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III Components of good programs - How to

IV Resources



PARTNERSHIP
for Family
Involvement
in Education

The Study of Opportunities for and Barriers to Family Involvement in Education

PRELIMINARY RESULTS

A Survey Sponsored by the Partnership for Family Involvement in Education,
the U.S. Department of Education, and the GTE Foundation
Conducted by the National Opinion Research Center at The University of Chicago



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Beyond the school day and the school year (Percent of all parents who:)			
	All Parents	Elementary School Parents	Middle School Parents
Have a child in an after-school program	35	32	39
Pay fees for an after-school program	18	19	17
Are interested in free after-school programs	79	77	82
Would pay a fee for an after-school program	74	73	76
Have a child in a school-based summer program	18	20	16
Paid for a school-based summer program	10	10	10
Are interested in a free school-based summer program	70	69	71
Would pay a fee for a school-based summer program	74	71	77

- Parents express a strong demand for after-school programs: 82 percent of parents have a child who attends an after-school program or would like their child to attend an after school program.

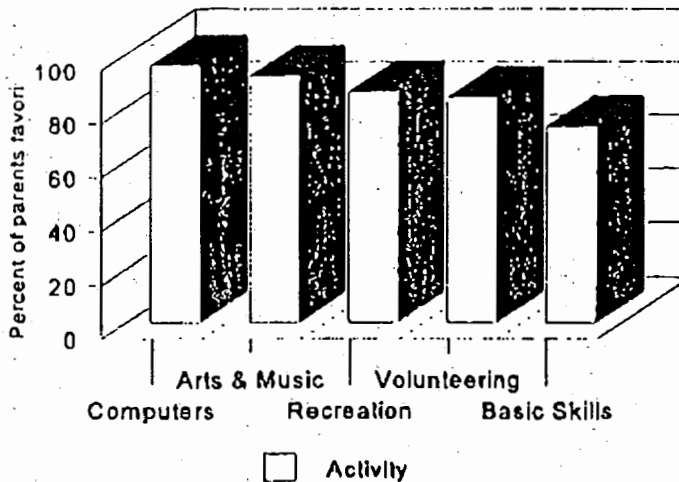
After-School Activities: What do parents want?

(Percent of parents with children in after-school programs or who would like their children to attend an after-school program reporting that their child would benefit from:)

	Parents Who Want or Use After-School Programs	Elementary School Parents	Middle School Parents
Computer technology classes	96	96	96
Arts, music and cultural programs	92	94	89
Supervised recreational activities	86	86	86
Community service or volunteer opportunities	84	77	91
Basic skills enrichment or tutoring	73	72	74

- Of these parents (who enroll or would like to enroll their child in an after-school program), 96 percent feel that their child would benefit from an after-school program that included computer technology classes and 92 percent feel that their child would benefit from arts, music and cultural after-school activities. Among middle school parents, 91 percent favor after-school community service or volunteer opportunities for their children.

After-School Activities



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OVERVIEW

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION'S AFTER-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES

Title I. The 1992 reauthorized Title of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (the Improving America's Schools Act) includes strong language recommending use of effective instructional strategies that "give primary consideration to providing extended learning time such as extended school year, before-and after-school, and summer programs and opportunities." In Spring 1996, 64 percent of principals in Title I schools reported using Title I funds for before or after-school efforts. The Department produced *Extending Learning Time for Disadvantaged Students: An Idea Book* in 1995.

21st Century Community Learning Centers. As part of the Improving America's Schools Act, after-school programs were encouraged through 21st Century Community Learning Centers. The Department is seeking \$50 million from Congress to fund about 500 pilots in FY 1998. The Senate has marked the appropriation at \$1 million while the House fully funded the program at the \$50 million.

Partnership for Family Involvement in Education. The Community Sector of the Partnership for Family Involvement in Education embraced bolstering after-school programs in the sign-on pledge. They also helped write a guidebook on keeping schools open for extended learning. Finally, the steering group of the Partnership voted to make after-school opportunities a nationwide initiative of the Partnership.

Keeping Schools Open Guidebook. In May, 1997, the First Lady released *Keeping Schools Open as Community Learning Centers: Extending Learning in a Safe, Drug-free Environment Before and After School*. The Department of Education wrote the step-by-step guidebook on how school facilities can be used for after-school programs with the National Community Education Association, Policy Studies Associates, and the America Bar Association.

America Reads Challenge. The President announced the America Reads Challenge in Summer 1996 that focuses on bringing all third graders up to basic proficiency on national reading tests through the use of volunteers working in before and after-school and summer programs. This summer, 1.5 million elementary school children were tutored through the summer component of the America Reads Challenge, READ*WRITE*NOW!

Summit Commitment. As part of the Presidents' Volunteer Summit, the Department pledged a nationwide effort to develop 1,000 new after-school partnerships by December 1997 through the 21st Century Community Learning Centers program.

America Goes Back to School. A major thrust of this year's America Goes Back to School: Answering the President's Call to Action has been on showcasing after-school programs. Every interested citizen writing in for a kit receives examples of after-school programs.

Family Reunion VI Survey. As part of the Vice President's Family Reunion VI conference, "Families and Learning," a survey sponsored by the U.S. Department of Education, the Partnership for Family Involvement in Education, and GTE found that 82 percent of parents have a child who attends an after-school program or would like their child to attend an after-school program. Computer classes, art and music courses, and community service rank high as activities for after-school programs (see attachment).

Training and Evaluation Guide. The Department is planning a follow-on document to *Keeping Schools Open* that will focus on training for staff in after-school programs and how to provide a continuous improvement model for extended learning programs' self evaluation. Discussion are underway with the Institute for Out-of-School Time on the project.

Beyond the school day and the school year (Percent of all parents who:)			
	All Parents	Elementary School Parents	Middle School Parents
Have a child in an after-school program	35	32	39
Pay fees for an after-school program	17	19	15
Are interested in free after-school programs	79	77	81
Would pay a fee for an after-school program	73	72	74
Have a child in a school-based summer program	18	19	16
Paid for a school-based summer program	9	9	9
Are interested in a free school-based summer program	70	68	72
Would pay a fee for a school-based summer program	73	70	76

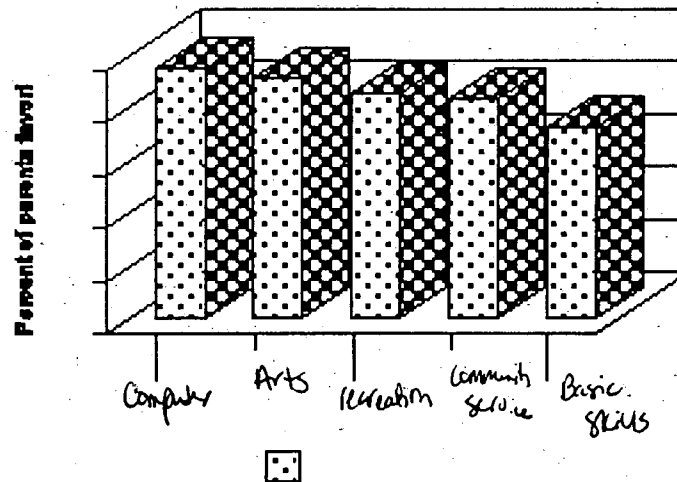
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After-School Activities: What do parents want?

(Percent of parents with children in after-school programs or who would like their children to attend an after-school program reporting that their child would benefit from:)

	Parents Who Want or Use After-School Programs	Elementary School Parents	Middle School Parents
Computer technology classes	95	96	95
Arts, music and cultural programs	91	94	88
Supervised recreational activities	85	86	85
Community service or volunteer opportunities	83	76	90
Basic skills enrichment or tutoring	73	71	75

- Of these parents (who enroll or would like to enroll their child in an after-school program), 95 percent feel that their child would benefit from an after-school program that included computer technology classes and 91 percent feel that their child would benefit from arts, music and cultural after-school activities. Among middle school parents, 90 percent favor after-school community service or volunteer opportunities for their children.



OVERVIEW

Need for After-School Programs

There is a tremendous need for extended-learning opportunities in the United States today.

- **Limited participation.**
 - In 1991, according to the Bureau of the Census, there were 36.7 million children between the ages of 5 and 14 (K through grade 8) living in the U.S.
 - Approximately 24 million of these K through grade 8 school-age children required child care. *-- parents in workforce or looking for job*
 - However, only about 1.7 million children of these children in grades K through grade 8 were enrolled in 49,500 formal before- and after-school programs.
- **Especially limited participation in schoolbased programs.**
 - In 1993-94, according to the National Center for Education Statistics, only 974,348 children in public elementary and combined schools (grades K up to 8) were enrolled in 18,111 before- or after-school programs in public schools.
 - Just 3.4 percent of all public elementary and combined school students (grades K up to 8) were enrolled in before- or after-school programs in public schools.
 - Seventy percent of all public elementary and combined schools (grades K up to 8) did not offer before- or after-school programs.
- **Latch-key child problem.**
 - Estimates of the number of kids in self care (latch-key children) who are unsupervised during non-school hours range from 2 million to 15 million.
 - Experts estimate that about 5 million school-age children spend time without adult supervision during a typical week. Because of self-reporting, however, it is difficult to get a firm figure.

Barriers to Participation

The most frequent barriers to schools' participation in after-school programs include:

- Lack of resources to offer an after-school program
- Recruitment of a program administrator and staff to run a program
- Unwillingness of the school district to open the building beyond the regular school day
- Unwillingness of the principal to have his/her school used for a program
- Unwillingness of teachers to have their classrooms used for after-school activities
- Negotiations with custodial unions that stipulate building use fees
 - biggest problem is in NY, especially city
 - need to pay user fees
 - but not big problem outside of NY

The most frequently mentioned barrier to participation is the parents' inability to pay the tuition and fees charged by programs.

- Availability
- Parent fees
- Transportation
- Hours of the program
- Quality of activities
- Poor conditions
- High staff turnover

Components of Successful Extended Learning After-School Programs

Based on an examination of schoolbased, afterschool programs that have a focus on enrichment and learning activities, the following components characterize these programs:

- Coordination with the regular school day learning program
- Student participation in learning activities
- True linkages between after-school and regular school day personnel
- Hiring of qualified staff
- Low student-staff ratio
- Involvement of parents
- Program evaluation

Costs of Schoolbased After-School Programs

Estimated costs of schoolbased, after-school programs, (programs that are housed in a public school either run by the school system, in collaboration with a communitybased organization, or by a schoolbased organization) range in costs according to the types of services delivered.

- Costs per student run between \$2-2.50 an hour
- Transportation costs run about \$1.00 per trip.

The Need for After-School Programs

The need for increased opportunities for children to learn and develop in safe and drug-free environments outside of regular school hours is clear. Without affordable, high-quality after-school programs¹ available to parents who work, many children must care for themselves or be supervised by older siblings which can entail excessive television watching and experimenting in risky behaviors such as alcohol and drug use. In communities without libraries, many children do not have access to books and other information resources or adults who can help with challenging homework; as a result, some of these students may not learn the skills they need to achieve their potential. These common sense notions are borne out in the research that shows the importance of providing after-school opportunities for children:

Few opportunities exist for young people. While there has been a growth in the availability of after-school care programs for children over the last 20 years, relatively few organized, extended learning opportunities exist. And even when they do exist, a 1994 survey of parents found that 56 percent think that many parents leave their children alone too much after school.

- **Limited participation.** In 1991, according to the Bureau of the Census, there were 36.7 million children between the ages of 5 and 14 living in the U.S. Approximately 24 million of these school-age children required child care (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1994). However, only about 1.7 million children from kindergarten through grade 8 were enrolled in 49,500 formal before- and after-school programs (Seppanen, 1993).
- **Especially limited participation in schoolbased programs.** Extended learning programs in schools are even more scarce, especially for older children and youth. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), in 1993-94, only 974,348 children in public elementary and combined schools (just 3.4 percent of all public elementary and combined school students) were enrolled in 18,111 before- or after-school programs at public schools. Seventy percent of all public elementary and combined schools did not offer before- or after-school programs (NCES, September 1996).

¹For the purposes of this paper, the definition used in the 1993 Study of Before and After School Programs of "Before- and after-school programs" applies: Before and After-school programs refer specifically to formally organized services for 5 to 13 year-olds that occur before and/or after school during the academic year and all day when school is closed and parents are at work. These programs include only school- or center-based programs that operate at least two hours a day, four days per week. These programs augment the schoolday, and typically also the school calendar, creating a second tier of services that provide supervision, enrichment, recreation, tutoring, and other opportunities for school-age youth.

- **Latch-key child problem.** Estimates of the number of kids in self care (latch-key children) who are unsupervised during non-school hours range from 2 million to 15 million (Child Care Action Campaign, 1992; Children's Defense Fund, 1989; National Commission on Working Women, 1989; U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1987). Experts estimate that about 5 million school-age children spend time without adult supervision during a typical week (School Age Child Care Project, 1997). Because of self-reporting, however, it is difficult to get a firm figure.

Parents want more access to extended learning opportunities. Survey data clearly indicate the demand for after-school programs:

- **Extent of parent demand for access.** A 1997 survey of elementary and middle school parents shows that 90 percent of parents have children that attend an after-school program or would be willing to pay for an after-school program if it was offered to them (National Opinion Research Corporation, 1997).
- **Extent of general public demand for access.** By and large, the public favors keeping school buildings open for use by schoolchildren (with adult supervision): 87 percent after school; 67 percent on weekends; and 72 percent during vacations (Gallup, 1992).
- **Principal agreement.** Principals have long seen a need for extended learning programs; in a 1989 survey, 84 percent of school principals agreed that there is a need for before- and after-school programs (Seligson, 1989). In 1993, the National Association of Elementary Principals printed a book entitled, "Standards for Quality School-Age Child Care."

Youth are at greatest risk of violence after the regular school day. According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, youth between the ages of 12 and 17 are most at risk of committing violent acts and being victims between 3 p.m. and 6 p.m.— a time when they are not in school at the end of the regular school day (FBI, 1993).

- **Child self-care risky.** Children left to themselves or under the care of siblings after school experience greater fear of accidents and crimes and are more bored than children in supervised care. They also are more likely to engage in risk-taking behaviors and drug and alcohol use, and are more often the victims of accidents and abuse. Children who spend more hours on their own and who began self-care at younger ages are at increased risk (Miller and Marx, 1990).
- **Organized activities can counter unsafe behaviors and enhance learning.** Children under adult supervision in a formal program have demonstrated improved academic achievement and better attitudes toward school than their peers in self- or sibling-care. After-school and summer programs can offer the support and supervision children need

in order to learn and to resist the influences of unsafe or violent behaviors (Miller and Marx, 1990).

Children in quality programs do better in school. Research indicates that program quality is very important. Children in these programs are exposed to more learning opportunities, spend more time in academic activities and enrichment, and spend less time watching TV. These students have more positive interactions with staff when student to staff ratios are low, staff are well-trained, and a wide variety of activities are offered. Students in quality programs may have better peer relations and better grades and conduct in school than their peers in other care arrangements (Posner and Vandell, 1994).

- **School-age programs of poor quality can harm children.** When school-age programs are well designed, they can raise achievement, but when they are low quality, with poorly trained staff and few age-appropriate activities, participants may do worse in school than children who are cared for by a parent or a sitter or even left alone (Carnegie Corporation of New York, 1996).
- **Teachers and principals recognize the positive effects.** The Cooperative Extension Service found that in programs that had received their assistance, teachers reported that the programs helped the children to become more cooperative, handle conflicts better, develop an interest in recreational reading, and earn better grades. More than one-third of the school principals stated that vandalism in the school decreased as a result of the programs (Riley et al., 1994).
- **Youth need opportunities outside of the regular school day.** Research clearly shows that positive and sustained interactions with adults contribute to the overall development of young people and their achievement in school. After-school activities allow children and youth to explore and master activities (art, dance, music, sports) that can contribute to their overall well-being and achievement (Clark, 1989).
- **Young people want opportunities outside the regular school day.** In a recent survey, young adolescents ages 10 to 15 were asked to identify what they wanted most during their non-school hours. Their responses included safe parks and recreation centers, exciting science museums, libraries with the latest books, videos, and records, opportunities to go camping and participate in sports, long talks with trusting and trustworthy adults who know a lot about the world and who like young people and opportunities to learn new skills (Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, 1992).
- **Parents rank high computer classes, art and music courses, and community service as activities for after school programs.** In a 1997 survey of parents who indicated they enrolled or would like to enroll their child in an after-school program, 95 percent feel that their child would benefit from an after-school program that included computer technology classes and 91 percent feel their child would benefit from arts,

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music, and cultural after-school activities. Among middle school parents, 90 percent favor after-school community service or volunteer opportunities for their children (NORC, 1997).

Barriers to Participating in After-School Programs

The most frequent barriers to schools' participation in after-school programs include:

- **Lack of resources** to offer an after-school program
- **Recruitment of a program administrator** and staff to run a program
- **Unwillingness of the school district** to open school buildings beyond the regular school day
- **Unwillingness of the principal** to have his/her school used for a program
- **Unwillingness of teachers** to have their classrooms used for after-school activities
- **Negotiations with custodial unions** that stipulate building use fees

The last barrier is particularly acute in the State of New York. Some union contracts stipulate significant fees for the use of school buildings outside of regular school hours that make the operating costs prohibitive. This is especially a problem for nonprofit organizations in New York City when fees were established as part of the janitorial union contract in 1975, as well as other New York cities (e.g., Buffalo). However, calls to several cities in other states do not indicate a similar problem.

In addition, parents face barriers to their children's participation:

- **Access.** Seventy percent of public elementary and combined (K-8) schools do not offer before- or after-school programs. A mere 3.4 percent of all students in public elementary and combined schools nationwide participate in before- and after-school programs in their schools (NCES, September 1996).
 - **Solutions:** Organizations like the National Community Education Association works with both individual schools and whole districts to make available after-school programming in the public schools. In addition, the Partnership for Family Involvement in Education, like many organizations, has pledged as part of the Presidents' National Volunteer Summit to work more vigorously in this area and create 500 new after school program in 1997.
- **Parent fees.** After-school activities for children may require fees which parents are unable or unwilling to pay. Parent fees make up approximately 80 percent of the budget of school-based programs (Seppanen et al., 1993). Waivers and scholarships are available on a very limited basis. Programs in high poverty areas simply do not have enough resource to serve the large numbers of children who wish to attend. Many good programs have long waiting lists. In cases when parents cannot afford child care, students may not participate because they are needed at home to care for younger siblings.

- **Solutions.** In 1991, almost 40 percent of public school programs offered a sliding scale for parent fees based on parents' ability to pay (Seppanen, 1993). In addition, the federal Title I program can be used for after-school programs, thus defraying fees. Finally, some programs like the Virtual Y make their program free to families, raising the money in the community.
- **Transportation.** The lack of safe and available transportation may prevent many of these children from participating in before- and after-school programs. Many programs do not provide transportation after the extended learning day. In addition, children who attend school outside of their neighborhood, because of a desegregation plan, school choice, or other reason, may not be able to participate unless provisions are made for early and late buses. Finally, some districts charge bus fees to access after-school transportation, which can inhibit participation among moderate and low income families.
 - **Solutions.** Based on the number of children participating in after-school programs, some schools offer late buses as part of their regular bus fleet runs. Where programs are offered in neighborhood schools, parents may be readily able to pick up their children from the school. However, in 1991, 20 percent of parents asked for transportation as a component of the after-school program their child was enrolled in when it was not offered (Seppanen, 1993).
- **Hours of the program.** Most programs operate according to the school calendar rather than parents' work schedule, in which case parents must make alternative arrangements for child care or leave children on their own.
 - **Solutions.** Programs like the Beacon Schools and IS 218 are open hours beyond the regular 3 p.m. to 6 p.m. after-school program, operating until midnight and 9 p.m., respectively.
- **Quality of activities.** Parents and students may choose not to participate because of unchallenging curriculums. Some programs may be perceived as merely providing supervision, rather than enrichment and extended learning opportunities. Activities may not address the needs of older students. Also, before- and after-school programs may not coordinate with the regular school program to help students who are falling behind in a particular subject and to reinforce what's happening in the classroom.
 - **Solutions.** Like programs operated at I.S. 218 in New York City and at the Seattle Title I school program run by Bailey Gatzert Elementary School, afterschool programs should be designed to coordinate with the regular school day and offer challenging complementary activities. Programs should have materials available to them and be aware of best

practices, perhaps employing the School Age Child Care Project standards of excellence.

- **Poor conditions.** Before- and after-school programs often have to make do with the resources available. Almost one-third of programs report a difficulty sharing space in schools and other facilities. Other common problems include a lack of activity space, no room to expand, and insufficient storage.
 - **Solutions.** Real and honest communication must take place between staff from the after-school program and the regular teaching force about the use of classrooms and other facilities. This is the most commonly discussed barrier among those groups that operate programs and communication is the only way to resolve the situation.
- **High staff turnover.** Before- and after-school programs suffer from a high staff turnover rate due to low wages and lack of benefits. While some programs do not have this problem, those that do experience a 60 percent turnover rate. This lack of continuity affects the quality of the activities, of the program as a whole, and of the bonds created between the children and staff.
 - **Solutions.** After-school programs need to be re-thought of as an extension of the regular school day with many of the same personnel that would be found during the regular school day, such as classroom teachers, participating but at perhaps a lower ratio than the regular school day. In the Murfreesboro, Tennessee program, this is accomplished by staggering teacher starting times. In after-school care situations, the quality of after-school staff is directly linked to the quality of the program offered. Wages and benefits must be calculated as an important part of the program. When teachers are used in extended learning programs, some of this turnover associated with day care can be resolved.

Necessary Components of An After-School Program

The most important part of any after-school program is that kids have a safe, learning environment with adults who clearly care for them.

Common elements across extended learning programs in schools. When we examine exemplary in-school programs that offer both enrichment and instructional activities (community schools in Flint, Michigan; after-school programs in Murfreesboro, Tennessee, I.S. 218 in New York City, and the soon-to-be implemented Virtual Y in New York City; the 21st Century Community Learning Centers) after-school, we find the following common elements:

- **Coordination with the regular school day learning program.** More than a latch key after school program, the extended school day should dovetail with the classwork engaged in throughout the day. This was also a major recommendation of the Carnegie Corporation's report, *Years of Promise: A Comprehensive Learning Strategy for America's Children*.
- **Student participation in learning activities.** The atmosphere should be more relaxed but it should be instructional allowing for hands-on projects, enrichment classes, reading, math, mentoring, sports, computer lab, music, arts, community service, trips, and even entrepreneurial workshops.
- **True linkages between after-school and regular school day personnel.** Support of and coordination with the school so that there is true partnering with the school and all school personnel in an atmosphere of mutual respect with regard to the use of facilities and materials, and the creation of a welcoming environment for parent, and community volunteers.
- **Hiring of qualified staff.** Programs should hire qualified staff, provide on-going training for staff, and be willing to pay for that quality. Staff usually include a program administrator, paraprofessionals, college students, and teachers. In some cases of when teachers are part of the program, they participate on the basis of a staggered school day where their day begins at 11 a.m. and ends at 6 p.m.
- **Low student-staff ratio.** For true student enrichment, the student-staff ratio should be low, especially when tutoring or mentoring activities are taking place.
- **Involvement of parents.** Opportunities for parents to be part of the afterschool program by offering orientation sessions, workshops, serve as volunteers, serve on a

parent advisory committee, and take part in classes that may be offered in computers or English as a Second Language.

- **Program evaluation.** From the beginning of a program, there should be a plan for measuring success, based on the goals set for the program--including student improvement in their regular school program. Both continuous improvement strategies and outside evaluations by a local university or board of education should be employed.

Researchers have also begun to identify core elements of after-school care programs and quality standards.

Characteristics of Quality After-School Programs as Assessed by the University of Wisconsin. The University of Wisconsin-Madison is conducting a study of after-school programs and assessing after-school care program quality. Programs being examined include those operated by for-profit agencies, non-profit programs, and programs located in schools. The University of Wisconsin study is assessing quality programs on the following components:

- tone and quality of interactions between children and staff
- caregiver skill
- presence of age-appropriate programming and activities
- level of child satisfaction
- level of parent satisfaction
- flexibility of programming and child choice of activities
- regulatable characteristics such as staff-to-child ratios, levels of staff education, and space available for activities.

Knowing the kind of program a child attends (e.g., for-profit or nonprofit) offers clues about the quality of care provided. For example, children in for-profit programs generally have more unoccupied time, spend more time watching television and videos, and spend more time not interacting with anyone, when compared with children attending nonprofit programs. For-profit programs also tend to offer fewer positive interactions between staff and children and offer fewer programming alternatives, when compared to nonprofit programs. Parents of children attending for profit programs report lower satisfaction with those programs, compared with nonprofit programs located in schools and those operated by community centers.

Program quality also varies across elements that are potentially regulatable, such as program size and caregiver education levels:

- **Size.** Children in small programs (41-60 children) have more and more positive interactions with caregivers and with other children.

- **Child-to-staff ratios.** Larger child-to-staff ratios (greater than 13-1) are associated with more time waiting in line and with caregivers showing poorer behavior management skills.
- **Caregiver education.** Higher levels of education are related to fewer negative interactions between caregivers and children and greater parental satisfaction.
- **Caregiver experience.** Caregivers with 25 to 36 months experience had better behavior management skills and more positive regard for children compared to those with more or less experience.

Core Components from the Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development. Whether an after-school program is located in a neighborhood school or community facility, effective programs identified by the Carnegie Foundation include the following key elements:

- **A research base and needs assessment.**
- **A basic understanding of social relationships.**
- **Involving parents.**
- **Tailoring programs to community needs.**
- **Capturing interest.**
- **Providing food.**
- **Setting clear rules.**
- **Collaborating with local community organizations.**
- **Being safe and accessible for all children.**
- **Providing linkages to schools.**

Standards for Quality After-School Care as developed by Wellesley College, Institute for Out of School Time. Standards of quality for after-school care have been developed by the Wellesley College School-Age Child Care Project (now the Institute for Out of School Time). The National Association of Elementary School Principals were also involved in developing these standards.

- **Human Relationships.**
- **Indoor Environment.**
- **Outdoor Environment.**
- **Activities.**
- **Safety, Health, and Nutrition.**
- **Administration.**

Costs of After-School Programs

Costs vary widely in implementing after-school extended learning programs. The major sources of variation in the cost of extended-hours programs run by public schools are:

- **Salaries of program staff**
- **Type and extent of services offered, including any materials**
- **The number of children served in the program**

These costs can vary widely depending on the level of staff expertise, the scope of the director's responsibilities, and local custodial rates. Most programs pay for instructional staff, a part-time director who receives a salary supplement, and custodial services. Materials costs vary extensively, and can be minimal, or very substantial, depending on the activities a program offers. Programs depend upon a variety of sources for their funding, including donations and government and foundation grants based upon the services which they provide.

The costs below are for school-sponsored programs; programs sponsored by other organizations appear to have somewhat lower costs, primarily due to using lower cost (non-school) personnel.

Hourly program cost per child: The costs of typical after-school programs vary significantly depending to the scope of the program, the level of staff expertise, and the materials used in the program.

- **Lower range costs.** The lower range of the cost estimate assumes that program staff will be supplemented by volunteers or low-level staff (college-students, etc.), and that program activities will include academic and enrichment work, but will not require a significant amount of new materials. Lower cost programs often center around providing homework assistance, recreation, and provide art and enrichment activities which do not require large expenditures for materials or professional staff (e.g. professional music teachers).
- **Higher range.** The higher range of the cost estimate assumes that programs will use certified teaching personnel and more experienced staff to provide instruction, and a full-time program director; program activities may include substantial amounts of enrichment activities (e.g. art and music classes) as well as significant materials expenditures (e.g. computer labs, art supplies). Higher costs programs are able to provide a wider range of options for students, and usually include targeted academic assistance, enrichment activities supervised by well trained staff (e.g. an art class taught by an art instructor), and may feature computer labs or field trips.

Hourly program costs per student. Hourly program costs typically range between about **two to two and a half dollars per student** (assuming three hours after school, five days each week, and a ratio of 10-12 students per instructional staff member)

Estimated hourly cost per student: \$2.00 to \$2.50

Yearly program costs per student. Per student yearly program costs range from \$1,050 to \$1,575, (assuming three hours after school, five days per week, thirty-five weeks, ratio of 10-12 students per instructional staff member)

Estimated yearly cost per student: \$1,050 to \$1,575

Yearly program cost. In a typical elementary school of 450 kids, yearly costs for after school programs range from \$157,500 for low-cost programs serving approximately a third of the student body (i.e. 150 students) to \$500,000 for higher-cost programs serving most of the student body (i.e. almost all of the 450 students; **note: assume that marginal costs per student should decline with increased utilization**).

Estimated total yearly program cost: \$157,000 to \$500,000

Transportation costs. Many programs do not report paying any additional transportation costs; programs which do provide extra transportation report paying about \$1.00 per child, per trip (assume \$25 per hour for bus drivers, \$1.00 per mile for bus use, gas, and maintenance, 30 miles per day, 45-60 students per bus).

Estimated cost per student per trip: \$1.00

EXTENDED-TIME LEARNING CENTERS Proposal for the School-age Child Care Initiative

Program summary:

The Department of Education (ED) is considering a proposal to provide \$400 million in seed money to establish or expand up to 10,000 extended learning centers serving approximately one million children during out-of-school hours in the first year. At a maximum of \$50,000 per center, this program will enable almost half of the 20,000 highest-needs schools and communities in the country (those with 50 percent or more of their children qualifying for free and reduced lunch) to establish high-quality out-of-school time learning centers or to expand existing centers to serve more children. An estimated 1/3 of these schools would be expanding existing centers. Centers, operated by schools in partnership with community organizations and available to all school-age children in the community, will offer a range of services including enhanced learning opportunities, growth and development activities, and recreational programs in safe, drug-free environments.

1,000
of schools

Schools and communities would have the flexibility to select delivery approaches consistent with local conditions and needs, while facilitating a strong link between the extended learning program and the instructional services schools provide during the regular school day. Having school districts serve as grantees maximizes opportunities for stretching dollars through coordination with other Federal education funds, such as Title I, which encourage extended learning opportunities. Five-year funding ensures that centers will be stable enough to attract qualified staff and to build community and business support that will lead to self-sufficiency by the end of the grant period.

The proposal would enhance ED's ongoing efforts to address student and parental needs for safe, constructive after school learning environments including: (1) publication and dissemination with the Partnership for Family Involvement in Education of "Keeping Schools Open as Community Learning Centers: Extending Learning in a Safe, Drug-Free Environment Before and After School;" (2) a FY 98 budget request of \$50 million for after-school learning centers through the 21st Century Community Learning Centers authority; and (3) the Wellesley College Institute for Out-of-School Time staff training and evaluation guides. Additionally, to help expand the potential impact beyond those receiving funds, the proposal envisions a technical assistance/dissemination effort involving such entities as the Partnership for Family Involvement in Education and private foundations.

Why is this program important?

Research supports--and communities, families, and schools recognize--the need for increased programs that fill the out-of-school time of this nation's children and youth. High-quality programs are in short supply--70 percent of public schools do not have before- or after-school programs. Only about 10 percent of public school children are enrolled in before- or after-school programs (1/3 of them school-based and 2/3 of them community-based) and at least 5 million children are home without an adult after school. And according to a report just issued by *Fight Crime: Invest in Kids*, and supported by FBI statistics, juvenile crime triples between the hours of 2 and 6 p.m. *Research also shows that good use of out-of-school time can be effective--teachers report that children in high-quality after-school programs are more cooperative, handle conflict better, do more recreational reading, and get better grades; principals report decreased vandalism in schools with after-school programs.*

The proposal addresses the following barriers to participating in after school programs: (1) lack of resources to offer an after-school program; (2) lack of access to after-school programs by parents and students; (3) lack of programs that operate on a schedule generally compatible with parents' work schedules; (4) transportation; and (5) lack of high quality programs with qualified staff.

How would the program operate, and who would be eligible?

ED would provide funds to State Education Agencies (SEAs) proportional to their share of ESEA Title I (with a statutory minimum). SEAs would make subgrants to local educational agencies (LEAs). Approximately 4,300 districts--collectively serving 36 percent (updated estimate) of the nation's children--would be eligible to participate; within districts, preference would be given to establish or expand centers serving high-needs neighborhoods.

What requirements must school districts meet?

Local districts would be required to match federal funds at least one-to-one¹, although SEAs can issue waivers to this requirement in exceptional circumstances. Matching funds can come from a variety of sources including sliding fees, other federal funds, in-kind contributions, local district funds, donations from businesses or the community, or foundation support. School districts must also provide assurances that centers will be inclusive and located in safe and drug-free environments. Each local partnership would determine the organizational structure that best meets local needs.

How may grant funds be used?

Grant funds may be used to for a variety of purposes necessary to help establish new programs or to enhance or expand existing programs, such as supporting a coordinator; supporting qualified instructional and enrichment staff and providing professional development opportunities as appropriate; providing transportation; and purchasing materials and equipment. In operating programs, grantees must include children with disabilities and other special needs; and coordinate and leverage existing services and develop other resources.

What types of services should programs provide?

Programs must offer both enhanced learning opportunities as well as recreational activities. Programs may include: academic enrichment or advanced work in science, mathematics and literature; opportunities for children who need extra academic help, such as assistance by trained staff with homework or in improving performance in reading and mathematics; programs in music, dance, drama and the arts; opportunities to use computers and telecommunications technology not generally available to participating children at home; enjoyable age-appropriate recreational activities; activities designed to enhance social and communication skills, such as conflict resolution training or community service learning; organized games such as teams and individual sports; and programs for children's safety, counseling and nutrition. A minimum program would operate 3 hours a day, 5 days a week, 35 weeks a year--but many will include summer activities.

Under this model, the number of centers would remain relatively constant; after five years, most of the centers would become self-sufficient and the program could either begin funding a new cohort of centers or end. Under an alternative model, matching funds would have to increase in the third year and beyond. This would free up funds to start new centers but may also undermine--in the centers already funded--the stability necessary to develop community and business support leading to self-sufficiency.

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Examples of Model Programs

- **A school administered program utilizing regular school staff (Murfreesboro, TN):** All staff work on flex-time scheduling; volunteers and college students monitor lunch and recess, so that the school's regular teaching staff is available to teach afternoon academic and enrichment classes. The school partners with local youth sports leagues, and brings in outside professionals to offer lessons in art, music, martial arts, etc., at cost. The program also charges minimal fees (sliding scale, with a maximum of \$1.25 per hour) to offset some costs.
- **A program administered by an outside organization (The Virtual Y, NY):** Operated by the YMCA, these programs have an established curriculum with education, character building, and health components. Programs are staffed by a program coordinator (\$15 per hour) and five staff members (\$8 per hour). Educational activities focus on literacy and homework assistance. Prior to beginning operation, programs conduct a community needs assessment and acquire written buy-in from all stakeholders (i.e., the PTA, teachers and principal, etc.).
- **A partnership between a school and an outside organization (Washington Heights, IS 218, NY):** A partnership between the Children's Aid Society, the Boys and Girls Clubs of America, the New York City Board of Education, and the school district, the program is designed to turn the school into a community center, providing children and other members of the community with educational and enrichment activities, as well as the services of the school's social service agency partners, all at the same site.



FACT SHEET ON SCHOOL-AGE CHILDREN

Revised September 1996

CHILDREN'S OUT OF SCHOOL TIME

- ***Children spend less than 20 percent of their waking hours in school.*** Schools typically are open for less than half the days of the year, and when open provide care only until mid-afternoon. What happens in the other 80 percent is critical to children's development.
- ***Whether or not their mother is employed, research indicates that what children do during non-school hours has a critical impact on school achievement and long-term success.*** Research indicates that the activities in which children are engaged, as well as the quality of adult supervision they receive, are as important as family income and parents' education in determining academic success.
- ***Children spend more of their out-of-school time watching television than in any other single activity. Children's television viewing has been associated with lower reading achievement, behavior problems, and increased aggression.*** Television is not necessarily harmful to all children, but when they watch more than three hours a day and/or watch programs with violent content, negative outcomes are increasingly likely.

SCHOOL-AGE CHILDREN WITH EMPLOYED PARENTS

- ***Approximately 24 million school-age children require child care.*** According to the Bureau of the Census, in 1991 there were 36.7 million children between the ages of 5 and 14 years living in the U.S. Of these children, 21.2 million lived with a mother who was employed, and an additional 953,000 lived with an unemployed mother (currently seeking employment) and 999,000 lived with a mother enrolled in school. An estimated 912,000 children in this age range lived with a single father who was employed, 61,000 with an unemployed father, and 9,000 with a single father enrolled in school.
- ***An estimated 17 million parents need care for their school-age children during their hours of work.*** In 1991, the Census Bureau found that 14.9 million employed mothers had children between the ages of 5 and 14. An additional 681,000 mothers were unemployed and 642,000 were enrolled in school. An estimated 728,000 employed single fathers lived with school-age children, in addition to 50,000 unemployed fathers who were seeking employment and 9,000 fathers who were attending school.



THE EFFECTS OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL TIME ON FAMILIES AND THE COMMUNITY

- ***Studies have found that latchkey children are more likely to engage in risky behaviors, especially urban children and those who have little access to adult supervision.*** According to one recent large-scale study, latchkey children are at significantly greater risk of truancy from school, stress, receiving poor grades, risk-taking behavior, and substance use (Dwyer et. al, 1990). These researchers also found that children who spend more hours on their own and those who began self-care at younger ages are at increased risk.
- ***A number of studies have found that children who attend good school-age child care programs during the hours when their parents are working may experience positive effects on their development.*** Most recently, Posner and Vandell (1994) found that children attending afterschool programs had better peer relations, emotional adjustment, and better grades and conduct in school than their peers in other care arrangements. These children were exposed to more learning opportunities, spent more time in academic activities and enrichment, and spent less time watching television.
- ***Teachers and principals are recognizing the positive effects of good quality programs on their students.*** The Cooperative Extension Service (Riley et. al., 1994) studied the effects of 64 programs that had received Extension assistance in 15 states. Teachers said that the programs had caused the children to become more cooperative (34%), learned to handle conflicts better (37%), developed an interest in recreational reading (33%), and were getting better grades (33%). Over one-third (35%) of the school principals stated that vandalism in the school had decreased as a result of the programs. In addition, 16 percent of the program children had avoided being retained in grade due to program participation, resulting in a savings of over \$1,000,000.
- ***Public officials are recognizing the importance of school-age care.*** In a 1995 survey conducted by the National League of Cities (Meyers and Kyle, 1996), child care and before- and after-school care together were seen as one of the most pressing needs for children and families by 92 percent of all respondents. No other need received this rating from such a high percentage of respondents, such needs included: housing, family stability, drug and alcohol abuse, education, crime, welfare reform, and a host of other issues.

CHILD CARE ARRANGEMENTS OF SCHOOL-AGE CHILDREN

- ***Unlike preschool children, school-age children are likely to spend time in many different care arrangements.*** According to the National Child Care Survey 1990 (NCCS), 76 percent of school-age children with an employed mother spend time in at least two child care arrangements during a typical week, in addition to their time in school. Based on a nationally representative sample of parents of children under the age of 13, the NCCS examined both primary and secondary care arrangements for school-age children, in addition to the hours they spend in school (see Hofferth et. al., 1991 in references).
- ***School-age children of employed mothers are most likely to be cared for by a parent (33%), followed by care by a relative (23%), lessons (15%), center-based afterschool program or day care center (14%), family day care home (7%), self-care (4%), and in-home provider (3%), according to the NCCS.*** These percentages reflect the primary care arrangement, or the one where the child spends most of his or her non-school hours during a typical week. Secondary care arrangements are as follows: care by a parent (55%), lessons (19%), relative (14%), self-care (4%), family day care (3%), center care (3%), in-home provider (1%) and other arrangement (1%).
- ***Experts estimate that nearly 5 million school-age children spend time without adult supervision during a typical week.*** Exact figures are not available, due to parents' reluctance to report that they leave children alone. Older children are much more likely to spend time on their own than younger children. Data from the NCCS suggest that less than 5% of children under age 8 are regularly in self-care compared to nearly 35% of twelve-year-olds.
- ***Approximately 1.7 million children in kindergarten through grade 8 were enrolled in 49,500 formal before-and/or-after-school programs in 1991, according to the National Study of Before and After School Programs.*** The study found that 83 percent of those enrolled in after school programs are in the pre-kindergarten through third grade age range.

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Agenda:
Site Selection Subgroup Presentation to FSC Working Group
March 26, 1998

- ◆ Criteria for selection of sites
 - Previous models of site selection
 - Criteria for selection of FSC communities

- ◆ Specific site recommendations
 - Discuss attributes of "first tier" and "second tier" sites
 - Obtain initial approval of all partners to approach potential sites

- ◆ Statement of Partnership
 - Previous models show that all federal partners must agree to goals, federal role, and site selection criteria (i.e., have equal ownership of project). Therefore, all federal partners should sign off on Statement of Partnership.

- ◆ Next steps for non-D.C. sites
 - Federal team appointed to approach potential sites
 - Contacts in each potential site are identified
 - Team refines Statement of Partnership and "pitch"
 - Team contacts potential sites to ascertain willingness and ability to participate
 - Final sites named

- ◆ D.C. site
 - Federal team approaches America's Promise partners, D.C. Agenda partners, and others to ascertain status of after-school initiative in D.C., and to identify opportunities for collaboration

Draft: March 24, 1998

**Statement of Partnership:
Federal Support for Communities
After-School Initiative**

Preamble

The Federal Support for Communities initiative is a multi-agency collaborative that has developed in response to the recognition that:

- ◆ *First*, the federal government is capable of operating in new ways to help meet local needs. Through collaboration and coordination among federal agencies, the federal government can support local communities in a more focused, effective, and efficient manner.
- ◆ *Second*, there is a tremendous need in the United States today for healthy development and learning opportunities for children during non-school hours. An estimated 5 million school-age children spend time without adult supervision during a typical week. These children are more likely to engage in risk-taking behaviors and drug and alcohol use, are more likely to be victims of accidents and abuse, and are more likely to commit crimes. Conversely, organized activities during non-school hours can counter unsafe behaviors and enhance learning and healthy development.

Goals

In light of these needs, the Federal Support for Communities Initiative has developed the following six goals:

- ◆ To examine and improve upon the means by which the federal government provides support and information to local communities by, among other things, removing federal statutory and regulatory barriers to local coordinated activity, and engaging in coordinated, collaborative efforts, both among federal agencies and with local and state governments, non-profits, and the private sector.
- ◆ To develop a transferable model, or methodology, for federal multi-agency collaboration that is not subject-specific, but which can be applied to

subsequent multi-agency efforts. To this end, the initial substantive focus of the initiative--to increase opportunities for children during non-school hours--will serve as the springboard to develop a generalizable model for multi-agency collaboration.

- ◆ To increase the quality, availability, and comprehensiveness of opportunities for children during non-school hours. This will initially be accomplished in three to five pilot communities, including the District of Columbia.
- ◆ To eliminate duplication and better coordinate federal support for programs providing services to children during non-school hours, including programs providing services in afternoons, early evenings, school holidays, and summer vacations, thereby helping communities access and make the best use of existing federal resources.
- ◆ To develop sustainable, community-based partnerships between federal, state, and local government, schools, the private sector, community-based and non-profit organizations, thereby harnessing leadership skills, resources, and a local commitment to programming for children during non-school hours.
- ◆ To develop a national model for restructuring the federal/local relationship in addressing programming for children during non-school hours.

Federal Role

There is no new funding available to communities through this initiative. Rather, a primary federal role in this initiative is to help communities make better use of existing funding opportunities. However, the federal government can also bring a number of valuable resources and capabilities to a federal/local partnership. These might include:

- ◆ Leadership in convening the various community institutions that receive federal funds targeted for school-age children and youth, but which might not normally work together or be aware of the availability of parallel funding sources for children and youth.
- ◆ Coordination of technical assistance sources that support grantees providing services to school-age children and youth.
- ◆ Technical assistance in conducting needs and resource assessments; identifying opportunities for local collaboration; identifying and applying for additional resources, including federal and other sources of funding; designing and implementing a community-wide plan for school-age children and youth; and evaluating the effectiveness of such a plan.

- ◆ Working with local institutions to identify and address federal statutory or regulatory barriers to improving services to school-age children and youth (e.g., cumbersome fiscal reporting requirements, overly restrictive target populations, or multiple and burdensome grant application processes).
- ◆ Provision of facilities and equipment for meetings and workshops in federal field offices.

Site Selection

Three to five pilot communities will initially participate in this initiative. The District of Columbia has already been identified by the President as one pilot community. The remaining two to four communities will be selected based on the following criteria:

- ◆ **Capacity** of the community to participate in the initiative, as demonstrated by previous collaborative experience; existence of a community entity that could relate to a federal team, including identified leadership, involvement of relevant stakeholders, and credibility in the community; and organizational capacity or infrastructure, including resources, expertise, networks, and information that can contribute to achieving the articulated goals of the initiative.
- ◆ **Willingness** of the community to participate as a partner in the initiative.
- ◆ **Identified need** for services during out-of-school time.
- ◆ Ability and willingness to **collect relevant data**.
- ◆ **Federal field staff** committed to the initiative.
- ◆ **Diversity** of sites, in terms of both location and urbanicity.

Federal Support to Communities Initiative After-school Program

Site Selection Subcommittee Recommendations
March 26, 1998

The site selection subcommittee, consisting of representatives from each of the participating federal agencies, as well as representatives of the OPC and the NPR, met over a period of two months to discuss possible sites. The following sites are recommended for participation in this initiative and were selected based both on the set of criteria contained in this document and respective agency working-knowledge of local programs. The first tier are the priority sites jointly selected by members of the subcommittee. The second tier is in rank order of priority following the first tier.

First Tier

Washington, DC

Houston, TX

Boston, MA

St. Louis, MO

Mississippi Delta, MS

Second Tier

Washington, DC

Philadelphia, PA

Milwaukee, WI

Kansas City, MO

Long Beach, CA

The City of Seattle, based on its experience in local collaborations for after-school programs, will be asked to participate as a consultant to this initiative.

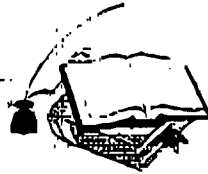


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Executive Summary

**PREVENTING
READING DIFFICULTIES IN
YOUNG CHILDREN**

NATIONAL RESEARCH COUNCIL

Preventing Reading Difficulties in Young Children

Catherine E. Snow, M. Susan Burns,
and Peg Griffin, *Editors*

Committee on the Prevention of Reading Difficulties
in Young Children

NATIONAL ACADEMY PRESS
Washington, DC 1998

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Preface

"Few things in life are less efficient than a group of people trying to write a sentence" (Scott Adams, *The Dilbert Principle*, 1996). The decision that a group of people should write a report of this size clearly was not motivated by the goal of efficiency; it was motivated by the goals of comprehensiveness and accuracy and made feasible by the expectation of compromise and consensus. The field of reading is one which has long been marked by controversies and disagreements. Indeed, the term "reading wars" entered the lexicon of reading research as early as the 19XX. The unpleasantness of the conflicts among reading researchers was moderated, if not eliminated, by the realization that all the participants are primarily interested in ensuring the well-being of young children and in promoting optimal literacy instruction.

The study reported in this volume was undertaken with the assumption that empirical work in the field of reading had advanced sufficiently to allow substantial agreed-upon results and conclusions that could form a basis for breaching the differences among the warring parties. The process of doing the study revealed the correctness of the assumption that this has been an appropriate time to undertake a synthesis of the research on early reading development.

PREFACE

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book publisher, the state legislator, and the secretary of education need to understand both what is truly hard about learning to read, and how wide-ranging and varied are the experiences that support and facilitate reading acquisition. All these people need to understand as well that many factors that correlate with reading fail to explain it, that many experiences contribute to reading development without being prerequisite to it, and that there are many prerequisites, so no single one can be considered sufficient.

The focus of this report is prevention. We thus try to sketch a picture of the conditions under which reading is most likely to develop easily—conditions that include stimulating preschool environments, excellent reading instruction, and the absence of any of a wide array of risk factors. Our focus on trying to provide optimal conditions does not mean that we think that children experiencing less than optimal conditions are in any sense doomed to failure in reading; many children from poor and uneducated families learn to read well, even without excellent preschool classroom experience or superb early reading instruction. Nonetheless, with an eye to reducing risk and preventing failure, we focus on mechanisms for providing the best possible situation for every child.

We submit this report with high hopes that it may indeed mark the end of the reading wars, and that it will contribute to the successful reading development of many children. It is the collective product of the entire committee, and it could not have been produced without the selfless contributions of time, thought, and hard work of all members, or without their willingness to confront with integrity and resolve with grace their many productive disagreements with one another.

Catherine Snow, *Chair*
Susan Burns, *Study Director*
Committee on the Prevention of Reading
Difficulties in Young Children

Acknowledgments

Many people have contributed in many different ways to the completion of this report, and we are most grateful for their efforts. First, the committee and staff would like to acknowledge Ellen Schiller (U.S. Department of Education), Naomi Karp (U.S. Department of Education), and Reid Lyon (National Institutes of Health) for assistance given during the project and to Rebecca Fitch (U.S. Department of Education) and Fritz Mosher (Carnegie Corporation) for their help in developing plans for liaison activities.

During the information-gathering phase of our work, a number of people made presentations to the committee on programs that focused on the prevention of reading difficulties: Steve Barnett (moderator); Elizabeth Segal (Beginning with Books); Marcia Invernizzi (Book Buddies); Andrew Hayes (Comprehensive Family Literacy Program); John Guthrie (Concept Oriented Reading Instruction); Bob Stark (Early ID: Reading Early Identification and Intervention); Barbara Taylor (Early Intervention in Reading); Jerry Zimmerman (Foundations in Reading); Sabra Gelfond (HAILO); Annette Dove (Home Instruction Program for Preschool Youngsters—HIPPY); Pia Rebello (Home Instruction Program for Preschool Youngsters—HIPPY); Darcy Vogel (Intergenerational Tutoring Program); Ethna

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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tion; Save the Children International; and School-Age Child Care Project.

The panel was assisted in its deliberations by a number of people who wrote background papers: Steven Barnett, "The Effects of Preschool Programs on Reading Achievement"; Lynn Fuchs, "Monitoring Student Progress Toward the Development of Reading Competence: Classroom-Based Assessment Methods"; Stanley Herr, "Special Education Law and Young Children with Reading Disabilities or at Risk of Such Disabilities"; Laura Klenk, "Review of Selected Remediation and Early Intervention Programs"; James McClelland, "The Basis and Remediation of Language Impairments in Children"; Kevin S. McGrew, "The Measurement of Reading Achievement by Different Individually Administered Standardized Reading Tests: Apples and Apples, or Apples and Oranges?"; Robert Needlman, "Pediatric Interventions to Prevent Reading Problems in Young Children"; Carol Padden, "Reading and Deafness"; Bennett A. Shaywitz, "The Neurobiology of Reading and Reading Disability"; Margaret J. Snowling, "A Review of the Literature on Reading, Informed by PDP Models, With Special Regard to Children Between Birth and Age 8, Who May Be at Risk of Learning to Read."

Numerous researchers also shared their work with the committee, including Catherine Dorsey-Gaines (Kean College of New Jersey); Vivian L. Gadsden (University of Pennsylvania); Robert Rueda (University of Southern California); Rune J. Simeonsson (University of North Carolina); Frank R. Velluhno (State University of New York, Albany); and special education project directors present at our information-gathering meeting in July 1996.

This report has been reviewed by individuals chosen for their diverse perspectives and technical expertise, in accordance with procedures approved by the National Research Council's Report Review Committee. The purpose of this independent review is to provide candid and critical comments that will assist the authors and the National Research Council in making the published report as sound as possible and to ensure that the report meets institutional standards for objectivity, evidence, and responsiveness to the study charge. The content of the review comments and draft manuscript

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Executive Summary

PART I INTRODUCTION TO READING

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2 The Process of Learning to Read

PART II WHO ARE WE TALKING ABOUT?

3 Who Has Reading Difficulties

4 Predictors of Reading Success and Failure

Executive Summary

Reading is essential to success in our society. The ability to read is highly valued and important for social and economic advancement. Of course, most children learn to read fairly well. In this report, we are most concerned with the large numbers of children in America whose educational careers are imperiled because they do not read well enough to ensure understanding and to meet the demands of an increasingly competitive economy. Current difficulties in reading largely originate from rising demands for literacy, not from declining absolute levels of literacy. In a technological society, the demands for higher literacy are ever increasing, creating more grievous consequences for those who fall short.

The importance of this problem led the U.S. Department of Education and the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services to ask the National Academy of Sciences to establish a committee to examine the prevention of reading difficulties. Our committee was charged with conducting a study of the effectiveness of interventions for young children who are at risk of having problems learning to read. The goals of the project were three: (1) to comprehend a rich but diverse research base; (2) to translate the research findings into advice and guidance for parents, educators, publishers, and others

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child they work with. But it does mean that there is a common menu of materials, strategies, and environments from which effective teachers make choices. This in turn means that, as a society, our most important challenge is to make sure that our teachers have access to those tools and the knowledge required to use them well. In other words, there is little evidence that children experiencing difficulties learning to read, even those with identifiable learning disabilities, need radically different sorts of supports than children at low risk, although they may need much more intensive support. Childhood environments that support early literacy development and excellent instruction are important for all children. Excellent instruction is the best intervention for children who demonstrate problems learning to read.

**CONCEPTUALIZING READING AND
READING INSTRUCTION**

Effective reading instruction is built on a foundation that recognizes that reading ability is determined by multiple factors: many factors that correlate with reading fail to explain it; many experiences contribute to reading development without being prerequisite to it; and although there are many prerequisites, none by itself is considered sufficient.

Adequate initial reading instruction requires that children:

- use reading to obtain meaning from print,
- have frequent and intensive opportunities to read,
- are exposed to frequent, regular spelling-sound relationships,
- learn about the nature of the alphabetic writing system, and
- understand the structure of spoken words.

Adequate progress in learning to read English (or any alphabetic language) beyond the initial level depends on:

- having a working understanding of how sounds are represented alphabetically,

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

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obstacle to reading will magnify the first two: the absence or loss of an initial motivation to read or failure to develop a mature appreciation of the rewards of reading.

As in every domain of learning, motivation is crucial. Although most children begin school with positive attitudes and expectations for success, by the end of the primary grades and increasingly thereafter, some children become disaffected. The majority of reading problems faced by today's adolescents and adults are the result of problems that might have been avoided or resolved in their early childhood years. It is imperative that steps be taken to ensure that children overcome these obstacles during the primary grades.

Reducing the number of children who enter school with inadequate literacy-related knowledge and skill is an important primary step toward preventing reading difficulties. Although not a panacea, this would serve to reduce considerably the magnitude of the problem currently facing schools. Children who are particularly likely to have difficulty with learning to read in the primary grades are those who begin school with less prior knowledge and skill in relevant domains, most notably, general verbal abilities, the ability to attend to the sounds of language as distinct from its meaning, familiarity with the basic purposes and mechanisms of reading, and letter knowledge. Children from poor neighborhoods, children with limited proficiency in English, children with hearing impairments, children with preschool language impairments, and children whose parents had difficulty learning to read are particularly at risk of arriving at school with weaknesses in these areas and hence of falling behind from the outset.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The critical importance of providing excellent reading instruction to all children is at the heart of the committee's recommendations. Accordingly, our central recommendation characterizes the nature of good primary reading instruction. We also recognize that excellent instruction is most effective when children arrive in first grade motivated for literacy and with the necessary linguistic, cognitive, and early literacy skills. We therefore recommend attention to

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We recommend that first through third grade curricula include the following components:

- Beginning readers need explicit instruction and practice that lead to an appreciation that spoken words are made up of smaller units of sounds, familiarity with spelling-sound correspondences and common spelling conventions and their use in identifying printed words, "sight" recognition of frequent words, and independent reading, including reading aloud. Fluency should be promoted through practice with a wide variety of well-written and engaging texts at the child's own comfortable reading level.

- Children who have started to read independently, typically second graders and above, should be encouraged to sound out and confirm the identities of visually unfamiliar words they encounter in the course of reading meaningful texts, recognizing words primarily through attention to their letter-sound relationships. Although context and pictures can be used as a tool to monitor word recognition, children should not be taught to use them to substitute for information provided by the letters in the word.

- Because the ability to obtain meaning from print depends so strongly on the development of word recognition accuracy and reading fluency, both of the latter should be regularly assessed in the classroom, permitting timely and effective instructional response when difficulty or delay is apparent.

- Beginning in the earliest grades, instruction should promote comprehension by actively building linguistic and conceptual knowledge in a rich variety of domains, as well as through direct instruction about comprehension strategies such as summarizing the main idea, predicting events and outcomes of upcoming text, drawing inferences, and monitoring for coherence and misunderstandings. This instruction can take place while adults read to students or with when students read themselves.

- Once children learn some letters, they should be encouraged to write them, use them to begin writing words or parts of words, and use words to begin writing sentences. Instruction should be designed with the understanding that the use of invented spelling is not in conflict with teaching correct spelling. Beginning writing with

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care settings pursuant to expectations that their mothers will join the work force, it becomes critical that the preschool opportunities available to lower-income families be designed in ways that support language and literacy development.

Preschool programs, even those designed specifically as interventions for children at risk of reading difficulties, should be designed to provide optimal support for cognitive, language, and social development, within this broad focus, however, ample attention should be paid to skills that are known to predict future reading achievement, especially those for which a causal role has been demonstrated. Similarly, and for the same reasons, kindergarten instruction should be designed to stimulate verbal interaction, to enrich children's vocabularies, to encourage talk about books, to provide practice with the sound structure of words, to develop knowledge about print, including the production and recognition of letters, and to generate familiarity with the basic purposes and mechanisms of reading.

Children who will probably need additional support for early language and literacy development should receive it as early as possible. Pediatricians, social workers, speech-language therapists, and other preschool practitioners should receive research-based guidelines to assist them to be alert for signs that children are having difficulties acquiring early language and literacy skills. Parents, relatives, neighbors, and friends can also play a role in identifying children who need assistance. Through adult education programs, public service media, instructional videos provided by pediatricians, and other means, parents can be informed about what skills and knowledge children should be acquiring at young ages, and about what to do and where to turn if there is concern that a child's development may be lagging behind in some respects.

**Education and Professional Development for All Involved in
Literacy Instruction**

The critical importance of the teacher in the prevention of reading difficulties must be recognized, and efforts should be made to provide all teachers with adequate knowledge about reading and the knowledge and skill to teach reading or its developmental precursors.

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- If language minority children arrive at school with no proficiency in English but speaking a language for which there are instructional guides, learning materials, and locally available proficient teachers, then these children should be taught how to read in their native language while acquiring proficiency in spoken English, and then subsequently taught to extend their skills to reading in English.

- If language minority children arrive at school with no proficiency in English but speak a language for which the above conditions cannot be met and for which there are insufficient numbers of children to justify the development of the local community to meet such conditions, the instructional priority should be to develop the children's proficiency in spoken English. Although print materials may be used to develop understanding of English speech sounds, vocabulary, and syntax, the postponement of formal reading instruction is appropriate until an adequate level of proficiency in spoken English has been achieved.

Ensuring Adequate Resources to Meet Children's Needs

To be effective, schools with large numbers of children at risk for reading difficulties need rich resources—manageable class size and student-teacher ratios, high-quality instructional materials in sufficient quantity, good school libraries, and pleasant physical environments. Achieving this may require extra resources for schools that serve a disproportionate number of high-risk children.

Even in schools in which a large percentage of the students are not achieving at a satisfactory level, a well-designed classroom reading program, delivered by an experienced and competent teacher, may be successful in bringing most students to grade level or above during the primary grades. However, achieving and sustaining radical gains is often difficult when improvements are introduced on a classroom by classroom basis. In a situation of school-wide poor performance, school restructuring should be considered as a vehicle for preventing reading difficulties. Ongoing professional development for teachers is typically a component of successful school restructuring efforts.

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CONCLUSION

Most reading difficulties can be prevented. There is much work to be done, however, that requires the aggressive deployment of the information currently available, which is distilled in this report. In addition, many questions remain unanswered concerning reading development, some of which we address in our recommendations for research. While science continues to discover more about how children learn to read and how teachers and others can help them, the knowledge currently available can equip our society to promote higher levels of literacy for large numbers of American schoolchildren. The committee's hope is that the recommendations contained in this report will provide direction for the first important steps.

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**Review of Extended Day and After-School Programs
And Their Effectiveness**

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**Center for Research on the Education of Students Placed At Risk
Johns Hopkins University & Howard University**

March 1998

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Abstract

This report identifies and reviews twenty-five programs that have been used as after-school programs by schools and/or communities, including extended day programs, and also including some supplemental school programs that have potential for after-school usage. Five categories of programs are reviewed: language arts after-school programs, study skills programs, academic programs in other curriculum areas, tutoring programs for reading, and community-based programs. The review discusses these programs in terms of their evaluation evidence of effectiveness for improving student outcomes and their evidence of replicability in other locations. The report also summarizes correlational research studies that have examined the effects of after-school programs. Based on the program evaluations and the correlational research, the report presents a set of components of effective after-school programs and presents recommendations for implementing these components. The report concludes that stronger evaluations of these and other current after-school programs must be conducted, and other well designed programs need to be developed and evaluated, in order to produce after-school programs that can be considered to be effective and replicable for increasing student achievement or other student outcomes.

Introduction

Educators and policy makers have begun to show increasing interest in programs designed for use in the hours after school [see for example, Carnegie Corporation (1992, 1994a, b); United States Commission on Time and Learning (1992, 1994)] for three primary reasons. First, attendance in after-school programs can provide children with supervision during a time when many might be exposed to and engage in more anti-social and destructive behaviors. Second, after-school programs can provide enriching experiences that broaden children's perspectives and improve their socialization. Third, and a more recent emphasis, after-school programs can perhaps help to improve the academic achievement of students who are not achieving as well as they need to during regular school hours.

Many children do not receive adequate supervision during the after-school hours (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1987; Schwartz, 1996; Pierce, Ham, & Vandell, 1997). When the dismissal bell rings, many children go home to empty houses (latch-key children), and many others "hang out" on the streets until their parents return home. Children left unsupervised after school often fall prey to deviant behaviors that are harmful to them, to their schools, and to their communities (Galambos & Maggs 1991; Steinberg, 1986; Bronfenbrenner, 1986; Furby & Beyth-Marom, 19). They are more likely to be involved in delinquent acts during these hours (Galambos & Maggs, 1991, Schwartz, 1996). Numerous reports have documented that a high proportion of juvenile crimes are committed between the hours of 3:00 p.m. and 6:00 p.m. each day, and have created increased interest in strategies that will occupy students productively during these hours (CCSSO, 1987; Henderson, 1990; Jacoby, 1986).

For children who face academic or behavioral obstacles to success during the school hours, the non-school hours can be a time to attempt to eliminate these barriers and improve the education of the "whole child." However, accomplishing this goal is not as easy as it may seem. Concern for what happens to school-aged children during the non-school hours is not a new topic of discussion (Seligson, 1986, 1988, 1993). Many studies concerning this issue have been conducted over time, asking whether supervised care is better than non-supervised care, exploring differences in types of after-school arrangements, and trying to find the best types of after-school arrangements based on the needs of the family, the child, and the resources available.

In addition to providing supervision, after-school/extended school-day programs are now being seen as a means of improving academic achievement and providing opportunities for academic enrichment, social, cultural, and recreational activities (Campbell & Flaker, 1985; Boyer, 1987; Burns, 1992, Halpern, 1992). Recently, Congress has allocated \$40 million to create "21st Century after-school community learning centers" across the country, in hopes of improving the lives of children and the communities they live in during the non-school hours. In his 1998 State of the Union address, President Clinton proposed substantially increasing federal funding for after-school programs. In particular, extended-day and after-school programs have been proposed as a means of accelerating the achievement of students placed at risk of academic failure due to poverty, lack of parental support, and other factors (Frymier & Gansneder, 1989; McGillis, 1996; McAdoo, 1988).

Because extended school-day programs almost always serve smaller numbers of children than the school as a whole, they can make effective use of resources that are less

easily available during the school day. For example, a limited number of computers can serve the needs of after-school computer clubs, because there are smaller student-to-computer ratios. One small stage can meet the needs of drama club because there are fewer students enrolled in the class. And volunteers willing to work with children on academic, cultural, or sports activities, especially older students, are usually more available after school than during school hours.

Although the benefits to be derived from the use of the after-school hours seem great, the most effective ways to capitalize on this opportunity are not well understood, and existing after-school efforts vary enormously in purposes and in operations. They range from purely daycare to purely academic to purely enrichment programs to various mixtures of these. Also, their costs vary greatly; some programs can be very expensive and may take resources that could be used more appropriately for other investments.

To identify effective strategies for students outside of school hours, particularly for at-risk students, it is essential to know what types of extended-day programs and even what specific programs are most likely to lead to valued outcomes. However, this kind of research is very limited. In some studies (Engman, 1992; Henderson, 1990, Mercure, 1993, Milch, 1986), academically based after-school programs have been loosely linked to improving some at-risk children's academic and social skills and work habits. But this body of literature largely studies the effects of after-school programs as a whole, rather than the effects of specific effective and replicable after-school or extended school-day models or programs.

There are few studies of the effects of specific after-school programs, and those that exist have found highly inconsistent outcomes. Selection bias is a frequent problem,

as students who voluntarily attend various after-school programs may be different from those who do not choose to do so. Further, the limited research has primarily involved middle-income Caucasian students, making the results difficult to generalize to disadvantaged or minority children. Circumstances surrounding the type of care provided, the kinds of students who attended the different programs, and what the programs themselves entailed, have rarely been studied in detail. Different studies have yielded different answers to different questions about different issues relating to after-school child-care.

The evaluation of after-school programs can be challenging (Mayer, 1995). Frequently, after-school programs and the regular school day programs are not directly connected, so studying the effects of the after-school program on regular school-day academics is difficult. After-school programs may exist in community centers, in clubs, or on school grounds, and they may serve students from many different schools.

Before addressing the effects of programs that take place in the after-school hours, we need to define the types of programs and their purposes. Three types are distinguishable: daycare, after-school, and extended school-day programs. Each of these types of programs addresses different issues and has different strengths.

Daycare Programs

Daycare programs do not have an academic focus or goals, but instead, focus on recreational and cultural activities. They are rarely aligned with academic instruction provided during the regular school day, although some do provide homework assistance. The main goal of daycare programs is to provide students with a "safe haven" during the hours of 3:00 p.m to 6:00 p.m., emphasizing safety, a positive climate, and enjoyable

cultural and recreational activities. Such programs primarily involve children from preschool to third grade. Licensing is required for daycare program staff, and many also have Child Development Associate degrees.

After-School Programs

After-school programs are more likely to involve school-age children (ages 5-11-8) and emphasize academic as well as non-academic activities. Compared to daycare programs, after-school programs are more likely to provide transportation, a wider variety of recreational programs, and increased child-to-adult ratios. These programs are usually more affordable than child-care. Examples of after-school programs include Boys and Girls Clubs, the YMCA, Big Brothers/Big Sisters, ASPIRA, church programs, and municipal parks and recreation programs.

Some after-school programs offer specialized activities, using professionals or qualified persons and volunteers to provide instruction in such areas as ballet, tap-dancing, music, karate, and chess. These programs seek to help children to make creative use of their free time. Students may enroll in these classes, or parents may enroll them, purely out of interest in the skills, not to satisfy any childcare needs. The classes often provide progress information to the children and to the instructors, such as attaining badges or promotions to higher ranks in the Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts, recitals in musical classes, and tournaments in karate or chess classes. The classes provide children with opportunities to explore and develop skills, talents, and hobbies, and later to show these skills to their parents and others. Academic achievement, attendance, or other school-related outcomes may or may not be primary or secondary goals of these programs.

Extended School-day Programs

The extended school-day model is a relatively new phenomenon. This type of program takes place during the same after-school hours, but differs from daycare and after-school programs in that it is an extension of the regular school day. While daycare and after-school programs may or may not take place on the school grounds, the extended school-day program typically takes place inside the school building and provides a mixture of academic, recreational, and cultural programs. Regular school day teachers and paraprofessionals are usually paid to stay at the school during the non-school hours.

The extended school-day model usually has an academic focus, and the goals, outcomes, and methods of academic instruction are directly related to and aligned with what happens during the day. Teachers conduct small-group or tutorial remedial classes, supervise homework clubs, and teach study skills and advanced or supplementary courses (e.g., foreign language or advanced science). Additionally, paraprofessionals and/or community volunteers may provide cultural and recreational programs. Teachers may also supervise and train volunteers or paraprofessionals to provide academic or nonacademic services. Extended school-day programs can be school-wide or district-wide. They are rarely mandatory, but may provide greater or lesser inducements for children to attend.

Some programs invite community members to their program planning sessions and include them as teachers for some of the classes and activities. These individuals may be associated with churches, private and public corporations, law-enforcement agencies, parent groups (e.g., PTAs), businesses, members of the armed forces, and other

groups. In some cases, they make the extended school-day program a hub of community activity, and over time the program may begin to have a broad impact on the community.

One recent trend in extended school-day programs is the development of curricula tied to district, state, and national goals, yet designed to be taught after school. Such programs may involve well-designed curricula, teacher training, and student assessments. These programs provide students with complete, well-tested approaches, resources, trainers, and so on, reducing the need for every school to re-invent the wheel. They seem promising, have been widely used, and have at least anecdotal indications of effectiveness in individual schools that have made gains. However, many have not been used with at-risk students and, while they may have been assessed for implementation and enjoyment, few have been evaluated for achievement purposes using methods that would pass even the most minimal standards.

Focus and Methodology of the Review

The goal of this paper is to examine current after-school and extended school-day programs, both to review the limited research on the effects of these programs on student achievement and to describe promising strategies communities can use in partnership with schools to create effective after-school programs in elementary and secondary schools.

The paper identifies and describes programs that have been shown to have evidence of effectiveness for children during the non-school hours. We also include current programs that have little evidence of effectiveness as yet, but do have active dissemination and replicability materials that could be used during the non-school hours. Not all of the programs in this paper were developed specifically for use after-school.

Some programs have been adapted for use during the after-school hours, and others are adaptable. For programs that can be adapted for use during the non-school hours, the evidence of effectiveness presented is usually not from use after-school but from use as supplementary programs. This review does not examine the benefits of different types of care, which is presented in various other studies (see, for example, Posner & Vandell-Lowe (1994), Galambos & Maggs (1991), Vandell-Lowe & Ramanan (1991), Vandell & Corasaniti (1988), Seligson & Allenson (1993), Seligson (1986, 1988), and Steinberg, (1986). However, we summarize some of the results of these studies in a later section.

Review Criteria

Ideally, this review would identify only programs that have strong evidence of effectiveness, evidence of replicability, and evidence based on use as an after-school program, and these are the criteria used in our identification and description of the programs. For each of these criteria, however, concessions are made in order to include a number of programs that may have potential but are yet unproven in one or more areas of our criteria. Issues of potential interest include the following:

1. Effectiveness

For after-school programs, one major limitation of evaluations of effectiveness is self-selection. Ideally, an after-school program evaluation would be considered to be rigorous if the self-selected students were instead randomly assigned into control and treatment groups. An alternative would be if the students who received the specific after-school programs were compared to a matched group of children who were eligible but did not have opportunities to participate. However, if these criteria for inclusion in this review were inviolate, only four programs would qualify: the Memphis extended-day tutoring

program, the Howard Street tutoring program, Fifth Dimension, and Exemplary Center for Reading Instruction (ECRI). For this review, we include evaluations that do not meet these effectiveness criteria, but in which the programs are replicable and disseminable. Programs that do not quite meet the effectiveness standards are referred to as promising as opposed to effective-- they do show some positive results, but it is difficult to tell whether these results are due to the program or due to other things taking place in the school or district

Replicability

Replicability means that a program has been implemented and evaluated in a site beyond its original pilot. Some of the programs in this review are included in the National Diffusion Network (NDN), and thus they have some evidence of being used beyond their original sites. Some programs have stronger evidence of replication than others, and some programs have stronger processes and materials to achieve widespread dissemination than others.

Evaluation or Application in After-School Settings.

The ideal after-school review would focus only on programs that have been specifically developed for and proven effective for students in after-school settings. Again, if these constraints were applied rigorously in this review, the evidence would show very few programs. Thus, this review includes programs that could be used during non-school hours but have not, and programs that were specifically created for use during the regular school-day but have also been used after school.

Literature search procedures

The broadest possible search was carried out for programs that had been evaluated and/or applied to students in after-school settings. Sources of information for this review included the National Diffusion Network (NDN), Educational Resources Information Centers (ERIC), education journals, conferences, and personal communications. The National Diffusion Network was a part of the U.S. Department of Education until 1996. A Joint Dissemination Review Panel (JDRP), later called the Program Effectiveness Panel (PEP), identified promising programs that had evidence of evaluation and possible effectiveness, and these programs then qualified for dissemination through the NDN. Evaluation requirements for these programs were not rigorous, however, and many of the evaluations looked only at pre-post and NCE gains as evidence of effectiveness.

Effect Sizes

Evidence of effectiveness in this review is reported when possible in the form of effect sizes or NCEs. An effect size is the proportion of a standard deviation by which an experimental group exceeds a control group. To give a sense of scale, an effect size of +1.0 would be equivalent to 100 points on the Stanford Achievement Test scale, two stanines, 15 points of IQ, or about 21 NCEs. In general, an effect size of +0.25 or more would be considered educationally significant.

Types of Programs and Their Evaluations

Twenty-five programs met the inclusion criteria included in this review. Programs included fell into one of five major categories. The first category includes programs that address a specific academic component of the curriculum: Language arts. Programs included in this category are supplemental to the regular school-day program,

and have been used during the non-school hours. The second category is study-skills programs. Programs in this category address all of the areas of the curriculum, but focus mainly on teaching study and comprehension skills to low achievers. The next category is after-school programs that address other specific areas of the curriculum, such as science or computer technology. The fourth category includes tutoring programs aimed at improving reading. These differ from the programs in the first category primarily because these programs are one-on-one tutoring. Some are adaptable for use in after-school settings and some are not. The fifth category consists of community-based after-school programs. These programs are not necessarily academic in nature but are located in schools and are operated as community-based and community-owned programs. In addition to those five types, we discuss programs that could serve as add-on cultural and recreational components of after-school or extended school-day programs.

The following sections describe some of the most widely used after-school and extended-day programs. They present the current state of the evidence, if any, and the apparent replicability of the model, especially with students placed at risk. In searching for evaluations, an emphasis was placed on studies that compared well-matched experimental and control groups on appropriate measures of achievement and other outcomes.

Language Arts After-School Programs

Books and Beyond

Books and Beyond (1995; Topolovac, 1982a, 1982b) is a voluntary reading program aimed at helping and motivating students in grades k-8 to read more recreationally and watch less television. The program strives to help students become more critical about the types of television shows that they watch. With the combination of discriminate television watching and enjoyable recreational reading, the ultimate goal of Books and Beyond is to improve reading skills and to improve students' attitudes towards books and reading. Students earn small awards such as theme folders, pencils, and gold medals if they read a certain number of books, depending upon grade level. Books and Beyond supplements the school's regular reading program, and has also been implemented in after-school or extended school-day programs.

When schools implement Books and Beyond, they develop a coordinating team which consists of the principal, library-media specialist, three teachers, and three parents. All teachers are informed about the program and encouraged to participate by reading aloud to their classes on a regular basis and by acting as role models who record their own recreational reading. The main implementation and operation of the program are usually the responsibility of the core team--including parents--rather than the individual classroom teacher.

When after-school programs implement the after-school version of Books and Beyond, the core team consists of a director and two or three staff coordinators.

Additionally, older students (junior high school and high school students) can be used as

reading models, and they along with parents are responsible for keeping track of the books read.

The intended audience for this program is students from varying socioeconomic backgrounds, including gifted, at-risk, special education, and bilingual students. Non-readers can participate in the program by having books read to them; readers can include tutors, study buddies, community readers and/or caregivers. Schools operate Books and Beyond for six to eight months, allowing sufficient time to build positive reading habits, and the program is implemented in the form of a read-a-thon.

Books and Beyond includes a parental component. Parent volunteers coordinate the record-keeping activities of the program, including tracking books read by the students and the various awards presented. The program asks parents who work with the program at home to read to their children, take them to the public library, help them to keep records of the books they read at home and at school, chart the amount of time that they spend watching television, and model reading themselves.

Students in kindergarten through third grade have a goal of 120 books over the course of the program that they are required to read, or have read to them, if they wish to earn a gold medal award at the end of the program. Children in grades 4-8 are required to read 2,400 pages in order to obtain a gold medal. These goals are adaptable, depending on the needs of the children involved in the program. Books and Beyond typically receives support and endorsement from local businesses. Read-a-thon topics include Travel through Time, Jog America, Quest for Knowledge, Sports Decathlon, Around the World with Books, and Mysteries of the Deep. These topics provide a thematic background for the read-a-thon.

The evaluations of Books and Beyond do not include evaluations of the program in after-school or extended school-day settings. The pilot evaluation of Books and Beyond was done in three evaluation sites (Books and Beyond, 1983), and the replication evaluation included a diverse group of students. In a Missouri study, the students in grades 2-8 were predominantly Caucasian middle-class students. In a Connecticut study, the students were in grades 2-6, and were of a variety of ethnic backgrounds. These students had been labeled at-risk for dropping out of school. Finally, students in a New York study were in grades 2-8, were composed of a variety of ethnic backgrounds, and had shown very low standardized test scores. The evaluation consisted of surveys of the students and their parents about the number of hours that the students had spent watching television as well as the number of books the students had read during the program. Students involved in the evaluations did not include all of the participants in the program, but rather, students who had read a minimum number of books (for example, 60 books in grades 2-3). Surveys were administered at the beginning and end of the sessions. The original study included a control group, but the differences in responses between the treatment and control groups were not statistically significant. All students, experimental as well as control, stated that they had decreased the amount of time they spent watching television, increased discrimination in their selection of television programs, would be more likely to choose to read a book than watch television (compared to the beginning of the program), read more at home, and had increased the number of books they read.

The limitations of these studies are clear. They rely on self-report data and have no assessment of actual gains in reading achievement. The gains that were noted on pre-post surveys were also seen among non-participants, and the studies were limited to

students who had read at least a certain number of books. These findings can only be considered anecdotal at best.

Books and Beyond currently exists in over 5,000 schools in forty-five states, has been expanded to the preschool level with the Ready to Read program, and has also been adopted by 130 elementary schools in the United Kingdom. Books and Beyond has also been used as a stand-alone after-school and extended school-day program in schools, in boys and girls' clubs, and in some after-school community efforts in low-income housing projects. Books and Beyond has added a new program titled Math, Science, and Beyond, seeking to teach children mathematics and science during the non-school hours. This program is currently being developed and evaluated under the auspices of a National Science Foundation grant for use in after-school programs.

The Junior Great Books Curriculum of Interpretive Reading, Writing, and Discussion

The Junior Great Books Curriculum of Interpretive Reading, Writing, and Discussion (JGBC) is a junior version of the Great Books Foundation program (1947; Criscuola, 1994; Nichols, 1992, 1993; Friertag & Chernoff, 1987; Will, 1986; & Kuenzer, 1978). It promotes cognitive processing in reading comprehension and literacy in children in grades 2-12 by emphasizing three kinds of thinking: factual, interpretive, and evaluative. These three types of information about text are explored by children using a method of shared inquiry and interpretive questioning, which encourages children to realize that there is more than one answer to questions asked about the text they have read.

The JGBC is not a stand-alone program, but is used as a partial replacement of or supplement to the regular reading program. Some activities that the children in the JGBC

program participants include text-opener, reading the story twice, sharing questions, directed notes, interpreting words, shared inquiry discussion, and writing after the discussion.

When schools choose to engage in the JGBC program, the school is provided with a two-day, ten-hour, "Basic Leader" training course. Schools can also choose to enroll in optional one- or two-day curriculum leader training courses. During this training, core leaders are taught to conduct activities such as preparing units and discussing interpretive issues together. Students who participate in the program are usually enrolled for one semester, where they study an anthology consisting of twelve selections.

In an evaluation of JGBC that researched the effects of the program on academic achievement in reading vocabulary, 150 JGBC students were matched with 120 control students in four schools, and tested on the ITBS (3 schools) and CTBS (1 school). This study includes both urban and suburban populations. The JGBC schools on each site involved a control classroom and a treatment (JGBC) classroom. Teachers were randomly assigned to a group (using a coin flip) to determine whether they would be in the control group or the experimental group. In four of the schools, JGBC students outscored their control group counterparts ($ES = +.24, +.34, +.39, \text{ and } +.32$). An additional internal evaluation of the program showed that students involved in JGBC demonstrated stronger interpretive thinking skills than did the students in the control group.

These results show the effects of JGBC in programs used during the school-day, and not after-school. JGBC was not originally created for use in after-school settings, but has often been used in that way. The creators of the program are able and willing to help

after-school programs to implement JGBC in their specific programs either with teachers or para-professionals (volunteers, parents, college students). JGBC exists in schools across the country.

Extended-Day Tutoring Program in the Memphis City Schools

In 1995, the Center for Research in Educational Policy at the University of Memphis developed an extended-day tutoring program for use in the public schools (Ross, Lewis, Smith & Sterbin, 1996). This program was piloted in Memphis, Tennessee, for the first year. The goal of the program was to improve reading performances of students in grades 2-4 by group-tutoring the children during the non-school hours, using a language arts curriculum. The program was mainly academic, using materials adapted from the Success For All (SFA) reading program (Slavin et al., 1996) and other reading strategies.

Teachers were trained in how to tutor students in reading using the Story Telling and Retelling (STaR) method used in SFA, as well as others, and used the Scott Foresman reading series. Some, but not all, of the schools involved in the program were Success For All schools during the regular day. Students were selected into the program based on their need for additional instruction. They were taught how to read and retell the stories assigned to them using STaR, and to use additional follow-up activities and strategies, such as partner reading. Students enrolled in the program attended the extended-day tutoring program between one and four hours each week. After their language arts lessons, they had opportunities to engage in cultural, recreational, and other academic enrichment programs, such as book clubs, computer skill-building activities, and test-taking strategies.

The participants in the program included 656 Title I students in grades 2-4. Half of the students participated in the program, and half of them did not. The students were not randomly selected into each group, but they were matched on the basis of standardized test scores, attitude, behavior, grade, and age. When the students were compared at the beginning of the project, the two groups did not differ in their test scores. The evaluation consisted of two parts: formative and summative. The formative part of the evaluation consisted of a teacher survey and observation forms which measured level of implementation of the tutoring program. The summative part of the evaluation measured Tennessee Comprehensive Assessment Program (TCAP) scores at the end of the session.

Two issues that plague evaluations of non-mandatory after-school programs are attendance and selection of a control group. Both were factors in this study. The average attendance for the after-school tutoring program was 75%. For the study, some analyses examined a treatment group consisting of students who attended the program at least 50% of the time; other analyses examined a treatment group of students who attended at least 80% of the time. The students who did not attend, or who had low attendance, were also added to the control group. The two groups were compared in various ways, using pre-reading test scores as the covariates. Overall, the greater the attendance rates, the more likely the students were to perform slightly better than their counterparts, with effect sizes ranging from +.11 to +.23. Additionally, students in the third grade who attended 80% of the time or more were more likely to do significantly better than their counterparts in the control group, and also better than their counterparts in grades 2 and 4 of the treatment

and control groups. The total increase in the number of NCE points for students in the third grade was 8.5, and it was lower for students in other grades.

Difficulties in finding an appropriate control group also affected this study. For example, the scores of both sets of students (treatment and control) were correlated using TCAP NCE scores. Eleven of the thirteen schools showed correlations of +.94 or higher on the pre-tests between the control and treatment group students, but one school showed only moderate correlations (+.47), and another school showed negative correlations (-.10), suggesting that the control groups and the experimental groups were not well matched. The initial analyses described above included the outlier groups.

The Coca Cola Valued Youth Program

The Coca Cola Valued Youth Program (VYP) (1991) is a cross-age tutoring program designed to increase the self-esteem and school success of at-risk middle and high school students by placing them in positions of responsibility as tutors of younger elementary school students. The program was originally developed by the Intercultural Development Research Association in San Antonio, Texas. Coca Cola funded the original implementation of the program in five school districts in San Antonio between 1984 and 1988, which included approximately 525 high school student tutors and 1575 elementary student tutees.

The overall goal of the program is to reduce the dropout rates of at-risk students by improving their self-concepts and academic skills. This is done by making them tutors, and providing assistance with basic academic skills. The program also emphasizes elimination of non-academic and disciplinary factors that contribute to dropping out. For example, it attempts to develop students' senses of self-control, decrease student truancy,

and reduce disciplinary referrals. It also seeks to form home-school partnerships to increase the level of support available to students.

The tutors are required to enroll in a special tutoring class which focuses on improving their own basic academic skills as well as their tutoring skills. The tutors are paid a minimum wage stipend, and they work with three elementary students at a time for a total of about four hours per week. They are encouraged to develop self-awareness and pride, which is expected to make them less likely to exhibit disciplinary problems.

Functions are held to honor and recognize the tutors as role models. They receive t-shirts, caps, and certificates of merit for their efforts.

The main evaluation of the Coca Cola Valued Youth Program compared 63 VYP tutors to 70 students in a comparison group (Cardenas, Montecel, Supik, & Harris, 1992) in four San Antonio schools. The students were matched on the basis of age, ethnicity, lunch eligibility, percentage of students retained in grade, and scores on tests of reading, quality of school life, and self-concept. Students were selected (not randomly) into the experimental group based on scheduling and availability, and then the remaining students were placed into the comparison group. Nearly all of the students in both groups were Latino and limited English proficient. The control students were somewhat less likely to qualify for free lunch or to have been retained in grade.

Two years after the program began, 12% of the comparison students but only 1% of the VYP students had dropped out. Reading grades were significantly higher for the VYP group, as were scores on a self-esteem measure and on a measure toward attitude towards school.

1970
WYV
2011

The VYP has been widely replicated throughout the southwest and elsewhere. In 1990, additional funding was provided by Coca Cola for sites in California, Florida, New York, and Texas, and the program is now being extended into schools in Idaho, Oregon, and Montana and other states and schools across the country.

Project Success Enrichment

Project Success Enrichment (PSE, 1995) was originally developed to enrich the language arts of gifted and talented students in elementary schools during the regular school day by providing them with learning activities that include higher order thinking skills, cooperative learning, interactive discussions, and shared decision making. Since its original development, it has been used among children of varying socio-economic, racial, and academic achievement levels. Although PSE has both a language arts and a visual arts K-12 component, the area that received validation from the National Diffusion Network (NDN) was Language Arts in grades 4-6.

Teachers who incorporate PSE into their curriculum attend a two-day workshop and learn how to adapt their curriculum to the program's goals. Teachers plan their PSE curriculum in a structured and hierarchical manner specified by the model.

Project Success Enrichment uses a whole-language approach to teach language arts, incorporating and connecting reading, writing, and thinking to specific academic processes. Students work on such language arts skills as imagery (use of metaphors and similes), vocabulary, sentences, literature, and formatting their work. They engage in writing short stories and poetry, drafting and editing their work, analyzing literature, and completing and evaluating projects.

PSE was evaluated in a study (PSE, 1995) that compared the language arts performance of over seven hundred PSE students in gifted programs in grades 3-7 with a control group, using an alternative assessment developed and validated by Sebesta (PSE, 1995). The work of all of the students in the control and the experimental groups was randomly paired (using a random number table) and then given to the evaluators. Evaluators were asked to evaluate the products with ratings of whether the portfolio products were better than those of an average gifted student for the grade level being assessed, without knowing which students belonged to which groups. Results were analyzed using the sign test, and effect sizes were calculated using Cohen's "g". Overall, gifted students who had received PSE outperformed comparison gifted students with respect to the number of "better" ratings. All of the differences between the two groups showed effect sizes between +.44 and +.50.

PSE is also involved in other national and developmental projects such as Applying Technology in Rural Education (ATIRE), and Project Step-Up.

Exemplary Center for Reading Instruction

The goal of ECRI (Reid, 1989) is to improve elementary school students' reading ability. This program seeks to improve decoding, comprehension, and vocabulary skills by emphasizing word recognition, study skills, spelling, penmanship, proofing, and writing skills, leading to improvement in decoding, comprehension, and vocabulary.

ECRI teachers expect all students to excel. The lessons for ECRI are scripted and incorporate multisensory and sequential methods and strategies of teaching. In a typical lesson, teachers introduce new concepts in lessons using at least seven methods of instruction, teaching at least one comprehension skill, one study skill, and one grammar

or creative writing skill. Initially, students are prompted for answers by teachers. As the students begin to master the information presented, fewer and fewer prompts are provided and students perform more and more independently.

In one evaluation of ECRI (Read, 1989), researchers investigated the effects of ECRI on students in Grades 2 through 7 in Morgan County, Tennessee, compared to students in a control group who were using a commercial reading program. Both groups were tested using the Stanford Achievement Test reading and comprehension vocabulary sub-tests. ECRI students outperformed those in the control group, with effect sizes ranging from +.48 to +.90 in reading comprehension, and from +.31 to 1.40 in vocabulary. Another evaluation of the effectiveness of ECRI on Latino bilingual students in Oceanside, California; Killeen, Texas; and Calexico, California (Reid, 1989) showed NCE gains that ranged from +6.4 to +25.7. ECRI is used in hundreds of schools nationwide.

Although ECRI has been used mostly as a language-arts program, it has also been frequently used as an after-school remedial tutoring program. The ECRI after-school program began as a remedial tutoring program at Brigham Young University in Utah to improve the reading skills of special education students and high school students who were behind in reading. The program currently exists as a reading clinic, in which future and current teachers are trained to help students with reading difficulties using the ECRI method. The main evaluation of this program randomly assigned high school students with reading difficulties either to a control group that provided a generic method of reading remediation (control) or to a treatment group (ECRI). At the end of the school year, students in both groups were tested using a standardized test, and results showed

that students who had been involved in ECRI made significantly greater gains on the standardized tests than did students in the control groups.

The Imaginitis Learning System

The Imaginitis Learning System is a cooperative learning after-school language arts program created for students in grades 3-12. The goal of the program is to expose the participants to skills needed for effective and productive learning, in hopes that these will help the participants develop strong workplace competencies. The Imaginitis Learning System uses a language arts curriculum created at the University of Minnesota (Rogers, 1996), to teach such skills as cooperation, team building, and conflict resolution.

When schools take on the Imaginitis Learning System, the teachers are provided with a one-day training program that emphasizes the principles of cooperative learning. Students in the program are divided into groups by age and grade to work together in a team to creatively construct a book that eventually becomes a portfolio exhibition. The participants work individually on their own books, as well as collectively as a team, to create a class finished product. The team members work together and vote on what should be included or excluded in the process as well as in the final product. The teachers are trained to be "coaches" who keep scores based on the process of cooperative learning as they observe the various teams engage in collaboration. These scores are taken into account at the end of the session when the teachers evaluate the final product. The teachers evaluate the end-products for improvement of the students' writing, speaking, listening, and collaborating skills, as well as for the quality of the process that the students went through while planning the product.

The Imaginitis Learning Systems program has been evaluated in four sites across the country. The evaluations given to all of the sites consisted of two parts. The students were asked to respond to two surveys that measured responses toward cooperative learning and working with others, mastering academic environments, and overall perceptions of the student-teacher relationships. The second part of the evaluation measured the extent to which students reported that they would solve problems and resolve conflicts productively.

The four test sites were Lynnwood, CA, Baltimore, MD, Pennsylvania, PA. and Washington, DC. Overall, the results showed that the Imaginitis students were significantly higher than control students in the areas of academic self-esteem, cooperation, and perceptions of teacher/student relationships. However, as with other after-school programs, it was difficult to maintain a control group. In some cases, the groups were not evenly matched; in others the groups were evenly matched, but the researchers were unable to gather data for all of the sessions of the program. Because the Imaginitis students were self-selected, even "matched" cannot be considered equivalent, as the Imaginitis students were presumably more motivated. However, when the groups were evenly matched and the results were gathered for all sessions, Imaginitis students reported more positive results than the non-Imaginitis students.

Overall, elementary school and alternative high school students who had been involved in Imaginitis the previous year were more likely to carry over the effects of the program the following year.