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A model for monitoring and evaluating an alternative program.

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A MODEL FOR MONITORING AND EVALUATING

AN ALTERNATIVE PROGRAM

A Dissertation Presented

by

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August 1976

Dedicated to my Mother and Father

Mary M. Carroll

and

Thomas A. Carroll
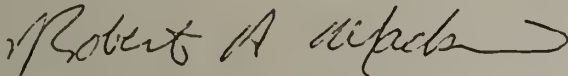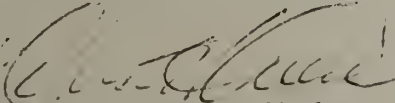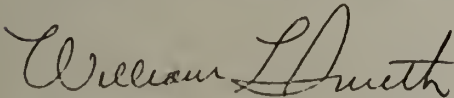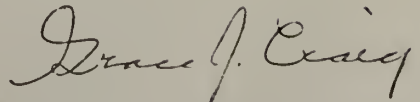
for making me, Me

and to

Dr. William L. Smith

I sincerely love all three.

ABSTRACT

A Model For Monitoring And Evaluating
An Alternative Program

September 1976

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Alternative schools are not new to the United States--private acade-
mies, military schools, parochial schools, vocational schools, even reform
schools have historically provided an alternative system to regular public
education. Nonetheless, there are many public programs which, over the
past five years particularly, have placed themselves in the vanguard in
creating new, exciting, and different educational alternatives than what
one would normally expect from public educators. Suffice it to say that
of the 700 or more public alternative schools/programs that are currently
operating, the vast majority appear to be different from traditional pub-
lic schools in curriculum approaches, organization, and staffing forma-
tion. The survey of literature in Chapter II will serve to place this
"movement" in context and to underline the types of options that have
emerged.

This dissertation rests upon a varied base, being both personal and
systematically developed and researched and attempting to honestly and
directly report on a program whose survival, in this writer's opinion, is
important to the future growth of secondary education in the United
States. As the words "personal" and "honestly and directly" imply, there
is much of this dissertation that is field-based--a case study approach.

Educational accountability, a prevalent concern of all educators at this point, has been strictly placed upon new alternative programs. Evaluation has become the clear watchword and has often provided difficult and troublesome issues for school districts and administrators. The resolution to these problems has become increasingly clear--new evaluation designs are necessary for alternative programs. The first three chapters in this dissertation will examine the literature as it relates to public alternative schools with attention in the latter section to evaluation of alternative programs. Chapter IV will develop the case for evaluation of alternative programs and the need for new and more appropriate designs.

Growing from this evident need, this study will describe and analyze an evaluation model utilized at a public alternative high school located in Cambridge, Massachusetts. The analysis will be concerned with the project evaluation design, the process by which this design was instituted, and how the evaluation of this project speaks to the important issues which surround evaluation in alternative schools in general.

In the long run, however, it is not the process by which this writer's conclusions were arrived at that is important, but, rather, their value as predictive or conceptual tools. The preceding discussion is useful for establishing a context for the study. There has been a great deal written in the past few years on the general field of educational evaluation, both theory and practice. Very little has been directly written in the field of evaluating educational alternatives.

PREFACE

It was in June, 1973, that this writer joined the staff of Community Interaction Through Youth (C.I.T.Y.), the alternative school without walls program which is the focus of this document. As is often the case, those involved with C.I.T.Y. were distrustful of outsiders; that feeling, it should be noted, is often justified, as there is much suspicion in the educational world of non-traditional learning. However, that mistrust made for a difficult transition when this writer joined the staff as its Associate Director-Learning Supervisor. Because the writer was, in fact, an outsider and unfamiliar to C.I.T.Y., it took time to develop relationships and trust levels, but finally the staff coalesced to work toward common goals.

With this personal and professional support, the writer was able to observe, assess and document the information presented here. The staff made available for examination at any time all past evaluation data, tabulations, analysis and written summaries, as well as new data, including test results, questionnaires, interview forms and rating sheets used during the 1972-73 school year. Two consulting firms--Bernard Cohen and Associates, and Ellwood Johnston and Associates--who were responsible for evaluating C.I.T.Y. between 1972 and 1974, also made their reports, revisions of the evaluation designs, and recommendations for program modifications directly available to the author.

Throughout this document, references are made to the general literature of the alternatives movement, which interface with the C.I.T.Y. experience. The large volume of C.I.T.Y.-related materials available to

the writer was helpful both in providing the orientation, and in helping to make the theories behind alternative education a reality in the context of C.I.T.Y.

The basis of this study has been both a direct and an indirect exposure to alternative education: direct experiential exposure through C.I.T.Y.; further direct exposure through visitation and personal involvement with a number of other alternative programs; a different, but equally valuable, direct experience in talking to many of the finest minds now working in alternative schools. Likewise, there has been an indirect exposure resulting from extensive reading about alternative education. From such a varied base, this dissertation has developed into the embodiment of an orientation which is basic to the alternative schools movement: it is a personal yet systematically developed and researched document which attempts to honestly and directly report on a program whose survival, in this writer's opinion, is important to the future growth of secondary education in the United States.

The preparation of this study required a great deal of sharing of ideas. This writer received enormous amounts of support, materials and feedback from Ellwood M. Johnston, Al Morin, and Bernard Cohen and their associates. Additionally, professional thanks are due the full C.I.T.Y. staff, interns and students. Of course, innumerable friends, family members, and mentors have given me strength in many ways; I would like to thank them here.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem and Purpose of the Study

Alternative schools are not new to the United States. Private academies, military schools, parochial schools, even reform schools have historically provided an alternative (although not always voluntary) system to public education. Despite some variations in curriculum, most of these schools closely resemble the organization and learning environment found in traditional public education. Nevertheless, there are many public programs which over the past five years, particularly, have placed themselves in the vanguard in creating new, exciting, and different educational alternatives than what one would normally expect from public educators.[1] The survey of literature in Chapter II will serve to place this "movement" in context and to underline the types of options that have emerged. Suffice it to say that of the 700 or more public alternative schools/programs that are currently operating, the vast majority appear to be different in curriculum approaches, organization, and staffing formation.

As this recent evolution has occurred, however, the approach of public school districts has been to place alternative programs under intense scrutiny. Educational accountability, a prevalent concern of all educators at this point, has been strictly placed upon new alternative programs. Evaluation has become the clear watchword and has often provided difficult and troublesome issues for, as many alternative school directors

ask, how can you design and operationalize a unique new program and be expected to demonstrate its validity in six months? Moreover, if the program is, in fact, different, with goals and approaches that don't correspond to traditional school programs, can traditional evaluation mechanisms and standards be imposed?

The resolution to these problems has become increasingly clear--new evaluation designs are necessary for alternative programs. Chapter IV will develop the case for evaluation of alternative programs and the need for new and more appropriate designs. Beyond that, however, we need to look at whether evaluation designs currently exist which can be used fairly and effectively in examining alternative schools. In the latter section of the literature search in Chapter II it will be indicated that very little effort has been made in developing such new evaluation approaches. At this stage in the history of public alternative education, it is paramount that such new designs be developed because (1) traditional approaches do not always provide adequate or useful feedback on successes and failures; (2) new designs may enhance the chances of survival of individual programs; and (3) the future of public alternative schools is dependent upon the collective ability of programs throughout the country to demonstrate their worth and that can only be done if evaluation designs provide appropriate data.

Growing from this evident need, this study will describe and analyze an evaluation model utilized at a public alternative high school located in Cambridge, Massachusetts. The analysis will be concerned with the project evaluation design, the process by which this design was instituted, and how the evaluation of this project speaks to the important

issues which surround evaluation in alternative schools in general. The school was named "Community Interaction Through Youth" but was more colloquially known by its acronym, "C.I.T.Y."[2] Those designations will be used interchangeably here.

Chapter III will provide an extensive description of the C.I.T.Y. program in order to provide a context for understanding the evaluation design.

Organization of this Paper

As indicated above, the three chapters which follow will examine the literature as it relates to public alternative schools with attention in the latter section to evaluation of alternative programs (Chapter II); will provide a comprehensive description of Community Interaction Through Youth, its various components and its specific objectives (Chapter III); and will discuss the important issues involved in evaluating alternative schools (Chapter IV). Chapter V will present the evaluation design developed for C.I.T.Y. with a description of how this design was carried out. Finally, Chapter VI will present a comprehensive analysis of the design and implementation of the C.I.T.Y. evaluation model based upon its success in answering questions raised in Chapter IV; will draw final conclusions and make recommendations regarding future efforts to implement a C.I.T.Y.-type evaluation model.

Strengths and Limitations of this Study

As stated in the preface, this dissertation rests upon a varied base, being both "personal and systematically develop and researched", attempting to "honestly and directly report on a program whose survival in this writer's opinion, is important to the future growth of secondary education in the United States." As the words "personal" and "honestly and directly" imply, there is much of this dissertation that is field-based, a case study approach.

There has been much written about the limitations and strengths of sociological research that is totally, or largely field-based. McCall and Simmons (1969), for example, examine the nature of field-based research by presenting a series of discussions about participant observation. In their introduction, they state:

> Profound questions of reliability, validity, and generality of results have thus been raised, injecting terms such as "observer bias", "personal equation", "going native", and "hearsay" into the literature of the social sciences. The techniques of participant observation are regarded as difficult to communicate or to teach. The nonquantitative nature of the results causes difficulties in presenting evidence and proof for propositions...
>
> Proponents of participant observation have sometimes championed it as being less likely than other methods to be biased, unreliable, or invalid because it provides more internal checks (of more direct nature) and is more responsive to the data than are the imposed systems of other methods.[3]

Glaser and Strauss (1967) point out the ironical fact that many people who generate theory from qualitative, field-based studies often feel compelled to apologize for their data because it has not been verified by

accepted research techniques under "laboratory conditions".

> The fascinating fact about people who have taken this
> stand is that they continue to generate theories from
> qualitative data, realizing its importance, and yet
> they have not explicitly referred to their work as
> generating theory (or have not described how they
> generated theory or how it was relevant) because they
> have been too concerned with formulating their ideas
> within the rhetoric of verification! In reading
> their writings, one constantly finds that they make
> qualifications using the verification terminology,
> such as "the hypothesis is tentative", "we had only
> a few cases", "we need more definite proofs in future
> research", and "we checked this out many times."[4]

While it is not this writer's intent here to apologize for any hypotheses about alternative school evaluation which emerge from this study, the writer is aware of the controversy about the generalizability of theory which rests upon a case study, field-based, approach. It is this awareness which has led to an attempt to be eclectic in the use of personal observation and quantitative data about C.I.T.Y. It is also this awareness which has led to an attempt to provide in the review of literature a wider context for the readers.

Some specific examples of this general issue deserve to be mentioned here. First, it was not the writer's sole responsibility to evaluate the program. Thus, the writer's other roles in the program may complicate, or bias, the ideas I express in this dissertation. Second, because it has been extremely difficult to isolate a set of characteristics that all alternative schools share, it is possible that the ideas about evaluating alternative schools expressed in this paper are generalizable only to that set of schools that most directly resembles the C.I.T.Y. program. Finally, it has been stated in the preface that the writer is an advocate

of different learning environments for different students; and this opinion may unduly influence the observations and the theory generated.

In the long run, however, it is not the process by which this writer arrived at conclusions that is important but, rather, their value as predictive or conceptual tools. The preceding discussion is useful for establishing a context for the study.

Finally, although there has been a great deal written in the past few years on the general field of educational evaluation, both theory and practice, very little has been directly written in the field of evaluating educational alternatives. Amory and Wolf (1975) have written an article which presents some of the issues involved in evaluating educational alternatives and offers the practitioner a step-by-step process to use in an evaluation process. Hickey (1972) presents an overview of the political and philosophical issues involved in evaluating educational alternatives. Rosen (1974) presents a case for using the Fortune-Hutchinson Evaluation Methodology in alternative schools. His dissertation is a project study in which he used the methodology in evaluating the Shanti program in Hartford, Connecticut. The Southeast Educational Alternatives (SEA) in Minneapolis, Minnesota, publishes regular monographs on evaluation; and the Ontario Institute of Studies in Education (OISE) publishes some publications which deal directly with evaluating educational alternatives. Perhaps much of the literature on evaluating alternative schools which presents practice and implicit theory is contained in the actual evaluations of alternative schools themselves. For example, there are the thoughtful evaluations that were prepared for the Parkway Project in Philadelphia; the Peacham School in Vermont; the Cinnaminson Alternative

School in Cinnaminson, New Jersey; the High School in the Community in New Haven, Connecticut; and the Cambridge Alternative School in Cambridge, Massachusetts.[5]

As thoughtful as these evaluations are, they do not make the theory explicit. Missing is a conscious reflection of a process which would result in some kind of model for evaluating alternatives containing a set of principles and guidelines that might be important in the evaluation process. It is this latter activity, the generation of a model or a set of principles and guidelines, which is attempted in Chapters IV-VI of this dissertation.

Chapter I Footnotes

[1]Community Action Through Youth, a proposal funded by the United States Office of Education, 1972.

[2]Ibid..

[3]George J. McCall and J. L. Simmons, Issues in Participant Observation, (Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Reading, MA, 1969), p.2.

[4]Barney G. Glaser and Anselm L. Strauss, The Discovery of Grounded Theory, (Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company, 1967), p.17.

[5]Copies of these evaluations are on file at the National Alternative Schools Program, School of Education, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA 01002.

C H A P T E R   I I
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In order to provide a context for understanding both the place of C.I.T.Y. within the world of public alternative education and the state of the art of evaluation as it relates to alternative schools, this review of the literature is divided into several sections. First, an historical overview traces the evolution of educational alternatives in America from early colonial times to the present, with particular attention placed upon more recent developments. Second, a description of the variety of alternative schools--both private and public--existing today is provided. Then the Parkway Program in Philadelphia, the original school-without-walls which spawned C.I.T.Y. and many similar programs, is presented as a descriptive backdrop to C.I.T.Y. In the last section, the literature relating to evaluation of alternative educational programs is presented.

Alternatives: An Historical Survey

An overview of alternative schools. In recent years, the term "alternative schools" has come to refer to a very different kind of institution, one which operates outside the mainstream of American education. These schools come in several varieties; one of these, the "free school", is based on the Summerhillean principles of A. S. Neill,[1] and serves largely middle and upper middle-class students who are disillusioned by the authoritarian lock-step features of mainstream education. Another, the "street academy", is based on ideas expressed by Kozol, Freire, and

Dennison.[2] These academies serve primarily poor children of all races, helping them to develop the skills and competencies necessary to survive in an often hostile world. The free schools and street academies emphasize affective development, provide great flexibility in curriculum and scheduling, de-emphasize competition, and foster more equitable, less paternalistic relationships between adults and students.

The most useful definitions of alternative education are those which consider the concept operationally. These will be referred to in the discussion of existing alternative programs. At this point, however, it is relevant to note that some writers have attempted to define alternative schools in terms of their process characteristics or their outcomes, e.g., participatory decision-making or emphasis on the development of individual interests or abilities. Others have attempted to define such schools in terms of their functions or accomplishments vis a vis a strategy for affecting societal change.

There have also been some critics--David L. Clark among them--who argue that:

> (1) the alternative movement is not new at all--that alternative schools have always existed as private schools, or (2) the alternative schools are not unique, i.e., the characteristics of these schools are not distinguishable from the characteristics of good non-alternative schools, or (3) that alternative schools are everything to everybody and represent chaotic or random change that will have no real effect on education.[3]

The history of American alternatives. Looking more deeply into the history of American alternative education, we do find some support for the assertions of critics like Clark. Cremin[4] describes many different

types of schools, depicting the American Colonial Period as the golden age of alternatives in education. Public schools, as we know them today, did not exist, and people could choose the kind of education they preferred from among many alternatives.

Morford describes several such alternatives:

> The form they developed included the very formal
> Latin Grammar Schools; the more practical academies,
> which grew up later as a response to the classical
> training; the simplistic dame schools; moving
> schools in the South; and such informal arrangements
> as tutors. Apprenticeship was also available to the
> less affluent and was an important form of educa-
> tion.[5]

A study of these many forms of schooling reveals that those options were not unlike some available today. For example, they were directly controlled by those who supported them and used their services. It is interesting to note that most historians agree that Americans of the Colonial Period were perhaps the most homogeneous population in the history of the country, yet they appear to have felt the need for many different educational options.

As the country grew, its population--and the needs of that population--became more diverse. The influx of immigrants during the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries fostered great heterogeniety, particularly in the areas of religion, language and culture. Meanwhile these and other changes were having an impact:

> Suffrage, extended to the common man, tended to be-
> come a threat to the existing political, elitist
> structure. Industrialization and urbanization were
> on the rise and began to have great implications for
> schools. This was an era of ferment which gave rise
> to many reform movements focusing on such causes as

abilitionism, women's rights, temperance, prison re-
form and education. People were very much involved
in these many movements, and often it was the same
reformers who chose to lead different causes.[6]

As these changes occurred, there was a growing need for a common type

of schooling for all people. It was felt that school could become the one

unifying, homogenizing element in the culture that would deal with the

problems being created by the vast changes of the times. Horace Mann,

Calvin Wiley, Samuel Lewis and Henry Barnard all led the movement to

establish a common school. The common school established in 1830 was to

be publicly supported and publicly controlled; all men, rich or poor,

would attend together. In tracing the history of educational alterna-

tives, Morford points out:

Ironically enough, the common school was the newcomer
to the scene of its time; it might be construed as
another alternative. However, as it grew, it became
bureaucratized, and institutionalized, and established
as the system which was the foundation of the American
public school as it is known today...[7]

The irony is heightened by the fact that, even from its very begin-

ning, people were seeking alternatives to the common school:

Many private academies continued to attract the rich
in large numbers and did so till well after the Civil
War when they were somewhat usurped by the urbanized
high schools. In addition, new experimental educa-
tional ideas could be found within many of the newly
created Utopian Societies. There are many such exam-
ples as the community founded by Robert Dale Owen at
New Lanark, where a viable form at vocational educa-
tion existed...

In her "Record of a School", Elizabeth Peabody des-
cribed the efforts of Branson Alcott in creating an
alternative school. Alcott's children were taught as

individuals and were allowed to progress at their own rate of speed. Problems of discipline were referred to the whole school for consideration, and corporal punishment was prohibited. Brook Farm is another example of an idealistic form of schooling that existed within a Utopian community. Another alternative structure which rose during the nineteenth century was the movement for religious alternatives in the form of the Catholic parochial school.[8]

The origins of modern alternatives. The philosophy and accomplishment of John Dewey is central to any historical examination of alternatives in American education. Dewey was opposed to the traditional scheme of education institutions; in Experience and Education, he wrote:

> The rise of what is called new education and progressive schools is of itself a product of discontent with traditional education. In effect it is a criticism of the latter. The traditional scheme is, in essence one of imposition from above and from outside. It imposes adult standards, subject matters and methods upon those who are moving slowly toward maturity...Imposition from above is opposed to expression and cultivation of individuality.[9]

One of Dewey's fundamental concepts was the intimate and necessary relationship between the processes of actual experience and education; that concept was central to Dewey's reform movement, "the new education", which (much like today's alternatives) emphasized the freedom of the learner. Dewey believed that the traditional schools had placed "external impositions" on the student rather than promoting his intellectual and moral development. The traditional classroom, with its fixed rows of desks and its military regimen, greatly restricted the child's intellectural and moral freedom. Additionally, the traditional school lost perspective as it got bogged down with the study of facts and ideas of the past; it gave little help in dealing with the issues of the present and

the future. Not only did this limit the intellectual scope of the stu-
dent, Dewey believed, but it also limited the freedom of the child. It
was this freedom that was crucial to Dewey: freedom of intelligence,
that is to say, freedom of observation and of judgement.

　　While Dewey's philosophies, in many respects, seem conservative when
compared with the positions of the free school and alternative school
movements today, it is clear that present alternative beliefs owe much to
his perceptions of the schools' functions vis a vis social control.
Dewey believed that the social controls which "operate in everyday life"
are every bit as effective as those which are asserted by the teacher,
who serves as the arbitrary repository of authority in the school. He
noted that:

> Children at recess or after school play games. The
> games involve rules, and these rules order their con-
> duct. The games do not go on haphazardly or by a
> succession of improvisations. Without rules there is
> no game.[10]

There are obvious controlling features in such situations:

> ...the rules are a part of the game. They are not
> outside of it. No rules, then no game; different
> rules, then a different game...
>
> Now the general conclusion I draw is that control of
> individual actions is effected by the whole situa-
> tion in which individuals are involved, in which
> they share and of which they are co-operative or in-
> teracting parts.[11]

　　In Dewey's mind, control was then a social function, and individuals
were parts of a community, not outside of it. To him, the traditional
school was not (as he felt it should have been) a group or community held

together by participation and cooperation in common activities. Dewey's
ideal of social control in the schools was embodied in his view of the
"new schools", which he proposed as alternatives to the then existent
public schools:

> The conclusion is that in what are called the "new
> schools", the primary source of social control re-
> sides in the very nature of the work done as a social
> enterprise in which all individuals have an opportu-
> nity to contribute and to which all feel a responsi-
> bility.[12]

The modern alternative schools grew out of much the same philosophy
which generated the "new schools" first conceptualized and developed by
Dewey. The modern sense of the alternative school "community"; the be-
lief that all those involved with the alternative school have both rights
and responsibilities within the community; and the belief that mechanisms
for social control will evolve naturally ("take care of themselves")--all
these have origins in Dewey's assertions of freedom for the individual
student to develop both morally and intellectually in the world of exper-
ience.

Unfortunately, the institutions that grew out of Dewey's "new educa-
tion" never fully accomplished his libertarian principles. Both the
Dewey School and the Lincoln School were controlled and tightly struc-
tured environments. For example, the Dewey School (originally known as
the Laboratory School), established in 1896 at the University of Chicago,
recognized three stages of growth between early childhood and adolescence.
Each stage required the selection of activities and skills appropriate to
the needs and abilities of the child. The first period intimately inte-
grated school life with home and neighborhood experience. The second

period emphasized the ability to read, write and handle numbers. The third period, lasting until the child was thirteen, applied the skills acquired in earlier stages to definite problems, creating an emphasis on specialization. Thus, while the current alternative schools movement owes much philosophically to Dewey, the application of Dewean principles today has little in common with their manifestation at the turn of the century.

The modern alternative school programs have other philosophical fore-runners; among these are the Summerhill School founded by A. S. Neill, and the Montessori Method. Like John Dewey, Dr. Montessori[13] was extremely influential during the progressive era; also like Dewey (and Neill), Montessori's fundamental principle is the importance of the child's free-dom. The Montessori classroom accommodates approximately thirty children between the ages of three and six. The rooms are large and airy. Readily moveable furniture, tables and chairs are placed in the rooms to suit the convenience of the moment and to allow the children to move about without restraint. The use of didactic materials to initiate object and sense lessons is the major identifying element of the Montessori Method.

The Montessori Method was popular for a brief period shortly after Dr. Montessori founded her first school in Rome in 1907. The method's popularity ebbed abruptly, however, when the educational philosophies of William Heard Kilpatrick--who stressed children's development--"disproved" the method designed by the Italian woman and turn to Dewey.

The use of the Montessori Method in preschool education has enjoyed a highly successful comeback in the United States in recent years, and has forced a number of its critics to reconsider their positions.

Montessorian ideas have asserted a broad influence in preschool education and are a force, in theory at least, behind programs such as Head Start.

One of the few--and certainly the most influential--alternative concepts which bridges the progressive era and the modern alternative school movement is the philosophy of A. S. Neill as it is applied at the Summerhill School. The two wings of the free school movement spawned by Summerhill are, first, the primarily white middle class free schools which stress the belief that "freedom works"; and, second, the movement which emphasizes the school as a political environment in which to prepare the next generation to actively change society.

As the forerunner of these two divergent approaches to "free schooling", Summerhill was founded in 1921 in the village of Leiston, in Suffolk, England. Alexander Sutherland Neill was its creator and served as headmaster for more than forty years. The school houses about sixty children, mostly Americans, whose ages range from four to sixteen. Freedom in that environment is defined largely in terms of eradicating what are seen as the constraints of traditional education; some emphasis is placed on overcoming its association with indoctrination, be it religious, moral, or political inculcation. In this regard, Neill wrote:

> ...we set out to make a school in which we should
> allow children freedom to be themselves. In order
> to do this, we had to renounce all discipline, all
> direction, all suggestion, all moral training, all
> religious instruction.[14]

Above all, Summerhill allows none of the molding of character practiced by the public school. Thus, Summerhill, as an expression of the philosophies of A. S. Neill, offers an alternative--primarily for well-to-do

Americans--to the public schools. Much more important, however, has been its influence on the alternative school movement in the United States; for one of that movement's major premises is clearly evident in the following statement by Neill:

> My view is that a child is innately wise and realistic. If left to himself without adult suggestion of any kind, he will develop as far as he is capable of developing.[15]

Sociological influences on alternative schooling. In addition to such influences as Dewey, Montessori and Neill from inside the profession of education, the alternative school movement was prodded by sociological factors. The first of these prods was the civil rights movement of the 1960's. As the quest for desegregation gained momentum, parent, teacher and community boycotts of segregated public schools led to the establishment of temporary "freedom schools" in storefronts and church basements. Teachers, community residents, parents and college student-volunteers collaborated to continue the education of children in the freedom school. These schools provided a glimpse, for both blacks and whites, of alternative programs tailored to meet perceived needs. Among these needs, the "freedom schools" addressed (through curricular, staffing, structural, and other innovations) the self-determination concerns of blacks and Hispanic people and served as a medium for involvement in the immediate political life of the community.

The pursuit of such educational concerns led the freedom schools to turn from established procedures and instead to assume a flexible stance that included the community and its resources. This involved sympathetic adults working with children, as well as curricular reform and the

establishment of small units which led to a more humanizing experience for those involved.

Another sociological factor that led to the proliferation of alternative schools is the so-called "counterculture movement". The relationship between the counterculture and free or alternative schools is clearly expressed by Fantini:

> Viewing public schools as repressive and authoritarian institutions reflecting the deteriorating values of the dominant society, members of the counterculture have attempted to sponsor alternative institutions that are free to develop new learning environments that are personally liberating and geared to individual and group life styles.[16]

The participants in the search for a liberating education were quick to embrace the new educational philosophies of A. S. Neill, Ivan Illich and many so-called romantic education writers, such as Paul Goodman, John Holt, Herbert Kohl, Everett Reimer and George Dennison.[17]

One of the writers championed by the counterculture was Charles Silberman,[18] who was in many ways the person most responsible for popularizing the "British Infant School", or "informal education", in the United States. (It should be pointed out here that Silberman and the other writers most often cited by proponents of countercultural alternatives are also highly respected by a significantly large body of educational professionals.) Silberman's Crisis in the Classroom had a two-pronged effect on those who were searching for alternative educational institutions. First, because he was critical of American public schools, Silberman provided both establishment and counterculture critics with fodder for their arguments for forsaking the public schools in favor of alternatives. Second, by popularizing the concepts of British "open education",

Silberman was instrumental in promoting a specific alternative approach, one in which the integrity of schools and the classroom remains--and which thus avoids the de-schooling advocated by Illich and others.[19] The British experience lent support and credibility to more open and informal structures, at least in primary schools. The "best of both worlds" approach made possible by the lean toward informal education appealed to teachers, administrators and college professors because it rekindled a new interest in the philosophies of John Dewey and the progressive education movement.

The modern alternative school. Thus, throughout the decade of the 1960's, the public schools were buffeted from within and without. They were being criticized for their lock-step methods, their impersonal structures, their irrelevant curricula and for many lesser and greater offenses. In response to this criticism and the recognition by public school leaders that a significant minority of parents was dissatisfied with public schools, a number of different alternatives were formed within public systems, primarily in the early 1970's.[20] The mandate for these public school alternatives was clear: it was proposed at the 1970 White House Conference on Children that the development of alternative schools within public systems be one of its highest priority resolutions.[21]

In addition to serving as a response to school critics, the public alternative programs were seen as having both social and educational benefits:

> Socially, a pluralistic system provides opportunities
> for a high degree of parental involvement in educa-
> tional decision-making and allows parents who are

dissatisfied with conventional schools to have their
children educated in the manner they wish without
forcing their chosen methods on other parents. Edu-
cationally the existence of options allows both
children's individual learning styles and teacher's
differing teaching styles to be accommodated and
matched.[22]

Meanwhile, it was hoped that the alternative structures would yield eco-
nomic benefits by increasing the career and economic production of their
graduates.

In order to begin to address these social, economic and educational
concerns, over one hundred school systems across the country have estab-
lished public alternative schools. Not to be incorrectly identified
only as "free school", the public alternatives currently operating find
their common thread to be the commitment to voluntarism (a clientele
participating through choice), to providing a different kind of education
than that offered by the conventional schools and to financial support
from local district funds.[23]

The movement of change leading up to the public school alternatives
has gone through three phases: "innovation", "radical reform" and the
current phase, "alternatives" to the traditional concepts of schooling.
The first phase had its roots in the mid-fifties. At that time there was
a flurry of various new curricula, exemplified by the new math; the pro-
liferation of ideas like team teaching and programmed instruction; the
use of technologies such as television and the language laboratory; and
the first serious experiment with nongrading.

These innovations were sparked by the fresh concern with educational
quality, both for the individual and for the country. Every parent was
concerned about whether his child was getting a quality education; the

"Sputnik scare" caused many to wonder whether the United States was be-
coming a second-rate intellectual and technological force. These
developments led to a new concern for education and ways in which the
schools might become more effective. The "innovative" programs were
undertaken in well-established schools with fairly conventional philoso-
phies.[24] They were not based on new ideas about the role of education,
or the nature of the child, or the place of culture in the democratic
society. They focused instead on practical methods of achieving the
traditional ends of schooling: the mastery of skills and subject matter
were still the main focus.

These innovative approaches did, however, change the climate of
American public education in the late 1950's and early 1960's. What they
achieved has been important, especially as innovation served as a precur-
sor to later reforms.

Reference has been made to the civil rights movement and that move-
ment's effect on the trend toward developing alternative schools. A
correlary to that movement was the ghetto, college campus and high school
unrest of the 1960's--that unrest was in large part a reaction to what
were perceived as failings in the educational system.[25] The riots in the
big city slums and the demonstrations on the campuses made it shockingly
clear that the educational system had reached a point where it could no
longer continue without basic, radical changes in its structure, control
and operation. This period of "radical reform" did elicit some response
from the schools, and there have been changes, as substantiated by
reports such as Silberman's Crisis in the Classroom and the School for
the Seventies publications project of the National Education Association's

Center for the Study of Instruction.[26]

The real thrust for public alternative schools is often marked by the emergence of the Philadelphia Parkway Program in 1969.[27] This was the original "school without walls", under the direction of John Bremer. It became instantly popular with students, parents and the news media, prompting similar efforts in numerous cities. (Parkway, because it served as a model for the C.I.T.Y. program, will be described later in some detail.)

Today more than two hundred public alternatives are operating in over one hundred districts, and planning processes are underway in many others.[28] As the political and economic viability of these schools has been demonstrated and as their programmatic credibility has grown, the interest in initiating alternative schools has spread rapidly among school districts nationwide. In the eyes of some educators, the alterna-school provides a change vehicle without the inherent risks involved in most experimental ventures because it is based upon voluntarism. The school does not require consensus within the community to operate, nor is it mandated or imposed upon a particular clientele.[29]

The following brief statements outline the rationale for creating public alternative schools.[30]

- The growing pluralism within our society, long a hallmark of our democratic culture, demands that a plurality of educational options be provided that can begin to satisfy greater numbers of families and individual needs.

- Children have different learning needs; no single program yet devised can meet all educational needs.

- The conventional schools need a comparative perspective on all facets of their operation, which unique options can begin to provide.

- An alternative school provides an opportunity for total in-
stitutional reform (as opposed to piecemeal school change) that can be as
wild or as sober as a clientele might choose.

- Alternative schools provide an opportunity for total flexi-
bility and change within the public schools at a time when demands for
change have often reached a point of desperation.

- Within the context of alternative education programs, program-
matic mediocrity (an inherent characteristic of institutions which must
respond to consensual compromises) becomes unacceptable as long as clients
can choose to withdraw.

- A school program whose constituency attends entirely by
choice must remain heavily accountable to that group of people.

- Parents who are satisfied that they have a say in their
children's education, and an alternative if things don't work out, will
be more willing to back the budget and referendums of the School Board.[31]

Public school alternatives have now been developed; it is believed

that they will certainly grow in number and influence as community groups

demand public funds for their proposed alternatives and as school person-

nel attempt to deal with community dissatisfaction and student apathy and

unrest.

Alternatives: The State of the Art

By way of introduction to this discussion of the current state of

public and non-public alternative schools, the following extended quota-

tion should serve to orient the reader to the general characteristics of

the generic alternative school:

> Everyone in the school, staff and students, feel au-
> tonomous. Policy decisions are reached by consensus
> within the school community, which includes parents
> and students as well as staff. Attendance is volun-
> tary and based on student interest, satisfaction and/
> or fun. Discipline, if any, is peer administered and

is largely confined to preventing hurting of and interference with others.

Students have a great deal of influence on curriculum--choosing what they want to do, and when. The staff encourages, suggests, inspire, and set examples, but do not coerce in any way. There is little distinction between work and play. Students feel as though they control the whole time allocation. There is an atmosphere of flexibility about the whole situation.

Alternative schools tend to be small, rarely over 100 students and often less than 30 students. There is a low child-adult ratio, often five to one or lower. Little attention is paid to efficiency. Learning tasks are often set aside in favor of the quality of interpersonal relationships. The schools are highly personalized, with everyone "knowing" everyone else. Both staff and students recognized as individuals with individual needs and abilities. Judgements are based upon these individual differences. Individualization is interpreted as each student working on what he wants (needs) to do at his own pace, alone or in a group.

Record keeping is given low priority. Graduation may not exist, but completion of school is based upon intellectual and emotional readiness to move on to take the next step. This may reflect the assessment that the student has learned about all he can in the one school or that he is capable of handling the challenges of the next one.

Activities spill out of the building into the outdoors easily. Both field and community environments are considered valuable learning resources. A high noise level is characteristic.

Parents and volunteers regularly assist teachers and work directly with children in the school program. Individuals with specialized skills--musicians, potters, and the like--are encouraged to visit and help. Custodians and school bus drivers often show previously unsuspected talents. Parents also participate actively in other aspects of the school: finance, facilities, hiring. Teachers are usually poorly paid, often a subsistence level. Teachers frequently have little training or school experience. They shun professionnalism and sometimes identify more closely with the children. The process of children teaching is encouraged and respected.[32]

The existing universe: non-public alternatives. While non-public
alternatives pre-date their public school counterparts, theirs is not a
long history. Of the private alternative models to be described here,
only the "classical free school" has existed for more than fifteen
years.[33] This classical free school is the Summerhill-influenced commu-
nity, boarding school. These "therapeutic whole communities" are self-
sufficient and intimate; an American example is the Summerhill Ranch
School in Mendocino, California.

The dominant philosophies of these schools are the importance of
self-awareness, and individual and personal responsibility to oneself.
There is a lack of the competitiveness that is prevalent in traditional
schools. Individuality and the process of self-awareness develop self-
confidence and awareness, which proponents of this Summerhillian concept
claim help the individual to cope with the modern impersonal world.
These schools are almost exclusively white and middle class; their high
tuitions and associated costs (as has been true with most residential
private education) serve to exclude racial minorities and middle- and low-
income families.

A second type of non-public alternative school is the "parent-teacher
cooperative elementary school." This alternative uses the parent as an
active force in education. According to Graubard,[34] these parents are
especially young, white liberal middle-class parents who do not want
their children subjected to the regimentation of the normal public
schools.

Here the parent is the initiating force in the formation of the al-
ternative school. First, seeking out other parents who feel the same

about learning processes, they organize and establish an alternative to traditional public schools. They hire a few teachers who are willing to accept lower wages for the satisfaction of the job. The parents officially control the school through the auspices of a Parent Board.

> Tuition is paid on a sliding scale and usually some
> minority students are admitted free or almost free;
> but in general, these schools do not really appeal
> to poor-minority parents, and in any case, they are
> not intended to confront the problems of the ghetto
> families and their children.[35]

Alpha (A Lot of People Hoping for an Alternative) is a parent-teacher cooperative school in Toronto, Canada, created in 1971 by a group of parents attempting to implement the Hall-Dennie report, Living and Learning.[36] One of the most significant organizing elements of the Alpha alternative was extensive parental participation so that living and learning would not be distinct activities. The school functions not only in harmony with home experiences, but as an actual extension of the home. The Alpha School emphasizes the cooperative or communal nature of the school and foresees it operating as an extended family for the parents as well as for the children, with continual use of the facility, skill exchanges, communal meals and so forth.

The past ten years have been marked by the fairly rapid growth of "free schools", which differ from some of the older "progressive schools" by the addition of a basic political component to pedagogical progressivism.[37] Although to many people the phrase "free school" still conjures up a vision of radical long-hairs studying astrology or making candles--all in defiance of compulsory attendance laws and other disciplinary restraints--the "free school" label encompasses a variety of

school types. Among the characteristics which most of the schools share, however, are the following: opposition to the public school system, both its methods and its results; small enrollments; dependence on parents and other volunteers for a large part of the classroom activities; and a low pupil-teacher ratio.

These schools are the high school counterparts of the Summerhill-type schools. Like that group, they are oriented toward the white middle-class and are quite libertarian in pedagogy. Since formulators of these schools believe in activism and participation, their students are allowed to actively participate in the planning and governance of their own schools. These schools actively participated in the anti-Vietnam War and civil rights movements of the 1960's.

Another alternative type, the "community school", often rejects the application of the "free school" designation.[38] Graubard resolves this designation problem by tracing what he sees as the too often contradictory notions of freedom which are the theoretical underpinnings of the free school movement. The first is the strand of pedagogical freedom common to most middle-class schools, where the basic goals involve the development of the child in the affective realm, realized through the establishment of a non-coercive learning environment. The second is the political or cultural strand operative in the community schools, where fundamental skills are stressed in a highly structured learning environment as a way for individuals to gain control over their own destinies and to thus overcome the oppression of the dominant social institution.

A type very similar to these community schools is the "street academy", which evolved out of a desire to serve the needs of the poor

minority youth.[39] Blacks who became involved in this movement often did so because their children were not succeeding in the traditional setting. In addition to resolving black youths' often antagonistic attitudes toward school (and the schools' reciprocation), an alternative allows them the opportunity to learn where there is an emphasis on black culture, black intellectual training and black parental involvement. Proponents of the academies believe that education can and should be more relevant to the minority community and to the individual and corporate problems of its residents.

The best known of these street academies are Harlem Prep and the system of street academies run by the New York Urban League. These programs are aimed at educating high school dropouts and getting many of them into colleges or universities. While some academies are college preparatory schools like Harlem Prep or Sophia House in St. Louis, others provide only a General Equivalency High School Degree. Some oeprate at a high school level, while others are elementary schools. Street academy efforts have been organized in cities throughout the country, including Boston, Philadelphia, Newark, Oakland and St. Louis.

Most street academies began with private foundation or business support, which often permitted a great deal of freedom and flexibility in establishing the school program. However, like many social programs which were first implemented in the 1960's, permanent commitment to the academies is lacking. Harlem Prep (and many other street academies) lost major corporate and foundation financing several years ago; those which are still in operation are beset by financial problems.

Finally among the non-public alternative schools are the "working

class schools",[40] which were created for high school dropouts or poten-
tial dropouts who are hostile toward the traditional public high schools.
Students in these schools are predominately drawn from the lower economic
strata. The libertarian pedagogy of Summerhill schools does not appeal
to the parents of these students, since they do not believe that such
experimental schools will serve the needs of their children. These
schools specialize in vocational and remedial studies, and...

> ...thus directly confront the tracking function of
> the public schools which prepare these students for
> the lower rungs of the social and job hierarchy. In
> contrast, students in middle-class free schools have
> been slated for college and high career achievement.
> For them, the free high school is a way to get off,
> for a while at least, the beaten path to college and
> beyond.[41]

The existing universe: public school alternatives. Since alterna-
tive schools are usually created as a rejection of the public system, most
avoid contact with the local school board in order to avoid being con-
trolled. For various reasons, however, many of the schools collapse
after only a few years in operation. Financial instability is but one of
many causes of such collapse. In order to address their problems, many
non-public alternative programs have moved toward reaching accommodation
with public boards in the interest of survival. On the other hand, some
school boards have recognized that a significant minority of parents is
dissatisfied with public schools. They realize that answers to better
public education may exist in other institutions and a number of differ-
ent alternatives have thus been created.

Public school-affiliated alternative programs, while they are younger
than their non-public counterparts, are coming to prove themselves much

more stable over time, both programmatically and fiscally. At the same time, they have borrowed many concepts and principles from the private programs. Smith[42] lists the types of alternatives now found as public options in some cities: open schools, with particular interest centers within the building; schools without walls, which depend on a high degree of interaction with the community and the individualization of study; learning resource centers or magnet schools which can be used by the entire community; bilingual or ethnic schools; schools offering programs for special groups, such as street academies, dropout centers or preg-nancy-maternity centers; integration models for racially mixed areas; free school and schools within a school, which could be any of the above, organized as a unit within a conventional school.

As is obvious from this list, the alternative schools present a varied and eclectic universe. The movement itself has been known by many labels: "movement", "trend", "innovation", "fad", "novelty", "reform", "renewal", "evolution" and "change strategy" are but a few. It is strik-ing that proponents of alternatives include a lengthy and diverse list of educators who feel that options in education are the next step in educa-tional reform; these educators include David Clark, Mario Fantini, Dwight Allen, Kenneth B. Clark and Christopher Jencks.[43]

Given such eclecticism, strong support from such varied corners and a mandate to develop alternatives, it is not surprising that the public schools are now deeply involved in alternatives to themselves. St. Paul, Minnesota; Seattle, Washington; and Berkeley, California, among numerous other districts, are already offering a wide range of alternatives.

Funding for these public school alternatives comes from an equally

varied list of sources. Berkeley's alternative public high school and
Philadelphia's Parkway Program were both started with Ford Foundation
funds, and the United States Office of Education is funding the National
Alternative Schools Program at the University of Massachusetts in Amherst.
Other optional alternative schools in Berkeley and Minneapolis are cur-
rently funded through the experimental schools program of the National
Institute of Education. State Departments of Education in Connecticut,
Delaware, Florida, Illinois, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania and Wash-
ington are encouraging the exploration and development of alternative
public schools. However, the majority of the public programs do not have
outside funding, and it is left up to individual school boards to provide
support.

Among the most prominent of the district-supported alternatives is
The Brown School, which operates within the Louisville system. That pro-
gram has convinced many that, regardless of the type of program offered,
the difference between an alternative and a traditional program consti-
tutes motive enough for students with a wide variety of needs to sign into
the alternative.

As the program is described by Martha Ellison,[44] "freedom from" and
"freedom to" are crucial to students' motivations and progress. "Freedom
from" relates to escape--from ghetto-like schools, from sometimes damag-
ing academic pressures, from over-regimentation because of school size,
and sometimes from an emphasis on competition which identifies winners and
losers by their rate of acquisition, rather than the effort spent in learn-
ing.

"Freedom to" has for students a much more positive thrust. It means

freedom to determine one's own destiny; freedom to make decisions that directly affect the student's immediate future; freedom to identify and pursue in depth those areas of learning that seem both useful and interesting; freedom to make adjustments of time according to circumstances; freedom to express divergent ideas.

> Our school was designed to serve a "freedom to" purpose. However, given as we were in our initial year, a balance of "freedom from" and "freedom to" students, we found it necessary to make many adjustments to our idealistically conceived program.[45]

As The Brown School experience taught, alternatives, no matter how appealing on paper, are not valid to the individual unless he/she finds them so, since students only learn from what they willingly approach. Fortunately for The Brown School, the program's only conceptual proposal was to carefully plan the total environment to nurture and develop individual creativity and independence--which left adequate room for molding the program to meet individual needs. Unfortunately for many other programs, administrators, teachers and parents often lack a clear definition of students' needs and desires.

It should be clear that the public and non-public alternative movement runs the entire gamut from student-directed to other-directed programs. This has afforded the learner considerable freedom to determine how, what, when, where and with whom he/she will learn. This alternative movement is significantly different from any other reform plan in education because it is based on choice; it is voluntary and there appears to be something for everybody.

During the remainder of this decade, we should see
more growth in alternative education. What can re-
sult is a gradual expansion of the framework of pub-
lic education to include many former alternative
private schools. Over time, we could emerge with a
redefined system of public education that is di-
verse, self-renewing, and responsible to a pluralis-
tic society.[46]

Major areas of concern. The alternative education movement requires

special leaders. The job of the administrator engaged in alternative

schools becomes even more difficult than it ordinarily is. Schools inter-

ested in alternatives and change will cause even more problems for school

administrators if they do not anticipate and deal effectively with such

stress. Most problems involve the management of change within the organi-

zation. It must be this leader's goal to organize people and to shape

their goals. Of course, he must understand these goals and be able to

conceptualize, communicate, and gain agreement in the developmental

stages through which his school must evolve. An operable decision-making

process must be established where staff can be prepared for their roles.

Somehow the administrator of an open school is expec-
ted to be different from the principal of a tradi-
tional school. However, teachers and other staff
tend to expect certain behaviors from any principal.
These expectations arise out of past experiences.[47]

The principal's clientele is not just his staff. Alternative pro-

grams almost invariably provide for community access to the decision-

making process. Now the school administrator must extend his constituency

to the community, request their input and allow legitimate involvement.

Any administrator who is not comfortable with this arrangement should

stay clear of alternative programs. Leadership for alternative programs

is probably the most important ingredient in producing real and lasting change.

A second area of concern related to alternative schools involves the often unrecognized fact that alternatives do not suit all students. One of the forces behind alternative schools is the impersonal nature of a system which rewards conformity and discourages individualism. This is especially true in the large, impersonal, overpowering atmospheres of today's public high schools. Part of the answer might be smaller schools where there are more personalized experiences and closer contact with fellow students and teachers--in short, alternative schools. It is important to keep in mind, however, that not all students want or need small, intimate environments for their education. Perhaps the most salient argument in favor of the alternative movement is its potential to demonstrate that there are many ways of doing things--and that alternatives (like public schools) are only one way.

While alternative schools present an impressive array of choices, it is important to remember that they cannot provide _all_ options for everyone. Wells wrote that...

> ...the idea of alternatives is a strategy, not a structure; you don't need to depend on separate facilities all that much to provide different curricula, techniques, experiences, governance, and participation in the school setting. You do need capable, willing, patient, resourceful, and well-trained people, particularly parents and teaching staff.[48]

School systems cannot provide every kind of alternative; some decisions must be made. The first question that must be asked is, how many committed and capable people are available to initiate programs? Parents

are a valuable key. To teach, to help make decisions and to support their children's choices in a new mode of school operation and service, they are the ones who will determine if the alternative movement will succeed.

There must be a commitment to experiment in alternative schools. It has been shown (in Berkeley, California, for example[49]) that the biggest problem facing the alternative movement is the danger of falling back on old ways when one encounters a problem. This is natural, since there is security in the familiar, even if it is ineffectual. The abandonment of fixed, traditional strategies is probably the hardest alternative of all.

Not the least of the alternative movement's problems is its tendency to extremity. There has been a leaning toward viewing alternatives as a panacea for eliminating all ills that plague public education. Too often, attempts at alternative approaches have gone from one extreme of excessive formalism and rigidity to the other extreme of excessive informality and looseness. Some states, such as Illinois, have a mandate to develop educational systems which help all people develop to the limit of their capabilities. Implied in that mandate is the belief that many groups currently are not receiving the full benefit of a public education. These groups are identified according to sex, ethnicity, giftedness, deprivation, handicap and so forth. Once these alternative systems are available for the masses, it will be time to focus on program quality and to recognize that each student has unique cognitive, affective and psychomotor needs. At that time—and sooner—programs will come to realize that compromising extreme beliefs is a prerequisite to building stable, effective programs.

Finally, there is the concern of program evaluation. Review and evaluation must be integral to any educational system. The program must

build upon existing research in an attempt to avoid past mistakes and to
hopefully establish programs developed through federal, state and local
cooperation that recognize and enhance the individuality of each person.

In concluding this review of the state of the art of alternative
schools, it is perhaps wise to keep several points in mind. First, the
last thing one should want from alternative education is to give less and
to demand less than conventional schools. Students' progress must be
monitored carefully in all schools. Children cannot be set adrift without
direction or without the means of setting direction. Adult guidance is
necessary in value formation. Dwight Allen has pointed out that alterna-
tive schools must not be allowed to become...

> ...places where children and teachers engage them-
> selves in a nihilistic reaction to all the negative
> evils that characterize our conventional schools.
> Insensitive classroom teachers do not justify the
> abdication of the teaching role altogether. Irrel-
> evant curriculum does not justify a change toward
> arbitrary and unconnected content or a preoccupa-
> tion with process. Seemingly inhumane structures
> should not persuade us that structure is unneces-
> sarily restrictive of a person's freedom, and most
> importantly, the narrowness of a public school sys-
> tem which disregards individual needs and feeling
> cannot be replaced by an equally narrow view that
> neglects our larger social responsibilities.[50]

C.I.T.Y in the Historical and Contemporary Context

The Parkway model. The public school alternative program which is
the central subject of this study is clearly very much a part of the
world which has been described in the preceding review of literature.
The model of C.I.T.Y. is prominent in the literature on alternative
schools, but has only cursorily been mentioned previously. A full

description of that model, Philadelphia's Parkway School Without Walls, would seem most appropriate here, as a means of setting the stage for the subsequent description of the C.I.T.Y. program.

The creator and first director of the Parkway School was John Bremer. Before his appointment, Bremer had been superintendent of the three decentralized districts in New York City. Funding for the first year of the Parkway program, 1969, was provided by the Ford Foundation in the amount of $100,000.

The original Parkway student body, one hundred and forty-four students, was made up of one hundred and twenty students from the city public schools, twenty from suburban schools, and four from local parochial schools. These student-volunteers were randomly selected so that all applicants would have an equal chance to enroll in Parkway. Bremer arranged a lottery for students from each of eight districts, ensuring that the students' ethnic ratio was approximately the same as for the public school population, 60% black and 40% white. Admissions procedures were determinedly egalitarian; Parkway was open to any student in the city who was in grades nine through twelve, or who would be in those grades if he were in school. Admission also required permission of at least one parents.

The original unity, "Community Alpha", had its headquarters on the second floor of an old building in downtown Philadelphia. As a school without walls, however, Parkway was not confined to that location. Its students used the city as their classroom. As described by Bermer and von Moschzisker:

> The Parkway Program...has starting points which dif-
> fer from those of conventional high school education
> in at least two basic respects. In the first place,
> the Parkway Program does not have a schoolhouse, a
> building of its own--it is a school without walls;
> in the second place, the institutions and organiza-
> tions along and near the Parkway constitute a learn-
> ing laboratory of unlimited resource.[51]

The Parkway curriculum included the full range of traditional

courses. However, with an entire city as its resource, variations on

traditional subject matter became infinite. Courses in regular high

school cannot compare to law enforcement classes which were held in the

city's courthouse with lawyers as instructors, or astrology classes in

the city planetarium.

The essential principle of Parkway's curriculum was freedom; in

talking about the program's students, Bremer said:

> They are forced to be free simply because they must
> take the initiative: they must choose to enter the
> Parkway program and to share in its communal life.
> With only one exception, the tutorial, the student
> must choose everything he does in the program, and
> if he does not, cannot, make a choice then nothing
> happens until he does.[52]

The exception to the rule of freedom, the tutorial, was Parkway's

basic social and learning group. Each tutorial was made up of about six-

teen students, one full-time certified teacher, and one university intern.

The tutorial was the nucleus of the program. It was the instrument for

all academic functions, and, particularly because of its smallness, was

an ideal unit for communication. According to Bremer and von Moschzisker:

> The group has three functions. First, to act as a
> support group in which counseling can take place.
> Second, it is the group in which the basic skills

of language and mathematics are dealt with. Third,
it is the unit in which the program and the stu-
dents' performance are evaluated, and evaluation is
seen as part of the educational process and not
something separate from it.[53]

In his own assessment of the program, Bremer asserted that "When
students entered Parkway, they entered a program, not a school; a process,
not a place; an activity, not a location."[54] Parkway was thus a school
without walls.

By way of further assessing the success of Parkway, Bremer and von
Moschzisker wrote:

Our students have to learn to be responsible for
their own education, to make choices and to face
the consequences of those choices. It is diffi-
cult, and many people at the beginning thought
that it would not work, but it is working and the
demand is so great that we shall expand rapidly.[55]

Parkway has indeed expanded. The program has grown in its native
Philadelphia, and many other locales have taken Parkway as their model
for school without walls programs. One such variation on the theme is
Community Interaction Through Youth--C.I.T.Y.--which will be described in
the following chapter.

Chapter II Footnotes

[1] For the most popular presentation of the views of A. S. Neill, see A. S. Neill, _Summerhill: A Radical Approach to Child Rearing_, (New York: Hart Publishing Company, 1960). For an explication of these views, see A. S. Neill, _Talking of Summerhill_, (London: Gollancz, 1967); and A. S. Neill, _The Problem Teacher_, (New York: International University Press, 1944).

[2] The most popular and comprehensive views of these authors are presented in Jonathan Kozol, _Free Schools_, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1972); Paulo Freire, _Pedagogy of the Oppressed_, (New York: Herder and Herder, 1970); and Charles Dennison, _The Lives of Children_, (New York: Random House, 1969).

[3] David L. Clark, "Options--Success or Failure?", _NASSP Bulletin_, 57, (September, 1973), p.1.

[4] Lawrence A. Cremin, _American Education: The Colonial Experience_, (New York: Harper and Row, 1970).

[5] John A. Morford, _A Study of Alternative Schools in Greater Cleveland_, (Cleveland: The Martha Holden Jennings Foundation, 1973), p.4.

[6] _Ibid._

[7] _Ibid._, p.5.

[8] _Ibid._

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[10] _Ibid._, p.55.

[11] _Ibid._, p.56.

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[13] Maria Montessori, _The Montessori Method: Scientific Pedagogy as Applied to Child Education in the Children's Houses_, (Cambridge: R. Bently, 1964).

[14]A. S. Neill, <u>Summerhill: A Radical Approach to Child Rearing</u>, p.4.

[15]<u>Ibid</u>.

[16]Mario D. Fantini, "The What, Why and Where of the Alternative Movement", <u>National Elementary Principal</u>, 57, (August, 1973), p.16.

[17]<u>Ibid</u>.

[18]Charles Silberman, <u>Crisis in the Classroom: The Remaking of American Education</u>, (New York: Random House, 1970).

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[22]Greg Cable, "Strategies and Stumbling Blocks", Toronto Board of Education, Research Department (June, 1973), p.10.

[23]<u>Rationale, Readings, and Resources</u>, National Alternative Schools Program, School of Education, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA, Revised May, 1973.

[24]Allen Graubard, "The Free School Movement", <u>The Harvard Education Review</u>, 42, (April, 1972), p.371.

[25]<u>Ibid</u>., p.371.

[26]Mario Fantini, "Schools for the Seventies: Institutional Reform", <u>Today's Education</u>, 59, (April, 1970).

[27]John Bremer, <u>Schools Without Walls</u>, (New York: Holt, Rhinehart and Winston, Inc., 1971).

[28]<u>Rationale, Readings, and Resources</u>, <u>Op. Cit</u>.

[29]<u>Ibid</u>.

[30] Ibid.

[31] Ibid.

[32] Allen Graubard, "The Free School Movement", The Harvard Education Review, 42, (April, 1972), p.365.

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[35] Ibid.

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[47] Frederick V. Hayden, "Special Leaders Needed for Special Problems," NASSP Bulletin, 57, (September, 1973), p.91.

[48]Larry Wells, "Options in Small Districts, Berkeley," <u>NASSP Bulletin</u>, 57, (September, 1973), p.59.

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[50]Dwight W. Allen, "Where Have All the Options Gone?", <u>Nation's Schools</u>.

[51]Quoted in Henry Ehlers, <u>Crucial Issues in Education</u>, (5th ed., New York: Holt, Rhinehart and Winston, Inc., 1973), p.229.

[52]Bremer, <u>The School Without Walls</u>, p.28.

[53]Ehlers, <u>Crucial Issues in Education</u>, p.231.

[54]Bremer, <u>The School Without Walls</u>, p.21.

[55]Ehlers, <u>Crucial Issues in Education</u>, p.49.

CHAPTER III
C.I.T.Y.: ITS PROGRAM AND STRUCTURE

An Overview of the Program

Community Interaction Through Youth (C.I.T.Y.) is viewed as the implementation of an educational concept whose basic goals are embodied in its name. The words "Community Interaction Through Youth" imply a relationship between the community at large and the youth of that community,[1] not a static relationship, but a living and changing one based upon reciprocal learning.

The ideas behind C.I.T.Y. were developed by John Bremer in Philadelphia. Their original conception in the Parkway School Without Walls has been described in Chapter I. C.I.T.Y., much like Parkway, started in 1972 and grew out of the efforts of a large group of parents, students, educators, and interested community persons who recognized that public schools alone could no longer meet the needs and demands of students seeking to learn about and function within a world which is rapidly becoming more complex and diverse. The corollary to this perception was that, even if school systems were not suffering financially, it would be unreasonable to expect the public schools to meet the needs of a new society while they remain limited by the space and experience available within traditional school walls.

Equally important in the development of the Parkway and C.I.T.Y. "schools without walls" was the fact that larger urban communities such as Philadelphia and Cambridge have become increasingly isolated from their youth. No society can respond to the needs of a population whose problems

and concerns are not familiar to that society; likewise, the society cannot know how to draw upon and use its resources to meet the sub-population's needs if it is not cognizant of those needs. Given these constraints to understanding and resource sharing, C.I.T.Y. represented an effort to expand and enrich the learning of both the members of the Cambridge community and the students served by the program. That learning, it was hoped, would benefit both the community and the youth, by effectively using the learning resources which were endemic to the city, by enhancing the students' learning experiences and by thus creating a closer relationship between the community and its sub-population.

C.I.T.Y. was an educational alternative for 120 high school students from Cambridge and Brookline as well as the Industrial School for Crippled Children, with nine regular staff. It was born out of an awareness of a need (1) to integrate public school students with the communities from which they have been alienated, and (2) to provide those students with more motivating and relevant learning environments.

> The program's educational structure stresses: (1) cooperative learning, (2) participation by a larger variety of groups in the educational process, (3) exposure of students to the diverse and pluralistic society in which we live, and the provision of an environment which allows for current curriculum.[2]

As a school without walls, C.I.T.Y. enabled students to take classes in alternative settings under expert practitioners, while using the resources of the city.

Identifying the nature and scope of the severe problem of educating youngsters was an easy task in Cambridge. Although the city is known as the home of the most esoteric learning centers in the world, the children

of families who provided services for Cambridge's academic world were dis-
enchanted with and dropped out of the public school system in large num-
bers. The public schools did not attempt to provide other programs or
more positive experiences for these disenchanted students. The C.I.T.Y.
program was aimed at students in grades nine through twelve with vastly
varying degrees of motivation and skills, each of whose most common and
significant goal would seem to be seeking an education through an alterna-
tive program.

The student who enrolled in C.I.T.Y. did so for a variety of reasons.
As might be expected, many of the students who applied to C.I.T.Y. were
simply seeking to avoid the limitations which they perceived in the tradi-
tional high school environment. Several applicants felt that the tradi-
tional high school education was inappropriate to their needs, and they
sought to use C.I.T.Y. to provide life, vocational, or career-oriented
choices. These feelings grew out of the students' perceptions, either
that the traditional school did not provide them with any meaningful
learning experience choices, or that it stifled and "programmed" them.

The C.I.T.Y. program, on the other hand, offered choices; for example,
the "high achiever" program graduate had the new option of applying his
reality-based high school experience to a job. He or she may have had
work experience with a physical therapist or a service station mechanic,
and thus had the options of working to earn money for college, choosing a
more appropriate higher education, or even postponing college while pur-
suing the job.

Admission procedures at C.I.T.Y. were similar to those at Parkway.
Students were not excluded from selection to C.I.T.Y. because of the

socio-economic status of their communities. Students from varied special interest groups were served. Plans were made and implemented to ensure a diverse cross-cultural study body drawn from the two local systems and the Industrial School for Crippled Children (I.S.C.C.). All students eligible to attend I.S.C.C. or the Brookline and Cambridge Schools were permitted to submit an application. Their names were put into a lottery, which was stratified to give C.I.T.Y. a student body representative of local, ethnic, grade level, sex, and geographic parameters.

The C.I.T.Y. administrative offices were located in the Central Plaza Building at 675 Massachusetts Avenue, Cambridge, Massachusetts. This office building is close to a myriad of curricular and institutional resources, including several public schools, Harvard University, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and Lesley and Radcliffe Colleges. The C.I.T.Y. learning centers were located in community settings supplied by the institutional resources cooperating with the program. The array of centers available to C.I.T.Y. was extraordinary; some are listed below to give the reader an idea of their diversity:

1. <u>Caravan Theater</u>. This center offered courses in improvisational drama, set design and producing a play.

2. <u>Boston Children's Museum</u>. Through the Department of Community Services, the C.I.T.Y. students had access to the full range of the museum's facilities, with opportunities to work with younger children through the Junior Curator Program.

3. <u>Harvard University</u>. Through the Vice President for Government and Community Affairs, learning situations were established in the areas of broadcasting, student radio station, architecture, graphics, and so forth.

4. <u>Five-part Curriculum in Law and Society</u>. The Educational Development Center provided study of the Cambridge City Council, School Committee and State Legislature.

5. <u>Children's Hospital Medical Center</u>. This center gave students the opportunity to be in a medical setting and to assist with a variety of tasks that help make a hospital work.

6. <u>Early Childhood, Pre-School and Primary Education</u>. Three resources were available in this area: the Central Schools, Head Start and Tutoring Plus, a remedial enrichment program for elementary students.

C.I.T.Y. took several steps to ensure continued support from the local school system. First, it was agreed that C.I.T.Y. was to be a program, not a separate school; C.I.T.Y. students took at least two full courses at their sending public school, and frequent personal contact was maintained between C.I.T.Y. and guidance counselors, departmental chairmen, curriculum directors, and the local teachers' union. Dropout students were the exception to this rule; they were gradually worked back into the regular system, and thus started with courses from the C.I.T.Y. program only. The local school department processed all bills, issued the staff payroll and advised the program as to the legality of contractual commitments.

In order to further ensure support from the regular system, C.I.T.Y. involved the administrative personnel and staff of participating schools in needs assessment, planning of activities and the on-going monthly review of student performance. Additionally, administrative personnel were consulted before making any major policy decision or modifications.

<u>The C.I.T.Y. staff</u>. The day-to-day operation of the program will, perhaps, be best understood within the framework of the decision-making and organizational hierarchy of C.I.T.Y.; for that reason, the staffing pattern will briefly be presented here. In addition, Illustration 1 presents an organizational chart outlining the roles within the C.I.T.Y. staff. Further information on the C.I.T.Y. staff and complete job

descriptions of all personnel may be found in Appendix B.

ILLUSTRATION 1

Decision Making and Organizational Hierarchy

```
                    ┌─────────────────────┐
                    │      Director       │
                    └─────────────────────┘
        ┌────────────────────┐          ┌────────────────────────┐
        │ Associate Director │          │ Learning Site Supervisor│
        │ Learning Supervisor│          │      Handicapped        │
        │    Handicapped     │          │                         │
        └────────────────────┘          └────────────────────────┘

        ┌────────────────────┐          ┌────────────────────────┐
        │Curriculum Development│        │      Information        │
        │     Supervisor     │          │       Director          │
        └────────────────────┘          └────────────────────────┘

        ┌────────────────────┐          ┌────────────────────────┐
        │  Learning Manager  │          │    Learning Manager     │
        │    Handicapped     │          │                         │
        └────────────────────┘          └────────────────────────┘
                    ┌─────────────────────┐
                    │ Learning Coordinators│
                    │     (Teachers)       │
                    └─────────────────────┘
```
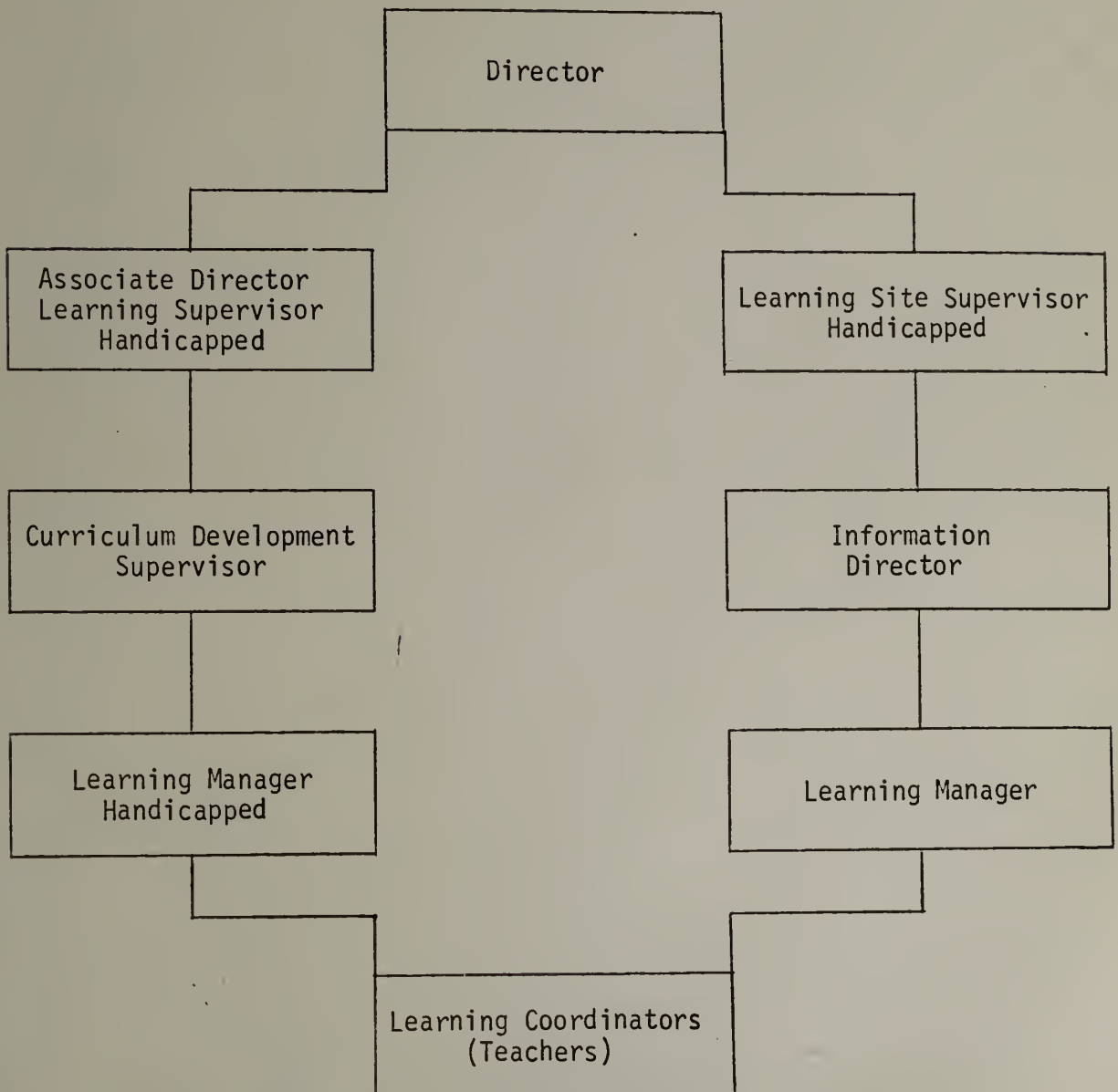
The Director's duties were varied. She had the overall responsibility for monitoring the program, as well as "selling" it to the school committee members, central office personnel and the community. All news releases and direct statements made for public presentation were approved by her. In summation, she had the responsibility for the development, direction, and implementation of the program.

The Learning Supervisor position was a role shared by the C.I.T.Y. Associate Director and the Handicapped Supervisor. The role's duties were numerous, but primarily involved serving as a liaison between the regular school, the students and C.I.T.Y.

The Curriculum Development Supervisor was crucial to the success of the school without walls program. She/he had the unending task of locating teachers and sites for all classes.

The Information Supervisor was responsible for recruitment and for the community involvement component.

The Learning Managers worked directly with the Learning Supervisors to monitor students. They did most of the class visitations and regular school visitations.

The Learning Coordinators were the teachers in the program; they were mostly non-certificated, since teaching was an adjunct responsibility to their regular jobs in business, industry, etc.

The staff related to each other and to the youngsters in the program differently than in more traditional school situations. They often touched each other, hugged or shared good feelings. As described earlier in this chapter, the non-traditional environment stresses more personal relationships between students and teachers. The C.I.T.Y. program

encouraged relationships like those described at the Cambridge Pilot
School:

> Students call teachers by their first names, bargain
> over homework assignments, and often walk freely in
> and out of rooms where classes are going on. The
> teacher is sometimes hard to find, even in a class
> of 10 to 15. Staff members are young, dress infor-
> mally, and prefer not to stand in front of the
> class, but to sit in a circle along with students or
> to work with individuals.[3]

The atmosphere described by such behaviors is more typical than atypical
of the modern alternative school; such an atmosphere characterized the
relationship between students and staff at C.I.T.Y.

Teacher commitment. The commitment of C.I.T.Y.'s teachers (Learning
Coordinators), volunteers, and interns was unique. None of the teachers
were paid. None of the community volunteers were paid. Of course, these
people were not full-time personnel, but they did teacher for at least
three hours each week, and sometimes even more. Again, it must be empha-
sized that most of the C.I.T.Y. teachers were non-certificated, although
some were former teachers working in other professional areas, but who
still wanted to maintain some teaching exposure.

Staff development. Most of the C.I.T.Y. staff's time was spent with
the youngsters in the program. Much of the morning hours were left free
for visiting other schools, for dealing with school personnel, for visit-
ing students' homes and for staff development activities. There was an
early week-long retreat with the entire staff and several related work-
shops on drugs and behavioral objectives at C.I.T.Y. The full range of
staff development is described shortly.

Each staff member had teaching experience before coming to C.I.T.Y.,

and half also had administrative experience. However, because of the nature of the program, none of the staff members themselves taught classes. Instead, as noted previously, the staff was a composite public relations person/director of counseling/site evaluator/curriculum developer (locater of resources)/facilitator/class monitor. Classes were taught by all volunteer personnel and monitored by the staff members.

Among the most effective staff development efforts were those presented by other staff members. Because the staff worked closely together as an informal group, a number of attitudes and behaviors changed over the year. Where there were hostile feelings between several staff members in July, 1973, when the fiscal year began, by January, 1974, the C.I.T.Y. staff functioned as a team. The second semester transition was a smooth meshing of talents as compared to the September (first semester) disorganization. As 1974 progressed, the multi-talented C.I.T.Y. staff began to share duties, responsibilities, and assignments.

Parent loyalties and community reactions. The Director stated at the beginning of the year that broad parental involvement was a major C.I.T.Y. goal. The parents responded to the high priority rating. Most felt that the staff was sincere in its goals and that they were welcome to meet with the C.I.T.Y. staff at any time for any reason. Parents were also urged to visit classes or the program office at any time without prior notice. This kind of involvement, coupled with positive feedback, in most cases, from their youngsters, produced a most aggressive, outspoken, and supportive parental group. Most parents went out of their way to support the program and, as the year advanced, they grew stronger. They saw changes in their youngsters and this gave them the willingness

to defend the school against any opposition.

This opposition, although it was evident to a much lesser extent than the support which C.I.T.Y. received, is notable largely because it came from established educators rather than district parents. It was felt by this writer that this resistance to the alternative was in large part caused by the vested interest which traditional educators have in the traditional school. While opposition was minimal, the school department did not act as fast as parents wanted them to in making C.I.T.Y. a part of the regular school program. Because of the parents' aggressiveness, C.I.T.Y. was scheduled to enter the mainstream of the Cambridge public schools in September, 1974. Brookline had already started a school without walls in September, 1973.

Many townspeople, besides parents, offered experiences or courses for the program. Several people also donated furniture, books and other supplies to C.I.T.Y. In turn, the program offered its energy to the community. Because of C.I.T.Y., people began to really talk about education, its goals and its processes and quality.

Organizational factors. Probably the most valuable use of C.I.T.Y.'s physical environment was the experience given to the students. The program design produced a sense of self-determination on the part of most students. That resulted in a feeling of openness and a relaxed style of learning. C.I.T.Y. sought to involve the youngster in designing classes and recommending instructors for courses. This turned out to be a very important symbol of different power/authority/decision-making relationships between staff and students. In the beginning, the staff committed itself to making sure that the students felt a sense of freedom,

discovery and responsibility by allowing all activities to evolve on their own and to schedule things as they developed and required time. This did not prove to be very effective, and staff members soon found it necessary to schedule and write down their activities. C.I.T.Y. settled upon a rather rigid schedule for 1973-74 because of the rule from the Superintendent's office that all classes must meet for a specific amount of time each week. Such scheduling was also essential both to maintaining continuity within certain experiences and to the peace of mind of busy staff and students.

Rules, regulations, and discipline. Most of the C.I.T.Y. students floundered uncomfortably when presented with the responsibility of making rules and directing their own learning. The C.I.T.Y. staff felt that each student had to make a definite commitment to meeting "community" needs. The students, for the most part, adjusted to the "freedom" as part of their responsibility. The staff emphasized that it was essential for each participant to develop self-reliance and personal restraint if the program was to be a success. This restraint was seen as a much tougher assignment than it would have been in conventional schools. Nevertheless, discipline was not a problem at C.I.T.Y. There were very few rules and regulations. The youngsters became responsible individuals, which made the intent of the student-centered school a reality.

Monitoring and evaluating students. The monitoring and evaluation procedures followed by staff were based on the philosophy that not all youngsters learn in the same ways, at the same rates, and under the same circumstances. For that reason, individualization was emphasized. Learning contracts and portfolios were used for monitoring student progress.

This was effective because C.I.T.Y.'s low staff-student ratio made it possible for the staff to spend a great deal of time in comfortable involvement with students. The monitoring and evaluation tasks involved volunteers, interns, and students working in a blend of spontaneous and structured learning experiences. That mode provided vitality and excitement to the school, the staff, and the students.

The six structural components of C.I.T.Y.

> The Community is where the action is! Communities are rich with institutions of our culture, modes of living, ideas, issues, resources, the real people, places and things--the good and the bad. This is the world of the child, the not yet adult, the young and the old. This is the world social-industrial state, the teetering political institutions-- small towns and urban areas, areas of overpopulation, the scene of war protestors...the stage for individual and cultural revolutions. This is the most vibrant teaching-learning laboratory to be found.[4]

The six components of the C.I.T.Y. program supplied the framework of a program designed to provide students with a "vibrant teaching-learning laboratory" in the community. These six components are: (1) administration (the management processes), (2) the curriculum development process, (3) staff development process, (4) instruction component, (5) handicapped component, and (6) community involvement.

Administration. Management processes. In developing the evaluation procedures and related objectives, 25 management functions were identified prior to school year 1973-74. Most of the management functions were directly related to one or more processes and product objectives within one of the non-management components. These objectives may be found in detailed form in Appendix A.

The first management process called for the Learning Supervisor and staff[5] to advise the Project Director about site curriculum discrepancies within three weeks after commencement of activities at the curriculum site. Information pertaining to site discrepancies or problems was included on weekly forms given to the Learning Coordinators (teachers) by each of the Learning Managers. These forms may be found in Appendix C. The Learning Managers in turn reported about each of their weekly visits to curriculum sites. All sites were very closely monitored and discrepancies were usually identified immediately. For example, if a student failed to attend a class, it was readily apparent.

The next management process called for the Project Director and Assistants to spot-check lesson plans for the community-based curriculum sites and to examine their relevance to the regular school program. The Project Director met with the Learning Supervisor if any discrepancies were noted, and revisions were made or negotiated with the sending schools.

Several workshops were held to teach the Learning Coordinators how to develop individualized performance objectives for all students. This process gave the Director and C.I.T.Y. staff the opportunity to set objectives for each course and each individual students.

There was also a management process which required the Project Director to request information regarding meetings with students and their rates of attendance. Originally, each student was a part of a "team" of students and staff members who discussed specific learning problems and more general program problems. However, once courses were developed and implemented, it was easy to see that scheduling difficulties

were going to prevent teams from being continued.

Each of the conferences described above was reviewed on a weekly basis with the Learning Supervisors, who relayed any programmatic problems to the Director. Several staff members said they felt that these were some of the most significant meetings held during the project.

The curriculum development process was integral to the C.I.T.Y. program. Each month the Project Director was present with a list of contracts and follow-ups for potential new C.I.T.Y. courses. These lists constituted improvement in curriculum development activities, and enabled the Director to chart this management process. Further, Learning Managers were required to meet with Learning Coordinators during the development of all courses. They continuously consulted with each other in order to develop course descriptions and outlines. The Learning Managers then reported on these meetings to the Learning Supervisors, who in turn reported to the Director.

Another of the management processes related to communication between the C.I.T.Y. program and the guidance counselors at the sending schools. This function called for the Program Director to review on-going communications between the Learning Supervisor, the Learning Managers, and the sending schools' guidance counselors. C.I.T.Y. staff members arranged appointments with as many guidance counselors as necessary to effectively serve their students. These meetings were held semi-monthly, except in extenuating circumstances. This function serves as a good example of how management processes should be linked to all operational processes and product objectives if those objectives are to be on target. Strong management calls for the Project Director to constantly solicit information

regarding all or most on-going activities. For example, the Director

should know if a student's program card has not been properly processed

at the sending school, causing the student to be marked absent.

One of C.I.T.Y.'s primary management objectives called for the

Project Director to review all staff activities each week. In reading

the weekly staff reports, the Director made marginal notes and comments

for later discussion with the staff member. Among the topics on these

reports was the staff function of soliciting in-kind services. It was

necessary for the Director to be familiar enough with local agencies to

determine when it was important to have a request for services come

directly from the Project Director, and when such service could be soli-

cited by another staff member.

Another management objective was written into the program to ensure

that the program continuously interacted with local school administra-

tors. Attendance at local school meetings and involvement with non-

C.I.T.Y. school personnel had to be encouraged. The program was success-

ful in motivating the central staff of the school district (teachers,

guidance counselors, department heads, etc.) to attend community council

meetings and to visit courses.

Staff development and training activities also had concomitant

management processes, as did the handicapped component. Management pro-

cesses were written into the on-going process and product objectives of

the handicapped component in order to ensure that the total management

system existed. The community involvement component also had a series of

related processes. One of the most important of these processes called

for the Project Director to solicit community suggestions regarding the

on-going processes as well as the future of the overall program.

Instruction. A series of operational process objectives was devel-
oped in order to assess the implementation and effect of instructional
activities (see Appendix A). The first objective related to the instruc-
tional component called for the Learning Coordinators to relate their
specific fields to the general learning activities. In order to deter-
mine whether or not this was actually taking place, Learning Managers
visited each of the curriculum sites on a weekly basis. The Learning
Managers used a report format in order to feed information back to the
Learning Supervisor and the Project Director. The observation form
(which is included in Appendix C) had a specific category or checklist
item which related directly to this process objectives. The Learning
Managers were required to uniformly complete these forms. The Learning
Managers, of course, also had to be sensitive and concerned about the spe-
cific talents of the teachers and the relationships of these talents to
the general course work.

The second process objective called for all Learning Coordinators to
relate their on-site activities to in-school requirements. It was the
Learning Manager's responsibility to determine whether or not this objec-
tive was being met. It was very difficult for Learning Managers to sur-
vey the implemented instructional activities as far as this particular
objective was concerned, since they had to have a thorough knowledge of
the traditional school requirements. Help came from the Learning Super-
visor, who collected lists of topics or concepts which comprised tradi-
tional course requirements. It was also imperative to work very closely
with the curriculum components; the steps taken to ensure that C.I.T.Y.'s

curriculum fulfilled the in-school requirements are discussed later in the curriculum section.

A credit system was designed for C.I.T.Y.'s instructional activities. This mechanism was a collaborative effort between C.I.T.Y. and the participating schools, since students received credit in their respective high schools for courses taken in the C.I.T.Y. program. These credits were bona fide credits to be used toward graduation. Several of the implemented curriculum sites were used as elective credits toward the total number of hours required for graduation; others were used as substitutes for school requirements. It was important to be very careful at this point because different schools have different requirements or credit systems. In reviewing the C.I.T.Y. program, credits were based on the number of hours the course met, the number of hours required and the actual course content. In order to ensure consistency, the credit program was worked out and then comparative studies were done with the participating schools. All of the credit mechanisms within the C.I.T.Y. umbrella were presented to each school headmaster for approval by the Director and staff. The establishment of this system is a good example of the cooperation between C.I.T.Y. and the feeding schools; the schools were also cooperative in accepting the alternative concept as it related to staffing, curriculum, instruction and learning.

Alternative schools throughout the country, in part, have been basing the degree to which they have impact upon the educational community on the number of schools which allow their students to apply alternative credits toward graduation. Thus, the C.I.T.Y. experience not only speaks well for the credibility of the program, but also for its relationship with school

administrators, superintendents and students.

Another activities implemented by the C.I.T.Y. staff in order to en-
sure that students met their in-school requirements was the regular
series of meetings between the school guidance counselors and the Learn-
ing Managers. These private meetings were arranged in order to allow the
C.I.T.Y. staff to discuss individual student problems or graduation re-
quirements and the C.I.T.Y. courses which were being applied toward the
student's credits.

The instructional staff members were responsible for making sure that
each of the Learning Coordinators developed a set of performance objec-
tives for each students. Training Learning Coordinators to develop objec-
tives and motivating them to provide each students with his own set of
objectives was often a frustrating activity. It was found that the pri-
mary cause of this frustration was the fact that these meetings usually
took place fifteen or twenty minutes before the beginning of class, or
during the Learning Coordinator's few free minutes after the class. In
neither case was there enough time to accurately review requirements re-
lated to the design of the individual performance objectives.

Programmatically, C.I.T.Y. faced this problem in several ways.
Arrangements were made for staff development sessions which were aimed at
informing members of the central staff about performance objectives and
the design of individualized performance objectives. At the same time,
the Curriculum Coordinator, when developing new courses, attempted to get
Learning Coordinators to be specific about course objectives. This helped
Learning Coordinators to develop and design individualized performance
objectives. Further, the second semester required the Learning Managers

to work with the Learning Coordinators and the students in writing learning objectives.

Another of the process objectives of the instructional component required that meetings be held involving students and staff. Two specific activities helped the project meet this objective. First, student seminars were held twice monthly, on Wednesdays at four o'clock. The purpose of these meetings was to discuss attendance, curriculum matters and other concerns. The meeting program varied so that it sometimes included films, speakers, or discussions about the C.I.T.Y. program. Second, as discussed earlier, each student met with a particular C.I.T.Y. staff member on a weekly basis, according to their feeder school, their personal relationships with staff members and their learning sites. In order to facilitate record-keeping and communication with the feeder schools, each staff member concentrated on only one feeder school. However, when personal relationships or learning sites became more important than the feeder school criterion, changes were made to accommodate such factors. At these private sessions, both parties discussed personal learning problems or academic situations related to the student and his/her participation in the C.I.T.Y. program.

Curriculum. The staff at C.I.T.Y. felt that any alternative program would rise or fall on its successes with curriculum development. The more successful the project staff is in developing and implementing community-based curriculum sites, the more successful the project. The development of a broad range of curriculum activities was one of C.I.T.Y.'s strong points.

Curriculum development processes, as they related to the C.I.T.Y.

project, called for the identification of (1) suitable community-based instructional sites, and (2) an on-site Learning Coordinator who could teach an alternative curriculum.

In order to identify potential curriculum sites and Learning Coordinators, the Curriculum Supervisor sent letters to sites and contacted potential Learning Coordinators. The responses and the follow-up on responses were assigend to all staff personnel. Because of this large-scale effort, the use of the staff as resource people, the use of students and the use of community council in locating curriculum sites, more than sixty courses were developed. There were enough core courses to allow the concentration of curriculum development efforts to meet the specific needs and requests of students. Some of the latter requests revolved around the need for learning sites to deal with topics such as chemistry, U. S. History and Spanish. While time was spent developing courses in these areas, there was also great effort spent exploring other possibilities, such as interdisciplinary courses which involved museums and an on-going study of literature.

Another of the activities related to the curriculum development objectives called for the writing of a course description and outline for each of the learning sites. In the early stages of C.I.T.Y., most of this work was done by the central staff or consultants. As the program matured, Learning Coordinators, with input from the Curriculum Supervisors, played a much larger role in the development of their own courses; in assembling course descriptions and outlines of their own programs, more Learning Coordinators moved into the mainstream of project activities.

The actual curriculum development process went through several

stages. First, the Curriculum Supervisor met with each of the Learning
Coordinators as soon as the site commitment letter was signed by a respon-
sible party at the proposed learning site. (The site was where the course
was to be taught and the site commitment letter was the letter signed by
the person who proposed the site or had responsibility for the site.) At
this time they discussed the use of a course outline and the Curriculum
Supervisor requested that the local Learning Coordinator develop and sub-
mit a course outline. This outline gave the Curriculum Supervisor a
foundation on which to build, modify, or revise the proposed course.
After reviewing the course outline, the Curriculum Supervisor revisited
the Learning Coordinator in order to attain a greater degree of speci-
ficity in the outline. The process was started early enough to allow the
commitment and the original objectives to become a reality. Enough time
had to be allowed for review and revision of course objectives and descrip-
tions; the course outlines were thus more complete, and the Learning Co-
ordinators had a better idea of the teachers' responsibilities and in-
structional goals.

Another curriculum development objective was the development of a
student resource-tracking system. This system was developed in 1972 by a
consultant, but was not used until the 1973-74 school year. Basically,
this system consisted of a large wall chart containing lists of classes
and correlated lists of students enrolled in each class. It also pro-
vided information regarding the scheduling for each curriculum site.
Using this system, C.I.T.Y. staff members were readily able to (1) identi-
fy underused or overloaded curriculum sites, and (2) locate any site or
student at any time.

Another development objective called for the establishment of a reading tutorial program and a monitoring system in order to ensure that all participating students fulfilled state and local graduation requirements. The Curriculum Supervisor and related staff members worked closely with the instructional component in order to meet that objective. A list of tutors who voluntarily provided extra help to participating students was compiled, and the Harvard Upward Bound Program also lent support to the tutorial program. In both of these programs, students were assigned to tutors when they required assistance in academic areas.

Staff development. Staff development activities often take on a more important role in alternative programs than they do in traditional schools. The alternative education movement is still too immature to provide experienced and able staff members for all the alternative programs being implemented throughout the nation. The C.I.T.Y. program, therefore, implemented a series of its own staff development activities. These activities were intended to address the problems created by the fact that the public high school without walls is still an emerging concept and its related activities have therefore not yet reached maturation.

Staff development was arranged through the school year 1973-74 to meet the varying needs of the central staff, participating students, learning coordinators and community representatives. Early topics covered in staff development sessions were drug awareness, developing a sense of community, values clarification for the purpose of evaluation, and the writing of behavioral objectives. Some of these topics involved more than one training session.

A questionnaire was developed in order to give each staff member a

tool for rating the training sessions. This questionnaire (see Appendix C), rated sessions as excellent, good, satisfactory, or poor. Although a rating of this nature is usually made using a five-category Likert scale, the C.I.T.Y. staff felt that such scales often elicit a large number of ratings in the middle category. It was hoped that, by using a four-category scale, the middle-of-the-road assessment would be avoided and that each session would be judged either successful or unsuccessful.

The training session evaluations also elicited staff members' suggestions for improvement. For example, a drug information workshop elicited a suggestion related to the need for reading materials as a follow-up to training session. Another staff member suggested that further information on recognizing street drugs might be useful. Another of the participants in the drug awareness session felt that the group meeting had provided a worthwhile basic knowledge. However, two others questioned some of the statements about drugs as biased, and felt that there wasn't enough support for certain arguments. Still others felt that time constraints prevented the group leaders from thoroughly explaining the effects of certain drugs and giving details on the interrelation of the abused drugs. To summarize the data collected, all felt that the session was useful, but some felt that more information was required.

A second staff development session was devoted to developing a sense of community. A member of the American Friends Service Committee conducted this session; and at the staff's urging led a follow-up session the following week. The ratings of these sessions were more mixed than reactions to the drug abuse session. Comments, all of which were anonymous, indicated that several people thought the meetings were thought-provoking

but inconclusive. Many comments were to the effect that "the issues brought up stimulated thought, but we never decided whether or not we should have community".

Other comments pertaining to the two sessions led by the American Friends Service member indicated that several staff members hoped to pursue the ideas and questions raised during the session. While they did not think of the session as "inconclusive," they did feel the need for pursuing the issues discussed.

As a follow-up to the session on community, an outside evaluation team presented a values clarification session. This session was intended to allow the central staff members to examine their values and the effect of these values on members' observations and evaluations of students and program performance. This session fell far short of its anticipated goal. The quantitative assessment of such a workshop is extremely difficult; however, the questionnaire described above was applied to this session. The primary thrust of the anonymous comments indicated that the topic had vast potential, but that the presentation was too vague. One staff member commented, "it could and should have been more rewarding had I fully understood the workshop's intent." Another staff person thought that the session provided valuable insights into her values and their application to evaluation. Yet another wanted to apply the same techniques to student meetings.

A later staff development topic related to the writing of behavioral objectives for student performance. Since one of the program's primary goals called for individualized objectives to be written on a student-by-student basis at each learning site, the C.I.T.Y. staff had to train

Learning Coordinators to write these objectives. A member of the North-eastern University faculty explained the rationale for and use of behavioral objectives. The feedback from this session was well received by all staff. In addition, the C.I.T.Y. program evaluators conducted a meeting devoted to explaining the performance objectives checklist developed for use in evaluating the C.I.T.Y. program. Because the staff felt inadequately prepared to deal with the difficult task of developing and using performance objectives, two additional sessions (each two and a half hours in length) were arranged. The first of these sessions was to provide a general background in the development of behavioral objectives, while the second elaborated the techniques of objectives development. Staff comments indicated that they welcomed the additional help. All eight respondents rated the session as excellent.

In rating the staff development component itself, staff members felt that the sessions helped fulfill needs in many areas. While all of the sessions received positive assessments, it was interesting to note that more staff members rated the "concrete" workshops significantly higher than the open-ended sessions.

Another aspect of the staff development component was the C.I.T.Y. teacher-intern program. This was a one-semester internship designed for college students who had a serious interest in alternative styles of teaching and learning, both for themselves and for adolescents. "Alternative" in this sense referred to a program in which students and teachers are encouraged to direct their own learning, to interact with the community, to participate in constructing curriculum and to gain deeper awareness of the relationships between cognitive and emotional growth. This

internship program provided a variety of learning resources and experiences to increase each intern's repertoire of behaviors: the physical, the cognitive and the affective.

The purpose of this internship program was to help prosepctive teachers to cope effectively with new educational environments. Experience had shown that the demands placed on teachers today necessitate new kinds of teacher training. Without the normal protection embodied in the administrative structure of a traditional school, intern-teachers in alternative settings must immediately begin to cope with issues of new structure and authority models, limit setting, curriculum alternatives and new roles for students and teachers within their community.

In implementing the internship program, close attention had to be paid to the impact which the multiplicity of learning-teaching demands had on interns. The barrage of program experiences was intended to confront people with feelings similar to those they would encounter in subsequent learning situations. To cope, rather than to feel overwhelmed, people had to understand how to sort out and process events quickly. The students who succeeded in this program were expected to cope with the roles they chose for themselves in future learning settings. Anne and John Bremer had aptly pointed out that: "If we wish to be concerned with learning and creating ways of helping children to do what is natural to live, we as teachers might well begin to look at precisely those problems which arise in the classroom where action and interaction presently cease."[6]

Handicapped component. The philosophical, intellectual and educational viewpoint which guided the development of the C.I.T.Y. handicapped component is best described by Morris Val Jones:

> Each child needs to be helped to learn that he can
> find satisfaction in respecting others' needs and
> joy in helping others, at whatever social, profes-
> sional or intellectual level he may function. When
> he knows that his contributions are appreciated,
> an inner glow of purpose and self-respect will
> give him direction throughout his life.[7]

Eighteen handicapped students participated in the C.I.T.Y. program
in 1973-74. They were students defined as physically handicapped by the
Cambridge and Brookline School systems. Usually these youngsters were
receiving special educational services such as homebound instruction,
speech tutoring, aid from visual specialists or special training to remedy
a perceptual handicap. Many of the special groups mentioned above inclu-
ded multi-handicapped children to whom services were extended in the
nature of educational enrichment and motivation.

The Director was responsible for the overall development, direction,
and implementation of this component, but the Learning Supervisor served
as the primary liaison between (1) the students and teachers, (2) the
students and the community, and (2) the students and the resources. He
was also responsible for defining, interpreting and articulating students'
needs and goals to school personnel and organized internal programs.

The Learning Manager was responsible for observing students' classes
and taking attendance. He ensured that learning objectives were written
and met, as well as counseling students and following through on their
progress. In performing these duties, he maintained close contact with
the Learning Coordinator and the guidance counselors in the high schools.

The Learning Manager communicated with parents through letters, tele-
phone conversations and home visits. Periodic meetings were also held
with educational and therapeutic institutions. Special presentations were

made to the staff, Learning Coordinators, and persons representative of various segments of the community. Frequent meetings were held with the handicapped students to assess their needs and desires. Weekly reports were also submitted to the Learning Supervisor.

Scheduling of courses for the handicapped students was done in co-operation with the curriculum development staff and the Learning Coordinators, on the basis of student choices and learning site locations. Special transportation needs (e.g., the longer time required to get to class and the hiring of taxis) were taken into account in the planning of student programs. Where possible, learning sites were selected which could provide fairly long blocks of instruction to minimize transportation difficulties.

Resources for the handicapped component included the entire city. Of particular importance to this component were the hospital services, rehabilitation centers and social agencies for the medical, psychological and educational evaluations they made available. Facilities of this nature, such as the Youville Hospital Rehabilitation Department, Cambridge Community Mental Health Center and Children's Hospital Adolescent Unit, were in close proximity to the program and worked closely with C.I.T.Y. students. Agencies which offer therapeutic services were also used as resources.

Workshops were held each semester to acquaint the C.I.T.Y. staff with the handicapped students' various disabilities. These workshops gave the staff the opportunity to review the special needs of the handicapped and to discuss any special arrangements which had to be made with particular students. Learning Coordinators who taught the handicapped were also provided with similar information.

Most of the handicapped students were recruited from the Industrial School for Crippled Children. Because of this, the Director of Student Affairs at I.S.C.C. provided in-service training for staff and Learning Coordinators. These sessions dealt with the difficulties presented by each student's particular disability, and were designed to familiarized the staff with each student's situation.

An engineering course offered by Draper Laboratory at M.I.T. was of particular interest to the handicapped students, who appeared to be especially interested in the possibilities offered by the course for improving communication skills. Three students from the handicapped component achieved a notable accomplishment in designing an electronic conversion package that used microswitches and electronic circuitry to convert an electric typewriter for use by severely physically handicapped persons.

The C.I.T.Y. program also attempted to address the socialization needs of the handicapped students. Their involvement in community and public affairs (either individually or as part of an organized group) can begin to break down the insulation from the real social world provided by the artificial barriers of classroom walls. C.I.T.Y. recognized that no program can successfully educate a handicapped youngster for the real world by separating him from it. Therefore, handicapped students were offered opportunities to meet, discuss, study and work with members of groups other than their own.

In order to cope with aspects of the real social world prior to graduation from high school, the handicapped student was given a chance to gain self-confidence before being thrust into a world where few people really care. Connor argues that, in order to create a better life,

"children with limited physical functions need skills in daily living."[8]
In line with this need, the focus upon daily living skills and experiences was the primary purpose of C.I.T.Y.

Further, Connor believes that social experiences and opportunities for personal development are abundant. "Experiences with realities are essential for the handicapped as well as for the non-handicapped, with few, possibly inappropriately related, vicarious experiences."[9] This is true partially because these students, like most students, are young and inexperienced in life. Beyond that, however, there are many factors which inhibit the physically handicapped from having the knowledge and experience in daily living which are the province of the "normal child" in his/her growth from childhood through adolescence.[10]

Community involvement. It was felt by the project Director and staff that all segments of the community be involved in the development and operation of the project. A formal community council was established with district school personnel, area business persons, parents and community leaders, students and staff. Recognition of the competence and interest of a variety of groups (both within and outside of the schools) in planning and operating project activities would result in programs which could best meet the needs of the target population and sustain the interest and support of the community.

Special emphasis was given in the community involvement component to plans for the participation of students and parents. Student alienation from the school may be reduced if the program encourages youth to originate and carry out ideas for increasing their role and participation in school and community activities; it is equally important to give them

opportunities to share responsibility with adults and to work with adults in a variety of relationships.

The development of an effective involvement structure requires extensive and careful planning on the part of each district. No single model is appropriate for all districts, however. At C.I.T.Y., the community involvement component was designed as a mechanism whereby the community could provide several kinds of input to the C.I.T.Y. staff. This input involved reviewing and making suggestions in courses as they were developed. It also involved using community members as resources for teaching courses and making contacts with others to teach courses. Community members were also active in screening and selecting new staff members, as were students. As in many community involvement components, the level of activity of various community residents was disparate; many individuals were often and thoroughly involved, while others were peripherally active, and some were nearly unaware of C.I.T.Y.

Chapter III Footnotes

[1] It should be emphasized here that, by "community", the author is referring to the City of Cambridge, Massachusetts, where C.I.T.Y. was located. At points in this chapter, of course, it will be necessary to use "community" to refer to the word's more generic meaning, _viz._ "a unified body of individuals...the people with common interests living in a particular area..." (Webster).

[2] _Community Interaction Through Youth_, a proposal funded by the United States Office of Education, 1972.

[3] Robert C. Riordan, _Alternative Schools in Action_, (Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1972), p.13.

[4] Alberta P. Sebolt, "The Community as a Learning Laboratory," _Educational Leadership_, (February, 1972), p.410.

[5] See Appendix B for information on the C.I.T.Y. staff and complete job descriptions of all personnel.

[6] John and Anne Bremer, _Open Education, A Beginning_, (New York: Holt, Rhinehart and Winston, Inc., 1972), p.23.

[7] Morris Val Jones, _Special Education Programs_, (Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas).

[8] Francis P. Connor, _The Education of Crippled Children and Youth_, (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1971), p.450.

[9] _Ibid._

[10] _Community Interaction Through Youth_, p.89.

C H A P T E R   I V

THE CASE FOR EVALUATION IN ALTERNATIVE SCHOOLS

It has been the intention of this document to review the literature

pertinent to the alternative schools movement and to describe a public

school system-affiliated alternative program, the C.I.T.Y. school without

walls program in Cambridge, Massachusetts. Those objectives have been

dealt with in the preceding chapters. The remainder of this document

will be concerned with the evaluative processes which the C.I.T.Y. program

undertook pursuant to its obligations to the agency which funded the pro-

gram, the U. S. Office of Education (USOE). Chapter IV will discuss the

case for evaluation of alternative school programs. Chapter V will

describe that evaluation design and present an analysis of the data rela-

ting to the C.I.T.Y. program and, insofar as possible, (given the "soft

data" orientation of the program evaluation) will attempt to quantify

C.I.T.Y.'s success. The final chapter of this document will present sev-

eral conclusions drawn from this author's experience with alternative pro-

grams, and especially the C.I.T.Y. program.

The Case for Evaluation

Evaluation is often a major survival vehicle for alternative schools.

Often it is mandated by a funding agency or central administration. Be-

cause most alternative programs are new and experimental and not a single

kind of school at all, they have to prove and improve all the time. What

they do have in common is that they are all in some important way differ-

ent from the familiar, monolithic, neighborhood public school. These

schools and/or programs are usually significantly different in values, goals, and style. Thus, evaluation as it has been traditionally defined, and alternative school programs are not always compatible. Aside from the philosophical opposition to "hard" evaluation which is endemic to the atmosphere and objectives of the world described in the review of litera- ture (Chapter II), alternative school practitioners may resist evaluation for several other reasons. They may be defensive in the face of "hard" science" evaluators who, they feel, do not understand affective learning as well as cognitive growth. They are also concerned that evaluation pro- cedures and data may be used negatively. They frequently do not really understand the purpose of evaluation. This may contribute, at least par- tially, to the current negative feelings which alternative school practi- tioners have about evaluation in alternative education today. All these concerns are valid. The answer lies in eliminating misunderstanding on both sides, not rejecting evaluation. For publicly financed alternative education programs, evaluation is a part of today's reality, the price to be paid for spending the public's money. The public is demanding accoun- tability of its education programs and accountability means, in part, evaluation. Alternatives are compatible with evaluation, especially if the innovators seize the initiative and develop new methods for evaluating their programs which allow for responsible programmatic growth.

There are at least four other, more substantive reasons why evalua- tion of alternative educational programs like C.I.T.Y. is essential. First, it is crucial to consider a focus on self-improvement for the pro- gram as an important part of the initiative alternative school practi- tioners must take. This focus relates to the on-going planning process;

and evaluation data are an essential ingredient in such improvement. Second, as a basis for establishing the credibility of the program, evaluation must meet the demands of a variety of "publics". Conventional education programs have already established credibility over time. An alternative program must be prepared for assaults on its integrity because it is a change, because it implies some weakness or void in the regular program, and because it diverts funds from the regular program. Third, a primary rationale for the existence of alternatives within public education is that they become the means or the process by which public education evolves. Realistically, some educational alternatives strategies will not work. Evaluation provides a base for identifying those that work and those that do not. Finally, the assessment of individual student progress is difficult without an adequate understanding of where the program itself stands; evaluation can provide that understanding.

Issues in Evaluating Alternative Programs

There are a number of wide ranging problems and issues involved in assessing alternative education. First, evaluation has unfortunately been stereotyped as a process in which a "good" evaluation develops no negative information. House (1973) talks about the politics involved in evaluations of regular programs that often lead people to mask negative findings. Others feel that evaluation should only produce positive findings about the program.[1] It is the author's contention that this feeling is even more prevalent when evaluating alternative programs because of their tenuous position. This should not be the case, however. The C.I.T.Y. evaluation data showed that negative evaluative information

may be highly productive in terms of suggesting <u>directions for program</u> <u>changes</u>. Positive data, on the other hand, often tends to mask non-productive program elements. A good evaluation, then, is one which provides information and direction for program improvement, as well as which produces evidence of program effectiveness.

Another problem area, a rationalization for not evaluating, is the "hard data syndrome", which equates evaluation with standardized tests and discounts the value of "soft" data. Wolf and Amory (1975) discuss the importance of this issue of the kind of technology that evaluators use by first showing how the different methodologists might argue:

> Some of the more traditional behavioral scientists begin to say that their measurement techniques are not sophisticated enough to handle the social action programs of today with all their complex variables and call on the discipline to review and update its practices. However, some of the more innovative ones counter by saying that this appeal to modernize the technology of measurement is merely an attempt to co-opt new values and techniques and represents to fundamental shift in the belief in the supremacy of the old way of doing things.[2]

and then pointing out how the "hard data" versus "soft data" argument has special significance in evaluating alternative programs. However, in education, and especially in alternative educational programs, it must be recognized that a variety of measurement techniques are required. While the precision and nature of "soft" data may vary considerably, each piece of information plays an essential part in the process. Indirect measures, then, become as important to evaluation and program improvement as conventional direct measures. Fortunately, evaluation today is not synonymous with measurement. Evaluating is not data to be used for decision

making to improve programs to meet anyone's needs. This statement is not said to minimize the importance of measurement methodology. It is still a valuable set of tools in evaluating, but the correct set of tools must be constructed to accomplish the purpose intended.

The demands placed on alternative programs are frequently far more stringent than nay within a more traditional program. As has been said, the regular program has established its credibility through endurance over time, while alternative programs are suspect newcomers. Although inherently unfair, this tendency may in the long run be to the benefit of alternative education, since it is responsible for evaluative development in concurrence with program development.

Another major problem in evaluating alternative programs is the lack of qualified evaluators who have the sensitivities and insight necessary to fully understand the concept of alternative education and to measure its successes. There are two possible ramifications of this problem. The first is that the evaluator may misunderstand the purposes of the program. One means of compensating for this problem is for the staff to develop well defined, specific objectives whenever possible. However, many educators believe that much of what is important to the learning process cannot be adequately defined in behavioral or otherwise measurable terms. Objectives appropriate for alternative programs, thus, need to be developed by individuals sensitive to both the needs and processes of affective learning. A second difficulty that may arise as a result of a lack of sensitivity on an evaluator's part is an atmosphere of suspicion and tension in the program. Much has been written about the need for consultants (for whatever purpose) to enter a social situation in ways which do not

arouse the suspicion and hostility of the people in the setting. This is especially true for evaluators of alternative programs. Entry procedure should be such that people understand the purposes and limitations of the evaluation and have some sense of the evaluator. The alternative program staff should do all it can to reduce the feelings of hostility and suspicion which often develop toward evaluators. This, judging from the C.I.T.Y. experience, will help to reduce the influence of irrelevant, interpersonal factors on the program evaluation.

A common problem in the evaluation of alternative programs is the tendency for evaluators with traditional backgrounds to establish performance criteria on the basis of traditional educational objectives, whether or not the alternative program shares those objectives. Most alternative programs, however, were developed to fill a need that was not being met by the regular school program; the need for evaluating alternative programs on the basis of what they were designed to do is clearly in conflict with traditional bias. For example, a 50% attendance level in a traditional program is cause for alarm, while the same level in a dropout program may clearly demonstrate program effectiveness. The dropouts' 50% attendance rate would be a marked improvement over their previous 0%.

Diversity becomes a real problem in the evaluation process, mainly because alternative programs serve a variety of audiences. These audiences range from the program students and staff to the School Board, the community, various local and state political leaders, and other role groups. Obviously, some of these audiences are directly related to the educational program, while others are not. It is likely that each group may hold different expectations for the success criteria of any given

program. This dilemma cannot readily be resolved. However, awareness of such diverse expectations can, perhaps, make the evaluation more responsive, at least in part, to those expectations.

Another problem involved with the evaluation of alternative educational programs is raised in the following assertion:

> Education has traditionally focused only on the cognitive domain. The alternative education movement reflects a reaction to this over-emphasis. However, critics of alternative education have indicated that the need still exists for "basic education", which is their terminology for the rote learning processes which often accompany cognitive learning. Most recent research has indicated that the attitude and self-concept of the learner has a profound effect on his receptivity to cognitive learning.[3]

As suggested by that statement, it is essential for alternative programs to recognize the interrelationships between cognitive and affective development and to plan for them. Such planning will help to communicate to the evaluator the importance of affective development. That will, in turn, be instrumental in ensuring an evaluation design which includes affective growth assessments as well as the more easily quantified cognitive measures.

Evaluation of alternative programs cannot be separated from the planning process. That process begins with an identification of needs and the establishment of goals and objectives based on these needs. By considering evaluation part of the planning process, goals and objectives can be considered from the perspective of their applicability to evaluation and thus their relevance to an effective program.

In order to maintain the integrity of alternative programs, it is appropriate to use the staff as the primary source of need identification

and goal-and-objectives setting. These should be reviewed by the program

administration, as should the evaluative procedure, in order to ensure

congruence with the external evaluation. From that perspective, the ad-

ministration may suggest additional or modified program objectives which

lend themselves more directly to evaluation without diluting the intent

of the program. As part of this process, the evaluative criteria are

jointly established by the program staff and the central administration,

keeping in mind the internal needs of the program, as well as those of

the outside agency.

Evaluation of alternative programs has stressed process evaluation as

much as it has stressed with Michael Scriven calls "pay-off" evaluation:

> ...if we attempt a pure pay-off approach to evalua-
> ting a curriculum, and discover that the material
> retained and/or regurgitated by the student is re-
> garded as grossly inadequate by the subject-matter
> specialists, we have no idea whether this is due to
> an inadequacy in the intentions of the curriculum-
> makers, or to imperfections in their curriculum
> with respect to either of the preceding. And thus
> we cannot institute a remedial program--our only
> recourse is to start all over. The pay-off approach
> can be very costly.[4]

If alternative programs are to have any impact upon American education, and

if they are to see themselves as reponsible innovations, then they must be

willing to look hard at how their programs operate as well as the possible

effects of them.

While one might very well decry the lack of effective measures for

alternative programs, it should be recognized that the academic element of

the program does need to be evaluated. Standardized tests, although much·

maligned (and often with justification), if carefully selected, can be

useful measurement instruments, provided they are not the only success indicators that are to be used.

The following questions represent what ought to be considered in designing evaluation models for alternative schools:

Q1: Does the evaluation design consider self-improvement of the program that relates to the on-going planning process?

Q2: How does the evaluation design take into consideration the variety of "publics?"

Q3: How does the evaluation design provide information about program effectiveness?

Q4: Does the evaluation design provide for a variety of measurement techniques?

Q5: Do the people who are designing and conducting the evaluation have the qualifications and sensitivity to understand the concept of alternative education?

Q6: Does the evaluation design establish performance criteria on the basis of traditional educational objectives or the objectives of the alternative program?

Q7: Are the demands placed upon the alternative program more stringent than those placed upon traditional programs?

Q8: Does the evaluation design measure both cognitive and affective development?

Q9: Does the evaluation design make intelligent use of standardized tests?

Q10: How does the evaluation design use people (staff, students, community, etc.) in the evaluation process?

Chapter VI will review the C.I.T.Y. evaluation in light of these ten questions in an attempt to show how the evaluation did or did not answer them as it was carried out. The C.I.T.Y. design, which will be detailed in Chapter V, addressed itself to a number of these issues. All information is viewed as being important to the planning priorities of school

departments and the alternative program, e.g., a position paper for pre-sentation to the Cambridge, Brookline School Departments and the Indus-trial School for Crippled Children was developed on C.I.T.Y.'s learned experiences in providing special education programs for handicapped stu-dents. Cognitive and affective development was measured by further stu-dent evaluations and by normative testing schedules for students enrolled in the Cambridge and Brookline School Departments. The evaluation design, in order to expand community council involvement and student enrollment, presented a plan of "institutionalization", with an accompanying time table to the Cambridge School Department, June 1, 1974.

Chapter IV Footnotes

[1]Ernest R. House, School Evaluation, The Politics and Process, (Berkeley, McCutcheon Publishing Company, 1973) pp.43-46.

[2]Jeff Amory and Thomas Wolf, "Evaluating Non-Traditional Programs: A Handbook of Issues and Options", (National Alternative Schools Program, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, Massachusetts, April, 1975)

[3]Alfred Morin and Associates, Handbook for Educational Program Auditing, (Washington, DC, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1970) p.3.

[4]Michael Scriven, "The Methodology of Evaluation", Perspectives of Curriculum Evaluation, Ralph W. Tyler, ed., (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1967).

C H A P T E R   V
THE DESIGN

The evaluation design evaluation design submitted by Ellwood Johnston and Associates was divided into several categories, as detailed in Appendix A. This was done to enable the evaluation team to conduct comprehensive surveys on program management, processes and products, as well as the handicapped, curriculum and staff development components. Performance objectives were developed for each category by the staff, the evaluator, the community resource teachers (Learning Coordinators) and students on an on-going basis. There was a constant search for new and better testing instruments as well as a continual modification of objectives. The word "management" as used in this document refers to the Director and staff; "process" refers to the procedures used to implement the program; and "products" refers to the outcome of this management and process in the final evaluation of student progress.

This is only a partial representation of the evaluation design for the C.I.T.Y. program. Each staff person had specific duties to perform, but some tasks involved joint efforts. Because of this preceding situation, there were a number of questions asked of our evaluators (i.e., How do you get good evaluation data? What types of questions do you ask? Who is involved in evaluation? What end does evaluation serve? How is it connected to personal growth?)

This model by Johnston assumed that an adequate evaluation design must give appropriate attention to all major performance categories which impact upon the total performance of the project. The major factors in this comprehensive model were:

Components: The major areas of project activitiy within which performance is planned, achieved and measured; e.g., student instruction, staff development community involvement, etc.

Levels: The levels of program conduct from which interrelated performances are expected; specifically the various target groups within the performance level, the operator level, and the manager level of project activity.

Domain: The principal areas of performance behavior--cognitive, affective, and psychomotor.

Types: The consideration of product (What is being achieved?) and process (How is it being achieved?) in the monitoring of the project effectiveness.

Sequence: The time relationship of performance attainment; whether long or short term, parallel or accumulative; dependent or independent, etc.

Phase: The major area of project activity within the evaluation process; the establishment of performance objectives and criteria to measure success; the determination of evaluative techniques; the selection and development of evaluative instruments; and the determination and utilization of appropriate data collection, data analysis, and data analysis presentation (reporting) procedures.

To effectively monitor the evaluation process in such an educational project, it is necessary to begin with a clear conceptualization of what constitutes an adequate evaluation design. An evaluative design which does give appropriate attention to each of the factors indicated is adequate to provide the range of information needed for program management decision making. The evaluation model outlined here meets these criteria.

C.I.T.Y. was sponsored by federal funding under Section 306 (Title III) of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA). Programs funded under this section are required to conform to the U. S. Office of Education accountability scheme. The evaluation conducted in conformity to that scheme--and its related activities--was critical to the program's accountability. The funded agency (and, in the case of programs like

C.I.T.Y., the third-party evaluator) wrote a performance contract to pro-
vide certain reports and services in order to receive payment from the
Federal government. In the case of the C.I.T.Y. program, the third-
party consultant firm of Ellwood M. Johnston and Associates was contracted
to conduct the evaluation for the school year 1973-74.

It was this evaluation team's responsibility to measure program
effectiveness in all objectives areas in order to document program out-
come. A report detailing these evaluative data was filed during the se-
cond or third month of program activities each year. This assured assess-
ment of program development, as well as an assessment of the program's
ability to achieve on-going process objectives.

The evaluation process began by stating program objectives. A pro-
gram was to look back on its performance and decide whether or not those
objectives were met. Therefore, the basic task of this evaluation was to
look at the stated objectives and to compare them with project performance.
Such discrepancy evaluation is most useful in isolating objectives which
were accomplished--and those which were not.

In addition to providing such background information, the evaluation
report identified program needs and served a documentation function for
the program. In areas where the program seemed to have been less than
one hundred percent effective, it was incumbent upon the evaluators to
identify needs and suggest remediation. However, this is not to say that
the evaluation teams decided what steps should be taken to meet program
weaknesses or needs; their function was to suggest corrective measures.
The evaluation team acted only as a consultative arm to the program or
project Director.

The Evaluation Outcomes of C.I.T.Y.

The objective of all dedicated administrators-teachers-educators should be to thoroughly analyze all situations, anticipate all problems before they occur, have answers for these problems and move swiftly to solve these problems when they are called upon.

> Instead of encouraging unimportant outcomes in education, the use of explicit instructional objectives makes it possible to identify and reject those objectives which are unimportant. Prespecification of explicit goals does not prevent the teacher from taking advantage of unexpectedly occurring instructional opportunities in classroom situations; it only tends to make the teachers justify these spontaneous learning activities in terms of worthwhile instructional ends.[1]

It is difficult in certain subject fields to identify measurable pupil behavior. But educators can not escape this responsibility. No one who really understands education has ever argued that instruction is a simple task. Measurability implies accountability. Teachers and administrators might be judged on their ability to produce results in learners rather than on the many bases now used as indices to competence.

At C.I.T.Y., Learning Managers and Learning Coordinators, along with other staff personnel, were trained to write instructional objectives by the evaluation team. This was done for each subject following Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. Formative tests were also developed to gauge the measurable impact of teacher behaviors on each level. This latter course was followed because it was felt that to stop at merely modifying the behavior of the teacher without demonstrating further effects upon the learner would be insufficient.

> Behavioral objectives are intentions, expectations,
> or goals that lead us to act or perform in certain
> ways. Behavioral objectives are also a methodolo-
> gical development. Methodology has two aspects.
> One aspect is descriptive and concerns itself with
> knowledge, information, and understanding about the
> method. The other is operational and concerns it-
> self with synthesizing knowledge, skills, and un-
> derstanding which take from through subsequent ex-
> ercises, activities, and practices.[2]

Although the Management Component and the five other components of

the C.I.T.Y. program have been discussed briefly in the preceding Chapter

and can be found in total in Appendix A, it is this writer's opinion that

this component is of ultimate importance to the success of the program.

The reasons will become apparent.

Management Component

The Management Component, which comprised the Program Director and

all C.I.T.Y. staff:

1. maintained a file of all staff reports;

2. monitored each component's activity;

3. reviewed the program's management information system with
evaluators;

4. obtained workshop participants and established workshop
times;

5. provided copies of U.S.O.E. guidelines and position state-
ments on Community Council roles in policy-making;

6. obtained written commitments for learning sites;

7. provided structured course syllabi in problems of the handi-
capped, Bloom's taxonomy of learning and reporting;

8. submitted reports to staff on failing students, citing spe-
cific areas of failure, the methods used for instruction and alternatives

recommended for progress;

9. inserted and updated a taxonomy checklist for each student, including monthly written notations and listings of accomplishments, failures, and potential course failures;

10. obtained a written statement of each student's graduation requirements, citing the courses completed and the grades received;

11. prepared students' attendance profiles for staff meeting review; and .

12. obtained copies of students' home records and identified counseling needs.

This process objectives guided the collection of these baseline data. These processes combined reports and other pertinent data. As this related to C.I.T.Y., the Learning Supervisor, Learning Manager, and Information Supervisor submitted a monthly Gant Line and/or PERT chart (as well as other reports or forms) detailing proposed and completed activities and outlining benchmark tasks for the month, their time of occurence and their results. These also cited any exceptional and problemmatic conditions.

A formal evaluation of C.I.T.Y. was conducted in 1973-74 by Ellwood M. Johnston and Associates; the data-related information presented in the remainder of this chapter grows from that effort. In the main, the evaluation embodied the following procedures:

1. Identify kinds of data to be collected: Data was collected on the identification and analysis of students' needs; student and control group academic performance on summative standardized and formative tests: modification of attitude and self concept; staff effectiveness level in the execution of performance objectives; quality of Community Council participation as a policy setting body; and the institutionalization of C.I.T.Y. by the Cambridge School Department.

2. Criteria used to evaluate results and success of the project: The realization of program goals was to be implemented through the execution of a triad of performance objectives--specifically, product, process and management objectives. In each instance, quantification was possible either through the use of standardized tests or evaluation from newly

created normative instruments. The performances registered by completion of the first term of the project became baseline data against which future performances could be measured. A fulfillment level of 70% during the first term was the norm; and improvement of 20% over this norm served as the criterion against which the project's effectiveness could be gauged in the future.

   3. Methodology to determine if identified needs were met: Various methods were used to ascertain the fulfillment of needs:

   a. Overall group response as to meeting identified needs--student, staff, community; surveys by written and oral questionnaire once each term.

   b. Students' needs assessment--Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal; academic performance--Stanford High School Achievement Battery; attitude and self-image--Personal Orientation Inventory and Tennessee Self-Concept Scale.

   c. Staff effectiveness in realizing goals--Community Council particiation--evaluation firm created instruments administered once per semester.

   4. Measurement of results and benefits: The evaluation firm's impact measurement survey was to be conducted at the conclusion of each semester to obtain an appraisal of the student body's and community's concept of the project's effectiveness and benefits to the students and community. Further, the pivotal issues of level of pupil academic performance and attitude modification from summative and formative tests were available to assist in measuring the learning impact of the C.I.T.Y. program.[3]

   The evaluation firm (Johnston and Associates) began its performance on November 1, 1973, after having been formally selected and notified by the evaluation committee composed of Cambridge School Department Headmasters (or their designee), City Community Council Designees, C.I.T.Y. Director, staff, and parents. The structure of the evaluation committee was formulated during the summer of 1973, but due to the delayed appointment of the Cambridge Latin High School Headmaster, the committee did not convene until mid-October, 1973.

   The evaluation team averaged two and one half on-site visits each

week to the C.I.T.Y. Administrative Offices and alternative learning sites (C.I.T.Y. classes).

The initial task of the evaluators and the staff, at the request of the project Director, was to assess the evaluation plan which was designed by the preceding evaluator. They also interviewed each C.I.T.Y. staff (central) member, reviewed the program proposal, and the program objectives; observed fifty percent of the learning sites; had informal discussions with students, parents and community council members; met in formal conference with the Cambridge School Department Superintendent, Assistant Superintendent, and the C.I.T.Y. Director. In addition, the evaluator's staff, along with the C.I.T.Y. staff reviewed all files, staff reports, and information systems within the C.I.T.Y. offices.

The implementation findings and operational interruptions by the Ellwood M. Johnston and Associates, Inc., staff evaluators during the initial interactional analysis of the C.I.T.Y. "system" were as follows:

1. C.I.T.Y. staff was reduced from eleven full-time personnel to a present level of seven full-time persons and two half-time persons for the 1973-74 program year.

2. The curriculum development component established forty-three (43) courses or learning sites for 1973-74, and eleven (11) subject areas (during the 1972-73 program year, twenty-eight (28) learning sites were established in ten (10) subject areas). (1st semester).

3. Six (6) of the seven (7) full-time staff were new "hires" as indicated by the above increase in learning sites, their performance productivity apparently was not hampered by their "newness".

4. A legacy of ninety-six (96) performance objectives and the revising of student reporting forms to a manageable and realistic number. (Previously, there were twenty-two (22) reporting forms for each student.)

5. A need of the evaluation team to write and submit a new evaluation plan (this request caused an untimely undulation in the operational process of the C.I.T.Y. program-administration and staff were beyond midway of the first semester, following the time table and mandates

of the evaluation precedent and then having to switch to another evaluation plan).[4]

All readers of this document must be mindful of the fact that the successful or unsuccessful implementation of all the component process and product actuation and student achievement lie in the administrative component. The following statement will reveal some of the positive outcomes:

1. C.I.T.Y. is an integral part of the Cambridge School System and not an independent school. All employees of C.I.T.Y. receive personnel benefits such as Cambridge School Group and Health benefits and also possess one year non-tenured contracts with the Local Educational Agency approved by the Cambridge School Committee.

2. Coordination by C.I.T.Y. and LEA Headmasters, department chairman, guidance counselors, and curriculum directors on all courses offered by C.I.T.Y., graduation requirements, reporting systems, credit standardization, and policy regulations.

3. Absorption of C.I.T.Y.'s rental costs and new office facilities.

4. C.I.T.Y.'s space allotment within the architect's design of the planned new high school facility.

5. Cambridge School Departments maintenance of C.I.T.Y.'s fiscal and accounting systems.

6. Computerization of C.I.T.Y.'s grading, student evaluation records, and student courses.

7. Program, planning, budgeting system forecasting for future allocation requests.

8. The Cambridge School Department has assumed the full funding load for the C.I.T.Y. program.[5]

In this writer's opinion, from these trends and management efforts in planning for C.I.T.Y.'s transition, a sincere atmsophere did exist amont the Cambridge School Department to make C.I.T.Y.'s institutionalization complete.

Because of our implementation process there were also some unsuccessful aspects of the program. These were the following (not necessarily in order of importance):

1. The students didn't have unity. It was very difficult to have team meetings or group meetings because of scheduling problems.

2. Only the troubled students were referred from the sending high schools.

3. Staff turn-out for evening meetings, weekend trips with students, staff retreats, evaluation meetings, etc., was poor.

4. Record-keeping and reports were substandard.

5. The low regard of the C.I.T.Y. staff by the traditional staff personnel.

6. Continuous harrassment about office space away from the traditional school scene.

7. The add-one. Job responsibility changes and unclearly defined jobs.

8. No enough input into the evaluation process or procedure. (How it was to be achieved.)

9. Non-standardized grading system. (Each high school used a different system.)

10. Non-participating members of the School Department (central office) or high school teachers in staff development activities designed for their participation and input.

11. Not enough time for staff to become involved in additional activities relating to student traditional school involvement.

Data collection was done in reference to the six component introduced by the project evaluator. The prime responsibility for the planning and facilitation of the development objectives and activities were administered and actuated by the Director under the administrative component.

The curriculum component which interfaces students with the network of instructional sites and learning experiences was represented by a total

staff team effort in concert with the Instructional Coordinator, the Cambridge School Department, the Brookline School Department, the Industrial School Department for Crippled Children and Youth, and others.

The evaluators and staff utilized trend and comparative analysis of documented data within the C.I.T.Y. offices and observation of the learning sites to measure the objectives of the Curriculum Development Component.

At the close of the June, 1973, school academic year, eighteen courses had been offered to C.I.T.Y. students. Seven (7) courses were offered in the summer. Comparatively, during the school year 1973-74, the data on course development taken from the C.I.T.Y. Course Description, 1973-74 listed forty three courses in eleven course areas, an increase of fifteen courses and one course area over the previous year. The objective of course development for 1973-74 was forty. The forty-three courses developed surpassed the required product objective.

Also during the 1973-74 first semester, C.I.T.Y. offered five mini courses to its students, community council, parents, and friends. The courses were Women in Society, Supermarket Ecology, The Individual and Society, Babies, Music Recording Studio. Also through the insistence of the evaluator team, the Instructional Coordinator also planned and developed course descriptions, course objectives, course outlines, and coordinated with the Learning Supervisor to implement the student's learning mastery and contracts which were optional.

The student contracts (which were optional) are evidenced in the students' personal folders; student mastery skills data were analyzed from the Learning Coordinators' monthly student evaluation forms and the

earning Supervisors' Student Evaluation and Grading reports.

A further assessment concerning data of course content, methods, tudent requirements, instructional materials to be used, required number f hours of class meetings, site location, credit value of courses, maxi- um number of students to be enrolled, and minimum grade level require- ents for students were all documented, planned and matched for each in- tructional unit. Listed in Appendix C will be comparative C.I.T.Y. ourse Development and new courses developed.

The Instructional Component was headed by the Learning Supervisor, nder the guidance and administration of the Director. The duties were iverse: Instructional process, technical assistance to all Learning Co- rdinators, student evaluations, student records, student counseling, taff development, handicapped component, and course monitoring.

Through the work of the Learning Supervisors, a student tracking sys- em was developed, student recruiting, course scheduling and monitoring as done. In addition, student record forms were designed, emergency de- ails handled, and student follow-up undertaken. All these span the spectrum of the Learning Supervisors' job assignments.

Data collection included following students' progress and Learning Coordinators' profiles as a result of direct assistance and records main- tenance. Located in Appendix C are Student Profile Reports.

One of the objectives of C.I.T.Y. was to maintain a 15% enrollment of handicapped students. A number of surveys were taken with the handicapped students to answer questions such as: (1) whether transportation was a problem, (2) whether the student had learning problems, (3) whether there were things about C.I.T.Y. that the students disliked, (4) what things

were recommended for change in the C.I.T.Y. program, (5) whether students would recommend C.I.T.Y. to their friends, and (6) whether students planned to return to C.I.T.Y. the following year.

C.I.T.Y. staff made every effort to try to make handicapped students feel unsheltered or unthreatened due to their visible handicap. Additional information pertaining to verified data may be found in Appendix C.

> The objectives of the Staff Development Component as assessed by the evaluation team have been actuated in full. The documentation was provided mostly from observation of completed forms and reports submitted by Learning Coordinators, specified objectives of all course descriptions; student evaluations; daily attendance on students; and evaluators' observations of staff and Learning Coordinators' attendance at staff development sessions.[6]

Staff development sessions were open to all public school personnel, students, community council members and other community leaders. In-service sessions were held in Drug Abuse, Special Education, Behavior Modification, and other topics. An appropriate chart in Appendix C, titled "In-service Training for Staff Development", describes these activities.

The Community Involvement Component (Community Council) underscores the following tasks:

> 1. To inform and educate the general community and professional educators on the nature and role of C.I.T.Y.
>
> 2. To ensure the active and continued involvement of community resources (organizations, parent groups, public and private agencies, school teachers, school administrators, students, and other community members) in the overall activities of the program.[7]

The primary responsibility for this component came under the auspices

of the Information Supervisor with direction from the Director. This writer's observation is that all C.I.T.Y. staff, students, parents, Learning Coordinators, and community council members played a significant role in enhancing the positiveness of this program to the general public.

The evaluator reviewed numerous records of community meetings, attended staff meetings and informal discussions to amass data for this component. The members of the component held monthly community council meetings and one mass annual community council conference, attended by over two hundred people.

Additional information and data were disseminated through news and public releases or radio talk shows. A brief information calendar is entered in Appendix C.

It is easy to reflect on a program and see many negative issues in which to respond to. In all honesty, this writer had very few criticisms of a particularly serious nature. One problem, compounded by outside demands that this writer can respond to, concerned the evaluative compilation of data. The staff at C.I.T.Y. was much over-worked in this area. It was their responsibility to assemble all information that was used. A number of hours above and beyond anyone's expectation was spent away from the students' needs dealing with reports and amassing data from student folders. It should be a priority in future programs to specify to outside evaluators that the use of staff time for sorting and evaluating data be kept at a minimum. This writer realizes that without some staff involvement this process would be futile; but staff burn-out is also a major concern of most alternative programs. The process of evaluation was faily successful, but the product that it produced (with reference to

staff only) left them completely fagged, physically and mentally.

This dissertation was begun with the thought that the major purpose of evaluation for alternative schools was to provide data for decision makers that would enable them to improve the program. While this is an important part of any evaluation, at this particular moment in the history of alternative schools, it may be more important to use the process of evaluation to accomplish other purposes, like research or public relations. For example, programs like C.I.T.Y. are relatively new. In a period of scarce resources, it often is the new and untested that does not get re-funded. Evaluation may have to be used aggressively to communicate to a variety of publics about the impact that C.IT.Y. is having upon students and community. Other systems across the country may want to use C.I.T.Y. evaluation data as research data to make decisions as to the replicability of the program. The particular nature of the C.I.T.Y. program and the new Chapter 766 Massachusetts Law concerning the mainstreaming of students and the pressures it has engendered in Massachusetts may add a political dimension to any evaluation done at C.I.T.Y.

Secondly, in this dissertation the author stresses view of evaluation fitting into the educational process. A previous notion of evaluation was that it followed logically in a process which included planning for a program, instituting it, and evaluating it. Evaluation, thus, was what happened at the end of a process. Now the process is seen as much more complex. It is not so much linear rational, with the three modes (planning, action, evaluation) following one upon the other as it is cyclical, with the three modes being more interactive. Evaluation becomes something we do throughout the educational process in a variety of ways.

Chapter V Footnotes

[1]James W. Popham, Education Objectives, (Los Angeles: Vincent Associates, 1966), p.19.

[2]Alfred Morin and Associates, Handbook for Educational Program Auditing, (Washington, DC: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1970), p.7.

[3]Ellwood M. Johnston and Associates, "The Evaluation of C.I.T.Y."

[4]C.I.T.Y. Interim Evaluation, April, 1974 (Springfield, Massachusetts: Ellwood M. Johnston and Associates, Inc.), pp.3-4.

[5]Ibid., p.9.

[6]Ibid., p.47.

[7]Ibid., p.57.

CONCLUSIONS

As stated in Chapter IV, much of this chapter will be devoted to a
discussion of how the evaluation design and evaluation of C.I.T.Y. fit
with the ten critical concerns about alternative school evaluation. Since
the period when the evaluation was conducted, the author has expanded his
concept of evaluation. This will be briefly discussed in this chapter.
Finally, the author will analyze his experience at C.I.T.Y. and consider
what seems to be the meaningful innovative aspects of the program.

In analyzing each of the ten critical questions on alternative school
evaluation in Chapter IV against the C.I.T.Y. evaluation, the basic ques-
tion and answer format is used below:

Q1: Did the evaluation design consider self-improve-
ment of the program and relate to the on-going
planning process?

A1: Trends and management efforts in planning for C.I.T.Y.'s
transition into the Cambridge School Department is now a reality. The on-
going planning process from the Summer of 1972 to June of 1974 in which
the student population and class offerings escalated, these were two impor-
tant features which came out of the evaluation design in relating to self-
improvement and the on-going planning process.

Q2: Did the evaluation design take into considera-
tion the variety of "publics?"

A2: The evaluation design did take into consideration a variety
of publics. The design recommended the expansion of community council
activities into functional roles; but they left the implementation of this

process to staff. This became a problem with staff because of time and energy restraints.

Q3: Did the evaluation design provide information about program effectiveness?

A3: The evaluation design provided positive and negative information about program effectiveness. This information was highly productive in terms of suggesting directions for the program. One of the major objectives of this program was to meet students' needs not being met be the traditional schools. In most cases, C.I.T.Y. was successful in meeting this demand, as evidenced by better attendance records, better grades, and better school relations.

Q4: Did the evaluation design provide for a variety of measurement techniques?

A4: All information played an essential part in the evaluation process. This writer felt that indirect measures were more important to the evaluation and to program improvement. The evaluation design assessed, planned, achieved, and measured program performance, e.g., student instruction, staff development, community involvement, etc.

Q5: Did the people who designed and conducted the evaluation have the qualifications and sensitivity to understand the concepts of alternative education?

A5: The evaluation team of Ellwood Johnston and Associates, Inc., have conducted over 300 evaluations of multi-disciplined programs and management audits. Professionally, they were equipped for the task of evaluating the C.I.T.Y. program. Evaluating an alternative program such as C.I.T.Y. should include the process and interactions observed

between students, parents, staff and community, which is not an easy task

for documenting and analyzing. They provided it.

Q6: Did the evaluation design establish performance
criteria on the basis of traditional educational
objectives or the objectives of the alternative
education program?

A6: The level of performances were interrelated between alter-

native and traditional educational objectives. The reason for this rela-

tionship had to do with the ultimate goal of institutionalization. Be-

cause the C.I.T.Y. staff wanted this program to achieve status with the

Cambridge School Department, many of C.I.T.Y.'s objectives were geared to

guarantee input from traditional school personnel, e.g., all C.I.T.Y.

courses had to be approved by the sending school Headmaster.

Q7: Were the demands placed upon the alternative
program more stringent than those placed upon
traditional programs?

A7: Greater attendance, student achievement, performance be-

havior, more consideration of the product (e.g., what is being achieved)

and the process (how it is being achieved) and the monitoring of project

effectiveness--were all areas highly scrutinized by traditional schools'

administration and were, therefore, demands which had to be met with more

success.

Q8: Did the evaluation design measure both cognitive
and affective development?

A8: This was one of the major areas of project activity within

the evaluation instrument. The design established performance objectives

and criteria to measure success or failure in confluent education, as

opposed to just cognitive or affective.

Q9: Did the evaluation design make intelligent use
of standardized tests?

A9: Although the C.I.T.Y. program design called for extensive
use of standardized tests, it was a most difficult activity to actuate.
There were a number of obstacles to using or testing students. Testing
was done with a few of C.I.T.Y. students, and these test results were
used as a guide for levels of expectations in classroom performance
(e.g., a science course titled "Physics and Math in Music" given at the
Massachusetts Institute of Technology tested students to find their math
skills in order to know where teachers would have to begin instruction re-
lating to those students. C.I.T.Y. relinquished the notion of testing all
students after the first semester due to testing restraints.

Q10: How did the evaluation design use people (staff,
students, community, etc.) in the evaluation
process?

A10: The C.I.T.Y. evaluation design encouraged full participa-
tion from all persons involved directly or indirectly in the project.
This writer understands the relevancy of using a cross-section of human
subjects in the process of evaluating educational programs. But in the
C.I.T.Y. program, the staff was burdoned with the major responsibility of
compiling evaluation data.

Perhaps even more important as a learning experience for the author
than the preceding discussion of how effective the C.I.T.Y. evaluation was
has been the fact that the process of developing the case for evaluation
in alternative schools and the resultant ten criteria for an effective
evaluation and assessing the C.I.T.Y. evaluation in light of these

criteria has expanded his notion of evaluation in three important ways.

This dissertation was begun with the thought that the major purpose of evaluation for alternative schools was to provide data for decision makers that would enable them to improve the program. While this is an important part of any evaluation, at this particular moment in the history of alternative schools, it may be important to use the process of evaluation to accomplish other purposes, like research or public relations. For example, programs like C.I.T.Y. are relatively new. In a period of scarce resources, it often is the new and untested that does not get refunded. Evaluation may have to be used aggressively to communicate to a variety of publics about the impact that C.I.T.Y. is having upon students and community. Other systems across the country may want to use C.I.T.Y. evaluation data as research data to make decision as to the replicability of the program. The particular nature of the C.I.T.Y. program and the new Chapter 766 Law and the pressures it has engenered in Massachusetts may add a political dimension to any evaluation done at C.I.T.Y.

The second way in which the writer's notion of evaluation has been expanded by this dissertation is in the way he sees evaluation fitting into the educational process. The previous notion of evaluation was that it followed logically in a process which included planning for a program, instituting it, and evaluating it. Evaluation, thus, was what happened at the end of a process. However, the process is much more complex. It is not so much linear rational, with the three modes (planning, action, evaluation) following one upon the other as it is cyclical, with the three modes being more interactive. Thus, evaluation becomes something

done throughout the educational process in a variety of ways.

Finally, more can be known about an educational program by looking at its stated process of evaluation and what it chooses to evaluate than can be learned by looking at the stated objectives of the program. Objectives often reflect the intent of program planners, but they cannot take into consideration all the variables that will affect the program once it is under way and change the nature of the program. While it is difficult to arrive at a simple definition for evaluation in alternative schools, the process of doing so is an extremely important one for the survival and adoption of what is worthwhile about programs such as C.I.T.Y. into the mainstream of American education.

The writer feels that the alternative school movement, while an important part of American education in the last decade, will not be a concept with wide-spread acceptance. Already, there is the sense that the number of alternatives in the country is as high as it will ever be. Like many ideas, alternative schools have been incorporated into the existing fabric of society. Perhaps their birth as anti-schools; schools that were opposed to the traditional schools, helped to keep the number of alternative schools low. However, they do have much to teach traditional schools. One of the most important lessons may be the concept that there are many appropriate ways to educate children which are based upon the needs of the children. Hopefully, this client-centered approach to education will not pass with the popularity of alternative schools.

A P P E N D I X   A

BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES AS AN EVALUATION DESIGN

PRODUCT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Each student will
Desired Behavior	-	have his needs identified and assessed
Performance Level	-	by Learning Supervisors and Learning Managers, who will translate the needs into specific course and supportive services needs
Operational Condition	-	within two weeks of acceptance of the student, as recorded on the Course Selection Form.
Instrument	-	Diagnostic Test Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Approach.

PROCESS OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Learning Supervisors and Learning Managers will
Desired Behavior	-	interview each student to ascertain his aspiration, and recognized needs, and to assist in selecting courses.
Performance Level	-	Following a student goal aspiration check list; to elicit academic and vocational profile of student, and request portfolio from home school and relay results to instructional coordinator.
Operational Condition	-	During first week after acceptance.
Instrument	-	Administrative Records and Files Scale.

Target Population	-	Learning Supervisor and Managers will meet with host schools' Guidance Counselors
Desired Behavior	-	to obtain overviews of student academic records from home schools
Performance Level	-	showing test level performance and diagnostic statements of results of tests for purpose of counseling and class placement
Operational Condition	-	by second week of each new semester.
Instrument	-	Staff's notes of conference with students' home school guidance counselors, as verified by Staff Activity Form.

PRODUCT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	City students who were formerly drop-outs and low achievers will
Desired Behavior	-	exhibit strong positive attitudes towards self and school
Performance Level	-	by registering a 5% increase over initial assessment
Operational Condition	-	after three months of counseling with Learning Supervisors and Learning Managers.
Instrument	-	Tennessee Self Concept Scale

MANAGEMENT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Learning Supervisors will
Desired Behavior	-	obtain copies of student's records from home schools and identify for counselling
Performance Level	-	assign Learning Managers to schedule 1 and 1 conferences to occur before or after learning site classes.
Operational Condition	-	until student manifests strong positive attitudes toward school as measured by Learning Manager in monthly conference
Instrument	-	using Administrative Records and File Scale

PROJECT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	All students will
Desired Behavior	-	have their academic and attitudinal progress within the program reported
Performance Level	-	monthly by Learning Coordinators and Learning Managers who respectively teach and counsel them
Operational Condition	-	after joint consultation by Learning Coordinator and Learning Manager on their assigned students
Instrument	-	Administrative Records and Files Scale

PROCESS OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Learning Coordinators and Learning Managers will
Desired Behavior	-	file a joint written evaluation report on each student's activity
Performance Level	-	citing student academic attitudinal adaptation to the program, and progress in realizing their specific course objectives
Operational Condition	-	the reports shall be filed monthly, during the program year
Instrument	-	Administrative Records and Files Scales

MANAGEMENT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Learning Supervisors will
Desired Behavior	-	collate into one report as a profile on student progress
Performance Level	-	Listing each course and number of students; number receiving passing grades; and non-passing grades; credit and non-credit; and noted attitudinal adjustment
Operational Condition	-	Quarterly for joint staff review; and strategy development
Instrument	-	Staff Activity Form

PRODUCT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	All students involved in curriculum sites will
Desired Behavior	-	master specified learning tasks developed by Learning Coordinators
Performance Level	-	maintaining an 85% mastery indicated on quarterly evaluation reports
Operational Condition	-	at each testing period
Instrument	-	Learning Coordinator's Formative Tests

PROCESS OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Learning Managers and Learning Coordinators will
Desired Behavior	-	write instructional objectives as learning tasks
Performance Level	-	following the taxonomy of learning for each subject; and construct formative tests to gauge mastery of each level,
Operational Condition	-	after Learning Managers have been instructed by Evaluation staff by 2/14/74
Instrument	-	Administrative Records and Files Scale

MANAGEMENT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Project Director will
Desired Behavior	-	sample ransomly five Learning sites' Learning task and tests with Evaluation Team Staff
Performance Level	-	noting the level of performance as stipulated, requiring modification; and discussing quality of work during weekly staff meetings
Operational Condition	-	the second week of each month
Instrument	-	Administrative Records and Files Scale

PRODUCT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Students attending two or more learning sites will
Desired Behavior	-	increase their grade achievement
Performance Level	-	by 5% in comparison to their previous level of performance and/or a control group
Operational Condition	-	after completing two half-year alternative sites
Instrument	-	Stanford High School Achievement Battery

PROCESS OBJECTIVE

Target Population   -   Evaluators and Learning Managers
                                      will

Desired Behavior   -   administer the Stanford High
                                      School Achievement Battery

Performance Level   -   to all C.I.T.Y. pupils
                                      completing two half-year
                                      alternative sites

Operational Condition   -   within two weeks of termination
                                      of 2nd half of term

Instrument   -   Staff Activity Form

MANAGEMENT OBJECTIVE

Target Population   -   Project Director will

Desired Behavior   -   obtain an Educational Testing
                                      number for

Performance Level   -   Learning Supervisors and
                                      Learning Managers

Operational Condition   -   by January 28, 1974

Instrument   -   Administrative Records and
                                      Files Scale

PRODUCT OBJECTIVE

Target Population   -   Participating students will

Desired Behavior   -   attend the learning sites at
                                    a rate.

Performance Level   -   that is 5% higher that their
                                    accustomed rate

Operational Condition   -   daily during total learning
                                    cycle

Instrument   -   Student Attendance tally form

PROCESS OBJECTIVE

Target Population   -   Learning Coordinators will

Desired Behavior   -   submit student attendance sheets
                                    to Central Staff

Performance Level   -   for the preceding week, showing
                                    name, attendance and tardiness
                                    frequency of each student

Operational Condition   -   by noon of each Monday

Instrument   -   Staff Activity Form

MANAGEMENT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Learning Supervisors will
Desired Behavior	-	prepare student's attendance profile for staff meeting review
Performance Level	-	listing each class, number of students, number of days present, number absent, number tardy, frequency of reasons cited for absence or tardiness.
Operational Condition	-	monthly for staff meeting review and strategy development
Instrument	-	Staff Activity Form

PRODUCT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Students exhibiting a low achievement drive will
Desired Behavior	-	increase the achievement drive level
Performance Level	-	by a minimal increase of 5% each
Operational Condition	-	after the completion of each cycle until a normal achievement drive level is reached
Instrument	-	Personal Orientation Inventory

PROCESS OBJECTIVE

Target Population   -   Learning Coordinators will

Desired Behavior   -   write easily mastered learning
                                     tasks to reinforce patterns of
                                     success

Performance Level   -   for each class session of a
                                     low achiever, and will call his
                                     attention to its mastery

Operational Condition   -   during the learning cycle,
                                     initiated 2/28/74

Instrument   -   Administrative Records and
                                     Files Scale

MANAGEMENT OBJECTIVE

Target Population   -   Project Director and Learning
                                     Supervisor will

Desired Behavior   -   review performance objectives
                                     and learning task plans of 5
                                     randomly selected files of
                                     low achievers

Performance Level   -   making citations of level of
                                     clarity of objectives, and
                                     frequency of success through
                                     learning mastery in each file,
                                     and use the citations as basis
                                     of staff in-service

Operational Condition   -   on weekly basis

Instrument   -   Administrative Records and
                                     Files Scale

PRODUCT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Participating Seniors will
Desired Behavior	-	fulfill diploma requirements
Performance Level	-	at a 95% level as attested by Cambridge School Department's awarding of diploma to C.I.T.Y. students
Operational Condition	-	at end of each traditional academic year
Instrument	-	Student Activity Form

PROCESS OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	All Seniors will
Desired Behavior	-	take required tests and file necessary reports
Performance Level	-	according to specific requirements of his home school
Operational Condition	-	meeting the time deadline
Instrument	-	Student Activity Form

MANAGEMENT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Learning Supervisors will
Desired Behavior	-	obtain a written statement of the graduation requirements of each C.I.T.Y. student
Performance Level	-	citing the courses completed and grades received, and re-maining requirements and time table from each home school of C.I.T.Y. student
Operational Condition	-	by the last month of each senior's registration at C.I.T.Y.
Instrument	-	Administrative Records and Files Scale

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT
PRODUCT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	The Instructional Coordinator will
Desired Behavior	-	compile file of course descriptions offered by C.I.T.Y.
Performance Level	-	that includes learning objectives, activities, number of credits, hours offered and level acceptance (fulfilling required or elective standards) of Cambridge and Brookline High Schools
Operational Condition	-	by January 15, 1974
Instrument	-	Administrative Records and Files Scale

PROCESS OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Instructional Coordinator will
Desired Behavior	-	collate the Learning Taxonomy Instructional check list
Performance Level	-	which have been jointly filled in by Learning Managers and Learning Coordinators
Operational Condition	-	within 4 weeks of obtaining a signed agreement from the Learning Coordinator
Instrument	-	Administrative Records and Files Scale

MANAGEMENT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Learning Supervisor will
Desired Behavior	-	insert and keep updated a taxonomy checklist for each student
Performance Level	-	monthly, by written notation and listing accomplishments, failures and problem possibility causing failures
Operational Condition	-	after monthly review of Learning Manager's monitoring report
Instrument	-	Administrative Records and Files Scale

PRODUCT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Interns will
Desired Behavior	-	develop individualized tutorial programs
Performance Level	-	for each student exhibiting need as reported by Learning Coordinators
Operational Condition	-	after each quarter's Credit Report
Instrument	-	As indicated on the student evaluations

PROCESS OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Interns will
Desired Behavior	-	write and conduct a prescriptive program based on student weaknesses
Performance Level	-	citing factors as links for personnel and teaching rapport; objectives to be achieved, and time table
Operational Condition	-	after receiving student's file and conference with student
Instrument	-	Administrative Records and Files Scale

MANAGEMENT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Learning Coordinators will
Desired Behavior	-	submit reports to Learning Supervisor on failing students in tutorial groups
Performance Level	-	citing specific areas of failure; method used for instruction and alternatives he would follow and progress noted by interns
Operational Condition	-	on a monthly basis for each under-achieving student
Instrument	-	Student Evaluation

STAFF DEVELOPMENT COMPONENT

Target Population	-	Learning Coordinator, Supervisors, Managers, and Instructional Coordinators will
Desired Behavior	-	participate in four one-day workshops on: 1) Learning Taxonomy, 2) Adjustment problems, 3) Social interaction, 4) Management and Instructional use of in-house reports
Performance Level	-	evidenced by the writing translation of mastery of stages to instructional objectives and staff manuals on the handicapped, social interaction
Operational Condition	-	on January 29, March 17, April 8,
Instrument	-	Staff Activity Forms

PROCESS OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	The Learning Coordinators, Learning Supervisors, Managers and Instructional Coordinators will
Desired Behavior	-	schedule administrative duties and student counseling activities
Performance Level	-	to permit uninterupted participation in scheduled seminars
Operational Condition	-	by January 27, 1974
Instrument	-	Staff Activity Form

MANAGEMENT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Project Director's office will
Desired Behavior	-	provide structured course syllabi in
Performance Level	-	problems of the handicapped; Bloom's taxonomy of learning, cognitive and affective domains, reporting creation and use
Operational Condition	-	at the beginning of each seminar for participants' use
Instrument	-	Staff Activity Form

HANDICAPPED COMPONENT
PRODUCT OBJECTIVE

Target Population   -   C.I.T.Y.'s Administrator
                                       will

Desired Behavior   -   maintain the enrollment of
                                       physically handicapped students

Performance Level   -   at 15% of the total enrollment

Operational Condition   -   throughout the program year as
                                       evidenced by class files

Instrument   -   Administrative Records and
                                       Files Scale

PROCESS OBJECTIVE

Target Population   -   Learning Supervisor will

Desired Behavior   -   maintain 15% enrollment from
                                       physically handicapped students
                                       of Cambridge and Brookline
                                       schools and I.S.C.C.

Performance Level   -   with number of students and type
                                       of handicap included in monthly
                                       reports to Director

Operational Condition   -   by the end of the registration
                                       period

Instrument   -   Administrative Records and
                                       Files Scale

MANAGEMENT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Project Director will
Desired Behavior	-	extend written invitations to
Performance Level	-	I.S.C.C, Model Cities, Department of Welfare, Cambridge School System, listing dates of interviews for their nominees
Operational Condition	-	6 weeks before each semester as evidenced by pertinent correspondence of Project Director
Instrument	-	Administrative Records and Files Scale

PRODUCT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	The Learning Supervisor will
Desired Behavior	-	make modifications of access impediment at all learning sites
Performance Level	-	where such modifications are required and/or requested
Operational Condition	-	within 15 days of notification of requirement or request
Instrument	-	Administrative Records and Files Scale

PROCESS OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Learning Supervisor will
Desired Behavior	-	tour each curriculum site at which handicapped students attend and
Performance Level	-	note possible access impediments at entrance or within the site, ask handicapped student for his recommendations for modification; submit report to Project Director
Operational Condition	-	within 1st week of class operation
Instrument	-	Administrative Records and Files Scale

MANAGEMENT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Project Director will
Desired Behavior	-	issue written order for modification of sites
Performance Level	-	noting the correction to be made, time deadline, and inspection date of her personal review
Operational Condition	-	within 7 days of receipt of Learning Supervisor's request
Instrument	-	Administrative Records and Files Scale

PRODUCT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Instructional Coordinator will
Desired Behavior	-	develop mini-courses tutorials offering special services for the handicapped
Performance Level	-	that are of enrichment quality, and/or meet course requirement needs of handicapped
Operational Condition	-	after determining the demand for such courses by interview of handicapped students by 1/28/74
Instrument	-	Administrative Records and Files Scale

PROCESS OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Learning Manager and Learning Site Supervisor will
Desired Behavior	-	interview all handicapped students to ascertain
Performance Level	-	their desire for specialized services; unmet needs times best suited for training or services noted; make survey of specialized Service submit report of Learning Supervisor and Instructional Coordinator
Operational Condition	-	within 2nd week of student selection
Instrument	-	Administrative Records and Files Scale

MANAGEMENT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Instructional Coordinator will
Desired Behavior	-	obtain written committment for learning sites requested
Performance Level	-	study number of student openings , available hours of program , cost factor transportation needs,
Operational Condition	-	after interview with Learning Supervisor
Instrument	-	Administrative Records and Files Scale

COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT COMPONENT
PRODUCT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Executive Committee of the Community Council will
Desired Behavior	-	function as C.I.T.Y.'s policy body
Performance Level	-	by monthly meeting, issuing of policy statement and decisions on fiscal matters, personnel planning, operation and evaluation
Operational Condition	-	after formal reorganization by Information Supervisor by December 15, 1973
Instrument	-	Administrative Records and Files Scale

PROCESS OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Information Supervisor will
Desired Behavior	-	conduct mini meetings with representative groups of total council
Performance Level	-	discussing role of council, eliciting council's problems, establishing short term goals for council
Operational Condition	-	on a weekly basis if needed at times and places convenient to groups of 10
Instrument	-	Administrative Records and Files Scale

MANAGEMENT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Project Director will
Desired Behavior	-	provide copies of OE guidelines and position statements on community councils'
Performance Level	-	roles in policy making in Title III Program
Operational Condition	-	after discussing materials with I.S.
Instrument	-	Staff Activity Form

PRODUCT OBJECTIVE

Target Population — Community Council members, Students, High School Teachers, Learning Coordinators, and Parent members of the Council will

Desired Behavior — submit a critique of course programs and learning activities

Performance Level — citing their relevance, adequacy to meet required needs of traditional summative testing

Operational Condition — after attending two planning sessions conducted by Learning Supervisor and Technical Assistance by

Instrument — Administrative Records and Files Scale

PROCESS OBJECTIVE

Target Population — Learning Supervisors will

Desired Behavior — each conduct course critique sessions of small representative groups of students, High School Teachers, Learning Coordinators, and Council members

Performance Level — asking critical and positive reaction to content of courses; hours; creditation; drop-out re-entry process and overall thrust of C.I.T.Y.

Operational Condition — after reviewing these parts with staff and evaluation team

Instrument — Administrative Records and Files Scale

MANAGEMENT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Program Director and staff will
Desired Behavior	-	review the findings of the critique
Performance Level	-	noting their universality, applicability and indicating by written response to the individual participants and adaptation policy of the critique
Operational Condition	-	one month after the critique session
Instrument	-	Administrative Records and Files Scale

PRODUCT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	The Community Council will
Desired Behavior	-	conduct program evaluations
Performance Level	-	on a quarterly basis, by on-site visitations and interviews with staff and participants
Operational Condition	-	after informing Project Director of schedule
Instrument	-	Impact Measurement Form

PROCESS OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Representatives of the Community Council will
Desired Behavior	-	participate in a one-day Evaluation workshop
Performance Level	-	treating of the role of Council in general; goal and process of evaluation; use of evaluation information
Operational Condition	-	the workshop being conducted by the Evaluation firm
Instrument	-	Evaluator's Formative Test

MANAGEMENT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Program Director will
Desired Behavior	-	obtain names of Evaluation Workshop participants and establish time of workshop
Performance Level	-	listing status (student, parents professional, etc.) of partici- pants, and particular needs to be met by workshop
Operational Condition	-	one month before date of workshop
Instrument	-	Staff Activity Form

MANAGEMENT COMPONENT
PRODUCT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Project Director will
Desired Behavior	-	review the C.I.T.Y. management information system with Evaluation Form
Performance Level	-	to insure its provision of quantitative and qualitative data on all components, and ready feedback
Operational Condition	-	after reviewing the project's objectives and timeliness
Instrument	-	Staff Activity Form

PROCESS OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Project Director will
Desired Behavior	-	designate one staff person to function as Educational Records Supervisor
Performance Level	-	to update all program forms, update all student files, maintain files in proper order
Operational Condition	-	after review of Information System with Evaluator, two weeks time limit
Instrument	-	Administrative Records and Files Scale

MANAGEMENT COMPONENT

Target Population	-	Project Director will
Desired Behavior	-	monitor each component's activity
Performance Level	-	by means of Gant time lines, Pert Chart and Report Forms
Operational Condition	-	after component staff have been instructed in construction of these by Evaluation Firm's staff starting February 1, 1974
Instrument	-	Administrative Records and Files Scale

PROCESS OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Learning Supervisors, Instructional Coordinator, Learning Managers and Information Supervisor will
Desired Behavior	-	submit monthly Gant Line and/or Pert Charts and other pertinent reports and forms of proposed and completed activities
Performance Level	-	detailing bench mark tasks for month, their time occurances, and results, citing exceptional and problematic conditions
Operational Condition	-	by last work day of each month
Instrument	-	Administrative Records and Files Scale

MANAGEMENT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Program Director will
Desired Behavior	-	maintain a file of all staff reports
Performance Level	-	by name of staff member, by subject area, with initials as signs of review and/or carbon of memo of response
Operational Condition	-	up late by first work day of each week
Instrument	-	Administrative Records and Files Scale

PRODUCT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Project Director will
Desired Behavior	-	submit written and oral reports to Executive Committee of Community Council and Assistant Superintendent of schools
Performance Level	-	on a monthly basis covering fiscal matters, personnel changes, program progress, and any other Council specified information
Operational Condition	-	during the entire program year starting December, 1973
Instrument	-	Administrative Records and Fiels Scale

PROCESS OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Project Director will
Desired Behavior	-	combine reports and other pertinent data for Council report
Performance Level	-	presenting a connective prologue to current report, noting items of strong impact, listing short-falls as problematic conditions asking Council's advice and help in overcoming short-falls
Operational Condition	-	after discussing overall thrust of report with Central staff
Instrument	-	Administrative Records and Files Scale

PRODUCT OBJECTIVE

Target Population	-	Project Director will
Desired Behavior	-	issue new releases on C.I.T.Y.
Performance Level	-	minimally on a monthly basis, covering one learning site, containing pictures when appropriate
Operational Condition	-	after planning the schedule of sites to be covered with Learning Supervisors
Instrument	-	Administrative Records and Files Scale

PROCESS OBJECTIVE

Target Population   -   Project Director will

Desired Behavior   -   assign staff to develop news
                                     items for his/her area

Performance Level   -   to be of human interest values
                                     convey positive image of C.I.T.Y.
                                     and appeal to both professional
                                     and general public

Operational Condition   -   for review on 10th day of
                                     month

Instrument   -   Administrative Records and
                                     Files Scale

Evaluation Proposal submitted to C.I.T.Y. from Allwood Johnston and
Associates - 1973-74.

A P P E N D I X   B

THE STAFF AND JOB DESCRIPTIONS

THE C.I.T.Y. STAFF

Director   -   Dr. Erna Ballatine

Associate Director, Learning
Supervisor, Counselor   -   Harold L. Carroll

Learning Supervisor,
Handicapped Students,
Site Supervisor   -   Alan Pardy

Curriculum Supervisor   -   Judy Hyman

Information Supervisor   -   Mary Lou Flood

Learning Managers   -   Bernice Lockhart
                                                           Skip Griffin

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Learning Coordinators   -   Teachers

JOB DESCRIPTIONS

PROJECT DIRECTOR:

The Director is responsible for the overall development, direction and implementation of the program. She has the authority to make programmatic changes within the Office of Education guidelines. This authority was granted by the Superintendents of the Cambridge public schools and the Office of Education. No financial commitments are made without the Project Director's approval, who is involved in the development of all component activities where expenditures are anticipated in order to ensure that such expenditures are consistent with overall program goals.

LEARNING SUPERVISOR:

The Learning Supervisor will supervise the learning component, which includes overall responsibility for scheduling of programs for and with students and planning for their needs in cooperation with the Youth and Resource Coordinator/Curriculum Developer. In that capacity he will:

be responsible for the organization and activities of the Learning Managers involving assistance in planning and coordinating their assigned tasks.

assist students in honoring their commitment to the program and in accepting the responsibility of participation

serve as a primary liaison between students and teachers, and in cooperation with the Youth and Resource Coordinator/ Curriculum Developer and Instructional Coordinator, between students and the community and coordination of curriculum resources with students.

be responsible for the communication of students' needs in terms of learning skills to the Instructional Coordinator.

be responsible for the communication of student's needs in terms of learning skills to the Curriculum Developer.

be responsible for clear definition, interpretation and articulation of students' needs and goals, and of the learning program in cooperation with the Youth Resource Coordinator and Instructional Coordinators to the Project Director.

be responsible for communicating the evaluation of students' progress on a scheduled basis to persons designated in the Cambridge and Brookline Public Schools.

be responsible for the initial learning evaluation of students; and the continued evaluation processes in cooperation with the Evaluation Team.

be responsible for coordinating with the Instructional Coordinator the scheduling of courses based on the individual student's needs and goals.

supervise the learning team which is comprised of groups of students, Learning Managers, and Learning Coordinators.

LEARNING SUPERVISOR (con't)

Give direction to the achievement of agreed upon goals
(performance objectives).

be responsible for clear communication and coordination
of programs with the Learning Managers assigned to the
Handicapped Component.

Qualifications:

a Masters Degree or equivalent, plus three years of experience
in an educational setting.

knowledge of psychometric evaluation

ability to work competently with students at the secondary
level

ability to assess and interpret student needs

ability and experience in the organization and coordination
of student skills

ability to work cooperatively with members of the public
school administration, teachers, parents and community resource
people.

LEARNING MANAGER:

The Learning Manager will assist and be responsible to the Learning Supervisor in the curricula planning and scheduling of programs for students. In that capacity he will be responsible for:

helping students honor their committment to the program and accept the responsibility of participation

the creative development of curriculum and the communication of students' needs in terms of learning skills to the Learning Coordinator

coordinating the use of supportive services for each student assigned to him by the Learning Supervisor

assisting the Learning Supervisor in communicating the evaluation of students' progress on a scheduled basis to persons designated in the Cambridge and Brookline Public Schools.

assisting the Learning Supervisor in his initial learning evaluation of students and assisting in the follow-up

coordination of course schedules based on the individual students' needs and goals.

assisting the Learning Supervisor with the supervision of learning teams comprised of groups of students and teachers

assisting the Learning Supervisor in meeting his responsibility for defining, interpreting, and articulating students' needs and goals and learning programs to the Project Director, to the public school system and to the community at large.

assisting the Learning Supervisor in serving as a liaison between students and teachers and students in the community, and helping to coordinate curriculum resources with student needs

developing and maintaining learning techniques which ensure that students can meet the requirements of Cambridge High and Latin School, Rindge Technical High School and Brookline High School.

Arranging for turtors to help students meet special learning needs when necessary

LEARNING MANAGER (con't)

Qualifications:

a Bachelors degree or equivalent plus two years of experience in an educational setting

knowledge of psychometric evaluation

ability to work competently with students at the secondary level

ability to assess and interpret student needs

ability and experience in the organization and coordination of student skills

ability to work cooperatively with members of the public school administration, teachers, parents and community resourse people

Special LEARNING MANAGER Qualifications:

a bachelors degree or equivalent

two years of experience with specific expertise and background knowledge of teenage physically handicapped students

ability to interpret evaluations of physically handicapped and non-physically handicapped students

ability to work competently with physically handicapped and non-physically handicapped students

ability and experience in the organization and coordination of student skills

ability to work cooperatively with members of the public school administration, parents, teachers and community resourse people

INSTRUCTIONAL COORDINATOR:

The Instructional Coordinator will be responsible for the development of curriculum and resources for students in cooperation with the Youth Resource Coordinator and the Information Supervisor. In this capacity he will:

initiate and coordinate the development of Curriculum Resources

be responsible for the development of a Student Resource and Tracking System in cooperation with the Youth Resource Coordinator, Learning Supervisor and Technical Assistant.

analyze community resources and group them by commonalities occupational clusters, geographic locations and other dimensions

analyze student needs and interests

prepare matrix charts

refine matrix chart design, keeping in mind that it must be easy to maintain

devise ways of adding to the system without its breaking down

prepare "final" tracking system, and procedures for using them

be responsible for the development of contracts with industrial resources tailored to students' needs in cooperation with the Project Director and the Learning Supervisor

be responsible for the development of all course credit mechanisms within the public school systems

be responsible for coordination with the Learning Supervisor the matching of courses to meet state requirements and local public school requirements -- formal and informal

be responsible for the development of all course credit mechanisms within the public school systems

be responsible for developing course description and syllabi which reflect the institution's ability to produce, in terms of staff, facility and time.

Qualifications:

a Masters Degree or equivalent, plus three years experience in an educational setting with a minimum of two years in a public school system

ability and experience in curriculum development

ability and experience in initiating and developing community resources for use in the curriculum

ability and experience in the development of matrix charts and tracking systems to match student needs with curriculum resources

ability to develop positive institutional resources which provide contractual resources for the program

ability to work cooperatively with members of the public school administration, teachers, parents and community resource people

INFORMATION SUPERVISOR:

The Community Coordinator's principal role is that of a catalyst and coordinator in the participation of parents, students, other individuals and resource organizations. Personal experience and visibility within the community are paramount criteria, while educational or "professional" accomplishments are of less importance. The Community Coordinator has first-hand understanding of the concerns of the students, parents, minority groups, and experienced in dealing with such groups as the School Committee, school system, Parent-Teacher Association, local merchants and companies, city political and administrative organizations and civic action groups. In this capacity he will:

establish, develop and maintain an information and resource center

improve upon the form as well as the participation of the Community Council

be responsible for the continual flow and care of the library books, which will be necessary for the research of staff and students

establish procedures for providing the continuous flow of information necessary to achieve maximum effectiveness in planning, operation and evaluation of the component activities

assist in any or all duties pertaining to the informational component

keep abreast of all the community programs possible

act as a liaison between the program and the community

be responsible for the Community Council and its procedures and accomplishments

be sure of the publicity of C.I.T.Y. on all levels

be responsible for weekly reports, mailing of all communi-
cations, and Community Council reports

Qualifications:

a Bachelors degree, or equivalent, plus three years of working
experience in a community and organizational setting

intimate knowledge and awareness of organizations, agencies
and resources

ability to develop and maintain effective techniques for the
organization of a Community and Resource Council

ability to supervise the development of an Information
Clearinghouse and Resource center

ability and experience in the dissemination and promotion of
materials, information and resources

ability and experience to ensure continuous parent involvement

skill to interpret and communicate C.I.T.Y. philosophy

SITE LEARNING SUPERVISOR:

This is an administrative position aimed at effecting
regular evaluative reports on learning sites activities for
Learning Supervisors and the Project Director, and supervising of
assigned program interns. The Curriculum Stite Coordinator is
immediately accountable to the Project Director and in this
capacity he will:

> interview and assess the needs of the Learning Coordinators
> for technical assistance
>
> provide technical assistanct to the Learning Coordinators
> in achieving maximum potential for each student
>
> perform evaluations on the quality of instruction being
> conducted on learning sites
>
> plan and supervise activities of assigned on-site intern workers
>
> profile the level of student attendance, participation and
> progress on each learning site
>
> serve as on-going liaison between learning coordinators and the
> C.I.T.Y. program once the courses are set up
>
> file weekly reports on learning site evaluations with
> Project Director
>
> assist Instructional Coordinator in developing new learning
> sites
>
> coordinate the scheduling of students and Learning Coordinators

A P P E N D I X   C

EVALUATION INSTRUMENTS

INSTRUCTION SHEET -- APPLICATION SERIES (APP)

The application series (APP) contains six (6) forms, as listed below:

APP-1   (7/72 - Rev. 7/73)   APPLICATION - 1973-74 - Yellow

This is to be completed by the student and returned to C.I.T.Y. as the initial step in applying for acceptance to C.I.T.Y..

Upon receipt of this at the C.I.T.Y. office, a Learning Manager should be assigned to that application, and the student should be notified immediately that we are in receipt of his/her application, with instructions that further notification will be within two (2) weeks.

APP-2   (7/72)   STUDENT INFORMATION SHEET FOR LEARNING COORDINATORS - Yellow

This is a basic student data sheet provided to Learning Coordinators. One copy is sent to Learning Coordinators, one for the course file in the Instructional Coordinator's office.

APP-3   (7/72)   COURSE REQUEST AND SELECTION FORM - Yellow

A C.I.T.Y. staff member will fill this out with each student at the beginning of each semester -- one copy is to be retained by the staff member for the student's folder, the other copy is to be given to the student.

APP-4   (7/72)   COURSE-RESOURCE-SUBJECT AREA - Yellow

A quick-reference guide for staff members to complete with the student, as a way of planning future course selection, and for reviewing credits already earned.

APP-5   (7/72)   STUDENT SCHEDULE - Yellow

Student's current schedule, including C.I.T.Y. and base high school courses. One copy to be retained by staff member, one given to student.

An attachment to the student's current schedule; this allows quick reference for staff to basic student data

APP-6 (7/72) COURSE WITHDRAWAL - Yellow

A student wishing to drop a course should complete APP-6 with his/her Learning Manager. One copy should be placed in the student's folder, with a second copy to be retained by the student.

C.I.T.Y.
COMMUNITY INTERACTION THROUGH YOUTH
456 Broadway
Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138
876-0478

A Secondary Education Program of the Cambridge Public Schools

<u>APPLICATION 1975-76</u>
(To be completed by student)

Date of Application_____

Student Name_____Date of Birth_____Age_____

Address_____Zip Code_____Phone #_____

Father's Name_____Occupation_____Phone#_____

Address_____Zip Code_____

Mother's Name_____Occupation_____Phone #_____

Address_____Zip Code_____

Phone # to call in case of emergency_____

School_____Guidance Counselor_____

Homeroom_____Grade in 75_____Ethnic Background(Optional)_____

Which semester are you applying for? Fall_____ Spring_____

What courses would you like to take at C.I.T.Y.?

Are these for <u>credit</u>?

What courses would you like to take at your home school?

<u>If this is your first C.I.T.Y. course</u>, please answer questions 1, 2, & 3

1. Why are you interested in C.I.T.Y.?   (use back of paper if needed)

2. How did you hear about the C.I.T.Y. Program?

3. What talent could you contribute to C.I.T.Y.?

Signature of Student_____

Signature of Parent or Guardian_____

COMPLETE AND RETURN TO THE ABOVE ADDRESS IMMEDIATELY

_____
Interviewer's Name

STUDENT DATA SHEET
(To be completed by C.I.T.Y. Staff and attached to student schedule - APP 5)

Date_____

1. _____   _____
   Student name   Classifications

2. _____   _____
   Address   Home school/counselor

3. _____   _____
   City   State   Home phone no.

4. _____   _____
   Name of parent or guardian   Business phone no.

5. _____
   Business address of parent
   or guardian

Interests:

COMMUNITY INTERACTION THROUGH YOUTH

675 Massachusetts Avenue
Cambridge, Massachusetts
876-0478

INTERVIEW REPORT

NAME OF STUDENT _____ DATE _____

SCHOOL _____ GRADE _____ SEX _____

COURSES REQUESTED
(in order of priority)

1. _____

2: _____

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

6. _____

COMMENTS:
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

A	MA	UL

COMMUNITY INTERACTION THROUGH YOUTH
456 BROADWAY
CAMBRIDGE, MASSACHUSETTS 02138
876-9478

_____
COURSE

_____
LEARNING COORDINATOR

_____ , agree to complete the following
Student Name

assignments and/or projects by _____ in order to
date

receive credit for _____ .
course

.

I.   List specific assignments to be completed by the student.

II. Specify number of hours the student must meet with the Learning
     Coordinator (in addition to scheduled class time.)
     .   .

_____   _____
Signature of Learning Coordinator   Signature of Student

_____   _ _ _ _ _ . _ _ _ _ _ _ _
Signature of C.I.T.Y. Learning   Date
        Supervisor

C.I.T.Y.
COMMUNITY INTERACTION THROUGH YOUTH

STUDENT EVALUATION 1973-1974
(To be completed at each grading period & sent
by Learning Coordinator & directed to C.I.T.Y. staff,
for placement into student's folder.)

NAME OF STUDENT: _____

NAME OF COURSE: _____

LEARNING SITE: _____

REPORTING PERIOD: _____

NAME OF LEARNING COORDINATOR: _____ DATE: _____

1. How would you rate the student's attendance record? (Check one)

   Excellent _____   Fair _____   The student has been
                                                present for _____ out
   Good   _____   Poor _____   of _____ sessions.

   Comments:

2. How would you rate the student's interest in the course?

   Consistently high _____   Consistently low _____

   Average   _____   Varied over course _____

   Comments:

3. Please describe the specific accomplishments the student has made
   in your course.

4. What specific problems do you feel the student has (had) that
   affect (affect) his/her learning? And that C.I.T.Y. might
   in the future provide help with?

5. How has the student's work improved since the beginning of the
   course?

161

6.   How would you describe the student's ability to work independently?

7.   How would you describe the student's ability to work with others in a group?

8.   On the basis of his/her performance in the program, the student receives:

Credit _____   in   it ___

Remarks: _____ _____   _____ _ _ _

____ __ _____ _ _____ ____ _____   _____   _____ ___ ___ __

___ ____ _ _ ___ __ _____ _____   _____   ___ __ _

_____ _ _____ __ _ __   _____   _____ __ _

___ __   _ _   _ _ _____   _____ __ _

C.I.T.Y.
Community Interaction Through Youth
ATTENDANCE RECORD

Course _____

Learning Coordinator _____

Semester 1 ___ 2 ___ 1975-76

Month _____

Student Names	Dates															

COMMUNITY INTERACTION THROUGH YOUTH
456 BROADWAY
CAMBRIDGE, MASSACHUSETTS   02139
876-0478

Dear _____,

This is to advise you that your attendance record in

_____

is not satisfactory. Your absences have exceeded the
maximum limit established at the beginning of the
school term. Unless you arrange to make up the un-
excused absences you will not receive credit for this
(these) course (s). Please see _____
before Friday, December 20 to schedule make up. A
copy of this letter is being sent to your parents
(guardian) and your regular school guidance counselor.

                         Sincerely,

COURSE OFFERING -- TENTATIVE

(To be completed by Learning Coordinator
and sent to Instructional Coordinator, c/o C.I.T.Y.)

Date_____   Course_____

C.I.T.Y. Learning Coordinator:_____

Address:_____

Telephone:_____

           Course:_____

           Academic Area:_____

           Site:_____

           When:_____

           Number of students:_____

Description in brief:

           I agree to provide the above course for the
           C.I.T.Y. Program, beginning_____
           and ending_____. I will be
           responsible for commitments of space, personnel,
           and time.

           _____
                     Authorized Signature

675 Massachusetts Avenue
Cambridge, Massachusetts 02139
876-0478

OUTLINE FOR COURSE DESCRIPTION

Agency _____

Name and Location of Site _____

    Instructor _____

    Number of Students (Maximum/Minimum) _____

    Grade level preference, if any _____

Time required (hours, weeks, etc.) _____

Time of day course will meet _____

Day(s) course will meet _____

General learning objectives _____

_____

_____

_____

Anticipated activities _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Additional information?

Learning Objectives Checklist

Student: _____ Date: _____

Course: _____ Semester 1___ 2___ 1973-74

Instructions: A C.I.T.Y. staff member will deliver this to each
Learning Coordinator within the first two (2) weeks
of the course. C.I.T.Y. staff members will be avail-
able as needed to help complete this checklist.

1. What will the student be able to do as a result of participation
in this course?

By when?

Under what conditions?

2. In what activities will the student engage in order to achieve
#1 above?
(Reading, homework, attendance in class, observation,etc.
Please specify)

3. What must the Learning Coordinator provide?
   (Instruments or equipment, demonstrations, general information,
   source material, or other necessary resources)

4. What will be accepted as evidence that the student has satisfied
   the course objectives as stated on #1 above?
   (Please state any and all opportunities available for students
   to demonstrate their competencies--oral, written, performance
   tasks or other skills)

   Are there minimum standards the student must meet?
   Please specify.

   Are there identifiable high standards which would be recog-
   nized as evidence of exceptional work and/or achievement?

Learning Coordinator (Signature)   Student (Signature)

                                                      Date

GUIDELINES FOR COURSE VISITATIONS

As you visit learning sites, we feel that there are several things to keep in mind.

First, the purpose of your visit is two-fold.

1. To offer support to the particular learning coordinator
2. To monitor student involvement in the course -- this includes attendance, participation, and completion of out-of-class assignments.

   Neither of these is more important than the other -- they should be considered equally.

Second, your presence should be as unobtrusive as possible.

1. At least for your initial visit, call ahead of time and make an appointment with the Learning Coordinator.
2. Arrive a few minutes before the session is to begin, or a few minutes before the end, waiting for class to break so that you might catch the instructor for a few minutes.
3. Situate yourself inconspicuously and in a spot from which you may exit quietly, trying not to disrupt the session.
4. If there is not a chance to speak directly with the instructor, then you might consider a follow-up phone call within a day to ask if you can be of any help.
5. Do not take paper and pencil with you -- sharpen your memory and write it down later.

Third, during your visit, try to observe the following:

1. Are the students behaving in such a way as to suggest that they are interested? How do you determine this? Talk to the students and the Learning Coordinator and find out their opinions. Reassure them of our desire to help or assist in any way.
2. Are students interacting with the instructor? (Or, is the communication one way?) Of course one way conversation or communication is not always negative. Find out if the feelings of the students are positive.
3. Do students appear to have brought to class materials or other forms of preparation that indicates completion of assigned work? Are the students being responsible citizens?
4. Is there mention of attendance, tardiness, incomplete assignments, or other unresolved problems? If so, how might a C.I.T.Y. staff member work with that Learning Coordinator to resolve them?

5. Watch for general conditions of safety (or lack of it). Are students operating machinery or otherwise being exposed to conditions that are hazardous -- electricity, open flame, etc. Especially for any physically handicapped students, make a mental note of any limitations in building structure that could be a problem, and report these to Alan or Bernice for follow-up.

6. As important, allow your intuition to work -- come back and enter your impressions into the notebook labled COURSE VISITATIONS. (And don't forget to check attendance and enter into the RED notebook labled TO BE OR NOT TO BE

7. If there are serious or questionable experiences in learning or teaching by learning coordinators or students, please bring this to the attention of the Director immediately.

AS A FOLLOW-UP,

COMPLETE FORMS SE2 (Orange) and SE4 (Orange) WEEKLY

EVERY FOURTH WEEK, substitute SE5 (Orange) for an SE3

Reminder: The SE5 should be completed in conjunction with the Learning Coordinator

SE6 (orange) must be given to each student at the same time that the SE5 is being completed with the Learning Coordinator.

Note: SE6 is a student self-evaluation form to be completed MONTHLY.

COMMUNITY INTERACTION THROUGH YOUTH
675 Massachusetts Avenue
Cambridge, Massachusetts
876-0478

BI-WEEKLY COURSE EVALUATION FORM
(to be filled by Learning Coordinators
and C.I.T.Y. staff members)

To be placed in notebook

Course_____

Curriculum site _____

Learning Coordinator _____

C.I.T.Y. staff member _____

1. How would you describe your student's general work for the past week?
    Please identify accomplishments, strengths and weaknesses.

2. How would you rate your student's level of interest in the course you
    teach?

    High _____   Average _____   Low _____

3. How would you rate your student's attendance and punctuality record?

    Attendance   Punctuality

    Good _____   Excessive tardiness _____

    Fair _____   Acceptable _____

    Poor _____

4. Is your course progressing at a rate which would guarantee completion
    of the material you intend to cover?

            Yes _____   No _____

    Comments:

A P P E N D I X   D

FORMATION OF COMMUNITY COUNCIL

A community council must be formed for each Title III project and should include representatives from each of the following groups:

1. Appropriate school staff — both in the central administrative office and within the selected target schools.

2. Students — at least one representative from (a) the potential target population, and (b) other students considered to have relevant knowledge.

3. Parents and other residents of the target area community.

Additional Council members may be drawn from among the following:

1. Community groups such as social agencies, religious institutions, youth organizations, local community action groups, nonprofit private schools, business and labor organizations, and municipal government offices.

2. Other federal or state programs such as the Model Cities Program of the Department of Housing and Urban Development, the Manpower Training Program of the Department of Labor, and Head Start.

3. Colleges and universities.

4. Business and industry.

Since the ratio of membership among representatives of various groups is critical and sometimes a sensitive issue, a plan for balanced representation should be worked out carefully before the Council is formed. Provision for a single student or parent, for example, on a committee which has six representatives from the central administrative office may result in the domination of a single interest group and se-

riously hinder the effectiveness of the Council.

COUNCIL SIZE AND ORGANIZATION

While the Community Council must be large enough to represent
several groups and interests, care should be taken to keep the member-
ship limited enough for efficient operation. A single council will
best serve the needs of the project in some cases, particularly in small
school systems, but other patterns of organization may be necessary to
allow direct participation by larger numbers of people than is possible
with a single council structure. For example, an advisory council may
be designated for each target school, allowing participation at the
grass roots level in the planning and operation of project activities
for particular schools.

In turn the central council, composed of one or more representatives
elected by each of the target school councils might be established to
coordinate the project for all schools.

SELECTION OF MEMBERS

When a school district decides to develop a preliminary proposal,
it might initiate the involvement process by forming an ad hoc communi-
ty council on a volunteer or appointive basis. Such a group would then
be appropriately modified, expanded, or established through more formal
selection procedures as the project is developed. Another approach
would be to request that groups of administrators, teachers, parents,
and students would select their own representatives according to pro-

cedures which they determine. Although time consuming, holding formal elections within the community and the schools may be of great value both for the experience gained by those who plan and conduct the elections and for the widespread awareness of the project which will result.

DEFINITION OF ROLES

The roles of the community council in project planning and activities may vary substantially and should be defined precisely. Council members should have a clear understanding of their functions and roles in such areas as the determination of project priorities, the writing and review of the preliminary and formal proposals to be submitted, the selection of project personnel, and suggestions for program changes once the project is underway. The early establishment of precise guidelines concerning the relationship of the Council to those with legal responsibility for the schools and open discussion of these relationships will help to avoid the misunderstandings and conflicts which commonly result from a lack of clear definition of roles and responsibilities.

COUNCIL FUNCTIONS

Care should be taken to assure that the community council has specifically assigned and meaningful functions during all stages of projects development and operation. Each council should play an active part in planning and implementing the project instead of existing merely to certify or approve what has already been decided or accomplished, and each representative should be recognized for the unique contributions and resources he can bring to the project.

The following list is suggestive of the possible variety and scope of community council functions and responsibilities:

1. Assistance in program planning, including the assessment of needs and the selection of project activities and priorities. (In the development of both the preliminary and formal proposals, it is expected that program ideas will emerge from a recent examination and analysis of the local problem by a broadly representative planning group.)

2. Participation in the establishment of criteria for the selection of project personnel and the interviwing and screening of prospective staff members.

3. Recruitment of volunteers and assistance in the mobilization of community resources.

4. Assistance in staff development programs for project staff, school personnel, and community representatives.

5. Assistance in program evaluation activities.

6. Service as a channel for complaints and suggestions for program improvements.

7. Assistance in the dissemination of information about the project throughout the community.

8. Coordination of the project with the enitire local education agency, with professional organizations, and with public and private agencies.

OTHER APPROACHES TO COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

Apart from the establishment and operation of a community council, each school district should develop other channels of community involve-

ment as part of the total Title III effort. The possibilities for developing new roles and relationships for students, parents, and community representatives are limited only by the imagination of the program planners. The following illustrations encompass only a few of the wide variety of potential innovations which might be included as actual project components to be supported financially with project funds or which might be coordinated with and supportive of other project activities.

STUDENT INVOLVEMENT

Since it is well established that a major factor cited by students for their disenchantment with school is disinterest in a curriculum which they view as boring and irrelevant, many programs should focus on curriculum modificational efforts to restructure curriculum focus on both content and methodology, and these range from the redesign of existing courses and traditional subjects to the introduction of entirely new curriculum areas. Among some of the more promising recent curriculum efforts are those in which students have had a major voice and have occupied a joint role as both the objects and the agents of an improved instructional program. In some instances, students are serving as advisers to teachers and department head responsible for curriculum revision; while in others, working closely with teachers as resource persons, students themselves have developed and conducted complete courses, selected the materials and instructions, and arranged for speakers and outside consultants to assist them.

Student advisory roles to school faculties, administrators, and

boards of education are also being developed and are giving students a greater understanding of the complexities of school operations and the opportunity to identify, study and discuss school problems, make recommendations, and help to implement solutions. As part of their responsibilities such youth advisors may report their activities through various school media and help to create a better informed and more concerned student body.

Additional opportunities for student participation in school and community-related experiences can be provided through workstudy programs. In addition to local businesses and industries, project planners should consider community agencies, municipal government offices, and the schools themselves as potential placement sources for student training, work experience, and part-time paid positions. Within the schools, students might serve as classroom and library aides, tutors to other students, assistants in the operation of school stores and after-school and evening study or recreation centers, and apprentices in the building maintenance, food, clerical and audiovisual supportive services.

INVOLVEMENT OF PARENTS AND OTHER ADULT COMMUNITY RESIDENTS

Parents and other adult residents of the community should similarly be given opportunities for program participation in addition to their representation on the Community Council.

Many of the roles suggested for students -- participating in curriculum development and serving as advisors and consultants to teachers, administrators, and school board, and disseminating their activities to the community -- are equally appropriate for adults,

while other activities are suited uniquely to the interests and resources of parents and other residents.

Interaction between parents and project staff -- in homes, classrooms, and elsewhere -- can help parents learn how they may best support and influence their children's education by reinforcing the goals of the program. Such interaction, accomplished through home visits, orientation sessions, workshops, and other methods, assists the project staff in becoming more responsive to the needs and goals of the parents and community and in becoming more able to translate their goals into project activities.

Instructional activities should be open to parent observers at reasonable and convenient tiems, and parents should be encouraged to observe classes periodically during the school year. Parental involvement may also take the form of educational programs designed to familiarize parents with the school curriculum or with specific project activities and to instruct them in the use of materials and techniques by which they might supplement and reinforce their children's classroom instruction at home.

Paraprofessional roles for parents and other adults serve to provide additional job opportunities within a project target area and to strengthen rapport between the schools and community. Most important, however, are the direct benefits to students, since community residents employed as paraprofessionals may be highly effective in communicating with students. Appropriate functions for paraprofessionals in projects may include services to both students and parents, such as handling attendance and health problems,

interpreting the school program to the community, encouraging increased parental visits to the schools and participation in school activities, helping parents to find community and agency resource assistance in solving family problems, assisting classroom teachers, counselling and tutoring students, and organizing and supervising field trips and other school day and after school activities.

Stronger programs will result from the efforts of school districts to encourage maximum community participating in all phases of project planning and implementation. The tasks of developing new patterns and changing established practices will require extensive time, effort and committment on the part of all involved. A workable partnership among home, school and community should be the goal.

Community Council Meeting
January 24, 1974
675 Massachusetts Avenue
Cambridge, Massachusetts

Participating members:

Director of C.I.T.Y. program
A member of the Ellwood M. Johnston and Associates, Inc.
Peabody School, Cambridge
Director of Occupational Education, Cambridge Public Schools
Buckingham School, Cambridge (student)
Learning Supervisor (C.I.T.Y.)
Cambridge High and Latin School (student)
Brookline School (student)
Information Director (C.I.T.Y.)
Curriculum Supervisor (C.I.T.Y.)
Concerned Black Parents, Cambridge
Rindge Technical, Cambridge (student)
Cambridge Association for Children with Learning Disabilities
Massachusetts Institute of Technology
Cambridge Parents

Cambridge High and Latin (Principals)
Brookline High School (guidance counsellor)
Learning Managers (C.I.T.Y.)
Learning Coordinators (C.I.T.Y.)
Industrial School for Crippled Children

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