilities, learning materials, assistive devices).

School Support

- The principal understands the needs of students with disabilities.
- Adequate numbers of personnel, including aides and support personnel, are available.
- Adequate staff development and technical assistance, based on the needs of the school personnel, are being provided (e.g., information on disabilities, instructional methods, awareness and acceptance activities for students, and team building skills).
- Appropriate policies and procedures for monitoring individual student progress, including grading and testing, are in place.

Collaboration

- Special educators are part of the instructional or planning team.
- Teaming approaches are used for problem-solving and program implementation.
- Regular teachers, special education teachers, and other specialists collaborate (e.g., co-teaching, team teaching, teacher assistance teams).

Instructional Methods

- Teachers have the knowledge and skills needed to select and adapt curricula and instructional methods according to individual student needs.
- A variety of instructional arrangements are available (e.g., team teaching, cross-grade grouping, peer tutoring, teacher assistance teams).
- Teachers foster a cooperative learning environment and promote socialization.

Making it Work: a Sample Scenario

Classrooms that successfully include students with disabilities are designed to welcome diversity and to address the individual needs of all students, whether they have disabilities or not. The composite scenario below is based on reports from several teachers. It provides a brief description of how regular and special education teachers work together to address the individual needs of all of their students.

Jane Smith teaches third grade at Lincoln Elementary School. Three days a week, she co-teaches the class with Lynn Vogel, a special education teacher. Their 25 students include 4 who have special needs due to disabilities and 2 others who currently need special help in specific curriculum areas. Each of the students with a disability has an IEP that was developed by a team that included both teachers. The teachers, paraprofessionals, and the school principal believe that these students have a great deal to contribute to the class and that they will achieve their best in the environment of a general education classroom.

All of the school personnel have attended inservice training designed to develop collaborative skills for teaming and problem-solving. Mrs. Smith and the two paraprofessionals who work in the classroom also received special training on disabilities and on how to create an inclusive classroom environment. The school principal, Ben Parks, had worked in special education many years ago and has received training on the impact of new special education developments and instructional arrangements on school administration. Each year, Mr. Parks works with the building staff to identify areas in which new training is needed. For specific questions that may arise, technical assistance is available through a regional special education cooperative.

Mrs. Smith and Miss Vogel share responsibility for teaching and for supervising their two paraprofessionals. In addition to the time they spend together in the classroom, they spend 1 to 4 hours per week planning instruction, plus additional planning time with other teachers and support personnel who work with their students.

The teachers use their joint planning time to problem-solve and discuss the use of special instructional techniques for all students who need special assistance. Monitoring and adapting instruction for individual students is an ongoing activity. The teachers use curriculum-based measurement to systematically assess their students' learning progress. They adapt curricula so that lessons begin at the edge of the student's knowledge, adding new material at the student's pace, and presenting it in a style consistent with the student's learning style. For some students, preorganizers or chapter previews are used to bring out the most important points of the material to be learned; for other students, new vocabulary words may need to be highlighted or reduced reading levels may be required. Some students may use special activity worksheets, while others may learn best by using media or computer-assisted instruction.

In the classroom, the teachers group students differently for different activities. Sometimes, the teachers and para-professionals divide the class, each teaching a small group or tutoring individuals. They use cooperative learning projects to help the students learn to work together and develop social relationships. Peer tutors provide extra help to students who need it. Students without disabilities are more than willing to help their friends who have disabilities, and vice versa.

While the regular classroom may not be the best learning environment for every child with a disability, it is highly desirable for all who can benefit. It provides contact with age peers and prepares all students for the diversity of the world beyond the classroom.

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Note. An ERIC minibibliography, *Including Students with Disabilities,* is also available.

Read more about it . . .

School-Based Resource-Coordinating Teams

Establishing and sustaining a comprehensive approach for addressing barriers to learning and promoting healthy development at a school site requires a school-site infrastructure. Such an infrastructure must help reduce program marginalization and fragmentation and enhance cost-effective resource availability and use.

A key facet of such an infrastructure is a *Resource Coordinating Team* -- a mechanism initially piloted in the Los Angeles Unified School District and now being introduced at all schools in Memphis and Detroit. Such a school-site team focuses on weaving together existing school and community resources and increasing cohesive functioning of services and programs.

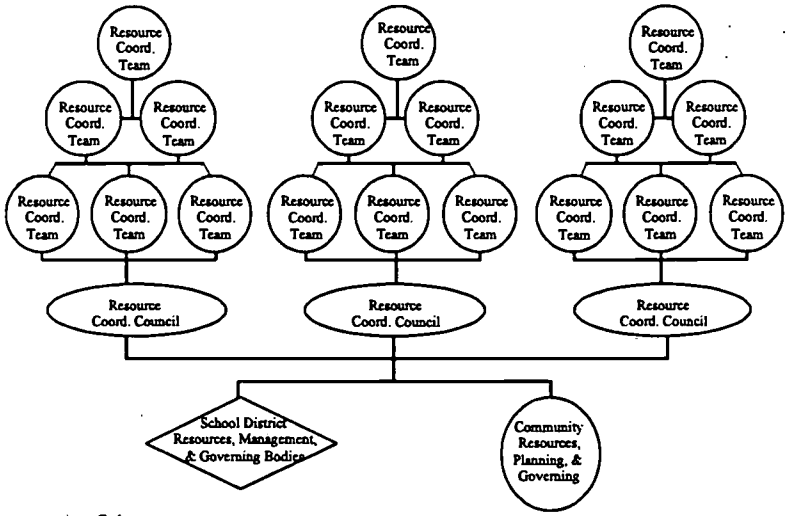
A resource oriented team *differs* from teams that review individual students (such as a student success or assistance team or a teacher assistance team). Its focus is not on specific individuals, but on how resources are used. In doing so, it provides what often is a missing link for managing and enhancing *systems* in ways that integrate and strengthen interventions. Such a team can (a) map and analyze activity and resources to improve their use, (b) build effective referral, case management, and quality assurance systems, (c) enhance procedures for management of programs and information and for communication among school staff and with the home, and (d) explore ways to redeploy and enhance resources -- such as clarifying which activities are nonproductive and suggesting better uses for resources, as well as reaching out to connect with additional resources in the school district and community.

A resource oriented team brings together representatives of all major programs and services supporting a school's instructional efforts. It can encompass school counselors, psychologists, nurses, social workers, attendance and dropout counselors, health educators, special education staff, bilingual program coordinators, one of the site's administrators, and representatives of any community agency that is significantly involved at the school. The intent also is to include the energies and expertise of one or more regular classroom teachers, noncertificated staff, parents, and older students. Where creation of "another team" is seen as a burden, existing teams, such as student or teacher assistance teams and school crisis teams, have demonstrated the ability to focus on enhancing resources and programs by augmenting their membership and agendas.

Properly constituted, trained, and supported, a resource oriented team complements the work of the site's governance body through providing on-site overview, leadership, and advocacy for all activity aimed at addressing barriers to learning and enhancing healthy development. Having at least one representative from the resource team on the school's governing and planning bodies ensures that essential programs and services are maintained, improved, and increasingly integrated with classroom instruction.

To facilitate resource coordination and enhancement among a complex of schools (e.g., a high school and its feeder middle and elementary schools), the mechanism of a Resource Coordinating *Council* brings together representatives of each school's resource *team* (see diagram below). A complex of schools can work together to achieve economies of scale. They also should work together because, in many cases, they are concerned with the same families (e.g., a family often has children at each level of schooling). Moreover, schools in a given locale usually are trying to establish linkages with the same set of community resources and can use a resource council to help ensure cohesive and equitable deployment of such resources.

Developing and connecting mechanisms at schools sites, among families of schools, and district and community-wide



(Adapted from the Center's quarterly newsletter: *Addressing Barriers to Learning*, Winter 2000)

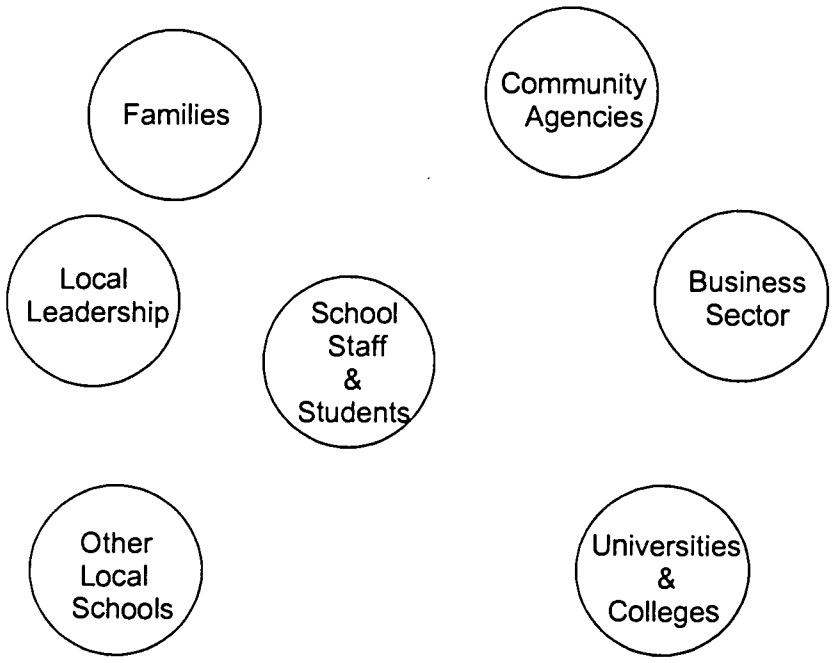
Read more about it . . .

WORKING RELATIONSHIPS

From the Center's Continuing Education Module:
Addressing Barriers to Learning:
New Directions for Mental Health in Schools

Connecting the dots . . .
The many stakeholders who can work together
to enhance programs and resources.

How many do you connect with?



Differences as a Problem
Differences as a Barrier
Overcoming Barriers Related to Differences
Building Rapport and Connection
One Other Observation

Treat people as if they were what they ought to be and you help them become what they are capable of being.

Goethe

A school's staff must be sensitive to a variety of human, community, and institutional differences and learn strategies for dealing with them. With respect to working with students and their parents, staff members encounter differences in

- sociocultural and economic background and current lifestyle
- primary language spoken
- skin color
- sex
- motivation for help

and much more.

Comparable differences are found in working with school personnel (certificated and non certificated, line staff and administrators).

In addition, there are differences related to power, status, and orientation.

And, for many newcomers to a school, the culture of schools in general and that of a specific school and community may differ greatly from other settings where they have lived and worked.

Differences as a Problem

For school staff, existing differences may make it difficult to establish effective working relationships with students and others who effect the student.

For example, many schools do not have staff who can reach out to students whose primary language is Spanish, Korean, Tagalog, Vietnamese, Cambodian, Armenian, and so forth.

And although workshops and presentations are offered in an effort to increase specific cultural awareness, what can be learned in this way is limited, especially when one is in a school of many cultures.

There also is a danger in prejudgments based on apparent cultural awareness. There are many reports of students who have been victimized by professionals who are so sensitized to cultural differences that they treat fourth generation Americans as if they had just migrated from their cultural homeland.

Obviously, it is desirable to hire staff who have the needed language skills and cultural awareness and who do not rush to prejudge. Given the realities of budgets and staff recruitment, however, schools cannot hire a separate specialist for all the major language, cultural, and skin color differences that exist in some schools.

Nevertheless, the objectives of accounting for relevant differences while respecting individuality can be appreciated and addressed.

Differences as a Barrier

As part of a working relationship, differences can be complementary and helpful -- as when staff from different disciplines work with and learn from each other.

Differences become a barrier to establishing effective working relationships when negative attitudes are allowed to prevail. Interpersonally, the result generally is conflict and poor communication.

For example, differences in status, skin color, power, orientation, and so forth can cause one or more persons to enter the situation with negative (including competitive) feelings. And such feelings often motivate conflict.

Many individuals (students, staff) who have been treated unfairly, been discriminated against, been deprived of opportunity and status at school, on the job, and in society use whatever means they can to seek redress and sometimes to strike back. Such an individual may promote conflict in hopes of correcting power imbalances or at least to call attention to a problem.

Often, however, power differentials are so institutionalized that individual action has little impact.

It is hard and frustrating to fight an institution. It is much easier and immediately satisfying to fight with other individuals one sees as representing that institution.

However, when this occurs where individuals are supposed to work together, those with negative feelings may act and say things in ways that produce significant barriers to establishing a working relationship. Often, the underlying message is "you don't understand," or worse yet "you probably don't want to understand." Or, even worse, "you are my enemy."

Differences as a Barrier

"You don't know what it's like to be poor."

"You're the wrong color to understand."

"You're being culturally insensitive."

"How can a woman understand a male student's problems?"

"Male therapists shouldn't work with girls who have been sexually abused."

"I never feel that young professionals can be trusted."

"Social workers (nurses/MDs/ psychologists/teachers) don't have the right training to help these kids."

"How can you expect to work effectively with school personnel when you understand so little about the culture of schools and are so negative toward them and the people who staff them?"

"If you haven't had alcohol or other drug problems, you can't help students with such problems."

"If you don't have teenagers at home, you can't really understand them."

"You don't like sports! How can you expect to relate to teenagers?"

You know, it's a tragedy in a way that Americans are brought up to think that they cannot feel for other people and other beings just because they are different.
Alice Walker

It is unfortunate when such barriers arise between students and those trying to help them; it is a travesty when such barriers interfere with the helpers working together effectively. Staff conflicts detract from accomplishing goals and contribute in a major way to "burn out."

Overcoming Barriers Related to Differences

When the problem is **only** one of poor skills, it is relatively easy to overcome. Most motivated professionals can be directly taught ways to improve communication and avoid or resolve conflicts that interfere with working relationships.

There are, however, no easy solutions to overcoming deeply embedded negative attitudes. Certainly, a first step is to understand that the nature of the problem is not differences per se but negative perceptions stemming from the politics and psychology of the situation.

It is these perceptions that lead to

- prejudgments that a person is bad because of an observed difference

and

- the view that there is little to be gained from working with that person.

Thus, minimally, the task of overcoming negative attitudes interfering with a particular working relationship is twofold.

To find ways

- to counter negative prejudgments (e.g., to establish the credibility of those who have been prejudged)

and

- to demonstrate there is something of value to be gained from working together.

Building Rapport and Connection

To be effective in working with another person (student, parent, staff), you need to build a positive relationship around the **tasks** at hand.

Necessary ingredients in building a working relationship are

* minimizing negative prejudgments about those with whom you will be working

* taking time to make connections

* identifying what will be gained from the collaboration in terms of mutually desired outcomes -- to clarify the value of working together

* enhancing expectations that the working relationship will be productive -- important here is establishing credibility with each other

* establishing a structure that provides support and guidance to aid task focus

* periodic reminders of the positive outcomes that have resulted from working together

With specific respect to **building relationships** and **effective communication**, three things you can do are:

* convey empathy and warmth (e.g., the ability to understand and appreciate what the individual is thinking and feeling and to transmit a sense of liking)

* convey genuine regard and respect (e.g., the ability to transmit real interest and to interact in a way that enables the individual to maintain a feeling of integrity and personal control)

* talk with, not at, others -- active listening and dialogue (e.g., being a good listener, not being judgmental, not prying, sharing your experiences as appropriate and needed)

Finally, watch out for ego-oriented behavior (yours and theirs) -- it tends to get in the way of accomplishing the task at hand.

Accounting for Cultural, Racial, and Other Significant Individual and Group Differences

All interventions to address barriers to learning and promote healthy development must consider significant individual and group differences.

In this respect, discussions of diversity and cultural competence offer some useful concerns to consider and explore. For example, the Family and Youth Services Bureau of the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, in a 1994 document entitled *A Guide to Enhancing the Cultural Competence of Runaway and Homeless*

Youth Programs, outlines some baseline assumptions which can be broadened to read as follows:

> Those who work with youngsters and their families can better meet the needs of their target population by enhancing their competence with respect to the group and its intragroup differences.
>
> Developing such competence is a dynamic, on-going process -- not a goal or outcome. That is, there is no single activity or event that will enhance such competence. In fact, use of a single activity reinforces a false sense of that the "problem is solved."
>
> Diversity training is widely viewed as important, but is not effective in isolation. Programs should avoid the "quick fix" theory of providing training without follow-up or more concrete management and programmatic changes.
>
> Hiring staff from the same background as the target population does not necessarily ensure the provision of appropriate services, especially if those staff are not in decision-making positions, *or* are not themselves appreciative of, or respectful to, group and intragroup differences.
>
> Establishing a process for enhancing a program's competence with respect to group and intragroup differences is an opportunity for positive organizational and individual growth.

In their discussion of "The Cultural Competence Model," Mason, Benjamin, and Lewis* outline five cultural competence values which they stress are more concerned with behavior than awareness and sensitivity and should be reflected in staff attitude and practice and the organization's policy and structure. In essence, these five values are

> (1) *Valuing Diversity* -- which they suggest is a matter of framing cultural diversity as a strength in clients, line staff, administrative personnel, board membership, and volunteers.
>
> *(2) Conducting Cultural Self-Assessment* -- to be aware of cultural blind spots and ways in which one's values and assumptions may differ from those held by clients.
>
> (3) *Understanding the Dynamics of Difference* -- which they see as the ability to understand what happens when people of different cultural backgrounds interact.
>
> (4) *Incorporating Cultural Knowledge* -- seen as an ongoing process.
>
> (5) *Adapting to Diversity* -- described as modifying direct interventions and the way the organization is run to reflect the contextual realities of a given catchment area and the sociopolitical forces that may have shaped those who live in the area..

*In *Families and the Mental Health System for Children and Adolescence*, edited by C.A. Heflinger & C.T. Nixon (1996). CA: Sage Publications.

A Few Related References

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K. Hooper-Briar & H.A. Lawson (1994) *Serving children, Youth and Families Through Interprofessional Collaboration and Service Integration: A Framework for Action.* Oxford, OH: Danforth Foundation and the Institute for Educational Renewal at Miami University.

K. Hooper-Briar & H.A. Lawson (Eds.) (1996). *Expanding Partnerships for Vulnerable Children, Youth, and Families.* Alexandria, VA: Council on Social Work Education.

A. Melaville & M. Blank (1991). *What It Takes: Structuring Interagency Partnerships to Connect Children and Families with Comprehensive Services.* Washington, D.C.: Education and Human Services Consortium.

F. Rees (1993). *25 Activities for Teams.* San Diego CA: Pfeiffer & Co.

L. Rosenblum, M.B. DiCecco, L. Taylor, & H.S. Adelman (1995). Upgrading school support programs through collaboration: Resource Coordinating Teams. *Social Work in Education, 17*, 117-124.

S.A. Rosenfield & T.A. Gravois (1996). *Instructional Consultation Teams: Collaborating for Change.* New York: Guilford.

A Beginning Tool-Kit

This section is designed as a beginning set of tools for your use.

We have grouped the materials into four of the six basic areas of the Enabling Component (what we refer to as the curriculum of the Enabling Component). As you become more involved in your school-wide approach, you will want to access the material from our Center on the other two areas.

Each section begins with a self-study survey. In a few instances, we have attached a few examples of other tools that are relevant to working in the area and also have provided some examples of the usable research-base that offers some empirical support for your efforts.

As you find additional material for the tool-kit, you should add the resources.

CONTENTS of this Beginning Kit

CONTENTS

Classroom Focused-Enabling

- Self-Study Survey to Enhance this Area
- Some Examples of Work in this Area that have Evaluative Data
- Student-Led Conferences
- Ideas for Authentic Assessment
- Prereferral Process

Classroom-Focused Enabling
Self-Study Survey to Enhance this Area

The emphasis here is on enhancing classroom-based efforts to enable learning by increasing teacher effectiveness for preventing and handling problems in the classroom. This is accomplished by providing personalized help to increase a teacher's array of strategies for working with a wider range of individual differences (e.g., through use of accommodative and compensatory strategies, peer tutoring and volunteers to enhance social and academic support, resource and itinerant teachers and counselors in the classroom). Through classroom-focused enabling programs, teachers are better prepared to address similar problems when they arise in the future. Anticipated outcomes are increased mainstream efficacy and reduced need for special services.

Classroom-Focused Enabling

Please indicate all items that apply	Yes	Yes but more of this is needed	No	If no, is this something you want?
A. What programs for *personalized professional development* are currently at the site?				
1. Are teachers clustered for support and staff development?	___	___	___	___
2. Are models used to provide demonstrations?	___	___	___	___
3. Are workshops and readings offered regularly?	___	___	___	___
4. Is there a regular focus on how to				
a. engage students in learning?	___	___	___	___
b. assist students who have commonplace learning, behavior, and emotional problems?	___	___	___	___
c. reengage students who appear unmotivated in class?	___	___	___	___
5. Is support available from those with special expertise such as				
a. members of the Student Success Team?	___	___	___	___
b. resource specialists and/or special education teachers?	___	___	___	___
c. members of special committees?	___	___	___	___
d. bilingual and/or other coordinators?	___	___	___	___
e. counselors?	___	___	___	___
f. other? (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
6. Does the school's inservice focus on teaching such personnel how to work directly with teachers in the classroom?	___	___	___	___
7. Is there a formal teacher mentoring program?	___	___	___	___
8. Is there staff social support?	___	___	___	___
9. Is there formal conflict mediation/resolution for staff?	___	___	___	___
10. Is there assistance in learning to use advanced technology?	___	___	___	___
11. Other (specify) _____	___	___	___	___

(cont.)

Classroom-Focused Enabling (cont.)

	Yes	Yes but more of this is needed	No	If no, is this something you want?
B. What *supports* are available *in the classroom* to help students identified as having problems?				
1. Are "personnel" added to the class (or before/after school)?	___		___	
If yes, what types of personnel are brought in:				
a. aides (e.g. paraeducators; other paid assistants)?	___	___	___	___
b. older students?	___	___	___	___
c. other students in the class?	___	___	___	___
d. volunteers?	___	___	___	___
e. parents?	___	___	___	___
f. resource teacher?	___	___	___	___
g. specialists?	___	___	___	___
h. Other? (specify)_____	___	___	___	___
2. Are materials and activities upgraded to				
a. ensure there are enough basic supplies in the classroom?	___	___	___	___
b. increase the range of high-motivation activities (keyed to the interests of students in need of special attention)?	___	___	___	___
c. include advanced technology?	___	___	___	___
d. Other? (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
3. Are regular efforts to foster social and emotional development supplemented?	___	___	___	___
C. What is done to assist a teacher who has difficulty with limited English speaking students?				
1. Is the student reassigned?	___	___	___	___
2. Does the teacher receive professional development related to working with limited English speaking students?	___	___	___	___
3. Does the bilingual coordinator offer consultation?	___	___	___	
4. Is a bilingual aide assigned to the class?	___	___	___	___
5. Are volunteers brought in to help (e.g., parents, peers)?	___	___	___	___
6. Other? (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
D. What types of technology are available to the teachers?				
1. Are there computers in the classroom?	___	___	___	___
2. Is there a computer lab?	___	___	___	___
3. Is computer assisted instruction offered?	___	___	___	___
4. Is there appropriate software?	___	___	___	___
5. Is there access to the Internet?	___	___	___	___
6. Are there computer literacy programs?	___	___	___	___
7. Are computer programs used to address ESL needs?	___	___	___	___
8. Does the classroom have video recording capability?	___	___	___	___
9. Is instructional TV used in the classroom?				
a. videotapes?	___	___	___	___
b. PBS?	___	___	___	___
10. Is there a multimedia lab?	___	___	___	
11. Other? (specify)_____	___	___	___	___

(cont.)

Classroom-Focused Enabling (cont.)

	Yes	Yes but more of this is needed	No	If no, is this something you want?
E. What academic enrichment and adjunct programs do teachers use?				
1. Are library activities used regularly?	___	___	___	___
2. Is music/art used regularly?	___	___	___	___
3. Is health education also used for enrichment?	___	___	___	___
4. Are student performances regular events?	___	___	___	___
5. Are there several field trips a year?	___	___	___	___
6. Are there student council and other leadership opportunities?	___	___	___	___
7. Are there school environment projects such as				
a. mural painting?	___	___	___	___
b. horticulture/gardening?	___	___	___	___
c. school clean-up and beautification?	___	___	___	___
d. other? (specify)_____	___	___	___	___
8. Are there special school-wide events such as				
a. clubs and similar organized activities?	___	___	___	___
b. publication of a student newspaper?	___	___	___	___
c. sales events (candy, t shirts)?	___	___	___	___
d. poster contests?	___	___	___	___
e. essay contests?	___	___	___	___
f. a book fair?	___	___	___	___
g. pep rallies/contests?	___	___	___	___
h. attendance competitions?	___	___	___	___
i. attendance awards/assemblies?	___	___	___	___
j. other? (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
9. Are guest contributors used (e.g., guest speakers/performers)?	___	___	___	___
10. Other? (specify)_____	___	___	___	___
F. What programs for *temporary out of class help* are currently at the site?				
1. Is there a family center providing student and family assistance?	___	___	___	___
2. Are there designated problem remediation specialists?	___	___	___	___
3. Is there a "time out" room?	___	___	___	___
4. other? (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
G. Are there school-wide approaches for				
1. creating and maintaining a caring and supportive climate?	___	___	___	___
2. supporting high standards for positive behavior?	___	___	___	___

H What programs are used to train paraeducators, volunteers, and other "assistants" who come into the classrooms to work with students who need help?

_____ _____

_____ _____

I. Which of the following can teachers request as special interventions?				
1. family problem solving conferences	___	___	___	___
2. exchange of students as an opportunity for improving the match and for a fresh start	___	___	___	___
3. referral for specific services	___	___	___	___
4. other (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
J. Is there ongoing training for teachers and other staff who are helping to develop the school's efforts to improve Classroom-Focused Enabling?	___	___	___	___

K. Please indicate below any other ways that are used at the school to assist a teacher's efforts to address barriers to students' learning.

_____ _____

_____ _____

L. Please indicate below other things you want the school to do to assist a teacher's efforts to address barriers to students' learning.

_____ _____

_____ _____

Classroom - Focused Enabling

Some Examples of Work in this Area that have Evaluative Data

The outcome data we reviewed indicate that programs relevant to classroom-focused enabling do make a difference. Programs that reduce class size have been shown to increase academic performance and decrease discipline problems. There are also a number of programs that successfully intervene with learning or behavior problems in ways that reduce behavior problems and referrals for special assistance and special education. While there are many tutoring programs available in schools, and a growing number of alternative schools, few have been evaluated systematically. However, those studies have found positive effects on academic performance. Also, although cooperative learning activity was not covered here, such approaches are relevant to this area and have generated a positive body of evaluative data.*

In general, however, it is clear that not enough attention has been paid to teaching teachers how to design classroom environments and carry out instruction in ways that can have a positive impact on a wide range of learners. In particular, too many teachers are ill-equipped to respond to garden variety learning, behavior, and emotional problems using more than simplistic behavior management strategies. Until teachers are taught many ways to enable the learning of such students and schools develop school-wide approaches to assist teachers in doing this fundamental work, there can be no evaluation of the full impact of classroom-focused enabling.

The following pages provide examples of:

1. *Small classes / small schools*
2. *Prereferral intervention efforts*
3. *Tutoring (e.g., one-to-one or small group instruction)*
4. *Alternative schools*
5. *Health / Mental Health Education*
   - a. *Social Emotional Development, Enhancing Protective Factors, and Assets Building*
   - b. *Promoting Physical Health*

*The material included in this section is excerpted from a Center Technical Assistance Sampler entitled: *A Sampling of Outcome Findings from Interventions Relevant to Addressing Barriers to Learning.* Given the pressure to compile outcome findings relevant to addressing barriers to student learning, as a first step we simply have gathered and tabulated information from secondary sources (e.g., reviews, reports). Thus, unlike published literature reviews and meta analyses, we have not yet eliminated evaluations that were conducted in methodologically unsound ways. We will do so when we have time to track down original sources, and future drafts of this document will address the problem as well as including other facets of intervention related to this area. In this respect, we would appreciate any information readers can send us about well-designed evaluations of interventions that should be included and about any of the cited work that should be excluded.

1. Small Classes / Small Schools

a. *Research Consensus*: A consensus of research indicates that class size reduction in the early grades leads to higher student achievement. Researchers are more cautious about the question of the positive effects of class size reduction in 4th through 12th grades. The significant effects of class size reduction on student achievement appear when class size is reduced to a point somewhere between 15 and 20 students, and continue to increase as class size approaches the situation of a 1-to-1 tutorial. The research data from the relevant studies indicate that if class size is reduced from substantially more than 20 students per class to below 20 students, the related increase in student achievement moves the average student from the 50th percentile up to somewhere above the 60th percentile. For disadvantaged and minority students the effects are somewhat larger. Students, teachers, and parents all report positive effects from the impact of class size reductions on the quality of classroom activity.

For more information, see:
Pritchard, I., (1999). *Reducing Class Size What Do We Know?* National Institute on Student Achievement, Curriculum and Assessment, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U.S. Department of Education.

To obtain copies of *Reducing Class Size: What Do We Know?* (SAI 98-3027), or ordering information on other U.S. Department of Education products, call toll-free 1-877-4ED-Pubs (877-433-7827) or write to the Education Publications Center (ED Pubs), U.S. Department of Education, P.O. Box 1398 , Jessup, MD 20794-1398. TTY/TTD 1-877-576-7734 / FAX 301-470-1244. http://www.ed.gov/pubs/ReducingClass/Class_size.html

b. *Research on Impact of Student/Teacher Ratios*: Analyzed a substantial database about the Texas educational system (from over 800 districts containing more than 2.4 million students). For first through seventh grades, it was found that district student achievement fell as the student/teacher ratio increased for every student above an 18 to 1 ratio. Measures of teacher quality (that is, teacher literacy skills and professional experience) were even more strongly related to higher student scores.

For more information, see:
Ferguson, R. F. (1991). Paying for public education: New evidence on how and why money matters. *Harvard Journal on Legislation, 28* (2): 465-498.

c. *Review of Research*: Review of more than 100 studies using a related cluster analysis approach to group together similar kinds of research studies (e.g., same grade level, subject area, student characteristics). Reducing class size was found especially promising for disadvantaged and minority students. At the same time, researchers caution that positive effects were less likely if teachers did not change their instructional methods and classroom procedures in the smaller classes.

For more information, see:
Robinson, G. E. and Wittebols, J H. (1986). *Class size research: A related cluster analysis for decision-making.* Arlington, VA: Education Research Service.

d. *Burke County Schools, NC*: In 1990, Burke County, North Carolina pilot-tested and then phased in a class size reduction project in the county school district. Compared to a matched group of students in classes that had not been phased into the smaller class initiative, students in the smaller classes outperformed the comparison group in first, second, and third grades on both reading and mathematics achievement tests. Based on independent observations of classroom activity, the percentage of classroom time devoted to instruction in the smaller classes increased from 80% to 86% compared to the larger classes, while the percentage of time devoted to non-instructional activities such as discipline decreased from 20% to 14%.

For more information, see:
Egelson, P., Harman, P., and Achilles, C. M. (1996). *Does Class Size Make a Difference? Recent Findings from State and District Initiatives*. Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse. ED 398644.

e. Project STAR: The U.S. Department of Education views the following two studies as providing the strongest evidence available to date regarding the positive effects of class size reduction. The evidence from student testing in STAR showed that the students in the smaller classes outperformed the students in the larger classes, whether or not the larger class teachers had an aide helping them. Project STAR found that:

- Smaller class students substantially outperformed larger class students on both standardized (Stanford Achievement Tests) and curriculum-based tests (Basic Skills First). This was true for both white and minority students in smaller classes, and for smaller class students from inner city, urban, suburban, and rural schools.

- The positive achievement effect of smaller classes on minority students was double that for majority students initially, and then was about the same.
- A smaller proportion of students in the smaller classes was retained in-grade, and there was more early identification of students' special educational needs.

The Lasting Benefits Study began a follow-up study to examine whether the effects of the smaller class size experience persisted when students were returned to normal size classes. The study is still ongoing. To date, the research findings include:

- In fourth grade, students from the smaller classes still outperformed the students from the larger classes in all academic subjects.
- In fourth grade, students from the smaller classes were better behaved than students from the larger classes (i.e., student classroom effort, initiative, and disruptiveness).

For more information, see:
I. Pritchard, *Reducing Class Size: What Do We Know?* National Institute on Student Achievement, Curriculum and Assessment, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U.S. Dept of Education. March 1999. 1-877-4ED-Pubs. http://www.ed.gov/pubs/ReducingClass/

f. Project Challenge: Beginning in 1990, Tennessee implemented the findings of Project STAR in 16 of the state's poorest school districts. They phased in smaller classes at the kindergarten through third-grade levels in districts with the lowest per capita income and highest proportion of students in the subsidized school lunch program. To evaluate the results of this effort, school district rankings based on student performance as measured on a statewide achievement test were compared. Project Challenge districts moved from near the bottom of school district performance to near the middle in both reading and mathematics for second grade. In addition, in-grade retention of students was reduced in those districts where smaller classes were implemented.

For more information, see:
I. Pritchard, *Reducing Class Size: What Do We Know?* National Institute on Student Achievement, Curriculum and Assessment, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U.S. Dept of Education. March 1999. 1-877-4ED-Pubs. http://www.ed.gov/pubs/ReducingClass/

g. *Student Achievement Guarantee in Education (SAGE)*: Beginning in 1996-97, Wisconsin began a class size reduction program called the Student Achievement Guarantee in Education (SAGE) Program. SAGE first-grade students performed consistently better than comparison students in mathematics, reading, language arts, and total scores for the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills. The achievement gap lessened between white and African-American students in the SAGE smaller classes in the first grade, in contrast to a widening of the gap between white and African-American students in the larger classes of the comparison schools.

For more information, see:
Molnar, A., Percy, S., Smith, P., and Zahorik, J. (December 1998). *1997-98 Results of the Student Achievement Guarantee in Education (SAGE) Program.* Milwaukee, WI: University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee.

h. *Impact on Expenditures*: Based on an analysis of data on fourth-graders in 203 districts and eighth-graders in 182 school districts from across the United States, studies found that class size served as an important link between school education spending and student mathematics achievement. At the fourth-grade level, lower student/teacher ratios are positively related to higher mathematics achievement. At the eighth-grade level, lower student/teacher ratios improve the school social environment, which in turn leads to higher achievement. The largest effects for mathematics achievement gains occurred in districts where there were below-average socioeconomic status students, accompanied by above-average teacher costs.

For more information, see:
Wenglinsky, H. (1997). *When money matters: How educational expenditures improve student performance and how they don't.* Princeton, NJ: The Educational Testing Service, Policy Information Center.

Additional References related to Class Size Reduction

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17. Mueller, Daniel J., Clinton I. Chase, and James D. Walden. 1988. "Effects of Reduced Class Size in Primary Classes." Educational Leadership 45 (7): 48-50.
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Reference List from: http://www.ed.gov/pubs/ReducingClass/Class_size.html

2. Prereferral Intervention Efforts

a. *Teacher consultation studies*: Two studies examined the effects of behavioral consultation on pre-referral practices (service-related outcome) and reduction in problem behaviors (symptom reduction).

One study (Fuchs & Fuchs, 1989) assessed the effectiveness of three increasingly inclusive versions of behavioral consultation (BC) on problem behaviors in regular education classrooms. Subjects were 48 teachers, their 48 most difficult-to-teach non-handicapped students, and 12 school consultants. Half of the teachers were randomly assigned to one of three BC variations: problem identification and analysis (BC1); problem identification, problem analysis, and plan implementation (BC2); and problem identification, problem analysis, plan implementation, and evaluation (BC3). The remaining 24 teachers were in the control group. Teacher ratings indicated that the more inclusive variants of BC were more effective than the less inclusive versions in reducing problem behaviors. However, direct observation of student behavior at pre-intervention and post-intervention failed to corroborate these results.

Fuchs, Fuchs, & Bahr (1990) compared a shorter and longer version of a consultant-driven pre-referral intervention to determine if the intervention could be shortened to improvo its efficiency without reducing effectiveness. Consultants recruited 92 teachers, 48 of whom were randomly assigned to an experimental (short or long versions) or control condition. The intervention employed a behavioral consultation approach. The longer version included more teacher monitoring whereas the shorter version used more self-monitoring. There was a significant relationship between group membership and referral status. Of the 24 students in both the long and short consultation groups, 5 were referred to special education at the end of the school year. Among the controls, half were referred to special education. Due to interest generated from the initial study, the school system implemented the experimental model into their system.

For more information, see:
Fuchs, D. and Fuchs, L. S. (1989). Exploring effective and efficient prereferral interventions: A component analysis of behavioral consultation. *School Psychology Review*, 18, 260-279.

Fuchs, D., Fuchs, L. S., and Bahr, M. W. (1990). Mainstream assistance teams: Scientific basis for the art of consultation. *Exceptional Children*, 57, 128-139.

b. *Child Development Project (CDP)*: This is a multi-year, comprehensive elementary school program to reduce risk and bolster protective factors among children. A longitudinal, quasi-experimental study measured the impact of the CDP on students' involvement in drug use and delinquent behaviors. Analysis showed that between 1992 and 1994 alcohol use declined significantly. Marijuana use showed a similar but not statistically different from control decline. Tobacco-use declined in program and control schools. No significant differences appeared between program and control groups for any other delinquent behaviors. Program effects were strongest for students in the schools with highest levels of implementation. In addition to changes in drug use, students at the high-implementation schools showed significantly lower rates of skipping school, carrying weapons and vehicle theft than did comparison students in year 2.

For more information, see:
Battistch,V., Schaps, E., Watson, M., & Solomon, D. (1996). Prevention effects of the Child Development Project: Early Findings from an ongoing multisite demonstration trial. *J. Adolescent Research. 11*, 12-35.

Battistich, V., Solomon, D., Kim, D., Watson, M.M., & Schaps, E. (1995). Schools as communities, poverty levels of student populations, and students' attitudes, motives, and performance: A multilevel analysis. *American Educational Research Journal, 32*, 627-658.

Developmental Studies Center, *Child Development Project Replication Manual*, prepared for the Center for Substance Abuse Prevention. center for Substance Abuse prevention, 1995.

The Child Development Project: Summary of findings in Two Initial Districts and the First Phase of an Expansion to Six Additional Districts Nationally. Oakland, CA.: Developmental Studies Center, 1994.

For evaluation information, contact:
Dr. Victor Battistich, Deputy Director of Research, Developmental Studies Center 2000 Embarcadero, Suite 305, Oakland, CA 94606-5300 (510)533-0213 / fax: (510)464-3670

For program information, contact:
Sylvia Kendzior, Director of child Development Project Staff Development, Developmental Studies Center 2000 Embarcadero, suite 305, Oakland, CA 94606-5300 (510)533-0213 / fax: (510)464-3670

c. *I Can Problem Solve (ICPS):* The ICPS program is both a preventive and rehabilitative program to help children in preschool to grade six, resolve interpersonal problems and prevent antisocial behavior. The program uses a cognitive approach that teaches children how to think. The behaviors most affected by the program were impulsiveness, social withdrawal, poor peer relationships and lack of concern for others. The skills with the greatest impact were identifying alternative solutions and predicting consequences. The behaviors most affected were impulsiveness, social withdrawal, poor peer relationships and lack of concern for others. By year five, both boys and girls who received two years of training scored better than the controls on impulsiveness, inhibition and total behavioral problems. In another study, more children who received the training in pre-kindergarten were rated as "adjusted" than those not exposed (71% vs. 54%, $p>.01$). Program results have been replicated in demonstration sites in a variety of urban, suburban and rural settings, with different ages (through age 12) and racial and ethnic groups and with children from different socioeconomic strata.

For more information, see:
Shure, M.B. *Interpersonal Problem Solving and Prevention*: Five Year Longitudinal Study. Prepared for Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, National Institute of Mental Health, 1993.

Shure, M.B., Spivack, G. Interpersonal cognitive problem solving. In Price, R.H., Cowen, E.L., Lorion, R.P., Ramos- McKay, J. (Eds.) pp.69-82. *Fourteen Ounces of Prevention: A Casebook for Practitioners*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association, 1988.

Shure, M.B., Spivack, G. Interpersonal cognitive problem solving and primary prevention: Programming for preschool and kindergarten children. *Journal of Clinical and Child Psychology*. 1979; Summer:89-94.

For program or evaluation information, contact:
Myrna B. Shure, Ph.D., Allegheny University, Department of Clinical/Health Psychology, Broad & Vine, Mail Stop 626, Philadelphia, PA 19102-1192, (215)762-7205 / fax: (215)762-4419

d. *Going for the Goal*: This is a "life skills" program for middle school students designed to teach young adolescents a sense of personal control and confidence about their future. The program assists youth in identifying positive life goals and developing skills to attain these goals. Compared to a control group, the self-report survey findings indicated that participants learned the program information, were able to achieve the goals they set, and found the process of setting and attaining goals easier than they expected. Compared to a control group, students who participated in *GOAL* had better school attendance and reported a decrease in alcohol use, frequency of getting drunk, smoking cigarettes, other drug use, and violent and other problem behaviors.

For program information, contact:
Steven J. Danish, PhD, Director, The Life Skills Center, Virginia Commonwealth University, 800 W. Franklin Street, Box 842018, Richmond, VA 23284-2018. (804) 828-4384 / fax: (804) 828-0239.

For evaluation information, contact:
Todd C. O'Hearn, Department of Psychology, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, CA 90089-1061. (310) 470-4063 / fax: (213) 746-5994.

e. *Effective Behavior Support (EBS)*: EBS is a school-wide prevention approach that schools adopt as a means of addressing the behavior of all students of all ages. EBS provides behavioral support for students, including students who exhibit chronic behavior problems. The program resulted in a decrease in referrals to the principal's office by an average of 42% in the first year of the program. At one elementary school, the implementation of EBS has corresponded with a decrease in the number of discipline referrals, from 7,000 in 1993 - 1994 to fewer than 2,000 projected form 1997-1998.

For references & contact information, see:
George Sugai & Rob Horner, Co-Directors, Effective Behavior Support Project, Institute on Violence and Destructive Behavior, 1265 University of Oregon, Eugune, OR 97403. (541)346-3591.

f. *Behavioral Monitoring and Reinforcing Program:* This is a school-based, early intervention program born from earlier work on behavior modification and teaching thinking skills. Compared to the control group, experimental students had significantly better grades and attendance at the end of the program. However, these positive effects did not appear until the students had been in the program for two years. In the year after the intervention ended, experimental students displayed significantly fewer problem behaviors at school than did controls. Eighteen months following the intervention, experimental students reported significantly less substance abuse and criminal behavior. Five years after the program ended, experimental youth were 66% less likely to have a juvenile record than were controls.

For references & program information, see:

Bry, B.H. (1982). Reducing the incidence of adolescent problems through preventive intervention: One and five year follow-up. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 10:265-276.

Bry, B.H., & George, F.E. (1979). Evaluating the improving prevention programs: A strategy from drug abuse. *Evaluation and Program Planning*, 2: 127-136.

Bry, B.H., & George, F.E. (1980). The preventive effects of early intervention on the attendance and grades of urban adolescents. *Professional Psychology*, 11: 252-260.

Brenna H. Bry, Graduate School of Applied and Professional Psychology, Rutgers University, 152 Frelinghuysen Rd., Piscataway, NJ 08854-8085. Tel: (732)445-2189

g. *Seattle Social Development Project*: The Seattle Social Development Project can be used for the general population and high-risk children (those with low socioeconomic status and low school achievement) attending grade school and middle school. Teachers receive instructions that emphasizes proactive management, interactive teaching, and cooperative learning. Parents receive optional training programs throughout their children's schooling. Evaluates have demonstrated that the project improves school performance, family relationships, and student drug/alcohol involvement at various grades. At the end of grade 6, high-risk youth, compared to control youth, were more attached and committed to school, and boys were less involved with antisocial peers.

For more information, see:

Hawkins, J. David, Catalano, Richard F., Morrison, Diane, O'Donnell, Julie, Abbott, Robert, & Day, Edward (1992). The Seattle Social Development Project: Effects of the first four years on protective factors and problem behaviors. In Joan McCord & Richard E. Tremblay (eds.), *Preventing Antisocial Behavior: Interventions from Birth through Adolescence.* New York: The Guilford Press.

3. Tutoring

a. *Success for All*: Success for All is a school-wide project that promotes reading, writing and language arts skills for students. A key facet focuses on tutoring. Statistically significant (p=.05 or better) positive effects of Success for All (compared to controls) were found on every measure at every grade level, 1-5. For students in general, effect sizes averaged around a half standard deviation at all grade levels. Effects were somewhat higher than this for the Woodcock Word Attack scale in first and second grades, but in grades 3-5 effect sizes were more or less equivalent on all aspects of reading. Consistently, effect sizes for students in the lowest 25% of their grades were particularly positive, ranging from E'SS=+1.03 in first grade to E'SS=+1.68 in fourth grade. Again, cohort-level analyses found statistically significant differences favoring low achievers in Success for All on every measure at every grade level. A follow-up study of Baltimore schools found that positive program effects continued into grade 6 E'SS=+0.54) and grade 7 E'SS=+0.42), when students were in middle schools. Studies found that schools implementing all program components obtained better results (compared to controls) than did schools implementing the program to a moderate or minimal degree. Similarly, a strong relationship between ratings of implementation quality and student achievement gains compared to controls was found. Cooper, Slavin, & Madden (1998), in an interview study, found that high-quality implementations of Success for All depended on many factors, including district and principal support, participation in national and local networks, adequacy of resources, and genuine buy-in at the outset on the part of all teachers. A longitudinal study in Baltimore from 1987-1993 collected CTBS scores on the original five Success for All and control schools. On average, Success for All schools exceeded control schools at every grade level. The differences were statistically and educationally significant. By fifth grade, Success for All students were performing 75% of a grade equivalent ahead of controls (E'S=+0.45) on CTBS Total Reading scores (see Slavin, Madden, Dolan, Wasik, Ross, & Smith, 1994). An Arizona study (Ross, Nunnery, & Smith, 1996) compared Mexican-American English language learners in two urban Success for All schools to those in three schools using locally-developed Title I reform models and one using Reading Recovery. Two SES school strata were compared, one set with 81% of students in poverty and 50% Hispanic students and one with 53% of students in poverty and 27% Hispanic students. Success for All first graders scored higher than controls in both strata. Hispanic students in the high-poverty stratum averaged three months ahead of the controls (1.75 vs. 1.45). Hispanic students in the less impoverished stratum scored slightly above grade level (1.93), about one month ahead of controls (1.83). In the Success for All schools, first graders who had been assigned to special education were tutored one-to-one (by their special education teachers) and otherwise participated in the program in the same way as all other students. Special education students in Success for All were reading substantially better (E'S=+.77) than special education students in the comparison school (Ross et al., 1995). In addition, Smith et al. (1994) combined first grade reading data from special education students in Success for All and control schools in four districts: Memphis, Ft. Wayne (IN), Montgomery (AL), and Caldwell (ID). Success for All special education students scored substantially better than controls (mean E'S =+.59).

For more information, see:

Cooper, R., Slavin, R.E., & Madden N.A. (1998). Success for All: Improving the quality of implementation of whole-school change through the use of a national reform network. *Education and Urban Society, 30,* (3), 385-408.

Ross, S.M., Nunnery, J., & Smith, L.J. (1996). *Evaluation of Title I Reading Programs: Amphitheater Public Schools. Year 1: 1995-96.* Memphis: University of Memphis, Center for Research in Educational Policy.

Slavin, R.E., Madden, N.A., Dolan, L., Wasik, B.A., Ross, S.M., Smith, L.J. & Dianda, M. (1996). Success for All: A summary of research. *Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk, 1,* 41-76.

Smith, L.J., Ross, S.M., & Casey, J.P. (1994). *Special education analyses for Success for All in four cities.* Memphis: University of Memphis, Center for Research in Educational Policy.

Website -- www.successforall.net

b. *The Valued Youth Program (VYP).* VYP is a tutoring program designed to prevent school dropout among students who were not proficient in English. VYP pairs academically at-risk teenage tutors with younger children. The results of an evaluation of VYP indicates higher reading grades from tutors than comparison students. The tutors showed a reduced number of disciplinary referrals after participation in the program compared to the comparison group who had an increased rate. Tutors also gained in their self-concept as measured by the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale and Quality of School Life Scale and maintained the self-concept and positive attitude toward school. The VYP program also had a positive impact on student dropout rates.

For more information, see:
Supik, J. D. (1991). Partners for valued youth: The final report. *IDRA Newsletter*, 18, 1-4.

For program information, contact:
Linda Cantu, Program Director, Intercultural Development Research Association, 5835 Callaghan suite# 530, San Antonio, TX 78228-1190. (210)684-8180 / fax: (210)684-5389.

For evaluation information, contact:
Jose A. Cardenas, PhD, Intercultural Development Research Association, 5835 Callaghan suite# 350, San Antonio, TX 78228-1190.

c. *Memphis Partners Collaborative (MPC):* MPC was a Saturday program for at-risk 10th graders, which was held for six hours every Saturday (for 17 weeks) at several local college campuses. Approximately 40% of an average project day was devoted to academic enrichment, another 40% focused on job readiness and employability skills, and the remaining 20% focused on self-esteem building, problem solving skills, stress management, and health and drug counseling. Transportation, lunch, and daily rewards were offered to increase participation. For both the 1989-90 and the 1990-91 cohorts, appropriate baseline and follow-up data (one year after completing program) were collected from the program and comparison students. About 79% of MPC students were employed following completion of the program (most of those unemployed were underage). There was no employment data provided for the comparison group. MPC students had fewer absences compared to the control group. There was also tentative evidence that MPC students had higher self-esteem at follow-up, but not all data was available from the comparison group. Finally, MPC's effect on rate of graduation depended on the type of student. MPC seemed to have a positive effect on over-age, black males, who were less likely than controls to drop out. Conversely, the program seemed to have a negative effect for over-age, black females, who seemed to drop out at a higher rate than controls; however, this difference diminishes over time. There were no significant effects of the MPC program on grade point average.

For more information, see:
Rossi, R. J. (1995). *Evaluation of projects funded by the School Dropout Demonstration Assistance Program: Final evaluation report, Volume I: Findings and recommendations*. Prepared by: American Institutes for Research, P. O. Box 1113, Palo Alto, CA 94302.

d. *Brief Research Synthesis on Cross-Age Tutoring Programs and the Performance of At-Risk Youth as Tutors*: Cross-age tutoring has been shown to be one of the most cost-effective strategies used to enhance the academic performance of struggling students (e.g., Martino, 1994). First, there are a number of positive benefits for the students being tutored. Tutees improve not only academically, but they also show improvements in communication skills, ability to identify long-range goals, self-confidence, and interpersonal skills. The tutors themselves benefit academically, and have been shown to perform better than control students on subjects being taught (Cohen, Kuklik, & Kuklik, 1982). Serving as tutors also increases children's self-concept, improved relationships between peers, reduced absenteeism, and improved classroom behavior (Giesecke, et al., 1993). At-risk youth who tutor receive higher reading grades than the comparison group, higher test scores overall, fewer disciplinary referrals, and fewer absences.

For more information, see:
Duckenfield, M. The performance of at-risk youth as tutors. National Dropout Prevention Center, College of Health, Education and Human Development, Clemson University, 205 Martin Street, Clemson, SC 29634-0726. (864) 656-2599, ndpc@clemson.edu. see: www.dropoutprevention.org/effstrat/performance.htm.

Cohen, P. A., Kuklik, J. A., & Kuklik, C-L. C. (1982). Educational outcomes of tutoring: A meta analysis of findings. *American Educational Research Journal*, 237-248.

Giesecke, D., Cartledge, G., & Gardner III, R. (1993). Low-achieving students as successful cross-age tutors. *Preventing School Failure, 37*, 34-43.

Martino, L. R. (1994). Peer tutoring classes for young adolescents: A cost-effective strategy. *Middle School Journal, 25*, 55-58.

4. Alternative Schools

a. *Cooperative Alternative Program (CAP)*: The Cooperative Alternative Program was aimed at demonstrating the willingness of seven school districts to create a unique governance and fiscal structure to respond to the needs of students at risk. The CAP High School offered an alternative for at-risk students in seven cooperating districts in rural Texas. Its primary purpose was to provide remediation in basic skills and job-specific vocational training. It featured small classes, individualized instruction, individual and group counseling, and a student assistance program of tutorials. Many of the CAP students included in the pool for this evaluation, who ranged in age from 14 to 22 years, were designated as at risk on almost every dimension, including over-age for grade, high truancy or suspension rates, below grade level on basic courses, substance abuse, and pregnancy. Students who attended CAP High School stayed an average of 30 weeks and received all-day, every-day services during that time. In 1989-90, the implementation study concluded that increased self-esteem and improved attendance and academic performance were possible short-term outcomes of the CAP program. CAP students significantly outperformed comparison students academically.

For more information, see:
Rossi, R. J. *Evaluation of projects funded by the school dropout demonstration assistance program: Final evaluation report, Vol. 1: Findings and recommendations.* American Institutes for Research, P. O. Box 1113, Palo Alto, CA 94302.

b. *Lane School Program*: The Lane School Program is an alternative for students with emotional and behavioral problems who require intensive, targeted intervention programs and consultation. This program consists of two major components: a teacher consultation program and a self-contained day-school. The consultation program provides school districts with access to services of highly qualified behavioral consultants who help teachers and staff with creative problem solving and implementation of classroom interventions. The four-classroom day school serves between 36-42 adolescents who have long-standing behavior problems. Students participate in a level system, token economy and a schedule of core courses that include academics as well as social skills. Typical outcomes for students completing the program include: increase in school attendance; Greater attainment of behavioral and academic goals; Decrease in office referrals; Lowered suspension rate. More than 90% of the students who complete the program are successful during their first year of transition back to their neighborhood schools; of those 74% continue to be successful 12 months after leaving Lane School.

For more information, see:
George, M.P., Valore, T., Quinn, M.M., & Varisco, R. (1997). Preparing to go home: A collaborative approach to transition. *Preventing School Failure, 41*, 168-172.

Quinn, M. M., Osher, D., Hoffman, C. C., & Hanley, T. V. (1998). *Safe, drug-free, and effective schools for ALL students: What works!* Washington, DC: Center for Effective Collaboration and Practice, American Institutes for Research.

For program information, contact:
Michael George, Supervisor, Lane School, 1200 Highway 99 North, P.O. Box 2680, Eugene, OR 97402.
(541) 461-8200

c. *The Jackson School*: Is a community-based, temporary placement behavior-modification alternative school serving 6th through 8th grades (ages 10-15 years). The school is designed to serve students whose disruptive behavior problems prevent them from functioning successfully in a regular classroom. This article presents a case study that was part of a larger state-wide evaluation of alternative schools. The evaluation consisted of site visits, school tours, classroom observations, and interviews. The hope was to accumulate information from teachers, students, administrators, counselors, parents, and community members. Student and teacher perspectives of effectiveness were generally satisfactory. For example, The Jackson School ensures small classes; maintains students' individual attention and supports families in times of crisis (whereas alternative schools do not); and conceptualizes the student as part of a larger socio-economic system, thereby helping the student to learn to negotiate with a world of complex power dynamics.

For more information, see:
Bauman, A. (1998). Finding experts in unexpected places: Learning from those who have failed. *High School Journal, 81*, 258-267.

5. Health / Mental Health Education

a. Social/Emotional Development, Enhancing Protective Factors and Assets Building

a.1 *Seattle Social Development Project:* This universal, multidimensional intervention decreases juveniles' problem behaviors by working with parents, teachers, and children. It incorporates both social control and social learning theories and intervenes early in children's development to increase prosocial bonds, strengthen attachment and commitment to schools, and decrease delinquency. The program can be used for the general population and high-risk children (those with low socioeconomic status and low school achievement) attending grade school and middle school. The Project combines parent and teacher training. Teachers receive instruction that emphasizes proactive classroom management, interactive teaching, and cooperative learning. When implemented, these techniques minimize classroom disturbances by establishing clear rules and rewards for compliance; increase children's academic performance; and allow students to work in small, heterogeneous groups to increase their social skills and contact with prosocial peers. In addition, first-grade teachers teach communication, decision-making, negotiation, and conflict resolution skills; and sixth-grade teachers present refusal skills training. Parents receive optional training programs throughout their children's schooling. When children are in 1st and 2nd grade, 7 sessions of family management training help parents monitor children and provide appropriate and consistent discipline. When children are in 2nd and 3rd grade, 4 sessions encourage parents to improve communication between themselves, teachers, and students; create positive home learning environments; help their children develop reading and math skills, and support their children's academic progress. When children are in 5th and 6th grade, 5 sessions help parents create family positions on drugs and encourage children's resistance skills. Evaluations have demonstrated that the Project improves school performance, family relationships, and student drug/alcohol involvement at various grades. At the end of grade 2, Project students, compared to control students, showed: (a) Lower levels of aggression and antisocial, externalizing behaviors for white males, and (b) Lower levels of self-destructive behaviors for white females. At the beginning of grade 5, Project students, compared to control students, showed (a) Less alcohol and delinquency initiation; (b) Increases in family management practices, communication, and attachment to family; and (c) More attachment and commitment to school. At the end of grade 6, high-risk youth, compared to control youth, were more attached and committed to school, and boys were less involved with antisocial peers. At the end of grade 11, Project students, compared to control students, showed (a) Reduced involvement in violent delinquency and sexual activity, and (b) Reductions in being drunk and in drinking and driving.

For more information, contact:
J. David Hawkins, Social Development Research Group (SDRG), University of Washington – School of Social Work, 130 Nickerson, Suite 107, Seattle, WA 98109, (206) 286-1805, E-mail: sdrg@u.washington.edu, URL: *http://weber.u.washington.edu/~sdrg*

References:
Hawkins, J. David, Catalano, Richard F., Morrison, Diane, O'Donnell, Julie, Abbott, Robert, & Day, Edward (1992). The Seattle Social Development Project: Effects of the first four years on protective factors and problem behaviors. In Joan McCord & Richard E. Tremblay (eds.), *Preventing Antisocial Behavior: Interventions from Birth through Adolescence*. New York: The Guilford Press.

Hawkins, J. David, Doueck, Howard J., & Lishner, Denise M. (1988). Changing teacher practices in mainstream classrooms to improve bonding and behavior of low achievers. *American Educational Research Journal, 25*, 31-50.

Hawkins, J. David, Von Cleve, Elizabeth, & Catalano, Richard F. (1991). Reducing early childhood aggression: Results of a primary prevention program. *Journal American Academy Child Adolescent Psychiatry, 30*, 208-217.

O'Donnell, Julie, Hawkins, J. David, Catalano, Richard F., Abbot, Robert D., & Day, Edward (1995). Preventing school failure, drug use, and delinquency among low-income children: Long-term intervention in elementary schools. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 65*, 87-100.

a.2. *The Social Competency/Social Problem Solving Program:* This program's goal is to ameliorate the stress and difficulty encountered by children during transition to middle school. The theory stems from a social problem solving framework, which focuses on interpersonal sensitivity, means-end thinking, and planning and anticipation. One hundred fifty eight elementary students received either a 1 year, a ½ year (instructional phase only), or no social problem solving program. Results showed that both groups (in comparison with a no-treatment group), improved their ability in using social cognitive problem solving skills; improved coping during the transition to middle school; and a significant reduction in self-reported level of difficulty with commonly occurring middle-school stressors.

For more information, see:
Elias, M.J., Gara, M., Ubriaco, M., Rothman, P.A., Clabby, J.F., & Schuyler, T. (1986). Impact of a preventive social problem solving intervention on children's coping with middle-school stressors. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 14(3),* 259-275.

a.3. *FAST Track Program*: Is a comprehensive and long-term prevention program that aims to prevent chronic and severe conduct problems for high-risk children. It is based on the view that antisocial behavior stems from the interaction of multiple influences, and it includes the school, the home, and the individual in its intervention. FAST Track's main goals are to increase communication and bonds between these three domains, enhance children's social, cognitive, and problem-solving skills, improve peer relationships, and ultimately decrease disruptive behavior in the home and school. The Program spans grades 1 through 6, but is most intense during the key periods of entry to school (first grade) and transition from grade school to middle school. Currently, an evaluation of 3 cohorts who have completed first grade has been performed, and follow-up studies are underway. Compared to control groups, participants have shown the following positive effects: Better teacher and parent ratings of children's behavior with peers and adults. Better overall ratings by observers on children's aggressive, disruptive, and oppositional behavior in the classroom. Less parental endorsement of physical punishment for children's problem behaviors. More appropriate discipline techniques and greater warmth and involvement of mothers with their children. More maternal involvement in school activities. Children in FAST Track classrooms nominated fewer peers as being aggressive and indicated greater liking and fewer disliking nominations of their classmates.

For more information, see:
Conduct Problems Prevention Group (Karen Bierman, John Coie, Kenneth Dodge, Mark Greenberg, John Lochman, and Robert McMahon) (1996). Abstract: An Initial Evaluation of the Fast Track Program. Proceedings of the Fifth National Prevention conference, Tysons Corner, VA, May.

Conduct Problems Prevention Group (Karen Bierman, John Coie, Kenneth Dodge, Mark Greenberg, John Lochman, and Robert McMahon) (1992). A developmental and clinical model for the prevention of conduct disorder: The FAST Track Program. Development & Psychopathology, 4, 509-527.

For program information, contact:
Kenneth Dodge, John F. Kennedy Center, Box 88 Peabody College, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, TN 37203, (615) 343-8854, URL: www.fasttrack.vanderbilt.edu

a.4. *Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies (PATHS)*: The PATHS Curriculum is a comprehensive program for promoting emotional and social competencies and reducing aggression and behavior problems in elementary school-aged children while simultaneously enhancing the educational process in the classroom. This innovative curriculum is designed to be used by educators and counselors in a multi-year, universal prevention model. The PATHS Curriculum provides teachers with systematic, developmentally-based lessons, materials, and instructions for teaching their students emotional literacy, self-control, social competence, positive peer relations, and interpersonal problem-solving skills. The PATHS Curriculum has been shown to improve protective factors and reduce behavioral risk factors. Evaluations have demonstrated significant improvements for program youth (regular education, special needs, and deaf) compared to control youth in the following areas: Improved self-control, Improved understanding and recognition of emotions; Increased ability to tolerate frustration; Use of more effective conflict-resolution strategies; Improved thinking and planning skills; Decreased anxiety/depressive symptoms (teacher report of special needs students); Decreased conduct problems (teacher report of special needs students); Decreased symptoms of sadness and depression (child report– special needs); and Decreased report of conduct problems, including aggression (child report).

For more information, see:
Mark T. Greenberg, Ph.D., Prevention Research Center, Human Development and Family Studies, Pennsylvania State University, 110 Henderson Building South, University Park, PA 16802-6504, (814) 863-0112, E-mail: prevention@psu.edu, URL: www.psu.edu/dept/prevention related links - PATHS

Greenberg, M., Kusché, C. & Mihalic, S.F. (1998). *Blueprints for Violence Prevention, Book Ten: Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies (PATHS).* Boulder, CO: Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence.

a5. *Weissberg's Social Competence Promotion Program (WSCPP)*: The WSCPP is a school-based social competency training program. The program combines general skills training with domain-specific instruction and application to substance use prevention. WSCPP targets sixth and seventh grade students, and includes 16-29 sessions (depending on the version). The 20 session version is a highly structured curriculum comprised of the following units: stress management, self-esteem, problem-solving skills, substances and health information, assertiveness training, and social networks. Overall, the program was found to be beneficial for both inner-city and suburban students. Students in the program classes improved relative to those in the control classrooms on: Problem solving and stress management; teacher ratings on conflict resolution with peers and impulse control (both important protective factors for later delinquency and popularity); excessive drinking (although there were no significant differences in self-report measures of frequency of cigarette, alcohol, and marijuana use).

For more information, see:
Caplan, M., Weissberg, R.P., Grober, J.S., Sivo, P.J., Grady, K., & Jacoby, C. (1992). Social competence promotion with inner-city and suburban young adolescents: Effects on social adjustment and alcohol use. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 60,* 56-63.

For program information, contact:
Roger P. Weissberg, University of Illinois–Chicago, Department of Psychology M/C285, 1009 Behavioral Sciences Building, 1007 West Harrison Street, Chicago, IL 60607-7137, (312) 413-1008.

a6. *The Development Asset Approach:* According to Scales and Leffert (1999):
"Since 1989, Search Institute has been conducting research- grounded in the vast literature on resilience, prevention, and adolescent development- that has illuminated the positive relationships, opportunities, competencies, values, and self-perceptions that youth need to succeed. The institute's framework of 'developmental assets' grows out of that research, which has involved more than 500,000 6th- to 12th- grade youth in more than 600 communities across the country (for more complete descriptions of the framework and its conceptual and research origins, see Benson, 1997; Benson, Leffert, Scales, & Blyth, 1998). Developmental assets are the building blocks that all youth need to be healthy, caring, principled, and productive. The developmental asset framework includes many of the 'core elements of healthy development and ...community actors (family, neighborhood, school, youth organizations, congregations, and so on) needed to promote these essential building blocks' (Benson, 1997, p.27)."

"The original framework identified and measured 30 assets. Subsequent research (including focus groups to deepen understanding of how the developmental assets are experienced by urban youth, youth living in poverty, and youth of color) led to a revision of the framework to its current 40-asset structure. The 40 assets are grouped into eight categories representing broad domains of influence in young people's lives: support, empowerment, boundaries and expectations, and constructive use of time are external assets (relationships and opportunities that adults provide); commitment to learning, positive values, social competencies, and positive identity are internal assets (competencies and values that youth develop internally that help them become self-regulating adults). (See Table 2.)"

"The developmental assets have been measured using Search Institute's *Profiles of Student Life: Attitudes and Behaviors*, a 156-item self-report survey that is administered to 6th- to 12th- grade students in public and private schools. The instrument measures each of the 40 developmental assets as well as a number of other constructs, including developmental deficits (e.g., whether youth watch too much television or are the victims of violence), thriving indicators (e.g., school success and maintenance of physical health behaviors), and high-risk behaviors (e.g., alcohol, tobacco, and other drug use, sexual intercourse, and violence). Communities or school districts self-select to complete the survey, the data from which are then used to generate a report on the community's youth...research has shown that the more of these assets young people have, the less likely they are to engage in risky behavior...and the more likely they are to engage in positive behaviors...These relationships between assets and youth well-being remain fairly consistent for adolescents across differences of race and ethnicity, gender, age, socioeconomic background, community size, and region."

For more information, see:
P.C. Scales & N. Leffert (1999). Developmental assets: A synthesis of the scientific research on adolescent development. Minneapolis, MN: Search Institute.

a7. *Baltimore Mastery Learning and Good Behavior Game Interventions*: The Mastery Learning (ML) and Good Behavior Game (GBG) interventions seek to improve children's psychological well-being and social task performance. The former focuses on strengthening reading achievement to reduce the risk of depression later in life, while the latter aims to decrease early aggressive and shy behaviors to prevent later criminality. Both are implemented when children are in early elementary grades in order to provide students with the skills they need to respond to later, possibly negative, life experiences and societal influences. Evaluations of both programs have demonstrated beneficial effects for children at the end of first grade, while an evaluation of the Good Behavior Game has shown positive outcomes at grade 6 for males displaying early aggressive behavior. At the end of first grade, GBG students, compared to a control group, had: less aggressive and shy behaviors according to teachers, and better peer nominations of aggressive behavior. At the end of first grade, ML students, compared to a control group, showed: increases in reading achievement. At the end of sixth grade, GBG students, compared to a control group, demonstrated: decreases in levels of aggression for males who were rated highest for aggression in first grade.

For more information, see:
S.G. Kellam, G.W. Rebok, N. Ialongo, and L.S. Mayer (1994). "The Course and Malleability of Aggressive behavior from Early first Grade into Middle School: Results of a Developmental Epidemiologically-Based Preventive Trial." *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry 35*, 259-282.

For project information, contact:
Sheppard G. Kellam, Prevention Research Center, Department of Mental Hygiene, Johns Hopkins University – School of Hygiene and Public Health, Mason F. Lord Building, Suite 500, Francis Scott Key Medical Center, 4940 Eastern Ave, Baltimore, MD 21224, URL: http: //www.bpp.jhu.edu

a8. *Be A Star*: The Be A Star program is a once-a-week community-based intervention designed to improve the life outcomes of high-risk youth (ages 5-12 years) in poor communities with high incidents of violence. The focus of this program is to improve decision-making skills and interpersonal competence, increase cultural awareness (participants were predominantly African-American) and self-esteem, and increase unfavorable attitudes toward alcohol and drug abuse. Support groups for parents were also developed. This program was implemented through community-based centers which also worked with community residence to create safer environments for children. While the 1993-1994 evaluation yielded mixed results, the 1994-1995 evaluation showed important differences between the older (8-12-year-olds) treatment and comparison groups ($p = .05$). The experimental group scored significantly higher on family bonding, prosocial behavior, self-concept, self-control, decision making, emotional awareness, assertiveness, confidence, cooperation, negative attitudes about drugs and alcohol, self-efficacy, African-American culture, and school bonding, as measured by the Revised Individualized Protective Factors Index (RPFI).

For more information, see:
Pierce, L.H. & Shields, N. (1998). The Be A Star community-based after-school program: Developing resiliency factors in high-risk preadolescent youth. *Journal of Community Psychology, 26*, 175-183.

a9 *Project ACHIEVE:* Project ACHIEVE is a school wide prevention and early intervention program, that targets students who are academically and socially at risk. Students learn social skills, problem-solving methods, and anger-reduction techniques. Since 1990, the program has reduced aggression and violence in Project ACHIEVE schools. Disciplinary referrals decreased by 67%, Specifically, referrals for disobedient behavior dropped by 86%, fighting by 72% and disruptive behavior by 88%. Referrals for at-risk students for special education testing decreased 75% while the number of effective academic and behavioral interventions in the regular classroom significantly increased. Suspensions dropped to one-third of what they had been three years before. Grade retention, achievement test scores, and academic performance have improved similarly, and, during the past four years, no student has been placed in the county's alternative education program. The project's success has led to the adoption of the Project ACHIEVE model in over 20 additional sites across the United States.

For more information, see:
Knoff, H.M. & Batsche, G. M. (1995). Project ACHIEVE: Analyzing a school reform process for at-risk and underachieving students. *School Psychology Review, 24*, 579-603.

Knoff, H.M. & Batsche, G. M. Project ACHIEVE: A collaborative, school-based school reform process improving the academic and social progress of at-risk and underachieving students. In: R. Talley & G. Walz (Eds.), *Safe Schools, Safe Students.* National Education Goals Panel and National Alliance of Pupil Services Organizations. Produced in collaboration with ERIC Counseling and Student Services Clearinghouse.

Quinn, M. M., Osher, D., Hoffman, C. C., & Hanley, T. V. (1998). *Safe, drug-free, and effective schools for ALL students: What works!* Washington, DC: Center for Effective Collaboration and Practice, American Institutes for Research.

a10. *Preventive Intervention*: This school-based intervention helps prevent juvenile delinquency, substance use, and school failure for high-risk adolescents. It targets juvenile cynicism about the world and the accompanying lack of self-efficacy to deal with problems. The two year intervention begins when participants are in seventh grade and includes monitoring student actions, rewarding appropriate behavior, and increasing communication between teachers, students, and parents. Each week, 3-5 students meet with a staff to discuss their recent behaviors, learn the relationship between actions and their consequences, and role-play prosocial alternatives to problem behaviors. Evaluations of the Preventive Intervention program have demonstrated short- and long-term positive effects. At the end of the program, program students showed higher grades and better attendance when compared to control students. Results from a one-year follow-up study showed that intervention students, compared to control students, had less self-reported delinquency; drug abuse (including hallucinogens, stimulants, glue, tranquilizers, and barbiturates); school-based problems (suspension, absenteeism, tardiness, academic failure); and unemployment (20% and 45%, respectively). A five-year follow-up study found that intervention students had fewer county court records than control students.

For more information, see:

Bry, B. H. (1982). Reducing the incidence of adolescent problems through preventive intervention: One- and five-year follow-up. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 10*, 265-276.

Bry, B. H., & George, F. E. (1980). The preventive effects of early intervention on the attendance and grades of urban adolescents. *Professional psychology, 11*, 252-260.

Bry, B. H., & George, F. E. (1979). Evaluating and improving prevention programs: A strategy from drug abuse. *Evaluation and Program Planning, 2,* 127-136.

For project information, contact:

Brenna Bry, Graduate School of Applied & Professional Psychology, 152 Frelinghuysen Road, Rutgers University, Box 819, Piscataway, NJ 08854, (732) 445-2189

a11. *Preventive Treatment Program:* The program is designed to prevent antisocial behavior of boys who display early, problem behavior. The Preventive Treatment Program combines parent training with individual social skills training. Parents receive an average of 17 sessions that focus on monitoring their children's behavior, giving positive reinforcement for prosocial behavior, using punishment effectively, and managing family crises. The boys receive 19 sessions aimed at improving prosocial skills and self-control. The training utilizes coaching, peer modeling, self-instruction, reinforcement contingency, and role playing to build skills. Evaluations of the program have demonstrated both short- and long-term gains for youth receiving the intervention. At age 12, three years after the intervention: Treated boys were less likely to report the following offenses: trespassing, taking objects worth less than $10, taking objects worth more than $10, and stealing bicycles. Treated boys were rated by teachers as fighting less than untreated boys. 29% of the treated boys were rated as well-adjusted in school, compared to 19% of the untreated boys. 22% of the treated boys, compared to 44% of the untreated boys, displayed less serious difficulties in school. 23.3% of the treated boys, compared to 43% of the untreated boys, were held back in school or placed in special education classes. At age 15, those receiving the intervention were less likely than untreated boys to report: Gang involvement; Having been drunk or taken drugs in the past 12 months; Committing delinquent acts (stealing, vandalism, drug use); and Having friends arrested by the police.

For more information, see:

Tremblay, Richard E., Masse, Louise, Pagani, Linda, & Vitaro, Frank (1996). From childhood physical aggression to adolescent maladjustment: The Montreal Prevention Experiment. In R. D. Peters & R. J. McMahon (eds.), *Preventing childhood Disorders, Substance Abuse, and Delinquency.* Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications

Tremblay, Richard E., Vitaro, Frank, Bertrand, Llucie, LeBlanc, Marc, Beauchesne, Helene, Bioleau, Helene, & David, Lucille (1992). Parent and child training to prevent early onset of delinquency: The Montreal longitudinal Experimental Study. In Joan McCord & Richard Tremblay (eds.), *Preventing Antisocial Behavior: Interventions from Birth through Adolescence.* New York: The Guilford Press.

Tremblay, Richard E., McCord, Joan, Bioleau, Helene, Charlebois, Pierre, Gagnon, Claude, LeBlanc, Marc, & Larivee, Serge (1991). Can disruptive boys be helped to become competent? *Psychiatry, 54,* 149-161.

For project information, contact:

Richard E. Tremblay, University of Montreal, School of Psycho-Education, 750, bout Gouin Est. Montreal, Ouebec, Canada H2C IA6, (514) 385-2525

a12. *Primary Intervention Program (PIP):* PIP is a school-based, community-linked integrated services program to help children with school adjustment problems such as shyness, aggression, or inattentiveness. The program incorporates play techniques and reflective listening to help children learn better coping skills. Evaluation results indicated improvements in frustration tolerance, assertive social skills task orientation, peer sociability, and reduced problem behaviors in the areas of acting out, shyness/anxiousness, and learning difficulties. These changes across time were statistically significant during the first two years of evaluation (during the third year, changes occurred but were not significant). Overall, the program was successful in reducing problem behaviors and increasing competencies for school success. In addition, PIP reduced overall referrals for counseling services and special education referrals.

For more information, see:
PIP program is more than just child's play (1991). Fremonitor, 27 (4), pp 1 -2.

Allen, J. M. TIPS from PIP--Primary Intervention Program for at-risk students. In: R. Talley & G. Walz (Eds.), *Safe Schools, Safe Students.* National Education Goals Panel and National Alliance of Pupil Services Organizations. Produced in collaboration with ERIC Counseling and Student Services Clearinghouse.

a13. *Reconnecting Youth CRY):* Reconnecting Youth is a school-based, peer-group approach to building life skills. The program is designed to reduce risk factors and enhance protective factors that are linked with adolescent problem behaviors m general, and with adolescent drug involvement specifically. RY is a comprehensive, semester-long intervention that integrates small-group work, life skills training models, and a peer-group support model. Students who participated in this program demonstrated the following: Significant increases in GPA and attendance; A 60% decrease in hard-drug use; Stronger self-confidence; Decreases in acts of aggression and suicide; Decreased stress, depression, and anger; More positive, connected relationships with teachers, friends, and family than students in the control group. The RY program was originally implemented and evaluated in a public high school. Since then, it has been successfully implemented m alternative schools, private schools, and many other educational settings.

For more information, see:
Eggert, L.L., Thomson, E.A., Herting, J.R., & Nicholas, L.J. (1995). Reducing suicide potential among high-risk youth: Tests of a school-based prevention program. *Suicide and Life-Threatening Behavior, 25,* 276-296.

Eggert, L.L., et al. (Jan/Feb. 1994). Preventing adolescent drug abuse and high school dropout through an intensive school-based social network development program. *American Journal of Health Promotion, 8,* 208-210.

For program information, contact:
Leona L. Eggert, Ph.D., R.N., Psychosocial and Community Health Department, Box 357263, University of Washington School of Nursing, Seattle WA, 9819-7263, (206) 543-9455; To order materials, contact: Susan Dunker or Peter Brooks, National Education Service, P.O. Box 8, Bloomington, IN 47420, (800) 733-6786.

a14. *First Step to Success:* First Step to Success is an early intervention program for grades K-3 that takes a collaborative home and school approach to diverting at-risk children from a path leading to adjustment problems, school failure and drop-out, social juvenile delinquency in adolescence, and gang membership and interpersonal violence. Students who successfully the First Step program show sustained behaviors over time and across settings. The interventions produced very powerful behavior changes in the following areas, as indicated by teacher ratings and direct observations: adaptive behavior, aggressive behavior, maladaptive behavior, and the amount of time spent appropriately engaged in teacher -assigned tasks. Follow-up studies show that intervention effects persist up to two years beyond the end of the initial intervention period (into the first and second grades).

For more information, see:
Walker, H.M. (1998). First Steps to Success: Preventing antisocial behavior among at-risk kindergartners. Teaching Exceptional Children, 30, 16-19.

Walker, H.M., Severson, H.H., Feil, E.G., Stiller B., & Golly, A. (1997). First Step to Success. Intervening at the Point of School Entry to Prevent Antisocial Behavior Patterns. Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

For program information, contact:
Jeff Sprague and Hill Walker, Co-Directors, Institute on Violence and Destructive Behavior, 1265 University of Oregon, Eugene, OR 97403, (541) 346-3591.

a15. *The High/Scope Educational Research Foundation 's Perry Preschool Project:* The High/Scope project is part of a long-term follow-up evaluation of intervention programs which targeted poor children (ages 3-4). The High/Scope model emphasized active child-initiated learning, problem-solving, decision-making, planning, and a high degree of interaction between adults and children and among children themselves. In addition, teachers conducted weekly home visits and encouraged parents to be involved as volunteers in the classroom. In one study (Berruta-Clement, et al, 1984), children who participated in the program showed the following outcomes at age 19 compared to a control group: Improved scholastic achievement during the school years; Increases in high school graduation rate, post-secondary enrollment rate, and employment rate; Decreases in crime/delinquency, violent behavior, drug use and teen pregnancy. At age 27, project participants made the transition into adulthood far more successfully than adults from similar backgrounds: They committed fewer crimes; they had higher earnings; and had a greater commitment to marriage (Weikart & Schweinhart, 1993).

For more information, see:
Berruta-Clement, J., Schweinhart, L., Barney W., Epstein, A., & Weikart, D. (1984). *Changed lives: The effects of the Perry Preschool Program on youth age 19.* Ypsilanti, MI: High/Scope Press.

Schweinhart, L. & Weikart, D. (1986). Consequences of three preschool curriculum models through age 15. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 1, 15-45.*

Schweinhart, L. & Weikart, D. (1997). The High/Scope preschool curriculum comparison *study* through age 23. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 12,* 117-143.

Weikart, D. & Schweinhart, L. (1993). *Significant benefits: The High/Scope Perry Preschool Study through age 27.* Ypsilanti, MI. High/Scope Press.

a16. *I Can Problem Solve (ICES):* ICPS uses a cognitive approach to preventing early high risk behaviors in children--such as impulsivity, social withdrawal, poor peer relations, and inability or unwillingness to share and cooperate with others. It teaches children how to think in ways that help them solve typical interpersonal problems with peers and adults. Children as young as 4-years old can learn the ICPS curriculum. One study found that after only four months, preschool children who received ICPS training Ware rated as more adjusted (71%) compared to a control group (54%). Children who were previously rated as impulsive or inhibited became better adjusted after training (50% and 75% respectively) compared to those who did not receive training (21% and 35% respectively). Children who received training scored higher on alternative-solution thinking and consequential thinking tests compared to the control group. Statistical analyses suggest that these gains were due to the training an not to other factors such as teacher attention. Furthermore, children trained in kindergarten and retrained in first grade were showing the best adjusted behaviors three years later.

For more information, see:
Shure, M. B. (1993). *Interpersonal problem solving and prevention. A comprehensive report of research and training (a five year longitudinal study).* Grant #MH40801 Washington, DC: National Institute of Mental Health.

Shure, M. B., Aberson, B., & Fiber, *E. I Can Problem Solve (ICES): A cognitive approach to preventing early high risk behaviors. In: Ronda C. Talley & Garry R. Wad (EdsJ Safe Schools, Safe Students.* National Education Goals Panel and National Alliance of Pupil Services Organizations. Produced in collaboration with ERIC Counseling and Student Services Clearinghouse.

Shure, M. B., & Spivack, G. (1982). *Interpersonal problem-solving in young children: A cognitive approach to prevention.* American Journal of Community Psychology, 10, 341-356.

a17. *The Community of Caring:* Is a values education program for students in kindergarten through high school. The *COC* attempts to prevent pregnancy while emphasizing abstinence from early sexual activity, drug use, and alcohol use. It was shown that students in *COC* schools increased their grade point average relative to comparison schools. In addition to improving academic performance, the COC also showed promise for reducing substance abuse.

For program information, contact:
Wendy Hirsch, Program Coordinator, Community of Caring, 1325 G. St. NW, suite 500, Washington, DC 20005-3104. (202) 393-1251 /fax: (202) 824-0200.

For evaluation information, contact:
Rebecca Anderson Executive Director, Community of Caring, 1325 G. St. NW, suite 500, Washington, DC 20005-3104. (202j 393-1251 /fax: (202) 824-0200.

a18. *Student Training Through Urban Strategies (STATUS):* Project STATUS is a school-based program that helps students become active, responsible members of their community. It increases students' prosocial behaviors by providing contact with positive adult role models, enhancing stakes in conformity, and altering peer relationships. Targeted at Junior and Senior high students and students at risk, the Project STATUS program combats youths' anti-social behavior through two main strategies: improving the school's climate and implementing a year-long English/Social Studies class that focuses on key social institutions. An evaluation of Project STATUS showed significant beneficial effects for intervention students, compared to control students, including the following: Less total delinquency for all students and less serious delinquency for high school students; Less drug involvement for junior high students; Less negative peer influence; Greater academic success including higher grades and perceptions of schools as less punishing; Greater social bonding, including greater attachment to school for junior high students; and increased self-concept, attachment to school, interpersonal competency, involvement, months on roll, and less alienation for high school students.

For more information, see:
Gottfredson, Denise C. (1990). *Changing school structures to benefit high-risk youths. Understanding Troubled and Troubling Youth: Multidisciplinary Perspectives.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Gottfredson, Denise C., and Cook, Michael S. (1986). *Increasing school relevance and student decisionmaking: Effective strategies for reducing delinquency?* Center for Social Organization of Schools, The Johns Hopkins University.

For program information, contact:
Denise Gottfredson, Center for Social Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University, 3305 N Charles St., Baltimore, MD 21218, (410) 516-8808, Email: ddiggs@csos.jhu.edu web- http://scov.csos.jhu.edu.

a19. *Family Skills Training Programs:* Family skills training involves multi-component interventions, including behavioral parent training, social skills training for children, behavioral family therapy, and family role plays with coaching by the trainer. These are usually selective interventions targeting high-risk families, and they tend to have a positive impact on a large number of family and youth risk and protective factors. According to Dr. Kumpfer, "comprehensive family programs that combine social and life skills training to children and youth to improve their social and academic competencies with parent skills training programs to improve supervision and nurturance are the most effective in impacting a broader range of family risk and protective factors for drug use." Some examples of family skills training programs are: Strengthening Families Program (see this section), Focus on Families, Families and Schools Together (FAST), Family Effectiveness Training (FET), and The Nurturing Program.

For more information, see:
Kumpfer, K.L. (1993). *Strengthening America 's families: Promising parenting and family strategies for delinquency prevention. A user's guide.* Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Grant No. 87-J.-C.-K495. Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, Office of Juvenile Programs. A summary can be downloaded from: http://www.ncjrs.org/jjgen.htm

a20. *Strengthening Families Program:* The Strengthening Families Program is for parents and youth, ages 10-14, and utilizes a parent, youth and family skills-building curriculum designed to prevent teen substance abuse and other behavior problems, strengthen parenting skills, and build family strengths. The program involves seven 2-hour sessions plus 4 boosters. Parents and youth meet separately for the first hour, and then families practice skills and have fun together during the second hour. This curriculum is designed and used with ethnically diverse families in rural and urban settings. This program was tested with 442 families who live in areas with a high percentage of economically-stressed families. Participants were randomly assigned and comparisons were made between program participants and control families. Data have been analyzed from pretest, posttest, and one- and two-year follow-ups. Results show that compared to the control youth, youth in the program: were better than control youth in resisting peer pressure and avoiding antisocial peers; showed a 66% relative reduction in new use of alcohol without parental permission between 6th and 7th grade (Post test and 1-year follow-up). Parents showed specific gains in parenting skills including setting appropriate limits and building a positive relationship with their youth.

For more information, see the Strengthening Families Program website:
http://www.exnet.iastate.edu/Pages/families/sfprec.html or http://www.ncjrs.org/jjgen.htm

a21. *Rotheram 's Social Skills Training (RSST):* RSST is a social skills training intervention for upper elementary school youth designed to improve interpersonal problem-solving ability and increase assertiveness. RSST targets fourth through sixth graders. Students meet in groups of six, led by one trained facilitator. Within each group, a drama simulation game is conducted during one-hour sessions twice a week for 12 weeks. Each session teaches assertiveness, presents a problem situation, encourages group problem solving, and rehearses behaviors and provides feedback on performance. Compared to a control group, students in the social skills training condition demonstrated the following results: Significantly more assertive responses directly after treatment; Significantly fewer passive and aggressive problem-solving responses directly after treatment; Increases in grade-point averages one year after treatment. Teacher ratings of student conduct also improved significantly from pretreatment to immediately following the treatment, as well as one year after the treatment.

For more information see:
Rotheram, M.J. (1982). Social skills training with underachievers, disruptive, and exceptional children. *Psychology in the Schools, 19,* 532-539.

For program information, contact:
Mary Jane Rotheram, Department of Psychiatry, University of California, 740 Westwood Plaza, Los Angeles, CA 90095, (310) 794-8280.

a22. Say it Straight ISIS): Youth Centered Communication Skills Training: SIS focuses on building honest, assertive communications skills through extensive role-playing of interpersonal situations in which students find themselves (e.g., how to say "no" to a friend, how to resist peer pressure). The training is action-oriented and uses visual, auditory, and kinesthetic modalities to involve people with different learning styles. SIS has been used effectively in the prevention of alcohol and drug abuse, HIV/AIDs, violence, and delinquency. In one study, SIS-trained 6th-9th graders were significantly less likely to have alcohol or drug suspensions compared to a control group. Also, in another study, SIS trained high school students had 4 ½ times fewer juvenile criminal offenses than untrained comparison students.

For more information, see:
Englander-Golden, P., Elconin, J., & Miller, K. (1986). Brief Say It Straight training and follow-up in adolescent substance abuse prevention. *Journal of Primary Prevention,* 219-230.

Englander-Golden, P. & Satir, V. (1991). *Say it Straight: From compulsions to choices.* Palo Alto: Science and Behavior Books.

a23. Children of Divorce Intervention Program: Helps children in grades K-8 cope with divorce by utilizing timely interventions performed by a group of facilitators who are usually a male or female team selected for their interest, skills and sensitivity, as well as training. *CODIP* was shown to be effective in reducing anxiety and negative self-attributions as well as reducing school problems at a two-year follow-up.

For program information, contact:
Geri Cone, Primary Mental Health Project, 685 South Ave., Rochester, NY 14620-2290. (716) 262-2920.

b. *Promoting Physical Health*

b1. *SPARK:* Is a health-related physical education program for fourth and fifth-grade students, was designed to increase physical activity during physical education classes and outside of school. Students spent more minutes per week being physically active in specialist-lead and teacher-led physical education classes than in control classes. After 2 years, girls in the specialist-led condition were superior to girls in the control condition on abdominal strength and endurance and cardio-respiratory endurance.

For more information, see:
Sallis, J.F., et al. (1997). The Effects of a 2-Year Physical Education Program (SPARK) on Physical Activity and Fitness in Elementary School Students. *American Journal of Public health, 87,* 1328-1334.

School Health Starter Kit, Association of State and Territorial Health Officials, 1275 K. St, NW, Suite 800 Washington, DC 20005. (202)371-9090.

b2. *Get Real About AIDS:* An HIV prevention curriculum for students in grades 4-12. Participating students were more likely than students in the control group to report they had purchased a condom. Compared to the control, sexually active students in the program reported having fewer sexual partners within the past two months and using a condom more often during sexual intercourse. Students in the program scored significantly higher on a knowledge test of HIV and expressed greater intention to engage in safer sexual practices than comparison students. Program students were more likely to be aware that someone their age who engaged in risky behaviors could become infected with HIV.

For program information, contact:
AGC Educational Media, 1560 Sherman Ave., Suite 100, Evanston, IL 60201. (800) 323-9084 /fax: (847) 328-6706.

For training information, contact:
CHEF (800) 323-2422; National Training Partnership at EDC (617) 969-7100; or Julie Taylor, ETR Associates (408)438-4060.

For evaluation information, contact:
Deborah S. Main, PhD. Department of Family Medicine, University of Colorado Healthy Sciences Center, 1180 Clarmont St. Campus Box B- 155, Denver, CO 80220. (303) 270-5191.

b3. *Project STAR:* A universal drug abuse prevention program that reaches the entire community population with a comprehensive school program, mass media efforts, a parent program, community organization, and health policy change. Research results on this project have shown positive long-term effects: Students who began the program in junior high, and whose results were measured in their senior year of high school, showed significantly less use of marijuana (approximately 30% less), cigarettes (about 25% less), and alcohol (about 20% less) than children in schools that did not offer the program. The most important factor found to have affected drug use among students was increased perceptions of their friends' intolerance of drug use.

For more information, see:
Pentz, et al. (1989), Pentz (1995), as cited *in Preventing Drug Use Among Children and Adolescents: A Research Based Guide.* (1997). National Institute on Drug Abuse, National Institutes of Health, U.S. DHHS.

School Health Starter Kit, Association of State and Territorial Health Officials, 1275 K. St, NW, Suite 800, Washington, DC 20005. (202)371-9090.

b4 *Reconnecting Youth Program* (grades 9-12): A school based prevention program. Research shows that this program improves school performance; reduces drug involvement; increases self-esteem, personal control, school bonding, and social support; and decreases depression, anger and aggression, hopelessness, stress, and suicidal behaviors.

For more information, see:
Eggert, et al. (1994, 1995) as cited in *Preventing Drug Use Among Children and Adolescents: A Research Based Guide.* (1997). National Institute on Drug Abuse, National Institutes of Health, U.S. DHHS.)

School Health Starter Kit, Association of State and Territorial Health Officials, 1275 K. St, NW, Suite 800, Washington, DC 20005. (202)371 -9090.

b5. *School-Based Tobacco Programs:* A meta-analysis of 90 programs from 1974-1989 showed that social influence programs that were most effective at 1-year follow-up had the following components: they were delivered to sixth-grade students, used booster sessions, concentrated the program in a short time period, and used an untrained peer to present the program. Under these conditions, long-term smoking prevalence was about 25% lower.

For more information, see:
Lynch, B.S. & Bonnie, R.J. (eds) (1994). *Growing up Tobacco Free: Preventing Nicotine Addiction in Children and Youths.* National Academy Press, Washington D.C.)

School Health Starter Kit, Association of State and Territorial Health Officials, 1275 K. St, NW, Suite 800, Washington, DC 20005. (202)371-9090.

b6. *The Teen Outreach Program:* A nationally replicated and evaluated program sponsored by the Junior League, which includes health education and exploration of life options was found to have a positive impact on suspension rates, course failure and female students becoming pregnant. Suspension rates: Control group at entry 23.8%, Intervention group at entry 17%; at exit, CG - 28.7%, and IG -13%; Failing: At entry CG -37.8%, IG - 30.3%; at exit CG - 48.8%, IG - 25.6%, Pregnancy - At entry CG - 10%, IG - 6.1 %; at exit, CG - 9.8%, IG - 4.2%

For more information, see:
Allen J., Philber S., Herrling S., and Kupermic G. (1997). Preventing Teen Pregnancy and Academic Failure: Experimental Evaluation of a Developmentally Based Approach. *Child Development 64,* 729-742.

School Health Starter Kit, Association of State and Territorial Health Officials, 1275 K. St, NW, Suite 800, Washington, DC 20005. (202)371-9090.

b7. *The 5-a-Day Power Plus:* This program increased lunch time fruit consumption and combined fruit and vegetable consumption among all children, lunchtime vegetable consumption among girls, and daily fruit consumption and the proportion of total daily calories attributable to fruits and vegetables.

For more information, see:
Perry, C.L., et al., (1998). Changing Fruit and Vegetable Consumption Among Children: The 5-a-Day Power Plus Program in St. Paul, Minnesota. American Journal of Public Health, 88 (No.4), 603-609.

b8. *Gimme 5:* A nutrition program for students in 4th and 5th grades based on social cognitive theory. Findings revealed increased vegetable consumption at year two in the treatment group compared to decreased consumption in the control group. Parent interviews suggested a positive increase in the availability of fruit and vegetables at home as a result of program.

For more information, see:
Domel SB, Baranowski, T. Davis HC, Thompson WO, Leonard SB, Baranowski J. A measure of stages of change in fruit and vegetable consumption among 4th and 5th grade school children: Reliability and validity. *Journal of Amer. College of Nut.* 1996;15(1):56-64.

Domel SB, Baranowski T. Davis HC, Thompson WO, Leonard SB, Baranowski J. A measure of outcome expectations for fruit and vegetable consumption among 4th and 5th grade children: reliability and validity. *Health Education Research: Theory & Practice.* 1995;10(1):65-72.

Domel SB, Baranowski T. Davis HC, et al. Development and evaluation of a school intervention to increase fruit and vegetable consumption among 4th and 5th grade students. *Journal of Nutrition Education.* 1993,25(6):345-349.

For program information, contact:
Janice Baranowski, MPH, RD, LD. Project Manager, Department of Behavioral science, University of Texas M.D. Anderson Cancer Center, 1515 Holcombe Blvd., Box 243, Houston, TX 77030-4095. (713)745-2383.

For evaluation information, contact:
Tom Baranowski, PhD, Department of Behavioral Science, University of Texas, M.D. Anderson Cancer Center, 1515 Holcombe Blvd., Houston, TX 77030-4095. (713)745-2682. E-mail: tbaranow@notes.mdacc.tmc.edu

b.9 *Healthy for Life:* The Healthy for Life program uses the social influence theory to address five high-risk health behaviors of middle school students, including nutrition habits, tobacco, alcohol and marijuana use, and sexual behavior. By the ninth grade, students in the intensive version were significantly more likely to eat more meals in a week, significantly less likely to use cigarettes and scored lower on an overall scale of substance abuse. Males were less likely to use smokeless tobacco than students in control schools. Students in the age-appropriate intervention scored higher on alcohol and smokeless tobacco use than those in the control group suggesting short-term negative effects. Trend data for the intensive intervention indicated immediate negative effects characterized by increases in high-risk behaviors, but positive effects by the following year.

For more information, see:
Piper, D.L. The healthy for life project: A summary of research findings. Final report to NIDA. Madison: Pacific Institute for Research and Evaluation, 1993.

For program information, contact:
Monica King, Program Coordinator, Pacific Institute, 617 North Segoe Road, Madison, WI 53705. (608) 231 - 2334/ fax: (608) 231 -3211.

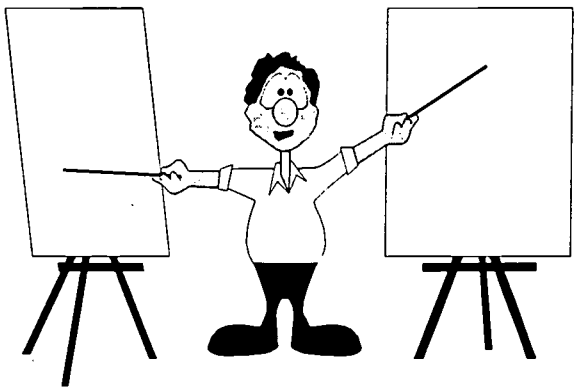
For evaluation information, contact:
Douglas Piper, PhD, Pacific Institute, 617 North Segoe Road, Madison, WI 53705. (608)231 -2334 / fax: (608) 231 -3211.

b10. *Community of Caring (COC):* COC is a values education program for students in kindergarten through high school. The program focuses on prevention and emphasis on the importance of abstinence from early sexual activity and deferring childbearing until marriage. It also encourages abstinence from alcohol and other drug use and stresses the importance of personal health. the program's goal is to strengthen students' ethical decision-making skills by promoting the values of caring, family, respect, trust and responsibility. COC in Richmond was most successful in influencing students to adopt the core sexual values of the COC program - sexual abstinence until marriage, marriage is the best circumstance for having a baby, postponing sex is as good as is preparing for the future. The Kansas COC program was most successful in promoting some secondary values of COC -helping others and valuing school, personal health and one's family. students in COC schools at all sites improved their grade point average relative to the comparison schools. At the end of the 2-year period, more Richmond students, including at-risk students, compared to those in the control school reported significantly fewer not-excused absences and fewer disciplinary actions. Also in Richmond, the one school that documented pregnancies, the number of pregnant students dropped from 14 in 1988 to two in 1990. COC did not influence self-esteem or locus of control.

For more information, see:
Balicki, B.J., Godlenberg, D., Keel, K.S., Burnette, J., Yates, *T. An evaluation of the community of caring-in-schools initiative. Draft final report.* Columbia, Md: The Center for Health Policy Studies, July 7, 1 991.

For program information, contact:
Wendy Hirsch, Program Coordinator, Community of Caring 1325 G St. NW, Suite 500 Washington, DC 20005-3104, (202) 393-1251 /fax: (202) 824-0200

For evaluation information, contact:
Rebecca Anderson, Executive Director, Community of Caring 1325 G St. NW, Suite 500 Washington, DC 20005-3104, (202)393-1251 /fax: (202)824-0200



Student-Led Conferences

Checklist

Possible Agenda

Self-Evaluation Forms

Post Conference Student Reflections

Student-Led Conferences

Excerpts from:
http://www.rialto.k12.ca.us/frisbie/coyote.html
http://www.chs.edu.sg/~leeff/cme/talentportfolio.html
http://142.28.183.101/kinder-1/1997/9709/0349.html

Name: _____

Date: _____ Period: _____

Student-Led Conference Checklist

Check off, or get a peer or teacher to check off as appropriate, as you complete each requirement. This will insure that nothing is forgotten or overlooked:

self	peer	teacher	
			Prior To The Student-Led Conference
____	____	____	Create and mail a formal Parent/Guardian Invitation Letter.
____	____	____	Make certain that parent/guardian has returned Invitation Letter.
____	____	____	Retrieve portfolio items from each academic area.
____	____	____	Complete an evaluation form in each academic area.
____	____	____	Complete a more general evaluation form.
____	____	____	Review teacher-provided Conference Agenda.
____	____	____	Complete instruction for manners, courtesy, and etiquette.
____	____	____	Create, arrange for, or provide refreshments for the actual conference.
____	____	____	Complete rehearsals for actual conference.
			Conducting the Student-Led Conference
____	____	____	Check arrangement of materials and room prior to conference.
____	____	____	Meet, greet and seat parents/guardians.
____	____	____	Offer and serve refreshments.
____	____	____	Review Conference Agenda with parents/guardians.
____	____	____	Present and discuss portfolio samples.
____	____	____	Present and discuss all self-evaluation forms.
____	____	____	Ask parents for questions or comments.
____	____	____	Excuse and thank parents/guardians for attendance.
			After the Student-Led Conference
____	____	____	Complete "Post Conference Student Reflection Form."
____	____	____	Complete and mail a formal Thank You note to parents/guardians.
____	____	____	Submit completed Student-Led Conference checklist to teacher.

Student-Led Conference -- Possible Agenda

Meet and greet parents/guardians at the door; escort them to their seat; hold chair as appropriate.

Ask parents/guardians if they would like refreshments; serve refreshments.

Review the conduct of the conference and the Agenda with parents/guardians; request that questions be held until the completion of the conference.

Explain to your parents your goals for this year and how you went about achieving them.

Present samples of work you have done...it could be a few pieces of work that could track your progress, or it could be explaining how much time you needed to produce a big/mini project...explain how it could be better, what you feel you have learned, what others say about your work and how you would like to develop a particular area further, given the opportunity.

Present to your parents your working style and preferences and the new goals you have set for yourself and how you, your teachers, and your parents could work to help you achieve a particular goal set.

Present what steps you think are needed to achieve what you want.

Discuss area you may like to work on.

Present a proposal of how you and your parents could work in partnership.

Present and discuss self-evaluation form(s) (see following pages).

Ask parents/guardians if they have any questions or comments .

Excuse and thank parents/guardians for their attendance; escort them to the door.

How Do I See Myself? Questionnaire

A General Self-Evaluation Form

Give yourself a **1** for NEVER, a **2** for SELDOM, a **3** for FREQUENTLY or a **4** for ALWAYS.

Quality Producer	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
I work successfully as a team member.	____	____	____	____
I produce quality projects, assignments or performances.	____	____	____	____
I use materials effectively and appropriately.	____	____	____	____
I met due dates/deadlines.	____	____	____	____
I go above and beyond.	____	____	____	____

Effective Communicator	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
I effectively communicate thoughts and ideas.	____	____	____	____
I make positive contributions to lessons/discussions.	____	____	____	____
I deal with problems, arguments or fights in a positive way.	____	____	____	____

Life-Long Learner	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
I know who to ask for help and information.	____	____	____	____
I know how to find and use a variety of resources.	____	____	____	____
I am flexible and creative when necessary.	____	____	____	____

Responsible Citizen	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
I demonstrate personal responsibility in attitude, actions, words and work.	____	____	____	____
I follow rules and directions.	____	____	____	____
I make a positive contribution to the classroom and community.	____	____	____	____
I demonstrate respect and understanding for myself and others.	____	____	____	____

Perceptive Thinker	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
I demonstrate knowledge and interest in the world and current events.	____	____	____	____
I use knowledge and creativity to solve problems.	____	____	____	____
I think beyond the obvious.	____	____	____	____

Self-Directed Individual	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
I show maturity and responsibility by making healthy, safe and wise choices.	____	____	____	____
I set goals and follow through with them.	____	____	____	____
I start work, stay on task and complete the assignment without being reminded or prompted.	____	____	____	____

Simple Self Evaluation

1. Something that I am good at in school is

_____

2. Something that I need to work on harder at school is

_____

3.Something that I would like more help with at school is

_____

Example of A Specific Evaluation Form

Student:_____ Date:_____

Teacher:_____ Subject:_____ Period:_____

(Title of Paper or Project:_____)

Answer the following questions about your paper or project:	yes	no
1. I use an introduction, a topic sentence, a thesis, or I identify my project.	____	____
2. I let the reader understand what I am doing by providing relevant background information and sources.	____	____
3. I support my interpretation(s) or position(s) by providing (circle those which apply): examples, evidence, quotations personal experience, or related readings.	____	____
4. I explain how my examples or other evidence support my claims by using words such as: shows, demonstrates, proves, supports, or illustrates.	____	____
5. My supporting evidence provides the main part of my composition.	____	____
6. I take a strong, consistent point of view and I maintain it.	____	____
7. I convince my readers that my interpretation or position is valid or correct.	____	____

8. What I like best about my paper is:

9. A part where I need more information or I needed to use more examples or evidence is:

10. Other revisions or changes I might make if I could do the paper or project over are:

A General Self-Evaluation Form

From: *The Logan School for Creative Learning*

1. Examine the goals you have set for this term. Discuss what you have done to accomplish these goals and whether or not they have been accomplished. Include examples in your portfolio.

2. Discuss your accomplishments in time management this quarter. What worked and what didn't?

3. Discuss the quality of your work in more than one way (writing, research depth, accuracy, etc.). Include discussion of pieces you think are representative of your work. This may be examples that show improvement needed, or a series of drafts that show your accomplishments in revising you writing, or some work that shows you took a risk and tried something new, etc.

4. Discuss something you learned to do this year that you thought was good for you to learn, and that you didn't know before. Tell why you believe it may be useful to you. Include an example/examples in your portfolio.

5. Discuss your best work this year and how you think it came to be this way. Include examples.

6. Discuss what work didn't seem your best, and why you think this happened. Include examples.

7. Describe what you do differently know as a student that you weren't doing before. Explain. Include examples in your portfolio.

8. Describe what you want people to learn about you as a student from viewing your portfolio.

9. Discuss your ability to seek help from either teachers or peers when needed.

10. Describe your goals for the rest of this year and the first term of next year and why you think they are important to accomplish for yourself at this time, and how you plan to carry them out.

Post Conference Student Reflections

1. My conference went well because...

2. The best part about my conference was...

3. One of the difficult things about my conference was...

4. For my next conference, I need to remember to...

5. One of the positive things that I feel that I have learned during the conference process was...

6. One of the positive things that I feel that my parents/guardians learned about me was...

Ideas for Authentic Assessment
from http://www.coedu.usf.edu/sacee/goals2k

Performance Assessment requires students to perform activities rather than taking written tests.

- Examples of performance activities include:
- Reciting a memorized and/or original poem
- Generating a scientific hypothesis
- Solving a mathematical question
- Performing a play or piece of music
- Demonstrating a new four step gymnastic routine
- Stage a mock historical event
- Debating the quality of education and the implications of quality standards

Product Assessment requires students to make a product. Examples include:

- Explain historical events through development of a diary of events
- Generate a scientific model of motion
- Solve and graphically display a mathematical equation
- Write a new piece of music
- Construct a new piece of athletic equipment
- Create a game that teaches grammar
- Chart the results of water use and generate a future-use chart based on projected community growth.

Portfolios record a student's work and progress over an extended time. They contain samples of students' work throughout the entire year. Listed below are some of the products that can be included in a portfolio:

- Art samples
- Audio tapes demonstrating reading fluency of expression, foreign language skills, musical abilities, performance assessments, etc.
- Computer disks with papers, graphic designs, scanned documents, multimedia projects, etc.
- Evidence of effective problem solving, such as math computations or science assignment
- Learning log, created by students to track progress toward achieving personal learning goals
- Parent observations & evaluations, sent from home or created during parent conferences
- Personal goals of the students, generated individually, with teachers, and/or with parents
- Photographs
- Reading log, containing a list of books read by the students, and/or written responses, summaries, reflections, etc.
- Research log, demonstrating student's ability to gather data and record in meaningful way, written interpretations and conclusions
- Self-assessments and reflections
- Teacher observations/evaluations of the student
- Video tapes recording performance tasks
- Writing samples, such as poetry, short stories, essays, letters, narrative writing, persuasive writing, expository writing, and including rough drafts and revisions

Teachers assess students' work using **Rubrics**, or scoring guides with established sets of quality criteria and standards. They can be created by the teacher, students, or teacher and students combined, and should be shared with students early in the instructional process. Rubrics provide students with information and practical definitions for various levels of performance (e.g., no attempt, minimal, acceptable, excellent, superior).

The Prereferral Process

When a students in seen as having problems, the following steps may be helpful:

Step 1: Based on your work with the student, *formulate a description* of the student's problem.

(See attached checklist as an aid).

Step 2: Have a *discussion* to get the student's view. You may want to include the family.

(See attached suggestions).

Step 3: Try *new strategies* in the classroom based on your discussion.

(See attached list).

Step 4: In the new strategies don't work, *talk to others* at school to learn about additional approaches they have found helpful.

Step 5: If necessary, use the *school's referral process* to ask for additional support services.

Step 6: Work with referral resources to *coordinate your efforts* with theirs for classroom success.

Referrals are relatively easy to make. BUT because most families are reluctant to follow-through on a referral, referrers usually need to do more than give them a name and address.

Step 1: Based on your work with the student, *formulate a description* of the student's problem. (Use the checklist as an aid.)

A Checklist to Aid in Describing the Problem

Teacher's Name: _____ Room. _____ Date _____

Extensive assessment is not necessary in initially identifying a student about whom you are concerned. If a student is having a significant learning problem or is misbehaving or seems extremely disturbed, begin by checking off those items below that are concerning you.

Students name: _____ Birth date: _____ Grade: _____

Social Problems ( ) Aggressive ( ) Shy ( ) Overactive ( ) _____	Achievement problems ( ) Poor skills ( ) Low motivation ( ) _____
Overall academic performance ( ) Above grade level ( ) At grade level ( ) Slightly below grade level ( ) Well below grade level	Absent from school ( ) Less than once/month ( ) Once/month ( ) 2-3 times /month ( ) 4 or more times/month

Other specific concerns:

Comments: If you have information about what is causing the problem, briefly note the specifics here.

Step 2: Have a *discussion* to get the student's view. You may want to include the family. (See suggestions below).

Exploring the Problem with the Student and Family

As you know the causes of learning, behavior, and emotional problems are hard to analyze. What looks like a learning disability or an attentional problem may be an emotionally-based problem; behavior problems often arise in reaction to learning difficulties; what appears to be a problem with school may be the result of a problem at home.

It is particularly hard to know the underlying cause of a problem when the student is unmotivated to learn and perform. It will become clearer as you find ways to enhance the student's motivation to perform in class and talk more openly with you.

> The following guide is meant to help you get a bit more information about a student's problem.

Make personal contact with student (and those in the home). Try to improve your understanding of why the student is having problems and see if you can build a positive working relationship. Special attention should be paid to understanding and addressing factors that may affect the student's intrinsic motivation to learn and perform.

1. Starting out on a positive note: Ask about what the student likes at school and in the class (if anything).

2. Ask about outside interests and "hobbies."

3. Ask about what the student doesn't like at school and in the class.

4. Explore with the student what it is about these things that makes them disliked (e.g., Are the assignments seen as too hard? Is the student embarrassed because others will think s/he does not have the ability to do assignments? Do others pick on the student? Are the assignments not seen as interesting?)

5. Explore what other factors the student and those in the home think may be causing the problem?

6. Explore what the student and those in the home think can be done to make things better (including extra support from a volunteer, a peer, etc.).

7. Discuss some new things the student and those in the home would be *willing* to try to make things better.

Step 3: Try new strategies in the classroom based on your discussion.

Some Things to Try

The following list is meant as a stimulus to suggest specific strategies that might be tried before referring a student for special help.

1. Make changes to (a) improve its match between the student's program and his/her interests and capabilities and (b) try to find ways for the student to have a special, positive status in the program, at the school, in the community. Talk and work with other staff in developing ideas along these lines.

2. Add resources (aide, volunteers, peer tutors, home involvement, counseling, to help support student efforts to learn and perform. This includes having others cover your duties long enough for you to interact and relate with student as an individual.

3. Discussion with student (and those in the home) about why student is having problems

4. Special exploration with student to find ways to enhance positive motivation

5. Change regular program/materials/environment to provide a better match with student's interests and skills.

6. Provide enrichment options in class and as feasible elsewhere

7. Develop a special status role for the student in the program (at the school, in the community)

8. Use volunteers/aide/peers to provide extra support (to help student through tasks, to provide tutoring and social support)

9. Special discussion with those in the home to elicit enhanced home involvement in solving the problem

10. Ask other staff for suggestions

11. Hold a special discussion with the student at which you and other staff (e.g., counselor, principal) explore reasons for the problem and find ways to enhance positive motivation

12 Try ancillary services (e.g., outside tutoring, counseling/therapy)

13. List other strategies you have tried.

14. Brainstorm to arrive at other ideas that should be added.

Step 4: If the new strategies don't work, talk to others at school to learn about additional approaches they have found helpful.

- Reach out for support/mentoring/coaching
- Participate with others in clusters and teams
- Observe how others teach in ways that effectively address differences in student motivation and capability and account for a student's current state of being
- Request additional staff development on these topics

There are a variety of topics that might be pursued related to exploring ways for classrooms to enhance how they help students by addressing barriers to learning within the context of a caring, learning community.

Topics include:

(1) Ways to train aides, volunteers, and peers to help with targeted students.

(2) Specific strategies for mobilizing parent/home involvement in schooling.

(3) Using specialist staff for in-class and temporary out-of-class help.

(4) Addressing the many transition needs of students.

Teacher Assistance Teams

One prereferral method uses teacher assistance teams (TATs) which also go by such labels as staff support teams, intervention assistance teams, etc. Stokes (1982) defines a TAT as "a school based problem-solving group whose purpose is to provide a vehicle for discussion of issues related to specific needs of teachers or students and to offer consultation and follow-up assistance to staff..." TATs are typically comprised of regular classroom teachers; however, in some settings, TATs also include representatives from multiple disciplines, such as psychology or special education. TATs focus on intervention planning, usually prior to referral and assessment, rather than on placement. The TAT and the referring teacher meet to discuss problems the student is having, think of possible solutions, and develop a plan of action to be implemented by the referring teacher. Assessment data are gathered by TATs for the purpose of planning and monitoring the effectiveness of interventions. Follow-up meetings are held to discuss the effectiveness of the proposed interventions, and to develop other strategies if necessary. Ultimately, the TAT decides whether the student should be referred to special education (Garcia & Ortiz, 1988).

References

Stokes, S. (1982). *School-based staff support teams: A blueprint for action.* Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children.

Garcia, S.B., & Ortiz, A.A. (1988). *Preventing inappropriate referrals of language minority students to special education.* Occasional Papers in Bilingual Education. NCBE New Focus 45 Silver Spring, MD: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education (EDRS # ED309591).

CONTENTS

Support for Transitions

- Self-Study Survey to Enhance this Area
- Some Examples of Work in this Area that have Evaluative Data
- Welcoming Strategies for Newly Arrived Students and Their Families

The emphasis here is on planning, developing, and maintaining a comprehensive focus on the variety of transition concerns confronting students and their families. The work in this area can be greatly aided by advanced technology. Anticipated outcomes are reduced levels of alienation and increased levels of positive attitudes toward and involvement at school and in a range of learning activity.

Support for Transitions

Please indicate all items that apply.

	Yes	Yes but more of this is needed	No	If no, is this something you want?
A. What programs for establishing a welcoming and supportive community are at the site?				
1. Are there welcoming materials/a welcoming decor?	___	___	___	___
Are there welcome signs?	___	___	___	___
Are welcoming information materials used?	___	___	___	___
Is a special welcoming booklet used?	___	___	___	___
Are materials translated into appropriate languages?	___	___	___	___
Is advanced technology used as an aid?	___	___	___	___
2. Are there orientation programs?	___	___	___	___
Are there introductory tours?	___	___	___	___
Are introductory presentations made?	___	___	___	___
Are new arrivals introduced to special people such as the principal and teachers?	___	___	___	___
Are special events used to welcome recent arrivals?	___	___	___	___
Are different languages accommodated?	___	___	___	___
3. Is special assistance available to those who need help registering?	___	___	___	___
4. Are social support strategies and mechanisms used?	___	___	___	___
Are peer buddies assigned?	___	___	___	___
Are peer parents assigned?	___	___	___	___
Are special invitations used to encourage family involvement?	___	___	___	___
Are special invitations used to encourage students to join in activities?	___	___	___	___
Are advocates available when new arrivals need them?	___	___	___	___
5. Other? (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
B. Which of the following transition programs are in use for grade-to-grade and program-to-program articulation?				
1. Are orientations to the new situation provided?	___	___	___	___
2. Is transition counseling provided?	___	___	___	___
3. Are students taken on "warm-up" visits?	___	___	___	___
4. Is there a "survival" skill training program?	___	___	___	___
5. Is the new setting primed to accommodate the individual's needs?	___	___	___	___
6. other (specify) _____	___	___	___	___

Support for Transitions (cont.)

C. Which of the following are used to facilitate transition to post school living?	Yes	Yes but More of this is needed	No	If no, is this something you want?
1. vocational counseling	___	___	___	___
2. college counseling	___	___	___	___
3. a mentoring program	___	___	___	___
4. job training	___	___	___	___
5. job opportunities on campus	___	___	___	___
6. a work-study program	___	___	___	___
7. life skills counseling	___	___	___	___
8. Other? (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
D. Which of the following before and after school programs are available?				
1. subsidized breakfast/lunch program	___	___	___	___
2. recreation program	___	___	___	___
3. sports program	___	___	___	___
4. Youth Services Program	___	___	___	___
5. youth groups such as				
drill team	___	___	___	___
interest groups	___	___	___	___
service clubs	___	___	___	___
organized youth programs ("Y," scouts)	___	___	___	___
Cadet Corps	___	___	___	___
other (specify)_____	___	___	___	___
6. academic support in the form of	___	___	___	___
tutors	___	___	___	___
homework club	___	___	___	___
study hall	___	___	___	___
homework phone line	___	___	___	___
homework center	___	___	___	___
other (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
7. enrichment opportunities (including classes)	___	___	___	___
8. Other (specify) _____	___	___	___	___

Support for Transitions (cont.)

E. Which of the following programs are offered during intersession?	Yes	Yes but more of this is needed	No	If no, is this something you want?
1. recreation	___	___	___	___
2. sports	___	___	___	___
3. Youth Services	___	___	___	___
4. youth groups	___	___	___	___
5. academic support	___	___	___	___
6. enrichment opportunities (including classes)	___	___	___	___
7. other (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
F. What programs are used to meet the educational needs of personnel related to this programmatic area?				
1. Is there ongoing training for team members concerned with the area of Support for Transitions?	___	___	___	___
2. Is there ongoing training for staff of specific services/ programs? (e.g., teachers, peer buddies, office staff, administrators)?	___	___	___	___
3. Other? (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
G. Which of the following topics are covered in educating stakeholders?				
1. understanding how to create a psychological sense of community	___	___	___	___
2. developing systematic social supports for students, families, and staff	___	___	___	___
3. developing motivation knowledge, and skills for successful transitions	___	___	___	___
4. the value of and strategies for creating before and after school programs	___	___	___	___

H. Please indicate below any other ways that are used to provide support for transitions.

_____ _____
_____ _____
_____ _____

I. Please indicate below other things you want the school to do to provide support for transitions.

_____ _____
_____ _____
_____ _____

Support for Transitions

Some Examples of Work in this Area that have Evaluative Data

Clearly, interventions to enable successful transitions make a significant difference in how motivationally ready and able students are to benefit from schooling. Available evidence supports the positive impact of early childhood programs in preparing young children for school. The programs are associated with increases in academic performance and may even contribute to decreases in discipline problems in later school years. There is enough evidence that before- and after-school programs keep kids safe and steer them away from crime, and some evidence suggesting they can improve academic performance. Evaluations show that well-conceived and implemented programs can successfully ease students' transition between grades, and preliminary evidence suggests the promise of programs that provide welcoming and social support for children and families transitioning into a new school. Programs that aid in the transition in and out of special education need better implementation and related evaluation. The available reports do suggest such interventions will enhance students' attitudes about school and self and will improve their academic performance. Finally, programs providing vocational training and career education are having an impact in terms of increasing school retention and graduation and show promise for successfully placing students in jobs following graduation.

It has taken a long time for schools to face up to the importance of establishing transition programs. A good beginning has now been made, but there is much more to do. A major example of need involves the current push for greater inclusion of special education students. Such a policy can only succeed if sophisticated transition programs are developed. Before school programs are another transition point that needs a major programmatic expansion. It is the key to addressing tardiness and enhancing everyday school readiness.*

The following pages provide examples of:

1. *Readiness to Learn / Early Childhood Programs*
2. *Before & After School Programs*
3. *Grade Articulation Programs*
4. *Welcoming and Social Support Programs*
5. *To and From Special Education*
6. *School-To-Career Programs*

*The material included in this section is excerpted from a Center Technical Assistance Sampler entitled: *A Sampling of Outcome Findings from Interventions Relevant to Addressing Barriers to Learning.* Given the pressure to compile outcome findings relevant to addressing barriers to student learning, as a first step we simply have gathered and tabulated information from secondary sources (e.g., reviews, reports). Thus, unlike published literature reviews and meta analyses, we have not yet eliminated evaluations that were conducted in methodologically unsound ways. We will do so when we have time to track down original sources, and future drafts of this document will address the problem as well as including other facets of intervention related to this area. In this respect, we would appreciate any information readers can send us about well-designed evaluations of interventions that should be included and about any of the cited work that should be excluded.

1. Readiness to Learn / Early Childhood Programs

a. *Head Start Program:* The ultimate goal of Head Start is children's social competence. This refers to the child's everyday effectiveness in dealing with both his or her present environment and later responsibilities in school and life. It takes into account the interrelatedness of cognitive, emotional, and social development; physical and mental health; and nutritional needs. Social competence has five objectives which support it. (1) Enhance Children's Growth and Development, (2) Strengthen Families as the Primary Nurturers of Their Children, (3) Provide Children with Educational, Health and Nutritional Services, (4) Link Children and Families to Needed Community Services, and (5)Ensure Well-Managed Programs that Involve Parents in Decision-making.

For more information, see:
First Progress Report on the Head Start Program Performance Measures, May 15, 1997, Prepared for: Administration on Children, Youth and Families, Head Start Bureau, Prepared by: Caliber Associates, Ellsworth Associates, Westat, Mathematica Policy Research, http://www2.acf.dhhs.gov/programs/hsb/html/final_report.html

b. *Long-term Effects of Early Childhood Programs*: Long term studies of early childhood programs such as preschool, Head Start, child care, and pre-kindergarten found enhancements in cognitive achievements and social outcomes. Children who attended early childhood programs showed less placement in special education classes, or grade retainment later in their education. Children who attended these programs were also more likely to graduate from high school, and less likely to be involved in future delinquent and criminal behavior. Model programs which combined home visits with center-based child development services were associated with less aggressive behavior. Two criminal justice studies showed that program children had fewer contacts with the criminal justice system. One study that followed its subjects through age 27 also found that preschool participants had fewer out-of-wedlock births, relied less on social services as adults, and had higher average earnings than individuals in the control group.

For more information, see:
Gomby, D.S., Larner, M.B., Stevenson, C.S., Lewit, E.M., and Behrman, R.E. (1995) Long-Term Outcomes of Early Childhood Programs: Analysis and Recommendations. *The Future of Children, 5*(3), 6-24.

c. *Early-childhood programs for low income families*: Thirty-six studies of both model demonstration projects and large-scale public programs were reviewed to examine the long-term effects of early-childhood programs on children from low-income families. Results indicate that some early childhood programs can produce large short-term benefits for children on intelligence quotient (IQ) and sizable long-term effects on school achievement, grade retention, placement in special education, and social adjustment.

For more information, see:
Barnett, W.S. (1995). Long-Term Effects of Early Childhood Programs: Cognitive and School Outcomes. *The Future of Children, 5(3), 25-50.*

d. *Early-childhood programs on social outcomes and delinquency*: Early-childhood programs which seek to ameliorate factors associated with later antisocial or delinquent behavior can prevent these factors. These programs have in common a combination of intensive family support and early education services, and effect a broad range of child and family risk factors for delinquency. There is also promising evidence of their cost effectiveness. The programs that demonstrated long-term effects on crime and antisocial behavior tended to be those that combined early-childhood education and family support services. Four programs were evaluated: High/Scope Perry Preschool Project, Syracuse University Family Development Research Program, Yale Child Welfare Project, and Houston Parent Child Development Center. Overall, results indicated that the program participants committed fewer delinquent or criminal acts with less later involvement with the juvenile justice system. Antisocial behavior was decreased in the Yale Project and the Houston Center.

For more information, see:
Yoshikawa, H. (1995) Long-Term Effects of Early Childhood Programs on Social Outcomes and Delinquency. *The Future of Children, 5(3),* 51-75.

e. *Even Start*: The goal of Even Start is to help break the cycle of illiteracy and poverty by improving the educational opportunities available to low-income families with limited educational experiences. After one year of participation, Even Start children scored significantly higher on the Preschool Inventory (PSI), a test of school readiness, than children in a randomly assigned control group. Children who remained in Even Start more than one year may grow at a-faster-than-expected rate both on the PSI and on the Preschool Language Scale (PLS). A substantial body of research shows that gains are enhanced by exposure to a high-quality, center-based program. Research supports this finding in that adults and children with high levels of participation in Even Start's core services had larger learning gains than those with low levels of participation. Children in projects that emphasize center-based programs had larger learning gains than children in projects that emphasize home-based services. Findings from the first national evaluation showed a positive relationship between the amount of parenting education received and children's vocabulary test scores.

For more information, see:
Even Start: Evidence from the Past and a Look to the Future. Planning and Evaluation Service Analysis and Highlights. http://www.ed.gov/pubs/EvenStart/highlights.html.

f. *Full-day Kindergarten:* Research studies confirm that attendance in developmentally appropriate full-day kindergarten results in academic and social benefits for students, at least in the primary grades. Those in full-day kindergarten programs (compared to half-day or alternate day programs) exhibited more independent learning, classroom involvement, productivity in work with peers, and reflectiveness than half-day kindergartners. They were also more likely to approach the teacher and expressed less withdrawal, anger, shyness, and blaming behavior.

For more information, see:
Cryan, J., Sheehan, R., Weichel, J., and Bandy-Hedden, I.G. (1992). Success Outcomes of Full-day Kindergarten: More Positive Behavior and Increased Achievement in the Years After. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 7*(2, June), 187-203. EJ 450 525.

Holmes, C.T., and McConnell, B.M. (1990). Full-day versus Half-day Kindergarten: An Experimental Study. Unpublished paper. ED 369 540.

Karweit, N. (1992). The Kindergarten Experience. *Educational Leadership, 49* (6, Mar), 82-86. EJ 441 182.

Rothenberg, D. (1995). Full-Day Kindergarten Programs. *ERIC Digest*: ED 382410

2. Before & After-School Programs

a. *The ASPIRA Lighthouse Program*: The ASPIRA Lighthouse Program, an educational and recreational program, serves children in grades K-12 three hours a day, five days a week, and all day during the summer. In providing educational enrichment, cultural awareness, and recreational activities, the program offers children a range of options from karate and dance to reading skills and math and science programs. Volunteers, including parents, teach special classes, car-pool students, read with children, and help with homework. The program is well connected to the schools: each site coordinator is a teacher in the school. The principal, other teachers, and community agencies manage the program with the cooperation of families, students, school custodians, and security guards. The chief of police credits the Lighthouse program with the decrease in crime, especially in juvenile crime, throughout the city. Lighthouse children outperformed other students on standardized tests in reading and math, and they showed better attendance rates. Parents, teachers, and students also reported improved student self-motivation, higher levels of homework quality and completion, fewer disciplinary referrals, and better peer and teacher relationships.

For more information, see:
Safe and Smart: Making After-School Hours Work for Kids - June 1998. Which can be downloaded at: http://www.ed.gov/pubs/SafeandSmart/

Contact: Tammy Papa, ASPIRA Lighthouse Program, Bridgeport, Connecticut, 203-576-7252.

b. *The Beacon Schools:* The Beacon schools in New York City were designed to create safe, drug-free havens where children, youth, and families could engage in a wide range of positive activities. Community-based organizations work collaboratively with community advisory councils and schools to develop and manage the 40 Beacon schools. At least 75% of the schools are open 13-14 hours a day, seven days a week; the rest are open at least 12 hours a day, six days a week. Typical ongoing enrollment at the Beacons averages 1,700 community residents. Beacons offer sports and recreation, arts and culture, educational opportunities, vocational training, health education, and the opportunity for community meetings and neighborhood social activities. Each Beacon receives $400,000 annually, along with $50,000 for custodial services. Several private foundations also provide funds to enhance programming. A Teen Youth Council launched a community beautification effort, sponsored workshops on job readiness and employment skills, and organized a peer mediation program to prevent youth violence. Narcotics Anonymous, the Boy Scouts, a meal program, cultural studies, and supervised sports also take place at the community center. Through the center's Family Development Program, case managers work with families to keep children out of the foster care system, to help students with remedial academics, and to support parents as the primary educators of their children. The Beacon Program has increased youth access to vocational arenas, therapeutic counseling, and academic enrichment. Students' performance on standardized reading tests has improved, and police report fewer juvenile felonies in the community.

For more information, see:
Safe and Smart: Making After-School Hours Work for Kids - June 1998. Which can be downloaded at: http://www.ed.gov/pubs/SafeandSmart/

Contact: Jennie Soler-McIntosh (212-676-8255) or Michelle Cahill (212-925-6675), Beacon School-Based Community Centers, New York, NY.

c. *Effects of after-school care:* Four types of after-school care (formal after-school programs, mother care, informal adult supervision, and self-care) were examined for 216 low-income children (M age = 9.1 years). Attending a formal after-school program was associated with better academic achievement and social adjustment in comparison to the other types of after-school care. Children's activities and experiences also varied in different after-school settings. Children in formal programs spent more time in academic activities and enrichment lessons and less time watching TV and playing outside unsupervised than other children. They also spent more time doing activities with peers and adults and less time with siblings than did other children. The time that children spent in these activities was correlated with their academic and conduct grades, peer relations, and emotional adjustment.

For more information, see:
Posner, J.K., and Vandell, D.L. (1994). Low-Income Children's After-School Care: Are There Beneficial Effects of After-School Programs? *Child Development, 65*, 440-456.

Seppanen, P.S, and others. (1993). *National Study of Before- and After-School Programs: Final Report.* http://eric-web.tc.columbia.edu/abstracts/ed356043.html

d. *I.S. 218: & P.S. 5:* When I.S. 218 in New York City decided to become a community learning center, the school created an after-school program with the help of the Children's Aid Society and other community partners. A parent survey indicated concern about homework, so the after-school program initially focused on providing homework assistance. Within months, two computer labs, dance classes, arts and crafts, band, and some entrepreneurial programs were also added, with learning and homework always central. The after-school program gradually evolved into an extended day program in which, for example, non-English speaking children can attend Project Advance for special instruction in Spanish and English as a Second Language. Evaluations show that I.S. 218 positively affected both the school's and children's attitudes. When compared to a school with similar characteristics, I.S. 218 students performed, on average, 15% higher on reading and math exams.

Before- and after-school activities have been a part of P.S. 5 from its opening day as a community school. Half of the students at P.S. 5 participate in the breakfast program, which begins at 7:30 a.m. The extended day program organizes students by classes, and the daily schedule includes academics and homework help, fine arts, gym, dramatics, and recreation. The Broadway Theater Institute helps children put on musicals. Teachers in the extended day program communicate daily with regular teachers about homework and special help that students may need. Parents serve as assistants in the program, and over 300 adults participate in the Adult Education program, which offers classes in English as a Second Language, GED preparation, literacy, and arts and crafts. Students and families also have access to physical and mental health services and an on-site Head Start program. Since 1995, the school has shown impressive gains in reading and math achievement. In math, the number of students performing at grade level improved from 45 to 59%, compared to 42% in similar schools. Thirty-five percent of students now read at grade level, compared to only 21% in 1995 and just 17% in similar city schools.

For more information, see:
Safe and Smart: Making After-School Hours Work for Kids - June 1998. http://www.ed.gov/pubs/SafeandSmart/

Contact: C. W. Moses, 212-949-4921, I.S. 218 and P.S. 5, Children's Aid Society Community Schools, NY NY.

e. *The Lighted Schools Project:* The Lighted Schools Project provides over 650 middle school youth with a safe, supervised environment during after-school hours four days a week from 3:45 p.m. to 6:30 p.m. Children are transported home at the end of the program each night. Communities in Schools case management and social work staff oversee operations at each site. Thirteen community agencies provide all after-school services and programs for students and families at the sites. While the program targets at-risk youth, all middle school youth can participate in free activities, including sports, crafts, special events, and art instruction. Students have access to primary health care if it is needed, and may also participate in small group activities addressing issues such as building self-confidence, making positive choices, violence prevention, dangers of drug and alcohol abuse, and conflict resolution. Some of the schools provide children with tutoring and homework assistance, and participate in community volunteer projects. Additionally, a number of students each year are matched with a Baylor University mentor, who commits to mentoring a student for the entire year while participating in a college course on mentoring skills. Other community partners include local school districts, a hospital, the city recreation department, the community arts center, and a local council on alcohol and drug abuse prevention. In a 1997 evaluation, 57% of students at four of the sites improved their school attendance. Two sites experienced a 38% decrease in the number of participants failing two or more classes.

For more information, see:
Safe and Smart: Making After-School Hours Work for Kids - June 1998. http://www.ed.gov/pubs/SafeandSmart/

Contact: Joyce Reynolds, 254-753-6002, The Lighted Schools Project, Communities in Schools, McLennan Youth Collaboration, Inc., Waco, TX

f. *STAR and COMET Programs*: The Institute for Student Achievement provides a school-based program of counseling and academic assistance to middle and high school students who are having trouble in school. The program, which has both after-school and summer components, operates in six school districts in New York State, including Long Island, New York City, Mt. Vernon, and Troy. STAR (Success Through Academic Readiness) supports high school students through academic enrichment and counseling for at least two hours a day after school. COMET (Children of Many Educational Talents) addresses the special needs of middle school students, helping them to improve communication, comprehension, and social interaction skills and to make the transition to high school smooth. Every STAR student has graduated from high school, and 96% have gone on to college. Test scores at participating Hempstead High School on Long Island improved so much that the state removed the school from its list of low-performing schools a year ahead of schedule.

For more information, see:
Safe and Smart: Making After-School Hours Work for Kids - June 1998. Which can be downloaded at: http://www.ed.gov/pubs/SafeandSmart/

Contact: Institute for Student Achievement, New York. Lavinia T. Dickerson, 516-562-5440.

g. *Quantum Opportunities Program (QOP):* QOP is a youth development program designed to serve disadvantaged adolescents by providing education, service, and development activities, as well as financial incentives, from 9th grade through high school graduation. Services include: computer-assisted instruction, peer tutoring and other forms of academic assistance, cultural enrichment, acquiring life/family skills, and help planning for college or advanced vocational training. Students also participate in community service projects and volunteering. The program is run in small groups and tailored to each individual student. Young people are provided with adult mentors who kept track of them, making home visits, and sticking with the youth for their four years in high school. An evaluation was conducted at four QOP sites. Relative to a control group, QOP students: graduated from high school more often (63% vs. 42%); dropped out of school less often (23% vs. 50%); went on to post-secondary education more often (42% vs. 16%); attended a four year college more often (18% vs. 5%); attended a two-year institution more often (19% vs. 9%); and became teen parents less often (24% vs. 38%). QOP students were also more likely: to take part in community projects in the 6 months following QOP (28% vs. 8%); to volunteer as tutors, counselors, or mentors (28% vs. 8%); and to give time to non-profit, charitable, school or community groups (41% vs. 11%).

For more information, see:
Lattimore, C.B., Mihalic, S.F., Grotpeter, J.K., & Taggart, R. (1998). *Blueprints for Violence Prevention, Book Four: The Quantum Opportunities Program*. Boulder, CO: Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence.

Contact: C. Benjamin Lattimore, Opportunities Industrialization Centers of America, Inc., 1415 Broad Street, Philadelphia, PA 19122, (215) 236-4500, Ext. 251, Fax: (215) 236-7480.

h. *4-H After-School Activity Program:* Through the U.S. Department of Agriculture's Cooperative Extension Service in conjunction with the University of California, business, education, and government join together in a local partnership to run the 4-H After-School Activity Program. It provides hands-on learning to over 1,000 children, ages 7-13, in 20 public housing and school sites. The program offers students a safe haven after school, caring adult mentors, assistance with school work, extended learning activities, and encouragement and reinforcement of positive attitudes and healthy living. Other activities include reading, computer literacy, conflict resolution, community service, and career exploration. In an evaluation of the program in Los Angeles, many parents reported that the 4-H program had a positive effect on the attitude and behavior of their child. Over 85% of parents claimed that the program has kept their children out of gangs, and over 83% noted that their children's interest in school has increased.

For more information, see:
Safe and Smart: Making After-School Hours Work for Kids-June 1998. http://www.ed.gov/pubs/SafeandSmart/

Contact: Don MacNeil, 4-H After-School Activity Program (4-H ASAP), Los Angeles, California; 805-498-3937

i. *L.A.'s BEST (Better Educated Students for Tomorrow):* LA's BEST is an after school education, enrichment and recreation program for children in grades K-6 in the city of Los Angeles. Independent evaluations have found that students in this program increased their self-confidence and were better able to get along with others. Vandalism and school-based crime decreased by 64%. Children who participate in LA's BEST also get better grades, have greater enthusiasm for regular school and show positive changes in behavior. Schools running an LA's BEST program have shown a 40-60% reduction in reports of school-based crime.

For more information, see:
Fletcher, A.J. 1999. After School Learning and Safe Neighborhood Partnerships: Implementation Approaches. www.wwlc.org

Safe and Smart: Making After-School Hours Work for Kids - June 1998. http://www.ed.gov/pubs/SafeandSmart/
or contact: Carla Sanger, 213-847-3681, LA's BEST (Better Educated Students for Tomorrow), L.A., CA.

j. *The Milwaukee Project:* This project is a U.S. Department of Justice Weed and Seed site, in which law enforcement, community-based organizations, and residents work together to improve their neighborhood. The Milwaukee Public Schools system collaborates with local groups to provide Safe Havens at three neighborhood sites. Approximately 8,300 youth participate in Safe Haven after-school programs. The programs provide homework and tutoring assistance, recreational activities, games, choir, arts and crafts, and computer skills. The Safe Havens involve the police department in program planning and also encourage students to participate in the Police Athletic League. The programs have played a role in the reduction in the crime rate in areas with a Safe Haven by providing youth with alternative activities during high-risk hours for delinquency. In the 15 months following inception of the program, the crime rate dropped by 20.7% in the areas with the neighborhood sites. The rate of violent offenses in these areas dropped by 46.7% during the same time period.

For more information, see:
Safe and Smart: Making After-School Hours Work for Kids - June 1998. http://www.ed.gov/pubs/SafeandSmart/

Contact: Sue Kenealy, 414-935-7868, The Milwaukee Project, Milwaukee, WI.

k. *START (Students Today Achieving Results for Tomorrow)*: 5,000 children attend Sacramento's START, an afterschool program which places a high priority on academic improvement. Eighty-three percent were racial and ethnic minorities, 56% lived in households where English was not the primary language, and 87% were members of families that were transitioning from welfare to work or had annual incomes of less than $25,000. Seventy-five percent began the program with reading, writing and math national test scores below the 30th percentile. More than 80% of these students showed academic and social improvement significantly greater than their peers not enrolled in the program. Priority was placed on providing resources, opportunities, and guidance that in combination result in improvements in: reading, writing, and math skills; grades; positive social relationships; and enthusiasm for learning. Families involved with the program moved more quickly toward economic self-sufficiency than those who were not. Parents reported that knowing their children were well supervised reduced stress and increased their job productivity and 98% of primary care givers stated that the program benefitted them as well as their children. A strong correlation was found between the length of time in the program and a decline in absences during the regular school day.

For more information, see:
Fletcher, A.J. (1999). After School Learning and Safe Neighborhood Partnerships: Implementation Approaches. www.wwlc.org

Fact Sheet on School-Age Children's Out-of-School Time

National Institute on Out-of-School Time, Center for Research on Women, Wellesley College
Revised December 1998 - http://www.wellesley.edu/WCW/CRW/SAC/factsht.html

- Almost 30% of public schools and 50% of private schools offered before- and/or after-school care in 1993-94, compared to only 15 and 33% in 1987-88. These programs are least available in rural areas.

  Reference: National Center for Education Statistics (1997). Schools Serving Family Needs: Extended-Day Programs in Public and Private Schools. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Author.

- The Government Accounting Office estimates that in the year 2002, the current number of out-of-school time programs for school-age children will meet as little as 25% of the demand in some urban areas.

  Reference: U.S. General Accounting Office (1998). Abstracts of GAO Reports and Testimony, FY97. http://www.gao.gov/AindexFY97/abstracts/he97075.htm

- Fees for programs for school-age children vary. Parent fees range from $2.41 per hour in Minnesota to $4.70 per hour in New Jersey.

  Reference: National Association of Child Care Resource and Referral Agencies (NACCRRA), 1998 (April). Child care fees across the nation. Child Care Information Exchange Trend Report #3.

- Eighty-three percent of program income is from parent fees and 86% of parents pay the full program fee.

  Reference: Seppanen, P.S., Love, J.M., deVries, D.K., Bernstein, L., Seligson, M., Marx, F., & Kisker, E.E. (1993). National study of before & after school programs. (Final report to the Office of Policy and Planning, U.S. Department of Education). Portsmouth, NH: RMC Research Corporation.

- A number of studies have found that children who attend quality programs have better peer relations, emotional adjustment, grades, and conduct in school compared to their peers who are not in programs. They also have more learning opportunities, academic or enrichment activities, and spend less time watching television.

  Reference: Posner, J.K. & Vandell, D.L. (1994). Low-income children's after-school care: Are there beneficial effects of after-school programs? *Child Development, 65,* 440-456.

- Researchers found that children who are under adult supervision, in programs or at home, have better social skills and higher self-esteem than their peers who are unsupervised after school.

  Reference: Witt, P.A. (1997). Evaluation of the Impact of Three After-School Recreation Programs Sponsored by the Dallas Park and Recreation Department. http://wwwrpts.tamu.edu/rpts/faculty/pubs/wittpub2.htm

- One study found that, compared to peers with lower attendance rates, children who attend after-school programs regularly have higher grades and self-esteem.

  Reference: Baker, D. & Witt, P.A. (1996). Evaluation of the impact of two after-school recreation programs. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration, 14(3),* 23-44.

- Teachers and principals report that students become more cooperative, learn to better handle conflicts, develop an interest in recreational reading, and receive better grades due to participation in after-school programs.

  Reference: Riley, D., Steinberg, J., Todd, C., Junge, S., McClain, I. (1994). Preventing problem behaviors and raising academic performance in the nation's youth: The impacts of 64 school age child care programs in 15 states supported by the Cooperative Extension Service Youth-at-Risk Initiative. Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin.

- A study of two housing projects, one with a 32-month after-school recreation program and one with minimal recreation services, found that in the housing project with the after-school program, juvenile arrests declined by 75% compared to the years prior, while juvenile arrests increased by 67% in the housing project offering minimal services.

  Reference: Jones, M.B., & Offord, D.R. (1989). Reduction of antisocial behavior in poor children by nonschool skill-development. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 30(3),* 737-750.

MIDDLE SCHOOL STUDENTS

- Students who spend one to four hours per week in extracurricular activities are 49% less likely to use drugs and 37% less likely to become teen parents than students who do not participate in extracurricular activities.

  Reference: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (1996). Adolescent Time Use, Risky Behavior, and Outcomes: An Analysis of National Data. Washington, DC: Author.

- Eighth graders who take care of themselves for 11 hours or more per week are at twice the risk for substance abuse compared to those who are not in self-care at all.

  Reference: Richardson, J.L., Dwyer, K., McGuigan, K., Hansen, W.B., Dent, C., Johnson, C.A., Sussman, S.Y., Brannon, B., & Flay, B. (1989). Substance use among eighth-grade students who take care of themselves after school. Pediatrics, 84(3), 556-566.

PUBLIC SUPPORT

- Ninety-two percent of Americans feel that there should be organized activities for children and teens during the after-school hours.

  Reference: Charles Stewart Mott Foundation (1998). Nationwide poll of support for after-school programs. Conducted by Lake Snell Perry/ The Tarrance Group. Flint, MI: Author.

- Eighty percent of Americans say they would pay an additional $10 per year in taxes to fund programs in their communities.

  Reference: Charles Stewart Mott Foundation (1998). Nationwide poll of support for after-school programs. Conducted by Lake Snell Perry/The Tarrance Group. Flint, MI: Author.

- Almost three-quarters of parents of school-age children say they would be willing to pay for a quality school-based after-school program for their children, but only 31% of elementary school parents and 39% of middle school parents report that their child attends a program in his or her school.

  Reference: U.S. Department of Education & U.S. Department of Justice (1998). Safe and Smart: Making After-School Hours Work for Kids. Washington, DC: Authors.

- Forty-six percent of parents believe it is very important that schools stay open all day, and 43% of parents think after-school activities should be a high priority, despite limited education budgets.

  Reference: Newsweek, 4/27/98.

- In a recent survey of police chiefs, nine out of ten surveyed support prevention programs for youth as an effective way to fight crime.

  Reference: Fight Crime Invest in Kids (1996). Police Chiefs say More Government Investments in Kids are Key to Fighting Crime: Survey Findings. Washington, DC: Author.

3. Grade Articulation Programs

a. *The Transition Project:* The Transition Project sought to increase the levels of peer and social support during the transition to high school and to reduce the difficulties of mastering the transition tasks students encountered. The Project had two primary components: (1) restructuring the role of homeroom teachers to include guidance and counseling; and (2) reorganizing the regularities of the school environment to reduce the flux of the social setting confronting the student. Midyear and end of ninth grade assessments were collected on Project and a matched control sample measuring students' self-concepts, their perceptions of the school environment, and their eighth- and ninth-grade attendance and grade averages. By the end of ninth grade, Project participants showed significantly better attendance records and grade point averages as well as more stable self-concepts than controls. Further, by the final evaluation point, Project students also reported perceiving the school environment as having greater clarity of expectations and organizational structure and higher levels of teacher support and involvement than did non-project controls.

For more information, see:
Felner, R.D., Ginter, M. & Primavera, J. (1982). Primary prevention during school transitions: Social support and environmental structure. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 10*, 277-289.

b. *The Social Support Program:* This program provides teacher support, group support, and parental support to poor academic transition students. Sixty-six first year sixth graders were put into one of three groups: no-intervention group; group receiving Components A, B, and C; or group receiving Component A only). Results showed that for the full and partial intervention groups, the mean GPA improved from pre-intervention to post-intervention and from pre-intervention to follow up (only significant for full intervention group). The no intervention group maintained a higher mean GPA than both intervention groups at post-intervention. The full intervention group had lower depression scores at post-intervention and follow up than pre-intervention. Both groups did not significantly differ from the no intervention group at post-intervention and follow up. Full and partial intervention groups had lower anxiety scores at post-intervention and follow up than pre-intervention. Both groups did not significantly differ from the no-intervention group at post-intervention and follow up. Full and partial intervention groups' stress decreased over time on peer relationships only. Pre-intervention differences between no intervention and intervention groups on academic pressures were gone at follow up. Pre-intervention differences between no intervention and intervention groups on behavior factor of the self concept were gone at post-intervention and follow up. The partial intervention group showed significantly greater teacher reported problems on socialized aggression and anxiety/withdrawal at post-intervention and follow up than full intervention and no intervention groups. Pre-intervention differences between no intervention and full intervention groups on socialized aggression were gone at post-intervention and follow up.

For more information, see:
Greene, R.W., & Ollendick, T.H. (1993). Evaluation of a multidimensional program for sixth-graders in transition from elementary to middle school. *Journal of Community Psychology, 21*, 162-176.

c. *The Bridge Program:* The Bridge Program is designed to ease the transition between middle school and high school. It is a one-semester transitional program for all incoming ninth grade students and provides ninth graders with a variety of activities that promote academic achievement, responsibility, school spirit, fellowship, acceptance, and empowerment. Bridge ninth grade students had 70.7% of their grades in core classes at or above C, whereas the previous non-Bridge ninth grade class had 68.5% of grades at or above C. As tenth graders, Bridge students averaged 75.8% of their grades above C, compared to the non-Bridge tenth graders who averaged 68% of grades above C. Also, non-Bridge ninth graders had a 22% withdrawal rate from school (dropouts and transfers) while only 5% of Bridge ninth graders withdrew. Regarding discipline, Bridge freshmen were disciplined less (22%) compared to non-Bridge freshmen (34%). The majority of students and staff supported the Bridge program and thought it was effective.

For more information, see:
Sheets, R.A., Izard-Baldwin, G., & Atterberry, P. (December, 1997). Bridge: A Program Designed to Ease the Transition from the Middle Level to the High School. *Bulletin, 81*(593). The National Association of Secondary School Principals. Contact Gloria Izard-Baldwin at gizard@cks.ssd.k12.wa.us.

d. *Sixth Grade Transition Groups (SGTG):* The goal of the Sixth Grade Transition Groups (SGTG) are to increase student ability to cope with middle school transition. Creates confidence allowing kids to successfully negotiate the academic, social, and emotional challenges that accompany the school transition. Three hundred eight fifth graders received a social competency/stress reduction program. Results showed that 94% of the students said they found the group helpful, 72% said that Day 3 was most helpful, and 92% would recommend it to fifth grade students next year.

For more information, see:
Hellem, D.W. (1990). Sixth grade transition groups: An approach to primary prevention. *Journal of Primary Prevention, 10(4)*, 303-311.

4. Welcoming and Social Support

a. *School Transitional Environment Project (STEP):* STEP is designed to: (a) reduce exposure to high risk circumstances and increase exposure to developmentally enhancing conditions; (b) reduce adaptive demands imposed by school transitions by reorganizing the regularities of the school environment to reduce the degree of flux and complexity; and (c) increase resources for students during this time by restructuring the roles of homeroom teachers and guidance staff so they provide greater support. One thousand four students in four STEP schools and 761 in four non-STEP schools (all made transition in sixth or seventh grade) participated. Results showed that participation in STEP was associated with: more favorable school experiences (Perceived Climate Scale); more positive student adjustment; lower levels of school transition stress; greater school, family, and general self-esteem; less depressive and anxiety symptoms (CDI, CMAS); less delinquent behavior (Delinquency scale of the YSR); higher levels of academic expectations; more favorable teacher ratings of behavioral adjustment; and better grades and school attendance.

For more information, see:
Felner, R.D., Brand, S., Adan, A.M., Mulhall, P.F., Flowers, N., Sartain, B., & DuBois, D.L. (1993). Restructuring the ecology of the school as an approach to prevention during school transitions: Longitudinal follow-ups and extensions of the School Transitional Environment Project (STEP). In Jason, L.A., Danner, K.E., & Kurasaki, K.S. (Eds.) *Prevention and School Transitions: Prevention in Human Services, 10(2)*. New York: The Haworth Press,.

b. *The School Transitions Project*: This is a secondary prevention program for high-risk elementary school students undergoing an unscheduled school transition. Primary goals were to boost high-risk transfers' academic achievement to at least the average achievement level of non-transfer students and to promote transfer students' social adjustment in classrooms. The program was implemented in 20 inner-city, parochial elementary schools in Chicago. Schools were matched in size and ethnic composition. Then one member of the pair was randomly assigned to either the experimental or control group. All transfer students initially received an orientation program, some children received no further intervention, others were provided tutoring in the school, and others were provided school tutoring plus parent tutoring. School tutoring was conducted twice weekly by project staff. In the school plus home tutoring condition, parents were trained in tutoring techniques and the use of special academic materials. Evaluations were conducted each year for the first three years of the study. In general, those involved in the tutoring program (either at school or at school and at home) made significant academic gains compared to control students whose scores did not improve over time. During the first and second year, gains were made in reading, spelling, and mathematics. However, during the third year, significant gains were found only in reading and spelling. Students in the program also showed significant improvements in coping skills and decreases in social withdrawal and inattentiveness. This was especially the case for students in the school and home tutoring conditions where the parents were highly involved in the tutoring.

For more information, see:
Jason, L.A., Weine, A.M., Johnson, J.H., Danner, K.E., Kurasaki, K.S., & Warren-Sohlberg, L. The School Transitions Project: A comprehensive preventive intervention. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders, 1*, 65-70.

c. *Child Development Project (CDP)*: The CDP is a multi-year, comprehensive school-change program that aims to help elementary school children feel more attached to the school community, internalize the community's norms and values, exhibit behavior consistent with norms and values, and reduce their involvement in drug-use and other problem behaviors. Program strengthens child tendencies to be caring and responsible, motivation to learn, and higher-order cognitive development. The program involves parent involvement activities, staff training, school-wide community building activities, and a cross-grade buddy program. In CDP children become integrated into a school community in which the members are mutually supportive, concerned about one another's welfare, and interested in contributing to the life of the community. Program outcomes show that CDP children do see their classrooms as caring communities and that the more they do, the more their social, ethical, and intellectual development are enhanced. CDP children show an increase in pro-social behaviors among students in grades K-4; and decreased delinquency in schools with the highest level of implementation. They are also less likely to abuse alcohol, and other drugs.

For more information, see:
Battistich, V., Schaps, E., Watson, M., & Solomon, D. (1996). Prevention effects of the Child Development Project: Early findings from an ongoing multisite demonstration trial. *Journal of Adolescent Research, 11, 12-35.*

Battistich, V., Solomon, D., Kim, D., Watson, M., & Schaps, E. (1995). Schools as communities, poverty levels of student populations, and student' attitudes, motives, and performance: A multilevel analysis. *American Educational Research Journal, 32*, 627-658.

For project information, contact:
Sylvia Kendzior, Developmental Studies Center, 200 Embarcadero, Suite 305, Oakland, CA 94606-5300, (510) 533-0213. To order materials, call (800) 666-7270.

5. To and From Special Education

a. *Adaptive Learning Environments Model (ALEM)*: ALEM is a full-time mainstreaming program for exceptional students (learning disabled, socially and emotionally disturbed, visually impaired, and gifted). Evaluations showed that students in the ALEM mainstreaming classes initiated interactions with teachers more often (32.4%) than students in the non-ALEM classes (4%). Also, they interacted with their teachers significantly more for instructional purposes (95.2% vs. 88.1% for the non-ALEM students), and they interacted more frequently with peers for instructional purposes (45% vs. 13% for the non-ALEM classes.) Students in the ALEM classes spent less time on teacher-prescribed activities (63.6% vs. 91% for the non-ALEM classes). At the same time, students in the ALEM situation spent nearly equal percentages of time in group settings (group interactive, 22.3%; group parallel, 25.1%; total, 47.4%) as in individual settings (52.6%). Positive changes in behavior from October to April during the a.m. sessions were transferred to the p.m. sessions only for the ALEM students. Students attitudes improved, self-ratings of the handicapped students were slightly higher than those of their regular peers. Handicapped students in the ALEM classes tended to rate their cognitive competence, social competence, and general self-esteem significantly higher than did the handicapped non-ALEM students. Achievement gains for the mainstreamed special education students in the ALEM classrooms were 1.08 in math and 1.04 in reading. Scores were not found to be significantly beyond the national norm, however they were significantly greater than the expected gains in both reading and math for students with comparable special education classifications.

For more information, see:
Wang, M.C. & Birch, J.W. (1984). Comparison of a full-time mainstreaming program and a resource room approach. *Exceptional Children, Sept. 51*(1): p.33-40.

b. *Community-level Transition Teams*: Transition teams assist youth and adults with learning disabilities in preparation for attending a post-secondary institution or determining a career direction, living independently, establishing social support networks, and in establishing transportation options. Outcomes of these teams in Oregon included the creation of new instructional programs, better communication and collaboration among local service providers, and increased student self-esteem and self-worth.

For more information, see:
Blalock, G. (1996). Community transition teams as the foundation for transition services for youth with learning disabilities. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, Feb 29* (2), 148-159.

c. *Parallel Alternate Curriculum (PAC) Program:* PAC is a teacher training program in which teachers learn to use classroom methods to ensure academic success for mainstreamed, low-achieving students. Data shows that student achievement is improved in classes in which teachers utilize PAC methods. Both teachers and students like PAC classes. Potential drop-outs are staying in PAC classes they otherwise would drop. The PAC program has been successful in two areas: teacher training and the establishment of a successful setting for mainstreamed handicapped students.

For more information, see:
Smith, G. & Smith, D. (1985). A mainstreaming program that really works. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, Jun-Jul, 18*(6), 369-372.

d. *Transition Programs for the Handicapped:* These programs were developed to evaluate the impact and effectiveness of transition services for special education students in Maine. The study contributed the following major findings among others: (1) a significant number of local education agencies are not addressing transition needs in a formalized way; (2) successful transition programming shares some components with special education, such as referral and assessment, interagency collaboration, use of functional curricula, and active participation of parents and students; and (3) components unique to transition programs are not as successfully implemented, including community involvement, quantity and quality of job placements, student follow-up, post-secondary educational placements, and adjustment to community living.

For more information, see:
Maine State Department of Educational and Cultural Services, Augusta Div. of Special Education. (1987). Transition Programs for the Handicapped: Impact and Effectiveness. Executive Summary.

6. School to Career Programs

a. *Job Corps:* The nation's largest and most comprehensive residential education and job training program for at-risk youth, ages 16-24. Since 1964, the program has provided more than 1.7 million disadvantaged young people with the integrated academic, vocational, and social skills training for gaining independence and getting quality, long-term jobs or further education. It is a public-private partnership, administered by the U.S. Department of Labor. Job Corps works for the disadvantaged youth who attend the program, for communities where Job Corps centers are located, and for employers who hire Job Corps students. It also works for other individuals—like educators and school and peer counselors who may want to refer a young person to Job Corps. More than 75% of those who enroll in Job Corps become employed, obtain further training, or join the military. For young people who come from economically disadvantaged backgrounds, who are high school dropouts, and who read at an elementary school level, Job Corps offers an opportunity to become productive, taxpaying members of society. The longer a Job Corps student stays in the program to complete training, the greater the chance he or she has at getting a better job and a higher wage.

For more information, contact:
Job Corps: 1-800-733-JOBS (1-800-733-5627), or visit their website at www.jobcorps.org

b. *Career Education*: Students with low motivation to attend school have shown improvement in school attendance and retention after participating in Career Education, and vocational students who have participated in Career Education are more likely to complete the vocational program they have selected. Other studies show that, all else being equal, the more vocational classes students took, the less likely they were to drop out of school.

For more information, see:
Mertens, D.M., Seitz, P., and Cox, S. (1982). *Vocational education and the high school dropout.* Columbus: National Center for Research in Vocational Education, Ohio State University, ED 228397.

Miller, J.V., and Imel, S. "Some Current Issues in Adult, Career, and Vocational Education." In: *Trends and Issues in Education*, 1986, edited by E. Flaxman. Washington, DC: Council of ERIC Directors, Educational Resources Information Center, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U.S. Department of Education, 1987. ED 281 897.

Naylor, M. (1987). Reducing the Dropout Rate through Career and Vocational Education. Overview. *ERIC Digest* ED 282094.

Weber, J.M. (1986). *The Role of Vocational Education in Decreasing the Dropout Rate.* Columbus: The National Center for Research in Vocational Education, The Ohio State University. ED 264 444.

c. *Cognitive Career Interventions:* Career counseling group interventions using cognitive instruction have been recommended for youth, especially those with learning disabilities. Studies evaluating Cognitive Career Interventions for youth with learning disabilities demonstrated significant increases in self-awareness and career awareness, improved skills in employment writing and interviewing, and advanced strategies in problem solving and anger management.

For more information, see:
Biller, E.F. (1987). *Career Decision Making for Adolescents and Young Adults with Learning Disabilities: Theory, Research and Practice.* Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas.

Hutchinson, N.L. (1995). Career Counseling of Youth with Learning Disabilities. *ERIC Digest*: ED 400470

Hutchinson, N.L., Freeman, J.G., & Fisher, C. (1993). "A Two-Year Cohort Study: Career Development for Youth with Learning Disabilities." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Atlanta, GA.

d. *Jobs for Ohio's Graduates (JOG)*: JOG's mission is to identify students who are at greatest risk of dropping out of school before graduation and provide them with a support system that not only keeps these young people in school, but also helps them adjust to the transition from school to work after graduation. Launched in the 1986-87 school year, JOG has achieved a graduation rate in excess of 91 percent. More than 80 percent of students identified as at-risk when they entered JOG are on the job, in the military, or in post-secondary education 12 months following graduation. Eighty percent of those working are in full-time placement. This is accomplished at a cost of less than $1,000 per student, $750 of which comes from State funds. The remainder of the funding comes from a combination of private and federal sources.

For more information, see:
Jobs for Ohio's Graduates, 65 South Front Street Room 912, Columbus, OH 43215-4183. 614-466-5718

Keeping Young People in School: Community Programs That Work. By Sharon Cantelon and Donni LeBoeuf. Published in *OJJDP Bulletin*, June 1997. http://www.ncjrs.org/txtfiles/dropout.txt

e. *Mat-Su Alternative School (MSAS)*: MSAS has worked closely with businesses, government, and nonprofit agencies to provide at-risk youth with the academic and vocational skills needed to make the successful transition from school to work. Mat-Su is a Tier I school for acceptance of graduates into the military. Graduates have gone on to colleges and vocational schools and have earned places on the dean's list at the University of Alaska. Students continue their employment after graduation. MSAS networks with 150 business owners to provide job sites. Mat-Su students have 100% job placement.

For more information, contact:
Mat-Su Alternative School, Matanuska-Susitna Borough School District, 1775 West Parks Highway, Wasilla, AK 99654. 907-373-7775

f. *Stay-in-School:* Stay-in-School is a Canadian government initiative launched in the early 1990s encouraging young Canadians to build a solid foundation for the future by finishing high school and by acquiring the skills needed for the labor force of tomorrow. The Stay-in-School initiative produced a noticeable increase in student retention. In-school coordinators of Stay-in-School projects reported that 84% of students involved in dropout interventions in 1992-93 completed their year. Of those students, less than 25% would have finished the scholastic year if a Stay-in-School intervention had not been in place. Fifty percent of school contacts noted enhanced academic performance in over half of the Stay-in-School participants. Improved life skills were reported by 70% of respondents. Almost all contacts stated that the Stay-in-School initiative was extremely cost-effective. Students reported improvement in self-confidence, work habits, life and academic skills, and expressed a desire to continue with and succeed in school.

For more information, see:
Hackett, H. & Baron, D. (1995). Canadian Action on Early School Leaving: A Description of the National Stay-in-School Initiative. *ERIC Digest*. ED399481.

Renihan, F., Buller, E., Desharnais, W., Enns, R., Laferriere, T., & Therrien, L. (1994). "Taking Stock: An Assessment of The National Stay-In-School Initiative." Hull, PQ: Youth Affairs Branch, Human Resources Development Canada.

Welcoming Strategies for Newly Arrived Students & Their Families

Starting a new school can be scary. Those concerned with mental health in schools can play important prevention and therapeutic roles by helping a school establish a welcoming program and ways to provide ongoing social support.

Special attention must be directed at providing Office Staff with training and resources so they can create a welcoming and supportive atmosphere to everyone who enters the school. And, of course, there must be workshops and follow-up assistance for teachers to help them establish welcoming procedures and materials.

Start simple. For example, assist teachers in establishing a few basic ways to help new students feel welcome and part of things, such as

★ **giving the student a Welcome Folder**

A folder with the student's name, containing welcoming materials and information, such as a welcome booklet and information about fun activities at the school.

★ **assigning a Peer Buddy**

Train students to be a special friend

*to show the new student around
*to sit next to the new student
*to take the new student to recess and lunch to meet schoolmates

Some parents are not sure how to interact with the school. Two ways to help new parents feel welcome and a part of things are to establish processes whereby teachers.

★ **invite parents to a Welcoming Conference**

This is meant as a chance for parents to get to know the teacher and school and for the teacher to facilitate positive connections between parent and school such as helping the parents connect with a school activity in which they seem interested. The emphasis is on Welcoming -- thus, any written material given out at this time specifically states WELCOME and is limited to simple orientation information. To the degree feasible, such material is made available in the various languages of those likely to enroll at the school.

★ **connect parents with a Parent Peer Buddy**

Identify some parents who are willing to be a special friend to introduce the new parent around, to contact them about special activities and take them the first time, and so forth.

The following list are additional examples of prevention-oriented welcoming and social support strategies for minimizing negative experiences and ensuring positive outreach.

1. **FRONT DOOR:** Set up a Welcoming Table (identified with a welcoming sign) at the front entrance to the school and recruit and train volunteers to meet and greet everyone who comes through the door.

2. **FRONT OFFICE:** Work with the Office Staff to create ways to meet and greet strangers with a smile and an inviting atmosphere. Provide them with welcoming materials and information sheets regarding registration steps (with appropriate translations). Encourage the use of volunteers in the office so that there are sufficient resources to take the necessary time to greet and assist new students and families. It helps to have a designated registrar and even designated registration times.

3. WELCOMING MATERIALS: Prepare a booklet that clearly says WELCOME and provides some helpful info about who's who at the school, what types of assistance are available to new students and families, and offers tips about how the school runs. (Avoid using this as a place to lay down the rules; that can be rather an uninviting first contact.) Prepare other materials to assist students and families in making the transition and connecting with ongoing activities.

4. STUDENT GREETERS: Establish a Student Welcoming Club (perhaps the student council or leadership class can make this a project). These students can provide tours and some orientation (including initial introduction to key staff).

5. PARENT/VOLUNTEER GREETERS: Establish a General Welcoming Club of parents and/or volunteers who provide regular tours and orientations (including initial introduction to key staff). Develop a Welcoming Video.

6. WELCOMING BULLETIN BOARD: Dedicate a bulletin board (somewhere near the entrance to the school) that says WELCOME and includes such things as pictures of school staff, a diagram of the school and its facilities, pictures of students who entered the school during the past 1-2 weeks, information on tours and orientations, special meetings for new students, and so forth.

7. CLASSROOM GREETERS: Each teacher should have several students who are willing and able to greet strangers who come to the classroom. Recent arrivals often are interested in welcoming the next set of new enrollees.

8. CLASSROOM INTRODUCTION: Each teacher should have a plan to assist new students and families in making a smooth transition into the class. This includes ways to introduce the student to classmates as soon as the student arrives. (Some teachers may want to arrange with the office specified times for bringing a new student to the class.) An introductory Welcoming Conference should be conducted with the student and family as soon as feasible. A useful Welcoming aid is to present both the student and the family member with Welcoming Folders (or some other welcoming gift such as coupons from local businesses that have adopted the school).

9. PEER BUDDIES: In addition to the classroom greeter, a teacher can have several students who are trained to be a special buddy to a new student for a couple of weeks (and hopefully thereafter). This can provide the type of social support that allows a new student to learn about the school culture and how to become involved in activities.

10. OUTREACH FROM ORGANIZED GROUPS: Establish a way for representatives of organized student and parent groups (including the PTSA) to make direct contact with new students and families to invite them to learn about activities and to assist them in joining in when they find activities that appeal to them.

11. SUPPORT GROUPS: Offer groups designed to help new students and families learn about the community and the school and to allow them to express concerns and have them addressed. Such groups also allow them to connect with each other as another form of social support.

12. ONGOING POSITIVE CONTACTS: Develop a variety of ways students and their families can feel an ongoing connection with the school and classroom (e.g., opportunities to volunteer help, positive feedback regarding participation, letters home that tell "all about what's happening").

For more on welcoming students and families, see the following two Center packets:

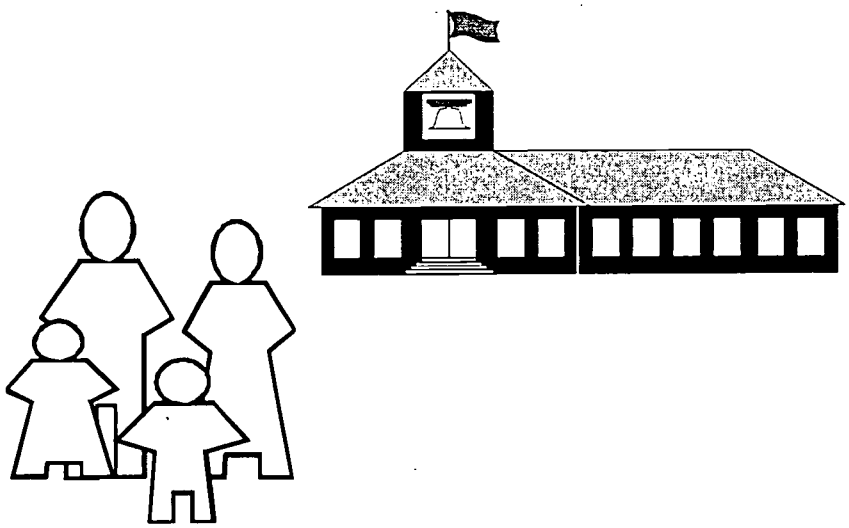
***Welcoming and Involving New Students and Families**
***What Schools Can Do to Welcome and Meet the Needs of All Students and Families**

Note: These can be downloaded from the Center website or canbe ordered in hardcopy for the cost of copying, mailing, and handling. Contact the center at: School Mental Health Project/Center for Mental Health in Schools, Box 951563, Department of Psychology, UCLA, Los Angeles, CA 90095-1563 Ph: (310) 825-3634 | Fax: (310) 206-8716
E-mail: smhp@ucla.edu Website: http://smhp.psych.ucla.edu/

CONTENTS

Home Involvement in Schooling

- Self-Study Survey to Enhance this Area
- Some Examples of Work in this Area that have Evaluative Data



Home Involvement in Schooling

Self-Study Survey to Enhance this Area

The emphasis here is on enhancing home involvement through programs to address specific parent learning and support needs (e.g., ESL classes, mutual support groups), mobilize parents as problem solvers when their child has problems (e.g., parent education, instruction in helping with schoolwork), elicit help from families in addressing the needs of the community, and so forth. The context for some of this activity may be a parent center (which may be part of the Family/Community Service Center if one has been established at the site). Outcomes include specific measures of parent learning and indices of student progress, as well as a general enhancement of the quality of life in the community.

Home Involvement in Schooling

Please indicate all items that apply.

A. Which of the following are available to address specific learning and support needs of the adults in the home?	Yes	Yes but more of this is needed	No	If no, is this something you want?
1. Does the site offer adult classes focused on				
a. English As a Second Language (ESL)?	___	___	___	___
b. citizenship?	___	___	___	___
c. basic literacy skills?	___	___	___	___
d. GED preparation?	___	___	___	___
e. job preparation?	___	___	___	___
f. citizenship preparation?	___	___	___	___
g. other? (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
2. Are there groups for				
a. mutual support?	___	___	___	___
b. discussion?	___	___	___	___
3. Are adults in the home offered assistance in accessing outside help for personal needs?	___	___	___	___
4. Other? (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
B. Which of the following are available to help those in the home meet their basic obligations to the student?				
1. Is help provided for addressing special family needs for				
a. food?	___	___	___	___
b. clothing?	___	___	___	___
c. shelter?	___	___	___	___
d. health and safety?	___	___	___	___
e. school supplies?	___	___	___	___
f. other? (specify) _____	___	___	___	___

Home Involvement in Schooling (cont.)

	Yes	Yes but more of this is needed	No	If no, is this something you want?
2. Are education programs offered on				
a. childrearing/parenting?				
b. creating a supportive home environment for students?	___	___	___	___
c. reducing factors that interfere with a student's school learning and performance?	___	___	___	___
3. Are guidelines provided for helping a student deal with homework?	___	___	___	___
4. Other? (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
C. Which of the following are in use to improve communication about matters essential to the student and family?	___	___	___	___
1. Are there periodic general announcements and meetings such as				
a. advertising for incoming students?	___	___	___	___
b. orientation for incoming students and families?	___	___	___	___
c. bulletins/newsletters?	___	___	___	___
d. back to school night/open house?	___	___	___	___
e. parent teacher conferences?	___	___	___	___
f. other? (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
2. Is there a system to inform the home on a regular basis				
a. about general school matters?	___	___	___	___
b. about opportunities for home involvement?	___	___	___	___
c. other? (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
3. To enhance home involvement in the student's program and progress, are interactive communications used, such as				
a. sending notes home regularly?	___	___	___	___
b. a computerized phone line?	___	___	___	___
c. frequent in-person conferences with the family?	___	___	___	___
d. other? (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
4. Other? (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
D. Which of the following are used to enhance the home-school connection and sense of community?				
1. Does the school offer orientations and open houses?	___	___	___	___
2. Does the school have special receptions for new families?	___	___	___	___

Home Involvement in Schooling (cont.)

	Yes	Yes but more of this is needed	No	If no, is this something you want?
3. Does the school regularly showcase students to the community through				
a. student performances?	___	___	___	___
b. award ceremonies?	___	___	___	___
c. other? (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
4. Does the school offer the community				
a. cultural and sports events?	___	___	___	___
b. topical workshops and discussion groups?	___	___	___	___
c. health fairs	___	___	___	___
d. family preservation fairs	___	___	___	___
e. work fairs	___	___	___	___
f. newsletters	___	___	___	___
g. community bulletin boards	___	___	___	___
h. community festivals and celebrations	___	___	___	___
i. other (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
5. Is there outreach to hard to involve families such as				
a. making home visits?	___	___	___	___
b. offering support networks?	___	___	___	___
c. other? (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
6. Other? (specify) _____	___	___	___	___

E. Which of the following are used to enhance family participation in decision making essential to the student?

1. Families are invited to participate through personal				
a. letters	___	___	___	___
b. phone calls	___	___	___	___
c. other (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
2. Families are informed about schooling choices through				
a. letters	___	___	___	___
b. phone calls	___	___	___	___
c. conferences	___	___	___	___
d. other (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
3. Families are taught skills to participate effectively in decision making.	___	___	___	___
4. Staff are specially trained to facilitate family participation in decision making meetings.	___	___	___	___
5. Other (specify) _____	___	___	___	___

Home Involvement in Schooling (cont.)

	Yes	Yes but more of this is needed	No	If no, is this something you want?
F. Which of the following are used to enhance home support of student's learning and development?				
1. Are families instructed on how to provide opportunities for students to apply what they are learning?	___	___	___	___
2. Are families instructed on how to use enrichment opportunities to enhance youngsters' social and personal and academic skills and higher order functioning?	___	___	___	___
3. Other? (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
G. Which of the following are used to mobilize problem solving at home related to student needs?				
1. Is instruction provided to enhance family problem solving skills(including increased awareness of resources for assistance)?	___	___	___	___
2. Is good problem solving modeled at conferences with the family?	___	___	___	___
3. Other? (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
H. For which of the following are those in the home recruited and trained to help meet school/community needs?				
1. Improving schooling for students by assisting				
a. administrators	___	___	___	___
b. teachers	___	___	___	___
c. other staff	___	___	___	___
d. with lessons or tutoring	___	___	___	___
e. on class trips	___	___	___	___
f. in the cafeteria	___	___	___	___
g. in the library	___	___	___	___
h. in computer labs	___	___	___	___
i. with homework helplines	___	___	___	___
j. in the front office to welcome visitors and new enrollees and their families	___	___	___	___
k. with phoning home regarding absences	___	___	___	___
l. outreach to the home	___	___	___	___
m. other? (specify) _____	___	___	___	___

Home Involvement in Schooling (cont.)

	Yes	Yes but more of this is needed	No	If no, is this something you want?
2. Improving school operations by assisting with				
a. school and community up-keep and beautification	___	___	___	___
b. improving school-community relations	___	___	___	___
c. fund raising	___	___	___	___
d. PTA	___	___	___	___
e. enhancing public support by increasing political awareness about the contributions and needs of the school	___	___	___	___
f. school governance	___	___	___	___
g. advocacy for school needs	___	___	___	___
h. advisory councils	___	___	___	___
i. program planning	___	___	___	___
j. other? (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
3. Establishing home-community networks to benefit the community	___	___	___	___
4. Other? (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
I. What programs are used to meet the educational needs of personnel related to this programmatic area?				
1. Is there ongoing training for team members concerned with the area of Home Involvement in Schooling?	___	___	___	___
2. Is there ongoing training for staff of specific services/programs	___	___	___	___
3. Other? (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
J. Which of the following topics are covered in educating stakeholders?				
1. designing an inclusionary "Parent Center"	___	___	___	___
2. overcoming barriers to home involvement	___	___	___	___
3. developing group-led mutual support groups	___	___	___	___
4. available curriculum for parent education	___	___	___	___
5. teaching parents to be mentors and leaders at the school	___	___	___	___
6. other (specify) _____	___	___	___	___

K. Please indicate below any other ways that are used to enhance home involvement in schooling.

_____ _____
_____ _____
_____ _____

L. Please indicate below other things you want the school to do to enhance home involvement in schooling.

_____ _____
_____ _____
_____ _____

Home Involvement in Schooling
Some Examples of Work in this Area that have Evaluative Data

Parent education classes vary in the outcomes they hope to achieve. Evaluations indicate the promise of such programs with respect to improving parent attitudes, skills, and problem solving abilities; parent-child communication; and in some instances the child's school achievement. Data also suggest an impact on reducing children's negative behavior. *Adult education* is a proven commodity. The question here is how it impacts on home involvement in schooling and on the behavior and achievement of youngsters in the family. Few studies have focused on this matter and even fewer have focused on family literacy approaches. The adult education studies included here report highly positive outcomes with respect to preschool children, and a summary of findings on family literacy reports highly positive trends into the elementary grades. More broadly, efforts to mobilize those in the home to address students' basic needs show effects on a range of behaviors and academic performance.

In general, research findings over the past 30 years have consistently shown home involvement in schooling has a positive impact on youngster's attitudes, aspirations, and achievement. The tasks ahead include expanding the focus beyond thinking only in terms of parents and expanding the range of ways in which schools connect with those in the home. In particular, more intensive efforts must focus on those in the home who have the greatest influence on a student's well being and with whom it has proven difficult to connect. New approaches must be developed and evaluated to clarify how best to involve such hard-to-reach individuals (e.g., perhaps by starting with strategies that address their needs, as contrasted with trying to make them take greater responsibility for their children's problems).*

The following pages provide examples of:

1. *Parenting education*
2. *Adult education/Family Literacy*
3. *Mobilizing the home to support students' basic needs*

*The material included in this section is excerpted from a Center Technical Assistance Sampler entitled: *A Sampling of Outcome Findings from Interventions Relevant to Addressing Barriers to Learning.* Given the pressure to compile outcome findings relevant to addressing barriers to student learning, as a first step we simply have gathered and tabulated information from secondary sources (e.g., reviews, reports). Thus, unlike published literature reviews and meta analyses, we have not yet eliminated evaluations that were conducted in methodologically unsound ways. We will do so when we have time to track down original sources, and future drafts of this document will address the problem as well as including other facets of intervention related to this area. In this respect, we would appreciate any information readers can send us about well-designed evaluations of interventions that should be included and about any of the cited work that should be excluded.

1. Parenting Education

a. *Adolescent Transitions Program (ATP)*: ATP provides parents with family management skills and high-risk teens with skills to self-regulate behavior. The parent curriculum teaches skills for: (1) Encouraging positive behaviors; (2) Setting up behavior change contracts; (3) Establishing limits and providing consequences; (4) Communication; and (5) Problem solving. The teen curriculum teaches: (1) Goal setting; (2) Making behavioral change; (3) Selecting and maintaining friends; (4) Communication; and (5) Problem solving. In comparison to control group, one-year follow-up assessment indicated that the program was effective in engaging students and parents, teaching them skills, and improving parent-child relations. Post-treatment assessment indicated short-term effect on teens aggressive and delinquent behaviors. The teen curriculum-only condition was associated with escalated problem behavior, highlighting the importance of the teen and parent components.

For more information, see:
Dishion, T.J., Andrews, D.W. (1995). Preventing escalation in problem behaviors with high-risk young adolescents: Immediate and one-year outcomes. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 63*, 538-548.

Dishion, T. J., Andrews, D.W., Kavanagh, K., & Soberman, L.H. (1996). Chapter 9, preventive interventions for high-risk youth: The adolescent transitions program. In Peteres, R., & McMahon, R. (Eds.), *Preventing Childhood Disorders, Substance Abuse, and Delinquency*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, 184-218.

For project information, contact:
Thomas J. Dishion, Ph.D., Oregon Social Learning Center, Inc., 207 East Fifth Ave. , Suite 202, Eugene, OR 97401, (541) 485-2711.

b. *Iowa Strengthening Families:* A family-based intervention which enhances parents' general child management skills, parent-child affective relationships, and family communication. Based on a developmental model, ISFP seeks to delay the onset of adolescent alcohol and substance use by improving family practices. ISFP is designed for sixth-grade students and their families. Parents are taught to clarify expectations of children's behavior, utilize appropriate discipline techniques, manage strong emotions concerning children, and use effective communication. Children learn similar skills as well as peer resistance/refusal techniques, social interaction skills, and stress management. Post-test evaluations showed parents' improved child management practices, increased parent-child communication, more child involvement in family, and strengthened family affective quality. One- and two-year follow-up analyses revealed that adolescents had lower rates of alcohol initiation and 30-60% relative reductions in alcohol use, using without parents' permission, and being drunk.

For program information, contact:
Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence, University of Colorado, Boulder, Institute of Behavioral Science, Campus Box 442, Boulder, CO 80309-0442, (303)492-8465, email: cspv@colorado.edu, http://colorado.edu/cspv/blueprints/promise/iowa.htm

c. *MELD Young Moms* : Uses peer support groups to help strengthen families by reducing the social isolation that can lead to child abuse and neglect. Program activities are designed to increase parents' knowledge of child development; increase parents' ability to solve problems, make decisions, and manage family life; and to nurture parents' personal growth. Support peer groups meet weekly for a period of two years. An outcome study of seven MELD sites found a positive shift in parental attitudes and beliefs about parenting and children. Parents showed more appropriate expectations in line with child's abilities, increased awareness of and better response to child's needs, and reduced value in corporal punishment.

For more information, see:
Strengthening America's Families Project, University of Utah, Model Family Strengthening Program Descriptions, www.whitehousedrugpolicy.gov/prevent/parenting/r_ meld.html

d. *Parent Child Development Center Programs*: Designed to foster relationships between parents and children. It targets low-income families and provides multidimensional treatment to help mothers become more effective in child-rearing. Mothers are educated in socioemotional, intellectual, and physical aspects of infant and child development; care-givers' personal development is enhanced through home management training and continuing education classes; and the needs of the entire family are addressed by providing health and social services. A short-term evaluation at 24 months found increases in IQ and cognitive ability and more positive mother-child interactions. Compared to control groups, evaluations showed increases in children's school achievement at grades 2 and 3, improvements in mothers' positive control techniques (including discipline with discussion and less physical punishment), improvements in mothers' use of affection/praise, and decreases in children's destructive behavior (age 4-7).

For more information, see:
Bridgeman, B., Blumental, J.B., & Andrews, S.R. (1981). *Parent Child Development Center: Final Evaluation* Report. Dept. of Health and Human Services, Office of Human Development Services, Washington, DC 20201.

Johnson, D.L. & Walker, T. (1987). Primary prevention of behavior problems in Mexican-American children. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 15, 375-385.

Johnson, D.L. & Breckenridge, J.N. (1982). The Houston Parent-Child Development Center and the primary prevention of behavior problems in young children. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 10, 305-316. Contact: Dale Johnson, Department of Psychology, University of Houston – University Park Houston, TX 77004 (713) 743-8508

e. *Parent to Parent:* A video-based program that helps parents deal directly with their children. The program intends to be facilitated by parents for parents. Internal evaluation and long term studies by outside sources showed the following statistics: (a) 89% of participants had a greater understanding of their role in preventing drug and alcohol use by their children as a result of the program; (b) 91% changed the way they communicated with their children; (c) 75% became more involved in community efforts aimed at alcohol or drugs; (d) 91% talk more often with their children about drugs; and, (e) 85% increased contact with parents of their children's friends.

For more information, see:
O'Keefe, A. (1998). *Participant Views on the Parent to Parent Program*. Prepared for the Onondaga County Drug and Alcohol Commission; 1-800-487-7743.

For program information, contact:
Kathleen Lindsey, Parent to Parent Consultant, Representing Passage Group, Inc., lindseyenterprises@usa.net; Safe Passsage, Violence Prevention for Parents, 1-800-487-7743.

f. *PeaceBuilders:* A school-wide violence prevention program for elementary schools (K - 5) that aims to enhance parent competence, increase rewards and praise for prosocial behavior, improve the school climate, teach peace building and communication skills, and recruit other adults as advisors and positive role models. Core components include common language and stimulus cues; video training kit; action guide and related tools for teachers, administrators, and families; story/workbooks for children; parents' activity training kit; and community media kit. A CDC-funded study is currently underway, and pilot data showed reduction in teachers' estimates of aggressive behavior/social skills, referrals to the principal, suspensions, school transfers, and aggression on the playground.

For more information, see:
Embry, D.D., Flannery, D.J., Vazsonyi, A.T., Powell, K.E., & Atha, H. (1996). PeaceBuilders: A theoretically driven, school-based model for early violence prevention. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine. Youth Violence Prevention: Description and Baseline Data from 13 Evaluation Projects (Supp.)*, 12 (5), 91-100.

Walker, H.M., Colvin, G., Ramsey, E. (1995). *Anti-Social Behavior in Schools: Strategies and Best Practices.* Pacific Grove, California: Brooks/Cole.

For program information, contact:
Jane Gulibon, Heartsprings, Inc., P.O. Box 15258, Tuscon, AZ 85732, (520) 322-9977.

g. *Preparing for the Drug Free Years*: For parents of children in grades 4 through 8, regardless of ethnicity and socioeconomic status, and is designed to help parents reduce the risk that their children will develop problems with drugs and alcohol in adolescence. The program teaches parents how to increase their children's opportunities for involvement in the family, how to teach skills needed by children and adolescents, and how to provide reinforcement for desired behavior and appropriate consequences for undesired behavior. Preliminary results from a large-scale NIDA-funded study (currently underway) show positive effects on parenting behavior. Parents showed greater understanding about the situations in which adolescents are offered drugs, greater appreciation for the importance of bonding and providing adolescents with meaningful roles in the family, and significant changes in knowledge, attitudes, and behavior. For example, parents reported having held family meetings to set family policy and to teach refusal skills.

For more information, see:
Spoth, R., Redmond, C., Haggerty, K., & Ward, T. (1995). A controlled parenting skills outcome study examining individual differences and attendance effects. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 57: 449.

Spoth, R., Redmond, C., Hockaday, C., & Yoo, S. (1996). Protective factors and young adolescent tendency to abstain from alcohol use: A model using two waves of intervention study data. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 24 (6): 749-770.

For program information, contact:
Karl Hill, Ph.D., Project Director, Social Development Research Group, 146 North Canal St., Suite 211, Seattle, WA 98103-8652; (206) 685-1997. *To order materials, contact*: Barbara McCarthy, Developmental Research and Programs, 130 Nickerson, Suite 107, Seattle, WA 98109; (800) 736-2630

h. *Syracuse Family Development Research Program:* Bolsters child and family functioning through home visitations, parent training, and individualized daycare. The program targets economically disadvantaged families in order to improve children's cognitive and emotional functioning, foster children's positive outlooks, and decrease juvenile delinquency. Mothers receive individualized training and support in order to create developmentally appropriate interactive games for their children, foster mothers' involvement in children's educational attainment, and model appropriate interactions. The most dramatic effects of the program were found during a ten-year follow-up with control group evaluation, which demonstrated reduced juvenile delinquency and improved school functioning (for girls), including the following results: (a) Only 6% of FDRP children, compared to 22% of controls, had official delinquent records; (b) Control delinquents had more serious offenses; (c) FDRP girls showed better grades and school attendance (grades 7-8); (c) FDRP girls showed higher teacher ratings of self-esteem and school achievement; (d) FDRP children rated themselves more positively and had higher educational goals; (e) FDRP parents were more proud of their children and rated their families as more unified.

For more information, see:
Lally, J.R., Mangione, P.L., & Honig, A.S. (1988). The Syracuse University Family Development Research Program: Long-range impact on an early intervention with low-income children and their families. In D.R. Powell and Irving E. Sigel (eds.), *Parent Education as Early Childhood Intervention: Emerging Direction in Theory, Research, and Practice. Annual Advances in Applied Developmental Psychology, Volume 3.* Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corp.

Lally, J.R., Mangione, P.L., Honig, A.S., & Wittner, D.S. (1988). More pride, less delinquency: Findings from the ten-year follow-up study of the Syracuse University Family Development Research Program. *Zero to Three*, April, 13-18.

2. Adult Education

a. *Family Literacy Research Summary (including Even Start):* The National Center on Family Literacy reports the following. "Integrated family literacy programming is more effective than traditional approaches to adult education, early childhood education, or stand-alone parent programs for our most vulnerable adults and children. From the beginning of the Kenan program in 1989, NCFL has utilized standardized and teacher-made tests, case studies, anecdotal records, parent surveys and interviews, and staff observations to evaluate all aspects of the program. The early findings indicated that both adults and their children made important gains as a result of attending family literacy programs:

- Parents who made a commitment to attend regularly made significant improvements in academic performance, in their relationships with their children and with other adults, and in their view of themselves. Even though the average reading and math scores were between the 6th and 7th grade level, 30% of adult students either received GED certification during the program year, passed parts of the exam, or had scheduled the exam at the end of the program year.

- By the end of the program year, more than 90% of formerly "at-risk" children were judged by their teacher as ready for entry into kindergarten with no expected academic or social difficulties. These children demonstrated significant growth in behavior, use of language, and development of pre-academic skills. *Breaking the Cycle of Illiteracy: The Kenan Family Literacy Model Program* (NCFL, 1989).

The Kenan model was expanded nationally in 1991 with the Toyota Families for Learning Program (TFLP). The findings produced from 15 cities (sample size: n = 500) demonstrated the need to approach these problems from the comprehensive family perspective of the Kenan model:

- Adults participating in family literacy programs showed greater gains in literacy than adults in adult-focused programs.
- Participants in family literacy programs were less likely to drop out of the program than were participants in adult focused programs.
- Children participating in family literacy programs demonstrated greater gains than children in child-focused programs.
- More educationally supportive home environments were reported by parents in family literacy programs than when they entered the program. *The Power of Family Literacy* (NCFL, 1996).

Parental involvement is perhaps the most important indicator of the success of family literacy programs. Ideally, adults and children both improve in literacy ability, and lifestyle changes should be occurring in parent/child interactions so that learning gains can be maintained and extended independently by families. Mikulecky and Lloyd, in a study of NCFL programs in Atlanta, Rochester, Fort Wayne, Nashville, and Richmond (n = 133) demonstrated through comparisons made at time of entry and time of exit that:

- Parents provided a wider range of reading and writing materials at home for their children: Parents took their children to the library twice as often, about every 3 weeks. Parents bought or borrowed books for their children 40% more often, every one to two weeks.
- Parents engaged in a wider range of reading and writing activities with their children at home, drawing and writing with their children and using educational materials and games: Parents read or looked at books with their children 40% more often, almost every day. Children asked parents to read to them 20% more often, almost every day. Children's book and magazine reading increased by nearly 40%, to more than once a day.
- Parent-child talk about manners and hygiene involved more explaining and less direct instruction.
- Parents and children played together with toys or games about 30% more often.
- Parents displayed children's drawings and writings at home 20% more often, every 4 to 5 days.
- Children saw their parents engage in a wider range of reading and writing activities at home.
- Parents became increasingly aware that children can learn through play and do not need to be taught or controlled by adults. Parents thought that children learned to read and write well in school because their parents spent quality time with them rather than because of the child's ability or effort. Parents believed taking children to the library or educational programs would help children learn to read and write better. Mikulecky and Lloyd. (1995). *Evaluating Parent/Child Interactions in Family Literacy Programs.*

The NCFL Parent Survey shows practically and statistically significant gains ($p < .003$, $n = 1100$) in the frequency that parents: (a) talk to their school-age children's teacher, (b) talk to their children about their day , (c) read or look at books with children, (d) are seen reading or writing by their children, (e) take their children to the library, (f) volunteer at school help children with homework, and (g) attend school activities (analysis of NCFL primary database, 1997)

In NCFL's first follow-up study, 53 adults & 98 children were evaluated after leaving the Kenan program:

- One year after leaving the program, 66% of adults were either enrolled or had definite plans for enrolling in some form of higher or continuing education program or were employed.
- 35% were employed, while fewer than 10% were employed at the time they enrolled in the program.
- After two years, none of the children had been held back in school.
- Over three-fourths of these children were rated by their current kindergarten or grade-school teacher as average or above average on academic performance, motivation to learn, support from parents, relations with other students, attendance, classroom behavior, self confidence, and probable success in school. *Follow-up Study of Impact of the Kenan Trust Model for Family Literacy* (NCFL, 1991).

In follow-up studies of 200 representative families in four states (KY, NC, HI, and NY) one to six years after attending family literacy programs, NCFL has documented these enduring effects:

- 51% of the adult students have received a high school equivalency certificate;
- 43% are employed, compared to 14% before enrolling;
- 13% have enrolled in higher education or training programs and another 11% are continuing in Adult Education programs working toward GED certification;
- Dependence on public assistance has been reduced by 50%
- The present primary teachers rate almost 80% of former family literacy children at or above the class average on such factors as attendance, classroom behavior, relations with other children, motivation to learn, family support for education, and probability of success in school.

A follow-up study ($n = 23$) of former family literacy children in Rochester, NY showed that while only 11% scored above the 20th and none scored above the 50th percentile rank on the PPVT as 3 and 4-year-olds in the family literacy program, 87% scored above the 20th percentile rank and 39% scored above the 50th percentile rank on a standardized reading test (CAT) as first and second graders. (Analysis of NCFL follow-up database, 1996).

NCFL documented the results of high quality, federally-funded Even Start programs to show what can be expected of programs when implemented according to the Even Start mandate. Data was collected from 30 sites across the country in 1997. Adults made significant changes in their lives:

- 54% seeking educational credentials received the GED or its equivalent.
- 45% of those on public assistance reduced the amount received or ceased to receive aid altogether.
- 40% were enrolled in some higher education or training program.
- 50% of those not currently enrolled in an education or training program are employed.

The percentage of children in the Even Start program rated "average or above" by their current classroom teacher (grades K-5): (a) 67% on overall academic performance, (b) 78% on motivation to learn, (c) 83% on support from parents, (d) 89% on relations with other students, (e) 91% on attendance, (f) 84% on classroom behavior, (g) 73% on self-confidence, (h) 75% on probable success in school, (i) 80% on all factors by their teachers, and (j) 90% showed satisfactory grades in reading, language and mathematics *(Even Start: An Effective Literacy Program Helps Families Grow Toward Independence,* NCFL, 1997).

For more information, see:

National Center for Family Literacy website: www.famlit.org/research/research.html

b. *Family Intergenerational-Interaction Literacy Model (FILM):* Works with all family members to improve basic literacy, employment, and parenting skills in order to increase the educational level of disadvantaged preschool children and their families. Provides literacy services and parenting/life skills education to parents and early childhood education to children. Post-test outcome data indicate that: (1) FILM compares favorably with other adult education programs in promoting academic achievement and GED acquisition; (2) FILM preschoolers scored higher on school readiness indicators than a comparison group; (3) FILM preschool graduates were ranked by teachers as higher in academic performance and social skills than their peers; and, (4) Improved teacher reports of parent involvement in their children's education.

For program information, contact:
Dean Hiser, Orange County Department of Education, 200 Kalmus Drive, P.O. Box 9050, Costa Mesa, CA 92628-9050; Phone: (714) 966-4145; Fax: (714) 966-4124; www.ed.gov/pubs/EPTW/eptw11/eptw11a.html

c. *Mother-Child Home Program (MCHP) of the Verbal Interaction Project, Inc.:* A non-didactic, home-based program to prevent educational disadvantage in two- to four-year old children of parents with low income and limited education, and to foster parents' literacy and self-esteem, by enhancing parent-child verbal interaction. Guided by the theory that cognitive and social-emotional growth results from the playful exchange between parent and child, "Toy Demonstrators" model for the parent a curriculum of verbal and other positive interaction with their children. Specific outcomes include: (1) Children at risk for educational disadvantage at age two were no longer so after two years of the program, and (2) Program graduates met national achievement test norms in elementary school and graduated from high school at a normal rate.

For program information, contact:
Dr. Phyllis Levenstein, Director, National Center for Mother-Child Home Program, 3268 Island Road, Wantagh, NY 11793. (516) 785-7077. (Affiliated with the State University of New York at Stony Brook.)

d. *Parents as Teachers:* An early parenting program that provides comprehensive services to families from the third trimester of pregnancy until the children are three years of age. Aimed at helping parents give their children a solid foundation for school success and at forming a closer working relationship between home and school. Services include regularly scheduled personal visits in the home, parent group meetings, periodic screening and monitoring of educational and sensory development, and access to a parent resource center. Outcomes indicate: (1) Children of parents in the program score significantly higher at age three on the Kaufman Assessment Battery for Children and the Zimmerman Preschool Language Scale than the comparison and nationally normed groups; (b) Children of parents in the program score significantly higher at the end of grade one on standardized tests of reading and mathematics than the comparison and nationally normed groups; (c) Parents in the program for three years demonstrate significantly more knowledge and child-rearing practices, are more likely to regard their school district as responsive to a child's needs, and are more likely to have children's hearing professionally tested than the comparison parents; and, (d) Parents who were in the program were found to be significantly more involved in their children's school experience at the end of grade one than were comparison group parents.

For more information, contact:
Mildred Winter, Director, Parents as Teachers National Center, Inc., 9374 Olive Boulevard, St. Louis, MO 63132; Phone: (314) 432-4330 or Sharon Rhodes, Program Development, Director.
www.ed.gov/pubs/EPTW/eptw11/eptw11h.html www.ed.gov/pubs/EPTW/eptw11/eptw11h.html

3. Mobilizing the Home to address Students' Basic Needs

a. *Child Development Project (CDP)*: A multi-year, comprehensive school-change program that aims to help elementary school children feel more attached to the school community, internalize the community's norms and values, exhibit behavior consistent with norms and values, and reduce their involvement in drug-use and other problem behaviors. The program involves parent involvement activities, staff training, school-wide community building activities, and a cross-grade buddy program. Program outcomes include an 11% drop in alcohol use (compared to a 2% increase in comparison schools); a 2% drop in marijuana use (compared to a 2% increase in comparison schools); an 8% drop in cigarette use (compared to a 3% decline in comparison schools); increase in pro-social behaviors among students in grades K-4; and decreased delinquency in schools with the highest level of implementation.

For more information, see:
Battistich, V., Schaps, E., Watson, M., & Solomon, D. (1996). Prevention effects of the Child Development Project: Early findings from an ongoing multisite demonstration trial. *Journal of Adolescent Research, 11*, 12-35.

Battistich, V., Solomon, D., Kim, D., Watson, M., & Schaps, E. (1995). Schools as communities, poverty levels of student populations, and student' attitudes, motives, and performance: A multilevel analysis. *American Educational Research Journal, 32*, 627-658.

For project information, contact:
Sylvia Kendzior, Developmental Studies Center, 200 Embarcadero, Suite 305, Oakland, CA 94606-5300, (510) 533-0213. To order materials, call (800) 666-7270.

b. *Families and Schools Together (FAST)*: A collaborative, multi-family program that aims to prevent school failure, enhance family functioning, prevent familial substance abuse, and reduce stress. FAST targets children (ages 4 to 9) who have high rates of aggression, noncompliance, and behavior problems. The program seeks to empower parents to be their own child's primary prevention agent, and involves 2 years of multiple family meetings that are designed to increase social bonds of the at-risk child. Pre-post program comparisons indicate the following mental health gains: (1) Increased child attention spans and self-esteem; (2) Decreased child problem behaviors; (3) Stronger parent-child relationships; (4) Increased parental school involvement; (5) Enhanced overall family functioning; (6) Greater family networking; (7) Greater family comfort level in dealings with school/community. Three-year follow-up showed: (1) 16% of parents went into alcohol treatment; (2) 27% went into counseling; (3) 40% went on to further education; (4) 16% obtained full-time jobs; (5) 32% became involved in Parent Teacher Organizations; (6) 35% became more involved in community centers.

For more information, see:
McDonald, L., Billingham, S., Dibble, N., Rice, C., & Coe-Braddish, D. (January, 1991). Families and Schools Together: An innovative substance abuse prevention program. *Social Work in Education: A Journal of Social Workers in School*, 13 (2): 118-128.

For program information, contact:
FAST: Families and Schools Together, Family Service America, 11700 West Lake Park Drive, Milwaukee, WI 53224-3099; (800) 221-3726. http://www.acf.dhhs.gov/programs/opre/fastrt.htm

c. *Seattle Social Development Project:* A universal, multidimensional intervention that aims to decrease juveniles' problem behaviors by working with parents, teachers, and children. It intervenes early in children's development to increase prosocial bonds, strengthen attachment and commitment to schools, and decrease delinquency. The Project's success lies in its combination of parent and teacher training. Teachers receive instruction that emphasizes proactive classroom management, interactive teaching, and cooperative learning. Parents receive family management training that helps parents to monitor children, provide appropriate and consistent discipline, . improve communication between themselves, teachers, and students, help their children develop reading and math skills, and create family positions on drugs and encourage children's resistance skills. Evaluations show improved school performance, family relationships, and student drug/alcohol involvement at various grades. Please see detailed review of this program in Section D.4.

For more information, see:
Hawkins, J. David, Catalano, Richard F., Morrison, Diane, O'Donnell, Julie, Abbott, Robert, & Day, Edward

(1992). The Seattle Social Development Project: Effects of the first four years on protective factors and problem behaviors. In Joan McCord & Richard E. Tremblay (eds.), *Preventing Antisocial Behavior: Interventions from Birth through Adolescence.* New York: The Guilford Press.

Hawkins, J. David, Von Cleve, Elizabeth, & Catalano, Richard F. (1991). Reducing early childhood aggression: Results of a primary prevention program. *Journal American Academy Child Adolescent Psychiatry, 30,* 208-217.

O'Donnell, Julie, Hawkins, J. David, Catalano, Richard F., Abbot, Robert D., & Day, Edward (1995). Preventing school failure, drug use, and delinquency among low-income children: Long-term intervention in elementary schools. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 65,* 87-100.

For program information, contact:
J. David Hawkins, Social Development Research Group (SDRG), University of Washington – School of Social Work, 130 Nickerson, Suite 107, Seattle, WA 98109, (206) 286-1805, E-mail: sdrg@u.washington.edu, URL: http://weber.u.washington.edu/~sdrg

d. *Project ACHIEVE:* A school wide prevention and early intervention program, that targets students who are academically and socially at risk. Students learn social skills, problem-solving methods, and anger-reduction techniques. Since 1990, the program has reduced aggression and violence in Project ACHIEVE schools. Disciplinary referrals decreased by 67%, Specifically, referrals for disobedient behavior dropped by 86%, fighting by 72% and disruptive behavior by 88%. Referrals for at-risk students for special education testing decreased 75% while the number of effective academic and behavioral interventions in the regular classroom significantly increased. Suspensions dropped to one-third of what they had been three years before. Grade retention, achievement test scores, and academic performance have improved similarly, and, during the past four years, no student has been placed in the county's alternative education program. The project's success has led to the adoption of the Project ACHIEVE model in over 20 additional sites across the United States.

For more information, see:
Knoff, H.M. & Batsche, G. M. (1995). Project ACHIEVE: Analyzing a school reform process for at-risk and underachieving students. *School Psychology Review, 24,* 579-603.

Knoff, H.M. & Batsche, G. M. Project ACHIEVE: A collaborative, school-based school reform process improving the academic and social progress of at-risk and underachieving students. In: R. Talley & G. Walz (Eds.), *Safe Schools, Safe Students.* National Education Goals Panel and National Alliance of Pupil Services Organizations. Produced in collaboration with ERIC Counseling and Student Services Clearinghouse.

Quinn, M. M., Osher, D., Hoffman, C. C., & Hanley, T. V. (1998). *Safe, drug-free, and effective schools for ALL students: What works!* Washington, DC: Center for Effective Collaboration and Practice, American Institutes for Research.

e. *Early Intervention for School Success (EISS):* Provides teachers, support staff, and parents with basic knowledge of child growth/development and basic strategies for the kindergarten classroom. There are 4 training components: organization and planning, assessment, strategies, and curriculum. Outcomes for kindergarten students after 1 year include: (1) EISS students scored significantly better in receptive language, visual motor integration and achievement than comparison groups; (2) they showed fewer grade retentions than comparison groups; and, (3) In a follow-up of a comparison study of at-risk (first quartile) students, EISS students maintained reading score gains through grade three testing.

For more information, contact:
Dean Hiser, Orange County Department of Education, 200 Kalmus Drive, P.O. Box 9050, Costa Mesa, CA 92628-9050; Phone: (714) 966-4145; Fax: (714) 966-4124; www.ed.gov/pubs/EPTW/eptw11/eptw11a.html

f. *Effective Black Parenting Program (EBPP):* Aims to foster family communication and combat juvenile delinquency, substance abuse, and other negative outcomes. It is a cognitive-behavioral program specifically created for African-American parents that seeks to foster effective family communication, healthy identity, extended family values, child growth and development, self-esteem. Black educators and mental health professionals teach basic child management skill using culturally appropriate methods; interactive groups address topics such as discipline, pride, coping with racism. Pre-post changes were compared with 109 treatment and 64 control families. Outcomes include a significant reduction of parental rejection, and improvements in family quality, reductions in rejection and problem behaviors.

For project information, contact:
Kerby T. Alvy, Ph.D., Executive Director, Center for the Improvement of Child Caring, 11331 Ventura Boulevard, Suite 103, Studio City, CA 91604-3147; Tel: (818) 980-0903

g. *Enriching a Child's Literacy Environment (ECLE):* A program of classroom and home instruction for teaching parents, teachers, and other care providers to develop oral language, thinking abilities, and motor skills in young children (ages 6 months to 3 years). Targeted areas include children's large and small muscle coordination, oral language through sensory stimulation, print and number awareness, appreciation of literature, sensitivity to music and rhythm, and basic concepts. Outcomes on Pre/Post Treatment measures comparisons: (1) Statistically significant gains among ECLE children over a comparison group on both the Mental Development Index (MDI) and the Psychomotor Development Index (PDI) of the Bayley Scales of Infant Development; (b) On average, for every one month in the program, ECLE children showed more than two months of growth relative to the normative group.

For more information, contact:
Dr. Ethna Reid, Reid Foundation, 3310 South 2700 East, Salt Lake City, Utah 84109; Phone: (801) 486-5083; Fax: (801) 485-0561; www.ed.gov/pubs/EPTW/eptw11/eptw11b.html

h. Perry Preschool Program : Provides high-quality early childhood education to disadvantaged children (ages 3 and 4) and their families in order to improve their later school and life performance. The intervention combats the relationship between childhood poverty and school failure by promoting young children's intellectual, social, and physical development. The intervention includes weekly home visitation by teachers, and includes a developmentally appropriate curriculum, small classrooms, frequent parental communication, and sensitivity to noneducational needs of disadvantaged children and their families. Fifteen-year follow-up indicated that, compared to controls, Perry children showed less delinquency (including fewer arrests, and less gang fights and police contact) at age 19. By age 15, Perry children showed less antisocial behavior and higher academic achievement, including higher scores on standardized tests of intellectual ability and higher high school grades. Finally, by age 19, Perry children showed less school dropouts (33% vs. 51%).

For more information, see:
Berrueta-Clement, J. R., Schweinhart, L. J., Barnett, W. S., Epstein, A. S., Weikart, D. P. (1984). *Changed Lives: The Effects of the Perry Preschool Program on Youths Through Age 19.* Ypsilanti, MI: High/Scope Press.

Epstein, Ann S. (1993). *Training for Quality: Improving Early Childhood Programs through Systematic Inservice Training.* Ypsilanti, MI: The High/Scope Press.

For project information, contact:
David Weikart, High Scope Educational Research Foundation, 600 N River Street, Ypsilanti, MI 48198-2898

i. Family Advocacy Network (FAN Club): Directly involves parents of youth (ages 13 to 15) participating in Boys & Girls Clubs of America's SMART Moves program. The FAN Club strengthens families and promotes family bonding, thereby increasing the resistance of youth to drug use. The program can be implemented in community-based youth organizations, recreation centers, and schools in collaboration with a local Boys & Girls Club. FAN Club provides basic support to help families deal with stress and to encourage family activities; regularly scheduled group social activities; educational activities; and parental leadership activities. Outcome data indicate a statistically significant ($p<.05$) decrease in substance use over time relative to comparison schools, as well as greater ability to refuse substances and increased knowledge of health consequences of substance use.

For project information, contact:
Tena L. St. Pierre, Ph.D., The Pennsylvania State University, Institute for Policy Research and Evaluation, In collaboration with Boys & Girls Clubs of America; Ms Mylo Carbia-Puig, 1230 West Peachtree Street, NW, Atlanta, GA 30309-3447; (404) 487-5766 or (877) 773-8546 toll-free; fax (404) 487-5789; E-mail: mcpuig@bgca.org; Web: www.bgca.org

j. Los Ninos Bien Educados: Targets newly immigrated Latino parents and kindergarten children to enable parents to assist children with the challenges of growing up in the U.S. Provides a wide range of basic child-rearing skills, along with skills compatible with Latino culture. The initial field testing of the program in the 1980's indicated that participating parents perceived their relationships with their children as being either better or much better, whereas parents who did not attend the classes saw their relationships with their children as being the same or getting worse over a compatible time period. Children's behavior improvements were reported by parents and confirmed by teachers' reports.

For project information, contact:
Kirby T. Alvy, Ph.D., Executive Director, Center for the Improvement of Child Caring, 11331 Ventura Boulevard, Suite 103, Studio City, CA 91604-0903; Tel (800) 325-CICC

k. *Project P.I.A.G.E.T. (Promoting intellectual Adaptation Given Experiential Transforming):* A program to develop English language and cognitive competencies in bilingual preschool children whose native language is Spanish using a school-home setting. There are three components: (1) Classrooms taught by one bilingual teacher and one aide trained in Piagetian-derived teaching strategies; (2) Aide helps Limited English Proficient (LEP) parents develop educational home program; and, (3) Academic assessment of children and parents' skills. Outcomes include: (1) Limited English Speaking children in Project P.I.A.G.E.T. for one year achieve significantly higher gains than a comparison group on tests of receptive language and reading readiness; and, (2) P.I.A.G.E.T. children achieve grater than the norm in NCEs in English language reading, language, and mathematics by fourth grade, and these gains are sustained through grade 6.

For more information, contact:
Iris Cintron, Bethlehem Area School District, 1516 Sycamore Street, Bethlehem, PA 18017; Phone: (215) 861-0500 or Dr. Thomas Yawkey, Department of Curriculum and Instruction, 159 Chambers Building, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA 16802; Phone: (814) 863-2937.
www.ed.gov/pubs/EPTW/eptw11/eptw11i.html

l. *First Step to Success:* An early intervention program for grades K-3 that takes a collaborative home and school approach to diverting at-risk children from a path leading to adjustment problems, school failure and drop-out, social juvenile delinquency in adolescence, and gang membership and interpersonal violence. The program specifically aims to identify and remediate disruptive and aggressive behaviors. The program uses a joint home and school intervention that (1) identifies each child's antisocial behavior problems; (2) teaches an adaptive, prosocial pattern of school behavior; and (3) teaches parents key skills for supporting and improving their child's school adjustment and performance. Outcomes included sustained behavior changes in the following areas: adaptive behavior, aggressive behavior, maladaptive behavior, and the amount of time spent appropriately engaged in teacher-assigned tasks. Follow-up studies show that intervention effects persist up to two years.

For more information, see:
Walker, H.M. (1998). First step to success: Preventing antisocial behavior among at-risk kindergartners. *Teaching Exceptional Children,* 30(4), 16-19.

Walker, H.M., Severson, H.H., Feil, E.G., Stiller, B., & Golly, A., (1997). *First step to success: Intervening at the point of school entry to prevent antisocial behavior patterns.* Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

Contact: Jeff Sprague & Hill Walker, Co-Directors. Institute on Violence and Destructive Behavior, 1265 University of Oregon, Eugene, OR 97403. (541) 346-3591.

m. *Parent-Teacher Intervention Project (P-TIP):* Involves providing consultation services to parents and teachers of Head Start children who are experiencing either social withdrawal or conduct problems. Treatment consists of a comprehensive video-based program for parents and teachers that cover: play, praise and rewards, effective limit setting, and handling misbehavior. Results of the first two years of the project indicated that parents rated the experimental children's social skills as having increased from pretest to posttest, although there was not a significant difference compared to the control children. Moreover, parents rated the experimental and control children's problem behaviors as having decreased, but there was no significant difference between the groups. Finally, parents and teachers indicated that treatment acceptability and effectiveness of treatment was rated very highly.

For more information, see:
http://www.wcer.wisc.edu/Project_Descriptions/Teacher_Parent_Intervent.html

n. *Preventive Treatment Program*: The program is designed to prevent antisocial behavior of boys who display early, problem behavior. The Preventive Treatment Program combines parent training with individual social skills training. Parents receive an average of 17 sessions that focus on monitoring their children's behavior, giving positive reinforcement for prosocial behavior, using punishment effectively, and managing family crises. The boys receive 19 sessions aimed at improving prosocial skills and self-control. The training utilizes coaching, peer modeling, self-instruction, reinforcement contingency, and role playing to build skills. Program evaluations have demonstrated both short and long-term gains. At age 12, three years after the intervention: treated boys were less likely to report the following offenses: trespassing, taking objects worth less than $10, taking objects worth more than $10, and stealing bicycles.

Treated boys were rated by teachers as fighting less than untreated boys. 29% of the treated boys were rated as well-adjusted in school, compared to 19% of the untreated boys. 22% of the treated boys, compared to 44% of the untreated boys, displayed less serious difficulties in school. 23.3% of the treated boys, compared to 43% of the untreated boys, were held back in school or placed in special education classes. At age 15, those receiving the intervention were less likely than untreated boys to report: gang involvement; having been drunk or taking drugs in the past 12 months; committing delinquent acts (stealing, vandalism, drug use); and having friends arrested by the police.

For more information, see:
Tremblay, Richard E., Masse, Louise, Pangani, Linda & Vitaro, Frank (1996). From childhood physical aggression to adolescent maladjustment: The Montreal Prevention Experiment. In R. D. Peters & R. J. McMahon (eds.), *Preventing childhood Disorders, Substance Abuse, and Delinquency,* Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Tremblay, Richard E., Vitaro, Frank, Betrand, Llucie, LeBlanc, Marc, Beauchesne, Helene, Bioleau, Helene, & David, Lucille (1992). Parent and child training to prevent early onset of delinquency: The Montreal longitudinal Experimental Study. In Joan McCord & Richard Tremblay (eds.), *Preventing Antisocial Behavior: Interventions from Birth through Adolescence.* New York: The Guildford Press.

For project information, contact: Richard E. Temblay, University of Montreal, School of Pycho-Education, 750, boul. Gouin Est, Montreal, Quebec, Canada H2C 1A6, (514)385-2525.

o. *Strengthening Families Program (SFP):* Designed to reduce family environment risk factors and improve protective factors with the ultimate goal of increasing the resiliency of youth ages 6 to 10 who are at risk for substance abuse. Intervention lasts 2 to 3 hours weekly for 14 weeks, and includes parent, child, and family skills training. Positive results were maintained at 5-year follow-up and include reductions in family conflict, improvement in family communication and organization, and reductions in youth conduct disorders, aggressiveness, and substance abuse.

For more information, see:
Aktan, B.B., Kumpfer, K.L., & Turner, C. (1996). The Safe Haven Program: Effectiveness of a family skills training program for substance abuse prevention with inner city African-American families. *Journal of Drugs in Society.*

Harrison, R.S. (1994). *Final Evaluation of the Utah Community Youth Activity Project.* Submitted to Utah States Division of Substance Abuse. Salt Lake City, UT: Social Research Institute, Graduate School of Social Work, University of Utah, 1994.

For program information, contact:
Dr. Karol Kumpfer, Department of Health Education, HPER N-215, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, UT 84112, (810)581-7718.

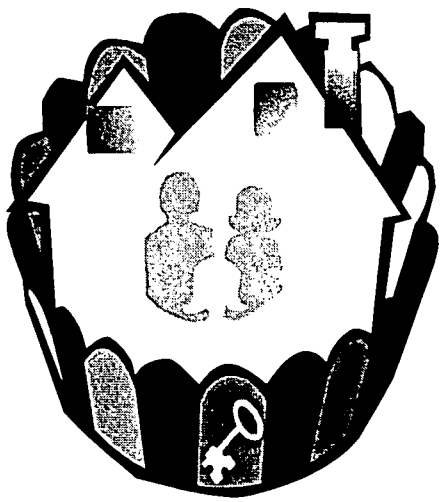
p. *Webster Groves Even Start Program*: Links parenting education, adult basic education, and early childhood education (ages 0 to 7) through a single site family learning center and home-based instruction. Targets families experiencing difficulties including teen pregnancy, single-parents, poverty, low literacy skill, high school drop-outs, abusive relationships, and low self esteem. Adult activities include basic education, GED studies and computer skills, parenting or life skills and pre-employability instruction. Educational activities for children are designed to develop pre-literacy skills, such as social interaction and language development. Outcomes include: (1) parents in the program showed significant increases in passing the GED and parenting knowledge skills; (2) parents in the program took more responsibility for their child's growth and development and achieved their personal goals; and, (3) Children in the program significantly increased their receptive vocabulary and were equal to other children in preschool skills when they entered kindergarten.

For project information, contact:
Diane Givens, Coordinator, 9153 (R) Manchester, Rock Hill, MO 63119; Phone: (314) 968-5354; Fax: (314) 963-6411. www.ed.gov/pubs/EPTW/eptw11/eptw11j.html

CONTENTS

Community Outreach for Involvement and Support – including volunteers

- Self-Study Survey to Enhance this Area
- Self-Study Survey to Enhance School-Community Partnerships
- Some Examples of Work in this Area that have Evaluative Data
- Using Volunteers Effectively



Community Outreach for Involvement and Support (including Volunteers)

Self-Study Survey to Enhance this Area

The emphasis here is on outreaching to the community to build linkages and collaborations, develop greater involvement in schooling, and enhance support for efforts to enable learning. Outreach is made to (a) public and private community agencies, universities, colleges, organizations, and facilities, (b) businesses and professional organizations and groups, and (c) volunteer service programs, organizations, and clubs. If a Familv/Parent/ Community Center facility has been established at the site, it can be a context for some of this activity. Anticipated outcomes include measures of enhanced community participation and student progress, as well as a general enhancement of the quality of life in the community.

Community Outreach Please indicate all items that apply.	Yes	Yes but more of this is needed	If no, No	is this something you want?
A. With respect to programs to recruit community involvement and support				
1. From which of the following sources are participants recruited?				
a. public community agencies, organizations, and facilities	___	___	___	___
b. private community agencies, organizations, and facilities	___	___	___	___
c. business sector	___	___	___	___
d. professional organizations and groups	___	___	___	___
e. volunteer service programs, organizations, and clubs	___	___	___	___
f. universities and colleges	___	___	___	___
g. other (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
2. Indicate current types of community involvement at the school				
a. mentoring for students families	___	___	___	___
b. volunteer functions	___	___	___	___
c. a community resource pool that provides expertise as requested, such as				
artists	___	___	___	___
musicians	___	___	___	___
librarians	___	___	___	___
health and safety programs	___	___	___	___
other (specify) _____	___	___	___	___

Community Outreach (cont.)

	Yes	Yes but more of this is needed	No	If no, Is this something you want?
d. formal agency/program linkages that result in				
>community health and social services providers coming to the site	___	___	___	___
>after school programs coming to the site	___	___	___	___
>services and programs providing direct access to referrals from the site	___	___	___	___
other (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
e. formal partnership arrangements that involve community agents in				
school governance	___	___	___	___
advocacy for the school	___	___	___	___
advisory functions	___	___	___	___
program planning	___	___	___	___
fund raising	___	___	___	___
sponsoring activity (e.g., adopt-a-school partners)	___	___	___	___
creating awards and incentives	___	___	___	___
creating jobs	___	___	___	___
other (specify) _____	___	___	___	___

B. With specific respect to volunteers

1. What types of volunteers are used at the site?

a. nonprofessionals				
parents	___	___	___	___
college students	___	___	___	___
senior citizens	___	___	___	___
business people	___	___	___	___
peer and cross age tutors	___	___	___	___
peer and cross age counselors	___	___	___	___
paraprofessionals	___	___	___	___
b. professionals-in-training (specify)_____	___	___	___	___
c. professionals (pro bono) (specify)_____	___	___	___	___
d. other (specify) _____	___	___	___	___

2. Who do volunteers assist?

a. administrators	___	___	___	___
b. assist teachers	___	___	___	___
c. assist other staff	___	___	___	___
d. others (specify) _____	___	___	___	___

Community Outreach (cont.)

3. In which of the following ways do volunteers participate?	Yes	Yes but more of this is needed	No	If no, is this something you want?
a. providing general classroom assistance	___	___	___	___
b. assisting with targeted students	___	___	___	___
c. assisting after school	___	___	___	___
d. providing special tutoring	___	___	___	___
e. helping students with attention problems	___	___	___	___
f. helping with bilingual students	___	___	___	___
g. helping address other diversity matters	___	___	___	___
h helping in the cafeteria	___	___	___	___
i. helping in the library	___	___	___	___
j. helping in computer lab	___	___	___	___
k. helping on class trips	___	___	___	___
l. helping with homework helplines	___	___	___	___
m. working in the front office	___	___	___	___
n. helping welcome visitors	___	___	___	___
o. helping welcome new enrollees and their families	___	___	___	___
p. phoning home about absences	___	___	___	___
q. outreaching to the home	___	___	___	___
r. acting as mentors or advocates for students, families, staff	___	___	___	___
s. assisting with school up-keep and beautification efforts	___	___	___	___
t. helping enhance public support by increasing political awareness about the school's contributions and needs	___	___	___	___
u. other (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
4. Are there systems and programs specifically designed to				
a. recruit -volunteers?	___	___	___	___
b. train volunteers?	___	___	___	___
c. screen volunteers?	___	___	___	___
d. maintain volunteers?	___	___	___	___
C. Which of the following are used to enhance school involvement of hard to involve students and families (including truants and dropouts and families who have little regular contact with the school)?				
1. home visits to assess and plan ways to overcome barriers to				
a. student attendance	___	___	___	___
b. family involvement in schooling	___	___	___	___
2. support networks connecting hard to involve				
a. students with peers and mentors	___	___	___	___
b. families with peers and mentors	___	___	___	___
3. special incentives for				
a. students	___	___	___	___
b. families	___	___	___	___
4. Other (specify) _____	___	___	___	___

Community Outreach

	Yes	Yes but more of this is needed	No	If no, is this something you want?
D. Which of the following are used to enhance community-school connections and sense of community?				
1. orientations and open houses for				
a. newly arriving students	___	___	___	___
b. newly arriving families	___	___	___	___
c. new staff	___	___	___	___
2. student performances for the community	___	___	___	___
3. school sponsored				
a. cultural and sports events for the community	___	___	___	___
b. community festivals and celebrations	___	___	___	___
c. topical workshops and discussion groups	___	___	___	___
d. health fairs	___	___	___	___
e. family preservation fairs	___	___	___	___
f. work fairs	___	___	___	___
4. Other? (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
E. What programs are used to meet the educational needs of personnel related to this programmatic area?				
1. Is there ongoing training for team members concerned with the area of Community Outreach/Volunteer?	___	___	___	___
2. Is there ongoing training for staff of specific services/programs?	___	___	___	___
3. Other? (specify) _____	___	___	___	___
F. Which of the following topics are covered in educating stakeholders?				
1. understanding the local community -- culture, needs, resources	___	___	___	___
2. how to recruit, train, and retain volunteers				
a. in general	___	___	___	___
b. for special roles	___	___	___	___
3. how to move toward collaborations with community resources	___	___	___	___
4. how to outreach to hard-to-involve students and families	___	___	___	___
5. other (specify) _____	___	___	___	___

Community Outreach for Involvement and Support (including Volunteers) [cont.]

G. Please indicate below any other ways that are used with respect to community outreach/ volunteer programs.

_____ _____

_____ _____

_____ _____

_____ _____

H. Please indicate below other things you want the school to do with respect to community outreach/volunteer programs.

_____ _____

_____ _____

_____ _____

_____ _____

Self-Study Surveys to
Enhance School-Community Partnerships

Formal efforts to create school-community partnerships to improve school and neighborhood, involve building formal relationships to connect resources involved in preK-12 schooling and resources in the community (including formal and informal organizations such as the home, agencies involved in providing health and human services, religion, policing, justice, economic development; fostering youth development, recreation, and enrichment; as well as businesses, unions, governance bodies, and institutions of higher education).

As you work toward enhancing such partnerships, it helps to clarify what you have in place as a basis for determining what needs to be done. You will want to pay special attention to

- *clarifying what resources already are available*
- *how the resources are organized to work together*
- *what procedures are in place for enhancing resource usefulness*

The following set of surveys are designed as self-study instruments related to school-community partnerships. Stakeholders can use such surveys to map and analyze the current status of their efforts.

This type of self-study is best done by teams. For example, a group of stakeholders could use the items to discuss how well specific processes and programs are functioning and what's not being done. Members of the team initially might work separately in filling out the items, but the real payoff comes from discussing them as a group. The instrument also can be used as a form of program quality review.

In analyzing, the status of their school-community partnerships, the group may decide that some existing activity is not a high priority and that the resources should be redeployed to help establish more important programs. Other activity may be seen as needing to be embellished so that it is effective. Finally, decisions may be made regarding new desired activities, and since not everything can be added at once, priorities and timelines can be established.

1. Overview of Areas for School-Community Partnership

Indicate the status of partnerships between a given school or family of schools and community with respect to each of the following areas.

Please indicate all items that apply	Yes	Yes but more of this is needed	No	If no, is this something you want?
A. Improving the School (name of school(s): _____)				
1. the instructional component of schooling	___	___	___	___
2. the governance and management of schooling	___	___	___	___
3. financial support for schooling	___	___	___	___
4. school-based programs and services to address barriers to learning	___	___	___	___
B. Improving the Neighborhood (through enhancing linkages with the school, including use of school facilities and resources)				
1. youth development programs	___	___	___	___
2. youth and family recreation and enrichment opportunities	___	___	___	___
3. physical health services	___	___	___	___
4. mental health services	___	___	___	___
5. programs to address psychosocial problems	___	___	___	___
6. basic living needs services	___	___	___	___
7. work/career programs	___	___	___	___
8. social services	___	___	___	___
9. crime and juvenile justice programs	___	___	___	___
10. legal assistance	___	___	___	___
11. support for development of neighborhood organizations	___	___	___	___
12. economic development programs	___	___	___	___

2. *Overview of System Status for Enhancing School-Community Partnerships*

Items 1-7 ask about what processes are in place.
Use the following ratings in responding to these items.

DK = don't know
1 = not yet
2 = planned
3 = just recently initiated
4 = has been functional for a while
5 = well institutionalized (well established with a commitment to maintenance)

1. Is there a stated policy for enhancing school-community partnerships (e.g., from the school, community agencies, government bodies)? DK 1 2 3 4 5

2. Is there a designated leader or leaders for enhancing school-community partnerships? DK 1 2 3 4 5

3. With respect to each entity involved in the school-community partnerships have specific persons been designated as representatives to meet with each other? DK 1 2 3 4 5

4. Do personnel involved in enhancing school-community partnerships meet regularly as a team to evaluate current status and plan next steps? DK 1 2 3 4 5

5. Is there a written plan for capacity building related to enhancing the school-community partnerships? DK 1 2 3 4 5

6. Are there written descriptions available to give all stakeholders regarding current school-community partnerships DK 1 2 3 4 5

7. Are there effective processes by which stakeholders learn

   (a) what is available in the way of programs/services? DK 1 2 3 4 5

   (b) how to access programs/services they need? DK 1 2 3 4 5

2. *Overview of System Status for Enhancing School-Community Partnerships (cont.)*

Items 8- 9 ask about effectiveness of existing processes.
Use the following ratings in responding to these items.

DK = don't know
1 = hardly ever effective
2 = effective about 25 % of the time
3 = effective about half the time
4 = effective about 75% of the time
5 = almost always effective

8. In general, how effective are your local efforts to enhance school-community partnerships? DK 1 2 3 4 5

9. With respect to enhancing school-community partnerships, how effective are each of the following:

(a) current policy DK 1 2 3 4 5

(b) designated leadership DK 1 2 3 4 5

(c) designated representatives DK 1 2 3 4 5

(d) team monitoring and planning of next steps DK 1 2 3 4 5

(e) capacity building efforts DK 1 2 3 4 5

List Current School-Community Partnerships

For improving the school

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

For improving the neighborhood (though enhancing links with the school, including use of school facilities and resources)

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

3. *School-Community Partnerships to Improve the School*

Indicate the status of partnerships between a given school or family of schools and community with respect to each of the following:

Please indicate all items that apply (**name of school(s):** _____)	Yes	Yes but more of this is needed	No	If no, is this something you want?
Partnerships to improve				
1. the instructional component of schooling				
a. kindergarten readiness programs	___	___	___	___
b. tutoring	___	___	___	___
c. mentoring	___	___	___	___
d. school reform initiatives	___	___	___	___
e. homework hotlines	___	___	___	___
f. media/technology	___	___	___	___
g. career academy programs	___	___	___	___
h. adult education, ESL, literacy, citizenship classes	___	___	___	___
i. other _____	___	___	___	___
2. the governance and management of schooling				
a. PTA/PTSA	___	___	___	___
b. shared leadership	___	___	___	___
c. advisory bodies	___	___	___	___
d. other _____	___	___	___	___
3. financial support for schooling				
a. adopt-a-school	___	___	___	___
b. grant programs and funded projects	___	___	___	___
c. donations/fund raising	___	___	___	___
d. other_____	___	___	___	___
4. school-based programs and services to address barriers to learning*				
a. student and family assistance programs/services	___	___	___	___
b. transition programs	___	___	___	___
c. crisis response and prevention programs	___	___	___	___
d. home involvement programs	___	___	___	___
e. pre and inservice staff development programs	___	___	___	___
f. other_____	___	___	___	___

*The Center for Mental Health in Schools at UCLA has a set of surveys for in-depth self-study of efforts to improve a school's ability to address barriers to learning and teaching.

4. School-Community Partnerships to Improve the Neighborhood

Indicate the status of partnerships between a given school or family of schools and community with respect to each of the following:

Please indicate all items that apply **(name of school(s): _____)**	Yes	Yes but more of this is needed	No	If no, is this something you want?
Partnerships to improve				
1. youth development programs				
a. home visitation programs	___	___	___	___
b. parent education	___	___	___	___
c. infant and toddler programs	___	___	___	___
d. child care/children's centers/preschool programs	___	___	___	___
e. community service programs	___	___	___	___
f. public health and safety programs	___	___	___	___
g. leadership development programs	___	___	___	___
h. other _____	___	___	___	___
2. youth and family recreation and enrichment opportunities				
a. art/music/cultural programs	___	___	___	___
b. parks' programs	___	___	___	___
c. youth clubs	___	___	___	___
d. scouts	___	___	___	___
e. youth sports leagues	___	___	___	___
f. community centers	___	___	___	___
g. library programs	___	___	___	___
h. faith community's activities	___	___	___	___
i. camping programs	___	___	___	___
j. other _____	___	___	___	___
3. physical health services				
a. school-based/linked clinics for primary care	___	___	___	___
b. immunization clinics	___	___	___	___
c. communicable disease control programs	___	___	___	___
d. CHDP/EPSDT programs	___	___	___	___
e. pro bono/volunteer programs	___	___	___	___
f. AIDS/HIV programs	___	___	___	___
g. asthma programs	___	___	___	___
h. pregnant and parenting minors programs	___	___	___	___
i. dental services	___	___	___	___
j. vision and hearing services	___	___	___	___
k. referral facilitation	___	___	___	___
l. emergency care	___	___	___	___
m. other_____	___	___	___	___

4. School-Community Partnerships to Improve the Neighborhood (cont.)

4. mental health services

a. school-based/linked clinics w/ mental health component	___	___	___	___
b. EPSDT mental health focus	___	___	___	___
c. pro bono/volunteer programs	___	___	___	___
d. referral facilitation	___	___	___	___
e. counseling	___	___	___	___
f. crisis hotlines	___	___	___	___
g. other_____	___	___	___	___

5. programs to address psychosocial problems

a. conflict mediation/resolution	___	___	___	___
b. substance abuse	___	___	___	___
c. community/school safe havens	___	___	___	___
d. safe passages	___	___	___	___
e. youth violence prevention	___	___	___	___
f. gang alternatives	___	___	___	___
g. pregnancy prevention and counseling	___	___	___	___
h. case management of programs for high risk youth	___	___	___	___
i. child abuse and domestic violence programs	___	___	___	___
j. other _____	___	___	___	___

6. basic living needs services

a. food	___	___	___	___
b. clothing	___	___	___	___
c. housing	___	___	___	___
d. transportation assistance	___	___	___	___
e. other _____	___	___	___	___

7. work/career programs

a. job mentoring	___	___	___	___
b. job programs and employment opportunities	___	___	___	___
c. other_____	___	___	___	___

8. social services

a. school-based/linked family resource centers	___	___	___	___
b. integrated services initiatives	___	___	___	___
c. budgeting/financial management counseling	___	___	___	___
d. family preservation and support	___	___	___	___
e. foster care school transition programs	___	___	___	___
f. case management	___	___	___	___
g. immigration and cultural transition assistance	___	___	___	___
h. language translation	___	___	___	___
i. other_____	___	___	___	___

9. crime and juvenile justice programs

a. camp returnee programs	___	___	___	___
b. children's court liaison	___	___	___	___
c. truancy mediation	___	___	___	___
d. juvenile diversion programs with school	___	___	___	___
e. probation services at school	___	___	___	___
f. police protection programs	___	___	___	___
g. other _____	___	___	___	___

4. School-Community Partnerships to Improve the Neighborhood (cont.)

10. legal assistance

a. legal aide programs	___	___	___	___
b. other _____	___	___	___	___

11. support for development of neighborhood organizations

a. neighborhood protective associations	___	___	___	___
b. emergency response planning and implementation	___	___	___	___
c. neighborhood coalitions and advocacy groups	___	___	___	___
d. volunteer services	___	___	___	___
e. welcoming clubs	___	___	___	___
f. social support networks	___	___	___	___
g. other_____	___	___	___	___

12. economic development programs

a. empowerment zones.	___	___	___	___
b. urban village programs	___	___	___	___
c. other_____	___	___	___	___

Other Comments about the current status of the partnerships:

Community Outreach for Involvement and Support

Some Examples of Work in this Area that have Evaluative Data

Mentoring and volunteer programs are increasingly popular. Available data support their value for both students and those from the community who offer such supports. Student outcomes include positive changes in attitudes, behavior, and academic performance (including improved school attendance, reduced substance abuse, less school failure, improved grades).

Also increasing in popularity are programs that outreach to the community to develop school-community collaborations. Indeed, After surveying a variety of school-community initiatives, Melaville and Blank (1998) conclude that the number of school-community initiatives is skyrocketing; the diversity across initiatives in terms of design, management, and funding arrangements is dizzying and daunting. Their analysis suggests (1) the initiatives are moving toward blended and integrated purposes and activity and (2) the activities are predominantly school-based and the education sector plays "a significant role in the creation and, particularly, management of these initiatives" and there is a clear trend "toward much greater community involvement in all aspects" of such initiatives -- especially in decision making at both the community and site levels. They also stress that "the ability of school-community initiatives to strengthen school functioning develops incrementally," with the first impact seen in improved school climate. With respect to sustainability, their findings support the need for stable leadership and long-term financing. Finally, they note

> *The still moving field of school-community initiatives is rich in its variations. But it is a variation born in state and local inventiveness, rather than reflective of irreconcilable differences or fundamental conflict. Even though communication among school-community initiatives is neither easy nor ongoing, the findings in this study suggest they are all moving toward an interlocking set of principles. An accent on development cuts across them all. These principles demonstrate the extent to which boundaries separating major approaches to school-community initiatives have blurred and been transformed. More importantly, they point to a strong sense of direction and shared purpose within the field.*

Many collaborations focus on comprehensive approaches to support and strengthen students, families, and neighborhoods. The complexity of the work is making program evaluation difficult to carry out. Based on her analysis of such programs, Schorr (1997) concludes that a synthesis is emerging that "rejects addressing poverty, welfare,employment, education, child development, housing, and crime one at a time. It endorses the idea that the multiple and interrelated problems . . . require multiple and interrelated solutions."

A reasonable inference from available data is that school-community collaborations can be successful and cost-effective over the long-run. They not only improve access to services, they seem to encourage schools to open their doors in ways that enhance recreational, enrichment, and remedial opportunities and family involvement. A few have encompassed concerns for economic development and have demonstrated the ability to increase job opportunities for young people. At the same time, where the primary emphasis of school-community collaborations has been on restructuring community programs and co-locating some services on school sites, one negative side effect is the emergence of a new form of fragmentation as community and school professionals engage in a form of parallel play at school sites.

The following pages provide examples of:

1. *Mentor/volunteer programs*
2. *School-community partnerships*
3. *Economic development*

1. Mentor / Volunteer Programs*

a. *Research Review of volunteering effects on the young volunteer:* Reviews some of the best researched volunteer service programs for adolescents and addresses three major questions: (1) What do existing data tell us about the effectiveness of community volunteer service programs in positively influencing the lives of the participants? (2) What do we know about why such programs work? (3) What are the most promising directions for future research and programming efforts to pursue? The review suggests that diverse, successful volunteer programs for adolescents, along with school-based support, are related to improvements in both the academic and social arenas. Specifically, volunteering relates to reduced rates of course failure, suspension from school, school dropout, improvement in reading grades, a reduction in teen pregnancy, and improved self-concept and attitudes toward society. The conditions under which the volunteering occurs, such as number of hours and the type of volunteer work, seem in some cases to be important to these outcomes, as does the age of the student volunteer.

For more information, see:
Moore, C. & Allen, J. (1996). The effects of volunteering on the young volunteer. *Journal of Primary Prevention, 17* (2), 231-258.

b. *Big Brothers / Big Sisters of America:* The Nation's oldest mentoring program, it provides screening and training to volunteer mentors and carefully matches the mentors with "little brothers" and "little sisters" in need of guidance. Public / Private Ventures (P/PV) performed an 18 month experimental evaluation of eight BB/BS mentoring programs that considered social activities, academic performance, attitudes and behaviors, relationships with family and friends, self-concept, and social and cultural enrichment. The study found that mentored youth were less likely to engage in drug or alcohol use, resort to violence, or skip school. In addition, mentored youth were more likely to improve their grades and their relationships with family and friends. In addition, effectiveness of BB/BS is also indicated by the evaluation conducted by Public / Private Ventures in 1995. This $2,000,000 evaluation of BB/BS suggests that compared to controls, participants of BB/BS were: 70% less likely to initiate drug use; one-third less likely to hit someone; skipped fewer classes and half as many days of school; felt more competent about doing schoolwork; showed modest gains in their grade point averages, with the strongest gains among the Little Sisters; and improved their relationships with both their parents and their peers.

For more information, see:
Grossman, J.B. & Garry, E.M. (1997). Mentoring -- *A Proven Delinquency Prevention Strategy*; U.S. Department of Justice - Office of Justice Program - Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention; http://www.ncjrs.org/txtfiles/164834.txt

Davis, N. (1999). *Resilience: Status of the research and research-based programs.* Substance Abuse and Mental Health Administration Center for Mental Health Services Division of Program Development, Special Populations & Projects Special Programs Development Branch. Phone: 301/443-2844.

Public/Private Ventures (1994). *Big Brothers / Big Sisters: A study of volunteer recruitment and screening.* Philadelphia: Public/Private Ventures.

c. *Juvenile Mentoring Program (JUMP):* Federal program administered by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention designed to reduce juvenile delinquency and gang participation, improve academic performance, and reduce school dropout rates. Brings together caring, responsible adults and at-risk young people in need of positive role models. A two-year evaluation suggests that strengthening the role of mentoring as a component of a youth program may pay handsome dividends in improved school performance and reduced anti-social behavior, including alcohol and other drug abuse. In fact, according to parents and teachers familiar with the program, 30% of the youth who participated in the program showed improvement in their school attendance, 30% showed academic improvement, 35% showed improvement in their general behavior, and 48% increased the frequency of appropriate interactions with peers.

For more information, see:
Grossman, J.B. & Garry, E.M. (1997). *Mentoring -- A Proven Delinquency Prevention Strategy*; U.S. Dept. of Justice, Office of Justice Program, http://www.ncjrs.org/txtfiles/164834.txt.

For program information, contact:
S. Bilchik, Administrator - Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention - 1998 Report to Congress.

d. *Volunteers in Maryland's Schools*: Community education programs sponsored by the Maryland State Department of Education were evaluated based on questionnaires completed by school principals and program coordinators on volunteer services to schools in Maryland. Results indicate that volunteer services were widely used throughout the school system in various ways, such as assisting teachers, providing support for administrative and clerical services, and tutoring students. School programs have been impacted positively by volunteer services, including an increase in resources for instructional programs, improvement in students' behavior, and more use of school facilities after regular school hours. Volunteer services were perceived as making a significant contribution to school programs.

For more information, see:
Michael, B. (1990). *Volunteers in Public Schools*. National Academy Press: Washington, DC.

Vassil, T.V., Harris, O.C. & Fandetti, D.V. (1988). The perception of public school administrators regarding community education programs sponsored by the Maryland State Department of Education. Baltimore, MD: Maryland State Department of Education.

e. *Volunteer Projects in San Francisco*

e-1 *Project Book Your Time:* This is a volunteer immigrant literacy project in which volunteers supplemented classroom activities by reading and listening to students. Some reading tutors were 5th grade students, others were adults. Test score data, as measure by the California Test of Basic Skills, showed that students in a school where the literacy project was implemented school wide (grades K-5) achieved greater gains in reading and language arts than students in a school in which only a few teachers participated. Both schools scored higher than control schools that did not have the program. Questionnaires showed positive reactions to the program by teachers and volunteers.

e-2 *Project Interconnections II:* This volunteer program is designed to increase high school students' oral proficiency in a foreign language by using volunteer college students in conversation. An independent evaluation of the program indicates that the high school students were more confident and fluent in the foreign language at the end of the program and the college students were more likely to enter a career of foreign-language teaching.

e-3 *Project Math in Action:* Math in Action is a three-year volunteer demonstration project where volunteer college students helped teachers implement cooperative learning and the use of manipulatives in mathematics. Improvements were seen in student problem-solving performance and attitudes toward mathematics.

e-4 *Project Think/Write:* Teachers and volunteers from businesses attend workshops taught by the Bay Area Writing Project. Business volunteers then go into classrooms to help improve critical thinking and writing skills of middle and high school students as preparation for future employment. Data found positive impacts on students, volunteers, and teachers.

For more information, see:
Michael, B. (1990). *Volunteers in Public Schools*. National Academy Press: Washington, DC.

Armstrong, P.M., Davis, P. & Northcutt, C. *Year end and final evaluation reports, Project years 1985-1986 and 1986-1987*. San Francisco School Volunteers, San Francisco Unified School District, San Francisco, California.

f. *Senior citizen volunteers in the schools:* A grandparents' program of senior citizen volunteers was designed to provide elementary school children access to caring, supportive senior citizens and to provide opportunities for older adults to engage in meaningful activities in a school setting. Results of a program evaluation support the value of the volunteer program for both children and adults.

For more information, see:
Michael, B. (1990). Volunteers in Public Schools. National Academy Press: Washington, DC.

Carney, J.M., Dobson, J.E. & Dobson, R.L. (1987). Using senior citizen volunteers in the schools. *Journal of Humanistic Education and Development, 25* (3), 136-143.

g. *Adopt-A-Grandparent Program*: Volunteer program in Miami, Florida that involves local senior citizens and Dade County Public School students. Evaluation of the 1985-1986 program year indicates that the program appeared to impact favorably on all participating students' self-concepts and at-risk students' attitudes toward the elderly. Some positive impact was noted in senior citizen participants, particularly with respects to their levels of depression, but these changes were not as consistently positive as were those noted for students.

For more information, see:
Michael, B. (1990). *Volunteers in Public Schools*. National Academy Press: Washington, DC.

Dade County Public Schools. (1987). *Evaluation of Adopt-A-Grandparent Program*. Miami, FL: Dade County Public Schools.

h. *Teen Line:* Teen-to-teen telephone counseling service that addresses the needs of troubled youth through peer counseling. Problems addressed include gang participation, use of weapons, youth arrests, AIDS, teen pregnancy, teen suicide, among others. Teen Line provides outreach, volunteer services, training programs, and statistics on service utilization. Between 1981 and 1982, the hot line serviced over 127,000 calls. In 1991 and 1992 alone, over 33,000 calls were answered. When compared to a matched, non-volunteer peer group, Teen Line volunteers' level of social concern and empathy was significantly higher.

For more information, see:
Leader, E. (1996). Teen Line: A listening post for troubled youth. IN: *Group therapy with children and adolescents*. 311-328. Paul Kymissis & David Halperin (Eds.) American Psychiatric Press, Inc.: Washington DC.

i. *Teen Outreach Program (TOP):* A school-based program designed for young people between the ages of 12-17 and is aimed at fostering positive youth development. In a non-threatening environment under the guidance of a caring adult, young people thrive and develop positive self-images, learn valuable life skills, and establish future goals. The Teen Outreach approach has proven to be highly effective for preventing teen pregnancy and helping young people make consistent progress in school. In a recent ten-year evaluation of the program conducted by Philliber Research Associates, TOP students, when compared with non-TOP students in a comparison sample, demonstrate: 8% lower rate of course failure; 18% lower rate of suspension; 33% lower rate of pregnancy; and 60% lower school dropout rate.

For more information, see:
Philliber, S. & Allen, J. (1992). Life options and community service: Teen Outreach program. IN: *Preventing adolescent pregnancy: Model programs and evaluations*. Brent C. Miller & Josefina J. Card (Eds.) 139-155. Sage Publications, Inc.: Newbury Park, CA.

For program information, contact:
Cornerstone Consulting Group, P.O. Box 710082, Houston, Texas 77271-0082, (215) 572-9463.

j. *DAYS La Familia Community Drug and Alcohol Prevention Programs:* This is a community-based alcohol, tobacco, and other drug (ATOD) prevention program that targets Hispanic families with high-risk youth from 6 to 11 years old. The program attempts to reduce identified risk factors while building on culturally relevant protective factors. During its first year, the program enrolled 219 youths and their families using existing community network and aggressive outreach. The program resulted in a 92% retention rate and over 80% attendance per session. As a result of the program, families became more willing to discuss ATOD issues openly and made positive steps toward empowerment.

For more information, see:
Hernandez, L. & Lucero, E. (1996). DAYS La Familia community Drug and Alcohol Prevention Program: Family centered model for working with inner-city Hispanic families. *Journal of Primary Prevention, 16* (3), 255-272.

2. School-Community Partnerships

a. *Alliance School Initiative*: This is a community-based constituency in Texas aimed at working to strengthen schools by restructuring relationships among school and community stake holders. Partners include the Industrial Areas Foundation (IAF), the Texas Interfaith Education Fund, the Texas Education Agency, school districts, school staff, parents, and community leaders. School-community teams have developed neighborhood efforts to counter gang violence and ease racial tensions; introduced tutorial and scholarship opportunities; developed after-school and extended-day programs; and made substantive changes in the curriculum, scheduling, and assessment methods.

For more information, see:
Melaville, A. & Blank, M. (1998). *Learning together: The Developing Field of School-Community Initiatives.* Washington, DC: Institute for Educational Leadership & National Center for Community Education.

b. *Avance:* A community-based early childhood program that simultaneously focuses on two generations in an effort to motivate young children from low-income families to attend school. The program began in San Antonio in 1973 and spread to over 50 sites. "Through weekly home visits, parenting workshops, and family support centers with on-site nurseries and top-notch early childhood programs, parents who have felt overwhelmed, depressed, and powerless gain control of their lives and radically change their own and their children's prospects." The program helps parents complete their informal education, improve their English, and sometimes control their anger. Avance also helps train and place parents in jobs. Avance has won national acclaim not only for passing literacy from parent to child, but also for helping to reduce child abuse, mental health problems, and juvenile crime. In a population that had dropout rates of 70, 80, and 90%, long-term follow-up studies show that 90% of Avance children graduate from high school and half go on to college.

For more information, see:
Shames, S. (1997). *Pursuing the dream: What helps children and their families succeed.* Chicago: Coalition.

c. *Be A Star:* A community-based after school program that began in 1992 in an area of St. Louis where gang activity, child abuse and neglect are high, large numbers of families receive AFDC, and the high school dropout is 52%. Evaluations of the 1994-95 program year indicate that compared to controls, those children (5 to 12-years old) who participated in the program showed higher levels in the following areas: family bonding, prosocial behavior, self-concept, self-control, decision-making, emotional awareness, assertiveness, confidence, cooperation, negative attitudes about drugs and alcohol, self-efficacy, African-American culture, and school bonding. (All effects were measured by the Revised Individual Protective Factors Index - RPFI).

For more information, see:
Davis, N. (1999). *Resilience: Status of the research and research-based programs.* Substance Abuse and Mental Health Administration Center for Mental Health Services Division of Program Development, Special Populations & Projects Special Programs Development Branch. Phone: 301/443-2844.

d. *The Jackson School:* A community-based, temporary placement behavior-modification alternative school serving 6th through 8th grades (ages 10-15 years). The school is designed to serve students whose disruptive behavior problems prevent them from functioning successfully in a regular classroom..A case study was done as part of a larger state-wide evaluation of alternative schools. The evaluation consisted of site visits, school tours, classroom observations, and interviews. The hope was to accumulate information from teachers, students, administrators, counselors, parents, and community members. Student and teacher perspectives of effectiveness were generally satisfactory. For example, The Jackson School ensures small classes; maintains students' individual attention; supports families in times of crisis (whereas alternative schools do not); and conceptualizes the student as part of a larger socio-economic system, thereby helping the student to learn to negotiate with a world of complex power dynamics.

For more information, see:
Bauman, A. (1998). Finding experts in unexpected places: Learning from those who have failed. *High School Journal, 81* (4), 258-267.

e. *Merritt Elementary Extended School:* A school-based project was established to create a foundation for educational progress and student success. It is based on adult collaboration and on a nurturing and developmentally sound approach to student learning. The evolution of Merritt into a community of caring and involved people is believed to have enabled it to maximize the potential of both its students and staff. The school adopts the approach of developing the whole child as well as the stakeholders.

For more information, see:
Woodruff, D., Shannon, N.& Efimba, M. (1998). Collaborating for success: Merritt elementary extended school. *Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk*, (1), 11-22.

f. *Beacon Schools (N.Y.):* These schools exemplify the move toward full-service schools and community-building. They target neighborhoods in which the first step in community building is to transform schools into community centers available to adults 365 days of the year. The program has expanded to 37 sites in New York, and initiatives are underway to pursue similar models in Chicago, Little Rock, Oakland, and San Francisco. Evaluative data are just beginning to emerge. Schorr (1997) notes that at one site, P.S. 194, "Academic performance at the school has improved dramatically, rising from 580th out of 620 city elementary schools in reading achievement in 1991 to 319th three years later. Attendance also improved, and police report fewer felony arrests among neighborhood youth." These results are attributed to the combination of school reforms, the Beacon's project efforts, and other city-wide efforts to address problems.

For more information, see:
Cahill, M., Perry, J., Wright, M. & Rice, A. (1993). *A documentation report of the New York Beacons initiative.* New York: Youth Development Institute.

g. *Young & Healthy:* A school-based health service program that is tightly linked to the community. It was developed by the Pasadena Unified School District and is comprised of volunteer doctors who are willing to provide services free of charge to uninsured children. During the first year of the program, only 600 appointments were made. By the second year, 1200 appointments were made and it was expanded to the entire school district. By its fifth year, Young & Healthy made 4800 appointments in one year and now has over 400 doctors on their referral list.

For program information, contact:
Pasadena Unified School District; Pasadena, CA.

3. Economic Development

a. *Job Opportunities and Basic Skills (JOBS):* A program that encourages recipients to seek employment through improved education and training. Recipients are those who receive Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC). In a study of 158 students who had at/tended college in New York before the introduction of the JOBS program showed that almost 80% had been employed since graduation, and of these, almost 50% were earning over $20,000 per annum. In addition, while 62% were receiving AFDC the year before entering college, only 17% were receiving it after graduation. Related studies conducted in five other states after introduction of the JOBS program revealed similar findings, with employment rates of 66-91% and slightly higher rates for those attending four-year colleges.

For more information, see:
Kates, E. (1996). Educational pathways out of poverty: Responding to the realities of women's lives. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 66 (4), 548-556.

Vosler, N.R. & Ozawa, M.N. (1992). A multilevel social systems practice model for working with AFDC JOBS program clients. *The Journal of Contemporary Human Services*, 18, 3-13.

b. *Pacoima Urban Village*: A densely populated section of Pacoima, CA that includes over half of its population of over 60,000. The village is the focus of a socio-economic development strategy to help the community become financially independent and self-sufficient. There are a number of programs that the village employs to fulfill its vision. Such programs help villagers: prepare to be competitive in the workforce; find jobs (the Job Connection program); and develop strong social and community interconnections. These programs also improve the safety and appearance of each block within the village; help businesses within the village to expand and become more financially lucrative; and help new businesses develop. The village's Job Connection program, designed to match those looking for jobs with the job needs of employers, has been instrumental in helping over 130 villagers either find jobs or help them find the jobs themselves. The Job Connection program has registered over 800 villagers, and has become a focal point for villagers looking for ways to work together and help each other.

For more information, contact:
Pacoima Urban Village, 13330 Vaughn St., Pacoima, CA 91340, (818) 834-1498, Fax: (818) 834-1492.

c. *Job Corps*: The nation's largest and most comprehensive residential education and job training program for at-risk youth, ages 16 through 24. Since 1964, the program has provided more than 1.7 million disadvantaged young people with the integrated academic, vocational, and social skills training they need to gain independence and get quality, long-term jobs or further their education. Job Corps is a public-private partnership administered by the U.S. Department of Labor. Job Corps works for the disadvantaged youth who attend the program, the communities where Job Corps centers are located, and the employers who hire Job Corps students. It also works for other individuals—like educators and school and peer counselors who may want to refer a young person to Job Corps. More than 75% of those who enroll in Job Corps become employed, obtain further training, or join the military. For young people who come from economically disadvantaged backgrounds, are high school dropouts, or read at an elementary school level, Job Corps offers an opportunity to become productive, taxpaying members of society. The longer a Job Corps student stays in the program to complete training, the greater the chance he or she has at getting a better job and a higher wage.

For more information, contact:
Job Corps: 1-800-733-JOBS (1-800-733-5627), or visit their website at www.jobcorps.org.

(d) *Annie E. Casey Foundation's Rebuilding Communities Initiative (RCI):* As described by the Foundation, "This, a seven-year initiative of the Annie E. Casey Foundation, is designed to provide the supports needed to help transform troubled economically disenfranchised neighborhoods into safe, supportive, and productive environments for children, youth, and their families. The Foundation works in partnership with community-based organizations on comprehensive strategies to reverse social isolation and disinvestment in low-income neighborhoods. The RCI objectives are: (1) Maximizing the capacity and impact of neighborhood resources and institutions; (2) Establishing effective neighborhood-based human service delivery systems for children, youth and families; (3) Developing capable and effective neighborhood collaboratives to which governance authority could gradually be devolved; (4) Improving availability of affordable housing and improving the social and physical infrastructure of the neighborhoods; and (5) Increasing public and private capital investments in the neighborhoods.

Five communities were funded in 1994 as RCI sites. The lead organization for the rebuilding effort in each of the communities is the Foundation's grantee. They are:

- The Dudley Street Neighborhood Initiative (Boston, MA) for the Dudley Street Neighborhood in Roxbury, Boston.
- Germantown Settlement (Philadelphia, PA) for the Wister, Southwest Germantown, and Chew-Chelten neighborhoods in Germantown, Philadelphia.
- Marshall Heights Community Development Organization (Washington, D.C.) for neighborhoods in Ward 7 in Washington, D.C.
- NEWSED Community Development Corporation (Denver, CO) for the La Alma/Lincoln Park neighborhood in West Denver.
- Warren/Conner Development Coalition (Detroit, MI) for neighborhoods in the Eastside of Detroit.

Participating RCI communities are eligible for grants for three phases of the initiative. The first phase of RCI was a planning phase. The result of the twenty-one month planning process was a neighborhood consensus on a community building plan, and a framework for implementing agreed upon reforms, programs, and development projects over the course of the initiative. The second, and current, phase of the initiative is the three-year capacity building phase. The capacity building phase is intended to enable neighborhood leaders, institutions, and residents to: develop the skills and experience; build the partnerships; develop and refine the program interventions; and attract the investments needed to actualize the community transformation that they envision. The final three-year phase of the initiative will be the demonstration phase. Those organizations that are funded for this phase will refine and demonstrate exemplary neighborhood capacity in one or more of the RCI critical elements contained in their community building plans.

In all five of the local communities, our grantee has succeeded in establishing an environment where collaboration and integrated approaches to family-centered community revitalization are understood and highly valued by residents, other community organizations, local government, and others involved in the initiative. Each of the sites has completed a community-driven comprehensive community building plan and is making varying degrees of progress to develop the capacity to implement the plans. We have completed the first year of the three-year capacity building phase. A number of observations may be useful to illustrate the current progress and impact of the initiative, as well as provide insights about the nature of the community change process. At each site, a local neighborhood governance collaborative has been fully established and has given greater cohesion and an increased sense of comprehensiveness to the work of local initiatives. Each grantee has been able to establish forward moving momentum around the initiative and, as a result, is totally committed to successfully implementing the community building plan. The five communities have used this phase of the initiative to begin building and demonstrating capacity to advance their community building plans through organizational development, community research, leadership development, partnership building, and planning for improved services and development projects. They have engaged a broad cross-section of community stakeholders in these activities, thereby establishing shared ownership and a reservoir of good will. All of the lead organizations are planning for neighborhood-based human services

delivery systems with full involvement of neighborhood residents, and particularly those residents who depend on the services as vital supports to reconnect with jobs and other forms of productive community life. The efforts of grantees at each site are leading to increased physical and social infrastructure improvements. In some instances, construction of new housing units are expanding the overall inventory of affordable housing. In other instances, joint efforts are underway with local government to restore and retain affordable units for lower income families through extensive rehabilitation of the existing stock. Additional resources are also being brought into the neighborhood to help young families purchase their first home. In all of the communities, social networks are being strengthened through the intensive focus on new roles in community planning for neighborhood associations, religious, youth and civic groups. The communities have been able to attract capital investments to enhance the neighborhood revitalization. In some instances, new capital investments were made in the form of increased private lending for home buying and small business development, which will, in turn, create new job opportunities for residents. At one site, a new intermediary is being created to seek out new forms of investment and additional opportunities for strengthening the economics of the neighborhoods. Linkages with state and local governments to position the community for a role in system reforms must continue to be strengthened in all five communities. Building and strengthening relationships and capacities to take full advantage of opportunities to receive devolved functions continues to be a top priority." (February 17, 1999) http://www.aecf.org/initiatives/rci/rci3.htm

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*The material included in this section is excerpted from a Center Technical Assistance Sampler entitled: *A Sampling of Outcome Findings from Interventions Relevant to Addressing Barriers to Learning.* Given the pressure to compile outcome findings relevant to addressing barriers to student learning, as a first step we simply have gathered and tabulated information from secondary sources (e.g., reviews, reports). Thus, unlike published literature reviews and meta analyses, we have not yet eliminated evaluations that were conducted in methodologically unsound ways. We will do so when we have time to track down original sources, and future drafts of this document will address the problem as well as including other facets of intervention related to this area. In this respect, we would appreciate any information readers can send us about well-designed evaluations of interventions that should be included and about any of the cited work that should be excluded.

Using Volunteers Effectively

Volunteers can be especially helpful working under the direction of the classroom teacher to establish a supportive relationship with students who are having trouble adjusting to school.

Volunteers may help students on a one to one basis or in small groups. Group interactions are especially important in enhancing a student's cooperative interactions with peers. One to one work is often needed to develop a positive relationship with a particularly aggressive or withdrawn student and in fostering successful task completion with a student easily distracted by peers.

Volunteers can help enhance a student's motivation and skills and, at the very least, can help counter negative effects that arise when a student has difficulty adjusting to school.

The majority of people who seek out the opportunity to volunteer at school are ready, willing, and able to get into the classroom and interact well with students. These individuals are *naturals.*

All they need is a clear orientation about what is expected, as well as ongoing supervision designed to help them learn to be increasingly effective in working collaboratively with teachers and dealing with problems.

There are some volunteers who are not naturals. Many of these individuals can learn rapidly and be extremely helpful with just a bit of investment of time and effort. The following are some guidelines that may help to avoid losing or prematurely giving up on a potentially valuable volunteer resource.

1. ***Take some time to appreciate what a volunteer can do.***
   In some cases, it takes a while to see the positive qualities a volunteer can bring to the classroom. Try to work with a volunteer for a few weeks before deciding what (s)he is or isn't able to do.

2. ***Watch for the need to re-clarify points made during the initial orientation.***
   Volunteers have a lot they are trying to learn and remember when they first start. If they are not following-through on points made during the initial orientation, it may be that they didn't, assimilate the -information.

3. ***Initially, some volunteers will need to spend more time observing than working with students.***
   It usually does not take long before most of them will be comfortable with the students and class routines.

4. ***Initially, some volunteers (like some students) need a little more support and direction.***
   At first, they may need to be told specifically what to do during the class. After they have a little experience and with a little encouragement, they can be expected to show greater initiative.

Using volunteers effectively (cont.)

5. ***All volunteers need to know the teacher's plan for helping a particular student and to feel they can play a positive role in carrying out that plan. It is important for them to feel they are part of the teaching team.***
Volunteers who do not understand a teacher's plans tend to get confused and upset, particularly when the teacher must deal with the misbehavior of a student the volunteer is helping. Clarifying the plan and even including a volunteer in planning helps them to feel they are working collaboratively with the teacher.

6. ***Volunteers need a maximum of positive feedback and a minimum of evaluative criticism.***
Although they may not be clear about what specifically they are doing wrong, most volunteers are aware that they are not well-trained to work with students. Thus, they tend to interpret the lack of positive feedback from the teacher as an indication that they are not doing very well and often interpret relatively mild negative feedback as severe criticism. Volunteers respond well to daily appreciations; in place of critiques, what seems to work best are comments from the teacher that recognize how hard it is for even trained professionals to deal with some problems -along with suggestions about what to try next.

Despite the best of intentions on everyone's part, some volunteers do not work well with students who are having trouble adjusting to school. If a volunteer continues to demonstrate an inability to work appropriately with such students, (s)he may be willing to help with other students (e.g., those who are doing well at school) or with tasks that do not involve interacting with students (e.g., preparing and organizing materials).

Obviously, if a volunteer is completely inept, there is little point in keeping him or her on, and steps should be taken to kindly redirect their good intentions.

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For more on using volunteers effectively, see the following Center packet:

Volunteers to Help Teachers and School Address Barriers to Learning

This packet is available on our website at: http://smhp.psych.ucla.edu

Also on our website, a Quick Find on "Volunteers in School,"
with our most recent response for technical assistance on this issue.

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Screening and Placement

Screening. Brief interviews can be conducted to explain the program and to determine whether the volunteer understands and is willing to commit him or herself to the time and goals of the endeavor. Information about previous experience and career interests also help to identify the best applicants. (See *Resource Aids* section for a sample Volunteer Information Sheet.)

Placement: If more than one teacher or staff member is participating in the program, placement involves making judgments about how well a volunteer's interests and experiences match with the specifics of the situation (e.g., a particular classroom teacher and population).

Identifying Students who Might Benefit from Volunteer Assistance

Extensive assessment is not necessary to identify a group of students who are having trouble adjusting to school, as every classroom teacher has several students whom (s)he is greatly concerned about.

To be certain that some students who are having adjustment problems (e.g., the quiet ones) are not ignored, it is well to begin by listing a range of students who are of concern and then narrow the list down to, three who are of greatest concern.

For example,

1. *Start by listing up to three students who might fit into each of the following five categories (if no student fits under a particular category, leave it blank):*

   aggressive:_____

   shy: _____

   underachieving: _____

   overactive: _____

   unmotivated:_____

2. *List any other students who are of concern but do notf all into the above categories:*

3. *Of the students listed above, circle the three who are of greatest concern at this time.*

4. *This process of identifying three students can be repeated periodically* (e.g., *every 2 months). This will ensure that volunteers spend time with students in greatest need.*

Some Guidelines for Volunteers

Beginning your Relationship

The following are a few suggested activities as a guide for beginning your relationship with a student. (The examples are for elementary age, but you should be able to extrapolate from them.)

> Positive adult/student relationships in the school setting are very important to the learning and well-being of students. They help students learn that they can succeed in school, that it is a safe and happy place, and that they are understood and valued just as they are. Only when students feel good about themselves, know that the adults care about them, and that they will not be hurt or criticized, can they be free to try their best.

Your objective in working with students is to give them your warmth and understanding, your confidence in them and your complete attention and concern. What you do, your techniques, are less important than your regard for each child. Share your plans with the teacher before you begin.

GET ACQUAINTED ACTIVITIES

These activities are designed to initiate the small group experience for students to enable you to observe their behavior in various activities. In this way, you will gain further knowledge about each student and his or her style of working and playing. Introductory activities with students frequently require that you assume the more active role and allow them to respond naturally and to take their time in relating. The activities are presented as suggestions and depending upon the availability of materials, numerous similar activities could be substituted.

1. Read or tell a story which would allow for some participation by the students or would be a kick-off for conversation.

2. Suggest to the students that they draw a picture of themselves or others and tell a story about the picture.

3. Develop conversation among the students, helping each tell his or her name, names of brothers and sisters, about pets, or about what he or she likes most to do. The activity is designed to build an identity for each child in the eyes of the other students as well as in his or her own eyes. Encourage the students to listen to each other and ask questions.

PLANNING ACTIVITIES FOR INDIVIDUAL NEEDS

The Shy Child: Start with manual activities which don't require the child to talk, such as clay modeling, construction blocks, jig-saw puzzles, scissor work, school materials already mastered. Outdoor play could he solo work with play equipment with which the child feels able to cope. These activities are designed for "loosening up" the fearful child. Later activities will be directed toward increasing the child's participation with others. (This will be a very gradual process). Such activities as puppets, acting out stories in pantomime, imitating animal sounds, role playing child's own experience or observations, such as going to the store, going on a field trip, a visit with grandmother, etc.

The Very Active Child: Start with large muscle activities such as marching, skipping to music, foot races, use of playground equipment, action games. Indoor activities which require physical movement, such as making flannel board stories or acting out stories permit the active child to have energy release. Subsequent activities should be directed to moving the child toward more organized activities and increased verbal expressions, such as performance blocks, mural painting, puppetry, and role playing.

The Angry Child: Start with activities that provide immediate personal gratification, such as easily accomplished tasks, solo activities like painting, crafts, tether ball. Give the child immediate recognition of accomplishments, including displaying work for others to admire. Since this child has difficulty with close interactions with others, plan activities which are noncompetitive, such as helping a younger child accomplish a task. Move toward activities which require sharing and taking turns. Support these children in staying with the activity even when it is frustrating. You will probably need to take a very active part in doing the activity to help sustain effort.

The Child Who Is Experiencing Difficulty Learning English: Start with activities which require only simple instruction. Give instructions in English. Be alert to the child who does not understand the instructions. Help the children indicate to you when they don't understand. Then repeat the instructions in another way and use the child's first language when possible. As the children try to gain mastery of English it is important that they feel comfortable in asking for further information when they do not understand.

Working Against Producing Dependency

Principle: The goal of all helping is to enable the individual to increase their sense of autonomy and independence (e.g., personal control and direction). This is best accomplished when students work for internal reasons and when feedback is provided in the form of information and confirmation rather than rewards, praise or punishment.

Problem: When a helping relationship is developed with a student, s/he may come to over rely on the helper, may only work when the helper is available, or may only work in order to please the helper.

Process: The necessary ingredients in minimizing dependency are (a) to maintain the student's focus on the internal reasons s/he has for working on the tasks at hand and (b) to use encouragement and avoid overuse of external reinforcers (including social reinforcement in the form of praise).

1. With respect to minimizing dependency, five things you can do are:

2. Provide only the degree of support and direction a student needs in order to work effectively
3. Encourage rather than praise

4. Help the student identify personal reasons for what they are doing

5. Help the student to self-evaluate products and progress with reference to personal reasons for what they are doing (e.g., to tune in to his or her own sense of accomplishment and satisfaction rather than being overly concerned about whether you are pleased with the effort)

6. Help the student identify when it is appropriate to seek support and direction and a wide range of ways to do so when it is appropriate

Evaluating the Program: Feedback and Appreciation

There are basically two reasons for evaluating the volunteer program:

1. To decide whether having volunteers is effective

and if so,

2. To determine whether the volunteers are satisfied with their experience (and therefore likely to continue volunteering and/or recommend that others do so).

The intent here is not to propose a comprehensive evaluation of these matters. Rather, the idea is to encourage gathering some data that can help you determine if the program is going in the right direction and, if not, what to do about it.

ARE VOLUNTEERS EFFECTIVE?

Any teacher who continues to use volunteers does so because (s)he finds them helpful. In one sense, that's all the evaluation that is necessary to justify continued use of volunteers (assuming that the volunteer program is inexpensive to run).

However, because volunteers are helping students who are having trouble adjusting to school, it is helpful to have at least some data on the progress of the students identified as needing help.

Periodic ratings of student progress can be provided independently by volunteers and the classroom teacher. If feasible, similar ratings might be made by parents and even by the students themselves.

ARE VOLUNTEERS SATISFIED?

Give volunteers regular opportunities to formally rate their level of satisfaction.

In addition, it is well to get an indication of

1. *What aspects of the experience have been most positive,*
2. *What problems and concerns have arisen, and*
3. *What recommendations they have for improving the volunteer experience.*

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