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KAMEHAMEHA SCHOOLS

Comprehensive/ Complementary Education Systems

A Literature Review

Introduction

Tyack and Cuban (1995) write that “the major aim of reform is to improve learning, generously construed as rich intellectual, civic, and social development, not simply as impressive test scores” (p. 136). Current reform efforts under the Obama Administration attempt to capture this definition through the funding of Promise Neighborhoods—schools modeled after Harlem Children’s Zones. These initiatives approach the education of children holistically through a community-based learning model, getting away from test scores emphasized by No Child Left Behind. Instead, these reforms focus on school-community partnerships forged to improve student achievement and development from “birth through college” (Promise Neighborhood Institute, 2010, para. 1).

The purpose of this literature review is to explore the frameworks, models, and outcomes of systems that reflect the comprehensive and complementary approach touted by current educational reform efforts. This review begins with an exploration of complementary educational systems, which are often referred to as “complementary learning.” Common to these systems is the inclusion of families and communities in approaching student development. In the ultimate form of this collaboration, students’ cultural and linguistic backgrounds are incorporated into their learning, thus introducing related culture-based education models. The next section of the literature review describes exemplary program models. Examples from the research that demonstrate best practices in school-community and school-family partnerships are provided. Next, a description of how these models are approaching socio-economic barriers is offered. Place-based and culture-based models are then detailed; in particular, appropriate methods for educating indigenous youth are included. The literature review concludes with how the impact of the models is currently being measured and a description of guiding principles, which can be gleaned from the research.

Much of the research is still based on case studies and is lacking in empirical studies. However, what can be drawn from the literature is that these approaches to education have been effective at both increasing student learning and growth while improving families and local communities.

Definitions, Overview & Indicators of Need

This section of the literature review provides a foundation for discussing complementary learning systems. The literature on complementary education reveals that there is a diverse array of terms used to describe models that fall under the umbrella of “complementary learning.” Therefore, a description of the various terms will be outlined in this section. An explanation of the commonalities and differences of existing models will be described through the use of various examples.

Definitions

What all of the systems described in this review have in common is that they take a complex, holistic approach to student success which is accomplished through collaborative efforts. The Harvard Family Research Project (2009) defines complementary learning as “the idea that a systemic approach—which intentionally integrates both school and nonschool supports—can better ensure that all children have the skills they need to succeed” (p. 1). The term “comprehensive” is often used in the description of complementary learning systems as they approach students’ development and subsequent academic achievement through offering programs and services beyond academics. For example, The Harvard Family Research Project (2009) writes that “complementary learning is a comprehensive strategy for addressing all of these needs and ensuring success for all children and youth” (p. 1). This comprehensive approach is one of the common factors of the systems described in this review. Furthermore, while there are many names given to systems that approach student growth and development in this way, it seems that all require some level of collaboration to meet student needs. These systems incorporate “increasingly sophisticated developmental-ecological models of psychosocial adjustment” (McMahon, Ward, Pruett, Davidson, & Griffith, 2000, 69). This complex approach is captured in the ecological model described by Lohrmann (2010).

Ecological Model

From an ecological standpoint, neighborhoods and communities can have both positive and negative effects, depending on their characters and capacity to function in supportive, reciprocal and collaborative fashions that will lower a young person’s risk. Intra-agency collaboratives embrace the belief that involving community stakeholders, such as families, residents, and institutions in the support of youth, can break cycles of poverty. As with Lohrmann’s (2010) ecological model of school health programs, success of complementary learning systems relies on partnerships between the community, families, and schools. The extent of these partnerships may vary, but they are recognized in the current models discussed in this review. Popkin, Acs, and Smith (2009) write, “Our view of how neighborhoods influence and interact with other factors to influence youth draws on Bronfenbrenner’s (1979, 1989) ecological systems theory of human development” (p. 3). Furthermore, they write that improving a child’s community will lead to higher levels of achievement for a multitude of reasons (Popkin et al., 2009). Popkin et al. (2009) state that the literature shows that this holistic approach to educating children benefits neighborhoods through improving their safety and quality, provides greater “resources for youth and families” (p. 3), allows for student friendships “with less deviant peer groups” (p. 3), and enhances “parental well-being and behavior that promote positive family functioning” (p. 3).

While Lohrmann (2010) focuses specifically on school health programs, he suggests an ecological model for viewing coordinated efforts between schools, parents, and the community. Existing social cognitive and health education models emphasize the importance of “environmental factors” in influencing the behavior of children and adolescents (Lohrmann, 2010, p. 3-4). Lohrmann’s proposed Coordinated School Health Program Ecological Model incorporates previous models and theories, especially the areas that emphasize “the layers of

influence from ecological systems theory” (p. 5). Lohrmann (2010) describes six areas of importance in the ecological model: the need for classroom learning (to gain “knowledge and skills”); school as “immediate environment”; “family and neighborhood [as] additional environments”; the community as a resource; “popular culture” as the source of “overarching values, customs, and laws”; and, the necessity for healthy behavior to be reflected in the school, family, and community to truly be effective (pp. 5-6). The concepts of Lohrmann’s (2010) model pervade the complementary learning systems in the literature. The ecological approach serves a solid foundation for the coordinated efforts, which attempt to improve the environmental factors that can hinder student achievement.¹

Furthermore, the ecological model of complementary learning systems often responds to socio-economic indicators of need. This is most notably documented in the cases of programs that serve inner-city/urban communities. Inner-city/urban schools located in high poverty communities often lack resources to meet the educational needs of the students they serve. Such school systems are challenged to provide learning environments that meet the needs of a diverse range of aptitudes and learning disabilities, maintain professional development opportunities and support services for staff, and, in general, mitigate the negative impacts of high community poverty, high caregiver unemployment, low maternal education levels, and relatively high numbers of non-English speaking students. These school systems are also confronted with higher than average levels of juvenile incarceration, indicative of the overwhelming trend within the United States to criminalize and jail troubled youth of color rather than support them through remediation and education (Taylor & McGlynn 2009, 19). High student transience, teacher turnover, and dropout rates characterize the problems of schools in districts located in communities challenged by poverty and social exclusion/isolation (Anderson-Butcher et al., 2010, p. 160).

Complementary Systems: A Broad Overview

While prominent examples of complementary systems will be described more fully in a subsequent section of this literature review, a broad overview of the models that are considered complementary learning systems will now be discussed. One of the most commonly cited terms in the complementary learning literature is “community schools.” The term is synonymously used with extended learning time (ELT) (Butler, 2010), extended schools (Muijs, 2007), full-service schools (McMahon, 2000; Dryfoos, 2005; Muijs, 2007), and wraparound schools (Alberta Education, 2008), among others. The literature agrees that community schools utilize school facilities to offer comprehensive services to students and community members.

School systems have come to realize that they cannot address the social problems of millions of children alone and have turned to the forging of community partnerships to deliver services to children (McMahon et al, 2000). Community schools operate under the assumption that the whole child must be cared for to positively affect student learning and success. They also recognize the benefits of a learning system that facilitates redundancy in key supports, which is vital for student success (Weiss et al., 2009). This is particularly the case for underprivileged students whose lives are more likely to be adversely affected by poverty and other socio-economic conditions (Muijs, 2007). By working closely with other agencies that offer childcare, social services, adult education and health services, community schools build a network of supports for students that, by extension, address the welfare of the community in which they operate. The vision for community schools is to integrate programs such as health care, mental health services, parent education or afterschool programs into the school-wide change process—to internally restructure school-linked services to create a seamless institution (Dryfoos, 1994 in Abrahms & Gibbs, 2010; Coalition for Community Schools, 2010).

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Please see the works cited section for additional citations for D. K. Lohrmann.

Community-based learning also responds to the limits of traditional teaching paradigms and methods that focus on mandates of conventional accountability, standardized test scores, and lesson plans which offer artificial simulations and limited contextual immersion (Yamauchi & Purcell, 2009; Cole, 2010). Community-based education has been correlated with increases in student attendance, graduation rates, parent participation, and community unity. Researchers also argue that community-based education encourages students' civic participation by increasing their motivation to be engaged in their communities (Cole, 2010). Youth engagement in their communities has also been linked to lower rates of delinquency. A study by Windome, Sieving, Harpin, and Hearst (2008) demonstrated that "students with lower levels of...neighborhood connection were more likely to report violent behaviors in the past year" (p. 482). In particular, statistically significant findings demonstrated that students with higher levels of "intention to contribute to their neighborhoods" (Windome et al., 2008, p. 482) had less violent behaviors than their peers.

Community-based education as a means of improving student learning derives from research that suggests learning is enhanced when new material is tied to what students already know (Yamauchi & Purcell, 2009, p. 172). In other words, community-based education makes learning more meaningful and relevant to students by situating it within local and familiar issues, contexts and challenges: "By centering education in local civic issues, history, biology, economic, literature, and so forth, learners will be guided to imagine the world as intradependent places, and to develop a richer sense of citizenship and civic action" (Brooke, 2003, cited in Cole, 2010, p. 15). Community schools, therefore, work against "the isolation of schooling discourses and practices from the living world...It aims to enlist teachers and students in the firsthand experiences of local life and in the political process of understanding and shaping what happens there" (Gruenewald, 2003 cited in Yamauchi & Purcell, 2009, p. 171). It envisions an educational experience in which young people perform tasks and form relationships that give their lives purpose and meaning (Boethel, 2000, p. 10).

Origins

Dryfoos (1995, 2003, 2005) argues that while the term "full-service school" first emerged in 1991 with the passage of a law in Florida that pushed the increase of health services in schools, the concept emerged at the end of the 19th Century as a reaction to "urbanization and immigration" (p. 3). McMahon et al. (2000) describe full-service community schools as the current-day form of over a century's worth of evolving community-school collaborations. These collaborations began at the turn of the 20th century and started with the inclusion of school nurses and social workers. They write that the modern-day full service schools came about due to "renewed concern about social problems affecting learning and...intense political pressure to reorganize school, health care, and social service systems" (McMahon et al., 2000, p. 68).

McMahon et al. (2000) also trace the origin of the term "full-service school" to 1991 in Florida: "...the Florida legislature provided funding to support a system of interagency collaborative with mandates to make a comprehensive package of human services available in school buildings" (p. 69). McMahon et al. (2000) describe the "full-service school movement" which "represent[s] an effort to make human service system partners in the educational process, while simultaneously making school systems partners in the delivery of human services" (p. 66).

Modern-Day Community Schools

Dryfoos (2005) defines modern-day full-service community schools as "those that have been intentionally transformed into neighborhood hubs and that are open all the time to children and their families" (p. 7). These institutions "are operated through partnership agreements

between public schools and community agencies” (Dryfoos, 2005, p. 7). Dryfoos (1995) describes community schools as “comprehensive” in nature. She writes, “I use the term [“full-service”] as an umbrella for a whole array of emerging models: school-based health centers, beacons/lighted-school houses, and community schools” (p. 3). She goes on to say that the main intersection of these “programs...is the provision of services by community agencies in school buildings...comprehensive ‘one-stop’ educational and service centers” (p. 3).

Others, who often build on the work of Dryfoos (1995), describe modern full-service schools in a similar manner. Abrams and Gibbs (2000) write that “[f]ull-service schools attempt to integrate programs such as health care, mental health services, parent education, or afterschool care into the school wide change process” (p. 80). Furthermore, they state that they are comparable “to the beacon school or the community-centered school in that the school becomes the locus of community organization and service rather than solely a place of academic instruction” (p. 80). Muijs (2007) uses the terms extended schools” and “full-service schools” as synonyms and writes that these systems “are required to work closely with other agencies that offer child care, social services, adult education, health services and other forms of provision to pupils, and, increasingly, to the community as a whole, alongside their traditional educational role” (p. 348). McMahon et al. (2000) describe the programs offered by full-service schools as “complementary” (p. 68).

McMahon et al. (2000) write that four areas shape the framework of current partnerships that make full-service schools possible. These areas include issues associated with access to necessary services, acknowledgement that schools are the best place to offer these services, an appreciation for “interagency collaboration and service integration” (p. 70), and an “[emphasis] on the importance of community” (p. 70). McMahon et al. (2000) write that while models of full-service schools have been developed, there is a lack of evaluation of these systems. Furthermore, they write that they are not always appropriate to implement in a different setting, and there are a lack of “culture-specific programs” (p. 73). McMahon et al. (2000) lament that “most school buildings in this country have not yet been transformed into full-service schools” (p. 66). No specific factors that determine the most appropriate organizational approach for communities and schools were mentioned. However, when considering the discussions of Dryfoos, Muijs, and McMahon in concert, one might discern the following as necessary factors or criteria for determining the organizational structure of comprehensive educational efforts: 1) the source of funding, 2) the main organizing body or actors, 3) program goals, and 4) school vs. community capacity. As has been mentioned, every community presents different needs, capacities and limits. At the very least, the structure and organization of a comprehensive educational model (be it community school, full-service school, or any other type) would depend on these.

The current number of full-service schools has been growing in the United States as well as other countries (Muijs, 2007). Muijs (2007), whose study focuses on full-service schools in the UK, describes three principles of full-service schools. These principles are very similar to those listed by McMahon et al. (2000) and include:

...the need to address psychological, health and social as well as educational issues if students from disadvantaged areas are to reach their full potential; the potential power of schools as organizations to reach out to their community; the importance of stronger links with the community to improve parental involvement and, as a result of this, student performance. (Hiatt-Michael cited in Muijs, 2007, p. 348)

Muijs (2007) uses the terms “full-service” and “extended schools” synonymously and emphasizes that the organizations must collaborate with community groups to offer a wide-array of services to meet the holistic needs of children in order for them to succeed academically. Thus, the school building is where these services are offered (Muijs, 2007).

Furthermore, while Muijs describes community schools in the UK, their origins are similar to those in the US. Muijs (2007) writes that the Community Schools movement in England took place in the 1970s, and sought to “strength[en] links between schools and communities” with schools serving as the “key actors in reaching out to and collaborating with the community” (Muijs, 2007, p. 348).

Butler (2010) uses the term “extended learning time” schools as a synonym for community schools and states “ELT [(extended learning time)] schools provide academics and enrichment instruction to students, professional development to teachers, mental and physical health services to students, and outreach to parents” (p. 52). Butler (2010) cites that an estimated 3,000-5,000 community schools are operating in the US, though other studies emphasize the difficulty in determining how many community schools exist (Dryfoos, 2003; McMahon et al., 2000). The community schools described by Butler require a partnership between schools and other community and/or non-profit groups to provide a range of services within the school building after regular school hours. He writes that the range of services provided consist of everything from “adult classes, after-school activities, [to] student tutoring and even medical care” (Butler, 2010, p. 51).

Community learning centers, sometimes referred to as expanded learning programs, are also arrangements that align school and non-school supports on school grounds and in the form of after-school/out-of school programs. They respond to a variety of problems rooted in the lack of afterschool engagement of youth: 1) the high number of hours youth spend unsupervised by a caregiver every day, 2) national statistics that say youth are more likely to be involved in crime or victimization, do drugs or become pregnant during those unsupervised hours with no extracurricular activities to occupy their energies, and 3) the overall lack of opportunities for students to make gains in their learning and development outside of school (de Kanter et al., 2000). Community learning centers and expanded learning programs claim to provide safe environments for students in which they are afforded opportunities to learn, improve their academics, engage in enrichment activities, and engage in educational activities focused on enhancing their competencies in core subject areas, thus making positive impacts on student achievement, attendance and graduation rates (Stonehill et al, 2010). This is because programs often benefit from school resources and expertise (Harvard Family Research Project, 2010).

Models

The models of complementary learning systems are as diverse as their terms. Some are coordinated by a board of community members and public officials, while others are mostly school-driven. The Coalition for Community Schools (n.d.) state that there is no one model for a community school; however, their “broad vision” of a community school consists of:

...a public school building, [that] is open to students, families and the community before, during and after school, seven days a week, all year long. It is operated jointly through a partnership between the school system and one or more community agencies. Families, youth, principals, teachers and neighborhood residents help design and implement activities that promote high educational achievement and use the community as a resource for learning. The school is oriented toward the community, encouraging student learning through community service and service learning. A before- and afterschool learning component allows students to build on their classroom experiences, expand their horizons, contribute to their communities and have fun. A family support center helps families with child-rearing, employment, housing and other services. Medical, dental and mental health services are readily accessible. (p. 2)

One example that illustrates the guidelines for community schools set forth by the Coalition for Community Schools is found in Butler (2010). He describes Mound Fort Junior High School in Ogden, Utah. The school was given a “\$2.5 million community schools federal grant” to create “the SCOPE program, or Schools and Community in Ogden Partnering for Excellence” (p. 52). He describes SCOPE as a “full-service community school” as it provides a broad array of services for both students and community members including: Head Start classes, tutoring (through a partnership with the YMCA and a nearby university), “mental health counseling” (p. 52), “ESL and Spanish-language GED classes...with childcare provided” (p. 52), and health fairs (provided through a partnership with a local university). They have plans to incorporate computer and citizenship courses as well as legal services for community members. Butler cites the coordinator of the school who says, “What we are trying to do is to address external needs that students and family may have [and] to fulfill those needs so that kids can achieve academically” (Butler, 2010, p. 52).

Another example is found in New York City’s Beacon Initiative. Beacon schools are also a model based on partnerships between schools and communities (Warren, Feist, Nevarez, 2002, p. 1). The program began in 1991 with a \$5 million grant to allow “10 community-based, not-for-profit agencies to create school-based community centers as ‘safe havens’ providing ‘safe, structured, supervised activities for children, youth and families’” (Warren et al., 2002, p. 1). When Warren et al. (2002) completed an evaluation of six Beacon sites, there were over 80 Beacon schools in existence. Beacons are made up of “community centers located in public school buildings, offering a range of activities and services to participants of all ages, before and after school, in the evenings, and on weekends” (Warren et al., p. iii). The Beacons require cooperation between the schools and community organizations and are “managed by community-based organizations” (Warren et al., p. iii). The Beacon initiatives include prominent community centers such as The Harlem Children’s Zone which will be described in detail in this literature review.

Tagle (2005) describes another model of a full-service school—the Schools and Community Initiative developed by the Public Education Network (PEN). PEN, a national organization, had goals similar to other full-service schools. They “sought to address both the academic and nonacademic barriers to student learning and success by forging strong and deep relationships between public schools and other community-based programs and ensuring the provision of comprehensive supports for students” (Tagle, 2005, p. 46). PEN, however, emphasizes the participation of the public in the creation and continuation of community schools. Tagle (2005) writes that this “public engagement framework” incorporates “a commitment to engage multiple constituencies, from opinion leaders and policymakers to the general, sometimes disenfranchised, public” (p. 46). This framework is included in community schools through “community organizing, strategic planning, and advocacy” (Tagle, 2005, p. 47). PEN implemented their framework in four communities across the US through two phases. They first conducted a needs assessment of the community and incorporated the findings into their planning (Tagle, 2005). This initial phase included a presentation to their stakeholders which established the three areas covered in their framework. Secondly, they began implementing the program with an emphasis on: “(1) ...governance and administrative structures...(2) placing programs and supports in the public schools, (3) putting evaluation mechanisms in place, and (4) gearing up the partnerships that would help advocate for the needed resources and policies to help sustain all these structures” (Tagle, 2005, p. 48).

Related Systems

The majority of the complementary learning literature describes models that: 1) seek to meet the academic and non-academic needs of students, 2) utilize school facilities as community centers, and 3) focus on community collaborations. However, there are two systems that vary somewhat from the descriptions of the community schools described previously. The AfterZone Model is an example of a program which does not primarily use school facilities.

Furthermore, the literature also includes culture-based learning systems which were established to supplement schooling for immigrant families and culturally underserved minorities, including indigenous youth.

AfterZone Model

A critical component of complementary/comprehensive learning described in the literature is the incorporation of learning activities and services which occur outside of regular school hours. In Providence, RI, the city responded to the needs of middle school students by coordinating efforts to improve their afterschool programs. With a \$5 million grant, they split the city into five “AfterZones” and created “Providence After School Alliance (PASA).” PASA is the coordinating body, which cooperates with “the mayor and leaders of the city’s public and private youth-serving agencies” (Kotloff & Korom-Djavovik, 2010, p. 5). While a majority of the literature on complementary learning systems describe out-of-school time (OST) partnerships where after-school programs take place inside school facilities, “the AfterZone model is based on a neighborhood ‘campus’ structure where services are offered at multiple sites in a geographically clustered area” including “local libraries, recreational and art centers, and other community facilities” (Kotloff & Korom-Djavovik, 2010, p. 5). Furthermore, their coordinating body PASA “set out to establish a single set of standards that would define high-quality programming and incorporate these standards in all AfterZone programs” (Kotloff & Korom-Djavovik, 2010, p. 5), despite the fact that the programs take place in different regions and facilities.

Complementary Cultural/Linguistic Systems

Alternative educational paradigms and pedagogy that respond to the cultural needs of youth are locatable within Cultural Responsive Schooling (CRS) programs, as well as Place-Based Education (PBE) and Culture-Based Education (CBE). While not prominent in the literature on complementary learning systems, the framework of these culture-based systems is linked with those of community schools. As ecological models seek to holistically address the needs of students and to connect to communities, learning systems which purposefully include students’ culture—language, belief systems, history, and ways of knowing—into the curriculum share common practices and underlying assumptions with modern-day community schools. In fact, the systems that are working to fully address the needs of students must consider the cultural and linguistic backgrounds of their population. Furthermore, it must be noted, as Castagno and Brayboy (2008) point out, that all education is culture-based. The fact is that schools are dominated by Western cultural perspectives and modes of learning and teaching. Systems that take a culturally-responsive approach seek to take pedagogical approaches that are reflective of the communities being educated, something that complementary learning systems seek to accomplish.

Popkin et al. (2009) point out the importance of “place” to developing youth. Connecting students to their local surroundings can be critical in increasing student achievement. Place-based education is rooted in ecological frameworks and can be reflected in the activities and curriculum of complementary learning systems (Gruenewald, 2003). What makes PBE unique is that it situates deep learning in the local context of the students’ “natural and cultural communities” (Ledward, 2009, p. 1). While PBE can be a part of a community school model, the difference comes from the utilization of the school as a neighborhood “hub” that is mentioned in the community/full-service school literature. For PBE, much of the practical application happens in the natural and cultural environment provided by the local community.

Conceptualized to help indigenous youth overcome achievement obstacles and downward trends in national assessments, CRS programs assume that a grounding in students’ heritage, language and tribal culture is “a fundamental prerequisite for the development of culturally

healthy students and communities associated with that place, and thus is an essential ingredient for identifying the appropriate qualities and practices associated with culturally-responsive educators, curriculum, and schools” (Alaska Native Knowledge Network, 1998 in Castagno & Brayboy, 2008, p. 941). Culture-Based Education, most notably established as a means of positively affecting Native Hawaiian student outcomes, also responds to the pressing need to create educational experiences that are relevant to and reflective of student realities and backgrounds. High rates of poverty, depression, juvenile deviance, domestic and substance abuse, among other negative outcomes, disintegrate the chances for educational success among Native Hawaiian youth (Kana’iaupuni et al., n.d.). Culture-based education incorporates “values, norms, knowledge, beliefs, practices, experiences and language that are the foundation of an indigenous culture” into its vision of meaningful education that connects students to value of learning and living in their communities” (Kana’iaupuni, 2007). Approaching students through an educational model that espouses project-based, culturally relevant, and community-oriented learning can be a means to translate student engagement into positive achievement outcomes (Kana’iaupuni et al., n.d.).

Summary

While there is no one model and the literature is not consistent in terminology, there are several conclusions that can lay a foundation for a deeper discussion of complementary learning and related systems. As much of the literature demonstrates, complementary learning systems are emerging from a more complex view of student development. Furthermore, students, especially those from disadvantaged backgrounds, must have opportunities for growth and development that extend beyond normal school hours. The ecological model presented by Lohrmann (2010) emphasizes the need for parental and community involvement in bringing about positive outcomes for children. Therefore, these complementary systems require some level of collaboration, either school- or community-driven. There is no one overarching model of a “successful” complementary system, whether delivered through afterschool programs, service-learning opportunities, or school-based health services. This is partially due to the fact that these systems are community-focused and must reflect the needs and culture of those whose needs the system seeks to meet.

Exemplary Program Models

This review now moves on to consider specific trajectories and areas of complementary and comprehensive educational systems. It features examples of program models, recommended implementation strategies, and challenges to consider regarding service delivery. This section begins with a discussion of school-community partnerships, and then focuses specifically on family involvement in those partnerships. Next, literature and examples of how community collaborations are being used to address socioeconomic challenges are described. From there, the review goes into detail about exemplary models that address socioeconomic need including AfterZones, SafeZones, and Promise Neighborhoods. This section ends with a description of the impact of service-learning and culture/place-based education systems.

School & Community Partnerships

Partnerships between schools and community organizations are a critical component of complementary learning systems. There are several studies that describe strategic elements that make up successful partnerships. These studies, which are mostly based on qualitative research, will be described in detail in this section.

The Harvard Family Research Project (2010) write that while there are several terms given to the learning systems that fall under the categories of complementary learning, partnerships are a common-denominator in the various models. The partnerships occur between various stakeholders and take many forms. While the types of partnerships are diverse, there are

common elements when student learning is the goal. They write, “partnerships for learning aim to create transformative relationships, that is, relationships that are mutually beneficial, transcend self-interests to create larger meaning, and have a focus beyond utilitarian needs” (Harvard Family Research Project, 2010, p. 2). They cite studies that demonstrate how these partnerships benefit students and community programs.

For students, the Harvard Family Research Project reported studies showing higher levels of student achievement, “continuity of services across the day, year, and developmental cycle” (p. 4), “more diverse and comprehensive learning opportunities” (p. 5), and expanded “community resources” (p. 5). For schools, studies indicated better pedagogy, enabled by additional professional development experience that helps teachers improve their skills, build stronger relationships with students, and try new strategies in the classroom. Easier moves for students from “elementary to middle school and middle school to high school” (p. 5), strengthening of concepts learned in the classroom through out of school activities, more positive views of the school and community relationships, and increased “staff and resources to support in-school learning” was also mentioned (p. 6). Lastly, they describe how community programs benefit from the partnerships through acquiring contact with students who need most their initiatives, “[i]mproved program quality and staff engagement” (p. 6), and more efficient use of resources.

They also outline five methods in the creation and implementation of successful learning partnerships. These five structures that must be in place for successful school-community partnerships include: common goals between partners, which must include the academic achievement of students; shared responsibility in implementing the program; relationships that exist at not only the institution-level, but also at the district-level; strong association with families and surrounding community; and frequent assessment with data distributed among partnership members to improve programs (Harvard Family Research Project, 2010, p. 7)

The current literature reflects these key elements. As is noted by several of the articles reviewed in this section, successful leadership is another component of effective full service/extended schools prominently described in the literature. School champions play a pivotal role in coordinating the above dynamics. Sanders (2009) highlights the important role of district-level actors in school reform through building community and family partnerships. She suggests that the following outcomes have been documented when families, students, and communities collaborate with *school leaders* to achieve school excellence and student success: 1) higher student achievement, 2) improved student behavior and attendance, and 3) more positive school climates (Henderson & Mapp, 2002 in Sanders 2009, p. 1694). Made up of mostly case studies, the following section will provide examples of how current complementary learning systems are imploring successful partnerships.

Research on School-Community Partnerships

Bosma et al. (2010) conducted a study of the successful partnerships involved in the implementation of Lead Peace—a service-learning program for middle school students (based in urban schools). They used focus groups “with program facilitators at each school at the end of the 2006 to 2007 and 2007 to 2008 school years” (Bosma et al., 2010, p. 501), as well as interviews with “key informant[s] ...[and] school administrators” (p. 501). As a participatory research study, they also used observations of the “partnership meetings” (p. 501). The program includes the facilitation of classroom-based service-learning with the goal of “reduc[ing] violence by building core internal assets and external supports among young people who reside in challenging environments” (Windome, Sieving, Harping, Hearst, 2008, p. 463). The program is facilitated in schools that “are located in among the most socially and economically troubled neighborhoods in Minneapolis” (Windome et al., 2008, p. 463). Bosma et al. (2009) cite previous research demonstrating that successful partnerships are key to the implementation of school-based service-learning programs. The purpose of their

analysis was to identify themes for successful partnerships within Lead Peace. They found the following ten themes contributed to successful partnerships: “(1) communication; (2) shared decision making; (3) shared resources; (4) expertise and credibility; (5) sufficient time to develop and maintain relationships; (6) champions and patron saints; (7) being present; (8) flexibility; (9) a shared youth development orientation; and (10) recognition of other partners’ priorities” (p. 501). Their themes are very similar to the five strategies outlined by the Harvard Family Research Project (2010); however, they do include “champions and patron saints,” which were noticeable in the descriptions of several prominent models in the literature.

Bringle, Officer, Grim, & Hatcher (2009) describe the key elements that have led to the successful creation of partnerships involved with implementing successful programs at George Washington Community High School (GWCHS). The partnership involves Indiana University-Purdue University Indiana (IUPUI) and GWCHS. Bringle et al. (2009) distinguish between relationships and partnerships where partnerships “describe a particular subset of relationships that is characterized by three qualities: closeness, equity, and integrity” (p. 43). Faced with the closing and consolidation of their schools, community members in the working class area of the now established GWCHS worked with IUPUI’s newly formed Neighborhood Partnerships Office to form a community school that offers an array of services to students and community members. The university contributes greatly to the school: “College students coach cheerleading, assist the school nurse, conduct fitness classes, provide tutoring, offer art classes, and serve as athletic trainers (Bringle et al., 2009, p. 47).

This partnership also contributes to IUPUI’s civic engagement mission, making the partnership mutually beneficial. Students from GWCHS as well as university and community members also collaborate on initiatives to improve their neighborhood. Through offering “community events such as family nights, meals, and health fairs, having a community meeting room available for free use, and providing access to a swimming pool and wellness center, GWCHS has reestablished itself as a hub for the neighborhood” (Bringle et al., 2009, p. 49). GWCHS has also benefited from working with a multitude of businesses and community organizations. Through these partnerships, they offer “programs and services valued at more than \$2 million annually for students, their families, and residents” (Bringle et al., 2009, p. 49). Bringle et al. (2009) describe a key staff person who facilitates the partnerships—a full-time community school coordinator. This person “is responsible for coordinating a diverse set of activities between the school and community organizations” (p. 51).

As Bringle et al. (2009) use relationship theory to describe three key ingredients to successful partnerships, they explain how GWCHS has met those requirements. The first of these qualities is closeness. Bringle et al. (2009) write that interviews conducted just “prior to the opening of GWCHS” (p. 56) established that key stakeholders felt that the partnerships were becoming closer through more interaction, as well as a variety of interaction around a common purpose. The second part of successful partnerships, “equality” was evidenced in the developed relationships being “appraised as beneficial and equitable” (Bringle et al., 2009, p. 56). Lastly, “they were developing qualities of high integrity” (Bringle et al., 2009) p. 56) through “working together in a concerted way to meet the challenge of having no schools in the neighborhoods, forging a common vision of opening schools, and developing strategies for working toward a solution” (p. 56). Again, Bringle’s findings are similar to the other findings discussed in this section with a focus on mutually beneficial partnerships, which are authentic and based on a foundation of shared goals and values.

Family-Focused Partnerships

While family involvement alone is not sufficient to sustain comprehensive/complementary learning systems, it features as an important site for thinking about systemic learning supports, especially beyond the common limits of current family involvement policy that

merely facilitate “random acts of involvement” (Weiss, Boaffard, Bridglall & Gordon, 2009, p. 18). Evidence accumulated over the last 40 years indicates that family involvement in and out of school is one of the strongest predictors of children’s school success (Weiss et al., 2009, p. 4). Families play a crucial role in the cognitive, social and emotional development of their children. Despite such evidence, education policies and resources that support family engagement have been, for the most part, few, ineffective and inconsistent. There is a need to foster a broader understanding of the benefits that come out of family involvement in education, particularly for disadvantaged children (Weiss et al. 2009, p. 4).

Recent literature has determined that family involvement with the intent of shared responsibility for learning is foundational to successful complementary learning systems. To advocate for a foundation of shared responsibility between schools, families and other community supports, is to recognize that families are a part of a dynamic system that supports or limits their capacity for involvement (Weiss et al, 2009, p. 13). An array of parent involvement types exist and breakdown into the following six broad areas: 1) Parenting: Helping families develop supportive home environments; 2) Communicating: Establishing two-way exchanges about student progress and success; 3) Volunteering: Recruiting and organizing parents to help in a variety of locations, including the school and home; 4) Learning at home: Providing families with information on how to assist with home work and other curriculum-related interventions; 5) Decision-making: Involving parents in processes of school governance (ex. serve as representative or on committees); and 6) Collaborating with the community: Locating and integrating community resources and services to improve school programs (Sheldon & Epstein, 2005; Fan 2001).

Research suggests that shared responsibility for children’s learning and school success must be “co-constructed.” That is, families, schools, and communities must develop what constitutes family involvement together. Consistent with literature previously covered, such co-construction might be characterized by trust, shared values, sustained communication and mutual respect (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Dauber & Epstein, 1993; Hill, 2001; & Lightfoot, 2003 in Weiss et al., 2009, p. 14). Sharing responsibility also requires practitioners to broaden their conception of what family involvement means beyond attending to traditional school-aged children. Mounting evidence reveals that family involvement is a strong predictor of child development, learning and academic success from birth to adulthood (Weiss et al., 2009). Thus, developing intervention opportunities across multiple learning contexts, such as afterschool programs, community centers, libraries, and faith-based institutions, goes a ways towards leveraging the benefits of family-involvement. Families are key agents in helping children and youth access nonschool opportunities, as well as help them make meaning of those learning experiences (Weiss et al., 2009, p. 15).

Thousands of examples of community efforts to promote family involvement across learning contexts exist. Most of these efforts link school, after-school or summer learning to family supports. Among these, Miami-Dade’s “Connected Schools” features as a prominent example of an educational system that incorporates family involvement into its operational fabric. “Connected Schools” has forged a number of formalized partnerships with community organizations and stakeholders, emphasizing parental roles and responsibilities at its heart. For example, the initiative established the Parent Academy, a community-wide initiative that helps parents learn about their roles, rights, responsibilities and opportunities to support their children’s learning. The topics and events of the Parent Academy are co-developed, and the academy frequently hosts workshops, educational and cultural events, resource sharing and referrals. To sustain family-school interaction, the superintendant of schools included family involvement as a part of performance criteria for principals, while also suggesting it for teachers (Weiss et al, 2009, p. 30).

The After-School CollegeEd program in New York City, created by the After-School Corporation (TASC), the College Board, and Partnership for After School Education (PASE) also rises to the surface as a new family involvement initiative connecting families, schools, after-school programs and higher education to help families plan for college. Among its various efforts, the After-School CollegeEd initiative features a program for Latino high school students. It aims to build purposeful connections among families, schools and community health agencies that support student success in school, mainly through home visits and promoting opportunities for parents (Weiss et al, 2009, p. 31). Other programs that help families prepare for college through school-family interactions include “The Future and Families Program” (F&F), a three-year bilingual outreach program for Latino high school parents and the “Parent Institute for Quality Education” (PIQE), an informational program motivating low-income parents to become proactive in the search for educational opportunities for their children (Harvard Family Research Project, 2007). PIQE focuses on low-income families from ethnically diverse backgrounds and offers classes aimed at prekindergarten, elementary, middle and high school involvement practices. Parents attend a series of courses on a variety of topics they help plan, including home-school collaboration, understanding/navigating the school system, creating home learning environments, and preparing for college (Harvard Family Research Project, 2006).

Challenges of Family Involvement

At the micro or local level, the challenges of integrating families within a complementary system of education tend to revolve around issues of school and family/parent communication (Epstein & Sheldon, 2002; Ramirez, 2001) and are most apparent when it comes to the involvement of socioeconomically disadvantaged and minority families. In other words, communication processes that bring about trust-building are often compromised by class and cultural differences (Abrahms & Gibbs, 2010; Weiss et al., 2009; Fan, 2001). For one, socioeconomically disadvantaged and minority families lack kinds of social capital that are valued by mainstream culture and institutions. As such, families have less access to information about school policy and procedures or school structure and staff, and are therefore less likely to communicate with teachers about their children, volunteer, become active about school problems, or know how to help their children learn at home (Gordon et al. 2005; Horvat, Weininger, & Lareau, 2003 in Weiss et al., 2009, p. 11).

Socioeconomically disadvantaged, minority families are also less likely to be involved in their children’s learning, both at home or at school, because of work schedules, day-care, and/or transportation problems, as well as negative educational experiences parents have had in their own lives. As previously discussed in the study conducted on parental involvement in schools (Ramirez, 2001), one major reason for the lack of direct communication between parents and schools was attributed to the misguided assumption on the part of school administrators and teachers that poor or minority families do not want to be involved in their children’s education (Abrahms & Gibbs, 2010; Ramirez, 2001; Grolnick & Slowiaczek, 1994; Keith et al., 1998; Kohl et al. 2000 in Weiss et al., 2009, p. 12). Not only do these assumptions create distance between families and school, but teachers’ frequent perceptions that parents are not professionally able to serve in the classroom or on committees also work against initiatives that try to more meaningfully involve parents in the realm of school governance and power-sharing (Abrahms & Gibbs, 2010; Weiss & Stephen, 2009; Ramirez, 2001).

From a policy standpoint, the structural separation of parent involvement across education and other legislation has compartmentalized funding streams, programs, and advocacy efforts, thus impeding any meaningful and sustained effort to involve families in their children’s education. Siloed funding (ex. Head Start, IDEA and Title I) has often resulted in fragmented parent groups, who as a result, often compete rather than advocate for broader systems of family involvement (Weiss & Stephen, 2009). Tools to monitor compliance with parent involvement mandates or provide program evaluations, capacity building and technical

assistance have also been under-used by the federal government in the last several decades to support family, school, and community partnerships. Related factors impeding the formation of partnerships are the lack of substantial investments needed for capacity-building, training, technical assistance, and other resources. Finally, there is a lack of leadership that shapes a vision at federal, state and local levels about the importance of partnering with families and communities (Weiss & Stephen, 2009).

Community Collaboration: Addressing Socio-Economic Challenges

Community-Based Organization

Community-based, as opposed to primarily school-based approaches, feature another side of comprehensive/complementary educational systems that advocate for educational equity and opportunity. These community-based initiatives are most evident among low-income, socio-economically disadvantaged neighborhoods, often because the link between community health and school failure are most apparent. Needless to say, community-based initiatives derive from a broader context of political activism and demand for community transformation. Gold (2002) describes the common and successful characteristics of organizing groups as the following:

- They work to change public schools to make them more equitable and effective for all students.
- They build a large base of members who take collective action to further their agenda.
- They build relationships and collective responsibility by identifying shared concerns among neighborhood residents and creating alliances and coalitions that cross neighborhood and institutional boundaries.
- They develop leadership among community residents to carry out agendas that the membership determines through a democratic governance structure.
- They use the strategies of adult education, civic participation, public action, and negotiation to build power for residents of low-to-moderate-income communities that result in action to address their concerns (Gold, 2002).

The Oakland Community Organizations (OCO) is an example of broad community collaboration within a very specific community context. Committed to the long-term life chances of youth and families living in the Oakland flatlands neighborhoods, the OCO focuses reform efforts on building political alliances to “win improved conditions” for its prominently low-to-moderate income, traditionally African-American community members (Gold, 2002, p. 9). To date the OCO has addressed issues of school overcrowding, low academic achievement (particularly low reading scores) and advocated for such reform solutions as school-to-career programs, reduced class size, after-school homework clubs, charter school and smaller schools (Gold, 2002, p. 9).

Other characteristics of community-based collaborations relate to flexibilities within the community to stand in for or serve in place of formal supports. Manz, Power, Ginsburg-Block & Dowrick’s (2010) discussion of community residents who serve as “paraeducators” in an inner-city school system is exemplary of this dynamic. Paraeducators expand the instructional capacity of already underfunded schools, provided that they are properly prepared and incorporated with professional staff (Manz et al., 2010). They also serve as mediating agents that foster family-school relations and bolster the cultural congruence between the home, community and school environments. Given that paraeducators often live in school-adjacent neighborhoods, they are likely to represent the cultural and linguistic backgrounds of the students and their families. Paraeducators, therefore, can serve as comfortable points of

contact for families and maintain communication with them over issues regarding their children. Given that paraeducators possess localized knowledge about the communities in which they live, they are also able to function as advocates for children and families among school personnel. In all, paraeducators have been shown to connect families to school services (Chopra et al. 2004 in Manz et al. 2010).

Action-Research Approach

Community collaborations that address socio-economic inequities in educational achievement and access often do so through community action research. This is because viable solutions to effect change and stakeholder buy-in must be a product of “overlapping spheres of influence” among families, communities, and schools (Cousins, Mickelson, Williams & Velasco, 2008).

The Annie E. Casey Foundation (2007) cited in Cousins, Mickelson, Williams & Velasco (2008) recommend that following action research approaches:

- Consider a community’s social, cultural, economic, and political characteristics in contemporary and historical contexts.
- Include indigenous and official community stakeholders and leaders in development and implementation activities.
- Employ an empowerment model that builds on the strengths of participants.
- Resist “top down” approaches in which social service agency experts or academics unilaterally control and enforce programs for community residents.
- Take into account the social and cultural norms and interests that motivate and give meaning to the lives of people in which communities change is sought (p. 34).

The Future City Project is an example that demonstrates the connection between public policy and the city or neighborhood development process (Taylor & McGlynn, 2009). Every year the program tasks a selection of students to engage in a research project to build a futuristic city based on a particular theme, such as nanotechnology, transportation, or alternative energy sources. The students get access to resources to help them in their project. For example, local engineers and urban planners are enlisted as volunteers. Students also take field trips to sharpen their understanding of the policy and decision-making processes. The program helps students to “understand that agency – the action of residents in partnership with other stakeholders and the government – can improve conditions in their neighborhood by altering the policies and decisions that drive community development” (Taylor & McGlynn, 2009, p. 33). The Community Art project aspires to a similar goal, but through the representational medium of visual images. Through art education, students go out into the community and transform the faces of buildings, fences and other dilapidated areas that constitute “eye sores” within the community. By doing so, they politicize the presence of social inequities within their neighborhoods, as well as increase the aesthetic value of the environments in which they live (Taylor & McGlynn, 2009, p. 35).

As a final example, the Math/Science Equity Program (MSEP) in Charlotte, North Carolina is also an action research project, the intent of which is to bring about educational change through community collaboration with African American parents, community organizations, universities, and public schools. Its specific goal was to “reduce the race gaps in higher level math and science course enrollments, thereby contributing to reducing the race gap in academic achievement and attainment” (Cousins, Mickelson, Williams & Velasco, 2008, pp. 30-31). The quasi-experimental MSEP program revolves around Helping Ourselves Mold Education (HOME) workshops, designed in conjunction with multiple community groups, educators and parents, and aimed at parental empowerment. The workshop series was

offered to three high schools and their feeder middle schools. The workshop series imparts information about the Charlotte-Mecklenburg School system's high school math and science course sequences and the relationship of those sequences to high education and professional careers (p. 32). A parallel children's math and science program was later developed, and became very popular. Workshop sites rotated to maximize convenience for the parent participants, to include locations on the UNC campus, recreation centers, public schools, libraries, and even local churches. Transportation was provided to those who needed it, and a meal was served at every workshop, which parents and their children could share together. Cousins, Mickelson, Williams & Velasco (2008) did not share results of the program, but did state that "we expected parents who attended workshops would become more involved in their children's course selection, more of their children would enroll in high level math and science courses, and the increases in high level math and science enrollments among African American students attending out treatment schools would exceed increases in enrollment in out control schools" (p. 33). Plans to share the findings of the project were not mentioned in this particular study.

AfterZones, SafeZones & Promise Neighborhoods

AfterZone, SafeZones & Promise Neighborhoods (hereafter referred to as just Promise Neighborhoods) are emerging community-based educational initiatives that likewise respond to socio-economic conditions that adversely affect the life chances of youth in neighborhood areas. Promise Neighborhoods employ cross-community collaborations to build networks of strategic educational supports and social programs that guide the successful development of children from birth to young adulthood. The Promise Neighborhoods Institute (www.promiseneighborhoodsinstitute.org) describes the goals that drive innovative strategies of these initiatives:

1. Supporting efforts to improve outcomes that are communicated and analyzed by leaders and members of the community.
2. Identifying and increasing capacity of eligible entities focused on results from cradle through college to career.
3. Building a continuum of academic and family and community supports with effective school(s) at the center.
4. Integrating programs and breaking down silos between agencies.
5. Working with local governments to sustain and "scale up" solutions.
6. Learning about overall impact of Promise Neighborhoods and relationship between particular strategies and student outcomes.

Introduced earlier, the Harlem Children's Zone (HCZ) the initiative upon which the vision of *Promise Neighborhoods* has been modeled, is an example of a comprehensive system of supports and services within a 97-block neighborhood in New York City to counter the degenerative effects of poverty and crime. The network of supports is more accurately described as a pipeline of coordinated services that aims to improve the academic achievement of youth along the early childhood – high school developmental continuum and prepare them for higher education, integrate families into school life/activities, and affect family well-being within the broader community (ex. helping families purchase homes) (Moore, et al, 2009, p. 1). Neighborhood services include anything from organizing tenant associations and one-on-one family counseling to foster care prevention programs, community centers, and employment and technology centers that teach job-related skills to teens and adults (Whitehurst, 2010, p. 1).

Challenges of AfterZones, SafeZones & Promise Neighborhoods

One of the greatest challenges in developing and then maintaining a comprehensive, system-wide approach to education is the possibility of attributing impact to program initiatives. Multiple external factors and conditions impact child welfare, beyond the control of any educational initiative (Moore, et al, 2009, p. 2). External factors affecting the impact of *Promise Neighborhoods* initiatives include residential and student mobility within and among schools, community safety, community poverty concentration and unemployment rates, as well as housing insecurity. These factors directly impact child and family well-being and are therefore likely to impact the initiative's chances of success, at the very least indirectly. While Promise Neighborhoods cannot control for these influences, the initiative has recognized the need to be educated about the characteristics of the community in which they operate by tracking and assessing program initiatives, and crucially, to connect to interventions that do address community conditions in order to provide families with additional support (Harlem Children's Zone, 2010, p. 5).

Stakeholder buy-in also features as a constant challenge for community collaborations. The social, economic and political contexts of communities create the conditions of possibility by which initiatives are received or rebuffed. Often stakeholder ambivalence or distrust of projects has to do with the historical failure of organizations and/or ill effects generated by similar organizations in a community's pasts (Cousins, Mickelson, Williams & Velasco, 2008, p. 35). A final major challenge to maintaining a comprehensive, system-wide approach to education is the lack of reliable indicator data at community/neighborhood or city levels. State-level indicator data has only been available in the last two decades, putting in perspective just how much the local data collection systems and the development of indicators are in their infancy stages (Moore et al., 2009, p. 2).

Service-learning

Service-learning, a component of community-based schooling makes the argument that civic engagement and academic success are linked. In recent years, service-learning opportunities have been identified as beneficial to students in at least two main ways. First, service-learning responds to adolescent developmental needs, such as give them the opportunity to assume meaningful roles in the community that build their sense of value, competence and connectedness to others. Second, service-learning helps to mitigate the negative effects that the transition to middle school often has on students' self-esteem, attitudes toward school and self-perception of academic competencies (Wigfield & Eccles, 1994 in Scales, et al, 2000). Thus, the developmental benefits of service-learning can have the effect of promoting social responsibility and academic success of students.

Scales, Blyth, Berkas & Keilsmeier (2000) build on studies that reveal the positive outcomes of service-learning programs for middle school students. These findings show increased "social responsibility" and academic achievement (Scales et al., 2000, p. 335); furthermore, the previous literature shows that there is a positive correlation between the level of reflection required from the service-learning programs to the level of positive outcomes.² Scales et al. (2000) is a study of the impact of service-learning at 3 middle schools (1,153 students). Students in the schools were randomly assigned to teams—a service-learning team or a control team. A pre-test/post-test design was used; the instrument included items from the following scales/measurements: the Conrad and Hedin Social and Personal Responsibility Scale, the Newman and Rutter Developmental Opportunities Scale, Search Institute Profiles of Student Life: Attitudes and Behaviors Survey, Commitment to Classwork subscale, Lee and Smith's

² No specific data collection tools were mentioned from previous studies. However, previous studies have examined the following indicators and variables: academic success, including commitment to school and community (Switzer et al., 1995), school engagement (Melchior, 1997), school provision of developmental opportunities (Newman & Rutter, 1983), non-disruptive school conduct (Luchs, 1981), subject matter test scores (Dewsbury-White, 1993), and grade point average (Melchoir, 1997; Shumer, 1994). These past studies are cited in Scales et al. (2000).

academic engagement scale, Harter Scholastic Competence Scale, the Crandall Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Scale, the 4-item Mastery Goals Scale, as well as student's GPAs and conduct grades. Their analysis was conducted through the use of ANCOVAs.

Scales et al. (2000) found that service-learning programs of all magnitudes “have positive effects on students’ concern for others’ welfare, a concern that in the absence of service-learning declined over the school year” (p. 350). Furthermore, there were significant differences between the control and experimental group with regard to parents—“service-learning students said they talked more frequently with their parents about school than the control students said they talked with their parents about school” (Scales et al., 2000, p. 347). It must be noted that positive effects on talking with parents were higher for girls; and, sixth grade students demonstrated more positive outcomes than other grade levels, though “there were no interactions with service-learning or control group status in those analyses, indicating that the service-learning programs in this study differentially did not affect younger and older middle school students” (Scales et al., 2000, p. 353). Furthermore, no significant difference was found between the experimental and control group on measures of “school engagement, perceived scholastic competence, intellectual achievement responsibility, GPA, or conduct at school” (Scales et al., 2000, p. 350).

Culture- and Place-based Education

As mentioned previously, one of the key elements of successful complementary learning systems is the inclusion of “families and community resources” (Harvard Family Research Project, 2010, p. 7). Nowhere is this inclusion more purposeful than in culture- or place-based learning systems. While not always a part of community schools, or described in the literature on complementary learning system, these related models must be included in this review as they reflect the inclusion of students’ communities and culture and fit the ecological framework espoused by the current models.

Wei (2006) describes that, traditionally, complementary schools in the UK were established to serve the cultural, linguistic and religious needs of ethnic minority groups (e.g. Afro-Caribbean, Muslim), as well as to provide learning environments that affirm and empower, rather than disavow, their identities and lived experiences (Wei, 2006, p. 76). In other words, complementary schooling “is a response to a historically monolingual ideology which ignores the complexity of multilingual England” (Creese & Martin, 2006; 1). In the 1980s, another type of complementary schooling emerged. These complementary schools were created by immigrant parents to assist in maintaining their communities’ “linguistic and cultural heritage” (Wei, 2006, p. 78). This system is not made up of entirely separate schools, but weekend and afterschool classes that focus on “community languages and culture” (Wei, 2006, p. 78).

Contemporarily, discussions on the benefits of complementary schools circle around the ways in which they provide students a safe context in which to explore their identities, acknowledging that schools are ideologically-oriented, and are places where children, teachers and parents interact to reaffirm, resist or challenge those orientations. Creese et al. (2006) argues that complementary schools play a part in developing student identities in three particular areas: 1) heritage/community identities, 2) learning identities, and 3) multicultural identities. While complementary schools actively promote the first two identity positions, the latter is allowed rather than explicitly encouraged. This is because schools provide a multilingual space in which to explore multicultural identities and flexible bilingualism (p. 25). The multilingual nature of complementary schools provide the conditions of possibility for students to develop the ability to negotiate between overlapping cultures, including classroom, school, family, heritage and popular youth cultures with flexibility (Wei, 2006, p. 80-81). This section of the literature describes current research with regard to culture-based, culturally-responsive, and place-based educational models.

Culture-based Education

Culture-based education is defined by Kana'iaupuni (2007) as “the grounding of instruction and student learning in...the values, norms, knowledge, beliefs, practices, experiences, and language that are the foundation of a(n indigenous) culture” (p. 1). While Kana'iaupuni (2007) writes that the literature on culture-based education demonstrates positive outcomes, as Castagno and Brayboy (2008) conclude about Culturally Responsive School, the literature is lacking in research based on experimental design. Overall, Kana'iaupuni (2007) finds that culture-based education consists of 1) “native or heritage language,” 2) “family and community” in the planning of learning and management of schools, 3) “structuring the school and the classroom in culturally-appropriate ways,” 4) curriculum which is “culturally grounded,” and 5) the use of assessment to “insure student progress in culturally responsible ways” (p. 1). Furthermore, the research cited in the annotated bibliography demonstrates that indigenous youth possess learning styles that are different than their non-indigenous peers. Current classrooms based in Western culture do not promote cultural pride and can even negatively impact indigenous youth academically and socially. A majority of the research is conducted with indigenous students in Alaska; the research conducted on the culture-based education programs show positive academic outcomes. A current study by Kana'iaupuni, Ledward, Malone, Jensen (n.d.) demonstrates that CBE is an appropriate model for Native Hawaiian students; positive student outcomes (both social and academic) were linked to CBE. Furthermore, the results of this large, empirical study demonstrate that students in CBE classrooms “(Kana'iaupuni et al., n.d., p. 1).

Culturally responsive schooling can be seen as a subset of culture-based education. In their review of 27 years worth of culturally responsive schooling (CRS) literature, Castagno and Brayboy (2008) conclude that “although the plethora of writing...is insightful, it has little impact on what teachers do because it is too easily reduced to essentializations, meaningless generalizations, or trivial anecdotes” (p. 942). They suggest future discussions on adequate teacher preparation that will lead to “more equitable and culturally responsive education for Indigenous youth” (Castagno & Brayboy, 2008, p. 942). Their review uncovers that several key areas of CRS are lacking in the literature—sovereignty, indigenous epistemologies, and racism in schools—are areas that the authors point out as lacking in the literature. They identify the main need for CRS identified by the literature to be the “different learning styles and cultural practices” of Indigenous youth (Castagno & Brayboy, 2008, p. 953), and the outcomes that Indigenous students are forced to assimilate and lose their “cultural pride and personal identities” (p. 954).

The next main section of their review focuses on the “curricular and pedagogical strategies for CRS” (p. 961). Pedagogical strategies such as cooperative learning, “creation of a visual learning environment” (p. 962), and engaging students through assisting “students [to] develop strategies for understanding and acting on the world around them” (p. 963). Similar to the pedagogical findings, the curriculum research shows that students’ culture and ways of knowing should be reflected in the curriculum. Furthermore, the curriculum must be sensitive to students’ culture, values, and beliefs.

The authors then focus on “educator characteristics” necessary for successful CRS. The literature shows that instructors must display dispositions that are tolerant and caring; they should also have high expectations of students. Furthermore, teachers should also possess “an attitude of respect, appreciation, and value for tribal communities and cultures” (Castagno & Brayboy, 2008, p. 970); along with these attitudes, a high-level of knowledge about the Indigenous culture and history is necessary. Their literature review also found the importance of mutually beneficial, collaborative efforts with Indigenous communities. The community collaborations include parental involvement as “parents and other community members have the capacity to help their children negotiate the culture of the school, and they can provide much-needed sanctioning to their children about the importance of school” (Castagno, 2008,

p. 972). With teacher attributes and community collaboration, the literature also shows that, especially in the times of No Child Left Behind, supportive administrators are key to the success of CRS.

Their overall conclusion “is that students will learn better and be more engaged in schooling when they can make connections to it” (Castagno & Brayboy, 2008, p. 981). Castagno and Brayboy (2008) express that while the amount of literature on CRS has spanned almost 30 years, leaders in education have not fully embraced and implemented it. They call for more research that can link CRS to student achievement which will hopefully lead to improvements in teacher education and training.

Place-based Education

Related to culture-based education and culturally-responsive schooling is place-based education (PBE). Place-based education involves inclusion of “natural and cultural resources of communities to create rich contexts for exploration, experimentation, problem-solving, and peer bonding that produce relevant and meaningful learning experiences” (Ledward, 2009, p. 1). PBE is responsive to the needs of the communities and is not just beneficial to students and schools, but also to families and community members. Ledward (2009) identifies eight elements that are included in PBE: overall these items incorporate experiential learning that is “student-centered” and involves a constructivist approach to teaching and learning.

Example: Hawaiian Studies Program

Yamauchi and Purcell (2009) describe the Hawaiian Studies Program (HSP), which is a place-based program at a rural public high school in Hawaii. The program was started in the 1990s to address dropout and achievement of students in the area, many who were of Native Hawaiian ancestry. As a place-based program, community involvement is key to the success of the program. HSP reflects the key elements of a place-based program—the program incorporates students’ surrounding neighborhood (including a service-learning component), a constructivist framework serves as a foundation for the structure of the program, the curriculum is student-focused and students and teachers are co-creators of knowledge, and members of the community are dynamic participants in the program. Yamauchi and Purcell’s (2009) qualitative study seeks to uncover the intricacies of the community-school collaborations that make the program a success. Data was collected through focus groups and interviews with four teachers in the program and 15 people from community groups involved with HSP, as well as three years of participant observations.

Their findings reflected the importance of the qualities of good partnerships described in the in this literature review. First, the community and school possessed “shared ownership” and leadership for the program (Yamauchi & Purcell, 2009, p. 184). This was critical in leveraging the resources and best qualities from both the school and participating organizations. Next, they found that communication was an extremely important part of the collaboration in order to maintain a shared vision and keep transitioning leadership changes smooth. They suggested that a program coordinator be hired to help relieve the burden from over-worked teachers who may burn out if they are tasked with coordinating the program on top of teaching and implementing the program. A challenge identified by the researchers was the implementation of No Child Left Behind, which left less time for the program. While this was a speed-bump for the program and did decrease participation for a few years, the program did adjust and continue their service-learning component.

Yamauchi and Purcell (2009) offered the following recommendations for those who may be considering the inclusion of a place-based education program in their schools. They suggest a needs assessment, which includes input from students and community members. Community members and teachers should collaborate to come to an agreement on how both the needs of students and their communities can be met: “Working together, this group can develop

interdisciplinary themes that incorporate local activities. They may also generate ways that students can be involved in the community, through service-learning, field trips, and in other ways that students can interact with community members” (Yamauchi & Purcell, 2007, p. 186).

Impact & Measures of Success

The following section presents examples of impact studies in an attempt to tease out approaches to evaluating comprehensive/complementary educational systems. Complementary learning systems, as embodied in the efforts of community schools, full service schools, extended schools, and SafeZone initiatives, are relatively new, making the overall educational impact of extensive support networks difficult to measure. Comparative studies are even less available, given that comprehensive/complementary educational systems are developed around unique community conditions and needs, producing different indicators of success across multi-cited initiatives. Studies that discuss impact do so in regard to more specific or discrete elements within complementary/comprehensive systems, from which one might extrapolate conclusions about successful practices. While some studies are empirically based and longitudinal, others are descriptive reports of conditions and challenges under which programs have been developed. Whenever possible, this section offers discussion on evaluation outcomes and indicators, tools to measure impact, and results. Overall, a general conclusion can be drawn that successful comprehensive/complementary initiatives are characterized by programs that prioritize communication, stakeholder buy-in, blended staffing in schools, and that meaningfully involve families and community actors in educational governance.

Community Schools

Cole (2010) presents an evaluation of the Second Tuesday Project (STP) which is a part of the curriculum at Jefferson Center High School. Jefferson Center is a public magnet school in the Midwest with most students “com[ing] from...low-income and urban neighborhoods...78% of Jefferson Center’s 1,300 students qualify for free and reduced-lunch. 92% of Jefferson Center’s students are African-American, 4% are White” (Cole, 2010, p. 16). The Second Tuesday Project is part of a capstone for students interested in Human Services; a course handout describes the project as: “a team- based, multi-disciplinary, senior level project that requires each student to research a specific social issue within the Riverside community (i.e. homelessness, hunger, poverty, pollution, etc.) and implement a plan to help resolve that issue” (cited in Cole, 2010, p. 17).

Cole (2010) conducted participant observations as well as interviews to uncover student and teacher perceptions of the program’s partnerships. From her qualitative approach, Cole (2010) found that “[t]hree key themes – logistical flexibility, communication and planning, and curricular connectivity – contributed significantly to the challenges and successes of students and teachers involved in the STP’s community-based approaches” (p. 22). These findings result in the need for curriculum that helps students to make explicit connections between their service projects and larger curricular goals and concepts. Cole (2010) also emphasized the need for planning and communication between the school and community partners but did not offer detailed implications.

Anderson-Butcher et al. (2010) describe the Ohio Community Collaboration Model for School Improvement (OCCMSI), which was a pilot conducted at six schools in Ohio. The pilot programs took place in schools located in three urban, two rural, and one “rural setting” with “urban-like features” (Anderson-Butcher et al., 2010, p. 163). Each school used their own planning process to incorporate academic and non-academic services to complement their current systems. Anderson-Butcher et al. (2010) focus on the process of planning and implementing the model, as well as the benefits of the model. OCCMSI “priorities are

youth development, health, and social services, parent-family engagement and support, and community partnerships” (Anderson-Butcher et al., 2010, p. 161).

Anderson-Butcher et al. (2010) lay out five “milestones” in the planning process for OOCMSI. First, stakeholders are assigned to planning teams; people with various expertise and “perspectives” (Anderson et al., 2010, p. 161) are purposefully included. Second, the planning teams assess the academic and non-academic needs of the school as well as describe current practices with a focus on those that are “tapped, underused, untapped, or ineffective” (Anderson-Butcher et al., 2010, p. 163). Next, the teams create a plan for partnerships and intervention to address needs that are not being adequately met. The teams then create the necessary leadership structures; and, finally, they make data-driven decisions in the constant evaluation of how the partnerships are working. These milestones are somewhat reflective of the good practices highlighted by the other articles in this section including sharing data, blended staffing models, planning, and shared goals.

As part of the pilot, a survey was administered to teachers and staff before the implementation of the pilot and again after. Phone interviews were conducted with key informants at four of the six pilot sites (two were unavailable for interviewing). Furthermore, one contact person served as a consultant to the researchers and reported meeting minutes, experiences, and other information to inform the study. The results from the surveys demonstrated that: “Teachers and school staff felt strongly that participation in the project brought critical resources to the school and helped build the school’s capacity to manage expanded school improvement strategies. They also perceived the project as having helped them in their job and increased community participation in the school” (Anderson-Butcher, 2010, p. 165). However, there were two items that ranked lower on the survey: “...staff perceptions that the OCCMSI helped to increase parent and caregiver involvement and that the project increased private business participation in the school.” (Anderson- Butcher et al., 2010, p. 165). While perceptions of parental involvement and business involvement were rated low, overall, OOCMSI allowed for the incorporation of stakeholders from outside of the school as well as decision-making based on data to lead to school improvement. These partnerships lead to “enhanced and expanded funding streams” (Anderson-Butcher, 2010, p. 166). OOCMSI included the utilization of a school social worker, and the results of the pilot were supportive of incorporating this position into the school environment.

Muijs (2007) implored a qualitative study of the perceptions of the collaborative efforts involved between schools and community organizations in full-service schools in England. Muijs’ (2007) research involved case studies of eight schools in “socioeconomically disadvantaged areas” of North East England (p. 350). Beyond document analysis, Muijs interviewed members of school leadership as well as one teacher and one person from a community agency involved in a school partnership from each site. Some challenges that emerged from the data involved differing perspectives/approaches by the schools and community organizations: “A clear conflict is in evidence between the focus on academic achievement of schools and the focus on affective and social outcomes of agency staff, which evidences itself in complaints about lower standards from some school staff” (Muijs, 2007, p. 360). This finding supports the best practices outlined in the other articles in this section which emphasize sharing a vision and effective communication. Muijs also found that for the schools in his study “where both strong moral purpose regarding multiagency work and distributed leadership occurred, perceptions of multi-agency work were more positive” (Muijs, 2007, p. 360). Again, this finding echoes the need for blended staffing where both the school and community program are equally represented. Muijs emphasizes the need for diligence in establishing shared views of student outcomes for full-service schools to be successful.

Family Involvement

This section offers concrete examples of positive gains made by family-school initiatives. In a longitudinal study on high school-family connections, the nature of family-school-community partnerships, the impact of school-family connections on student success, and family responses to high school outreach were examined. The analysis was based on parent reports from more than 11,000 and 1,000 high school principals from the National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988, a longitudinal study following a cohort of students through middle school, high school and into postsecondary schooling or careers (Simon, 2001). School principles and parents were surveyed and followed over time. A nationally representative sample of 24,599 8th grade students from 1,052 students were also surveyed and followed over time into senior high school. Information was collected on characteristics and practices of school, family and community connections.

The results show that parent-school partnering/collaboration occurs through the following mediums: 1) parenting workshops on college planning, drug and alcohol abuse prevention, 2) parent-teacher conferences to discuss students' progress, challenges and concerns, 3) parent volunteering in school activities (informal or out-of-class activities), 4) Parent assistance with learning at home, 5) parent contributions to school governance and decision-making, when PTA opportunities are available, and 6) parent collaborations with the community organizations on topics of college readiness/post-secondary planning (pp. 10-11). In terms of family impact on student success, the results indicate that, after controlling for factors such as ethnicity, family structure, gender, students' prior achievement and socioeconomic status, "when parents were involved in various ways, teenagers earned higher grades in English and math, completed more credits in English and math, had better attendance and behavior, and came to class more prepared to learn" (p. 12).

In a study conducted by Fan (2001) the effects of parental involvement on students' academic growth during high school was examined. The following research questions guided the study:

1. How is "parental involvement" defined and operationally measured? What are the major dimensions of parental involvement?"
2. Are there any measurable differences in parental involvement among the major ethnic and racial groups in the United States?
3. What longitudinal effect does parental involvement have on students' academic growth during high school when students are becoming increasingly dependent?
4. Does the data source for reporting parental involvement (student vs. parent reporting) make any difference in assessing the effect of parental involvement on students' academic growth? Is such an effect, or lack thereof, consistent across the major ethnic and racial groups? (p. 27).

Data from the National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988 were analyzed in relation to these questions. In terms of analytic method, a latent growth curve analysis within the framework of structural equation modeling was employed. Standardized test scores measured student academic achievement and school grades (p. 30), and four ethnic groups were sampled, including Asian-Americans, African-Americans, Hispanics and Whites. Some minority groups were intentionally oversampled to produce more stable estimates given their smaller population (p. 33). Dimensions of parental involvement, dimensions of ethnic group differences in parental involvement, academic achievement growth patterns by ethnic groups, and total samples of academic achievement by ethnic groups were adjusted for and analyzed. Results of the study revealed that parental involvement consists of fairly independent dimensions, and that reported degrees of parental involvement of the four major ethnic groups were comparable, once the analysis was adjusted for variables of socio-economic status.

Significantly, parents' education aspiration for their children stood out as the most obvious positive effect on students' academic growth, which correlates to the final finding that the effects, or lack thereof, of parental involvement on students' academic growth were consistent (p. 57).

In another study, Epstein and Sheldon (2002) investigated the effects of parental involvement on student absenteeism over the course of one year, highlighting improved absenteeism as an indicator of successful family-school collaboration. Baseline surveys were originally administered to solicit information about schools' goals for attendance, prior attendance rates, and family and community-involvement practices related to attendance. Twelve elementary schools were selected for the study. Information was then gathered from schools on background/demographic variables, attendance variables, family involvement variables, school-based attendance practices and their intended uses, and school-initiated communication with families. Information was gathered via attendance records, previously collected information from the National Network of Partnership Schools, and four-point scale surveys. The study revealed that school-home collaborations resulted in slight, but positive gains in student attendance. Some positive school-home collaborations were identified from the study, to include: 1) communicating about attendance with diverse families, 2) providing a school contact person for parents to call, 3) holding workshops on student attendance, and 4) conducting home visits (p. 17). Overall, the study concluded that schools are more likely to improve student attendance when they a) take a comprehensive approach to attendance, involving students, families and the greater community in activities; (b) use positive involvement activities as opposed to punitive ones; and (c) sustain the initiative to improve attendance over time.

In one final example, Ramirez (2001) examines the issues that arise from discussion about parental involvement among teachers, parents and administrators. In other words, the study investigates participants' interpretations of parental involvement within their respective schools. The study sampled four high schools in two states (California and Indiana). The schools represented a balance of urban and rural, ethnically homogenous and heterogeneous, public and parochial conditions. The study also employed a mixed methods approach consisting of interviews, observations, and document review. Data collection efforts were distributed in the following ways: 1) 50 teachers (25 male and 25 female) and eight administrators (3 male and 5 female) were interviewed on the phenomenon of parental involvement; 2) parental involvement in school-sponsored events, such as faculty meetings, athletic and drama productions were observed to develop a sense of ease among the study's participants, and 3) school documents, such as faculty handbooks, parent handbooks, newsletters, and previous research attempts (parent telephone survey) were reviewed and analyzed to understand school-home communication patterns.

Results of the study point to "communication" as the central aspect around which school-home relationships thrive and fail. In this case, a lack of school-initiated communication combined with miscommunication colored the relationship between most participants. Teachers, administrators and parents confirmed that communication usually occurred around negative situations rather than positive reports of child progress. Teacher workload and time constraints affected the situation. Information mailers and newspapers were also raised by parents as problematic, as one in five of school county residents at one school is functionally illiterate. Due to parents' inconsistent commitments to school functions (particularly single parent homes), often teachers' solutions were to preemptively limit parental involvement to at-home activities. While administrators generally wanted more parental involvement in school life, they were unable to implement effective strategies. Finally, parents felt they were caught in a lose-lose conundrum, saying that their active involvement was perceived by teachers as "nosey," while their lack of involvement was frequently interpreted as lazy or "not caring." In other words, teachers tended to radicalize parent positions (p. 8). All in all, the study raises questions about "whether or not schools are responding to the needs of parents and

students. It is suggested that teachers at the high school level would need to investigate how to implement strategies to improve communication with families, involve families, yet feel that extra work is not being placed upon their shoulders.”

Leadership

Given the challenges of school-family cooperation, this review suggests the central importance of strong administrative leadership to not only offer visions, but effective, concrete strategies for creating stakeholder buy-in. Brown and Beckett (2007) offer an analysis of effective leadership in a study of Cincinnati Public Schools (CPS), building on previous research on African-American leadership in schools. The literature shows that African-American school leaders with a predominately African-American student body are successful at forging partnerships between schools, communities, and families. Faced with skyrocketing behavioral problems and poor retention rates, the superintendent of Cincinnati Public Schools (CPS) began discussions with stakeholders in order to create an alternative school—Project Succeed Academy. Brown and Beckett (2007) use a case study approach to uncover “how an urban school district was able to overcome barriers to communication across ethnic and socioeconomic lines and build community on the issue of student behavior and academic achievement” (p. 11). The researchers use participant observations as well as document analysis. It must be noted that one of the authors of the article was one of the key leaders in the School District.

The study builds on research that describes the important role that African-American principals played during segregation in maneuvering between the “White power structure” and the Black community (p. 17). The site school of this study began as an afterschool program which became a separate school that operates twelve months a year. The school seeks to approach students with behavioral problems in a holistic manner and fully involve parents in the decision-making of the school. Since its inception in the late 1990s, the school has seen increased graduation rates for students who return to non-alternative schools, as well as improved attendance rates and parental involvement. Critical to the school’s success was the principal’s “ability to communicate with Black parents” (Brown and Beckett, 2007, p. 26). The principal was also able to “mediate” conversations between the Black and White communities in order to create the school’s new conflict resolution techniques, revise discipline actions, establish boards, and develop health and wellness programs. Ultimately, this study demonstrates that an understanding of community culture is important to successful leadership.

Woody (2010) also offers insights as to what constitutes effective school leadership in the forging of lasting and meaningful school-family-community partnerships. In an effort to understand the practical approaches used to cultivate connections between an elementary school, its participants and constituents, Woody conducted a qualitative study on school principal and teacher leaders. Informal meetings, interviews, and document review were the basis of his methodology. An analysis of data collected produced several insights about what it means to be an effective leader in the context of forging school change and partnerships. Given the importance of strong leadership and yet the physical limits of educational leaders, Woody realized that the school leaders he investigated were successful in the following tasks: 1) “Artful” delegation, which is based on the interpersonal relationships cultivated throughout the years and an approach that explicitly recognizes that everyone works hard; and 2) Democratic leadership, by spreading power and authority in order to foster school and community buy-in (pp. 152-153). For example, Woody makes strategic planning recommendations based on an observed model of leadership, in which individuals share equally in planning, decision-making, and the pursuit of collectively agreed upon goals. This vision of leadership challenges existing hierarchal models, not only because of the fact that leadership is shared across positions, but also because leadership duties are distributed

among traditionally non-administrative positions, such as school social workers, teachers and counselors (p. 139). The third task school leaders were successful in was modeling enthusiasm and transparency. This is critical in the maintaining of the supportive energies of teachers, families and community members. Word of mouth transfers information and cultivates reputations in partnership situations, so staff, and particularly principals, should “work at a pace that pushes the community forward, but also eliminates risks of internal distress” (p. 153) and derailment.

Promise Neighborhoods & Community-based Initiatives

The relative newness of the Promise Neighborhoods and similar community-based educational initiatives means that empirically based evaluation studies of program impact are difficult to find. Longitudinal studies are equally rare. Thus, this section offers three research studies that have gone a ways toward either developing research frameworks or measuring program outcomes.

The first study presented, the Indicators Project, is an action-research project designed to review and document the contributions/accomplishments of community organizing in low income, minority neighborhoods across the country. The project grew out of the Cross City Campaign for Urban School Reform’s (CCC) Schools and Community program and in collaboration with Research for Action (RFA), a non-profit educational research organization. The goal of the study is to identify observable outcomes in schools and student learning. (Gold, 2002, p. 7). Indicators of success were created after observing activities of organizing groups across multiple urban neighborhood sites. To develop an indicators framework, the RFA and CCC first conducted a nationwide search for community organization groups working on school reform. A database was then created of 140 such organizations. Of the 140 organizations, 19 were selected for lengthy telephone interviews, the transcripts from which were analyzed to produce a preliminary indicators framework. Five groups were then selected as case studies with the help of a national advisory group. The RFA and CCC staff conducted two site-visits lasting three days each in Spring and Fall of 2000, during which time interviews were conducted with parents, teachers, administrators, elected officials, and education reform groups. School and community events related to local organizing efforts were also observed. From these research efforts, eight indicator areas were refined from the initial framework. They are as follows: 1) leadership development, 2) community power, 3) social capital, 4) public accountability, 5) equity, 6) school/community connections, 7) positive school climate, and 8) high quality instruction and curriculum (p. 7).

The second study presented is also an indicators study of the Harlem Children’s Zone (HCZ), recently published through Communities in Schools (CIS) non-profit research organization in 2009. The Harlem Children’s Zone (HCZ) used a “results framework” to guide the development of indicators that might be used to assess Promise Neighborhoods across sites in the future. The following represent the HCZ’s overarching project outcomes or “results”, for which the indicators were developed: a) Children are healthy and prepared for school entry; b) Children and youth are healthy and succeed in school; c) Youth graduate from high school and college; and d) Families and neighborhoods support the healthy development, academic success, and well-being of their children (Harlem Children’s Zone, 2010). While the above represents initiative-wide outcomes, local sites can develop additional outcomes relevant and appropriate to the priorities of their communities (Jean-Louis et al., 2010, p. 3-4). The HCZ and CIS took from two types of federally guided indicators to develop their own indicators framework. These indicators include those that allow communities to track program process year to year, as improved academic success is achieved over a number of years, and those that measure program capacity to achieve results, such as indicators that assess teacher quality to ultimately improve student academic success (Jean-Louis et al., 2010). That is, the study relied on national surveys measuring demographics, health and safety, education, crime, and child

welfare across a variety of large cities and urban school districts, which helped the study to develop a recommended results and indicators framework for Promise Neighborhoods (Moore et al., 2009, p. 3).³

The Brookings Institute conducted another study of the Harlem Children's Zone, in which it sought to answer the following question: "Does the HCZ produce exceptional academic achievement?" The 2007-2009 data from the New York State Department of Education was used, including English language arts and math test results from all schools in New York and school demographic information. Two HCZ schools were included in the state database. The Common Core of Data from the National Center for Education Statistics was also used to identify which schools in the State database were charter schools. To compare the effectiveness of HCZ schools with other charter schools, data from the following grades were used: SY 2007: Grades 6, 7, and 8; SY 2008: Grades 3, 7, and 9; SY 2009: Grades 3, 4, 5, and 8 (Whitehurst, 2010, p. 3).

The initial analysis compared the average test scores for HCZ with the average test scores of all other charter schools in Manhattan and the Bronx for the grades and subjects mentioned above. A parallel analysis was conducted (with statistical adjustments) for student demographic backgrounds. Actual and adjusted percentile scores revealed that students attending the HCZ Promise Academy Charter School performed at average rates relative to other NYC schools. "Considering mathematics and English language arts jointly...half or more of the public charter schools in Manhattan and the Bronx test scores on state assessments...are superior to those produced by the HCZ Promise Academy." The report did suggest that mathematics, relative to the English language arts, is HCZ's stronger suit (Whitehurst, 2010, p. 6). These results should not discount that the students attending HCZ Promise Academy are doing "impressively better than students of their backgrounds attending a typical public school in NYC" (Whitehurst, 2010, p. 6). It is this relative progress that likely compelled Secretary Arne Duncan to make the claim that the HCZ was determined to boost math achievement, reduce dropout rates and is one of the only dropout-prevention programs in the U.S. to increase the proportion of students who graduate from high school with a regular diploma (Duncan, 2009). Overall, the Brookings Institute report presents mixed results. On the one hand, credible studies exist that charter schools in NYC produce superior gains for students relative to traditional schools in the city (Whitehurst, 2010, p. 6). On the other hand, "there is no compelling evidence that investments in parenting classes, health services, nutritional programs, and community improvement in general have appreciable effects on student achievement in schools in the U.S." (Whitehurst, 2010, p. 7).

While the studies in this section are not all based on empirical research, the consistency of the findings is, overall, encouraging. Other programs, communities, and schools, who seek to establish partnerships to maximize resources and improve student learning and development, should consider the key concepts identified by the literature.

Conclusion: Guiding Principles & Indicators of Readiness

None of the literature reviewed directly states when or how institutions know if they are ready to implement a complementary/comprehensive education program. This might be attributed to the relative newness of research in the area, and a lack of empirical, evaluation-based evidence that can confidently offer models of institutional readiness. Current literature is heavily case study-oriented, which speaks to the diversity of circumstances that schools and communities experience as they work towards complementary/comprehensive educational futures. In other words, studies mostly conclude that context is paramount to the development of these systems, as they require a variety of circumstances, resources, and school-community efforts to succeed. Institutional readiness can be inferred, however, from the indicators of

³ The framework is too extensive to quote at length. Please refer to Table 1 and 2 of attachment A of Jean-Louis et al. (2010) pp. 10-14. The report can be found at: www.urbanstrategies.org.

need and recommended best practices evident in the literature. Below is a summary of guiding principles for developing and maintaining comprehensive/complementary systems, distilled across the literature, and broken down by key areas. Institutions may consider using them as driving frameworks when considering their capacities and limits for promoting, developing and maintaining complementary/comprehensive educational programs.

Community Need & Collaboration

The literature reviewed teaches us that understanding one's community needs is vital to developing a functional network of educational supports. Every community is unique in terms of its population, schools, culture and socio-economic challenges: "Every human community holds in common some beliefs that necessarily create boundaries, including some people and excluding others" (Woody, 2010, pp. 137-138). Taking proper steps to account for the needs that arise out of collective community circumstances goes a ways towards ensuring stakeholder commitment to the challenging task of developing comprehensive/complementary schooling or support networks.⁴ Community commitment might be achieved through various needs assessment activities, to include researching with other like-minded community organizations, holding school or town hall meetings, and, in general, creating opportunity for discussion, contribution and co-organizing (Anderson-Butcher et al., 2010; Yamauchi, 2009; Gold, 2002).

Leadership

As Brown and Beckett (2009) and Woody (2010) demonstrate, superintendents, principals and assistant principals play a critical role in the strategic planning and development of school-family-community partnerships. They are the principle organizers, motivators, managers and ambassadors of schools (Woody, 2010, p. 149). Power-sharing (delegation of responsibilities), brokering communication between parties, acknowledging teacher and staff workloads/efforts, revising policies and procedures, and boosting the momentum of partnership engagement through proactive gestures of support are just some of the ways in which school leaders can take responsibility for the planning and development of school-family-community partnerships. Furthermore, while school administrators may lead partnership efforts, these approaches include the sharing of responsibility with community partners who possess the same student-centered vision.

Developmental Programs & Holistic Approaches

Programs that address aspects of student welfare beyond classroom life and academics are key to the idea of "holistic" treatment that comprehensive/complementary educational systems serve. While academic achievement and graduation may be the benchmarks of student success, a plethora of factors contribute to these results. Comprehensive/complementary initiatives embrace a developmental perspective of education, assuming that, for example, emotional and physical health provisions, early exposure to reading, parental interventions, and afterschool activities are a part of a network of redundant supports that reinforce conditions for educational success. Related to this is the recommendation that comprehensive/complementary systems should address student welfare through the welfare of families and neighborhoods. As demonstrated by the Harlem Children's Zone (HCZ) and others, prenatal programs, home-placement programs, parent education programs, and employment centers attend to actors and factors that impact student wellbeing, and ultimately, their ability to educationally succeed.

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See Boethel (2000) pp. 16-17 for examples of community and school needs assessment instruments.

Family-School Communication & Collaboration

Sanders (2001) summarization of family-school relations puts it well: “All parents want their children to succeed in school; however, not all parents know how to best support their children as learners” (p. 16). She makes the point of saying that schools are in the best position to reach out and increase family involvement in partnership activities. As the studies reviewed have suggested, school-family communication is commonly intermittent or infrequent. When it does occur, the topic of discussion is usually negative (ex. student behavior or academic failure). Furthermore, parent involvement is typically not encouraged (Ramirez 2001; Sanders 2001), either based on misguided perceptions that parents are not willing or able, or that teachers do not welcome outside input. While this might be more typical than not, Sanders’s (2001) study demonstrates that parents are more committed to involving themselves in their children’s education beyond what schools often assume, and are particularly likely to be active in attending information workshops, school activities, and helping with homework (p. 10). Thus, school-initiated communication is key to positively and programmatically committing families to involvement in their children’s educational affairs. It should be kept in mind that parent/family buy-in is a necessary pre-requisite to sustain family-school communication and cooperation. This might mean identifying and resolving perception gaps that exist between teachers and parents (Woody, 2010, 147). Only then can shared responsibility for student services take place. It is often when partnerships are weak that trust and vision-sharing becomes compromised. Overworked teachers, weakened administrative leadership, and disengaged parents are potential consequences of an initiative that is not collaboratively organized from the start (Ramirez, 2001)

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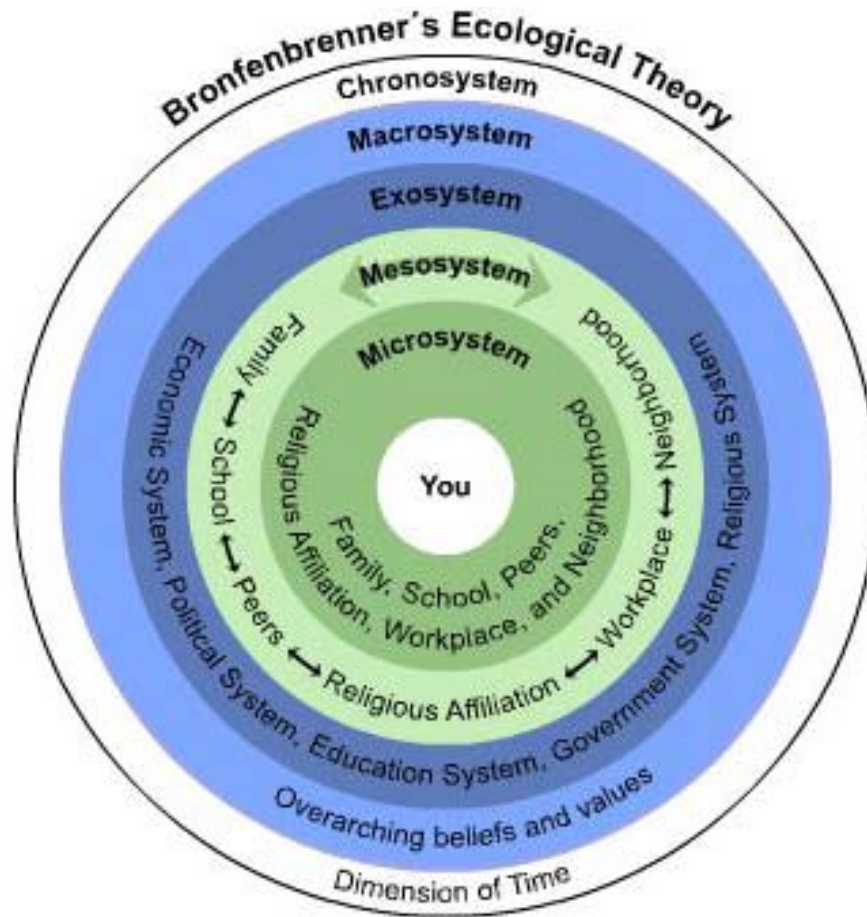
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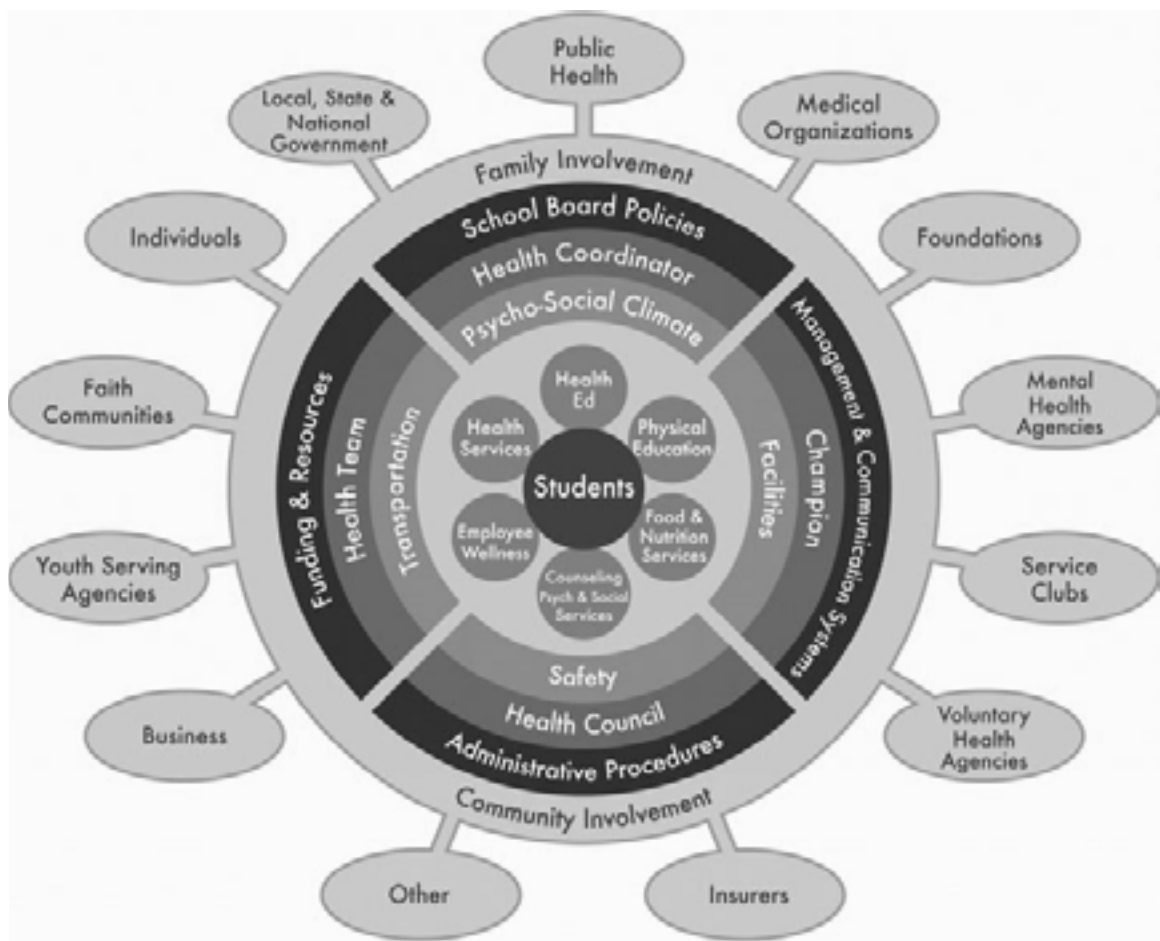
APPENDIX A



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APPENDIX B

Coordinated School Health Program Ecological Model



Taken from Lohrmann (2010). Copyright permission not requested.

APPENDIX C

Matrix C: Program Examples

Program	Type	Objective	Elements	Cited In
Schools and Community in Ogden Partnership for Excellence (SCOPE) Ogden, UT	Full service community school	To address external needs of students and families, so that children can achieve academically.	Head Start classes; Tutoring Mental health counseling ESL classes; Spanish classes GED classes Childcare provided Health fairs	Butler (2010)
Beacon Initiative (NYC)	School-based community centers	To provide safe, structured, supervised activities for children, youth and families.	Offers a range of services and activities for all age groups across multiple sites during afterschool hours, evenings and weekends.	Warren, Feist & Nevarez (2002)
Public Education Network (PEN)	Full-service school	To address academic and nonacademic barriers to student learning and success by forging relationships between public schools and other community-based programs to provide comprehensive supports for students. PEN emphasizes the participation of the public in the creation and continuation of community schools.	Conduct needs assessment Secure governance and administrative structures Place programs and supports in public schools Put into place evaluation mechanisms Build partnership that can advocate for needed resources and policies to sustain program structures	Tagle (2005)

Program	Type	Objective	Elements	Cited In
George Washington Community High School (GWCHS). Partnership with Indiana University-Purdue University Indiana (IUPUI)	Community school	To offer an array of services to students and community members in the context of closing and consolidating schools.	College students coach cheerleading; Assist school nurse; Conduct fitness classes; Train athletes Provide tutoring; Offer art classes; Offer community events, such as family nights, meals and health fairs Offer rooms for community use Provides swimming pool and wellness center	Bringle, Officer, Grim, & Hatcher (2009)
Miami-Dade's "Connected Schools" Parent Academy	Family-school partnership	A community-wide initiative to help parents earn about their roles, rights, responsibilities and opportunities to support their children's learning.	Host workshops Host educational and cultural events Resource sharing and referrals Co-develop curriculum and events with parents and community	Weiss et al. (2009)
After-School CollegeEd	Family-school partnership	To build purposeful connections among families, schools and community health agencies to support families in planning for college.	A program targeting Latino students Home visits Promote opportunities for parents	Weiss et al. (2009)
The Future and Families Program (F&F)	Family-school partnership	To help Latino high school families prepare for college	Three year bilingual outreach program for parents.	Harvard Family Research Project (2007)

Program	Type	Objective	Elements	Cited In
Parent Institute for Quality Education (PIQE)	Family-school partnership	To motivate low-income parents to become proactive in the search for educational opportunities for their children	Informational program focusing on low-income ethnically diverse families Offers classes aimed at Pre-K, elementary, middle and high school involvement practices	Harvard Family Research Project (2007)
Oakland Community Organizations (OCO)	Community-Based Organization	To build political alliances to win improved conditions for schools and youth in community.	Advocate for school-to-career programs, reduced class size, after-school homework clubs, charter schools and smaller schools	Gold (2002)
Future City Project	Action Research Program	For students to understand importance of agency and collaboration to create neighborhood change	Students engage in research project to build a futuristic city with the help of community members and professionals	Taylor & Glynn (2009)
Math/Science Equity Program (MSEP)	Action Research Program	To bring about educational change through community collaboration with African American parents, community organizations, universities and public schools. To reduce the race gaps in higher level math and science course enrollments.	Workshop series "Helping Ourselves Mold Education (HOME)", co-created by community groups, parents, schools and aimed at parental involvement. Workshops are held across multiple public sites. Parallel children's math and science program. Meals provided for parents and children to share.	Cousins, Mickelson, Williams & Velasco (2008)
Harlem Children's Zone	AfterZone, SafeZone or Promise Neighborhoods	To provide a pipeline of comprehensive supports with across entire developmental continuum to combat degenerative effects of poverty and crime, and in turn improve educational outcomes in Harlem neighborhoods	Afterschool programs; Community centers Organize tenant associations; Family counseling Pre-natal programs; Nutrition/health programs Foster care prevention programs Employment and technology centers	Harlem Children's Zone (2010) Moore et al. (2009)

Program	Type	Objective	Elements	Cited In
Service-learning Programs	Component of community-based schooling	1) To give students opportunity to assume meaningful roles in the community that build their sense of value, competence and connectedness to others. 2) To mitigate negative effects of school transitions that can negatively impact self esteem, attitudes towards school and academic competencies.	No specific program examined. Outcomes of study elaborated in Matrix of Available Data.	Scales, Blyth, Berkas & Keilsmeier (2000)
Culture/Place-based Education Programs	Component of complementary learning system – the inclusion of families and communities	1) To serve the cultural, linguistic and sometimes religious needs of communities. 2) To provide a safe context in which students can explore their identities. 3) To holistically address student needs by purposefully integrating their culture, language and belief systems into curriculum, connecting them to community histories and different ways of knowing.	Experiential Hands-on Project-based Constructivist Student-centered Community-driven Integrative Problem-oriented Team-based	Popkin & Smith (2009); Ledward (2009); Castagno and Brayboy (2008); Kana'iaupuni (2007); Gruenewald (2003); Kana'iaupuni, Ledward, Malone & Jensen (n.d.)
Hawaiian Studies Program (HSP)	Place-based program in rural public high school in Hawai'i	To address dropout and achievement of students in the community who are mostly of Native Hawaiian ancestry.	Constructivist program framework Student-focused curriculum Students and teachers as co-creators of knowledge Community-member participants in school programs Includes service-learning component	Yamauchi & Purcell (2009)

Program	Type	Objective	Elements	Cited In
Ohio Community Collaboration Model for School Improvement (OCCMSI)	Community School	To facilitate youth development, health and social services, parent-family engagement and community partnerships.	<p>Planning milestones</p> <p>Assign stakeholders to planning teams</p> <p>Planning team assesses the academic and non-academic needs of the school</p> <p>Teams create a plan for partnerships and interventions to address needs not being met quickly enough</p> <p>Teams create leadership structures</p> <p>Teams make data-driven decisions in constant evaluation of how partnerships are working</p>	Anderson-Burcher et al. (2010)

APPENDIX D

Matrix D: Available Data

Research Question	Study Description	Method	Outcome	Citations
<p>1) How do teachers grapple with the pedagogical challenges of community-based education?</p> <p>2) How do teachers and students create and experience classroom curriculum to support community-school partnerships?</p> <p>3) What are the essential components of community-based education in the classroom? 4) What insight can the successes and challenges of a community-based education program offer to interested educators?</p>	Evaluation of the Second Tuesday Project – senior capstone project for students interested in human services at Jefferson public high school.	Participant observations Interviews Qualitative analysis	<p>Found that 1) logistical flexibility; 2) communication and planning, and 3) curricular connectivity significantly contributed to the challenges and success of students and teachers involved in the program.</p> <p>Findings resulted in the need for curriculum that helps students make explicit connections between their service projects and larger curricular goals and concepts.</p>	Cole (2010)
None mentioned	Evaluation of Pilot project - Ohio Community Collaboration Model for School Improvement (OCCMSI)	Survey to teachers and staff Phone interviews Contact person served as consultant to researchers	<p>Teachers and school staff felt that participation in the project brought critical resources to the school and helped build school's capacity to manage expanded school improvement strategies.</p> <p>Overall perceptions of parental involvement and business involvement were rated low, but results revealed that the program allowed for the incorporation of stake-holders from outside the school, and decision-making based on data leading to school improvement.</p>	Anderson-Butcher et al. (2010)

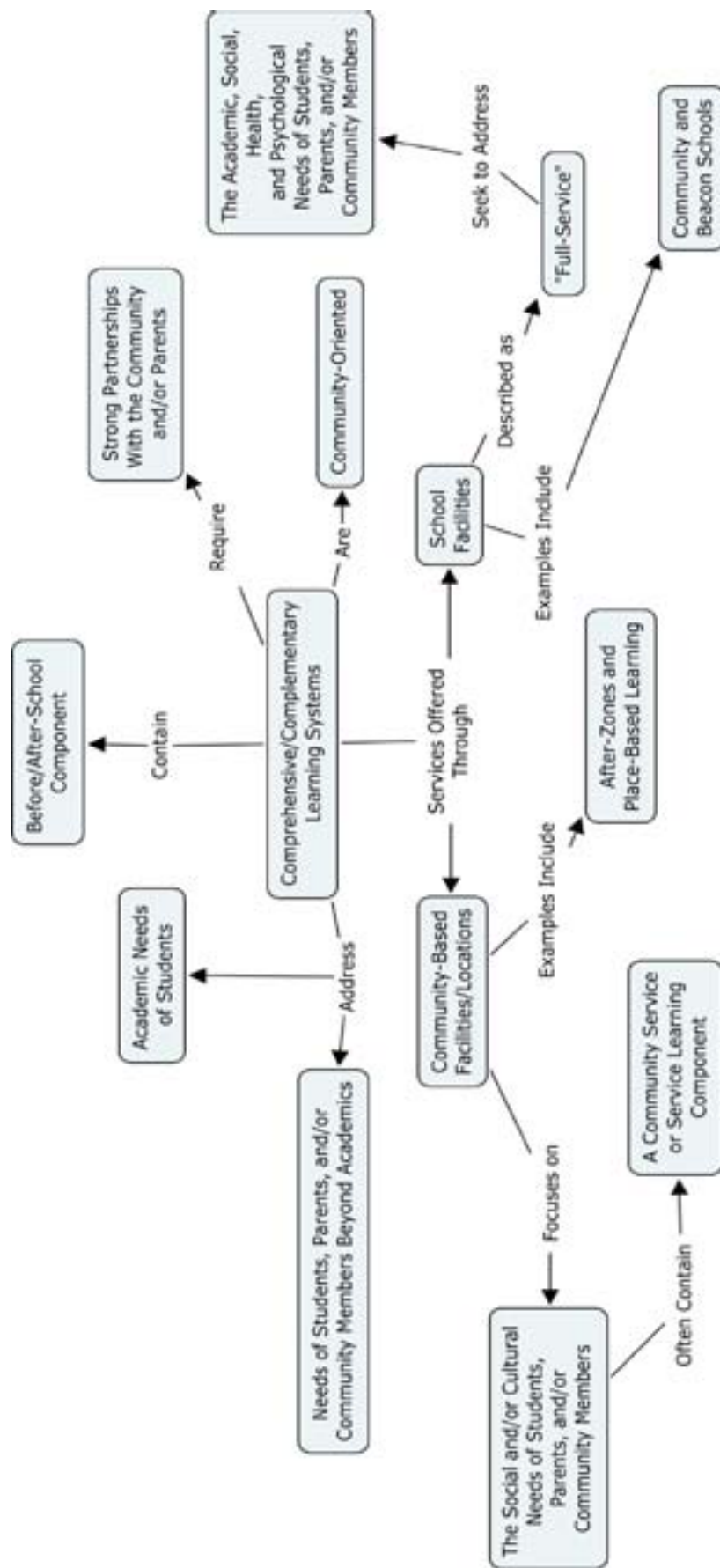
Research Question	Study Description	Method	Outcome	Citations
What are the perceptions surrounding the collaborative efforts between schools and community organizations in full service schools in England?	Case study evaluation of 8 schools in low SES areas in North East England.	Qualitative study Document analysis Interviews with school leadership and teachers	Found that conflict exists between focus on academic achievement of schools and focus on affective and social outcomes of agency staff, resulting in complaints about lower standards from some school staff.	Muijs (2007)
1) What is the nature of family-school-community partnerships? 2) What is the impact of school-family connections on student success? 3) What are family responses to high school outreach?	Longitudinal study 1,052 students surveyed from nationally representative sample of 24,599 8th grade students, who were followed thru to senior high school. Analysis based on parent reports from 11,000, and 1000 high school principals from the NELS 1998 longitudinal study.	Surveys Document review	Parent-school collaboration occurs thru following mediums: 1) parenting workshops on college planning, drug and alcohol abuse prevention; 2) parent-teacher conferences to discussion student progress and concerns; 3) parent volunteering in school activities; 4) parent assistance with learning at home; 5) parent contributions to school governance and decision making (ex. PTA); 6) parent collaborations with community orgs on topics of college readiness/post-secondary planning. Parental involvement leads to positive student outcomes: higher grades in English and math, more credits completed in English and math, better attendance and behavior, and better preparation to learn.	Simon (2001)
How is an urban school district able to overcome barriers to communication across ethnic and socioeconomic lines and building community on the issue of student behavior and achievement?	Case study on effective African American leadership in Cincinnati Public Schools.	Participant observations Document analysis	Principal's ability to communicate with Black parents; mediate conversations between Black and White communities, resolve conflict was critical. Understanding community culture is linked to school success.	Brown & Beckett (2007)

Research Question	Study Description	Method	Outcome	Citations
What are the effects of parental involvement on student absenteeism?	One-year study involving 12 elementary schools. Information was gathered on background/demographic variables, attendance variables, family involvement variables, school-based attendance practices and school-initiated communication with families.	Document review (attendance records; National Network of Partnership Schools) Baseline surveys used to select schools to participate	Positive home-school collaborations found: 1) Communication about attendance w/ families; 2) Provide parents w/ contact person for parents to call; 3) Holding workshop on student attendance; 4) Conducting home visits. Overall conclusions: Student attendance most likely improved when schools 1) take comprehensive approach; 2) Use positive involvement activities vs. punitive actions; and 3) Sustain initiatives to improve attendance over time.	Epstein and Sheldon (2002)
What are the issues that arise from discussion about parental involvement among teachers, parents and administrators?	Study sampling 4 high schools in two states (CA, IN) that investigates participants' interpretations of parental involvement within their respective schools.	Interviews (50 teachers; 8 administrators) Participant observations Document review (handbooks, newsletters, previous eval data)	Communication is the central aspect around with home-school relationships succeed or fail. 1) Lack of school-initiated communication and negative communication a problem; 2) Mailers/newsletters problematic for low SES families that are illiterate; 3) Parents are inconsistently involved 4) Teachers preemptively exclude parents; 5) Administrators want more family involvement but no effective strategies.	Ramirez (2001)

Research Question	Study Description	Method	Outcome	Citations
<p>1) How is parental involvement defined and measured? What are its dimensions?</p> <p>2) Are there any differences in parental involvement among ethnic and racial groups?</p> <p>3) What longitudinal effects does parental involvement have on academic growth in HS?</p> <p>4) Does the data source for reporting parental involvement make any difference in assessing the effect of parental involvement on students' academic growth?</p>	<p>Study on the effects of parental involvement on students' academic growth during high school. Dimensions of parental involvement, ethnic group differences in parental involvement, and academic achievement patterns analyzed.</p>	<p>Data/document review (NELS 1988 data)</p> <p>Latent growth curve analysis w/in structural equation modeling</p>	<p>1) Parental involvement consists of fairly independent dimensions; 2) Reported degrees of parental involvement of the major ethnic groups were comparable; 3) Parents' education aspirations for their children found to have the most obvious and positive impact on students' academic growth.</p>	<p>Fan (2001)</p>

Research Question	Study Description	Method	Outcome	Citations
What are the observable outcomes in schools and student learning as a result of community organizing initiatives?	Indicators Project – action research project designed to review and document contributions of community organizing in low-income, minority neighborhoods across U.S. Project developed “indicators” of program impact.	Database creation of 140 orgs 19 selected for phone interviews Five selected as case studies Site visits Interviews Observations of local organizing efforts	Eight (8) indicators developed: 1) Leadership development 2) Community power 3) Social capital 4) Public accountability 5) Equity 6) School-community connections 7) Positive school climate 8) High quality instruction and curriculum	Gold (2002)
What are the indicators that can be used to assess Promise Neighborhoods across sites?	Indicators study	Data and document review. National surveys	Indicators framework developed, which measures demographics, health and safety, education, crime and child welfare across large cities and urban school districts. *See Moore 2009 for details of framework.	Harlem Children's Zone (2010) Jean-Louis et al. (2010) Moore (2009)
Does the Harlem Children's Zone (HCZ) produce exceptional academic achievement?	Brookings Institute study comparing achievement between HCZ schools and charter schools in NYC.	Common Core of Data from NCES Comparative analysis of grades and test scores	Mixed results. HCZ grades and test scores reflected the average of existing range. However, HCZ students doing impressively better than students of their backgrounds in typical public schools in NYC.	Whitehurst (2010)

Matrix E: Concept Map of Common Elements of Comprehensive/Complementary Learning Systems



APPENDIX F

Matrix F: Comparison of Comprehensive/Complementary Learning Systems, School with Non-Coordinated Community Efforts, and School Only Systems

Element	Comprehensive/ Complementary Learning Systems	School with Non-Coordinated Community Efforts	School Only
Partnerships With Parents	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Critical to the success of C/C Learning Systems • Parents have shared governance in some C/C systems 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Similar involvement as "School Only": PTA, Parent-Teacher Conferences, etc. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Minimal through PTA, Parent-Teacher Conferences, etc.
Partnerships With Community	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strong partnerships necessary for resources to sustain programs • Shared management between school and community members/organizations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Necessary at a basic level (for example, coordinating use of school facilities with principal) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Minimal and not coordinated, if at all
Academic Needs of Students	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Met not only through classroom activities, but also before/after-school programs • Student learning necessary as a goal of stakeholders 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Varies based on programs offered (for example, a tutoring program would have this as a core element; however, after-school sports may focus on team-work and physical fitness) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Met through basic classroom instruction • Core to stakeholders
Needs of Students Beyond Academics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All C/C Systems will strive to meet at least some needs beyond academics • "Full-Service" Systems will seek to meet health, social, and psychological needs of students • Ecological model of student development/learning • Require strong partnerships between stakeholders 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Varies based on programs offered 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Some efforts, mostly through classroom instruction (health, physical education, citizenship classes) • Most schools will have school nurse and/or counselor
Before/After-School Component	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Required to meet needs of students, parents, and/or community members • Either school or community facilities will serve as hub for these activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Many non-coordinated efforts will happen through before/after-school programs • Usually offered by community organizations who work with schools 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rarely an element of school-only systems; if so, teacher, student, or principal-driven (could lead to burn-out, or programs discontinuing when someone matriculates, quits, retires, etc.)
Needs of Parents and/or Community Members	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Necessary for C/C Systems because meeting needs of parents/community help to improve students' environment (and therefore, learning) • Various programs offered including ESL courses, tutoring, social workers, health fairs/services, etc. • Service-learning/community service 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Varies based on program, but some programs will be community-oriented 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Minimal, if at all. Some school-only systems will have community service or other programs that seek to improve the local area (again, often driven by one person)