

Sample Fact Packet



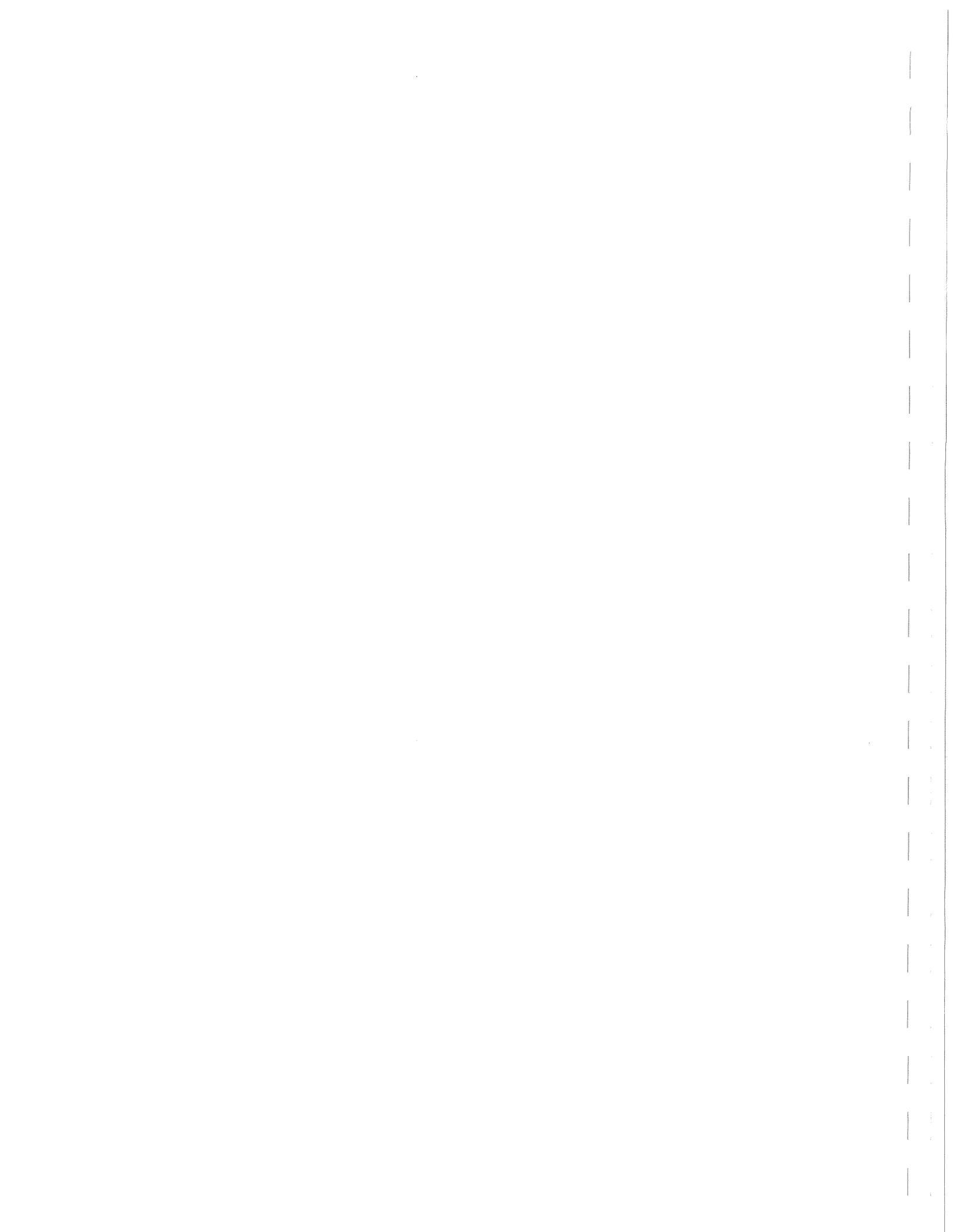
- I. WHERE WE ARE**
 - A. ISSUES TO CONSIDER**
 - 1. EDUCATION**
 - 2. LANGUAGE**
 - B. STATUS OF STUDENTS**

II. STRATEGIES

III. ASSESSING EFFORTS

IV. RESOURCES

- LINKS TO:**
- LEGAL CITATIONS**
 - GLOSSARY**



Fact Sheets on Educational Status of PreK-12 Students Taking Into Account the Issue of Poverty

I. BACKGROUND

A. DEFINITIONS:

Poverty:

The extent to which an individual does without resources - financial, emotional, mental, spiritual, physical, support systems, role models, knowledge of hidden rules (p. 11).” “The resources an individual has varies tremendously from situation to situation to situation. Poverty is more about other resources than it is about money. The other resources are those that educators can influence tremendously (p. 58).” (Payne, 1995).

Federal Poverty Guidelines: There are two slightly different versions of the federal poverty measure: the poverty thresholds and the poverty guidelines. The poverty thresholds are the original version of the federal poverty measure. They are updated each year by the Census Bureau and are used mainly for statistical purposes, for instance, preparing estimates of the number of Americans in poverty each year. The poverty guidelines are issued each year in the Federal Register by the Department of Health and Human Services (HHS). The guidelines are a simplification of the poverty thresholds and are used for administrative purposes, for instance, determining eligibility for certain federal programs. “In 1995 a family was considered poor if its annual income was less than \$10,030 for a family of two, less than \$12,590 for a family of three, less than \$15,150 for a family of four, and so on. Official poverty guidelines are adjusted each year for inflation.” (<http://www.sar.usf.edu/~sevenet/hhspov.html>)

Situational Poverty: a lack of resources attributable to a particular event, i.e., a death, chronic illness, divorce, etc. (Payne, 1995, p. 102)

Generational Poverty: Having been in poverty for at least two generations; however, the characteristics begin to surface much sooner than two generations if the family lives with others who are from generational poverty. Has its own culture, hidden rules, and belief systems. (Payne, 1995, pp. 101-2)

B. RELATED DEFINITIONS

Registers of Language: Every language in the world has five registers: frozen, formal, consultative, casual, intimate. Joos (1967), as reported in Payne (1995) found that one can go one register down in the same conversation and that is socially accepted. However, to drop two registers or more in the same conversation is to be socially offensive.

Hidden rules: the unspoken cues and habits of a group. Distinct cueing systems exist between and among groups and economic classes. (Payne, 1995, p. 82)

“Free” lunch designation is at 130% of the Federal poverty rate; “Reduced price” lunch is set at 185% of Federal poverty rate (From WI DPI Bureau for Food and Nutrition Services, Household Size-Income Scale for USDA Nutrition Programs, July 1, 1996 to June 30, 1997).

C. LEGAL CITATIONS

PL 103-382 Emergency Immigration Education Act of 1984
as amended by Improving America's Schools Act (IASA) of 1994
(20 U.S.C. 7544-7545)

See Federal Register, Monday, July 3, 1995, Vol. 60, No. 127, 34800-34830.
Title I - Helping Disadvantaged Children Meet High Standards
Head Start Act as amended (42 U.S.C. 981 et seq.)

II. WHERE WE ARE

A. BARRIERS (Not listed in order of importance)

1. "According to 1990 census figures, 188,886 Wisconsin children were living in poverty in 1989 and 14 Wisconsin counties had child poverty rates greater than 20%. Compared to other states, Wisconsin had among the very worst poverty rates for Asian and African American children. The Wisconsin poverty rate for African American children was 54.1% - a rate only exceeded by Louisiana - and Wisconsin was worst among the states for poverty among African American children under the age of 5" (Kaplan, 1994).
2. "The development of compensatory education programs has traditionally been informed by the belief that disadvantaged students can benefit most from a less challenging curriculum and limited achievement goals. Unfortunately this approach further hampers the ability of students to develop thinking skills, lowers their learning expectations, and stigmatizes them as inferior" (Passow, 1990).
3. Students from poverty organize information in the casual register and therefore do not succeed in a system whereby the teachers and tests have organized information in the formal register. Discourse: primary (the language an individual first acquires) and secondary (the language of the larger society that the individual must be able to use to function in the larger society). Students do much better in school when their primary discourse is the same as the secondary discourse (Gee, 1987, as reported in Payne, 1995).
4. The majority of minority students and poor students do not have access to formal register at home (the standard sentence syntax and word choice of work and school which has complete sentences and specific word choices). These students cannot use formal register which is a hidden rule of middle class and in which all the state tests, SAT, ACT, etc. are written. They do not have the vocabulary or the knowledge of sentence structure and syntax to use formal register (Montano-Harmon, 1991, as cited in Payne, 1995).
5. Educators do not fully understand the differences in language registers, hidden rules for economic classes, student characteristics of generational poverty and why we must rethink the notions of relationships and achievement when working with this group of students (Payne, 1995).

6. Educators need to know that being in poverty is rarely about a lack of intelligence or ability (Payne, 1995, p. 125) and that school failure cannot "be primarily attributed to characteristics of students and their families"(Hixson & Tinzmann, 1990, p. 5).
7. "Many individuals stay in poverty because they do not know there is a choice and if they do know that, have no one to teach them hidden rules or provide resources" (Payne, 1995, p. 125).

Given that urban students are more likely to be attending schools with high concentrations of low income students, the following facts about challenging school experiences in urban schools can be directly tied to barriers of poverty for K-12 students (Lippman, et al., pp. 7-9, 1996):

8. "Urban teachers had fewer resources available to them and less control over their curriculum than teachers in other locations, as did teachers in urban high poverty schools compared with those in rural high poverty schools."
9. "Teacher absenteeism, an indicator of morale, was more of a problem in urban schools than in suburban or rural school, and in urban high poverty schools compared with rural high poverty schools."

As well as policies, facilities, and the availability of resources, the following factors serve as barriers: (Knapp, M.S. et al., pp. 27-28, 1991)

10. insufficient resources: adequate instructional materials.
11. high pupil/staff ratios
12. physical plant problems
13. external mandates
14. lack of administrative support
15. a fragmented school day - students from poverty miss time in the classroom because of pull out compensatory education programs or other supplementary services.
16. The inflation-adjusted median income of young families with children plunged 34 percent between 1973 and 1992 (The State of America's Children Yearbook, 1995, Children's' Defense Fund, p. 18).
17. 15.7 million U.S. children were poor in 1993 - the highest number in 30 years (The State of America's Children Yearbook, 1995, Children's' Defense Fund, p. 18).
18. Between 1983 and 1992 the percentage of child support cases in which states collected any payments inched up from 14.7 percent to 18.7 percent. At that rate of progress, it would take more than 180 years for even partial child support to be collected in all cases (The State of America's Children Yearbook, 1995, Children's' Defense Fund, p. 18).

19. Underfunded schools: financial inequities which penalize those living in poor school districts (Renchler, 1993).
20. Schools not involving families to the fullest possible extent.
21. Working under the myth that, "for most of the children of poverty, academically challenging work in mathematics and literacy should be postponed until they are "ready" - that is, until they have acquired full mastery of basic skills" (Knapp, Shields, & Turnbull, p. i, 1992).
22. Lack of training and encouragement, support and flexibility for teachers to learn instructional practices aimed at meaning and understanding (Knapp, Shields, & Turnbull, p. i, 1992).
23. Most supplemental services (Chapter 1, ESL services, local programs) targeted to particular students provide extra practice in basic skills out of context; targeted supplemental instruction less often emphasizes meaning and understanding (Knapp, Shields, & Turnbull, p. ii, 1992).
24. Considerable constraints, pressure, and lack of support for teachers who use alternative instructional practices via conditions and policies from outside the classroom (Knapp, Shields, & Turnbull, p. iii, 1992).
25. "We often blame the students for their own educational failure" (Winfield, p. 1, 1994).
26. Discrimination and differential treatment, structural and programmatic barriers, declining support for schools, children, and families (Hixson & Tinzmann, 1990).

B. EFFECTS (OUTCOMES)

1. Academic:

Regardless of race or ethnicity, poor children are much more likely than nonpoor children to suffer developmental delay and damage, to drop out of high school, and to give birth during the teen years (Miranda, 1991).

"Poor children are more than twice as likely as nonpoor children never to finish high school" (The State of America's Children Yearbook, 1995, Children's' Defense Fund, p. 20).

"Schools are the only place where students can learn the choices and rules of the middle class" (Payne, 1995, p. 125).

More student absenteeism (Lippman, 1996).

Strong links between family income levels and children's I.Q.s - those living in persistent poverty during their first five years had I.Q.s averaging 9.1 points lower than the children in the sample whose families were not impoverished (Cohen as reported in Renchler, 1993).

“Students in high poverty regardless of location were less likely to feel safe in school, or to spend much time on homework than those in low poverty schools. Students in high poverty schools were much more likely to watch television excessively and to require more discipline by teachers in class compared with their counterparts in other locations; they were also more likely to be absent and possess weapons than those in rural high poverty schools.” (Lippman, et al., pp. 7-9, 1996)

Attributes of the population of students and the communities from which they come effect the classroom : student mobility, poor nutrition and health, drugs and violence, single parent homes, inability to buy basic materials, inadequate public transportation which impacts on students' ability to stay for after-school activities and for parents to attend school events, language proficiency (Knapp, M.S. et al., pp. 26-27, 1991).

Low SES students are generally clustered in schools that are grossly underfunded (Renchler, 1993).

2. Psychological and physical:

“Many economically disadvantaged children start out with brains already compromised. Poor nutrition, substance abuse, or excessive stress for a pregnant mother can jeopardize its structural integrity. Pregnant women in lower class urban neighborhoods are more likely to be exposed to lead from car exhaust and to other pollutants that may harm the brain” (Healy, 1990, p. 238).

“Nutrition may be inadequate, lead poisoning still a threat, and crowded quarters disruptive of free play, development of motor skills, and sleep patterns” (Healy, 1990, p. 238).

Are not emotionally reserved when angry. Tend to say exactly what is on their mind (Payne, 1995).

Dangers faced by poor children include: prenatal exposure to drugs and AIDS, low birth weight, poor nutrition, lead exposure, and personal injuries and accidents. Poor inner city youth are seven times more likely to be the victims of child abuse or neglect than are high-SES children.

Poverty can hurt children by leading to parental stress and less effective parenting, poor nutrition, housing problems and homelessness, and residence in deteriorating and dangerous neighborhoods (The State of America's Children Yearbook, 1995, Children's Defense Fund).

Low-income children are two times more likely than other children to die from birth defects; three times more likely to die from causes combined; four times more likely to die from fires; five times more likely to die from infections diseases and parasites; and six times more likely to from other diseases (The State of America's Children Yearbook, 1995, Children's

Defense Fund, p. 19).

Poor children in cities are less likely to receive immunization against diseases such as polio, diphtheria, tuberculosis, and tetanus than children in such countries as Grenada, Uganda, North Korea, and Mexico (Lee, 1991).

3. Career/vocational/employment:

Lack of understanding of the registers of formal and casual language and the hidden rules for different economic groups can prevent students from moving from poverty into middle class. May get mad and quit the job if they do not like the boss/teacher - the emphasis is on the current feeling, not the long term ramifications. Will work hard if they like you. Do not use conflict resolution skills. Prefer to settle issues in verbal or physical assaults. Use survival language - operate out of the casual register (Payne, 1995).

"Young adults who attended urban and urban high poverty schools had much higher poverty and unemployment rates later in life than those who had attended other schools" (Lippman, p. 12, 1996).

4. Citizenship, family, community:

"The cumulative personal income lost nationally as a result of student dropouts is staggering." "The lifetime personal income lost as a result of dropping out ranges from \$20,000 to \$200,000 per individual (Renchler, 1993).

Urban children are more than twice as likely to be living in poverty than those in suburban locations, 30 percent compared with 13 percent in 1990 (Lippman, L., Burns, S., & McArthur, E., 1996).

"Female-headed families continue to suffer extraordinarily high poverty rates, but poverty rates among married-couple families with children also have increased substantially, rising by 20 percent between 1979 and 1989. Although child poverty has exploded among every racial and ethnic group during this period, white children accounted for the greatest increase in the total number of children added to the poverty rolls" (Yearbook 1991 Annual Report of the Children's Defense Fund, p. 22).

C. NEEDS

1. Educators and others must become mindful that providing equitable education for all students is a legal requirement. "Titles VI, IX, and Section 504 of the Civil Rights Act all provide broad-reaching standards for complying with equity and non-discrimination aspects of the law as it applies to education" (Hixson & Tinzmann, 1990, p. 5)
2. Direct instruction re: the teaching of procedural self-talk, planning, goal setting, coping strategies, appropriate relationships, options during problem-solving, access to information and know-how, and connections to additional resources (Payne, 1995, p. 154).

3. "A comprehensive approach to school-family-community partnerships that is built into the school's plans for reform or restructuring, where the partnerships are designed to meet particular needs and requirements of the plans being developed to promote the social and academic success of all of the students" (Davies, D., 1994).
4. A way to link students and schools to integrated health and human services (<http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/pathwayg.htm> - Pathways home page).
5. Financial restructuring to help low-SES student overcome the disadvantages built into current school finance structures (Harp, 1993; Renschler, 1993).
6. A study conducted by Stevens and Grymes (1993) showed that OTL (opportunity to learn) is "virtually an unknown concept in the United States. Students' differences in academic achievement are not being related to an analysis of OTL. Lack of OTL information hampers teachers' abilities to improve their teaching practices.
7. "Effective program for the disadvantaged student involves providing opportunities to learn at high levels, that all students are being held to the same high standards, and are given the means to achieve them" Wirebaugh, in progress Master's paper, UW-Madison; LeTendre, 1995).
8. In our examination of strategies and programs we have "consistently observed two troubling, if not new, phenomena." The first is commonly known as the 'fade-out' effect (gains in programs drop off when students are promoted or move to another school), and secondly few programs explicitly address the student as a whole person with a variety of complex needs and experiences, all of which have some impact, on her or his ability to learn (Letgers, McDill, & McPartland, 1994).
9. "Resources of students and adults should be analyzed before dispensing advice or seeking solutions to the situation." "Educators have tremendous opportunities to influence some of the non-financial resources that make such a difference in student's lives. It costs nothing to be an appropriate role model, for example" (Payne, p. 59, p. 59 1995).
10. "To better understand poverty, one must understand three aspects of language: registers of language, discourse patterns, and story structure. Many of the key issues for schools and businesses are related to these three patterns that often are different in poverty than they are in middle class (Payne, p. 61 1995).
11. "Assumptions made about an individual's intelligence and approaches to the school and or work setting may be about his/her understanding of hidden rules; students need to be taught the hidden rules of middle class - not in denigration of their own but rather as another set of rules that can be used if they so choose" (Payne, 1995, pp. 98-99).

12. "An understanding of the culture and values of poverty will lessen the anger educators may periodically feel when dealing with these students and parents" (Payne, 1995, p. 99).
13. "Many of the attitudes that students and parents bring with them are an integral part of their culture and belief systems. Middle class solutions should not necessarily be imposed when other, more workable solutions, might be found" (Payne, 1995, p. 99).
14. We need to understand that students from poverty may have these characteristics: are extremely disorganized, frequently lose papers, won't have signatures; bring many reasons why something is missing or the paper is gone, etc.; don't do homework; are physically aggressive; like to entertain; only see part of what is on the page; only do a part of the assignment; can't seem to get started (no procedural self-talk); cannot monitor their own behavior; laugh when they are disciplined; decide whether they will work or not in your class based on whether they like you; tell stories in the causal register structure; don't know or use middle class courtesies; dislike authority; talk back and are extremely participatory (Payne, 1995, p. 122-123).

III. STRATEGIES

A. USED TO ELIMINATE/REDUCE BARRIERS

1. What We Used to Do/Have Done: Compensatory education based on a deficit model (Letgers, McDill, McPartland, 1994); Tracking and ability grouping. "Conception of curriculum and instruction that emphasizes basic skills, sequential curricula, and tight control of instruction by the teacher. Well executed, this approach to instruction has produced positive results on tests of basic skills, but it may unnecessarily limit children's acquisition of advanced skills - the ability to reason mathematically, understand what is read, and compose written text that communicates effectively to others." (Knapp, Shields, & Turnbull, p. i, 1992); Chapter 1 programs as pull-out programs; "Trivial parent involvement efforts that were disconnected from the mainstream efforts to improve education" (Davies, 1994); curriculum for disadvantaged students are limited to pullout instruction in reading and math, provision of a less challenging curriculum, and limited achievement goals (Passow, 1990); Head Start; Even Start; Family Literacy Programs.
2. What We're Doing Now: Continuation of Head Start and Even Start; Of the approximately 9,000 schools with levels of student poverty of at least 75 percent, about 22 percent were using a schoolwide model by 1992 (U.S. Department of Education, 1993); Four Title I programs- the basic program in local educational agencies (LEAs), the Even Start Family Literacy program, the Migrant Education program, and the Neglected, Delinquent, and At-Risk Youth program. Free/Reduced lunch programs. More heterogeneous grouping.
3. What We Need to Do:
 - a. Expansion of teachers' repertoires of instructional alternatives which

“emphasize meaning and understanding, embed the teaching of discrete skills in context, and draw connections between academic learning and students’ home lives.” (Knapp, Shields, & Turnbull, p. ii, 1992)

- b. “To support the expansion of teachers’ instructional repertoires, local and state policy makers need to find an effective balance among pressure for change in instructional practice, permission for professional autonomy and provision of support.” (Knapp, Shields, & Turnbull, p. iv, 1992)
- c. Federal and state agencies can “promote and sustain the dialogue about alternative teaching practices, stimulate and support appropriate forms of professional development, and consider the various ways in which supplemental instruction can support teaching for meaning and understanding.” (Knapp, Shields, & Turnbull, p. iv, 1992)
- d. “For children in high-poverty school, their entire instructional program - not just separate Title I programs - must be substantially improved - and schoolwide programs can be the vehicle to do this. Schoolwide programs encourage the kind of organizational and programmatic flexibility that gives educators the freedom to reconfigure the school day, to foster cooperation among the instructional staff, to control school resources, and to be released from unnecessarily restrictive mandates covering grouping of students, minutes of instruction, detailed curriculum sequences, specific work rules, and other minutiae of education procedures (U.S. Department of Education, 1995).
- e. A school-linked approach to integrating services for children, (a) services are provided to children and their families through a collaboration among schools, health care providers, and social service agencies; (b) the schools are among the central participants in planning the collaborative effort; and (c) the services are provided at, or are coordinated by personnel located at, the school or a site near the school.” (Center for the Future of Children, 1992, p. 7 as reported in Pathways Home Page)
- f. Policy recommendations to include: “(1) raise the awareness and knowledge levels of all parties responsible for educating students; and (2) train public school district personnel to use OTL (opportunity to learn) information, encourage OTL data collection, and do more research on the quality of instructional delivery” (Stevens & Grymes, 1993).
- g. “The development of school environments that meet the needs of all students is based first on acceptance of the fact that, for the most part, traditional approaches have failed to change substantively overall patterns of students achievement.” They suggest these four areas of priority to encourage organizational structures and patterns that match the needs of the schools’ current students: redefining the cultural norms of the school; refocusing instructional content, strategies and priorities; attending to the personal/affective needs of students and staff; establishing new relationships beyond the school (Hixson & Tinzmann,

1990, p. 7)

- h. Eliminate tracking of students into remedial or below-standard classes in core subject areas (Critical Issue: Providing Effective Schooling for Students at Risk, Pathways Home Page; Biemiller, 1993)
- i. "Schools need to establish schedules and instructional arrangements which allows students to stay with the same teachers for three or more years." (Payne, 1995, p. 137)
- j. Teachers and administrators need to fully understand the importance of themselves as role models. (Payne, 1995, p. 137)
- k. Use discipline to promote successful behaviors at school - students from poverty often need to have at least two sets of behaviors from which to choose - one for the street and one for school and work. (Payne, 1995, p. 175) Discipline should be a form of instruction, and structure and choice need to be a part of the discipline approach.
- l. More developmental preschool programs (Virginia State Department of Education, 1993, as reported in Payne, 1995).
- m. Staff development should focus on a diagnostic approach rather than a programmatic approach. (Payne, 1995, p. 210)

B. USED TO HELP STUDENTS ACHIEVE OUTCOMES

1. What We Used To Do/Have Done: Pull-out compensatory program with a separate system of testing and rigid regulations for how funds were spent for instruction with an emphasis on drill and practice and rote skills. Head Start Programs.
2. What We're Doing Now: Head Start Programs. Under the new Title I: there is no longer a separate system of testing required for Title I students; funds distributed based on the number of poor children rather than on achievement scores; emphasis on high performance standards; funds can be used in different ways including extended learning time and reduction of amount of time children are taken out of the classroom; minimization of pull-out programs and support instructional programs of higher order thinking skills rather than on rote skills, accelerated curriculum rather than drill and practice, and the use of research based instructional practices. "The new Title I makes it much easier for schools to take advantage of the schoolwide model which allows Title I funds to be used along with other Federal, State and local education funds to upgrade and reform the entire instructional program in the school for all students. This means more school will be de-emphasizing Title I as a separate and discrete program and working instead to fully integrate it with the school district and State reform plans. Also a shift in decision-making to the school building level as well as school-level parental involvement compacts will be instituted. Finally, funds from Title I are to be used to improve knowledge of all school staff not just Title I personnel. (Brochure: The New Title I: Helping Disadvantaged Children

Meet High Standard. Compensatory Education Program Office, Office of Elementary and Secondary Education, U.S. Department of Education: Washington, D.C.

3. What We Need to Do:

- a. Continue the school-wide model, high standards for all students, and sufficient and research based staff development efforts.
- a. Have students write in the casual register and translate to the formal register (Payne, 1995).
- b. Make part of the discipline plan that students learn how to express their displeasure in the formal register and therefore not be reprimanded (Payne, 1995).
- c. Use graphic organizers to show patterns of discourse (Payne, 1995).
- d. Tell stories using both the formal register story structure and the casual register structure. Talk about how the stories change, how they stay the same, and how they are different (Payne, 1995).
- e. Allow for participation in the writing and telling of stories (Payne, 1995).
- f. Use stories in math, social studies, and science to develop concepts (Payne, 1995).
- g. Teach students to use the adult voice, i.e., the language of negotiation, for success in and out of school as an alternative to physical aggression (Payne, 1995).
- h. Make up stories with students which can be used to guide behavior (Payne, 1995).
- i. Have a school wide homework support: e.g., time set up at school that is supervised; two sets of textbooks - one at home and one at school which also eliminates the need for lockers (Payne, 1995).
- j. Teach coping strategies (Payne, 1995).
- k. School wide scheduling which allows for developmental grouping of children across three years of grades (Payne, 1995).
- l. parent training and contact through video.
- m. Direct teaching of classroom survival skills such as, how to stay in your seat, how to participate appropriately, where to put your things, etc. (Payne, 1995)
- n. Require daily goal setting and procedural self-talk (Payne, 1995).

- o. Instruction in cognitive strategies should be a part of the curriculum (Payne, 1995)
- p. In teaching writing use these strategies to maximize meaningful written communication (Knapp et al., pp. 128-9, 1991): maximize opportunities for students to write extended text; integrate writing with other areas of the curriculum; de-emphasize mastery of component skills or mechanical correctness as the primary aim of writing instruction; teach the process of writing; change the social context of the writing task.
- q. In teaching reading use these instructional strategies that attempt to maximize understanding (Knapp et al., pp. 102, 1991): maximize the opportunity read; integrate reading with writing; focus on meaning and how to construct it; de-emphasize isolated discrete skills instruction; provide opportunities to discuss reading and extend knowledge.
- r. Use two key strategies for maximizing mathematical thinking and understanding: extensive instructional orientation toward conceptual understanding of the material and focus on a broad array of topics beyond arithmetic (Knapp et al., p. 68, 1991).
- s. "Foster resiliency throughout students' development by strengthening protective processes for students at critical moments in their lives. When viewed as a developmental process that can be fostered, then strategies for change can be directed toward practices, policies, and attitudes among professional educators" (Winfield, p. 2, 1994).
- t. Teach students how to move from causal to formal register of language (formal word choice, sentence syntax, and discourse patterns). The transition from casual to formal register of language is more meaningful if there is a significant relationship. If not, then the instruction must be more direct. (Montano-Harmon, 1991, as cited in Payne, 1995). Students need to be told how much the formal register affects their abilities to get a well paying job. Casual register needs to be recognized as the primary discourse for many students (Payne, 1995).
- u. "Educators at all levels should resist the impulse to treat teaching for meaning and understanding as a formula for success, i.e., the principles underlying these approaches to instruction can be mechanically applied to the classrooms serving the children of poverty" (Knapp, Shields, & Turnbull, p. iv, 1992).
- v. Need to give emotional warmth in order to help students feel comfortable (Payne, 1995, p. 120).
- w. Not to use the "parent" voice. If their full cooperation is sought, boss/employer needs to use the "adult" voice. ((Payne, 1995, p. 120)

- x. Support, insistence, and expectations need to be guiding lights in decisions about instruction. (Payne, 1995, p. 210).
- y. For students from poverty, the motivation for their success will be in personal relationships. (Payne, 1995, p. 218)
- z. "Instruction that emphasizes meaning and understanding is more effective at inculcating advanced skills, is at least as effective at teaching basic skills, and engages children more extensively in academic learning. (Knapp, Shields, & Turnbull, p. i, 1992)

IV. RESOURCES

A. PEOPLE

ORGANIZATIONS:

National Center for Children in Poverty

Columbia University
School of Public Health

154 Haven Avenue

New York, NY 10032

(212) 927-8793

Fax? (212) 927-9162

E-mail: ejs22@columbia.edu

Contact: Carol Oshinsky or Beth Atkins

National Center for Service Integration Clearinghouse

Child and Family Policy Center

218 Sixth Avenue, Suite 1021

Des Moines, IA 50309

(515) 280-9027

Fax: (202) 371-1472

E-mail: HN2228@connectine.com

Center for Research on Effective Schooling for Disadvantaged Students

Baltimore, Maryland

Center for Research on the Education of Students Placed at Risk (CRESPAR)

Johns Hopkins University/Howard University

Center for the Social Organization of Schools

3505 N. Charles Street

Baltimore, MD 21218

(410) 516-8890

Contact: John Hollifield, Associate Director

E-mail: jhollifiel@scov.csos.jhu.edu

WWW: <http://scov.csos.jhu.edu/cresparr.html>

National Center on Education in the Inner Cities (CEIC)

Temple University

933 Ritter Hall Annex

13th and Cecil B. Moore Avenue

Philadelphia, PA 19122

(215) 204-3001

Contact: Margaret Wang

WWW: <http://www.ed.gov/offices/OERI/At-Risk/temple1.html>

Success for All/Roots & Wings

Johns Hopkins University

3505 North Charles Street

Baltimore, MD 21218
(410) 516-8896 or (800) 548-4998; fax (410) 516-8890
Contact: Renee Kling
WWW: <http://jhunix.hcf.edu/~reneek/sfa.html>

B. ELECTRONIC

North Central Regional Education Lab (NCREL) Home page Pathways:
<http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/pathwayg.htm>

C. PRINT:

Borman, G.D., & D'Agostino, J.V. (1995, April). Title I and Student Achievement: A Meta-Analysis of 30 Years of Test Results. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, CA.

Burnett, (1993). Chapter 1 Schoolwide Projects: Advantages and Limitations.

Campbell, F.A., & Taylor, K. (1996). Early childhood program that work for children from economically disadvantaged families Young Children, 51(4), 74-80.

Chall, J.S., Jacobs, V.Z., & Baldwin, L.E. (1990). The Reading Crisis: Why Poor Children Fall Behind. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Federal Register, Monday, July 3, 1995. Helping Disadvantaged Children Meet High Standards.

Dryfoos, J.G. (1995, April). Full Service Schools: Schools and Community-based Organizations Finally Get Together to Address the Crisis in Disadvantaged Communities. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, CA.

Haberman, M. (1995). Star teachers of children in poverty. West Lafayette, IN: Kappa Delta Pi.

Hallingby, L. (1989). Young Children in Poverty: An Annotated Bibliography of Books and Reports. New York: National Center for Children in Poverty.

Harp, L. (1993). Dollars and sense: Reformers seek to rethink school financing to make it a powerful lever of change. Education Week, 12 (27), 9-14.

Healy, J.M. (1990). Endangered minds. New York: Simon & Schuster.

Knapp, M.S. (1995). Teaching for meaning in high-poverty classrooms. Menlo Park, CA: SRI International.

Knapp, M.S. (1990). New directions for educating the children of poverty. Educational Leadership, 48 (1), 4-8.

Knapp, M.S., & Shields, P.M. (1990). Reconceptualizing academic instruction for the children of poverty. Phi Delta Kappan, 71 (10), 753-758.

Knapp, M.S. (1995). Academic challenge in high-poverty classrooms. Phi Delta Kappan, 76 (10), 770-776.

LeTendre, (1995). The New Title I: Helping Disadvantaged Children Meet High Standards.

Liontos, L.B. (1990). Collaboration between schools and social services. ERIC Digest series, 48, 1-4.

Manasevit, L.M., & Cowan, K.T. (1995). Great expectations: Understanding the new title I. Arlington, VA: American Association of School Administrators.

National Center for Children in Poverty. (1990). Five million children: A statistical profile of our poorest young citizens. New York: Columbia University.

Payne, R. K. (1995). A framework for understanding and working with students and adults from poverty. Baytown Texas: RFT Publishing.

Reed, S., & Sautter, R.C. (1990). Children of poverty: The status of 12 million young Americans. Phi Delta Kappan, 71 (10), K1-K12,

Rogers, M. (1995). Planning for title I programs: Guidelines for parents, advocates and educators. Washington, DC: Center for Law and Education.

U.S. Department of Education. (1994). Making High-Poverty Schools Work Schoolwide: Briefing Paper.

V. HOW TO ASSESS EFFORTS

Review: academic and social effects of school-wide Title I model; school-linked approach to integrating services to children including health and human services; depth and breadth of school-family-community involvement; elimination of tracking; comprehensive staff development efforts aimed at high standards for all students and higher order thinking skills and accelerated and integrated curriculum and research based instructional practices; level of autonomy at the school building level.

CITATIONS

Biemiller, A. (1993). Lake Wobegon Revisited: On Diversity and Education. Educational Researcher, 22 (9), pp. 7-14.

- Children's Defense Fund. (1995). The State of America's Children Yearbook.
- Compensatory Education Program Office. The New Title I: Helping Disadvantaged Children Meet High Standard. Office of Elementary and Secondary Education, U.S. Department of Education: Washington, D.C.
- Davies, D. (1994). Linking Family-Community-School Partnerships to School Reform. paper presented at Goals 2000 Conference, Washington, D.C., May 27.
- Healy, J.M. (1990). Endangered minds. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Hixson, J., & Tinzmann, M.B. (1990). Who are the at-risk students of the '90's? Oak Brook, IL: NCREL. See Attachment #15C)
- Kaplan, T. (1994). Wisconsin Kids Count. Madison, WI: Wisconsin Council on Children and Families.
- Knapp, M.S., Adelman, N.E., Needels, M.C., Zucker, A.A., McCollum, Turnbull, B.J., Marder, C., & Shields, P.M. (1991). What is Taught, And How, To The Children of Poverty, Interim Report from a Two-Year Investigation. U.S. Department of Education, Office of Planning, Budget and Evaluation. Study of Academic Instruction for Disadvantaged Students.
- Knapp, M.S., Shields, P.M., & Turnbull, B.J. (1992). Academic Challenge for the Children of Poverty Executive Summary Report. U.S. Department of Education, Office of Planning, Budget and Evaluation, Study of Academic Instruction for Disadvantaged Students.
- Lee, F.R. (1991, October 16). Immunization of children is said to lag. The New York Times, pp. B1, B5.
- Letgers, M., McDill, E., & McPartland, J. (1994). Education Reforms and Students at Risk: A Review of the Current State of the Art. Johns Hopkins University.
- Lippman, L., Burns, S., & McArthur, E. (1996). Urban Schools: The Challenge of Location and Poverty Executive Summary. U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, National Center for Education Statistics 960864.
- Miranda, L.C. (1991). Latino Child Poverty in the United States. Children's Defense Fund. Washington, D.C.
- Passow, A.H. (1990). Enriching the compensatory education curriculum for disadvantaged students. ERIC Clearinghouse on Urban Education, New York, N.Y. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED319876)
- Payne, R. K. (1995). A framework for understanding and working with students and adults from poverty. Baytown Texas: RFT Publishing.

Renchler, R. (1993). Poverty and learning. ERIC Digest, 83, EDO-EA-93-5.

Stevens, F.I., & Grymes, J. (1993). Opportunity to learn: Issues of equity for poor and minority students. National Center for Education Statistics: Washington, D.C. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED356306)

Winfield, L.F. (1994). Developing resilience in urban youth. NCREL Monograph, Urban Education Monograph Series.

Wirebaugh, D.A. (?). Serving all students: The fusion of gifted education and title I. From draft of master's paper. (See Attachment #9; e-mail - wirebda)