SOCIO-CULTURAL AND WITHIN-SCHOOL FACTORS THAT AFFECT THE QUALITY OF IMPLEMENTATION OF SCHOOL-WIDE PROGRAMS

Robert Cooper

Johns Hopkins University

Report No. 28

December 1998

Published by the Center for Research on the Education of Students Placed At Risk (CRESPAR), supported as a national research and development center by the Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U. S. Department of Education (R-117-D40005). The opinions expressed in this publication do not necessarily reflect the position or policy of OERI, and no official endorsement should be inferred.

The Center

Every child has the capacity to succeed in school and in life. Yet far too many children, especially those from poor and minority families, are placed at risk by school practices that are based on a sorting paradigm in which some students receive high-expectations instruction while the rest are relegated to lower quality education and lower quality futures. The sorting perspective must be replaced by a "talent development" model that asserts that all children are capable of succeeding in a rich and demanding curriculum with appropriate assistance and support.

The mission of the Center for Research on the Education of Students Placed At Risk (CRESPAR) is to conduct the research, development, evaluation, and dissemination needed to transform schooling for students placed at risk. The work of the Center is guided by three central themes — ensuring the success of all students at key development points, building on students' personal and cultural assets, and scaling up effective programs — and conducted through seven research and development programs and a program of institutional activities.

CRESPAR is organized as a partnership of Johns Hopkins University and Howard University, in collaboration with researchers at the University of California at Santa Barbara, University of California at Los Angeles, University of Chicago, Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation, University of Memphis, Haskell Indian Nations University, and University of Houston-Clear Lake.

CRESPAR is supported by the National Institute on the Education of At-Risk Students (At-Risk Institute), one of five institutes created by the Educational Research, Development, Dissemination and Improvement Act of 1994 and located within the Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI) at the U.S. Department of Education. The At-Risk Institute supports a range of research and development activities designed to improve the education of students at risk of educational failure because of limited English proficiency, poverty, race, geographic location, or economic disadvantage.

Abstract

The Success for All school restructuring program is currently being implemented in more than 1,100 elementary schools nationwide, primarily in urban locations. This study conducted quantitative and qualitative analyses of the quality of implementation in a sample of more than 350 of these schools, to examine how the Success for All program and other school-wide restructuring programs can best maintain their integrity and quality as they simultaneously adapt to local school and community contexts. The data collection strategies included surveys, one-on-one interviews, group interviews, focus groups, and school site observations. The goal of the analyses was to document the evolution of the implementation process and identify factors that contribute to the successful replication of Success for All and the scaling up process. The analyses examined factors related to quality of implementation in schools where the implementation was identified as high quality, medium quality, and low quality.

The quantitative analyses identified six within-school factors and three socio-cultural factors that significantly influenced quality of implementation of the program. The within-school factors that contributed to high quality implementation were the creation of a supportive culture for institutional change, the overcoming of program resistance on the part of a minority of teachers, a commitment to implementing the structures of the program, a strong school-site facilitator, less concern among teachers for handling an increased workload, and availability of program materials. The three socio-cultural factors that contributed to high quality implementation were lower student mobility, higher school attendance rate, and a greater percent of the student body being white.

Qualitative analyses based on case studies of 25 of the schools implementing the program provided further elaboration on the influence of the racial composition of the student body in the schools, the factors involved in program resistance, and the importance of each school having a full-time school-site facilitator.

Acknowledgments

Thanks to the many principals, school site facilitators, and teachers who made this research possible. Also many thanks Bob Slavin and Nancy Madden for their continued support and feedback on an earlier draft of this report.

Introduction

Over the last two decades, numerous national studies and reports have documented both the struggles and failings of public education. The release of *A Nation at Risk* (1983) shifted the focus and priority of existing national policy, moving the reform of public education to the top of the public policy agenda (Lusi, 1997). Educators, policymakers, and researchers alike concluded that a large number of schools, particularly in high poverty urban centers, were ineffective at meeting the needs of diverse student populations. As a result, an alarming number of U.S. students are placed at risk of school failure. The negative social, political, and economic implications of an entire generation that is inadequately prepared to compete in the international labor market resulted in a call for fundamental changes in American public education.

In response to this call for change, a plethora of restructuring/reform projects have emerged. In this era of abundant school reform options, a school's decision to adopt and champion an effective reform initiative is oftentimes very complex. Many of the recent changes advocated by policymakers in curriculum, instructional delivery, organizational structure, and school governance represent a fundamental shift in thinking about school organization and operation, particularly in high poverty schools. Recent studies have concluded that high poverty schools, as compared to low poverty schools, have less of an academic focus (U.S. Department of Education, 1993); consequently, many of the new reform efforts targeted at high poverty schools have an academic emphasis. The trend is towards providing students with increased opportunities to be exposed to literature and advanced mathematics, do creative writing, and work collaboratively with their peers.

Research suggests that high quality implementation is one of the greatest determinants of success with school reform (Cooper & Slavin, 1998). Thus, understanding the factors that affect the process of reform implementation has become increasingly important. The goal of this study is to examine how socio-cultural and within-school factors can affect quality of program implementation, based on the experience of implementing and evaluating the Success for All program, one of the nation's most successful school-wide restructuring efforts. Although observational and interview studies (e.g., Stringfield et al., 1997; Cooper et al., 1998) have suggested factors necessary to ensure effective implementation, particular attention is given to how socio-cultural issues interact with those factors in this analysis. Another goal is to provide insight on the implementation process of a comprehensive set of changes in school organization, curriculum, and teaching.

Additionally, this research seeks to provide guidance to educators, policymakers, and researchers, all of whom agree that change in our public education system is needed, but who lack certainty on how best to lead, implement, and manage the process of change. The lessons learned here can inform both local and national reform efforts.

Since the inception of Success for All in the 1980s, research has documented its success in improving students' reading achievement. If SFA is to fundamentally change the schooling experience of America's youth and assure that all students are equipped with basic reading skills by age nine, it is imperative that educators understand the process by which this can occur. This research illuminates the need for educators, policymakers, and researchers to focus on the process of school reform.

Success for All (Slavin et al., 1992, 1994, 1996a) is a program designed to comprehensively restructure elementary schools that serve children at risk of school failure. Designed for students in grades pre-K to five, one of the primary goals of the program is to prevent remediation and empower every student to become academically successful. Because the elementary school's definition of success, and usually the parent's and child's definition as well, is overwhelmingly proficiency in reading, the program organizes resources to ensure that virtually every student will perform at or near grade level in reading by the third grade, maintain this status through the end of the elementary years, and avoid retention or special education. Obviously, other subjects are important, but reading and language arts are at the core of "school success" in the early grades (Slavin et al., 1995).

While none of the elements of Success for All are completely new or unique, what makes Success for All most distinctive is that it is school-wide, coordinated, and pro-active. The implementation of SFA requires substantial change not only in curriculum and instruction, but also in the roles, relationships, and structures embedded within the schools. This challenges the conventional wisdom of many school communities regarding how schools should be organized and operated. In SFA, attention is focused on providing every student with the support system he/she needs to be a successful reader by the end of the third grade. Given that students learn to read in different ways and at different rates, SFA attempts to institute a variety of support systems to increase the probability that all students will be successful. Two basic principles guide the implementation of the Success for All program — prevention and early intervention (Slavin et al., 1994). While a child who can read is not guaranteed to be a success in elementary school, a child who cannot is guaranteed to be a failure (Slavin et al., 1996).

Theoretical Framework

Using Multiple Conceptual Perspectives to Understand Urban School Reform

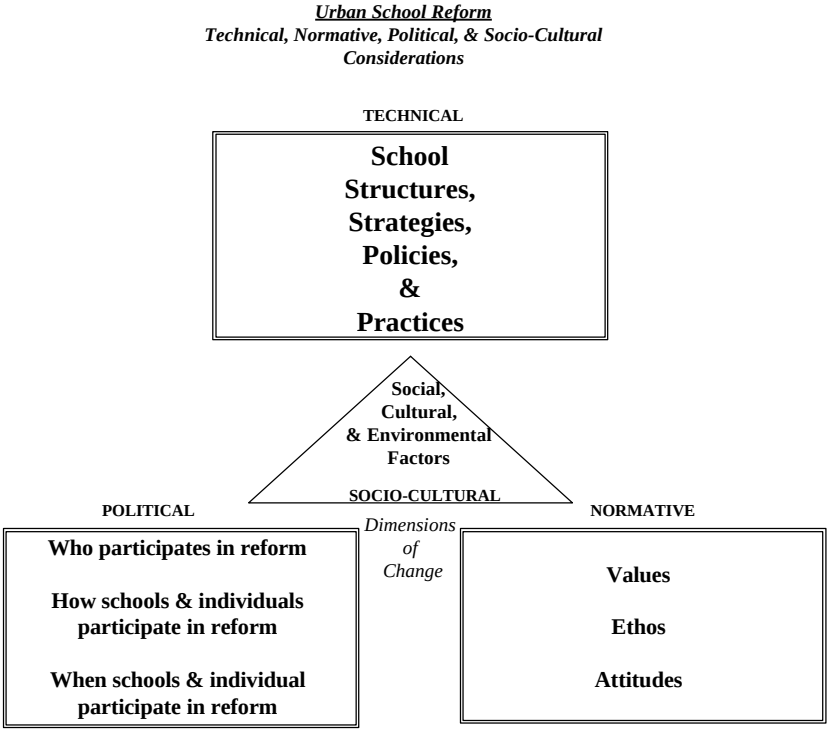
This analysis uses a conceptual framework which views school change from four distinct, although overlapping, perspectives. Each perspective illuminates how factors are institutionalized to ensure the quality and longevity of the program. Research suggests that multiple conceptual perspectives provide a more comprehensive picture of the key elements that determine how schools are organized and operate (Cooper et al., 1998). Exploring the dimensions of the scaling up process of SFA illuminates important individual, yet interconnected facets of school-wide change. Conceptual perspectives provide a more comprehensive picture of the complexities of the structures, strategies, practices, and relationships associated with school change. Using conceptual perspectives allows us to tap into the various dimensions of the schooling process which are critical to understanding school reform.

Four conceptual perspectives, presented in Figure 1, are particularly helpful in understanding school reform. Three of these — the technical, normative, and political — build upon the work of Jeannie Oakes (1992). Given the vastly diverse settings of Success for All's implementations, a fourth perspective was added (see Cooper et al., 1997). This perspective focuses on the social, cultural, and environmental factors that affect school reform, but are oftentimes given little attention. Adding this fourth dimension to the analysis provides greater insight into the constraints and challenges faced by many urban school communities. The socio-cultural factors are intricate components of the change process and can greatly affect the level and quality of implementation of education innovations.

Of these four perspectives, the technical perspective taps into the dimension that is the most pragmatic. This dimension involves changes in school structures, strategies, and practices. Exploring SFA's technical dimensions illuminates the program's commitment to integrate theory and practice. The second perspective that helps us better understand urban school reform provides a normative perspective. This perspective exposes the values, ethos, and attitudes that drive policy and practice within urban schools. Furthermore, this perspective gives insight into the ideological barriers that schools encounter in the reform process and that individuals encounter when asked to alter attitudes, behaviors, and practices. The third perspective — the political perspective — focuses on the redistribution of decision-making power, illuminating how, when, and which individuals participate in reform. This is a particularly important aspect of SFA because the reform attempts to alter relationships among educators, administrators, and parents. The important issue here is how the school

builds the capacity to make its political structures serve its normative and technical goals. Given the vastly diverse settings of Success for All's implementations, the fourth conceptual perspective, the socio-cultural perspective, focuses on the social, cultural, and environmental factors that affect school reform, but are seldom given attention. Adding this fourth dimension gives us greater insight into the constraints and challenges faced by many urban school communities because of their diverse populations.

School reform, of course, does not divide discreetly into four dimensions. But these dimensions of schooling tap into the energy sources of most school communities and therefore require serious consideration before fundamental change in schools can occur. As Oakes argues, "Viewing schools from technical, normative, political, [and I would add, socio-cultural] lenses allows traditional school practices to be examined in the context of the beliefs, values, relationships, and power allocations that keep them in place" (Oakes, 1992).



Employing this conceptual framework gives insight into how effective school-wide change models can be scaled up into widespread usage in our nation's schools, especially in the urban schools that need changing the most. The goal of this research is to provide insight

into the process of change in school organization, curriculum, and teaching. Additionally, this research provides guidance to educators, policymakers, and researchers who all agree that change in our public education system is needed but lack the certainty regarding how to best lead, implement, and manage the process of change. The lessons learned here can inform reform efforts, on both the local and national level.

Methods

Design

This study uses both quantitative and qualitative research methods, with data gathered from a sample of over 350 SFA schools across the country. A variety of data collection strategies were used: surveys, one-on-one interviews, group interviews, focus groups, and school site observations. An in-depth description of the data collection strategies can be found in Cooper and Slavin (1997).

Survey data were collected from approximately 500 educators involved in the implementation of Success for All. Two survey instruments were developed — one for school principals and one for school site facilitators. The questionnaires were designed to provide a snapshot of the program's implementation process in several school contexts. These survey instruments helped identify patterns of behavior, activities, and attitudes that influence the replicability and scaling-up efforts of the program across various contexts. Furthermore, this data collection strategy attempted to capture information regarding the school norms and politics that affect the technical implementation of the program. Survey questions focused on how the school learned of SFA, who the key players were in its implementation, the obstacles that schools faced in establishing SFA, and the difficulties in sustaining the reform.

The school site facilitator and principal surveys were sent out in June of 1997. That and subsequent mailings yielded over 200 survey responses from site facilitators and over 350 responses from school principals. The 550 responses represent over 350 elementary schools across the United States.

The quantitative data are augmented by qualitative data collected from intensive case studies. A stratified sample of 25 schools was selected for closer observation. The sample was stratified on three dimensions: quality of implementation, number of years implementing the program, and racial/ethnic composition of the student body. The primary methodological strategies used to gather information in these case studies were interviews and observations

conducted with site facilitators, principals, and appropriate district level officials. Although scheduling conflicts necessitated some group interviews, most interviews were conducted one-on-one. Each interview was recorded and transcribed. Additionally, interview notes were taken, consisting primarily of words, ideas, and key phrases that captured the language and emotions of the interviewee. These intensive case studies provided opportunities to examine questions that were explored quantitatively but whose importance might have gone undetected without closer examination. Additionally, because SFA is one of the most extensively evaluated school-change programs, previous research efforts gave insight to the current research questions.

Data Analysis

Survey data in this study were triangulated with data collected in interviews and observations. Particular attention was paid to how well schools developed the desired structures, engaged in the intended activities, and embodied the guiding principles. The goal of this analysis was to document the evolution of the implementation process and provide insight into the factors that contribute to SFA's successful replication and scaling up efforts.

In the analyses reported here, I first identified four categories of factors that influence implementation — non-school factors, within-school factors, SFA program factors, and socio-cultural factors. I then conducted quantitative analyses of how the socio-cultural factors and within-school factors influence implementation quality. I then examined the qualitative data and focused on one aspect of socio-cultural factors (the racial composition of the student body) and one aspect of the within-school factors (the politics of program resistance). Further analyses of both the quantitative and qualitative data in all four categories of factors that influence implementation will be presented in future reports.

For the purposes of these analyses, quality of implementation was determined by a self-reported measure on the facilitators' questionnaire. (Appendix A provides a copy of the questionnaire.) Although externally assigned implementation quality scores were available for many of the schools, too many schools would have been excluded if externally assigned measures had been used. Additional external implementation data is currently being collected and will be used in future analyses.

Based upon facilitators' responses to the self-reported implementation quality measure, schools were divided into three groups. Approximately 17% of the respondents (30 facilitators) reported that the implementation at their schools was thoughtful, creative, and

enthusiastic, which were characterized as high quality implementation. Forty-seven percent of the respondents (83) indicated that implementation at their schools was complete, solid, and routine, which were characterized as moderate quality implementation. Thirty-five percent of the respondents (62 facilitators) reported that the implementation at their school was *mostly* good but poor or incomplete in some areas; these schools were placed in the low implementation category.

Questionnaire responses of principals and facilitators provided the variables associated with the four categories of factors that support and/or hinder implementation — non-school factors, within-school factors, SFA program factors, and socio-cultural factors. In the quantitative analyses reported here, I used responses from the facilitators' questionnaires to examine the influence of socio-cultural and within-school factors on the quality of implementation of Success for All in the schools. I then used the qualitative information from the interviews conducted in the case studies to examine the findings of the quantitative analyses in more depth and in the context of the technical, normative, political, and socio-cultural perspectives on school change.

Results

Influence of Socio-Cultural Factors

Of the socio-cultural factors explored in this study, three were significantly related to the reported quality of implementation. The correlations between quality of implementation and student mobility, school attendance rate, and percent of the student body that is white were statistically significant (+.23, $p<.01$, +.26, $p<.001$, and +.15, $p<05$, respectively). Thus, schools that had lower student mobility rates, higher attendance rates, and a larger percent of white students were more likely to achieve high quality implementation of Success for All.

Non-significant correlations between quality of implementation and other socio-cultural factors were -.05 for years of implementation, +.07 for poverty level, + .03 size of school, +.09 for urbanicity, +.04 for size of community. Thus, the quality of SFA implementation was not influenced significantly by how many years the school had been implementing SFA, how many students were receiving free or reduced lunch, whether the school was small or large, whether the school was in an urban, suburban, or rural location, or whether the school was located in a small or larger community.

Following is a discussion of the socio-cultural factors explored and the results of the analyses conducted.

Poverty level: Reported levels of free and reduced lunch were used to determine the school's poverty level. To maximize comparability, the grouping levels used by the U.S. Department of Education (1993) in *Reinventing Chapter 1* were used as guidelines. The schools were divided into four groups: low, medium, high, and extreme poverty. Low poverty categorizes schools that reported a 1 to 19% free or reduced lunch count (0 schools). Medium poverty was equal to 20% to 74% free or reduced lunch (64 schools). High poverty level was equal to 75% to 95% free and reduced lunch (61 schools). Extreme poverty was equal to a free and reduced lunch count greater than 95% (48 schools). The schools in the sample ranged from 20% to 100% free/reduced lunch, with a mean of 74%. The poverty levels of low- and moderate-quality implementation schools cluster around the means at 74% and 77%, respectively. The mean poverty level of the high-implementation quality schools was lower, at 66%, but not statistically significant.

Attendance rate*:* SFA expects schools to have at least a 95% attendance rate, and the mean attendance rate for the respondents in the study was 94%. The standard deviation for the attendance rate was 3.24 with a range of 75% to 98%. The attendance rate did not differ significantly among the three levels of implementation. The average attendance rates for all three groups clustered around the 95% level.

School size: School size was measured using student enrollment figures. The mean number of students at the schools in the sample was 615, with a standard deviation of 272 and a range of 213 to 1,515 students. School size for the three categories of implementation was 587, 640, and 533, from low to high respectively.

Community size: This measure reflects the community context in which the reform is being implemented: inner city, big city, moderate size city, small town, or other. Fifty-two percent of the sample indicated that they were located in big inner cities. Consistent with that, the majority of schools in each implementation category also indicated that they were located in big inner cities — 49%, 59%, and 40% respectively.

Student mobility rate: Mobility rate represents the number of students who transfer from a school during the course of the year. Because many SFA schools are located in places with a high migrant student population, the mobility rate for some schools can be as high as 70 or 80%. The mean rate for this sample was 21.5% with a standard deviation of 21.5. The mobility rate differed between the three groups. Counter-intuitively, schools reporting low

program implementation had the lowest student mobility rates, with 70% of these schools reporting mobility rates of less than 25%. The mean mobility rate for these schools was 15.5%. This was in contrast to the moderate and high implementation groups, which reported mean mobility rates of 25.7% and 27% respectively.

Years of implementation: The mean number of years of implementation of SFA among the schools in the sample was 2.4 years, with a standard deviation of 1.48 and a range of 1 to 8 years. The average number of years of implementation for all three implementation groups — low, moderate, and high — clustered around the mean.

Racial make-up of the student body: The collective group of schools represented in the sample was very racially and ethnically diverse, but also racially segregated. Thirty-two percent of the schools in the sample report serving a majority African-American student population; 24% of the schools reported serving a majority white student population, and 20% reported serving a majority Hispanic student population. Fewer than 1% served a majority Asian student population, and 20% reported that their schools were racially balanced with no clear racial majority. This is one of the few socio-cultural factors on which schools in the three categories of implementation differed. The average percentages of white students in the low, moderate, and high implementation schools were 26%, 28%, and 35%, respectively. Parallel percentages for African-American students in the three groups were 31%, 47%, and 27%, a statistically significant difference ($F=5.21$, $p<.05$). The percentages of Hispanic/Latino and Asian students in the three groups of schools also differed significantly — the percentages of Hispanic students were 30%, 18%, and 22%, respectively ($F=3.24$, $p<.05$); and the percentages of Asian students were 0%, 1%, and 4%, respectively ($F=7.12$, $p<.001$). These findings suggest that schools that have larger non-white student populations tend to have lower-quality implementations.

Urbanicity: This variable captures the context in which the reform is being implemented — urban, suburban, or rural. Urban schools made up 66% of the sample of schools, and made up 72%, 66%, and 46% of the low-, moderate-, and high-quality implementation groups, respectively. Suburban schools made up 11% of the sample, and made up 4%, 9%, and 22% of the low-, moderate-, and high-quality implementation groups, respectively. Rural schools made up 24% of the sample, and made up 30%, 17%, and 32% of the low-, middle-, and high-quality implementation groups, respectively. These percentages reflect tendencies for urban schools to be over-represented in the low implementation group and under-represented in the high implementation group; for suburban

schools to be over-represented in the high-implementation group; and for rural schools to be over-represented in both the low- and high-implementation groups. However, none of differences between urban, suburban, or rural schools' representation in the sample and their representation in low-, moderate-, or high-quality implementation groups are significant.

Influence of Within-School Factors

Fifty-six variables that focused on within-school factors affecting quality implementation were derived from the school-site facilitator questionnaire. (For a complete list of the within-school variables, see Appendix B.) To reduce these into a small set of internally consistent dimensions, both exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses were conducted. Using a principal component analysis with a varimax rotation, nine composite scales were extracted. Only those items that had relatively high loadings and intuitively made sense were included in each scale. Table 1 presents the allocation of variables to each scale with an example of a scale item.

Constructing these scales generally provides a stronger, more accurate measure than using a single dichotomous variable (Jordan et al., 1996). Determining the number of components to extract from the correlation matrix is a fundamental decision in many analyses (Thompson & Borrello, 1986; Johnson et al., 1996). This study followed the recommendation of Guttman (1954) and extracted components with eigenvalues greater than one. The scales ranged in size from 2 to 13 items. Scale items with factor loadings less than 0.3 were excluded from subsequent reliability analyses. Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficients were computed for each scale, and ranged between .39 and .82.

The within-school factors that were derived from the factor analysis were:

Supportive culture for institutional change: This construct captures the degree to which educators feel that they have been able to generate knowledge, discussion, and ownership of the reform process. Fundamental change in schools is a slow process that requires all stakeholders to have a voice in the process. Research suggests that true change occurs in the hearts and minds of educators long before the adoption of a reform project. SFA, like any reform program, simply serves as a vehicle for school communities to carry out the mission of providing high-quality educational experiences to their students.

Program resistance: This measure illuminates the fact that even with an 80% vote from the faculty *prior* to the adoption of SFA, school communities are not always supportive of the program at the time of implementation. Due to high staff turnover in many SFA schools from year to year, schools often have some teachers who are opposed to the program's adoption or continuation.

Table 1
Allocation of Items to Scales and a Sample Item for Each Scale

Scale	No. of Items	Item Nos.	Alpha Reliability	Sample Item
Supportive culture for institutional change	13	1, 2, 6, 9, 10, 12, 20, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 30	.82	Staff commitment to change
Program resistance	4	36, 49, 51, 52	.66	Lack of fidelity to the model
Early success	2	15, 17	.56	Early success rate
Commitment to program structures	4	7, 13, 21, 22	.60	Protected 90-minute reading block
High student/teacher ratio	3	31, 47, 50	.48	Insufficient number of personnel
Strong school site facilitator	2	19, 23	.60	Strong support of school site facilitator
Teacher work load	3	42, 43, 55	.39	Lack of preparation time
Material availability	4	4, 8, 16, 18	.40	Material availability and quality
Space issues	2	38, 54	.74	Space limitations

Early success: This measure captures a school's ability to acknowledge and measure the impact of SFA using multiple measures. SFA is a comprehensive reform effort that influences not only curriculum and instruction, but also school organization, institutional culture, and the overall operation of the school. Schools are at various stages of readiness for reform and some schools must tackle issues such as attendance, resource availability, and discipline before they can attack the issue of poor student performance.

Commitment to program structures: SFA is a comprehensive program that requires many structural elements to be in place. This construct captures the degree to which educators feel that the necessary arrangements have been made to accommodate the structural elements of the program, including a 90-minute uninterrupted reading block, appropriately regrouping students every eight weeks, having a Family Support Team in place, and providing one-on-one tutoring to at least 30% of the first graders.

High student/teacher ratios: This measure reflects a school's capacity for providing students with small learning communities and providing the "safety net" needed to ensure the academic success of all students.

Strong school site facilitator: School site facilitators are the linchpins that hold the implementation effort together. Responsible for the day-to-day operation of the program, the strength of the facilitator's interpersonal, organizational, and communication skills greatly affects the quality of implementation of the program.

Teacher workload: This measure gauges the impact of teacher perceptions of increased teacher workload, preparation, and accountability on the implementation process.

Material quality and availability: For many SFA schools, the quality and availability of materials has been problematic. In particular, schools that started SFA in September, 1996 received their materials very late due to a problem with a printer. This construct captures the degree to which educators identify factors associated with the SFA curriculum materials as a major barrier to the implementation of their program.

Space: Many urban schools are overcrowded, producing environments that are not conducive to learning. This scale item measures the degree to which lack of space is a hindrance to the implementation of SFA.

The relationship between quality of implementation and the nine composite scales of school level factors was examined using analyses of covariance (ANCOVAs). The ANCOVAs controlled for percent of student body that is white, school attendance rate, and student mobility rate, the socio-cultural factors that were found to be significantly related to quality of implementation. Multivariate F (Wilks' lambda) for quality implementation was

2.69 (18,322): p<. 001, suggesting further investigation was warranted. Subsequent analyses revealed six statistically significant univariate differences between reported levels of implementation and within-school factors.

Table 2 contains the means, standard deviations, and univariate F values for the scale items for within-school factors. Reported levels of program implementation reliably differentiated each of these variables. The largest difference was between the high implementation group and the low implementation group with respect to program resistance. The univariate effect was strong, with the effect size (1.30) larger than one standard deviation. Schools that reported high quality implementation appeared to do a better job of creating school-wide buy-in and avoiding collective program resistance. Thus, the challenge for many schools is not simply how to train the 80% of the faculty who voted for the adoption of the program, but also how to manage and redirect the negative feedback and subversive activities of the up to 20% of the faculty who do not support the reform effort or were not present during the adoption process.

Other univariate results show that schools with high implementation were more successful in creating a supportive culture for institutional change. When controlling for socio-cultural factors, schools that were able to create a culture that recognized a need for change and were able to document their progress in meeting that need experience a higher quality program implementation (effect size =1.13). These data suggest that high quality implementation is predicated upon change becoming an institutional norm. This factor speaks to the importance of empowering educators in the change progress. Teachers and administrators must take ownership of the program. The adoption of SFA must not be seen as a top-down directive, but as a collective opportunity to improve the educational experience of children. Educators must be empowered prior to adoption of the program, as well as during the change process. Establishing a stable, committed cadre of teachers is the first step to successful implementation of the program.

Schools that reported high quality implementations appeared to be more successful in empowering educators to take collective ownership and responsibility for the reform process. These schools also reported having a stronger sense of professionalism among their faculties, thus giving way to the ongoing commitment to achieve high fidelity to the structures of the program. Additionally, high-quality implementation schools reported having less difficulty in establishing small reading groups and one-to-one tutoring, and teachers appeared to be less concerned with the increased work load that they might initially experience.

Other results show the importance of the appointment of a school site facilitator. Although these data are self-reported by school site facilitators, respondents were able to distinguish the importance of a school site facilitator in the implementation process. Schools that have high-quality implementations reported that they have a supportive and knowledgeable school site facilitator. Qualitative data suggest that program implementation is greatly enhanced with a full time facilitator who devotes 100% of his/her time to the implementation of the program. In some schools full-time facilitators are in place, but they are assigned a myriad of duties outside the scope of SFA. This compromises the integrity and quality of the implementation at those schools. Often, a lack of commitment on the part of the institution in regards to the SFA program is most evident in the non-SFA tasks assigned to the facilitator.

Table 2

Within-School Factors Related to Quality Implementation: Adjusted Means by Reported Implementation Level

Scale Constructs with Number of Covariates	Quality of Implementation			Planned Contrasts Significant	F	Effect Size *d*
	Low	*Moderate*	*High*			
Supportive culture for institutional change	.43 (.23)	.61 (.27)	.69 (.24)	a, c	6.69***	1.13
Program resistance	.37 (.33)	.21 (.26)	.07 (.13)	a, b, c	5.27***	1.30
Early success	.19 (.32)	.27 (.38)	.33 (.36)		2.02	.41
Commitment to program structures	56 (.32)	.74 (.28)	.76 (.30)	a, c	3.54**	.66
High student/teacher ratio	.33 (.33)	.27 (.32)	.18 (.26)	a	1.23	.50
Strong school site facilitator	.50 (.43)	.69 (.37)	.70 (.34)	a, c	2.70*	.51
Teacher work load	.25 (.31)	.17 (.23)	.05 (.15)	a, b	5.10***	.81
Material availability	.36 (.26)	.43 (.28)	.48 (.28)	a	2.89**	.44
Space issues	.20 (.34)	.23 (.39)	.20 (.36)		.14	.08

Note: Three-covariate analyses controlled percent of student body that is white, school attendance rate and student mobility rate. Low implementation level n= 62, moderate implementation level n=83, and high implementation level n=30. Standard deviations are shown in parentheses. Effect size (d) is the difference between the high and low scale means, divided by the pooled standard deviation.

Planned contrast: a= (high implementation vs. low implementation) $p<.05$; b=(moderate implementation vs. high implementation) $p<.05$; c= (low implementation vs. moderate implementation) $p<.05$.

Three scale items failed to relate significantly to implementation quality — high student/teacher ratio, documenting early success, and space. Although early success did not differ among the three implementation levels, many educators in the qualitative study did report it as a salient factor in the implementation process. Many schools that adopt SFA are looking for immediate ways to improve the academic achievement of their students. While many educators report anecdotal evidence of increased student achievement, or substantial gains on the tests used as part of the program, the gains are not always measurable on standardized tests as reported by the district. For high quality implementation to be sustained, there must be externally measurable signs of its effectiveness. Signs of effectiveness need not only be in reading achievement, but also in other student outcome measures such as higher attendance rates, reduction in special education referrals, and reductions in disciplinary referrals. Additionally, because of the multi-faceted nature of the reform, effectiveness can be measured in terms of program impact on institutional outcome measures such as lower teacher absenteeism, increased collegiality among the faculty, and increased parental involvement. Schools that have high quality implementation appear to be better able to document positive results using multiple outcome measures.

Space is another scale item that failed to relate significantly to implementation quality, but which is an ongoing challenge for many SFA schools. The creation of small reading groups is often constrained by the number of certified teachers and the amount of available space. But because the majority of SFA implementations are in urban schools where overcrowding is common, the data do not recognize that space issues may uniquely influence the implementation process.

Correlation of Socio-Cultural Factors with Within-School Factors

To examine some issues of implementation quality in further depth, I looked at the relationship between the socio-cultural factors that are significantly correlated with quality of implementation and the within-school factors that are significantly correlated with quality of implementation (see Table 3). The most notable result is that the percentage of white students was positively correlated with documenting early success ($r = +.18$, $p < .05$) and negatively correlated with a lack of material availability ($r = -.19$, $p < .05$). There is a positive correlation of school attendance rate with a supportive culture for institutional change, whereas the correlation between school attendance and the perception of an increase in teacher workload is negative ($r = +.16$ and $r = -.19$, respectively, $p<.05$ for both). Student mobility rate was positively correlated with commitment to program structures, but negatively correlated with the perception of an increase in teacher workload ($r = +16$, $p<.05$; $r = -.23$, $p<-.23$, respectively).

Table 3

Correlation between Salient Socio-Cultural Factors and Salient Within-School Factors

	Percent White Students	School Attendance Rate	Student Mobility Rate
Supportive culture for institutional change		+.16	
Program resistance			
Early success	+.18*		
Commitment to program structures			+.16*
High student/teacher ratio			
Strong school site facilitator			
Teacher workload		-.19*	-.23**
Material availability	-.19*		
Space issues			

Note: * = p<.05; ** = p<.01

Elaboration of the Findings through Qualitative Data

Quantitative data analyses in this study suggest that there are aspects of the process of implementing innovative programs in schools that can be positively influenced with thoughtful consideration, increasing the probability of high-quality implementation. Six within-school factors and three socio-cultural factors were identified as having a significant impact on the quality and process of implementation. I will now examine qualitative data gathered from interviews and observations in 25 schools to elaborate on these findings regarding socio-cultural factors (focusing on racial composition of the student body) and within-school factors (focusing on program resistence). The elaborations will examine these findings within the context of the four perspectives on school change discussed earlier — the technical, normative, political, and socio-cultural perspectives.

Racial Composition of the Student Body

One of the most salient socio-cultural factors in this investigation was race. Data suggest that implementation quality was positively correlated with the proportion of white

students in the school. This finding highlights the unique challenges found in many poor, inner-city schools, which is where most students of color receive their education. Taken at face value, this finding might suggest that school reform is more difficult to implement in a context that has a high percentage of minority children. However, qualitative data reveal and support an alternative explanation.

Qualitative data suggest that the gap in quality of implementation is more a function of teacher mobility in inner-city schools than something endemic to the culture of the schools that serve minority children. In many of the schools I researched, educators spoke of the difficulty of attracting qualified professionals to inner-city schools. Principals, in particular, identified the abundance of new teachers who have little experience working with inner-city youth as a major obstacle to providing quality education. Because the majority of individuals preparing to be teachers are young, white, and female, it is difficult for inner-city schools to attract educators to environments that are perceived as "tough" teaching assignments. Also, teacher mobility, especially teachers moving from inner-city schools to neighboring middle-class schools, affects not only the quality and consistency of instruction, but the implementation of school-wide reform as well.

Because of a strong correlation between race and poverty, the relationship between poverty and quality implementation was explored. The effects of poverty were summed up eloquently by one principal we interviewed. He said:

> The students don't have school supplies. Some don't have clothing appropriate for the weather. Some don't have a place in their home that's well-lit. Very few have their very own books. When it rains, if their sneakers get wet, they don't have another pair of shoes to wear to school the next day. Poverty is the pits, I mean, it's terrible.

Responses from teachers, principals, and district personnel in interviews, however, produced unanticipated findings regarding the relationship of poverty and quality implementation. The data suggest that despite the additional social and cultural barriers that high poverty schools encounter in implementing school-wide reform, school poverty level does not appear to hinder the implementation process. Although high levels of poverty do create unique challenges to the successful replication and scaling up of programs in areas such as parental involvement, student mobility, attendance rates, quality of instruction, and basic resource availability, the majority of high poverty schools are successful in

implementing the program. One school site facilitator at a high poverty school in Florida commented:

> In high poverty schools, the challenges that many SFA students face are not always academic ones. Students are confronted with obstacles to their learning that adults would have difficulty overcoming. The levels of drug use, crime, and violence in some of the SFA school neighborhoods require school officials to respond to the physical, emotional, and psychological, as well as academic, needs of children. Recognizing the realities of these conditions and developing strategies that help students overcome them make the difference between success for some and success for all.

Recognizing that schools are em bedded in communities that, in many ways, dictate the conditions and constraints of school reform, this study sought to understand the impact of the community context upon the implementation process. In addition to the conditions found in high poverty schools, these schools must combat deeply entrenched societal perceptions. One of the prevailing attitudes about many high poverty communities is that the adults who live and work there do not care about their children's education. Many teachers complain of the difficulty of getting parents involved in school activities. Moreover, parents and other community members talk about the poor quality of instruction that urban teachers provide and the lack of educational opportunities available to urban students. When asked how prevailing community norms affect the school's ability to implement school reform, one Florida principal indicated that reform begins with a change in perception. She stated:

> I want the entire perception to change to a positive perception. I want them [teachers, parents, and the larger community] to realize that there are hard-working teachers here, there are children here who are really learning. I want them to recognize that we are committed and that we are achieving.

The implementation of SFA challenges three of the most important norms that are used to organize and operate schools: norms regarding which students can learn, what students can learn, and how students should learn. As Oakes (1992) argues, school reform that fails to pay attention to the normative dimensions of school change may result in reluctant compliance at best. SFA forces new strategies into traditional policies and practices.

However, for SFA to be effective, entire school communities must "buy in" to the norms of the program. One of the guiding philosophical principles of the SFA reform model is that school communities must remain relentless until all children are academically successful. The program has assembled instructional practices, curricular materials, and organizational strategies that facilitate the learning of all students. However, because most

of the communities where the program is being implemented are comprised of poor minority children, there is a danger that not all students will be expected to be successful. One Virginia school principal indicated that the demographics of her school do not make a difference in the effectiveness of the program. She stated:

> I do not want to be labeled as saying that this program only works for this particular child. I like to say to parents, yes, it is good for the "at risk" student, but it is also good for the gifted and talented as well.... I do not care what color these kids are, where they are coming from, they are kids. I like Success for All because it meets all children's needs, regardless of race. Now, in my first year, I had a majority of minority students in the building, that didn't phase me a bit because I had just as many of the others who needed the same things as.... A lot of them needed the same thing, race really was not important. What was important to me was I have something here that's going to work for all these kids.

Embedded within the structure and organization of SFA is a set of norms for what constitutes a strong reading program and a strong elementary school. The adoption of these norms changes the way schools function. Schools are transformed into institutions of collaboration and partnership and places where all children are given the opportunity to be successful. Because of the traditions that have guided much previous policy and practice in schools, many children are not thought of as capable of success. One facilitator stated that it was difficult to change the norms in her school because of how some of the teachers view the students. She said:

> A lot of people believe that the kids are so far behind that they'll never catch up. You know, they'll never make any gains. They have a negative attitude about the kids. And that's a tremendous barrier, you know, that will stop the kids in their tracks immediately. Right? Why bother? They say the kids are three years behind, or they are two years behind, and what difference am I going to make?

As long as school norms maintain that some students are unable to achieve a high degree of success, then students will remain unsuccessful. For this reason, SFA seeks to establish a climate that fosters the success of all children.

The Politics of Program Resistance

Of the many within-school factors identified in this research, program resistance emerged as having the greatest impact on implementation quality, with an effect size of 1.30

when urbanicity and racial composition of the student body were controlled. Given that an effect size is defined as educationally significant at .25 (Slavin & Fashola, 1998) and large at .80 (Cohen, 1969), the data are clear that high quality implementation of SFA will more likely occur if there is unambiguous buy-in on the part of all staff at the school. SFA is not just a reading program that requires teachers to use a specific curriculum and strategy, it is also a restructuring effort that challenges educators to think differently about their relationships with their students, colleagues, and work environment. To achieve a high quality implementation, educators and administrators must be willing to embrace the philosophy and practices of SFA. The entire school community must be willing to create the structures and learning opportunities that serve as the infrastructure of the SFA program. These structures include the 90-minute reading block, tutoring program, Family Support Team, and partnerships with the larger community. Although effect sizes should be interpreted with caution (Slavin & Fashola, 1998), an effect size of 1.30 suggests that when schools are able to experience minimal program resistance they are able to increase the quality of their implementation over one full point on the five-point implementation scale.

Although the design of the program calls for 80% faculty approval prior to the adoption of SFA, schools still may experience resistance to the program and difficulty in managing that resistance. Few schools have the luxury that one SFA school in Arizona had when it was given a year to fully explore the program before deciding to use it. This exploration allowed the faculty to resolve questions and concerns before they voted on the program's adoption. The facilitator stated:

> We decided we were ready to vote. I decided not to take a yes/no vote. I decided to do it on a contingency. We voted on a scale from one to five. One being that you absolutely just love the program. You think that this is just what we have been waiting for. Let's just go for it.... The middle there would be, 'I'm a little concerned about my role and how this is going to work, but I believe that we need to make a change and I will be supportive of the program.' And five being, 'I hate this. I will sabotage it if necessary to get my way.' And do you know that we had somebody who voted a five? We had one person who voted five. Almost everybody else who voted realized that after really talking this through, that we needed a change. We had to do something. They felt like this might be what we should go for. And so, we ended up with a ninety-five percent vote.

Although 95% of the faculty gave their vote of approval for the program, the facilitator herself expressed some concern about the program. She said, "for myself, when I voted...I said, 'I can't vote a one.' I can't say, 'I think this is it.' Because I don't know until

we try." From the very inception of the program, this voting strategy empowered the teachers with a voice in the reform process. Consequently, the educators at this school have taken full ownership of the program and are working hard to make sure all of their students are successful.

For this Arizona school, the voting process worked well. However, several school officials talked about how the process did not ensure full participation of the faculty in the reform effort at their school. At several schools, the perception was that SFA was a reform initiative that came from the top down. Several school site facilitators stated candidly that their teachers felt that the program was supported by someone at the district level or by their principal and they did not feel like they really had a voice in the decision. A good example of this can be seen in one Maryland elementary school. SFA was believed to be a political move on the part of the principal to secure additional funding. Teachers felt as though they were forced to adopt the program. This strategy, consequently, jeopardized the integrity of the implementation process at the school. The principal stated:

> We had a lot of teachers go in and do that whole big voting procedure...but then the thing that we did that made it really work, is that I didn't care whether they liked it or not, they didn't have to say they liked it, they had to vote to have it. Some people did not want to teach the Roots at all, they told me they hated it, they couldn't do it. And so I didn't make them. Then they did the Wings. And some of them didn't really do the Wings, they did their own thing. And then we had other people who were into it. We had teachers pushing from both ends. We had people who were not sold on it a hundred percent, but gave it a fair shake.

We learn from this example that a "yes" vote for adoption does not always translate into a "yes" vote for implementation. After adoption, the reality of the program becomes evident. In many schools, teachers find that the amount of work required of them is unprecedented. They are expected to provide continuous interactive instruction for 90 minutes, and they are held accountable for the results of that instruction. One school site facilitator indicated that many teachers at her school resented the amount of work the program required. She said:

> It's a lot of work. Roots and Wings both, requires lots of preparation.... It is not fluff, you have to be prepared, and you have to work. You just cannot go in and do it off the cuff … a lot of people resent that.

A school site facilitator from Maryland noted that it was not only the amount of work involved, but also the difficulty of adapting to a different philosophy:

> There were a lot of obstacles [in implementing the program]. One was rethinking the way we teach. That whole philosophy. Many of our teachers were Whole Language teachers, it was very threatening to be forced into a rigid time frame and schedule … that was all very difficult.

The data clearly show, however, that the vast majority of teachers who do buy into the SFA model experience new degrees of success with their students. Positive results with students in the program was a constant theme in the case study interviews, supplementing the positive findings of SFA's quantitative studies. One principal in Virginia stated:

> The teachers are very supportive of the program. They have seen the progress that their students are making. They are constantly saying, 'oh, I just love the program, have you something new that you would like to share with us so we can try it, because the children are doing so well.' To give you an example, we have one teacher this week, all of her children just started to read, and she came running down the hall, 'oh, this child is reading, it [SFA] is just excellent, it is excellent.'

Along with these successes, an added benefit to the program is that it begins to change the culture of the school. Because teachers share students, they have to trust that not only they, but also all other teachers are doing a good job — they have to trust that quality instruction is taking place all over the building. One comment by a SFA principal in California exemplifies this issue:

> Teachers like the program, because they see the kids are reading.…The other thing is that they [the teachers] have learned to trust each other. I had one teacher that said, 'oh, nobody can do a better job than I do in reading.' Now that she sees her kids learning to read [when taught by other teachers and tutors] she feels that she doesn't have to work so hard.

In the quantitative study, the role of the school site facilitator was found to significantly affect implementation quality of the reform effort. The qualitative data support the importance of the facilitator. The person in this position wears a variety of hats. He/she serves as an instructional leader, mentor teacher, program cheerleader. He or she must be organized, skilled, and committed to teaching children, stated one principal. One JHU consultant indicated that she thought it took six months to a year for a school site facilitator to really understand the depth and breadth of the job. In those schools where there is a strong implementation of the program, there tended to be a full-time facilitator with 100% of his or her time devoted to the implementation of the program. Due to budget constraints in some institutions, part-time facilitators were permitted in the early development of the program. However, a full-time facilitator is now required.

Not only is a full-time facilitator required, but also limiting the duties outside the scope of SFA is highly encouraged. In many ways, when a school site facilitator is assigned

tasks outside the scope of the program it compromises the integrity of the implementation process. Often times a lack of commitment on the part of the institution in regards to the program is most evident in the tasks assigned to the facilitator. For example, in one school in Baltimore with an average level of implementation, the facilitator reluctantly admitted that she rarely gets into the classroom to help and model lessons for teachers because of so many additional responsibilities assigned to her by her principal. She stated,

> Actually in the classroom? I haven't done that much this year. More of the work is actually working with teachers. In the classroom...I have the least amount of time for that. And the reason is, I'm involved in teams on Tuesday morning, Wednesday afternoon, all day Thursday, and I'm only here four days, and then I'm doing testing on the other days.... I will get in there, but it's not consistent. I work with teachers before school, during lunch, and after school. And it can be very unplanned. It's informal.

One school site facilitator in Florida who had the luxury of having two months in the summer to pull together the materials for the program indicated that she buried herself in the procedures and in setting up her room, trying to get a feel for what to expect when the staff returned. As many school site facilitators reiterated, organizing the people, materials, and the process is a very complicated task, and time to plan for the implementation of the program is a luxury that many of them are never afforded. For the many school site facilitators who find themselves over-worked and under-appreciated, institutional recognition that facilitating the program requires a full-time commitment is the first in a series of steps to ensure high quality implementation.

School site facilitators must not only be strong instructional leaders with a vast repertoire of pedagogical and instructional strategies, but also be professional educators who diplomatically create opportunities for collegiality and cooperation among their peers within the framework of the SFA model.

Policy Implications

Reforming Schools with Externally Developed Programs

In the school change debate, a variety of terms are used interchangeably to describe the reform process within schools. However, the term "restructuring" has dominated the discourse during the last two decades. Research suggests that restructuring initiatives emerged in several waves (Lusi, 1997). The first wave focused on raising standards (Jacobson & Berne, 1993). Schools were simply asked "to do more of the same, but just do it better" (Petrie, 1990, p. 14). Petrie argues that asking schools to do more of the same failed to recognize the systemic nature of the educational enterprise. This wave has been characterized

as piecemeal and disconnected (Cohen & Spillance, 1992; Smith & O'Day, 1990). Although schools and educators were asked, and in many cases required, to make significant changes, research suggests that this wave of reform left the fundamental nature of teaching and learning unchanged (Cohen, 1988; Cuban, 1990; Firestone et al., 1989).

The second wave shifted the focus of reform to the redistribution of power (Murphy, 1992). Reformers sought to reallocate control of curriculum, budgets, and staffing to principals, teachers, and parents (Clune & White, 1988). This wave called for school-by-school, locally adapted change that was respectful and sensitive to the local context (Elmore & McLaughlin, 1988). Reforms were designed to "capitalize on the energy and creativity of individuals at the school level" (Murphy, 1992, p. 6). While this wave produced a number of schools in which teaching and learning were qualitatively different, the number of schools that experienced and sustained fundamental change was not widespread (Lusi, 1997).

The third wave of reform, which is currently underway, represents a fundamental shift in how educators and policymakers view the purpose of education (Murphy, 1992). It seeks to alter the traditional conceptions of schools. The goal of education is no longer viewed as the maintenance of the organizational infrastructure, but rather the development of human resources (Mojkowski & Fleming, 1988). Embedded within the policies and practices of many of the current reform strategies is the belief that more students can be better served educationally when traditional notions of teaching and learning are re-conceptualized. In this era of burgeoning choice among school reform strategies and programs, fundamental change occurs in schools when a comprehensive approach to reform is adopted. Such an approach focuses on the multitude of factors that determine the schooling experience for students: school organization, curriculum, delivery of instruction, and grouping practices.

Although there are several examples of programs that have been successful [e.g., the Core Knowledge Project (Hirsch, 1993), Direct Instruction (Adams & Engelmann, 1996), some of the New American Schools designs (Stringfield et al., 1996; Bodilly, 1998), Success for All (Slavin et al., 1996), and others], the challenge for externally developed programs as they scale up is to maintain the integrity and quality of the program regardless of the social, political, and economic contexts in which they will be implemented. If school-wide projects are to serve as a blueprint for urban school reform in the 21st century, we must be able to document their impact on schools in various contexts on a national scale. Programs must also be broad enough in scope to address the interconnected complexities of teaching and learning and yet flexible enough to adapt to the local context in which the program is being implemented. Reform efforts must not only prove effective in varying political and economic contexts, but in varying cultural and social contexts as well.

Externally developed programs have to meet the challenge of ensuring high-quality implementation. Shifting the focus of reform from context to implementation raises several important questions. What is the relationship between implementation and outcome measures? What are the factors that affect high-quality implementation? How can schools implement reform in a way to ensure its longevity? This line of inquiry shifts the thinking about reform from the technology of reform to the actual process of reform. As school-wide projects such as Success for All continue to document success, it is important to replicate the process of implementation if schools are to replicate the results.

Conclusion

Over the past decade much of the research on the Success for All program has focused on the content (Slavin et al., 1996a) and outcomes of the program (Slavin et al., 1996b). Exploring the process of SFA implementation fundamentally expands the research on SFA. Investigating the factors that contribute to the high quality implementation of SFA as a comprehensive school-wide change model pushes us to acknowledge the importance of understanding the process of school reform. The program is experiencing rapid growth—more than 1,100 schools are implementing SFA as of the Fall of 1998. After a decade of research, the question for SFA is no longer whether the program works, but rather under what conditions does it work best — what are the factors that contribute to successful implementation? One of the most important lessons gleaned from early SFA research was that the largest determinant of program success is quality implementation — fidelity to the model. The research was clear that SFA is good practice, but it is the high quality implementation of good practice that makes a difference.

Because SFA is one of the most extensive current comprehensive school-wide change models, there is much to be learned from exploring its context, outcomes, and implementation processes, not only to facilitate further use of the model itself but also to improve the dissemination and implementation of other school reform efforts. The significance of this study lies in its focus on better understanding the broader implications of school-wide reform. As school communities adopt and implement school-wide reform efforts to improve student achievement, dissemination of information regarding the factors that contribute to high quality implementation is invaluable to school site administrators and district leaders (Johnson et al., 1996). Better understanding these factors can help school communities better plan and execute their SFA implementation process and the implementation process involved in adopting other school-wide reform programs.

References

Adams, G.L., &. E.S. (1996). *Research on Direct Instruction: 25 years beyond DISTAR.* Seattle, WA: Educational Achievement Systems.

Bodilly, S.J. (1998). *Lessons from the New American Schools Development Corporation's development phase.* Washington, DC: RAND.

Clune, W.H., & White, P.A. (1988). *School-based management: Institutional variation, implementation, and issues for further research.* New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University, Center for Policy Research in Education, Eagleton Institute of Politics.

Cohen, D., & Spillane, J. (1992). Policy and practice: The relations between governance and instruction. In G. Grant (Ed.), *The review of research in education* (pp. 3-49). Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association.

Cohen, D.K. (1988). Teaching practice: Plus que ça change. In P.W. Jackson (Ed.), *Contributing to educational change: Perspectives on research and practice* (pp. 27-84). Berkeley, CA: McCutchan Publishing Corporation.

Cohen, J. (1969). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral science.* New York: Wiley.

Cooper, R., Slavin, R.E., & Madden, N.A. (1998). Success for All: Improving the quality of implementation of whole-school change through the use of a national reform network. *Education and Urban Society, 30* (3), 385-408.

Cooper, R., & Slavin, R.E. (1997). *Scaling up Success for All: Second year report to the Pew Charitable Trust.* Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University, Center for Research on the Education of Students Placed At Risk.

Cooper, R., Slavin, R.E., & Madden, N. (1997). Success for All: Exploring the technical, normative, political, and socio-cultural dimensions of scaling up (Report No. 16). Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University, Center for Research on the Education of Students Placed At Risk.

Cuban, L. (1990). Reforming again, again, and again. *Educational Researcher, 19* (1), 3-13.

Elmore, R.E., & McLaughlin, M.W. (1988). *Steady work: Policy, practice and the reform of American education.* Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation.

Firestone, W.A (1989). Educational policy as an ecology of games. *Educational Researcher, 18* (7), 18-23.

Hirsch, E.D. (1993). The Core Knowledge curriculum: What's behind its success? *Educational Leadership, 50* (8), 23-30.

Johnson, W., Snyder, K., Anderson, R., & Johnson, A. (1996). School work culture and productivity. *The Journal of Experimental Education, 64* (2), 139-156.

Jordan, W.J., Lara, J., & McPartland, J. (1996). Exploring the causes of early dropout among race-ethnic and gender groups. *Youth and Society, 28* (1), 62-94.

Lusi, S. (1997). *The role of State Departments of Education in complex school reform.* New York: Teachers College Press.

Mojkowski, C., & Fleming, D. (1988). *School-site management: Concepts and approaches.* Andover, MA: Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands.

Murphy, J. (1992). Restructuring America's schools: An overview. In C. Finn and T. Rebarbert, *Education reform in the 1990s.* New York: MacMillan.

Oakes, J. (1992). Can tracking research inform practice? Technical, normative, and political considerations. *Educational Researcher, 21,* (4), 12-21.

Petri, H.G. (1990). Reflections on the second wave of reform: Restructuring the teaching profession. In S.L. Jacobson and J.A. Conway (Eds.), *Educational leadership in an era of reform.* New York: Longman.

Slavin, R.E., & Fashola, O.S. (1998). *Show me the evidence! Proven and promising programs for America's schools.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Slavin, R.E. (1995). *Cooperative learning: Theory, research, and practice* (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Slavin, R.E., Madden, N.A., Dolan, L., & Wasik, B. (1992). *Success for All: A relentless approach to prevention and early intervention in elementary schools.* Arlington, VA: Educational Research Service.

Slavin, R.E., Madden, N.A., Dolan, L., & Wasik, B. (1996a). *Every child, every school: Success for All.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Slavin, R.E., Madden, N.A., Dolan, L., & Wasik, B. (1996b). Success for All: Summary of research. *Journal of Education for Students Placed At Risk, 1* (1), 41-76.

Slavin, R.E., Madden, N.A., Karweit, N., Dolan, L., Wasik, B., Ross, S.M., & Smith, L.J. (1994). Whenever and wherever we choose: The replication of Success for All. *Phi Delta Kappan, 75,* 639-647.

Smith, M.S., & O'Day, J. (1990). Systemic school reform. In *Politics of Education Association yearbook 1990* (pp. 233-267). New York: Taylor & Francis.

Stringfield., S., Millsap, M., Herman, R., Yoder, N., Brigham, N., Nesselrodt, P., Schaffer, E., Karweit, N., Levin, M., & Stevens, R. (1997). *Special strategies studies: Final report.* Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.

Stringfield, S., Ross, S., & Smith, L. (1996). *Bold plans for school restructuring: The New American Schools designs.* Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Thompson, B., & Borrello, G. (1986). Second-order factor structure of the MBTI: A construct validity assessment. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development, 18,* 148-153.

U.S. Department of Education (1993). *Reinventing Chapter 1*. Washington, DC: Author.

APPENDIX A : School Site Facilitator's Questionnaire

School ID:

(Leave blank)

SUCCESS FOR ALL SCHOOL SITE FACILITATOR SURVEY **1997**

Scaling-Up Survey

In our continued effort to deliver a quality program as we "scale up" to over 750 schools this fall, we are seeking feedback from SFA facilitators regarding the implementation of Success For All (SFA) at their school. The purpose of this evaluation is to better understand the factors which contribute to a strong implementation of the program across the various school contexts in which it is being implemented. Please base all responses on the 1996-1997 academic year. Please answer the questions honestly and thoroughly. Your response will be kept confidential. Thank you for your help.

Name: _____ Number of years as a classroom teacher?_____

Number of years as SFA facilitator?_____

Were you at this school at the inception of SFA?

School Name:_____

School Address:_____

Phone:_____Principal:_____

Which academic year was SFA first implemented at your school? _____

Number of years as a SFA School? _____

How would you rate the **overall quality of implementation** of SFA during the 1996-1997 academic year at your school? **(Please circle one).**

1. Program is hardly evident, very poorly implemented or not implemented.	2. Program is being implemented, but many serious problems, some elements missing.	3. Mostly good implementation, some areas poorly or incompletely implemented.	4. Complete, solid, routine implementation.	5. Thoughtful, creative, enthusiastic implementation.

Section I. School Demographics (Please approximate.)

1. Please circle the descriptors which most closely describe your school setting:

Urban Suburban Rural

Inner-city Big city Moderate size city Small Town Other _____

	Please enter response here
Highest number of students enrolled during the 1996-1997 academic year	
Student racial and ethnic breakdown:	
% African-American	
% Asian	
% Hispanic / Latino	
% White	
% Other (please specify_____)	
Grade Configuration	
Percent free lunch	
Percent LEP	
Student attendance rate	
Student mobility rate	

Section II. Entrance into SFA

1. Are you serviced by: JHU West Ed Education Partners

2. Who are the main SFA consultants / trainers who worked with your school during the 1996-1997 academic year?

1._____

2._____

3. Who or what was the **initial** source of information regarding SFA to your school?

Another SFA school	District personnel	Title I coordinator	Principal
Parents or community member	Teacher (s)	Awareness presentation	JHU facilitator
journal article	Not sure	Conference_____	
Other_____			

4. Who or what was **most** influential in causing the school to adopt SFA? **(Please select only one.)**

District personnel	Title I coordinator	Principal
Teacher(s)	Parents or community member	Court order
Visiting other SFA schools	Not sure	Other_____

5. How would you characterize the position of each of the following groups with regards to adopting SFA, both on the **initial adoption** of the program and **currently**.

	Supportive and Enthusiastic		**Supportive**		**Neutral**		**Unsupportive**		**Against Adoption**		**Don't Know**
	Initial Adoption	Now	Initial Adoption	Now	Initial Adoption	Now	Initial Adoption	Now	Initial Adoption	Now	
District Personnel											
Title I Coordinator											
Principal											
Teachers											
Parents											
The larger community											

6. What resources were used **prior to your decision** to adopt SFA? **(Please circle as many as apply.)**

SFA video Awareness presentation Research articles

Visits to SFA schools (How many visits? _____) Visits from other schools (How many? _____)

7. What were the most important factors that went into your decision to adopt SFA? **(Please circle as many as apply.)**

Research findings Teacher support District support

Success of other SFA schools in district Had available funding

Possible state take over Court mandate

Pressure due to low scores Need to implement a reading program

Desire to make a difference for children Poor student performance on state or district test

SFA is part of a larger school-wide restructuring effort

8. What effective strategies did you use to create "buy-in" to school-wide change?_____

_____

_____

Section III. Quality of Implementation

1A. Evaluate the **level of implementation** of each of the following strategies/components of SFA as used at your school.

	Not Implemented	**Partially or Poorly Implemented**	**Adequately Implemented**	**Outstandingly Implemented**
Cross grade regrouping (at least grades 1 -3)				
8 or 9 week assessments				
Family Support Team				
Raising Readers (e.g., Books and Breakfast)				
Attendance program				
Parent involvement program				
Facilitator's support to teachers				
Grade-level team meetings				
Building Advisory team meeting				
Ninety minute reading period				

1B. Evaluate the **quality of implementation** of each of the following strategies/components of SFA as used at your school.

Rate the Quality of Implementation	Insufficient Several teachers not implementing well	Meets Expectations Most teachers implementing as described in training	Exceeds Expectations All teachers implementing very effectively	(N/A) Don't know	(N/A) Not Used
A. STaR					
B. Peabody Language Development					
C. Cooperative Learning					
D. PK/K Thematic units					
E. Writing from the Heart					
F. CIRC Writing					
G. Individual Tutoring					
H. Beginning Reading Program (Reading Roots)					
I. Beyond the Basics (Reading Wings)					

2. What factors were most helpful in implementing SFA successfully at your school? **(Please circle as many as apply.)**

Teacher support	Support from JHU facilitators and staff	Support of the principal
District level support	Networking with other SFA Schools	Staff commitment to the program
Effective tutoring	Materials (availability and quality)	Training prior to implementation
Continued training	Family/Parent Support	Structure of the program itself
Cross-grade grouping	Reduced class size	Cooperative learning components
Excellent test results	Continual update of new materials	Early success rates
Had available funding	Strong support of school site facilitator	Professionalism of teachers
8-week assessment	Protected 90 minute reading block	Outstanding facilitator
Conference participation	Consistent implementation	Consistent staff meetings
Monitoring of program	Staff fidelity to the SFA model	Volunteers
Monitoring of implementation	changes suggested by JHU	Other_____

3. What factors were impediments to your efforts in implementing SFA at your school? **(Please circle as many as apply.)**

Insufficient number of personnel	Inadequate funding
Lack of district, board or Title I support	Having to manage materials
Late arrival of some materials	Getting teachers to adhere to program structure
Lack of parental involvement	Insufficient number of classrooms
Insufficient and/or inconsistent training	Having to train new teachers
Poor JHU Facilitator	Insufficient time for staff development
Overall scheduling problems	Integrating transient students
Too much paper work for teachers	Not having a full-time facilitator
Large class size	Inconsistent updating of materials
Lack of commitment by teachers	Insufficient number of tutors
Lack of fidelity to the model	Resistant teachers
Lack of leadership	Space limitations
Lack of preparation time	Lack of materials in Spanish
Other_____	

4. Describe your tutoring program.

A. How many students are provided one to one tutoring five days a week by the following groups?

1. Certified teachers _____ 2. Aide-level tutors _____

3. Volunteer tutors _____ 4. Older student tutors _____

B. How many tutoring slots do you have at each grade level?

1st _____ 2nd _____ 3rd _____ 4th _____ 5th _____

C. How often is tutorial instruction provided in groups (rather than 1 to 1)? (**Please circle one.)**

Always groups	Usually groups, sometimes one to one	Usually one to one, sometimes groups	Always one to one	No tutoring provided

5. Describe your Family Support Program.

A. How many times a month does the Family Support Team meet?

1 2 3 4 More than 4 times a month Family Support Team not in place

B. What types of social services are integrated into the school through your Family Support Team? **(Please circle as many as apply)**

Medical	Food bank	Clothing	Protective services
Eyeglasses	Hearing testing	GED	Transportation
Parenting classes	Other_____		

6. How many Pre-Kindergarten classes do you have?

A. English Half day _____ B. Spanish Half day_____
Full day _____ Full day _____

7. How many Kindergarten classes do you have?

A. English Half day _____ B. Spanish Half day_____
Full day _____ Full day _____

8. What types of after school programs do you provide for your students, both academic and non-academic?

A. _____

B. _____

9. Has there been any change in principals since the adoption of the program? Yes No

A. If yes, did this change cause problems in the implementation of the program? Please describe:

_____

_____

_____

_____

10. Has there been any change in facilitators at your school since the adoption of the program? Yes No

A. If yes, did this change cause problems in the implementation of the program? Please describe:

_____

_____

_____

_____

11. How many hours per week do you spend on the following activities?

ACTIVITY	Hours per week
1. Observing teachers' classes	
2. Observing tutoring sessions	
3. Attending grade level team meetings or other small group meetings	
4. Attending Family Support Team meetings	
5. Meeting with individual teachers	
6. Meeting with principal	
7. Meeting with parents	
8. Preparing materials	
9. Dealing with eight-week assessments or regrouping	
10. Assessing individual students	
11. Record keeping for Title I or district	
12. Lunch room duty, bus duty, or playground duty	
13. Tutoring individual students	
14. Substitute teaching	
15. Other (Please specify)	
16.	
17.	

Section IV. Local Support / Networking

1. How often do you interact with other SFA schools in your area?
   More than once a week 1-4 times a month Less than once a month
   Never

2 What type of interaction does your staff have with other SFA schools in your area? **(Please circle as many as apply.)**

Phone calls	Meetings	Social get-togethers
Visits between schools	Local SFA Conferences	Sharing resources, materials or supplies
Multi-school in-service	E-mail	Facilitator communications
District facilitated meetings	Presentations	

3. Which person or group of people are most important in maintaining your school's interest in participating in a local support network? **(Please circle as many as apply.)**

District Personnel	Title I Coordinator	Principal	Facilitator
Teachers	JHU staff encouragement		
Other_____			

Section V. Policies

1. How have state and district policies required you to adapt your implementation of SFA?

_____

_____

_____

2. Have you applied for any special waivers from your district? Yes No

   A. If yes, what type of waiver? **(Please circle as many as apply.)**

Grading/Assessment waiver	Special Education waiver	Retention policy waiver
Personnel waiver	Length of school day waiver	Teacher in-service waiver
Promotion/failure waiver	Charter school waiver	ESOL waiver
Reading block scheduling waiver	P.E. waiver	Other _____

Section VI. Training Issues

1. How many training and follow-up days did you have during the 1996-1997 academic year?_____

2. Please indicate your satisfaction with the training your staff received from JHU, West Ed, or Educational Partners facilitators.

	Very Satisfied	Moderately Satisfied	Unsatisfied
A. How satisfied are you with the **initial training** your staff received from your JHU, West Ed, or Educational Partners facilitators?			
B. How satisfied are you with the **follow-up training** your staff received from your JHU, West Ed, or Educational Partners facilitator.			

3. How often do you speak to your JHU, West Ed, or Educational Partners facilitator by phone?

   More than once a week 1-4 times a month Less than once a month

Section VII. Budget Issues

1. How would you describe your current level of funding? **(Please circle.)**

Fully Adequate	Moderately Adequate	Adequate	Moderately Inadequate	Inadequate

2. Have you had any major funding changes since the inception of the program? Yes No
   (Please circle any of these situations which apply to your school.)

   Title I funds cut Title I funds increased

   Grants allocated for SFA decreased Received additional grants for the implementation of SFA

   Loss of school-wide Title I status Received approval as school-wide Title I school

   School operating budget decreased School operating budget increased

   State/local funds decreased State/local funds increased

   Budget reorganization School reorganization

3. Has there been a change in your school's population since the inception of the program? Yes No

(Please circle any of these situations which apply to your school.)

Population increased	Population decreased	Loss of free/reduced lunch students
Increase in free/reduced lunch students	Reduction of identified Title I students	
Increase in bilingual students	Decrease of LEP students	Increase of LEP students
School re-configured	Influx of new students due to positive results of SFA	

Section VIII. Views on School Reform and School Change

Part 1. Please read the following scenario, then respond to the questions which follow.

Highland Elementary School, a large racially mixed school in the Northeast section of the United States, is under consideration for state reconstitution. Over the last decade, Highland Elementary has experienced a steady and rapid decline in student performance on statewide assessment measures, teacher morale, and community support. Additionally, Highland Elementary suffers from high student mobility and high teacher turnover. On July 7th, Dr. Tejeda, principal at Highland for the past 12 years, became seriously ill and was forced to take early retirement. Although the untimely news of Dr. Tejeda's retirement was unfortunate, many community leaders viewed it as an opportunity to make fundamental change at Highland Elementary School.

To the surprise of many community leaders, the district moved quickly and narrowed down the candidate pool to two external candidates. Both candidates are currently vice principals at smaller schools in neighboring districts, and are believed to have the experience and vision necessary to inspire, lead, and manage the type of reform efforts needed to withstand the threat of state reconstitution. What separates the two candidates most distinctly is their philosophy regarding school change.

Candidate A's vision for Highland Elementary School focuses on systemic school reform specifically looking to raise standards and accountability through shared governance. The main thrust of Candidate A's plan calls for greater collaboration between teachers and parents in the decision making processes of the school. He proposes forming a Policy and Standards Committee, whose mission is to develop new academic standards and general operating procedures for the school. Candidate A strongly believes that policies and practices developed by teachers, in collaboration with parents, will yield the greatest improvement in students achievement, as well as teacher job satisfaction. Teachers will be given the authority and autonomy, within the guidelines of district policies, to engage in the practices which "best meet" the needs of their students. This approach allows individual teachers to use their creative and professional judgment to develop educational strategies and innovations that are tailored to the specific contexts in which they teach.

Candidate B, on the other hand, is advocating for a more comprehensive reform approach. His vision for Highland Elementary School calls for a relatively well-specified approach to curriculum, instruction, and school organization. He is advocating to implement an externally developed school reform model which would provide curriculum materials, teachers' manuals, and professional development. This approach, which tends to be school-wide and highly prescriptive, will alter patterns of staffing, school governance, and other features of school organization. Candidate B believes that providing teachers with proven effective educational strategies and extensive training in how to use them is the best way to improve student achievement.

The school community is very excited about both candidates. There is great hope and optimism that a new principal is the first of many steps in turning the school around.

Part 2. Using a 7 point scale (where 1=strongly disagrees, 4=neutral, 7=strongly agree), indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements as they relate to school change. Please focus on your view regarding the approach to school change, not the specifics of the changes outlined in the scenario.

View of the Change Process	Candidate A		Candidate B
This type of change will benefit Highland Elementary School	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I like this type of change	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I would look forward to such changes if I were an educator at Highland	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		1 2 3 4 5 6 7
This type of change helps teachers perform better	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Teachers look forward to such change	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I would enjoy going through this change process	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		1 2 3 4 5 6 7
This type of change improves the work conditions of schools	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I would be frustrated by this type of change	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I would advocate for this type of change	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I would resist this type of change	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I would give this type of change a try	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Teachers resist this type of change	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		1 2 3 4 5 6 7
My colleagues would think that I support this type of change	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		1 2 3 4 5 6 7
This type of change stifles teachers	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		1 2 3 4 5 6 7
This is an effective approach to school change	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		1 2 3 4 5 6 7
This is an effective approach to improving student achievement	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Section IX. Conference Participation

1. Circle the year(s) **you** participated in the annual SFA conference in Baltimore or Southern California.

   1994 1995 1996 1997 None

2. Circle the year(s) **others from your staff** participated in the annual SFA conference in Baltimore or Southern California.

   1994 1995 1996 1997 None

Section X. Program Effectiveness

1. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements regarding your overall SFA program.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. SFA is having a positive impact on my school.					
2. SFA is having a positive impact on students' **interest** in reading at my school.					
3. SFA is having a positive impact on students' **achievement** in reading in the classroom.					
4. SFA is having a positive impact on students' **scores** on the district's standardized tests.					
5. SFA is reducing placement in special education.					
6. SFA is increasing attendance.					
7. SFA is reducing discipline referrals.					
8. Teachers have received adequate materials and resources to implement SFA effectively					
9. I have felt prepared to be a SFA facilitator.					
10. SFA is increasing parental involvement at my school.					

The next phase of our research involves making site visits and surveying classroom teachers. Can we contact you regarding becoming a possible research site? Yes No

Thank you for your time and assistance.

APPENDIX B

Scale Items

1. Teacher support
2. Support from JHU facilitators and staff
3. Support of the principal
4. District level support
5. Networking with other SFA Schools
6. Staff commitment to the program
7. Effective tutoring
8. Materials (availability and quality)
9. Training prior to implementation
10. Continued training
11. Family/parent support
12. Structure of the program itself
13. Cross-grade grouping
14. Reduced class size
15. Cooperative learning components
16. Excellent test results
17. Continual update of new materials
18. Early success rates
19. Had available funding
20. Strong support of school site facilitator
21. Professionalism of teachers
22. Eight-week assessment
23. Protected 90-minute reading block
24. Outstanding facilitator
25. Conference participation
26. Consistent implementation
27. Consistent staff meetings
28. Monitoring of program
29. Staff fidelity to the SFA model
30. Volunteers
31. Monitoring of implementation of changes suggested by JHU
32. Insufficient number of personnelInadequate funding
33. Lack of district, board, or Title I support
34. Having to manage materials
35. Late arrival of some materials
36. Getting teachers to adhere to program structure
37. Lack of parental involvement
38. Insufficient number of classrooms
39. Insufficient and/or inconsistent training
40. Having to train new teachers
41. Poor JHU Facilitator
42. Insufficient time for staff development
43. Overall scheduling problems
44. Integrating transient students
45. Too much paper work for teachers
46. Not having a full-time facilitator
47. Large class size
48. Inconsistent updating of materials
49. Lack of commitment by teachers
50. Insufficient number of tutors
51. Lack of fidelity to the model
52. Resistant teachers
53. Lack of leadership
54. Space limitations
55. Lack of preparation time
56. Lack of materials in Spanish