Towards Extended Schools:
A Literature Review

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National Foundation for Educational Research

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Contents

Executive Summary

About the review

♦ Fifty-five sources were selected as relevant and summarised for inclusion in the review.

♦ Little research on the concept of extended schools originated from the UK and other European countries. The main sources were Australia, and particularly the USA, where extended or full-service schools have developed significantly over the last 20 years.

♦ A primarily descriptive approach accounted for three-quarters of the relevant literature (41 of the 55 summaries) with only the remaining quarter (14) adopting a more evaluative approach, involving in-depth research-based studies of initiatives.

♦ Of the 14 sources that could be described as evaluative in their approach, the majority (ten) focused on UK initiatives.

Historical context

♦ It was suggested that the concept of schools, community, social, welfare and health agencies working together had been known by many other names, including 'school-linked services', 'school-based services', 'assessment centres', 'community education', 'family service centres'.

♦ The underlying principle behind the concept of the full-service or extended school is founded on the recognition that schooling, for many, can only be approached '*once a range of welfare and health services were in place*'.

♦ USA literature pertaining to full-service, and extended-school service delivery, conveys the message that existing schools and education systems are failing in their contemporary contexts as they can no longer meet the complex needs of their students. Schools are thus unable to adequately cope without specialist service delivery in areas such as the social, health, emotional, and cultural needs of young people.

♦ USA literature also contends that the full-service school initiative is a product of recent shifts in thinking that have moved away from programmes where agencies, institutions and individuals work in isolation, to an inclusive, more '*holistic*' approach to providing support for educational, social, emotional and physical needs. A key theme permeating the literature is that needs should not be met in isolation, or by particular institutions or agencies acting alone.

♦ Failures in existing systems of social welfare were equally highlighted by USA literature. For instance, Calfee *et al*. (1998) note they were '*crisis-oriented*';

'*insufficiently funded*' and '*without functional communication*' between the many public and private community service agencies.

The UK policy context

♦ In the UK there has also been growing recognition that schools cannot solve the problems associated with social exclusion and multiple disadvantage on their own.

♦ The concomitant demands that this places on school staff have been widely recognised, together with the need for the '*availability and accessibility*' of specialist advice.

♦ One response to these problems has been the development of multi-agency approaches. The provision of a base within schools for outside expertise has been suggested as a means of coordinating multi-agency approaches and, at the same time, creating a solution to the growing demands placed on school staff.

♦ Strong school-family-community links are exemplified in the literature on parental involvement in children's learning in literacy and, to a lesser extent, numeracy.

♦ The White Paper '*Schools: Achieving Success*' recommended that legislation be introduced which would remove the barriers schools might face in seeking to provide more support to pupils, families and communities and urged the development of pilots to '*test out such "extended schools"*'. As a first step in doing this, 'extended' school demonstration projects were set up in three areas of England. Twenty-five extended school pathfinder projects are being funded in the current academic year.

♦ The Education Act (England and Wales, Statutes, 2002) gives governing bodies the power to extend the range of services that schools provide, working in partnership with other providers, thus becoming a resource for the whole community. This supports the UK Government's ongoing commitment to the concept of 'extended' schools.

♦ One of the Local Government Association's (LGA) key areas, which it believes reinforces the Government's priorities, is '*Developing schools in the community*'. The LGA launched its 'Six Commitments' initiative in June 2001 as a vital part of its strategy to achieve improved dialogue between central and local government.

Interpretations of extended/full-service schools

♦ Significant elements of USA literature stress that there is no one correct model or blueprint of full-service/extended school service delivery (e.g. Calfee *et al.*, 1998; Dryfoos, 1994). There are many interpretations of full-service/extended schools: it has been argued that the diversity surrounding the concept is a major strength.

♦ In USA literature, the full-service school concept is often regarded as a grass roots movement representing a local and popular response to problems, placing school at the centre of the community.

♦ Common key components include having clear aims and purpose; strong leadership; administrative excellence, consistent, long term funding from a variety of sources (both public and private); community and parental involvement; effective publicity and dissemination; an appropriate designated location; opportunities for extended curriculum and out of hours learning.

♦ The list is perhaps, in itself, a fairly predictable array of features that would underpin any successful initiative or reform. This may reflect the limited amount of large-scale and rigorous evaluation of extended schools identified earlier by the literature review.

♦ Attempts to define the full-service approach to service delivery permeate the literature. Some contributors to the literature have identified a continuum of school-based programmes in relation to service delivery models ranging from simple one-component partnerships complex to multi-agency collaboratives (e.g. Dryfoos, 1994; Calfee *et al.*, 1998; Carlson *et al.*, 1995).

Approaches to extended/full-service schools in the USA

♦ The literature indicates that there is a diverse range of frameworks for full-service school provision in the USA reflecting commitment from many levels of administration and delivery. These include individual schools, agencies, service providers, school boards, and regional legislative authorities.

♦ Some full-service school approaches are manifested as initiatives that extend the remit and programmes already existing within particular school environments by supplying additional services and facilities. School-based clinics and Family Service Centres act to support young people and their families in optimising their educational opportunities.

♦ Other full-service school approaches involve the complete re-conceptualisation and re-organisation of the way in which health and education services are delivered. These approaches involve attempts to transform the school site into a central component of its community through the integrated and coordinated delivery of health, education and human services.

♦ Accessibility and inclusion, flexibility and relevance are key features of integrated full-service school delivery. Sites, as well as the curriculum and services on offer, are designed to be as open and meaningful/useful as possible to their intended consumers.

♦ The literature suggests that full-service school approaches have been adopted and applied in city and state-wide contexts, reflecting the importance of this mode of delivery, and the political commitment to it. Some initiatives have been enshrined in local legislative transformations.

Approaches to extended/full-service schools in the UK

♦ There is a diverse array of initiatives conforming to the full-service school approach. Local initiatives, such as the Village College approach of the 1920s, have been presented as forerunners to more strategic interventions, such as Community Schools.

♦ The concept of New Community Schools in Scotland has figured significantly in more recent UK literature. This approach was founded on the notion that a range of services was necessary to help children overcome the barriers to learning they faced.

♦ Attempts to promote social well-being and meeting the needs of local populations as a means of promoting educational achievement underpin the philosophy of full-service schools in the UK context.

♦ A holistic approach to meeting the needs of young people and their families, combined with integrated, co-located multi-agency working characterises many approaches to full-service school delivery.

♦ Accessibility and local relevance of sites and their services and content are deemed to be essential components of full-service schools which help to consolidate their role within, and relationship with, their communities.

♦ Many initiatives within the broad spectrum of full-service school delivery in the UK context are oriented towards meeting specifically defined needs, such as early-years interventions.

Issues and implications of extended/full-service school delivery

♦ A considerable section of the literature presents accounts of practitioners' experiences of the difficulties and challenges associated with full-service or extended-school service delivery.

♦ From individual reviews the following emerge as the most significant issues: '*Turf*' (e.g. ownership of the infrastructure and site); Governance; Funding; Training; Controversy and reluctance (e.g. resistance to using school premises for non-educational activities); Differences in aims, cultures and procedures; Overload (or increased workload); and Impossibility (something being '*just too complicated*'.

♦ Much of the literature contains insights into, and experiences of, attempts to establish full-service/extended schools that focus on the practicalities of development and implementation.

♦ Planning and research are seen as vital as are understanding the concept and how the community can benefit from it. For example, Dryfoos (1993) advised those

wishing to embark upon full-service school service delivery to visit existing models, to engage in careful planning and to secure the cooperation and involvement of colleagues in accessing federal support

Concluding comments

♦ USA literature appears to approach the concept of full-service or extended schooling in a promotional, celebratory manner. Several sources expound its virtues or merits, and are permeated with such terms as '*pioneering*'; '*innovative*'; '*revitalised*', '*exciting*'; '*radical*' and '*dynamic*'. Full-service or extended schools are often represented as a great advancement on what has gone before, able to respond to the reality of contemporary problems, thus offering hope for a better, more positive future (e.g. Coltoff *et al.*, 1997; Iscoe, 1977; Olasov and Petrillo, 1994).

♦ Literature from the USA is characterised by a wide variety of interpretations of the full-service school as a model of service delivery, ranging from fully integrated/reconceptualised systems to smaller-scale extensions or additions to the traditional remit of individual schools.

♦ Following the continuum of full-service schooling identified by Dryfoos (1994), many existing models within the UK can be seen to conform more closely to the latter of the above interpretations e.g. breakfast clubs, after-school clubs.

♦ Equally, UK models appear to adopt a more educationally focused approach (e.g. family literacy, adult computer classes) rather than the socio-economically driven approach (e.g. family therapy, drug counselling, crisis intervention) more prevalent in USA literature.

♦ The underlying premise of full-service/extended schools is commonly understood to be one of partnership. USA literature appears to emphasise more strongly partnerships between health, particularly mental health, and education providers, as illustrated by the Hogg Foundation for Mental Health's involvement in the School of the Future.

♦ In USA literature the reorganisation of service delivery appears to rest on the use of schools as a vehicle through which integrated services can be delivered to the community on a single site. However, in the UK, extended schools seek to provide a range of services as an extension to their traditional educational role.

♦ There would appear to be little systematic, rigorous evaluation of the concept and its implementation. Indeed, many of the essential factors or components identified within the literature such as 'clear, common aims and purpose'; 'strong leadership'; 'consistent long-term funding'; 'effective communication' could be said to be essential for any multi-agency project or initiative. Given this lack of rigour, opportunities therefore still exist for a more systematic and critical approach, which will then contribute to currently available UK literature.

Literature review

About this review

The specifications of the Department for Education and Skills (DfES) tender requested an initial review of existing research evidence and literature concerning 'extended' schools, referred to elsewhere as 'full-service' or 'new community' schools. It was agreed that the National Foundation for Educational Research's (NFER) review would portray:

- The range of research on extended schools that has been conducted during the last 20 years.

- The development of extended schooling within the United Kingdom (UK), drawing on evidence from Europe, Australia and the United States of America (USA) where appropriate.

- Significant findings from studies of extended schools, including their potential or actual impact on professional practice and pupil outcomes and challenges to their development.

This review is organised into the following sections:

1. **Methods: how sources were identified and summarised**
2. **Historical context: including underlying principles, and changing approaches to service delivery**
3. **The UK policy context**
4. **Interpretations of extended/full-service schools**
5. **Approaches to extended/full-service schools in the USA**
6. **Approaches to extended/full-service schools in the UK**
7. **Issues and implications**

Section 1

Methods

This section outlines the details of how the review was conducted. It suggests there were three main phases to the review:

1. acquiring the relevant sources
2. identifying the research for inclusion
3. summarising the literature.

1.1   Acquiring the relevant sources

Initial discussions were held with NFER's Library staff to establish the parameters of the review. The review was to be of published research literature, which informed the body of knowledge internationally on extended schools. Current research was also included where appropriate. The main focus was on research specific to extended schools, but research dealing with multi-agency or interagency collaboration, and integrated services that include education were also included.

Studies to be considered for the review dated from the 1980s when the concept of extended or full-service schools first came to prominence in the USA. Research was drawn from a range of different sociological, educational and psychological databases covering the UK, the rest of Europe, the USA and Australia: Applied Social Sciences Index and Abstracts (ASSIA); Australian Education Index (AEI); British Education Index (BEI); ChildData; Educational Resources Information Centre (ERIC); and PsycInfo, as well as the Library's own internal databases (e.g. ProCite). Library staff also systematically searched the World Wide Web. Following initial searches, additional key terms were suggested and the searches were then refined.

Search strategies were developed using the controlled vocabulary pertinent to each database. Terms were searched both as keywords and also as free-text. The keywords applied by the researchers are outlined below:

KEYWORDS FOR LITERATURE REVIEW	
• extended schools	• extended service schools
• full-service schools	• new community schools
• inclusive schools	• community-based services
• integrated services	• interagency collaboration
• interagency working	• joined-up thinking
• multi-agency interventions	• multi-agency support teams
• multi-agency working.	

A record of the searches undertaken for the various databases has been documented in full and is outlined in Appendix 1. Where terms are not listed under the database, this indicates that, when searched for, they yielded no results.

1.2   Identifying the research for inclusion

Some of the keywords, in particular inclusive schools and integrated services, yielded substantial sets of results. However, many of these studies focused on the inclusion in schools of children with special educational needs, but did not necessarily involve the delivery of integrated services on school sites. Consequently, where this was the case, these were excluded from the review. Similarly, because of time constraints, several studies were excluded which referred to school-linked services that were not necessarily community based, i.e. services working with schools but not necessarily located on, or near, the school site. Many research studies generated by the keywords 'multi-agency' and 'interagency' also focused on initiatives that were not school related, and therefore, bearing in mind the specification for this review, these were excluded.

It was immediately apparent that little research on the concept of extended schools originated from the UK and other European countries. This is perhaps not surprising given the fact that it is a concept that has only recently gained prominence in Europe. A reasonably large amount of literature included originated from Australia but the bulk of it was from the USA where extended, or full-service, schools have developed significantly over the last 20 years.

Copies of available sources believed to be the most pertinent to the review were then acquired by the project team and subsequently read for consideration for inclusion.

1.3   Summarising the literature

Having established the criteria for inclusion in the review, each of the publications was summarised using the template shown in Appendix 2. The template was constructed to describe the research according to:

- its focus
- its country of origin
- its duration (where appropriate)
- a summary of the main findings
- implications of the research
- key references quoted (some of which were then subsequently acquired and summarised by the project team).

Overall, to date, 55 items have been summarised for inclusion in the review, with another 65 having been read and considered for inclusion, but subsequently rejected for the reasons outlined in the previous section (1.2). Some items, although found not to be specifically school focused, were included where issues were felt to be particularly relevant. Given the time constraints under which this review was conducted, it can not be considered to be exhaustive, but should provide a flavour of the most influential themes and issues arising from literature.

1.4   Methodological approach

A primarily descriptive approach accounted for three-quarters of the relevant literature (41 of the 55 summaries) with only the remaining quarter (14) adopting a more evaluative approach, i.e. detailed or in-depth research studies of initiatives. Several of the former drew on the work of other authors to explore issues relating to the concept of extended or full-service schools, or described the development of particular initiatives, while other sources might be categorised as 'how to' guides. Despite a recognition in the literature of the importance of evaluation, '*few rigorous evaluations of school-based human services have been attempted*' (Dolan, 1996, p.48). Indeed, Ball (1998) notes that there have been few comparative studies and little follow-up research to provide evidence of longer-term impact. Interestingly, of the 14 sources that could be described as evaluative in their approach, the majority (ten) focused on UK initiatives.

Key points

♦ Fifty-five sources were selected as relevant and summarised for inclusion in the review. Studies to be considered dated from the 1980s and sociological, educational and psychological databases from UK, USA, Australia and Europe were searched.

♦ Little research on the concept of extended schools originated from the UK and other European countries. The main sources were Australia, and particularly the USA, where extended or full-service schools have developed significantly over the last 20 years.

♦ A primarily descriptive approach accounted for three-quarters of the relevant literature (41 of the 55 summaries) with only the remaining quarter (14) adopting a more evaluative approach, i.e. detailed or in-depth research studies of initiatives.

♦ Interestingly, of the 14 sources that could be described as evaluative in their approach, the majority (ten) focused on UK initiatives.

Section 2

Historical context

2.1 The underlying principles of full-service/extended schools

The underlying principle behind the concept of the full-service or extended school is founded on the recognition that schooling, for many, can only be approached '*once a range of welfare and health services were in place*' (Smith, 2001a). Disadvantage must be addressed in order to effectively address educational underachievement (Olasov and Petrillo, 1994; Carlson *et al.,* 1995; Raham, 1998; Smith, 2001). Combined with rising concerns about the '*fragmentation*' of services, it has been argued that the possibility of '*one-stop shopping*', where prevention, treatment and support services are all provided on the school site, has opened up (Smith 2001a). However, many contributors to the literature proposed that the ideas underpinning the concept and approaches of the full-service school were not new (Walker *et al.,* 2000; Tett, 2000; Raham, 1998, 2000; Smith, 2001). Calfee *et al*. (1998) suggested that the notion of schools, community, social, welfare and health agencies working together had been known by many other names, including school-linked services, school-based services, assessment centres, community education, family service centres. Dryfoos (1993; 1994) noted that the integration of education, health social and human services at the heart of a full-service school, can be traced back to work undertaken in the 1980s. Furthermore, the actual term 'full-service school' was said to have originated in Florida legislation, which required the State Board of Education and the Department of Health to '*jointly establish programmes in local schools to serve high risk students in need of medical and social services*' (Dryfoos, 1995b, p.1). Dryfoos (1994), and others, have also contended that the initial responses to the challenge of meeting students' needs, such as the school-based clinics approach of the 1980s, have evolved and developed into more comprehensive models of coordinated integrated school-based service delivery. As such, the full-service or extended school should not be regarded as a new concept, but one that is re-emerging '*as we enter a new century*' (Dryfoos 1995b, p.1).

2.2 Changing contexts and the failure of schools and education systems

Writers such as Tett (2000) and Dowling and Osborne (1994) commented that major changes in society, legislation and the nature of interaction between families and schools have been taking place, noting the increasing changes in lifestyles that families have undergone in recent years. Similarly, Soriano and Hong (1997) contended that American families have been located in changing contexts, facing multiple challenges, so no longer able to provide '*guidance, and support, positive role models and emotional security*' (Soriano and Hong, 1997, p.181). Soriano and Hong (1997) suggested that this negatively impacted upon a child's education and had repercussions for truancy, exclusion, emotional and behavioural problems including

gang violence and drug use. Reeder *et al.* (1997) also identified the stresses of 'modern day living' upon children, which included parental divorce, poverty, health problems and abuse. These were associated with a rise in depressions, suicide, drug and alcohol related abuse and other health problems. Significantly, they contended that, although school psychologists were ideally placed to address these issues:

> *... all is not well in school psychology. Visions of what school psychology should be and could be are not congruent with the reality of what school psychology has come to be* (Reeder *et al.,* 1997, p.604).

Literature pertaining to full-service, and extended-school service delivery, thus conveys the message that existing schools and education systems are failing in their contemporary contexts as they can no longer meet the complex needs of their students (Coltoff *et al.,* 1997). Dryfoos (1993) noted that the impetus for the development of the full-service school approach stemmed from the recognition that the complex problems faced by many students often resulted in schools being unable to adequately cope without specialist service delivery in areas such as the social, health, emotional and cultural needs of young people. Hence, much of the literature pursues the message that *'schools cannot do it alone'* (Dryfoos, 1994, p.6) in the light of the multiple challenges they, and their students, families and communities face.

2.3 Recognition of the need for remodelling, integration and an holistic approach to service delivery

With such problems in focus, the development of full-service and extended-school models has been regarded as reflecting fundamental changes in outlooks and philosophies of service provision in general. Hoover and Achilles (1996), for example, suggested that changes in contemporary American education and health provision were overdue and that service delivery required 'demassification'. The *'old bureaucratic procedures, with separate and huge bureaucracies for each procedure, are today's dinosaurs'* (Hoover and Achilles 1996, p.3), and these were regarded as being totally inadequate for meeting needs at the dawn of the new millennium. Vignette 1 below gives details of Calfee *et al.*'s (1998) suggested reasons as to why existing systems of delivery have failed.

Vignette 1: Failures in existing systems of delivery
- *Most existing services are crisis-orientated.*
- *The existing social welfare system divides the problems of children and families into rigid and distinct categories that fail to reflect interrelated causes and solutions.*
- *The current service delivery system is inadequate to meet families' needs because no functional communication exists among the myriad public and private community service agencies.*
- *Specialised community agencies are incapable of crafting comprehensive solutions to complex problems; thus they cannot offer solutions to families with multiple problems.*
- *Existing community agencies are insufficiently funded* (even though responsibilities have increased).

Source: Calfee *et al.* (1998).

Combined with increasing emphasis on community regeneration 'from the ground up', it was argued that it was possible to provide coordinated services that were available to people who need them without creating *'new dinosaurs'*. It was suggested, therefore, that *'a person should be able to visit one convenient place to receive services of multiple agencies. Enter here the single site, full-service school'* (Hoover and Achilles, 1996, p.4). Importantly for the development of full-service school approaches, this *'common sense idea'* was seen to involve reciprocity; *'a collaborative activity benefits each partner in some logical and important way'* (Hoover and Achilles, 1996, p.4).

As noted above, Calfee *et al.* (1998) also contended that the full-service school initiative was a product of recent shifts in thinking that have moved away from thinking of segregated programmes where agencies, institutions and individuals work in isolation, to an inclusive, more *'holistic'* approach to providing support for educational, social, emotional and physical needs. The notion that needs should not be met in isolation, or by particular institutions or agencies acting alone, is thus a key theme permeating the literature. Hardy (1996), for example, noted that discrete service provision cannot meet *'the complex needs of today's youth and families'* (p.2). Bell and Best (1986, p.125) quoted in Brett (1987, p.200) also suggested that *'it would be presumptuous of any single profession to believe that it has the monopoly on the capacity to meet the needs of a particular child'*. Interestingly, Brett traced the importance of elements of such linkage back to England in the 1960s by citing, for example, the Newsom Report in 1963, which urged the appointment of teacher/social workers in some areas, and the Plowden Report of 1967 which envisaged social workers being more or less full members of staff in some schools.

The full-service or extended-school model is seen as an effective solution to the problems highlighted above, as illustrated in the following comments:

> *As the 21ˢᵗ century approaches, social pressures and changing demographics are shaping new, full-service institutions, schools combined with community agencies that have the capacity to respond to contemporary realities* (Dryfoos, (1993, p.35).

> *The cumulative effects of poverty have created social environments that challenge educators, community leaders, and practitioners of health, mental health, and social services to invent new kinds of institutional responses* (Dryfoos, 1994, p.xv).

Calfee *et al*. (1998) suggested that the need for full-service schools arose as a response to *'the expanding needs and expectations of children, families, or communities'* (p.8). Traditional patterns of schooling were seen as no longer fitting patterns of society which have become more and more complex. Responding to that complexity can no longer be the responsibility of one single agency or organisation. Calfee *et al*. (1998) quoted an African proverb which suggested that *'It takes the whole village to raise a child'* (p.8).

Key points

♦ It was suggested that the notion of schools, community, social, welfare and health agencies working together had been known by many other names, including school-linked services, school-based services, assessment centres, community education, family service centres (Calfee *et al*., 1998: USA).

♦ The underlying principle behind the concept of the full-service or extended school is founded on the recognition that schooling, for many, can only be approached '*once a range of welfare and health services were in place*' (Smith, 2001a: UK).

♦ Literature pertaining to full-service, and extended-school service delivery, also conveys the message that existing schools and education systems are failing in their contemporary contexts as they can no longer meet the complex needs of their students (e.g. Coltoff *et al*., 1997: USA). Schools were thus unable to adequately cope without specialist service delivery in areas such as the social, health, emotional, and cultural needs of young people (Dryfoos, 1993: USA).

♦ USA literature (e.g. Calfee *et al*., 1998: USA) also contended that the full-service school initiative was a product of recent shifts in thinking that have moved away from thinking of segregated programmes where agencies, institutions and individuals work in isolation, to an inclusive, more '*holistic*' approach to providing support for educational, social, emotional and physical needs. The notion that needs should not be met in isolation, or by particular institutions or agencies acting alone, is thus a key theme permeating the literature.

♦ Failures in existing systems of social welfare were equally highlighted by USA literature: Calfee *et al*. (1998) notes they were '*crisis-oriented*'; '*insufficiently funded*' and '*without functional communication*' (p.8) between the many public and private community service agencies.

Section 3

The UK policy context

3.1 Background

As noted in the previous section, there has been growing recognition that schools cannot solve the problems associated with social exclusion on their own, a sentiment that has been echoed in recent literature within the UK (Tett, 2000; Dowling *et al*., 1994). Such authors note that, increasingly, schools within the UK are having to cope with problems resulting from the multiple disadvantage experienced by pupils and their families in deprived areas. The concomitant demands that this places on school staff have been widely recognised (DfEE, 2000; PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2001a), together with the need for the '*availability and accessibility*' of specialist advice and expertise in order to equip schools to cope with their increasing role '*within the inclusion agenda*' (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2001a). The final report of the Schools Plus Policy Action Team 11 (DfEE, 2000) highlighted the '*disproportionate*' amount of time school staff spend '*trying to access social services, health services etc. before being able to tackle the educational underachievement*' (p.28). However, the report also recognised that health and social service professionals can often face difficulties in trying to contact school staff about pupils' care in school. Makins (1997) highlighted the wide ranging yet uncoordinated range of services in place and reiterated calls for coordination and integration in the provision of local services.

One response to these problems has been the development of multi-agency approaches. Anning (2001) and Atkinson *et al*. (2002) outlined the impetus from recent Government policy for 'joined-up' services, quoting various forms of legislation within different agencies as evidence of this. Within health, Anning (2001) referred to the White Paper '*Our Healthier Nation: Saving Lives* (DOH, 1999) and the '*Health Act*' (DOH, 1999) and within social services to the White Paper '*Modernising Social Services* (DOH, 1998) and '*Quality Protects*' (1999). In education, Anning (2001) and Campbell (2001) highlighted the White Paper '*Excellence in Schools*' which proposed the development of a network of Early Excellence Centres as a way of promoting '*models of high quality, integrated early years services for young children and families*' (Campbell, 2001, p.1). The report from the Schools Plus Policy Action Team 11 (DfEE, 2000) recommended the development of '*One Stop Family Support Centres*' as a way of moving towards '*an integrated service for pupils and their families on one site*' (p.31). These centres, based on the American 'full-service' school model and the Scottish experience of New Community Schools (discussed in more detail in a later section of the review), were to combine health, social services and education to offer integrated provision for pupils and families on a single site. The recent introduction of Primary Care Trusts (PCTs) within health services and Children's Trusts should significantly enhance opportunities for joint planning and working by pooling '*the knowledge, skills and resources that exist in our education, health and social services to provide a more seamless service for children*' (Milburn, 2002)

3.2 The role of schools

One suggestion for coordinating multi-agency approaches and at the same time providing a solution to the growing demands placed on school staff, has been to provide a base within schools for outside expertise (Ball, 1998). Dyson and Robson (1999), recognising that schools do not exist in isolation, highlighted:

> *The new upsurge of interest at national policy level in the role that schools might play in addressing the patterns of endemic disadvantage which characterise some communities* (Dyson and Robson, 1999, p.2).

Strong school-family-community links are exemplified in the literature on parental involvement in children's learning in literacy and, to a lesser extent, numeracy. Dyson and Robson (1999) and Brooks *et al.* (1996) refer to the Adult Literacy and Basic Skills Unit's (ALBSU, now the Basic Skills Agency) report '*Parents and their Children: the Intergenerational Effects of Poor Literacy Skills*' (ALBSU, 1993), which noted that where parents have literacy difficulties, their children are also likely to struggle and therefore underachieve educationally. Dyson and Robson (1999) go on to suggest that there are '*significant benefits available to schools for extending their links with families and communities*' (p.30). Such links are believed to be welcomed by parents and, the authors contend, are likely to have the effect of improving pupil attainment. Initiatives should, however, reflect and also be responsive to, the contexts and needs of the individual communities (Dyson and Robson, 1999; Jenkinson and Watts, 1998), that is, they cannot be homogenous. As noted in a later section of this review, there is no one '*blueprint*' or definitive model (Dryfoos, 1994; Calfee *et al.*, 1998).

It was noted in the White Paper '*Schools: Achieving Success*' (England, Parliament, House of Commons, 2001) that several schools in the UK already offered study support in out-of-school hours, while others offered sports and/or arts activities, or Internet access, and some already worked closely with other agencies such as health, childcare providers or adult education. Indeed, the earlier White Paper '*Excellence in Schools*' (DfEE, 1997) had already made clear the Government's commitment to out-of-school-hours learning activities and had outlined details of its plans to fund this particular area via the New Opportunities Fund (NOF). At the same time it first mooted the idea of Education Action Zones (EAZs) to be set up in areas of educational under-performance, to provide schools that needed it with additional and innovative support to enable young people to aim higher and achieve more. The legislation to establish EAZs was then set out in the '*School Standards and Framework Act 1998*' (GB. Statutes. 1998). Behaviour Improvement Programmes (BIPs), introduced in 2002 as part of the government's national strategy to reduce street crime, will provide 34 LEAs with up to £1.5 million for the design and implementation of a comprehensive range of school-based measures to improve attendance and behaviour. More than half of the LEAs involved in the initiative are currently working in the area of extended school provision.

The White Paper '*Schools: Achieving Success*' (England, Parliament, House of Commons, 2001) stated that the Government's second term was to be dedicated to carrying out a reform of secondary education. One way of doing this was identified as opening up secondary education to '*a new era of engagement with the worlds of*

enterprise, higher education and civic responsibility' (England, Parliament, House of commons, 2001. p.6). Schools were to be seen as important resources for the whole community with increased community access outside teaching time put forward as one way of making better use of capital stock (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2001a). At the same time, the benefits of working in partnership with other public services were recognised:

> *We will support schools to work with local providers including health and social services, to make available on their site a wide range of easily accessible support for children and their families. Where necessary, the Government will legislate to enable more schools to do this* (England, Parliament, House of Commons, 2001, p.12).

Legislation was to be introduced which would remove the barriers schools might face in seeking to provide more support to pupils, families and communities and the White Paper urged the development of pilots to '*test out such "extended schools"*' (England, Parliament, House of Commons, 2001, p.66). As a first step in doing this, 'extended' school demonstration projects were set up in three areas of England, to find out how schools wishing to adopt this approach could do so effectively and thus better meet the needs of their communities. Evaluation of the work of these pilot projects has taken place, focusing both on process issues (development, funding, sustainability etc. and on outcomes for students, families and their communities (Dyson *et al.*, 2002). Twenty-five extended school pathfinder projects are being funded in the current academic year. The 2001 White Paper promised to build on proposals introduced in the Green Paper '*Schools: Building on Success*' to introduce '*family focused schools*' in disadvantaged areas which would provide '*childcare, study and family support using schools as a community resource*' (DfEE, 2001).

The Schools Plus Policy Action Team 11, whose brief was to identify cost-effective approaches to '*using schools as a focus for other community services*' (DfEE, 2000, p.8)), recommended greater involvement of the school in the community and the community in the school, thus building on Calfee *et al.'s* (1998) assertion that the two should be almost indistinguishable. The White Paper '*Schools: Achieving Success*' (England, Parliament, House of Commons, 2001) recommended that schools be encouraged to develop as focal points for the delivery of a range of different services and to open their doors to the community during out-of-school hours (i.e. before and after school, at weekends and during school holidays). At the same time, the facilities or services on offer should be carefully designed with the needs of the community in mind, thus including not just the provision of education, sport and/or arts activities, or public services such as health and social services, but possibly more innovative community services such as legal or benefits advice, banking or even post offices.

The Local Government Association (LGA) launched its 'Six Commitments' initiative in June 2001 as a vital part of its strategy to achieve improved dialogue between central and local government. The six commitments relate to six key areas where councils are committed to making a difference for local communities, i.e. education, environment, transport, older people, children and transport. Specifically, one of the LGA's key areas, which it believes reinforces the Government's priorities, is:

Developing schools in the community ... by promoting schools which play a full role in their local communities, by working with partners in providing services, expanding learning opportunities and promoting citizenship (LGA, 2001, [online]. Available: http//www.lga.gov.uk/OurWork.asp. [15 March, 2002]).

The LGA's schools in the community concept has three key elements:

- increased educational attainment
- a more comprehensive and holistic approach to need
- the provision of additional services not normally available to the community through the development of the school beyond its traditional use.

Projects were set up in seven extended school 'pathfinder' authorities to explore the concept by testing out innovative ideas and approaches. Twenty-five LEAs have now agreed to act as pathfinders in the current academic year (2002/03) and evaluation of these will be ongoing.

The Education Act (England and Wales, Statutes, 2002) gives governing bodies the power to extend the range of services schools provide, working in partnership with other providers, thus becoming a resource for the whole community. This supports the UK Government's ongoing commitment to the concept of 'extended' schools. Recent guidance from the DfES on extended schools (DfES, 2002) explaining the new legislation and providing advice on many practical issues has been welcomed.

Key points

♦ In the UK, there has also been growing recognition that schools cannot solve the problems associated with social exclusion and multiple disadvantage on their own (Tett, 2000; Dowling *et al.*, 1994).

♦ The concomitant demands that this places on school staff have been widely recognised (DfEE, 2000; PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2001a), together with the need for the '*availability and accessibility*' of specialist advice.

♦ One response to these problems has been the development of multi-agency approaches. The provision of a base within schools for outside expertise has been suggested as a means of coordinating multi-agency approaches and, at the same time, creating a solution to the growing demands placed on school staff (Ball, 1998).

♦ Strong school-family-community links are exemplified in the literature on parental involvement in children's learning in literacy and, to a lesser extent, numeracy.

♦ The White Paper '*Schools: Achieving Success*' recommended that legislation be introduced which would remove the barriers schools might face in seeking to provide more support to pupils, families and communities and urged the development of pilots to '*test out such "extended schools"*' (England, Parliament, House of Commons, 2001). As a first step in doing this, 'extended' school demonstration projects were set up in three areas of England, and 25 extended school pathfinder projects are being funded in the current academic year.

♦ The Education Act (England and Wales, Statutes, 2002) gives governing bodies the power to extend the range of services schools provide, working in partnership with other providers, thus becoming a resource for the whole community. This supports the UK Government's ongoing commitment to the concept of 'extended' schools.

♦ One of the Local Government Association's (LGA) key areas, which it believes reinforces the Government's priorities, is '*Developing schools in the community*' (LGA, 2001). The LGA launched its 'Six Commitments' initiative in June 2001 as a vital part of its strategy to achieve improved dialogue between central and local government.

Section 4

Interpretations of full-service/extended schools

A variety of writers have forwarded a multitude of interpretations of a full-service or extended school and it can be argued that the diversity and fluidity surrounding the concept represents a major strength. Significant elements of the literature stress that there is no one correct model or blueprint of full-service/extended school service delivery. The preface to Calfee *et al.* (1998) noted, for example, that in the state of Florida, there were over 350 schools, all of which were deemed to be unique, with no one model of delivery being superior to any other. Furthermore, it was suggested that '*the problems of education are usually universal, but their solutions are (almost invariably) unique*' (Barth, 1990, quoted in Fowler and Corley, 1996, p.24) and that schools select elements from different models and approaches.

4.1   Common features of full-service/extended schools

Despite the central importance of individual uniqueness in the implementation of the concept of the full-service or extended school, much of the literature identifies certain features which successful models must include (Dryfoos, 1994; Calfee *et al.*, 1998; Raham, 1998, 2000; Semmens, 1999). Coltoff *et al.* (1997), for example, contended that although community, full-service, or extended schools may operate in a variety of ways, they share an underlying basic philosophy: '*educational excellence, combined with needed human services, delivered through school, parent and community partnerships*' (Coltoff *et al.,* 1997, p.11).

The locational components of full-service school operation are also presented as constituting essential elements underpinning success. Firstly, the full-service school has been conceptualised and regarded as a grassroots movement or phenomenon, representing a local, popular response to wider structural problems. Dryfoos (1995b), for example, argued that despite the '*the divisive polemics'* dominating national politics, '*back home, the practitioners are seeking ways to work together to rescue the children in their communities*' (p.1). The full-service school has thus been presented as an example of a local level solution to problems, bringing '*the forces together in times of stress'* (Dryfoos, 1995b, p.1).

Secondly, school sites have been seen as central factors in successful service delivery. Hardy (1996), for example, reflected on the demise of funding for after school activities and noted the wastefulness and vulnerability of empty school buildings. Opening up these buildings and offering community services has thus been seen as a way of utilising existing infrastructure to better meet the needs of local populations (Coltoff *et al.,* 1997; Murphy, 1993; Raham, 1998). Carlson *et al.* (1995) noted '*numerous*' advantages of using schools as service delivery sites based on the understanding that schools are '*where children are'* (p. 186) and that locating services on this one site would facilitate access for many families. Talley and Short (1995), suggested that health and education reform agendas share a common understanding

that the school should be seen as '*an integral component of a larger network of service delivery*' (p.40). Others noted that offering services in the school building has the effect of creating '*new institutional arrangements, comprehensive one-stop education and service centres*' (Dryfoos, 1995b, p.1). The far-reaching possibilities of this relationship have led some commentators (Hoover and Achilles, 1996; Calfee *et al.,* 1998; Murphy, 1993) to suggest that '*School might actually become the centre of the community ... as a result of interagency programs being co-located within the school*' (Hardy, 1996, p.3).

Many commentators (e.g. Raham, 2000; Dryfoos, 1993; Melaville and Blank, 2000) note that, although varying widely, there are common conditions for the successful implementation of a full-service or extended-school model. Vignettes below give some examples of these common factors.

Vignette 2: Common conditions of a full-service school
- Schools having the authority to enter into the necessary partnerships to provide the services, including budget control, contracting services, hiring staff, deciding on building space etc.
- Strong leadership
- Having appropriate governance structure in place because the full-service school is '*a highly complex organisation*'.
- Having an emphasis on community involvement.
- Teacher support – gained by involving them from the beginning.

Source: Raham, H. (2000).

Dryfoos has also noted that the variety of approaches makes it difficult to sum up the necessary components of a full-service school, but continued to suggest the importance of the following common elements (emerging from reviews of current programmes), as outlined in Vignette 3.

Vignette 3: Common elements of a full service school

- Designated space in or near school for a primary medical clinic.

- If medical services are not provided on site, then a designated centre for counselling services.

- Services provided by health, mental health, social services, youth-serving agencies, and employment agencies.

- Programmes paid for by the state, from local foundation funds and contributions in kind from the community, rather than the school.

- Schools to provide space, maintenance and security.

- School doors to be open during out-of-school hours e.g. before and after school, weekends and holidays.

- An advisory board including parents and community leaders (parental consent will be required in order for students to receive services).

- A coordinator or programme director to integrate the services with school and community agencies.

Source: Dryfoos, J. (1993).

A major strand of writing thus presents the argument that the needs of, and demand from, the community should inform the character and nature of full-service or extended-school provision. Vignette 4 provides extracts from Melaville and Blank's (2000) work where they questioned several principals of community schools and produced a list for principals of key components for creating a successful community school. This included:

Vignette 4: The views of principals – key components for a community school

- '*Believe in the idea*' – the principal is key in this.
- '*Make your story their story*' – convincing potential partners that your success is also theirs.
- '*Suspend judgement*' – listen to everyone concerned.
- '*Develop a litmus test*' – knowing what you want to achieve and establishing criteria to decide which activities will bring that about.
- '*Lead from behind*' – keep involved but delegate responsibility for day-to-day operation, deploy your efforts in seeking out partners and funding.
- '*Involve your staff*' – show them how classroom instruction can be enhanced through extended-day activities by introducing training and joint planning opportunities.
- '*Connect to a network*' – gain materials, assistance and support from other colleagues in community schools.

Source: Melaville, A. I., and Blank, M. J. (2000).

These vignette examples clearly demonstrate the considerable similarity and overlap among the contributors to the literature. Indeed, overall, the literature review was able to detect several key themes emerging from the factors and components within

full-service provision identified by individual authors. A full summary is to be found in Appendix 1, but about a dozen different elements emerged:

- **clear, common aims and purpose; commitment to partnership and to educational improvement and also social goals**

- **governance: strong leadership, commitment from the principal**

- **administrative excellence and flexibility of the coordinator/programme director**

- **funding that is consistent long term and comes from various sources (private, state and 'in kind' from community**

- **effective communication, publicity and dissemination about the programme(s) and services**

- **community and parental involvement and ownership**

- **school staff involvement, commitment and training**

- **the appropriate location, designated space**

- **opportunities for extended curriculum and out of hours learning**

- **full recognition of multi-agency issues** such as time for review and feedback, training, clear lines of communication

- **assessment** including ensuring school staff are supportive and involved in assessment procedures

- **evaluation** including ensuring valid indicators of success and systematic collection of evidence.

The list is perhaps, in itself, a fairly predictable array of features that would underpin any successful initiative or reform. This may reflect the limited amount of large-scale and rigorous evaluation of extended schools identified earlier and thus support or suggest the need for further study.

4.2   Towards defining full-service/extended schools

Attempts to define the full-service approach to service delivery permeate the literature. Full-service schools have been defined by Dryfoos (1994) by their particular community and school characteristics as operating a mix of services designed to meet particular and identified needs. Dryfoos later defined these as '*one-stop centres where the educational, physical, psychological and social requirements of students and their families are addressed in a rational, holistic fashion*' (Dryfoos, 1996, p.18). Others have echoed these views, and Calfee *et al*. (1998) offered a

precise definition, as used by the 1992 Florida Interagency Workgroup on Full-Service Schools:

> *A full-service school means a school which serves as a central point of delivery, a single 'community hub', for whatever education, health, social/human, and/or employment services have been determined locally to be needed to support a child's success in school and in the community. Such a school is locally planned and designed to meet the holistic needs of students within the context of their families. The full-service school becomes a family resource center, a 'one-stop service' for children and families and, where appropriate, for people in the surrounding community* (Florida Department of Education, 1992, quoted in Calfee *et al.*, 1998, p.7).

Holtzman (1997) broadened-out the definition of full-service schools, by presenting an account of a community psychology approach to service delivery:

> *... based on systems and ecological thinking that integrates health, human resources, education, social interventions, citizen empowerment and cultural values into one strategy, focusing in particular on well-defined communities* (Holtzman, 1997, p.382).

Holtzman identified a contemporary example of this approach as being the experimental School of the Future programme introduced in four cities in Texas, financially supported by the Hogg Foundation for Mental Health (discussed in more detail in a subsequent section of this review).

Semmens (1999) writing in the Australian context, suggested that:

> *Full-service schooling assumes that increased information about, and access to, coordinated health and welfare services is the most cost-efficient way of meeting the personal and social needs of students 'at risk', thereby improving their performance at school and possibly increasing their participation in other social institutions* (Semmens, 1999, p. 1).

4.3   A continuum of school-based models

Some contributors to the literature have identified a continuum of school-based programmes in relation to service delivery models and this is discussed further in the following section. Dryfoos (1994), for example, suggested that the reality of full-service or extended-school service delivery consists of a mixture of school-based programmes set along a continuum '*from simple one-component partnerships between a school and an outside agency or business to sophisticated, complex, multicomponent, multiagency collaboratives*' (Dryfoos, 1994, p.13). Calfee *et al.* (1998) noted that relationships between the school and the community operate on a continuum of involvement from little or no interaction to one where school and community are virtually indistinguishable. This has been regarded as the true pinnacle of the full-service school: '*The school is the community and the community is the school*' (Calfee *et al.* 1998, p.12)).

Carlson et al (1995) followed Dryfoos' notion of a continuum and suggested that the current reality, is not the ideal, but does reflect an assortment of school-based programmes ranging from simple one-component partnerships to complex, multi-agency collaboratives.

Key points

♦ Significant elements of the literature stress that there is no one correct model or blueprint of full-service/extended school service delivery (e.g. Calfee *et al.*, 1998: USA; Dryfoos, 1994: USA). There are many interpretations of full-service/extended schools: it has been argued that the diversity surrounding the concept is a major strength.

♦ In USA literature, the full-service school concept is often regarded as a grass roots movement representing a local and popular response to problems, placing school at the centre of the community.

♦ Common key components include having clear aims and purpose; strong leadership; administrative excellence, consistent, long term funding from a variety of sources (both public and private); community and parental involvement; effective publicity and dissemination; an appropriate designated location; opportunities for extended curriculum and out of hours learning.

♦ The list is perhaps, in itself, a fairly predictable array of features that would underpin any successful initiative or reform. This may reflect the limited amount of large-scale and rigorous evaluation of extended schools identified earlier and thus support or suggest the need for further study.

♦ Attempts to define the full-service approach to service delivery permeate the literature. Some contributors to the literature have identified a continuum of school-based programmes in relation to service delivery models ranging from simple one-component partnerships complex to multi-agency collaboratives (e.g. Dryfoos, 1994: USA; Calfee *et al.*, 1998: USA; Carlson *et al*, 1995: USA).

Section 5

School-based approaches in the USA

Much of the literature makes reference to, and celebrates, the diversity and variety encompassing approaches to full-service school delivery. Dryfoos (1994), for example, identified three models of health service provision in schools: 'school-based', 'school-linked' and 'community-based' models. 'School based' refers to those delivered in school buildings; school linked to those provided near schools but linked to them; and community based to those administered by community agencies but serving as sources of referral by school personnel. Carlson *et al.,* (1995) pointed out that two forms of school-based services exist; '*school-based/school-supported services*' and '*school-based/other-supported services*' (p. 191). The former refers to service structures that are school governed and financed, internal to the organisational structure of the school and, as such, are rare. The latter, a more common model, refers to services that are school based and jointly governed, but primarily externally funded.

Notwithstanding the particular mode of structural organisation, Dryfoos (1994) exemplified '*the emerging phenomenon*' of school-based services and described the many approaches and models that have developed as school centres '*in which health, social, and/or family services may be co-located, depending on the needs of the particular school and community*' (p.xvi).

The following section presents accounts of some of the various approaches to, and examples of full-service school delivery, derived from literature pertaining to the American context. In accordance with notions of a continuum of full-service school delivery, the diverse approaches highlighted illustrate that some initiatives represent the **provision of additional services and facilities through school sites**. Others can be seen to reflect **a re-conceptualisation of service delivery** involving the implementation of state/region/city-wide strategic initiatives and coalitions. This section offers specific cameos of individual initiatives to illustrate the range and variety that exists in the USA.

5.1 Provision of additional services and facilities through school sites

The literature references and exemplifies approaches to full-service school delivery that take the form of initiatives administered within the context of individual schools. **School-based clinics** and **family service centres** are presented as offering a variety of specialist support services in addition to the conventional educational focus of the school based on the co-location of services and partnership working.

Vignette 5: Provision of additional services and facilities through school sites: School-based clinics

The Memphis City Schools Mental Health Clinics are identified as representing an approach to service delivery that constituted a distinct administrative unit of the Memphis City Schools providing an outpatient treatment programme for children and families. Funding was provided by the Memphis City Schools, state/federal funds and private foundations, although all the mental health staff were employed by the school system itself. Mental health issues were identified and addressed through the school site as a basis for increasing the educational opportunities of children and their families

Source: Carlson *et al.,* 1995.

Similarly, family service centres have been identified as providing support and assistance so as to facilitate schools' success in '*meeting students' human service needs and educating them in a productive environment*' (Hoover and Achilles 1996, p. 34).

Vignette 6: Provision of additional services and facilities through school sites: Family Service Centres

The Center, Leadville, in Colorado offered family counselling programmes and social services with input from agencies offering advice and support in relation to food, income and health issues. This initiative catered for community members ranging from pre-school to senior citizens. Issues addressed through this initiative included teenage pregnancies, effective parenting, special education needs. In this particular initiative, the school district provided only the building, other agencies being largely responsible for service delivery.

The Family Services Center in Florida offered school-based services addressing health, education, social services and family support.

The Pioneers, Biggs Early Childhood Center, in Kentucky offered a half-day program serving 300 at-risk four year-olds by providing parenting skills and support

Source: Hoover and Achilles, 1996.

Dryfoos (1994; 1995a; 1996)) also detailed the characteristics of the *Settlement House*, in a New York intermediate school. This was identified as closely conforming to the vision of a full-service school, being based on the premise of:

> *A school building open all days and evenings, weekends and summers, with a challenging educational programme matched with after-school enrichment, health and social services, and community education* (Dryfoos, 1994, p.101).

5.2 Re-conceptualisation of service delivery: State/region/city-wide strategic initiatives and coalitions

Much of the literature pursues the contention that approaches to full-service school delivery have involved the re-conceptualisation of the nature of services on offer and the mechanics of the delivery system. Significantly, the adoption of this approach has been shown to have been facilitated by, and enshrined in, local and regional

administrative transformations. Four major initiatives/elements permeate the literature:

Student Support Services in Albuquerque Public Schools
School Based Youth Services Programme
Extended-Service Schools Adaptation Initiative
The School of the Future Youth and Family Impact Centre

The following discussion illustrates that the re-conceptualisation of service delivery has different manifestations, all of which are based on the same underlying principles of integration and partnership working in order to holistically meet the needs of pupils, families and communities. Accounts of the four major initiatives highlighted above will show how the same principles can have various applications in working towards common goals. As noted previously, this diversity is a celebrated feature of full-service school delivery.

5.2.1 Student Support Services in Albuquerque Public Schools

This initiative has been presented as a theoretically-orientated approach based on restructuring the manner in which existing services were delivered and the way in which professionals worked together (Elder, 1999). This five-year programme of restructuring was intended to reflect a '*paradigm shift from the delivery of traditional intervention and prevention practices to a coordinated proactive vision of the delivery of support services*' (Elder, 1999, p. 1). The '*traditional*' approach to meeting needs was said to be '*isolated, reactive and fragmented*', exemplified by '*assemblies, rallies, awareness weeks and an assortment of "one-shot efforts"*'. By way of contrast, '*effective*' service delivery, was defined as requiring a '*cycle of needs assessment, comprehensive planning that includes community involvement, integration and collaboration of programmes, and evaluation of programme effectiveness*' (Elder, 1999, p.1).

Hence, the initiative aimed to increase access to education and increase opportunities for achievement for all students through the implementation of:

> *Comprehensive student support services…which will be flexible and responsive to student needs, available to all students, and proactive in seeking out opportunities to collaborate with students' families and community* (Elder, 1999, p.1).

The collaborative working of the key workers – the school counsellor, social worker and nurse – was deemed to be central to the success of this service delivery model, and mirrored in other initiatives. For example, a school-based mental health service delivery model in South Carolina, Family and Neighbourhood Schools (FANS), was presented as:

> *Innovative school programmes that promote a renewed sense of community and that effectively serve the emotional, social and academic needs of middle and high school students* (Hoover and Achilles, 1996, p.8).

The programme represented a '*collaborative effort to provide holistic community agency service to children and families*' (Hoover and Achilles, 1996, p.8) and was based heavily on extensive research into the composition of the likely clients and the problems and pressures they faced. These difficulties were taken as including: abuse and neglect; demise of the traditional family; poverty; youth and crime relationships; and issues of school readiness, failure rates, special education rates.

In order to address these issues, the programme began with the appointment of a mental health adolescent counsellor to deliver on-site help for students and families as well as to coordinate voluntary counselling relating to wider social issues – including divorce, self-esteem, conflict resolution and low academic achievement. Take up was said to exceed supply (Hoover and Achilles, 1996, p. 8).

Vignette 7: Re-conceptualisation of service delivery: Student Support Services in Albuquerque Public Schools

Mission/Aim:
To reduce '*barriers to learning for all students*' and to:
- Provide equal access to a meaningful education
- Increase student attendance rates
- Increase school completion rates
- Increase appropriate behaviours
- Increase safe and informed student choices
- Forge collaborative links with community agencies

Focus/Activities:
Attempts to increase the coordination and integration of all partners engaged in service delivery constituted the key areas of activity in this model.

Source: Elder, 1999.

5.2.2 School Based Youth Services Programme (SBYS)

This second initiative, which receives much attention in the literature, was launched in New Jersey in 1987, and represents an approach to re-conceptualised service delivery implemented in schools across wide geographical settings within a defined administrative unit. This initiative has been regarded by contributors to the literature as a highly influential element in the development of the full-service school approach. Its significance is regarded to stem from it being the first **state-level** programme aimed at decreasing the fragmentation of service delivery by offering health and social services through school sites. Prior to this initiative, most efforts were seen as being isolated, as they were devised and operated in local settings. The SYBS programme was a multi-site regional initiative that sought to integrate '*human services within the educational context*' (Dolan, 1996, p. 49). The full-service school approach and ethos is clearly evident in the SBYS programme's aim to:

> *Enable adolescents, especially those with problems, to complete their educations, obtain skills that either lead to employment or to additional education, and lead mentally and physically healthy lives* (Dolan, 1996, p. 49).

The sites participating in the programme were located in, or in very close proximity to, school buildings and the services on offer included:

> *employment counselling, training and placement; drug and alcohol abuse, family crisis and academic counselling; health services; and recreational activities. Many sites offer additional services, such as day care and family planning support* (Dolan, 1996, p.49).

The lead agencies of different sites were drawn from education, health services and providers, such as hospitals and mental health facilities, as well as non-profit/community organisations, reflecting the degree of multi-agency/service involvement in the programme. However, notwithstanding the composition of the lead agency, it was noted that *'Each site should have a project manager, an employment specialist, a nurse, a part-time physician, and a human services coordinator'* (Dolan, 1996, p. 49).

The perceived success of this initial attempt to co-ordinate and co-locate services and agencies has been regarded as inspiring the implementation of other regionally orientated and applied service delivery models.

Vignette 8: Re-conceptualisation of service delivery: School Based Youth Services Programme (SBYS)

Mission/Aim:
State-level implementation of integrated health and education services through school sites to decrease fragmentation of service delivery.

Focus/activities:
Support services and facilities to enhance the holistic development of young people in preparation for productive futures.
- Employment related training and advice
- Drug and alcohol abuse support
- Health advice, including family planning
- Academic counselling
- Social/human counselling, including family crisis related support

Source: Dolan, 1996.

5.2.3 Extended-Service Schools Adaptation Initiative

This third major initiative has been seen as a framework which facilitated the development of models that increased the use of school sites to encourage greater access to education, health and social services. Walker *et al*. (2000), suggested that this initiative reflected and encompassed a movement in the USA to open up schools, illustrated by a proliferation of city-funded, school-based youth programmes. **The New York City Beacon Initiative** and the **Community Schools programme** were amongst the models established under the Extended-Service Schools Adaptation Initiative. Each of these approaches was guided by national intermediary bodies, which were responsible for overseeing the strategic orientation and character of the initiative, mediated through local management structures. Collaboration, partnership and the co-location of services were key principals of these re-conceptualised modes

of service delivery. Furthermore, the importance of addressing all the needs of the young people, their families and the local communities underpinned the development of relevant strategies and programme content. As the programmes matured over time, the key principals of collaboration and partnership were strengthened: '*Programs became better able to identify and address core goals, honed their recruiting strategies and, for the most part, developed strong relationships with their host schools*' (Grossman, *et al.*, 2002, p.ii).

Commencing in 1991, **the New York City Beacon Initiative** was the largest strand of the Extended-Service Schools Adaptation Initiative. Dryfoos (1995a) noted that these Beacons, primarily focused on New York City Public Schools, mainly middle schools, were open all hours and additional services were offered through them by local community-based organisations. This initiative offered a holistic orientation towards meeting specific needs as a means of preparing young people for productive, positive future roles in their communities. In order to achieve this, a high level of involvement from a wide-range of national, state, and local agencies was called for, with cooperation and integration underpinning the approach. Leadership and guidance were provided through a partnership approach, involving a state-wide agency, the Youth Development Institute which was responsible for the overall strategic management and steering of the initiative, and health and education service staff, community organisations and parents, who were involved in the school-level management and administration of the programme.

Vignette 9: Re-conceptualisation of service delivery: Extended-Service Schools Adaptation Initiative: New York City Beacon Initiative

Mission/aim:
'*To develop and operate school-based community centers; to create safe havens for youth and families in poor neighbourhoods; to promote youth development and resiliency*' (Walker *et al*, 2000, p. 8).

Focus/Activities:
'*A diverse array of youth development in five core areas: education, recreation and enrichment, career development, leadership development and health continuity*' (Walker *et al.*, 2000, p. 8).

Timing:
Out of school hours

Governance structure:
State-level agencies, lead-agency personnel, local specialist providers, community representatives and parents

Source: Walker *et al.*, 2000.

Community Schools were developed in New York in 1992, within the remit of the Extended-Service Schools Adaptation Initiative, as a result of partnership-working between New York City Public Schools and the Children's Aid Society.   This innovative school-community collaboration has been regarded as an effective means of offering offered a wide range of support and opportunities to young people, families and the wider community in the Washington Heights neighbourhood

(Melaville and Blank, 2000). The Community School approach was built on the need to combine '*the best educational practices of a quality school with a range of vital in-house health and social services*' (Coltoff *et al.,* 1997, p. 10). Hence, the delivery of on-site services in a seamless fusion of school-day activities and extended-day programmes to enhance student learning was said to be at the heart of each school site (Coltoff *et al.,* 1997).

Community Schools remained operational in out-of-school hours, up to seven days a week and provided a range of services including before- and after-school childcare, extended learning opportunities and evening classes for adults. Family support centres on many school sites offered parenting classes, career training, housing information, counselling, health services and social services. It was noted that: '*In a well-run community school, activities focus on results that support the school's academic mission while fostering competencies that young people need for success in life*' (Melaville and Blank, 2000, p.18).

Walker *et al*. (2000) noted that the National Intermediary for the initiative was the Children's Aid Society (New York) and the National Center for Communities and Schools (Fordham University), whilst local governance, and management of school facilities was provided by the school and a community-based organisation: '*To this end, management staff from the* [community-based organisations] *have space in the school administrative offices so they can interact frequently with school principals*' (Walker *et al*., 2000, p.8). Additional management and organisational features of the Community School initiative in Washington Heights included the high profile involvement of local universities, playing a '*key role in technical assistance and planning*' (Walker *et al.,* 2000, p.8). University staff also constituted part of the 'oversight committee', as did executive staff from community-based organisations and school district staff. Walker *et al.,* (2000) also noted the importance of the presence and role of local school-level decision making bodies comprising parents and other community representatives.

Other initiatives were also instigated under the auspices of the Extended-Service Schools Adaptation Initiative. **Bridges to Success,** based in Indianapolis, Indiana, for example, was an initiative designed meet the '*overarching goal of promoting positive youth development during nonschool hours*' (Walker *et al*., 2000, p.9) as a basis for increasing pupils' educational achievements. As with Beacon and Community Schools, involvement of, support for, and meeting the needs of parents and families were crucial elements of this initiative, all of which would be achieved through partnership working and the provision of health and human services through school sites. Schools were thus conceptualised as having the potential to become '*"lifelong learning centers" and focal points of their communities*' (Walker *et al*., 2000, p.9).

The **West Philadelphia Improvement Corporation,** was the fourth component of the Extended-Service Schools Adaptation Initiative and its remit had a more educationally-specific orientation. This initiative was implemented through

partnerships between schools and universities to produce a '*school-based school and community revitalization program*' (Walker *et al*., 2000, p.9) that aimed to:

> *produce comprehensive, university-assisted community schools that serve, educate and activate all members of the community, revitalising the curriculum through a community-orientated, real-world, problem solving approach* (Walker *et al.,* 2000, p.9).

5.2.4 The School of the Future Youth and Family Impact Centre

This collaboration, based in Texas, clearly reflects the ethos and the practice of the '*supermarket" of services*' approach to service delivery (Iscoe, 1997, p.5).   The nature of the School of the Future's evolution can be seen to reveal many insights into the nature and mechanics of full-service school delivery.

Iscoe (1997) noted that the School of the Future Youth and Family Impact Centre developed out of collaboration between educators and health service providers, both of which had initiated individual attempts to remodel the scope and nature of service delivery to students, families and communities in deprived areas. The first component of this collaboration arose in 1990, when the Hogg Foundation for Mental Health instigated an evaluatory pilot programme of school-based social and health services in four '*ethnically different neighbourhoods of four Texas cities*' (Holtzman, 1997, p.381). In addition to high incidences of poverty, crime, and unemployment, it was said that:

> *The community had virtually no medical, social or recreational facilities, and many families lacked the knowledge or resources to take advantage of the few services that did exist. In the schools, attendance, achievement and parent involvement were all low* (Iscoe, 1997, p.9).

The second contribution to the collaborative approach developed out of the Dallas school board's (simultaneous) consideration of approaches designed to '*deliver social and health services to students and their families throughout the district*' (Iscoe, 1997, p.8). (The aims of the two emergent programmes are presented in Vignette 11.)

Vignette 11: Re-conceptualisation of service delivery: The School of the Future Youth and Family Impact Centre	
Hogg Foundation's aims	**Dallas School District's aims**
• The integration of a broad spectrum of health and human services in public schools • Involvement of parents and teachers in programme activities • Involvement of public and private organisations as partners • A strong commitment to the project by superintendents principals, and other school administrators • A willingness to participate in the evaluation of the project	• Provide a cluster of district services at selected schools – range of ages – serving students and their families • Establish problem-solving teams on each campus to address individual needs of students and their families – train staff and parents in problem-solving and team-building • Develop a cluster of community services to meet the needs of neighbourhood families and make them accessible through schools. • Involve family members and school staff in identifying needs and in the planning process • Evaluate the impact of the programme in terms of attendance achievement, behaviour changes, increased parental involvement, availability and utilisation of community services.
Source: Iscoe, L., (1997).	

Given the commonalities and recognition of the compatibility of the two emerging concepts and approaches, the Hogg Foundation and the Dallas School District developed a coordinated initiative. '*The coordination of services, building renovation and of programme acceptance by school personnel and the community*' has been recognised as the key concept of this approach (Iscoe, 1997, p.11). The sequence and stages of the School of the Future's development have been presented in the literature, reflecting a planned, grounded and methodical process. Holtzman (1997) noted that a suitable assessment of need underpinned the School of the Future in which individual sites conducted needs assessment exercises and instigated discussion groups. Iscoe (1997) also noted that one survey was conducted by a community service agency and the other by neighbourhood parents (with help and training from the Hogg Foundation). The Hogg Foundation also supported these attempts with a survey of it's own, revealing that community members concurred that they wanted child care, jobs, health services, recreation and other '*wellness*' (Iscoe, 1997, p.14) activities in order to meet needs.

Having generated understandings of the needs, the means of satisfying them were addressed, and amongst the most significant factors, were the physical locations themselves. The School District bought a vacant retail site and, and with accessibility the prime consideration, established two schools, and provided appropriate space for other agencies and service providers. Having established the sites, there then followed high levels of communication and negotiation with the agencies and individuals identified as being able to '*fit into the centre and best meet the community's needs*' (Iscoe, 1997, p.13). Holtzman (1997) discussed the agencies

included, and services on offer through the School of the Future, and noted that the pre-school years were the most critical in human development. Consequently, the School of the Future addressed issues of family support and child rearing through pre-school readiness programmes. Iscoe (1997) noted that the first agency to move into the site aimed to provide for eligible pre-school children from low-income families in the area. The second agency addressed another identified need, that of jobs for young people. The Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) programme joined the School of the Future in 1992 and although it did not occupy space in the main site, representatives were on site from January throughout the spring to provide information and training for 16–21-year-olds. In terms of health provision, a satellite of a local hospital was built in close proximity to the main building and other health service agencies joined the scheme, including a volunteer agency worked to prevent child abuse and neglect.

The School of the Future was said to have made full use of its infrastructure in that, after the agencies closed at the end of the 'working' day, other providers came in which, offering parenting education, family therapy and group counselling for adults and older children. Iscoe (1997) contended that: '*By coordinating the sharing of space, the School of the Future is able to bring twice as many services on site as it would if each agency had sole use of its rooms*' (p.21).

5.2.5 Family resources and youth service centres: Kentucky

Other contributors to the literature have focused on the legislative considerations and implications underpinning full service school delivery. Carlson *et al*. (1995) and Olasov and Petrillo (1994) discussed, in detail, the development of the school-based centres that were provided for in The Kentucky Education Reform Act (1990). This legislation enabled the establishment of initiatives in economically deprived areas that would address basic needs of children and their families, aimed at enhancing the children's health and their ability to learn. This Act was thus seen as a response to the educational underachievement of children in poorer districts of Kentucky, and it was recognised that:

> *Education and health for children are inextricably intertwined. A student who is not healthy, who suffers from an undetected vision or hearing defect, or who is hungry, or is impaired by drugs or alcohol, is not a student who will profit from the educational process* (Olasov and Petrillo, 1994, p.59).

This legislation mandated the development of Family Resource Centres, based at or near elementary schools, and Youth Service Centres based at or near schools serving students aged 12 years of age or over. The remit of the Centres was deemed to be to '*assist children, youth, and families in meeting basic health and social needs, thereby enhancing students abilities to succeed in school and in life*' (Olasov and Petrillo, 1994, p.59). Both the Family Resource Centres and the Youth Service Centres aimed to identify problems, provide referrals and support either on site, or in partnership with related community agencies, in terms of physical, psychological, and social health, academic and family issues. The services on offer were presented as being targeted towards specific user groups. For example, Family Centres serving children younger than ll and their family had a duty to provide assistance with child care and were also required to offer parenting skills training and health and education services

for new or expectant parents. Youth Service Centres, sought to provide youngsters with training, work placements and employment counselling, in addition to the health remit of alcohol and substance misuse treatment. Olasov and Petrillo (1994) highlighted the community ownership of the Centres as being a key feature of their success: each was said to be governed by an advisory board comprising students, school staff and community representatives. This board was responsible for selecting the Centre staff, including various combinations of the Centre Director, school nurses, child psychologist, teachers and administrative staff. Olasov and Petrillo (1994) contended that '*integrating health and academic achievement constitutes the "heart and soul" of the Family Resource and Youth Services Centres*' (p.61). Each Centre was viewed as having developed a unique way of working and providing a suitable range of services according to the specific needs and challenges of the community. As with all full-service school delivery initiatives, success was seen to be dependent on the willingness and ability of the community to work collaboratively.

5.3 Overview

It can thus be seen that some full-service school initiatives are designed around, and focus on, the mode of delivery, with emphasis on increased collaboration and multi-agency cooperation. Others focus on supporting the pupils in school, through curriculum support, health and mental health issues, whilst others concentrate more on the wider social issues of family and community needs. Notwithstanding the particular approach, all the examples highlighted, have been understood and presented as representing the embodiment of full-service school principles and values.

The key features permeating literature pertaining to full-service school delivery in the American context can be summarised as:

- Recognition of the need to meet all the needs of children as a basis for increasing educational opportunities.

- Recognition of the need to encourage and involve the community in meeting their own needs and the needs of children.

- Recognition of the centrality of multi-agency working in order to effectively address the multiple and inter-linked problems of children and communities.

- Recognition of the need to make optimum use of school resources and facilities.

Key points

- The literature indicates that there is a diverse range of frameworks for full-service school provision in the USA reflecting commitment from many levels of administration and delivery. These include individual schools, agencies, service providers, school boards, and regional legislative authorities.

- Some full-service school approaches are manifested as initiatives that extend the remit and programmes already existing within particular school environments by supplying additional services and facilities. School-based clinics and Family Service Centres act to support young people and their families in optimising their educational opportunities.

- Other full-service school approaches involve the complete re-conceptualisation and re-organisation of the way in which health and education services are delivered. These approaches involve attempts to transform the school site into a central component of its community through the integrated and coordinated delivery of health, education and human services.

- Accessibility and inclusion, flexibility and relevance are key features of integrated full-service school delivery. Sites, the curriculum and services on offer, are designed to be as open and meaningful/useful as possible to their intended consumers.

- The literature suggests that full-service school approaches have been adopted and applied in city and state-wide contexts, reflecting the importance of this mode of delivery, and the political commitment to it. Some initiatives have been enshrined in local legislative transformations.

Section 6

School-based approaches in the UK

6.1   Introduction

As in the American context, it is evident that there are many initiatives and approaches to service delivery that expand the role and character of schools and education. Ball (1998), for example, provided an overview of the relationships between schools and their communities within the UK by drawing on existing literature and on primary research based on interviews with personnel in, for example, central and local government, national and local organisations, and schools. Ball also made reference to various initiatives in order to highlight the way in which other agencies (e.g. police, social services, health, business) worked with schools and families to improve partnership and personal development.

The following discussion highlights examples of such partnerships, coordination and development of the extent and scope of school-based service delivery, encompassing initiatives providing site-based additional facilities and services, to broader reconceptualisations of the way in which education, health and other social/human services are orientated, connected and delivered.

6.2   Integrated approaches

The **Community School**, based on a holistic approach, increased inclusion and widening participation, has been suggested by Ball (1998) to be characterised by an emphasis on, and commitment to, principles of education as an inclusive, lifelong process. The roots of the community school approach have been located in English educational history of the 1920s and the concept of the 'village college'. Village colleges have been conceptualised as having the potential to be '*the centre of learning, culture and social life*' (Ball, 1998, p. 51). This philosophy is said to have spread in '*a series of fits and starts*' (p.51) across the UK, and Ball estimated that by 1998 there were between 800 and 1,000 schools of this type in the UK.

The premises of contemporary community schools remain open and accessible after hours and at weekends in order to facilitate and encourage adult participation in learning, often alongside children. Ball has suggested that such schools constitute '*a learning facility both for adults and children; inclusive, rather than specialist, flexible and responsive to the needs of the community, rather than rigid and authoritarian*' (Ball, 1998, p.51).

Reflecting movements in America, the infrastructure of the school – the 'plant' facilities, including workshops, music and drama workshops, and meeting spaces – have thus been seen to be utilised to their optimum capacity for the benefit of the community. Hence, a wide variety of activities were said to be on offer in a community school, consolidating the school's role as '*a place where everyone will*

find something to suit their needs' (Ball, 1998, p.53). It is deemed important that the school is presented as being '*a convivial place to which people of all ages want to come'* (Ball, 1998, p.52).

In a critique of the state of American education systems, Murphy (1993) referenced the benefits of full-service school delivery models currently operating, but contended that the idea of schools as more than just a place where children receive an education has long been a tradition in Great Britain. He stated that about half of the LEAs in the UK have community schools, a concept he regarded as:

> *A cure for educational irrelevance. While they are sources for continuing education for some adults, they also function as full-service social support systems for all residents ... These schools have become the dynamic hearts of their communities and a proving ground for innovation* (Murphy, 1993, p. 646).

Community colleges have been described as exhibiting specific links and relationships with social/human service providers. Brett (1987), for example, highlighted an 11-18 community college with a highly developed interagency approach underpinning the operation of a support services team, characterised by regular coordination and liaison meetings. The agencies involved included social services; probation; the EWO; the educational psychologist attached to the college; the school nurse; a local community police officer; a representative of the Police Juvenile Liaison Bureau and members of the college teaching staff. The deputy head of the college was seen as linking the work of the support services team into the pastoral work of the college, reflecting a '*formal structure of support'* (Brett, 1987, p.200).

Vignette 12: UK Models: Community Schools/Colleges

Ethos/aim:
To provide inclusive, flexible and appropriate learning facilities easily accessible to all members of the community.

Activities/content:
- The activities and services on offer reflect the needs and requirements of pupils/students and the community.
- Relevant and appropriate health, social and human support services are readily available and operate in an integrated, coordinated manner.

Benefits:
- Support for school/college staff in dealing with 'non-educational' issues
- Easily accessible network of support and information – e.g. in relation to changes in pupils'/students' personal circumstances which may impact on behaviour
- Closer and improved working relationships between professionals leads to the provision of higher quality services for clients

Source: Brett, 1987.

In addition to community schools, the concept of **New Community Schools** in Scotland has figured significantly in more recent UK literature. Writers such as Tett

(2000), Sammons *et al.* (2000), Smith (2001b), for example, have outlined the background to the New Community Schools (NCS) Programme. This initiative, a component of the Scottish Executive's wider Social Inclusion Strategy, has been seen as highlighting the '*interconnected*' nature of social problems and '*the inadequacy of fragmented approaches to these problems*' (Sammons *et al.,* 2000, p.4). Similar problems were noted in England by the DfEE's Schools Plus Policy Action Team, whose aim, as mentioned earlier, was to identify '*the most cost-effective Schools Plus approaches to using schools as a focus for other community services, reducing failure at school*' (DfEE, 2000, p.8). In pursuit of this aim, the Policy Action Team visited schools and, as noted in Section 3, reported on the difficulties some of them faced as a result of the disadvantage experienced by pupils and families in deprived areas. The Policy Action Team referenced the good practice in this area exemplified in the American context and noted that New Community Schools had begun to tackle such issues in striving to provide a more integrated service for pupils and families.

Smith (2001b) noted that the New Community School approach was intended '*to raise attainment and promote social inclusion*', ([online]. www. infed.org/schooling/s-newcs.htm [29 January 2002]) and was founded on the notion that a range of services was necessary to help children overcome the barriers to learning they faced. The New Community School initiative was believed to constitute a vehicle for ensuring that effective support, rather than bureaucratic procedures, inefficiencies and numerous referrals, was available. The initiative thus was said to:

> *... embody the fundamental principle that the potential of all children can be realised only by addressing their needs in the round – and that this requires an integrated approach by all those involved* (Smith, 2001b, [online]. www.infed.org/schooling/s-newcs.htm [29 January 2002]).

Moves in America towards such an inclusive schools approach, based on meeting the holistic needs of young people, led Sammons *et al.* (2000) to contend that such a full-service school approach was influential in the early stages of Scottish policy formation. This relationship was noted in the Scottish Office's prospectus regarding the piloting of the New Community School programme (1998). The New Community Schools programme has been presented as an area-based approach to combating disadvantage in which there is '*a clear policy focus on linking education, health and social services*' representing '*a significant and innovative attempt to use a community based approach to modernise schools, raise attainment, improve health and promote social inclusion*' (Sammons *et al.*, 2000, p.2).

Although the programme was initially designed to operate in the most highly disadvantaged areas (unlike the community school approach that emerged in the 1920s), it has been contended that its fundamental principles are applicable and transferable to other schools in other areas (Scottish Office, 1998). The prospectus issued by the Scottish Office (1998) presented the essential components, principles and issues on which the New Community Schools programme was based, as being:

- *A focus on the needs of all pupils at the school*
- *Engagement with families*
- *Engagement with the wider community*

- *Integrated provision of school education, informal as well as formal education, social work and health education and promotion services*
- *Integrated management*
- *Arrangements for the delivery of these services according to a set of integrated objectives and measurable outcomes*
- *Commitment and leadership*
- *Multi-disciplinary training and staff development* (Scottish Office, 1998, [online] www.scotland.gov.uk/library/documents-w3ncsp-00.htm [23 January, 2003]).

As in the case of full-service schools in America, one of the key features of the New Community Schools programme is the flexibility underlying the structural framework of the initiative, allowing each element to construct and deliver an approach relevant to, and suitable for meeting, perceived local need. The prospectus noted that '*Diversity of approach and local ownership are key features*' (Scottish Office, 1998, [online] www.scotland.gov.uk/library/documents-w3ncsp-00.htm [23 January, 2003]). As such, individual projects within the programme could take a variety of forms, including single primary or secondary school sites or they may have comprised a cluster, consisting of groups of primary and nursery schools, or family centres and secondary schools with their associated primary schools. Meeting local need was seen as a priority, operationalised via the provision of health, social and educational services through the medium of an integrated team.

Vignette 13: UK Models: New Community Schools

Ethos/aim:
New Community Schools represent a component of wider social inclusion strategies, reflecting the recognition of the inter-connected nature of social and educational problems and the inability of isolated remedial approaches. The concept aims '*to raise attainment and promote social inclusion*' (Smith, 2001b).

Activities/content:
Integrated support services and facilities are provided for pupils and families to address social, health and mental health, and other human issues necessary as a basis for improving educational and social outcomes.

Benefits:
- A flexible and holistic approach to meeting needs.
- Strategic management and coordination of a wide range of diverse, previously isolated services.
- Involvement, inclusion and encouragement of the community in order to develop notions of 'community ownership' of New Community Schools.

Sources: Sammons *et al.*, 2000; Scottish Office, 1998; Smith, 2001b.

The literature contains other examples of coordinated attempts to meet the diverse and complex needs of local populations through the integration of social, human and educational services. Wigfall and Moss (2000), for example, examined the development of **the Coram Community Campus** in a deprived area of London. This initiative was described as '*A group of voluntary and statutory organisations working*

together to provide a "one-stop shop" for local families' (Pugh, 1999 quoted in Wigfall and Moss, 2000, p.5). The 'one-stop shop' concept was defined as an initiative '*capable of supplying all a customer's needs within a particular range of goods or services ...in one place'* (Wigfall and Moss, 2000, p.2). Facilities and services on offer throughout the three-acre site included:

- a 108-place local authority nursery (designated an Early Excellence Centre in 1999)
- a parents' centre
- a 20-place parent-managed community nursery
- a special needs charity working with children with disability and their families
- two voluntary sector projects for homeless families incorporating a family day centre and an advice centre
- a small primary school for autistic children.

The significance of this particular initiative is regarded to have stemmed from '*the combination of services and activities and the degree to which they in fact operate in practice as a network of closely integrated relationships on the site'* (Wigfall and Moss, 2000, p.8). The one-stop shop was said to operate within the Coram Community Campus on two levels. Firstly, families were able to access services from several different projects, and secondly, they were able to access a number of different activities or services within a single project. Wigfall and Moss referred to this as the '*pick and mix'* (p.9), and evaluation revealed that over one-third of those interviewed had accessed more than one service provider on the Campus, while others anticipated becoming multiple users. Similarly, it was noted that more than half of the interviewees had engaged in at least three different activities within the campus illustrating the effectiveness of co-locating diverse, but integrated services.

Vignette 14: UK Models: The Coram Community Campus

Aim/ethos:
- To provide a 'one-stop shop' approach to service delivery where a comprehensive range of integrated services is offered to the community through easily accessible, linked sites.
- To ensure effective management of the cross-sectoral working between agencies and professionals and to coordinate the work of statutory and voluntary service providers.

Activities/content:
The provision of a network of services for children and families encompassing a wide range of mainstream and specific educational facilities, health and human services.

Benefits:
This approach sought to reach elements of the community that may otherwise not be able, or willing to access the services they needed. This was achieved through a commitment to specialist outreach work and attempts to involve parents in the content and management of initiatives and facilities

Source: Wigfall and Moss, 2000.

6.3   Age-targeted initiatives

The literature also contains many examples of other initiatives, programmes and approaches to delivering services to the point of need via collaboration and multi-agency working. The following initiatives represent a selection of some of the schemes devised to target the particular needs of pupils of particular ages. Following aspects of the literature pertaining to the American context, early intervention and redressing the problems faced by young children and their families appears to be of great importance in the UK context. It is evident that considerably more attention is given to early and primary years interventions.

Initiatives targeted at young children include Early Excellence Centres (EECs), which were introduced following the White Paper '*Excellence in Schools*' (DfEE, 1997). Campbell (2001), noted that the notion of 'joined-up services', underpinned by the idea of 'one-stop shops' was piloted through this approach to service integration and good '*educare*' practice. Anning (2001), referred to the multi-agency workforce as '*integrated educare*' workers. The importance of health service delivery in the early years of a child's development was particularly stated by Ball (1998

Makins (1997) located the origins of Early Years Centres in the development of the combined nursery in the 1970s which attempted to break down the barriers between education, health and social service providers as well as providing more flexible and accessible services for parents. It has been contended that the potential of such centres has become more evident, leading to many examples of effective practice of one-stop shop, co-located service provision. When describing the work of such centres in the UK, Makins' discussion is contextualised by a consideration of the increasing numbers of pupils being excluded from schools – especially primary schools. It has been noted that such centres not only had life-enhancing potential for parents and their children, but could also be effective in preventing '*expensive crisis intervention when educational and social problems have taken root*' (p.166), as well as juvenile offending (Makins, 1997).

Vignette 15: UK Models: Initiatives targeted at young children

Ethos/aim:
- To provide integrated and coordinated services for pupils and parents. Health service provision was seen as an important aspect of this.
- To facilitate early identification of problems and early intervention as a means of preventing further escalation, e.g. in relation to academic failure and school exclusions.
- To generate positive and effective experiences of school/education from an early age.

Key features:
- Flexible to local needs
- Open access: they are open to all families and take a mixture of 'mainstream' families and those in need. This avoids stigma and allows the families to support each other, not just be in receipt of services.
- Parent involvement and support: in order to increase parent's knowledge and understanding of their children's development and education, thus increasing confidence and self-esteem.
- Adult education and training: parents often welcome opportunities for education and training for themselves so consolidating the importance and relevance of the centre.
- Valuable role of outreach work in order to access all those who need the services on offer.

Ball (1998) argued that there was evidence suggesting that support **for children in middle childhood** was less developed than that for both younger and older children. Projects were said to be likely to be focused on preventive education, such as '*to influence personal development and attitudes to sexual behaviour, drug use and criminal activity*' (Ball, 1998, p.23), for example. Projects were also seen to link the school with leisure and recreation departments and voluntary organisations in order to provide such activities.

In terms of **secondary-age pupils**, Ball noted the presence of links between secondary schools and agencies employing a 'youth service' approach. Such partnership projects, which may have involved a whole range of agencies, were said to be based in both education and social services settings. Most were said to be short-term interventions aimed at reducing levels of exclusion, and it was suggested that there were few initiatives of this type working with parents (Ball, 1998).

Ainley (2001) presented an evaluation of a Connexions pilot in one London borough which, believed to be illustrative of '*the present government's "experimental" approach to social policy development*' (p. 1). This approach was deemed to encourage the delivery of new services and the refiguring of existing ones to meet changing needs, especially of those aged 13-19 years old. This approach integrated careers, LEA youth and community services, voluntary sector agencies, secondary schools and FE and collaborated with YOTs, social services and health including mental health teams. The significance of this approach stemmed from the role of the Personal Advisor, responsible for '*for ensuring all the needs of a young person are met in an integrated and coherent manner*' (DfEE, 2000, p.35). The role of the Personal Advisor, and some of the difficulties surrounding it were discussed by Watts (2001).

In a similar manner, Vulliamy and Webb (1999) and Webb and Vulliamy (2001) examined the rhetoric and practice of interagency cooperation, based on a project which placed social work-trained home-school support workers in secondary schools. This project aimed to reduce the number of exclusions from school of students with challenging behaviour, and to ensure a cohesive local authority response in order to address their needs. The project was located in two authorities – four urban areas in a mainly rural county and one northern city. It was managed by the Pupil and Parent Support Services in the two authorities. Five full-time school-based home-school support workers were working in seven schools, two were each based in one secondary school, two serviced two secondary schools each and one was based in a middle school. The support workers were to:

- Carry out casework with pupils
- Support the younger siblings and families of those pupils
- Provide an immediate response to crises in school that might result in exclusion

- Help the establishment of whole-school policies re behaviour
- Initiate development work
- Build effective links with social services, health and other agencies
  (Webb and Vulliamy, 2001)

Vignette 16: UK Models: Initiatives targeted at middle and secondary age pupils

Aims and activities:
- For young people in 'middle childhood', initiatives were designed to enhance personal/social development as a means of preventing difficulties and problems during later stages of their school careers. Voluntary agencies were seen as key agencies involved in delivering services – often leisure and recreation-orientated – to this age group.

- Initiatives for older children, initiatives were deemed to be orientated towards addressing issues of behaviour management, exclusion and offending behaviour. A wider range of voluntary and professional services were involved, with initiatives displaying a high degree of multi-agency working and cooperation. Agencies included social services, police and Youth Offending Team workers, and specialist workers, such as home-school support workers and Connexions' Personal Advisors

Source: Ainley, 2001.

6.4   Site-based additional facilities and services

It is also apparent from literature pertaining to the UK context that pupils and their families have been offered additional services beyond the traditional school/education framework and remit.   Ball (1998), for example, detailed 'Wrap around' provision and noted that the provision of after-school care has traditionally been based on parents and local community organisers with the aim of promoting '*the well-being of the child and family rather than to improve educational achievement*' (p.42).   In deprived areas, breakfast and before-school clubs are seen as an important way of enabling children '*to participate fully during the school day*' (p.42). Similarly, the inclusion of specific health-based initiatives in schools has been noted. Dowling and Osborne (1994), for example, detailed the development of a school-based outreach service established in primary schools in the early 1980s, offering family and educational therapy based on the assumptions:

- *That the service would attract a population who would not normally make use of conventional clinic-based services.*
- *That such a service would have a preventive function.   Parents and teachers would seek consultation about the difficulties presented by children before they became sufficiently serious to warrant referral to an outside agency* (Dowling and Osborne, 1994, p.60).

The key features permeating literature relating to full-service school delivery in the UK context can be summarised as:

- Recognition of the interconnected nature of problems faced by children and families.

- Recognition of the potential role of the school in its community and the need to provide locally relevant services and facilities.

- Recognition of the need to make education and social service delivery as accessible as possible, including taking services to clients through outreach schemes.

- Recognition of the need for a combined, varied and flexible approach to service delivery based on multi-agency working and coordination.

Key points
- There is a diverse array of initiatives conforming to the full-service school approach. Local initiatives, such as the Village College approach of the 1920s, have been presented as forerunners to more strategic interventions, such as Community Schools.
- Attempts to promote social well-being and meeting the needs of local populations as a means of promoting educational achievement underpin the philosophy of full-service schools in the UK context.
- A holistic approach to meeting the needs of young people and their families, combined with integrated, co-located multi-agency working characterises many approaches to full-service school delivery.
- Accessibility and local relevance of sites and their services and content are deemed to be essential components of full-service schools which help to consolidate their role within, and relationship with, their communities.
- Many initiatives within the broad spectrum of full-service school delivery in the UK context are oriented towards meeting specifically defined needs, such as early-years interventions.

Section 7

Issues and implications of full-service/extended school delivery

7.1   Difficulties, barriers and challenges

A considerable section of the literature presents accounts of practitioners' experiences of the difficulties and challenges associated with full-service or extended-school service delivery (Huxham, 1996; Coltoff *et al.,* 1997; Raham, 1998; 2000; Tett, 2000). Taken from individual reviews, the following emerge as the most significant issues:

- '*Turf*'. Difficulties may arise over issues of ownership of the infrastructure and site in which the full-service or extended school is located (Dryfoos 1995b, 1996; Calfee *et al.*, 1998; Iscoe). Problems relating to job description and demarcation have also been described as 'turf' issues. Raham (1998), for example, noted that 'turf warfare', '*interjurisdictional battles*' and '*the powerful politics of agency budgeting and authority can hinder collaboration*' (p.28).

- '*Governance*'. Dryfoos (1995b) noted that the more complex the model of service delivery, the more demanding the administrative arrangements are required to be. That is, '*sophisticated collaborative organizations*' are called for, devoid of their '*parochial loyalties*' (p.9). Dryfoos noted that the amount of time needed for the development of this special kind of '*union*' and the collaboration underpinning it should not be underestimated. Autonomy has also been cited as an important component of a full-service school. It has been argued that a lack of autonomy and a lack of '*site-based decision-making powers*' challenges the effectiveness of this approach (Raham, 1998).

- '*Funding*'.   Accessing funding for the development of full-service or extended schools has been presented as a significant challenge. Raham (1998) suggested, for example, that '*school administrators frequently lack experience in grant proposal writing and in attracting joint funding*' (p.28).   In Atkinson *et al's* (2002) study, funding and resources emerged as a major challenge to multi-agency working. Within this interviewees identified three main concerns: conflicts over funding within or between agencies; a general lack of funding; and concerns about sustainability. At the same time, Grossman *et al.* (2002) warned that burgeoning after-school programmes were likely to exacerbate '*the challenge of raising both cash and non-cash funding ... as more programs compete for limited resources*' (p.vi).

- '*Training*'. As a result of the wide-ranging scope of a full-service or extended school's remit, concerns have been raised regarding the suitability of staff. In a discussion of the barriers to success, Raham (1998), for example, stated that '*few professionals are trained to work in an integrated service delivery system ... the*

gap between the supply of skilled cross disciplinary professionals and the needs of the system is problematic' (p.28).

- '*Controversy and reluctance*'. Some writers have also suggested that the very foundations and core elements of the full-service or extended school approach may be problematic. Dryfoos (1996) noted the possibility of resistance to the notion of using school premises for purposes other than 'education'. Similarly, Iscoe, in reviewing the development of the School of the Future, suggested that there may be initial suspicion of, and reluctance to become involved in, 'new' and different initiatives. Calfee *et al.*, (1998) specifically referred to parental resistance and underlined the need for accurate information and communication.

- '*Differences in aims, cultures and procedures*'. Differences in the agency culture in which practice took place was identified as problematic (Huxham, 1996; Atkinson *et al.*, 2002; Makins, 1997). Alongside cultural differences, specific policy and procedural differences were also reported to have an effect on the success of multi-agency working or collaboration (Atkinson *et al.*, 2002; Huxham, 1996). Similarly, Makins (1997) and Atkinson *et al.* (2001) identified differences in legislation as a barrier to setting up joint services.

- '*Overload*' or increased workload was raised as a challenge within the literature (Calfee *et al.*, 1998; PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2001b). The latter's report on the role of teachers in EAZs referred to the additional work that could be created by providing activities before and after school, at weekends or for summer schemes, and called for a balance between '*creating opportunity for those that want it, without it becoming a "normal" and expected part of teachers' work*' (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2001b, p.8).

- '*Impossibility*' Calfee *et al.* (1998) referred to the myth of impossibility – something being '*just too complicated*' (p.17) and went on to urge their readers to dispel these by providing valid information, which presents an accurate picture and turns opposition to support.

7.2 Advice for practitioners

Much of the literature contains insights into, and experiences of, attempts to establish full-service/extended schools that focus on the practicalities of development and implementation. Notwithstanding the difficulties of full-service or extended delivery, several writers have offered advice and guidance on establishing a full-service/extended school model. Much of this centres around being grounded and attempting to adequately assess, then meet the needs of the intended recipients and users of the full-service or extended school. Planning and research are seen as vital (Hoover and Achilles, 1996; Coltoff *et al.,* 1997; Calfee *et al.,* 1998). The conclusion to Calfee *et al.* (1998), for example, suggested that reading their book constituted the first step towards building a full-service school. Understanding the concept and how the community can benefit from it are seen as essential to the success of any venture. The authors quote Dryfoos proposing that:

> *Full-service schools are indeed the wave of the future. They are responsive to today's problems. They are potentially cost-effective. And they are well*

received by students, parents and school people (Dryfoos, 1994, quoted in Calfee *et al*., 1998, p.131).

The tools provided in the book are said to offer a step-by-step guide to the construction of a full-service school, with the necessary '*nuts and bolts*' (Calfee *et al*., p.132) contained within the 'Resources' section, many of which were available in electronic media formats. The authors concluded by noting that the State of Florida has proved that '*it can be done*' (p.132), 327 full-service schools are listed in 66 districts, serving nearly 300,000 students and 55,000 families. The authors offer the advice '*Be patient. Be flexible. Keep your sense of humor*' (p.132).

Dryfoos (1993) advised those wishing to embark upon full-service school service delivery to visit existing models, to engage in careful planning and to secure the cooperation and involvement of colleagues in accessing federal support. Dryfoos (1994) offered an ideal model of a full-service school (represented in Vignette 18 below) that brings together and co-locates quality education and support services:

Vignette 18: Example of an ideal full-service school: a one-stop, collaborative institution	
Quality education provided by schools	**Support services provided by community agencies**
Effective basic skills	Health screening and services
Individualised instruction	Dental services
Team teaching	Family planning
Cooperative learning	Individual counselling
School-based management	Substance abuse treatment
Healthy school climate	Mental health services
Alternatives to tracking	Nutrition/weight management
Parent involvement	Referral with follow-up
Effective discipline	Basic services: housing food, clothes
	Recreation, sports, culture
Provided by schools or community agencies	Mentoring
	Family welfare services
Comprehensive health education	Parent education, literacy
Health promotion	Child care
Social skills training	Employment training/jobs
Preparation for the world of work (life planning)	Case management
	Crisis intervention
	Community policing
Source: Dryfoos, 1994, p.13.	

Key points

♦ A considerable section of the literature presents accounts of practitioners' experiences of the difficulties and challenges associated with full-service or extended-school service delivery.

♦ From individual reviews the following emerge as the most significant issues: '*Turf*' (e.g. ownership of the infrastructure and site); Governance; Funding; Training; Controversy and reluctance (e.g. resistance to using school premises for non-educational activities); Differences in aims, cultures and procedures; Overload (or increased workload); and Impossibility (something being '*just too complicated*' (Calfee *et al*., 1998, p.17).

♦ Much of the literature contains insights into, and experiences of, attempts to establish full-service/extended schools that focus on the practicalities of development and implementation.

♦ Planning and research are seen as vital as are understanding the concept and how the community can benefit from it. For example, Dryfoos (1993) advised those wishing to embark upon full-service school service delivery to visit existing models, to engage in careful planning and to secure the cooperation and involvement of colleagues in accessing federal support

Section 8

Concluding comments

The following main themes emerged from this review of the literature:

♦ USA literature appears to approach the concept of full-service or extended schooling in a promotional, celebratory manner. Several sources expound its virtues or merits, and are permeated with such terms as '*pioneering*'; '*innovative*'; '*revitalised*', '*exciting*'; '*radical*' and '*dynamic*'. Full-service or extended schools are often represented as a great advancement on what has gone before, able to respond to the reality of contemporary problems, thus offering hope for a better, more positive future (Coltoff *et al*., 1997; Iscoe, 1977; Olasov and Petrillo, 1994).

♦ Literature from the USA is characterised by a wide variety of interpretations of the full-service school as a model of service delivery, ranging from fully integrated/reconceptualised systems to smaller-scale extensions or additions to the traditional remit of individual schools.

♦ Following the continuum of full-service schooling identified by Dryfoos (1994), many existing models within the UK can be seen to conform more closely to the latter of the above interpretations e.g. breakfast clubs, after-school clubs.

♦ Equally, UK models appear to adopt a more educationally focused approach (e.g. family literacy, adult computer classes) rather than the socio-economically driven approach (e.g. family therapy, drug counselling, crisis intervention) more prevalent in USA literature.

♦ The underlying premise of full-service/extended schools is commonly understood to be one of partnership. USA literature appears to emphasise more strongly partnerships between health, particularly mental health, and education providers, as illustrated by the Hogg Foundation for Mental Health's involvement in the School of the Future.

♦ In USA literature the reorganisation of service delivery appears to rest on the use of schools as a vehicle through which integrated services can be delivered to the community on a single site. However, in the UK, extended schools seek to provide a range of services as an extension to their traditional educational role.

♦ There would appear to be little systematic, rigorous evaluation of the concept and its implementation. Indeed, many of the essential factors or components identified within the literature such as 'clear, common aims and purpose'; 'strong leadership'; 'consistent long-term funding'; 'effective communication' could be said to be essential for any multi-agency project or initiative. Given this lack of

rigour, opportunities therefore still exist for a more systematic and critical approach, which will then contribute to currently available UK literature.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Key factors/components of extended schools

	Study	Location
COMMON AIMS AND VISION Clear, common purpose and goals; '*shared vision*'	Bradshaw (2001) Tett (2000) Coltoff *et al* (1997)	Australia UK USA
'***Partners***' (*not tenants*) and being open to the possibility of other partners	Coltoff *et al* (1997) Coltoff *et al* (1997)	USA USA
Long term commitment	Hoover and Achilles (1996)	USA
All services and components of programme ultimately link to education improvement and success, a commitment to better learning outcomes for all students	Semmens (1999)	Australia
A recognition of social as well as academic goals	Tett (2000)	UK
		UK
Diversity of approach and local ownership	Scottish Office (1998)	

GOVERNANCE Schools have authority and autonomy to enter partnerships, including financial, administrative and managerial control; appropriate governance structure recognising FSS is a *highly complex organisation*, lead agency is usually public school	Raham (1998, 2000) Ringers and Decker (1995)	USA USA USA
Leadership, commitment from principal; sanction from '*supra systems*' (making sure senior managers approve and support idea)	Melaville and Blank (2000) Dryfoos (1993, 1994) Scottish Office (1998) Dowling and Osborne (1994)	USA UK UK
Strong and outstanding leadership; ability to coordinate multiple people and agencies	Bradshaw (2001) Dryfoos (1993,1994) Raham (1998, 2000) Dolan (1996) Makins (1997)	Australia USA USA USA UK
Accepting need for leadership	Bradshaw (2001)	Australia
Joint governance structure – joint decision making; advisory board with a broad representative base/stakeholder inclusion; integrated management; programming determined by a council of participating agencies and representative community advisory groups	Dryfoos (1994, 1995a) Hardy (1996) Olasov and Petrillo (1994) Scottish Office (1998) Ringers and Decker (1995)	USA USA USA UK USA
Planned and operated through participative planning processes, involving representative cross section of community	Ringers and Decker (1995)	USA
Time to develop special '*union*'	Dryfoos (1995b)	USA
Consider the role of Local Authority in bringing services together	Dowling and Osborne(1994)	UK
ADMINISTRATION Coordinator or programme director to integrate services with school and community agencies	Dryfoos (1993)	USA
Coordinator who is *highly motivated, professionally trained, indigenous to culture being served*	Holzmann (1997)	USA
Administered by a unit manager with advice from program managers from participating	Ringers and Decker (1995)	USA

agencies		
Flexible management structures to manage staff from different backgrounds	Campbell (2001)	UK
FUNDING Shared resources	Ainley (2001)	UK
Winning additional sources of funding	Ainley (2001)	UK
Funding for work shadowing between agencies	Anning (2001)	UK
Managing resources well	Bradshaw (2001)	Australia
Mixed funding (private, state) and '*payment in kind from community*'	Carlson *et al* (1995) Dryfoos (1993)	USA USA
State support	Dryfoos (1993)	USA
Long-term funding	DfEE (2000)	UK
Local employer sponsorship	DfEE (2000)	UK
Consistent funding	Hardy (1996)	USA
Creative and joint funding opportunities sought by project leaders	Hoover and Achilles (1996)	USA
Funded separately	Ringers and Decker (1995)	USA
Budget subject to regular review by all participating agencies	Ringers and Decker (1995)	USA
PUBLICITY AND DISSEMINATION Publically communicating the value of the programme for the school; high media profile	Dolan (1996) Elder (1999)	USA USA
Communicate objectives; ensure publicity about service	Dowling and Osborne (1994)	UK
Effective communication to the public of the programme and its service components	Hoover and Achilles (1996)	USA
COMMUNITY/PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT High level of parent and community involvement as partners; engagement with families and wider community	Coltoff *et al* (1997) Holtzman (1997) Scottish Office (1998)	USA USA UK

Advisory board including parents and community leaders	Dryfoos (1993)	USA
Support for Parents e.g. parenting classes	DfEE (2000)	UK
Parental involvement in children's learning	Dyson and Robson (1999) Makins (1997)	UK UK
Responsive to changes in need/demand; *paramount* is *family involvement in welfare of child*	Hoover and Achilles (1996)	USA
Offering outreach for those parents unable to attend centre	Makins (1997)	UK
Emphasis on community involvement; Community participation and ownership; Involvement of various community groups	Raham (1998, 2000) Semmens (1999) Soriano and Hong (1997)	USA Australia USA
Training for community workers, parents; training of parent and student advocates	Semmens (1999)	Australia
SCHOOL STAFF INVOLVEMENT AND TRAINING Teacher involvement and commitment; school staff '*supportive and knowledgeable*' about services	Holzman (1997) Melaville and Blank (2000) Hoover and Achilles (1996) Dolan (1996) Dolan (1996)	USA USA USA USA USA
School staff need convincing of value of providing services on site have; '*respect*' for the programme; then there are incentives for, and encouragement of, teachers	Dryfoos (1993, 1995a) Hoover and Achilles (1996) Raham (1998, 2000)	USA USA USA
Convince teachers new programmes '*will assist*', not '*add to workload*'	Raham (1998, 2000)	USA
Staff training needed; time for staff development and review is crucial	Dryfoos (1993, 1994, 1995a) Semmens (1999) Makins (1997)	USA Australia UK
Multi disciplinary training and staff development	Scottish Office (1998)	UK
APPROPRIATE LOCATION '*Territory*' – having a space so teachers and parents can be seen in private	Dowling and Osborne (1994)	UK

Designated space: schools to provide maintenance and security of location	Dryfoos (1993, 1994)	USA
Clarity, management of building (clarify ownership and responsibility issues)	Scottish Office (1998)	UK
CURRICULUM AND OUT OF HOURS LEARNING A commitment to seeing education as a life-long process – school has a role as a '*place where everyone will find something to meet their needs*'	Ball (1998)	UK
Extending choices for young people	Bradshaw (2001)	Australia
Extended school day , weekends and summer programmes	Coltoff *et al* (1997) Dryfoos (1993, 1994)	USA USA
Coordination of opening hours to provide access to full range of services; longer, more flexible day through variety of childcare	DfEE (2000)	UK
Consumer friendly, participative programmes – not viewed as only for troubled students; Open access	Dolan (1996) Makins (1997)	USA UK
Adult education and training	Makins (1997)	UK

MULTI-SERVICE ISSUES		
A team approach - Integrated provision of services and integrated response to needs and aspirations	Scottish Office (1998)	UK
Multi-agency team and school must streamline procedures for intake and service provision	Soriano and Hong (1997)	USA
Necessary balance between school involvement and need to bring in other agency expertise	Scottish Office (1998)	UK
Time for regular meetings, sharing experiences and ideas, networking; ongoing communication e.g. review meetings, feedback opportunities school and multi-agency team to meet to co-ordinate and exchange information	Anning (2001) Hardy (1996) Tett (2000) Dowling and Osborne (1994) Elder (1999) Soriano and Hong (1997)	UK USA UK UK USA USA
'Full-time staff, not FTE posts'	Elder (1999)	USA
School is a base for *voluntary* as well as statutory agencies	Ball (1998) DfEE (2000)	UK UK
Provide high quality support and training for those managing multi-agency teams	Campbell (2001)	UK
Consider mental health services as *essential* for school-based health clinics	Carlson *et al* (1995)	USA
Initial training for key workers; the understanding of the model's rationale, focus, function is facilitated by Inset and informal interaction	DfEE (2000) Soriano and Hong (1997)	UK USA
Clear lines of communication and responsibility between agencies; clearly identified system of accountability	Dolan (1996) Soriano and Hong (1997)	USA USA
Support system for workers	Dowling and Osborne (1994)	UK
Negotiation of confidentiality at the outset is central to planning collaborative approach	Hardy (1996)	USA
Mutual trust and respect especially between school principal and agency	Hoover and Achilles (1996)	USA
Being realistic about constraints as well as	Tett (2000)	UK

possibilities of partnerships		
Importance of service workers being school based	Tett (2000)	UK
ASSESSMENT Increase staff confidence and skill in planning for and assessing children's development and learning	Campbell (2001)	UK
Involve teachers in planning and needs assessment processes to ensure their support	Raham (1998)	USA
Identify needs as expressed by community and parents involvement	Coltoff *et al* (1997) DfEE	USA UK
Ongoing assessment of needs, resources and effectiveness	Soriano and Hong (1997)	USA
EVALUATION Systematic inquiry rather than anecdotal data	Dolan (1996)	USA
Designated staff to collect and analyse data	Dolan (1996)	USA
Willingness to take part in longitudinal evaluation	Holtzmann (1997)	USA
Staff have clarity about evaluation	PricewaterhouseCoopers (2001a)	UK
Useful and valid indicators of success should be looked for: collection of evidence is crucial for programme quality and ensuring support for model	Raham (1998)	USA
Evaluation: needs to be arrangements for the delivery of services according to a set of integrated objectives and measurable outcomes	Scottish Office (1998)	UK

Appendix 2: Record of searches undertaken

ASSIA

Keywords

#1   Integrated services
#2   Community based services
#3   Multi agency approach

Free Text

#1   New community schools
#2   Inclusive schools
#3   Joined up thinking
#4   Full service schools
#5   Multi agency working
#6   Multi agency collaboration
#7   Inter agency working
#8   Inter agency collaboration

AUSTRALIAN EDUCATION INDEX

Keywords

#1   Integrated services

Free Text

#1   New community schools
#2   Inclusive schools
#3   Community based services
#4   Full service schools
#5   Inter agency

BRITISH EDUCATION INDEX

No Keywords found in the thesaurus

Free Text

#1   New community schools
#2   Inclusive schools
#3   Integrated services
#4   Joined up thinking
#5   Multi agency
#6   Inter agency

CHILDDATA

Keywords

#1   Multi-agency

Free Text

#1   New community schools
#2   Inclusive schools
#3   Integrated services
#4   Community based services
#5   Joined-up thinking
#6   Interagency

Search #1 (Multi-agency) yielded an unmanageable set of results and was therefore limited by the following terms from the ChildData thesaurus:

#1   Special education
#2   Special educational needs
#3   Disability
#4   Inclusive education
#5   Learning difficulties
#6   Mental disability
#7   Moderate learning difficulties
#8   Physical disability
#9   Remedial education
#10 Severe learning difficulties
#11 Special needs
#12 Special schools

ERIC

Keywords

#1   Inclusive schools

Free Text

#1   New community schools
#2   Extended service schools
#3   Extended schools
#4   Community based services
#5   Joined up thinking
#6   Full service schools
#7   Multi agency
#8   Inter agency
#9   Integrated services

Searches #1 (Inclusive schools) and #9 (Integrated services) yielded an unmanageable set of results and were therefore limited by the following terms from the ERIC thesaurus:

#1   Special Education
#2   Access to Education
#3   Behavior Modification
#4   Community Based Instruction (disabilities)
#5   Compulsory Education
#6   Continuation Students
#7   Curriculum Based Assessment
#8   Daily Living Skills
#9   Developmental Delays
#10   Diagnostic Teaching
#11   Disabilities
#12   Early Intervention
#13   Educational Needs
#14   Gifted
#15   Grouping (instructional purposes)
#16   Homebound
#17   Individual Needs
#18   Individualized Education Programs
#19   Individualized Instruction
#20   Intervention
#21   Itinerant Teachers
#22   Labeling (of persons)
#23   Mainstreaming
#24   Mobile Educational Services
#25   Noncategorical Education
#26   Normalization (disabilities)
#27   Partial Vision
#28   Prereferral Intervention
#29   Prognostic Tests
#30   Regular and Special Education Relationship
#31   Rehabilitation
#32   Resource Room Programs
#33   Special Classes
#34   Special Education Teachers
#35   Special Programs
#36   Special Schools
#37   Specialists
#38   Therapeutic Recreation
#39   Therapy

PSYCINFO

Keywords

#1   Integrated Services

Free Text

#1   New community schools
#2   Inclusive schools
#3   Extended schools
#4   Community-based services
#5   Full-service schools
#6   Multi-agency
#7   Inter agency

Searches #1 (Integrated services) and #4 (Community-based services) yielded an unmanageable set of results and were therefore limited by the following term from the PsycInfo thesaurus:

#1   Schools

INTERNET SEARCHING
Copernic Software (phrase searching - UK and World)

#1   New community schools
#2   Inclusive schools
#3   Extended service schools
#4   Extended schools
#5   Integrated services
#6   Community based services
#7   Joined up thinking
#8   Full service schools
#9   Multi agency working
#10 Multi agency interventions
#11 Multi agency support teams
#12 Inter agency working
#13 Inter agency collaboration

Individual web site searching for the above terms:

Ask ERIC - educational information
http://ericir.syr.edu/

BUBL Information Services
http://bubl.ac.uk/

Canadian Information by Subject
http://www.nlc-bnc.ca/caninfo/esub.htm

Consortium of University Research Libraries (COPAC)
http://copac.ac.uk/copac/

Department for Education and Skills
http://www.dfes.gov.uk/index.htm

Education On-Line
http://www.leeds.ac.uk/educol/

Qualifications and Curriculum Authority
http://www.qca.org.uk/index.asp

REGARD - an ESRC research service
http://www.regard.ac.uk/

Scottish Council for Research in Education
http://www.scre.ac.uk/

Social Science Information Gateway
http://sosig.ac.uk/

Appendix 3: Example of summary sheet used

[Reference]	
Focus Description	
Country/Area	
Duration (d)	
Summary	
Implications/ conclusions	
Key references	
Source	[e.g. conference paper, journal article, evaluation report etc.]