An Analysis of the Impact of "Success for All" on Reading , Attendance, and Academic
Self-Efficacy with At-Risk Elementary School Students

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(ABSTRACT)

The purpose of this quantitative/qualitative evaluation study was to analyze the impact
of the Success for All (SFA) program on reading achievement, attendance, and academic
self-efficacy. Robert Slavin (1996) and his colleagues at Johns Hopkins University
developed the Success for All program, which incorporates a comprehensive school
restructuring approach. This program focuses on improving achievement of at-risk
children and aims to have every child reading on or above grade level by grade three
(Slavin, 1996).

Two urban, schoolwide Title I elementary schools were compared using a non-equivalent
matched group, evaluation design. Stanford 9 reading comprehension scores and
attendance data were analyzed through an Analysis of Variance. Results yielded positive
effects for group membership (SFA, non-SFA) in reading achievement and reading self-
efficacy with mean scores of 58.6 NCEs vs 33.6 NCEs and 86.6 vs 68.7 respectively.
Focus group results showed strong parental and staff support for the program.

Implications are presented along with suggested future avenues of research such as the
SFA program's impact over time and the investigation of the program's impact on other
measures of achievement.

Key Words: Reading, Title I, Efficacy, At-Risk

DEDICATION

Dedicated

to

my husband

Terrence Lynn Atkinson

and our sons

Taylor Lynn, Alexander Jenkins and Austin Howell Atkinson,

I love you!

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

thanks for your love, words of encouragement, and mounds of understanding and support. Your strength and courage provide a model surpassed by none. To my father, Jack Doyle Howell, Sr., thanks for encouraging me to begin, in spite of circumstances, by paying for my first semester! To my mother-in-law, Marian J. Atkinson, for your unconditional support, love, and encouragement, thanks. Thanks to my brother, Jack, Jr., for the spending cash. To all those who I may have forgotten to mention. THANKS!

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Chapter 1

Introduction

<u>Background</u>

Schools have always been expected to have and maintain high standards of literacy. Today's demands from society dictate that even higher standards be applied. Contrary to the popular belief that modern information technologies would greatly reduce our having to rely on the printed word, reading and writing are even more important than ever before.

Sometimes, in spite of administrators' and teachers' best efforts, significant numbers of children continue to fail to achieve the success required in elementary school to enable them to make the satisfactory educational progress that would give them opportunities for an array of career choices and increase their chances of having a happy, productive life. This problem is obviously, and unfortunately, a wide-spread one that varies from system to system.

When a child reaches third grade, it is possible to accurately predict who will eventually drop out of school and who will earn a high school diploma (Lloyd, 1978). Therefore, if children are not reading on grade level by third grade, the chances of their graduating from high school are greatly decreased.

We have learned through Bandura's social learning theory of self-efficacy and through Schunk's research, which took Bandura's theory and applied it to practice, that a person's self-efficacy greatly impacts performance in areas such as sports, health care and academic behaviors (Owen, Yakimowski, Froman, 1989). If students have weak academic efficacy beliefs, they are surely at risk in the school setting. Therefore, when addressing literacy and how to positively impact it, knowing a student's efficacy relative to the specific task at hand will assist in effectively planning or selecting appropriate programs.

In an effort to address this severe literacy deficiency, the federal government began

its Title I (formerly known as Chapter I) Remedial Literacy Program to help combat these issues. The Title I initiative was the largest federally-funded program designed to provide schools having high numbers of at risk students additional financial resources to appropriately and adequately address the literacy deficiencies plaguing many school divisions. Unfortunately, the Title I traditional program is being criticized because of its perceived and now proven lack of positive impact on academic achievement. In the National Assessment of Educational Progress report, it was found that Title I funding and its programming regulations had not met its original goals. In fact, in many instances school populations had regressed. Title I did, however, confirm that attendance, gender, and socioeconomic status played an important role in student success rates. It has also been suggested that a number of other risk factors be carefully considered when attacking poor student achievement such as grade retention, behavior problems, and being enrolled in schools with a large percentage of poor children (Natriello, McDill, & Pallas, 1990).

Therefore, various programs have been developed to enhance the literacy of children, particularly at-risk children, by employing early intervention strategies. One such program that has been extremely effective in improving reading achievement of at-risk children is Success for All (SFA), which was developed by Robert Slavin and his colleagues at Johns Hopkins University. This program is a comprehensive approach to restructuring elementary schools. It focuses on prevention and intensive early intervention for children, preschool through grade six.

Significance of the Study

This study is particularly important today since Title I traditional programming is being criticized because of its perceived lack of positive academic impact. Success for All is one program implemented with Title I funds that school administrators may want to contemplate employing as an alternative to traditional Title I programming. They may also consider it as they begin to explore alternative ways to educate already identified

special education students and search for ways of decreasing the number of children found eligible for special education, particularly in the learning disability category. There are implications for understanding the effects of SFA on students' academic self-efficacy and how it directly ties to student achievement, performance, and attendance.

Purpose of the Study / Problem Statement

The purpose of this causal-comparative study is to analyze the impact of the Success for All Program on reading comprehension, attendance and academic self-efficacy within the urban schoolwide Title I elementary setting.

Theoretical Base / Conceptual Foundation

Reading Achievement. When we begin to look at reading achievement, we must first look at its root— language. Language is the most important functional social need in our society. In his book, The Language Instinct, Pinker (1994) writes, "Language is so tightly woven into human experience that it is scarcely possible to imagine life without it" (p. 17). He adds, "If you find two or more people together anywhere on earth, they will soon be exchanging words. When there is no one to talk with, people talk to themselves, to their dogs, even their plants" (p.17).

Language begins long before a child comes to school. The theory that a child's first words are mama, dada and baba is thought to be as a result of the unborn infant having heard the mother's heart beat for so long and these words have the rhythm of this sound. It is no accident that the three middle ear bones, the hammer, the anvil, and the stirrup, are the only bones that are fully developed at birth. Children, therefore, listen before they speak.

Research has shown that children who do not develop proficiency in language during the first years of life are up to six times more likely to experience reading problems when they go to school (Clay, 1990). This implies that parents are, essentially, children's first reading teachers. It is in the home that children get their linguistic

empowerment. It would be wonderful if all homes were language rich environments used to encourage and provide thoughtful answers to questions. The reality is, however, that all children do not receive this encouragement at home and come to school deficient or behind their peers in this area.

If reading is rooted by early language development which is ingrained through environmental factors, it is important to understand information processing models as viewed by theorists. Information process theorists build their models based on three assumptions: (1) reading and writing consist of a number of subprocesses used to perform specialized tasks, (2) readers and writers have limited capacity for attention so that tradeoffs occur across the subprocesses, and (3) competence in reading and writing is determined by the degree of attention needed to operate subprocesses; thus, the less memory needed, the more efficient the operation (Pinker, 1994).

Achievement and Attendance. Since school attendance is an integral part of a child's success in school, the rate at which children are absent from school is relevant. Many studies have documented a positive correlation between attendance and achievement. One such study by Ziomek and Schoenenberger (1983) which looked at Title I math and reading programs found a low but positive correlation between better attendance and higher achievement. This might indicate that attending school equals higher achievement, and higher achievement equals higher self-efficacy. Others might argue that higher achievement equals better attendance and that better attendance equals higher self-efficacy. For purposes of this study we will look only at the effect of SFA on attendance.

Academic Self-Efficacy. Through theory and research, the types of cognitive processes in which students engage during classroom learning have been identified. Cognitive processes, such as attending, coding, associating, rehearsing and monitoring, through reciprocal interactions and instructional events cause classroom learning. The

cognitive processing that students employ during a learning activity should influence their self-efficacy (Winne, 1993).

From the perspective of self-efficacy, the belief that one can effectively process information can convey a sense of personal control over learning outcomes, which further strengthens perceived self-efficacy for learning (Bandura, 1982). Through progress in developing skills, this sense of efficacy is validated.

In the social learning theory, people are not driven by inner forces and they are not buffeted by environmental stimuli (Bandura, 1977). Rather, the terms of a continuous reciprocal interaction of personal and environmental determinants explain this psychological functioning. In short, the social learning theory perspective characterizes human nature as a vast potentiality that can be fashioned by direct and vicarious experience into a variety of forms within biological limits.

The causes of important events in lives continue to be what people seek to explain (Weiner, 1985). The search in achievement settings for causes results in such questions as, "Why did I do well (or poorly) on my test?" and "Why did I get an A (or an F) in reading?" Weiner (1985) proposed that ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck are likely factors to which students may attribute their academic successes and failures. The assumption is that general weights are given to those factors and that, for any outcome, one or two factors may be perceived as primarily responsible.

Self-efficacy has been found to affect choice of activity, motivation (effort expenditure, persistence), and skill acquisition (Schunk, 1990). Acquiring skills enhances perceived self-efficacy, or judgments of students' capabilities to perform tasks at designated levels. When students have low self-efficacy for accomplishing a task, they may simply avoid it. Conversely, they are more likely to participate when they believe they are capable. Students who believe they can perform well ought to work harder and persist longer than those who doubt their capabilities when faced with obstacles (Schunk,

1990).

Conceptual Model

      The conceptual model to support this study is displayed in Figure 1. The model shows that this study will determine the effects of the Success for All program by looking at the Stanford 9 test scores for reading achievement, days absent for attendance, and self-efficacy survey results. The theory here is that Success for All has an effect on these three variables, therefore supporting the claim of positive results.

Effects

of

SFA

Reading Achievement (Stanford 9)

Attendance (Days absent)Self-Efficacy

(Survey results)
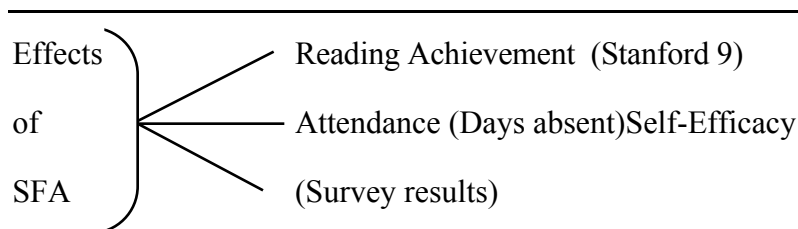
Figure 1. Conceptual model to support study.

Research Questions

      This study will seek to answer the following questions:

1. How well do students in the Success for All program perform as measured by the Stanford 9 Achievement test? More specifically, do students in the Success for All program perform in reading as well as similar students who were not enrolled in the program?

2. How effective is the Success for All program in enhancing student attendance? More specifically, do students in the Success for All program attend school as well as similar students who are not in the program

3. Do students in the Success for All program have a high academic self-efficacy in reading? More specifically, do students in the Success for All program have a reading self-efficacy level equal to similar students who were not enrolled in

the program?

4. How effective do staff members feel that the Success for All program has been? More specifically,

   a. How did the 20 minutes of oral reading homework impact students?

   b. What were your feelings concerning the students changing classes for reading?

   c. How did the Family Support Team impact parents and students?

   d. How did the Family Support Team affect the staff?

   e. How do you feel about having various ages or grade levels in one class for reading?

   f. How do you feel SFA has impacted the climate of the school?

   g. What effect do you feel the tutoring component had on the SFA program?

5. How do parents feel about the effectiveness of the Success for All program? More specifically,

   a. Based on your knowledge, what is your understanding of the SFA program?

   b. How did the 20 minutes of oral reading homework impact your child?

   c. What effect did the SFA program have on your child's motivation for attendance?

   d. How did it impact your child to be in reading class with students of different ages and/or grade levels?

   e. What did you see as the role of the Family Support Team?

   f. How did the Family Support Team impact your family?

   g. How did the SFA program impact your involvement in your child's education?

Definition of Terms

Self-efficacy: Self-efficacy refers to personal beliefs about one's capabilities to learn or perform skills at designated levels (Bandura, 1986).

Reading comprehension self-efficacy: This refers to personal beliefs about one's capabilities to successfully answer questions related to particular passages (Schunk, 1992).

At-risk student: A student who has fallen behind in academic performance in reading and language (Slavin, 1991).

Early intervention: Early intervention refers to programs developed for preschool and elementary age children designed to eradicate reading and school failure.

Attendance: This refers to the number of days a student is absent from school based on 181 school days.

Success for All: A comprehensive restructuring reading program developed by Robert Slavin (1991), Johns Hopkins University, designed to catch students before they fall into the cracks.

Title I (AKA Chapter I): Federally funded program which provides additional funding to schools based on the ratios of children at or below the poverty level.

Schoolwide Title I school: Schoolwide Title I school refers to a school receiving Title I federal funds and having at least 50% of its student population on free on reduced price lunches (U. S. Department of Education, 1996). This enables the total school population to qualify for remedial assistance.

Reading achievement: Reading achievement refers to student reading comprehension scores on the Stanford 9 test.

Delimitations/Limitations of the Study

This study is limited to only one experimental school. Preprogram implementation data is not available. Although the control school and the experimental school are both Schoolwide Title I schools with like populations relative to gender and socioeconomic status, schools could not be proven identical in composition, only similar. Therefore, it cannot definitely be said that the findings result only from the implementation of the Success for All program, but may be attributed to its implementation.

Organization of the Study

Chapter I contains background information, problem statement, the purpose of the study, a theoretical base, research questions, significance of the study, definition of terms, limitations and the organization of the study. Chapter 2 of the study will present a review of related literature. Chapter 3 provides an extensive description of the methodology and procedures utilized in the study. In Chapter 4 the data and analysis of the findings will be presented.   The study summary, discussion, conclusions, and recommendations are included in Chapter 5.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Chapter Overview

On February 4, 1997, President Clinton made a challenge to the nation:

> Every state should adopt high national standards, and by 1999, every state should test every 4th grader in reading and every 8th grader in math to make sure that high standards are met. These standards represented what all students must know to succeed in the knowledge economy of the 21st Century. Every state and school must shape the curriculum to reflect these standards, and train teachers to lift students up to them. To help schools meet the standards and measure their progress, we will lead an effort over the next two years to develop national tests of student achievement in reading and math.
> Raising standards will not be easy, and some of our children will not be able to meet them at first. The point is not to put our children down, but to lift them up. Good tests will show us who needs help, what changes in teaching to make to make, and which schools need to improve. They can help us to improve. They can help us to end social promotion. For no child should move from grade school to junior high, or junior high to high school until he or she is ready.
> To have the best schools, we must have the best teachers. Most of us in this chamber would not be here tonight without the help of those teachers. I know that I wouldn't be here. … We should recognize and reward our best teachers. And as we reward them, we should quickly and fairly remove those few who don't measure up, and we should challenge more of our finest young people to consider teaching as a career. (Excerpt taken from the 1997 State of the Union Address, United States Capitol, 105th Congress: President William Clinton, President)

He further stated that more must be done to help all our children read. Given that 40% of the eight year olds cannot read on their own, Clinton indicated it was important to launch the America Reads Initiative, which would build a citizen army of one million volunteer tutors to make sure every child can read independently by the end of third grade.

> This is also a challenge to every teacher and every principal.
> Your must use these tutors to help students read. And it is
> especially a challenge to our parents. You must read with your
> children every night. (Excerpt taken from the 1997 State of the
> Union Address, United States Capitol, 105th Congress: President
> William Clinton, President)

These statements made by Clinton are clearly the challenges facing educators today. Administrators and teachers alike ponder for solutions. This literature review will investigate research on the impact of gender, attendance and socioeconomic status on achievement. It will also discuss Title I Funding and its programming aimed at meeting the goal of helping children who are at risk of school failure improve their academic achievement and will additionally look at alternative restructuring programs designed to meet this goal. One such program is the Success for All (SFA) program being evaluated in this study. Through this review of literature a comprehensive examination of reading achievement, attendance, academic-self efficacy and the SFA program will be presented.

Achievement and Gender

Gender bias in testing is a topic of on-going debate and concern. Advantages to male test takers in many high-stakes standardized tests including the SAT, and others are well documented (Cleary, 1992; Sadker & Sadker, 1994; Rosser, 1989).

Gender and race/ethnicity appear to interact with family income and affect student achievement. In 1994, it was found that white females at the end of fifth grade had the lowest proportion of students in low achievement categories and that Black males had the highest percentage of low achievers. While the size of the achievement gaps was affected by the level of income for students' families, the pattern was the same for both income groups. Achievement gaps were somewhat greater in reading than in mathematics (Dulaney & Bethune, 1995).

Studies have shown that females tend to have stronger affiliative motives and

affiliative values than males (Leung, 1993). Translated into the context of achievement

motivation, this suggests that in achievement situations girls might have a stronger

socially oriented achievement goal orientation or social solidarity goal compared to boys.

Girls also are found to tend to perform better than boys in schoolwork (Mussen, Conger,

Kagan & Huston, 1990; Sadker, Sadker, & Steindom, 1989; Luepton, 1984). This gender

difference in school performance suggests that, since a strong task orientation is essential

for successful school performance, girls, relative to boys, might have a stronger task goal,

which is characterized by an emphasis on the task at hand, effort, and improvement in

one's work.

Achievement and Attendance

One crucial element of a child's success in school is school attendance. The

National Center for Education Statistics (1994) reported that the rate of absenteeism had

increased from 8% to 10% within a five year period.

Research has found that the average daily attendance is positively related to

achievement (Brodbelt, 1985). If children aren't in school they miss the instruction;

consequently, they do not learn. When children don't learn, their chances for academic

success seriously decreases. When students are persistently absent from school, it is

assumed that they become at risk for failure.   A positive relationship between

achievement and attendance has been found, and many principals and teachers alike feel

absenteeism to be a difficult and serious problem (Galloway, 1985). In a study to show

how school attendance affected the learning of regular education and learning disabled

students, it was found that school attendance has significant effects on regular education

and learning disabled students' achievement. When absenteeism increases, achievement

decreases (Heberling & Shaffer, 1995). Therefore, we see support for the notion of

absence having a negative impact on achievement. It is further suggested that the

availability of the learner is the basic ingredient of learning (Brodbelt, 1985).

Achievement and Socioeconomic Status

In the United States, research on the impact of family socioeconomic status (most

importantly, education and income) on the achievement of children has been clouded by

the issue of racial/ethnic group membership. Low socioeconomic status has emerged as a

dominating factor in achievement with little, if any, effect being explained independently

by minority group membership (Swanson & Engert, 1995).

Socioeconomic characteristics have been described as proxies for interactions

within families and society which tend to be related to socioeconomic status. Home

environment predicts academic learning twice as well as socioeconomic status of families.

Title I

The fundamental goal of the new Title I is to help children who are at risk of

school failure improve their academic achievement. The National Assessment of Title I

called for a much greater emphasis than previous evaluations on understanding the

operation and impact of Title I in the local setting. Recently, a report by the National

assessment of Educational Progress (1997) showed that children being served with Title I

programming were not making the academic gains expected but were actually continuing

to fall and remain significantly behind their peers. This news is disturbing and has called

for educators and legislators to begin to look for alternatives to address this academic

achievement issue. The new Title I regulations now look to fund researched programs that improve student achievement over time. One program that is being funded by Title I is the Success for All program.

<u>Success for All</u>

The Success for All program is a school-based achievement-oriented program for disadvantaged students in grades pre-K through five. This program is designed to prevent or intervene in the development of learning problems in the early years by effectively organizing instructional and family support resources within the regular classroom. SFA is based on the premises that:

1.   Every child can learn;

2.   Success in the early grades is critical for future success in school;

3.   Learning deficits can be prevented through intervention in preschool and the early grades by the improvement of curriculum and instruction, individual attention and support to families;

4.   Effective school reform programs are both comprehensive and intensive (Slavin, 1996; Slavin, Karweit, & Wasik, 1992-93; Wasik & Slavin, 1990a).

In particular, the goal is to ensure that virtually every students in a high-poverty school will finish the third grade with grade-level reading skills. The theme driving Success for All is that no student will be left to "fall between the cracks" on the path to acquiring good reading skills. It originally began through a partnership between the Baltimore City Public Schools and the Center for Research on Elementary and Middle Schools (CREMS), formerly at The Johns Hopkins University. Baltimore's school board president and superintendent challenged the research team at CREMS to develop a

program that would enable every child in an inner-city Baltimore school to read at grade

level by the end of grade three. The program was first implemented during the 1987-88

school year in Baltimore. To date, it has been fully implemented in many schools in and

outside the country (Balkcom & Himmelfarb, 1993; Madden, Slavin, Karweit, Dolan, &

Wasik, 1991b; Slavin, Madden, Dolan, Wasik, Ross, Smith, & Dionda, 1995).

Program Focus. The program emphasizes prevention and early intervention. The

prevention includes the provision of high-quality preschool and/or full-day kindergarten

programs; research-based curriculum and instructional methods in all grades, preschool to

grade five; reduced class size and non-graded organization in reading; activities to build

positive relationships and involvement; reduced class size and non-graded organization in

reading; activities to build positive relationships and involvement with parents; and other

elements. Early intervention includes one-to-one tutoring in reading from certified

teachers for students who are beginning to fall behind in the first grade and family

support programs to solve truancy, behavior problems, emotional difficulties, or health or

social service challenges (Balkcom & Himmelfarb, 1993).

Success for All combines interventions (non-graded primary programs, one-to-one

tutoring, eight week assessments, family support, and program facilitator) and staff

development in curriculum and instruction. It provides a school organizational plan with

flexible use of resources to see that students read, stay out of special education, and are

promoted (Slavin, Karweit, & Wasik, 1991; Slavin, Madden, Karweit, Dolan, & Wasik,

1991; Slavin, Madden, Dolan, Wasik, Ross, & Smith, 1993a; Slavin et al., 1993b; Slavin,

et al., 1995).

Just how does this program work? Specifically, there is a half-day preschool

program for all children to enhance the development of their language skills, readiness for

school and a positive self-concept. In a full day kindergarten program, the emphasis on

language is continued.

Program Components. The Success for All program has five essential components. The reading program consists of eight-week assessments, tutoring, Family Support Team, program facilitator, and staff developoment.

The Reading Program. Throughout the research, Success for All seems to have some different components at different sites. These differences are usually driven by the school's resources and needs (Slavin, Madden, Dolan, Wasik, Ross, & Smith, 1996). Although there are differences, there are common components at all sites. The Roots and Wings Reading Curriculum, which is based on the most current research on effective practices in early reading and the most effective cooperative learning practices for today's use (Slavin, 1995; Stevens, Madden, Slavin, & Farnish, 1987), is commonly implemented at all sites.

Reading Roots usually begins the second semester of kindergarten or may begin in first grade. The Roots program's base is a series of phonetically regular, yet interesting and meaningful, small books which emphasize repeated oral reading with a partner as well as to the teacher. Shared Stories, which begin the small books, have part of the story written in small type at the top or bottom of the page (for the teacher to read) and a larger part written for students to read. While the student portion is a phonetically controlled vocabulary, when put with the teacher text, it creates an interesting story for students. As the student progresses through the series of books, the teacher text becomes less, and students soon find themselves reading the entire book. This process has allowed a student with only a few little sounds to enjoy reading and exciting literature.

The introduction of letters and letter sounds begins with activities in oral language and moves into written symbols. Story structure, specific comprehension skills, metacognitive strategies for self-assessment and self-correction, and integration of reading and writing all make up the instructional package for the Roots teacher.

Reading Wings is the program name when students reach the primer reading level.

This program is an adaptation of the Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC) (Stevens et al., 1987). Story structure, prediction, summarization, vocabulary building, decoding practice, and story-related writing skills are taught and strengthened through cooperative learning activities. Engaging in partner reading, working toward mastery of the vocabulary, discussion of story content in teams, and structured discussion of stories or novels is a major part of the Wings program. Teams also work on story-related writing. It has been found that cooperative learning increases students' motivation as well as helps students to engage in cognitive activities, which are known to contribute to reading comprehension. A few of the skills which have been found to positively impact reading comprehension are elaboration, summarization, and rephrasing (Slavin, 1995). Also, CIRC research has found cooperative learning significantly increased students' language skills and reading comprehension (Stevens et al., 1987).

Teachers provide, along with the story related activities, direct instruction in reading comprehension skills. Again, these skills are practiced using their cooperative learning teams. Teachers receive trade books to use in their classroom libraries. These books are provided to teachers on the students' reading level. Students select the book of their choice to read for homework for 20 minutes nightly. Students prepare short presentations, summaries, puppet shows, and other creative formats to share home reading with their reading peers. These sessions of sharing are called "Book Club" sessions.

Students in both Roots and Wings are regrouped for reading. Students are assigned to a heterogeneous age-grouped class for most of the day. It is only for the 90 minute reading group that students are homogeneously grouped by successful reading performance levels. This means that all students in the class are reading at the same level. It also means that a level 3-1 class could possibly have first, second, third, and, unfortunately, fourth grade students in the same classroom and on the same successful

performance reading level. Since any certified staff member (such as librarian, guidance counselor, reading specialist, etc.) can teach reading, classes are generally smaller during the schoolwide common reading 90 minute period. This regrouping allows the teacher to teach to the entire class without having to break the class into reading groups. Therefore, the time spent on seatwork decreases while the direct instruction time increases. Workbooks, dittos, and other follow-up fillers are eliminated. This regrouping is a form of the Joplin Plan and has been proven to increase reading achievement in the elementary grades (Slavin, 1987b).

Eight-Week Reading Assessments. Reading teachers assess student progress through the reading program every eight weeks. Assessment results help to determine who will receive tutoring, monitor student progress, and change students' reading groups as necessary, plan adaptations in student programming and recommend students to the Family Support Team for assistance (e. g., screening for vision problems, help with nightly homework). Assessments are curriculum based and include formal measures of reading comprehension as well as teacher observations and judgments.

Students in the Roots program are individually assessed by a tutor or certified staff member. Students in the Wings program are assessed by their reading teacher using recommended materials of the school division and Success for All program.

Tutoring. One-to-one tutoring has been found to be the most effective form of instruction known (Wasik & Slavin, 1993; Wasik & Slavin, 1990b). Therefore, the use of tutors to promote students' success in reading is the most important element of the Success for All Roots and Wings program. Tutors are certified teachers with experience in special education, Title I, and/or primary reading. Paraprofessionals who are qualified and trained also tutor children. A certified teacher monitors and serves as a mentor to the paraprofessional and assists with the diagnostic assessment and any intervention strategies. Tutoring sessions are one-to-one and last for 20 minutes. These tutoring

sessions occur throughout the remainder of the day.

The tutors reinforce the regular reading curriculum rather than teach different objectives. However, while tutors work with students on the same story and concepts being taught in the reading class, they also try to use different teaching strategies and seek to identify learning problems. Metacognitive skills above those used the classroom program are employed by tutors. The number of tutors varies from school to school based on the school's needs, size, and personnel resources.

The decision about initial reading group placement and tutoring needs are based on the informal reading inventories given by tutors. First grades receive priority for tutoring. The feeling here is that helping a child be successful in reading the first time will eliminate students failing or becoming remedial readers.

Preschool and Kindergarten. Most Success for All schools provide a program for preschoolers and kindergartners that focuses on providing a balanced and developmentally appropriate learning experience. The curriculum stresses the development and use of language. Academic and nonacademic (music, art, movement) readiness activities are taught through thematic, interdisciplinary units. This approach includes the use of the Peabody Language Development Kits and Story Telling and Retelling (STaR). This is when students retell stories read to them by their teachers. The second semester of kindergarten is usually when the prereading Success for All activities begin.

Family Support Team. Henderson (1987), in The Evidence Continues to Grow: Parent Involvement Improves Student Achievement, asks these questions: "Does introducing parent involvement to a school or a program within a school improve student achievement? Does it improve the relationship between home and school so that parents and educators are better attuned to one another and can serve the children more effectively?" (p. 5). The answer is yes! In reviewing research relative to parental involvement and student achievement, it was found that there is consistent evidence that

when parents encourage, participate in activities, show an interest in education and school at home, there is a strong positive effect on the child's achievement, even after the student's ability and family socioeconomic status is taken into account. (Epstein, 1987). Involving parents and supporting families, regardless of whether the family is a "traditional" two-parent family, is a component of the formula for Success for All.

Family support teams work in Success for All schools to help parents feel that they are welcomed, respected, and active supporters of their children's education. This team works to increase parental involvement in schools, provide specific services, and bring program awareness to families. Activities focusing on workshops such as parenting skills are held conveniently at school. The "Raising Readers" program is one that gives parents strategies and tips to use with their own children.

Problem solving and solution driven, the Family Support team monitors attendance and provides support for students frequently absent. This team of parents, teachers, and staff (more specifically, a Title I parent liaison, principal or designee, counselor, SFA facilitator, and any other staff needed to address an issue) works to provide assistance when behavior issues come up or when a child is not working up to potential because of problems/issues at home. Lack of rest, nutrition, or the need for glasses are just a few examples of problems addressed by the Family Support Team.

This team receives referrals from teachers, tutors, or parents. Academic, behavioral, or personal issues can be discussed by the team. Because the Family Support Team is so strongly integrated into the academic program of the school, intervention strategies exceed what can be accomplished and provided by the teacher or parent alone. The Family Support Team also oversees the many volunteer roles within the school.

Program Facilitator. A program facilitator, who works directly with the teachers on implementation of the curriculum, classroom management, and other issues, oversees (with the principal) the operation of the Success for All program. This person's sole

responsibility is to help the principal with scheduling, help teachers and tutors deal with problems, visit classes and tutoring sessions daily, and coordinate the activities of the Family Support Team with instructional staff.

It has been shown, that without all the components, the SFA program is not a SUCCESS (Smith, Ross, and Nunnery 1997). The quality of the implementation affects the student achievement. For this reason, Success for All must have full-time facilitators.

Staff Development. All staff members, teachers and tutors, receive extensive training. A three day inservice at the beginning of the year is held for all staff. Trainers from the Hopkins staff work with teachers (Roots and Wings) and tutors, separately and collectively, giving them opportunities for small group instruction. They also receive detailed teachers' manuals.

Follow-up visits (implementation checks) are made by the Hopkins staff. These periodic visits consist of observing classrooms and tutoring sessions, meeting with the facilitator and principal, and providing positive reinforcement and advice for "next steps" toward improvement. During these feedback sessions, teachers have an opportunity to share their concerns and ask questions. The staff development model used places emphasis on brief initial training with extensive classroom follow-up, coaching, and group discussion.

Other Important Aspects. Although the SFA program costs are approximately $800.00 per pupil, many schools have chosen to implement this program school wide using Title I funding. The second year and long term costs, pending materials lost or worn, are greatly decreased to less that 50% of the first year start-up costs (Wasik & Slavin, 1990b; Smith, 1993).
Many schools across the country and internationally have become "Success for All" schools. These schools have had diverse populations and needs, but the one constant commonality that attracted them to the Success for All program is the fact that their

students are academically underachieving. Low student achievement shown by standardized and norm referenced tests often track back to one major problem: children can't read on the expected grade level and are not understanding what they read. This lack in reading adversely affects all other subjects, therefore, painting a picture of an extremely underachieving child. The question that so many ask is "Does this program really impact student achievement and, if so, how?"

Advisory Committee. The advisory committee reviews the progress of the program. This committee is usually comprised of the principal, facilitator, teacher representatives, parent representatives, business partners, and family support staff. Many schools, prior to implementing the Success for All program, have established a site-based advisory/ management team. This team generally assumes the role of the advisory committee. Many sites also have grade level teams that meet to discuss common problems and solutions.

Special Education. A major premise of the Success for All program is to keep students with learning problems out of special education if possible and to serve students who do qualify for special education so that the regular classroom experience for that child is not disrupted (Slavin, Madden, Karweit, Dolan, Wasik, Shaw, Mainzer, & Haxby, 1991). In many schools the special education teacher works as a reading teacher and tutor, serving students identified as learning disabled as well as other regular education students. Strong efforts are made to address students' learning problems within the regular classroom setting.

Success for All Outcomes

Since its inception in 1987, research on Success for All has shown an overall positive impact on student reading achievement and other outcomes (Ross, Smith, Casey, Johnson, & Bond, 1994; Slavin, Madden, Dolan, Wasik, Ross, Smith & Dionda, 1996; Smith, Ross, & Casey, 1996).

Quality of implementation continues to surface as a major factor in achieving maximum student achievement. On every measure, students in high-implementation sites scored significantly higher than those in both comparison and low-implementation sites. Adversely, students in low-implementation sites were statistically equal to comparison students in two areas and lower on three other areas (Smith, Ross, & Nunnery, 1997).

Success for All has shown significant and important advantages over control schools in achievement and in avoiding grade-level retention and special education referrals. It has also been interesting to see that children falling into the lower quartile have advanced further in Success for All schools over control schools (Venezky, 1994).

Many evaluations have shown that Success for All schools generally have a higher average test score and achievement scores when matched with control group schools. Attendance analyses tend to show fluctuations across time. Retention rates decrease annually in all program schools. The greatest concern in all evaluations seems to be the need for future funding to maintain or, in many cases, expand the present program (Venezky, 1994; Madden, Slavin, Karweit, & Livermon, 1989; Slavin, Madden, & Wasik, 1997).

Other special purpose studies have also found positive effects of Success for All on outcomes such as attendance and reduced special education placement and referrals (Slavin, Madden, Karweit, Dolan, & Wasik, 1992).

Many schools implementing the Success for All program are among the most disadvantaged and lowest-achieving schools in their districts. Most qualify as schoolwide Title I schools. This means that at least 50% or more of the student population receives free or reduced lunch (U. S. Department of Education, 1996).

Researchers have studied and evaluated a multitude of variables and program aspects with respect to the Success for All program. Much of the research has been conducted by Robert E. Slavin, founder of the Success for All program. However,

recently there have been more studies evaluating district SFA program implementations done by persons vested in the school division and its quality of overall programming. These studies seem to yield very different effects based on quality and level of implementation and resources available to the school. Other factors such as ethnicity, ability level, socioeconomic status, special needs, schoolwide Title I schools, tutoring, and gender have played a part in the evaluation process.

The studies in Table 1 were found to be very informative in determining researched effects of the Success for All program. Each has been summarized and discussed in the next section.

Research Evaluations: Reading Achievement. Success for All: A Summary of Research (See Table 1), a review by Slavin et al. (1996), reported results over a five-year period, beginning in first grade in 1986 with 55 SFA cohorts and 55 control cohorts. It was found that there were statistically significant positive effects for SFA at every grade level from one to five.   Generally, effect sizes averaged one-half a standard deviation at all grade levels. The most stunning results were the advantages for SFA students performing in the lowest 25% of their grades; these effect sizes ranged from +1.03 in the first grade to +1.68 in the fourth grade.

Progressive increases in SFA effect sizes with each additional year of program implementation reductions in special education placements at SFA schools, and higher performance compared to matched control students by first grade special education students assigned to SFA reading class were also found.

"Bridging the Gap": The Effects of the Success for All Program on Elementary School Reading Achievement as a Function of Student Ethnicity and Ability Level (Ross, Smith, & Casey, 1997) examined the effects on reading achievement of the Success for All program for minority and nonminority students attending elementary school in a small midwestern city (see Table 1).

Participants in the study were in grades two through four at two SFA schools and two matched control schools. All four schools were in the same school district in a medium-sized midwestern city. Each school had a full day kindergarten program and served students through grade six. SFA was implemented in an effort to raise students' academic achievement in two schools.

Effect sizes were reported for program comparisons and ethnicity comparisons. Three reading scales were used from the Woodcock Reading Mastery Tests (Woodcock, 1987): Word Attack, Word Identification, and Passage Comprehension. In grades two and three a fourth scale, Oral Reading, was added from the Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulty (Durrell & Catterson, 1980).

MANCOVAs and ANCOVAs were conducted on each of the reading tests with PPVT scores as covariant at grades two and four. The overall cumulative effects for the lowest 25% reveal large SFA effects ranging from +0.30 (grade four, 1994–1995) to 0.79 (grades one and two, 1992–1993) across all grades and years. Cumulative effects were very positive for the first two years of implementation, but very small effects approaching zero were found in the third year. This study showed that SFA had varied effects on student achievement in the two participating schools. The achievement of minority students and low achievers was enhanced, but SFA had a negligible impact on nonminority student achievement. Initially, when all students were pre-tested in kindergarten, race/ethnicity was consistently negative. When post-tested in 1994, the nonminority students in control schools still scored lower than their nonminority peers. But in the experimental schools (SFA) minority students were scoring much closer to and,

Insert Table 1

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in some cases, two grade levels directionally higher than their nonminority counterparts (Ross, Smith & Casey, 1997).

Program effects showed little difference in achievement between SFA and control students. Third graders in control schools gained equivalent, and in one case, gained higher than their experimental counterparts.

These findings suggested that SFA may be a program that helps to "bridge the gap" between minority and nonminority students' achievement. It also points to the issue of program implementation. The quality of implementation and needs of the students greatly impact SFA's effect.

An Evaluation of Success for All (Venezky, 1994) for the France and Merrick Foundation was done over a one-year period and included site visits to five different SFA schools in Baltimore City Public Schools (BCPS). Interviews with BCPS and SFA staff members, analysis of student records, and an examination of SFA data and reports yielded the following results. All schools seemed student centered. The administrators and teachers were positive about the program. Unfortunately, deviations from the full SFA program model are happening. Concern over CTBS scores and lack of funding are driving forces behind program deviations. One example given is that tutoring was being done in small groups rather than one-to-one.

SFA did show advantages over control schools in achievement and in avoiding grade level retention. Special education referrals were also reduced. Students who were in the lowest quartile of the reading performance distribution advanced further in SFA schools. SFA students still averaged almost 2.4 years behind national norms by the end of fifth grade.

Students who had different years of exposure were also compared. It was found that after first grade there were not additional advantages derived from SFA. When students had completed first grade in an SFA school, then left and went to another school

in the division, their performance was compared to those students who remained in the SFA school until grade five (or for six years). This result was unexpected and suggests the model may need to be reevaluated as to how instruction is addressed after first grade.

This study suggested that more emphasis be placed on study skills. Additionally, because SFA appears to have the most success in the primary grades, it might be advisable for this program to focus on reading, concentrating on the primary grade levels since whole language was producing a large number of nonreaders in inner-city schools.

Success for All: Multi-year Effects of a Schoolwide Elementary Restructuring Program (Madden, Slavin, Karweit, Dolan, & Wasik, 1991a) studied the effects of SFA on schools serving large numbers of disadvantaged students (see Table 1). Seven SFA schools were matched with a comparison school that had a similar percent of students receiving free lunch, similar achievement history, and other factors. Students were individually matched on standardized achievement test scores in each matched school. Tests were individually administered to students by college trained students. All measures were the same as those used by Slavin et al. (1990).

Abbottston, the first school to implement the SFA program, was supposed to test the long- and short-term effects of concentrating additional resources at the early grade levels to keep children from "falling into the cracks" and to ensure they have adequate reading skills by the end of third grade. This school site is a "fully funded" SFA program school. All components, including a full-time facilitator, were implemented. The pre-K and kindergarten results showed gains for the first two years. The results for the third year, although the teachers and curriculum stayed the same, were not statistically different.

Results for students in grades one through three revealed a substantial effect on all reading measures. The effects for the lowest 25% of students yielded similar in magnitude. Prior to SFA there was an 11% retention rate. It is now (after SFA program

implementation) less than one percent. The special education, learning disabilities,

assignments have also declined by approximately two students per year. (It should be

noted that this may not be considered an outcome of the SFA program, but is important

for consideration.) City Springs Elementary School serves the second largest proportion

of children in poverty in Baltimore. Historically, it has been among the lowest-achieving

schools in the city. Students attending this school came from housing projects.

Prekindergarten and kindergarten results were positive, similar to those of prior years.

Outcomes in grades one through three were positive, but to a lesser degree than at

Abbottston. First grade showed significant positive effects only on the Woodcock Word

Attack (mean effect +0.22). However, the lowest achieving students had positive effects

on both Woodcock scales (mean effect +0.87). Second graders also had positive results

on both Woodcock scales (average mean +0.41). The lowest 25% of student scores were

not statistically significant (average effect size +0.32). Third grade outcomes were

essentially zero for students in general. The low achievers had positive scores on the

Durrell Oral and both Woodcock scales (average effect size +0.84).

Retentions were reduced to zero from the prior 10%. Special education

placements for learning disabilities have been slightly reduced. (They were already low

prior to SFA implementation.)

The Chapter I schools (schools that reconfigured their existing Chapter I funds to

support the program) have a part-time facilitator who is a Johns Hopkins staff member

rather than a school district staff member.

There were three Chapter I (Title I) schools: Nichols, Harris, and Tubman

Elementary Schools. Each of these schools had fewer tutors than other local SFA schools

(Abbottston and City Springs). Because of insufficient funding only one-third of

students in the Chapter I only schools were given individual assessments. No significant

differences were found in preschools, but significant differences on the TOLD scales

favored SFA in kindergarten. Overall, first grade outcomes were favorable for SFA.
Surprisingly, scores for the lowest 25% of students were near zero, showing no growth.
In second grade, very positive effects were found, and the lowest 25% showed positive
effects for SFA on both the Woodcock and Durrell scales. Third grade effects were near
zero. Retentions in these schools were reduced, but not eliminated. Retentions went
from 9% average to 3%.

Philadelphia's Francis Scott Key Elementary School was the first to implement
SFA outside of Baltimore. There are significant numbers of students who have limited
English proficiency. Interestingly, 96% of this student population qualify for free lunch.
55% of the students were Asian (Cambodian). The rest of the student population was
slit evenly between African American and White. Since there was such a high number of
limited English proficient students (LEP), the experimental design had to be different than
that used previously. LEP student did not take standardized tests, therefore, making it
impossible to match students. Key was, however, compared to another Philadelphia
school with similar characteristics.

Results of the kindergarten students showed significant favor for Asian SFA
participants. Positive effects for non-Asian SFA students were found on the Peabody
scales with marginal effects on the Woodcock Letter Word and Merrill Scales. Asian first
graders had positive effects on all four reading scales. Results on the IDEA showed
differences, but no statistical significance. In second grade, positive effects were found
for Asian SFA students on all reading measures. However, in third grade there were no
significant differences for Asian students, and results favored the control group on the
Woodcock scales in the non-Asian group.

The last school reported in this study, Buckingham Elementary, was the first non-
urban SFA school. The school is 50% African American, 50% White American, and only
43% of students qualify for free lunch. This school originally implemented SFA as a

means of preventing special education placements.

A matched group of first and second graders were given individual reading measures. At the end of the first year, outcomes showed first grade scores for SFA positive. The lowest achieving 25% of students had very positive outcomes in favor of SFA. Second grade effects were marginally significant on the Woodcock Word Attack scale only with no significance on other reading measures, and for low achievers only the Woodcock effects were statistically significant.

Special education placements did change. Prior to the SFA program, 22 students in grades kindergarten through three were referred for possible learning disabilities and 12 were accepted into special education. In the first year of SFA only six were referred and three were accepted. Also, 11 self-contained students were mainstreamed to part-time resource programs after SFA implementation. Retentions fell from a low of three to zero.

Although the overall effects from these sites were positive, not all comparisons on all measures yielded statistically significant differences. Several patterns did emerge from these findings.

First, because of the phonetic emphasis of the beginning reading curriculum, results are usually positive, but not usually significant, on the Woodcock and Durrell scales. Gains usually appear higher for students achieving in the lowest 25% of their grades. This high outcome is probably directly tied to the fact that low achievers are most likely to receive tutoring. This points directly to the question of "does money matter?" The answer is in the resources. Results clearly show a positive statistical difference in high, moderate implementation schools with the low achieving (25%) students because of the likelihood of their receiving one-to-one tutoring. The more tutors (resources) available to a school, the more likely success rate. Typically, low resource schools have fewer tutors and only part-time facilitators. Outcomes from these schools tend to be lower and insignificant.

Another interesting pattern is that SFA tends to have very positive results for first graders after one year, first and second graders after two years, and third graders after three years. This pattern of early intervention and prevention is what SFA is founded and grounded upon, beginning students with success the first time they are taught. Helping students get off to a great start is the aim of SFA. Once students fall behind, they develop negative attitudes and anxiety that can interfere with school success.

An Evaluation of Schoolwide Early Language and Literacy (SWELL) in Six Disadvantaged New South Wales Schools (see Table 1) was done through Macquarie University, Sydney, NSW (Center, Freeman, Mok & Robertson, 1997). This study assessed a random sample of children from six disadvantaged schools in Sydney, SNW. The SWELL program, based on Success for All (Slavin, Madden, Karweit, Dolan & Wasik, 1992) was developed in collaboration with researchers at Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore. The SWELL program aims to develop the critical prerequisite literacy concepts as a whole class program in the first three to six months of kindergarten. This is done through the Emergent Literacy Program. During the last months of kindergarten and grade one a formal literacy instruction program, Becoming Literate, is introduced. Many components of the Emergent Literacy Program continue throughout for development and extension. Building prerequisites to reading that may not have developed in children before they come to school is the theme for this program.

Students who did not receive SWELL were compared through random sampling with children selected in the next year when SWELL had been implemented. Students were tested on six early literacy measures at the end of kindergarten and midway through grade one (which marked a half-way point in the SWELL program). Results showed that SWELL students significantly outperformed their control (non-SWELL) group on tests measuring decoding and reading connected text at the end of kindergarten and on tests measuring decoding, reading connected text, invented spelling, and a standardized reading

measure for students mid-way through grade one.

The outcomes in this research underscore the practice that a systematic whole class early literacy program, based on the latest research, offers significant literacy advantages for children who come to school without critical prerequisite learning skills. Since SWELL was modeled after the Success for All program, and modified for Australian conditions, it is not surprising that a whole class program for disadvantaged students proved positive. Success for All has been monitored for at least seven years (Slavin, Madden, Dolan, Wasik & Smith, 1994) and has shown very high-positive effect sizes for SFA students who are in the bottom 25% of their classes. Also, the longer a school participates in the program, effects on reading performance seems to be much greater for the entire grade.

The Relationship Between a Multi-Age Reading Program in the Primary Grades in Reading Achievement (Morgan, 1997) evaluated achievement gains of grades one, two, and three students in the POWER Reading Program (see Table 1). This POWER Reading Program is modeled after Success for All (Slavin, Madden, Karweit, Dolan, & Wasik, 1992). The POWER Reading Program was set aside from traditional practices for reading by offering different time allotments, grouping practices, and direct instruction components. A two-hour daily period for language arts instruction is set aside. This program was designed to foster students' reading achievement through multi-age settings and providing opportunities for students to be taught during an extended time frame at their instructional reading levels. This program is different also because it has no traditional built-in drill and seatwork practice. Students are grouped in small groups, which average about 12 homogeneously grouped students, who engage in multiple reading and writing experiences. In conjunction with the POWER program, RAPPS (Reading Assistance Program for Pupil Success) provides one-to-one tutoring for the lowest performing first and second grade students. RAPPS program is funded by Title I, and

Title I paraprofessionals tutor these students for thirty minutes daily for one semester of the school year.

This study evaluated the effectiveness of the POWER reading program and the impact of the RAPPS program on Reading Achievement.

The sample of 118 students in grades one through three from seven classes was used. The Gates MacGinte Reading Test was used to measure growth in reading achievement. All students were pre- and post-tested.

Results indicated that the reading achievement for the sample (POWER) group was not significantly different than the expected seven month increase and that there were no differences for students in gains by race, gender, socioeconomic status, or extra tutorial treatment.

Increasing the Chances of Success for All: The Relationship Between Program Implementation Quality and Student Achievement at Eight Inner-City Schools (Smith, Ross, and Nunnery, 1997) evaluated the reading and writing performance of first grade students at eight large, metropolitan area schools implementing Roots and Wings (R & W) (see Table 1). Four matched control schools were used. All schools were schoolwide Title I schools. Schools were grouped based on four demographic variables: percentage of qualified students for free and reduced lunch, rate of mobility, pretest scores, and percentage of overage students by grade 2.

The Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT) was sued to pretest all students. Students were post-tested on four reading subtests (word identification, word attack, passage comprehension, and oral reading) and on a writing prompt.

Results suggested significant differences favored students in R & W schools. Roots and Wings students obtained higher scores on word attack, comparable scores on passage comprehension and oral reading, and lower scores on word identification than their control counterparts.

Differences between high-implementation schools (implementation ratings were obtained for each Roots and Wings school by two raters who were knowledgeable about the schools and the model) and low-implementation schools and comparison schools were made across all tests. Program type was found to yield significant differences on test measures. Significantly higher scores were found for students in high-implementation schools over low-implementation and comparison schools on all four measures. Word attack scores were much higher for high-implementation than for comparison schools. Likewise, comparison schools had higher scores than low-implementation schools on three of the five subtests. Word attack and writing were equal for comparison and low-implementation schools. Interestingly enough, three of the Roots and Wings, which served higher proportions of disadvantaged students, high implementation sites were the only schools where students met or exceeded grade level expectations on tests.

Research Evaluations: Reading Achievement/Self-Concept. The Challenges of Implementing Success for All in a Canadian Context (Chambers, Abrami, Massue & Morrison, 1997) evaluated Success for All in Montreal and Quebec, Canada. The sample examined 543 at-risk students from four elementary schools. All four schools were inner-city schools where 40% of the student population had special needs.

The challenges they had to overcome with program implementation were financial (there is no equal to Title I), substantive (whole language is the mandated approach to reading), and procedural difficulties (teachers refusing to be observed, which is required by SFA). In addition, the majority language in Quebec is French; English mother tongue students spend a significant portion of time in language instruction class leaving little time for a whole school 90-minute reading block. This study looked at how these challenges were overcome. It further analyzed data on 128 experimental (SFA participants) and 136 control (non-SFA participants) students. Students were given the Woodcock and Durrell reading measures. Additionally, they were given the Harter self-concept measure.

Groups (SFA and non-SFA) were compared on reading achievement. On all subtests, SFA students performed significantly better than control students. Special needs SFA students performed significantly better on word attack and word identification than did their control counterparts. There were no significant differences on the self-concept measure.

Overcoming the challenges was accomplished through encouraging and rewarding those involved. It was found that many of the teachers had expressed frustration with years of having little, if any, student success. Teaching students with special needs was not working using the mandated method. Once the program was implemented, parents became enthusiastic, teachers began getting positive, constructive feedback through implementation checks, and everyone began seeing progress in the children's achievement. The commitment and creativity of the principal greatly helped to hurdle the procedural challenges. To defeat scheduling challenges, half of the day's activities were scheduled before recess and half after. Support staff spent time tutoring special needs students.

Teachers' concerns were heard with regard to hesitation to being observed and they were assured that the observations were for supportive feedback, not evaluation and would have no implications for their jobs. Financial barriers were met for the school term by research grants and a foundation grant.

Research Evaluations: Reading Achievement/Attendance. The assessment of Success for All School Years 1988–1991 by Ruffini, Feldman, Edirisooriya, Howe, and Borders (1992) evaluated the operation of the Success for All program in the Baltimore City School System. The Success for All program was originally developed through a collaboration between Baltimore City Schools and Johns Hopkins University. This study examined program implementation quality and its effects on student achievement as well as reported the overall picture of whether the SFA program is ensuring success for every child (Madden et al., 1988)

The study classified the degree of implementation into three categories: "Cadillac," "Chevrolet," and Reading Only. "Cadillac" schools were characterized by having implemented the full Success for All program as it was originally designed. The "Chevrolet" schools implemented the program but in a much less expensive way. Reading Only schools are self-explanatory. Although curriculum implementations remained constant along with materials and supplies, differences stood out in the number of tutors, family support team staff, and the time allotted for a program facilitator. The number of tutors a school had also played a role in school quality and implementation. Student-teacher ratios for Cadillac schools were about 25–30:1. Chevrolet schools' ratios for grades one through three were about 50–60:1. In family support, Cadillac schools had full-time counselors, full-time facilitators, and a parent liaison. Chevrolet schools had full-time parent liaison, half-time counselor, and part-time facilitator. Reading Only schools had no facilitator.

The sample in this study consisted of SFA students and matched control group students according to their standardized test scores at two SFA schools. No statistical analyses were used. However, California Achievement Test scores, attendance data, and special education entry data was reported for experimental and control schools.

Data reported revealed that a greater percentage of students are succeeding at Abbottston than are at City Springs. In both schools, Baltimore City School system results were higher than those of SFA schools. Students at SFA schools were not at grade level as was hoped.

Attendance rates in Abbottston are greater than those of the control group. However, in City Springs attendance declined the first year of SFA. Although attendance rates did improve over time, so did the attendance rates of the control school to the extent that the control group consistently exceeded the SFA school

There were no differences found between schools (SFA and non-SFA) with

respect to percentage of students placed in special education programs. The placement rates into special education once they left the schools were about the same (based on chi square test).

Overall, this study recommended that when determining the value of a program, many factors should be considered. Statistical analyses above cannot paint the entire picture of impact on students and staffs.

Conclusions of this study were inconclusive as to whether the SFA programs were operating as originally designed. The SFA program was simply not addressing the needs of the Baltimore City Public Schools' children. Minimum performance standards had not been met through SFA in this setting.

Overall findings relative to Success for All share several major points. Reading achievement for children, especially for low achievers, is positively impacted. Likewise, attendance problems and special education referrals seemed to be decreased significantly. Generally, most have found that quality of implementation has motivated program success.

<u>Self-Efficacy</u>

Bandura (1986) refers to self-efficacy as one's personal beliefs about one's capabilities to attain designated performance levels. It affects choice of activities, efforts expenditure, and persistence. He referred to this belief as a self system that enables individuals to have a degree of control over their thoughts, actions, and feelings. The picture painted by Bandura concerning human behavior and motivation was one in which beliefs people had about themselves were vital components in their exercise of control and personal agency (Pajares, 1996).

Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory theorizes that one's own thoughts mediate between knowledge and action causing individuals, through self-reflection, to evaluate their own experiences and thought processes. Knowledge, skill, and prior

accomplishments are sometimes inadequate, however, in predicting future efficacy since what individuals believe concerning their own abilities and their own outcomes directly impact the ways in which they will behave (Pajares, 1996).

While Bandura (1977b, 1986) hypothesized that self-efficacy affected choice of activities, effort, and persistence, he also shared the thought that self-efficacy could be raised by success and lowered by failure. However, once a strong sense of efficacy is developed, it is not likely to be negatively impacted by failure. Self-efficacy information is acquired by gaining knowledge of others through social comparisons and observations of models (Schunk, 1996).

Recently, interest in academic self-efficacy has grown, although a true understanding of the issues surrounding this theory remain unclear (Pintrich & Schunk, 1995; Schunk, 1996). The confusion seems to be centered around when and how individuals judge academic self-efficacy. Does it operate across domains in a uniform manner, and what ways are most acceptable to assess it (Schunk, 1996)?

Learners seem to judge their academic self-efficacy based on their own performances, observational experiences, physiological reactions, and how they themselves persuade in the academic arena. When learners observe their peers successfully complete a task, they are very likely to feel they, too, can accomplish the task (Schunk, 1989).

Teachers and parents often give students persuasive information indicating that they are capable of learning or performing a task (e.g., "You can read this story well."). When students receive positive feedback, their academic self-efficacy is heightened. However, this may be only a temporary lift if subsequent efforts are not successful. When students experience anxiety symptoms, they may interpret them to mean they can't or won't be able to complete a task. Students may perceive these symptoms signaling skill deficiencies.

Researchers have investigated and continue to investigate the relationship between beliefs and variety of academic performances and the relationship among the beliefs themselves (Pajares, 1996). Generally, results have supported the thoughts of the social cognitive theory with regard to self-efficacy (Multon, Brown & Lent, 1991), yet they have remained unsuccessful in explaining the relationship within and among self-efficacy beliefs and other expectancy constructs. Differentiating between the practical and empirical have also posed unmet challenges for researchers.

Assessing self-efficacy beliefs is commonly done by asking individuals to share the level, generality, and strength of confidence they feel in completing a task, given a particular situation, successfully (Pajares, 1996; Schunk, 1996). However, self-efficacy instruments in academic settings usually ask students to solve mathematics problems (Schunk, 1983) (see Table 2). Assessments also include asking students to report how well they feel they could do in specific academic areas (see studies, Table 2).

The issue of which type of questions to ask in assessing or predicting academic self-efficacy remains debatable.

Schunk (1996), who has conducted research in mathematics (long division, subtraction, fractions) and literacy (writing paragraphs, reading comprehension, listening comprehension), selected and ordered tasks by difficulty within the given domain. An example of this is the addition of fraction problems. Problems were ordered on the number of terms to be added, whether a lowest common denominator was to be found, and whether the answer to be reduced. Another example dealt with reading comprehension questions. The length and vocabulary level of the passage to be read ordered these questions as well as the skill types required to successfully answer the question (e. g., comprehending details, identifying main ideas). Therefore, it is critical that academic self-efficacy instruments not reflect global, generalized attitudes but be specifically geared toward the critical task for which they are measuring (Pajares, 1996).

So often, no critical task is identified which Bandura (1986) has cautioned would weaken effects and inappropriately define academic self-efficacy.

Research has also looked at academic self-efficacy judgment procedures. In many instances with cognitive skills, the same skill may be required in different tasks. For instance, math problems using different numbers such as 55–29 and 65–37 require the same regrouping skill. Therefore, students are given sample problems, questions, or tasks for a brief time (e. g., 6 seconds) for each efficacy judgment. This brief time of presentation is just long enough to assess the difficulty of the problem, but too short to mentally perform the operation. This way, students are only judging their perceived ability to correctly answer that type of problem, not whether they could solve a particular problem. Students make one efficacy judgment per task type (Schunk, 1996).

Although this study is not measuring self-efficacy for learning (improvement), it is important to note that it is possible. In self-efficacy for learning, students judge their capabilities for learning to solve different types of problems, write different types of paragraphs, or answer different types of questions (Schunk, 1996). Self-efficacy is thought to be extremely important information for school personnel to have relevant to motivation and learning (Schunk, 1989).

Schunk (1990b) reported that when students have a low self-efficacy for accomplishing a task, they may avoid it. Students who believe they are capable will probably participate more readily. He found that students are very different in what they believe concerning their capabilities to acquire knowledge, perform skills, and master the material. Educational experiences, abilities and attitudes were also found to account for these efficacy differences. In an early study done by Schunk (1980) he found that, when treatments were provided, problem solving principles, practice in applying the principles, corrective feedback, and self-directed mastery were effective in developing skills and enhancing a sense of efficacy in children who were low achievers in mathematics. On the

other hand, control children who did not have the benefit of the instructional treatment showed no significant changes in self-efficacy, remained unskilled at solving division problems, and became less persistent. When children are provided with instruction and opportunities to practice, it should lead to heightened self-efficacy and persistence. Both of these usually produce success experiences (Schunk, 1980).

Collins (1982) worked with children in low, middle, and high ability groups who had either high or low math self-efficacy within each ability level. At the conclusion of the instruction, students were given new problems to solve and a chance to rework the missed problems. He found that performance and ability were related, but regardless of the level of ability, students with high efficacy were able to complete more problems correctly and reworked more missed items. Similarly, if the specific task is measuring reading comprehension academic self-efficacy, then students are asked to judge their perceived capability in successfully answering different questions focused on comprehension of the main idea in a passage (Schunk & Rice, 1993, see Table 2; Shell, Murphy & Bruning, 1989).

Findings have also shown that when students believe they are capable of successfully completing an academic task, they persist much longer than those who do not (Pintrich & Garcia, 1991). Pintrich and De Groot (1990) reported that "students needed to have both the 'will' and the 'skill' to be successful in classrooms" (p. 38).

Overall, findings relative to academic self-efficacy share two major points. Efficacy beliefs that do not match the specific task with which they are missing or are globally assessed, diminish and may even nullify the predictive value. Likewise, when the efficacy assessment is closely tied to the specifically measured task, prediction power is greatly enhanced (Pajares, 1996). Generally, most believe that academic self-efficacy is a powerful motivational tool which works well with aiding in predictions of academic self-efficacy and works to its fullest potential when theoretical recommendations are practical

and adhered to.

In the following section, several studies which were both relative and informational to this study are discussed. Table 2 offers a snapshot view of each study discussed.

Related Studies. Learning Goals and Progress Feedback During Reading Comprehension (Schunk & Rice, 1991) was an investigative study done as a follow-up to a previous experiment by Schunk and Rice (1987) which looked at the effects of goal setting on students' achievement outcomes during reading comprehension instruction. This study investigated the effects of goals and goal progress feedback on reading comprehension self-efficacy and skill.

Thirty students (16 boys, 14 girls) from two fifth grade classes in an elementary school in Houston, Texas, were nominated by their teachers. Teachers were asked to nominate students who they felt would not have decoding issues while receiving comprehension instruction. The sample was limited in this way since decoding was not a part of this evaluation. Poor decoding skills could have greatly impacted the effects of the treatment. All participants were recipients of remedial reading because of their total

Insert Table 2

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reading scores on the SFA Achievement Series Level D (Naslund, Thorpe & Lefever, 1978). Scores were either at or below the 20% , which is roughly a Grade 3 reading level.

Students were pretested on comprehension self-efficacy and skill. The self-efficacy test consisted of eight passages which described and provided information about persons, animals, places, and events. The passages were taken from Books A, B, and C of Scoring High in Reading Comprehension (Cohen & Foreman, 1978).

After the pretest had been administered, students were randomly placed into three groups (gender and classroom were considered). All students received 35 minutes of daily training for 15 school days. They worked on instructional materials covering comprehension of main ideas. All groups were divided into two smaller working groups (six students each).

Students in the product goal group were told at the start of each session, "While you're working, it helps to keep in mind what you're trying to do. You'll be trying to answer questions about what you've read."

The process goal group was told prior to each session, "While you're working, it helps to keep in mind what you're trying to do. You'll be trying to learn how to use the steps to answer questions about what you've read."

The third group, process goal plus progress feedback, received the same as the process goal group with an added three to four times of progress feedback (e. g., "That's correct.") given each session. All students received performance feedback, and only the process goal plus feedback group received goal progress feedback. After the last instructional session, the post-test was administered. Students judged how well they could use their new strategies now as compared to before.

Results showed that process goal plus feedback students scored significantly higher on self-efficacy and skill test than process goal and product goal students. Product goal and process goal conditions were not different on either measure. The process goal

and process goal plus feedback groups showed no difference. However, each judged progress much higher than product goal students. Therefore, providing remedial readers with a goal of learning, a strategy, and feedback on their learning progress increases their outcomes relative to achievement. It is highly probable that these variables motivate students to learn, teach them ways to enhance their achievement, reinforce the learning of the strategy, and show that strategy use is helping them improve their performance. When this happens, students will likely feel a greater sense of control over their learning and outcomes, which raises self-efficacy (Schunk, 1990). It is also likely that students' self-efficacy for learning validated itself as students successfully applied strategies during instruction. Students' perceived control and high self-efficacy are crucial for poor readers since many of them doubt that they are capable of learning and feel as though they have not control over academic outcomes (Schunk, 1989).

The gains seen here in self-efficacy and skill may depend on the belief that the strategy is useful in improving one's reading comprehension. Usefulness should make it more likely that students will continuously apply the learned strategies, even when it is no longer required such as in the case of the post-test and afterwards, with the effect on achievement outcomes being higher.

The Development of Beliefs About Spelling and Their Relationship to Spelling Performance (Rankin, Bruning & Timme, 1994) examined relations among spelling performance and students' beliefs about spelling. This included self-efficacy for spelling ability, spelling outcome expectancies, and attributes for good spelling. Although spelling has captured the attention of educators, there is limited research in the area. Little attention has been given to motivation and belief variables relative to spelling. However, spelling related studies (Downing, DeStefano, Rech, & Bell, 1984) examined the spelling beliefs of a group of Canadian children in grades 1 to 6. Findings showed a drop in spelling efficacy as children progress through the grades. The indicator for predicting

spelling competency was increasingly measured by test scores from spelling tests as children moved up in grade.

This study looked at 687 public school students in grades 4, 7, and 10. Students were administered The Survey of Spelling Beliefs, which had four sections. Section I was aimed at gaining information regarding how well students learned to spell. Section II assessed self-efficacy for spelling. Students were asked to review a variety of spelling tasks and rate their level of confidence relative to their abilities in this area. The next section dealt with outcome expectancies. Students indicated how important good spelling was in achieving good writing skills, a set of school outcomes, and a set of life outcomes. Attributions for good spelling and spelling performance were then assessed. Students were asked to indicate how important they felt effort and ability were for a good speller. Last, students were given a 30-item spelling test. The spelling test targeted at each group (grades, 4, 7, and 10) consisted of words from various levels of difficulty. These words were randomly selected from reputable spelling texts. The typical spelling test format was followed.

The alpha level for all tests was set at 0.05. Results showed that the highest percentage of students felt that being tested on a weekly basis on a specific word list contributed to their learning to spell. No efficacy differences were found indicating that students did not seem to have a change relative to confidence in spelling as they moved through grade levels. Outcome expectancies for life met with the highest mean with writing second and school receiving the lowest mean score. Results from attributions for effort and ability found a disproportional decrease in attributions for ability as compared to attributions for effort in grades 4 and 7. Grade 4 students felt spelling performance was due to effort and ability. Grade 7 and 10 students felt strongly that effort outweighed ability.

In Strategy Fading and Progress Feedback: Effects on Self-Efficacy and

Comprehension Among Students Receiving Remedial Reading Services (Schunk & Rice, 1993) the effects of strategy verbalization with fading and strategy value feedback on children's achievement outcomes are explored. Strategies help students focus, attend to tasks, organize and rehearse information, monitor comprehension, and create a favorable environment conducive to learning (Garner, 1990; Meyers, Lytle, Palladina, Davenpeck & Green, 1990; Paris, Lipson & Wixson, 1983). Strategy instruction is especially beneficial for students with learning problems who often do not work on tasks in a systematic way (Paris & Wixson, 1986).

Conversely, students with reading problems who receive strategy instruction may not show gains in performance, especially over time and outside the instructional setting (Schunk & Rice, 1987, 1992). This could be attributed to the fact that the strategies are not learned well and/or used appropriately to promote achievement. Students may just doubt their ability with strategy use or see them as less important for task success (Garner, 1990).

This study identified 44 fifth graders from two elementary schools. Students were receiving remedial reading comprehension instruction and had satisfactory decoding skills. Students were given a pretest and post-test. The test was comprised of self-efficacy, comprehension skill, and self-reported strategy use measures. After the post-test was administered, students were assigned randomly to one of four groups: fading only, feedback only, fading plus feedback, and no fading or feedback. The post-test was administered two weeks after completion of the instructional program. This time lapse was allowed to measure retention of treatment on achievement outcomes.

Results showed that fading plus feedback, fading only, and feedback only conditions had higher efficacy than the no fading or feedback condition. The fading plus feedback, fading only, and feedback only conditions were demonstrated at a higher skill level than no fading or feedback condition. Strategy use was judged higher by the fading

plus feedback condition than the other three conditions. Fading only and feedback only conditions reported greater strategy use than the no fading or feedback condition. In a correlational analysis, self-efficacy related positively to strategy use and skill. Strategy use and skill were also positively related. This study provides evidence that teaching students to use multiple procedures/strategies with respect to reading enhances their skills and their efficacy.

The study entitled Goals and Progress Feedback: Effects on Self-Efficacy and Writing Achievement (Schunk & Swartz, 1993) studied how goal setting and progress feedback affect self-efficacy and writing achievement. This study replicated the Schunk and Swartz (1991) and Schunk and Rice (1991) methodology. This study used a sample of grade 4 students, 20 boys and 20 girls. These students received instruction on writing strategies and received a process goal of learning the strategy, a product goal of writing paragraphs, and a goal for working productively. Half of the students in the process goal were given feedback on their progress in learning to use the strategy. All students were pre- and post-tested. Students were assessed on their self-efficacy, skill, word per T-unit, strategy use, self-efficacy for improvement (students measured their efficacy for weekly improvement measures) verbalizations, and strategy value.

Results revealed that students receiving process goal plus feedback judged self-efficacy higher than did general goal students. Students in the process goal plus feedback also outperformed general and product goal students on writing, while process goal students outscored the general goal students. More words per T-unit were written by process goal plus feedback and process goal students than product and general goal students. On the maintenance measure, process goal plus feedback judged self-efficacy higher than general goal children. All conditions outperformed general goal students in writing.

In strategy use, post-test and maintenance scores showed process goal plus

feedback students had greater strategy use than general goal and product goal respectively. Self-efficacy for skill improvement revealed that process goal plus feedback again yielded higher efficacy judgments than general goal students in two areas and product goal students in one area.

The progress measure was significant indicating process goal plus feedback students felt their progress was greater than product and general goal students. Process goal children judged their progress to be greater than those of general goal students. Process goal plus feedback students also judged value greater than product and general goal students. On the think-aloud data, verbalizations yielded significance showing higher performance for the process goal plus feedback students over general students. These results show strong support for the practice of providing students with writing strategy instruction and a goal of learning the strategy to positively impact their self-efficacy and achievement. Strategy instruction in isolation is not as powerful in improving self-efficacy and achievement. Progress feedback proved especially important since children, particularly your children, can exhibit difficulty determining whether they are progressing and whether the use of learned strategies is effective. The idea that process goal and progress feedback would enhance transfer (learning the strategy or skill through using it) through raising strategy usefulness perceptions and self-efficacy is an important finding in this study.

In the study Academic Self-Efficacy in Elementary Students Owen, Yakimowski and Froman (1989) explored the academic self-efficacy of elementary students who were already identified as candidates for additional school resources. This study compared gender to the factor structure of academic self-efficacy, estimated the dimension that emerges from the factors and their reliabilities, and compared by gender academic self-efficacy expectations across grade levels. Factors were identified from subscales of the principal factor analysis and normed verbal skill and compliance. The Self-Efficacy for

Academic Tasks (SEAT) developed by Baum (1985) was used to measure students'

perceptions of confidence in performing typical school behaviors. This scale had been

used with a variety of student populations (average, gifted, and learning disabled), but no

reports of its use with educationally disadvantaged students were found. Data were

collected on 701 Chapter I served students by grade (grade 5) and gender. Students

represented an upper middle class urban area.

Results revealed that self-expectations about verbal skills and about compliance

yielded higher for girls. There were steady declines in efficacy beliefs as students got

older. This study reinforces the stereotype that gender differences can be found in self-

efficacy and may impact student achievement. However, Chipman (1988) cautions about

overreacting to gender differences. It could be that academic self-efficacy grows and

weakens by gender and subject area due to school experiences and maturity. Since there

was only a 5% difference in the largest category, aggression, it seems reasonable for us not

to jump to conclusions concerning gender and self-efficacy until further studies can be

done to explore this arena.

Ability Versus Effort Attributional Feedback: Differential Effects on Self-

Efficacy and Achievement (Schunk, 1983) explored how ability and how feedback on

effort given when students were receiving instruction on subtraction competency

development impact students' self-efficacy and achievement. Forty-four third grade

students from two classrooms (24 boys, 20 girls) were identified by their teachers as

having a subtraction skill deficiency of a rate of about 25%. These students were

administered a pretest individually measuring their subtraction self-efficacy. Students

were also given a subtraction skill test measuring their subtraction skill efficiency.

Students were then randomly assigned within sex and classroom into one of four

subgroups: ability attributional feedback, effort attributional feedback, ability plus effort

attributional feedback, and no attributional feedback. Upon completion of the 40 minute

training sessions over three consecutive days, a post-test was administered to all participants.

Results demonstrated when children are provided attributional feedback in the context of competency development, it promotes rapid problem solving, self-efficacy, and achievement. Observing their problem-solving progress during training had a positive effect on developing a sense of efficacy. Attributional feedback supported how students felt about their progress and validated their academic self-efficacy. Greater efficacy helped to sustain task motivation, which in turn yielded greater skill acquisition.

The Importance of Self-Efficacy as a Mediating Variable Between Learning Environments and Achievement (Moriarty, Douglas, Punch, & Hattie, 1995) explored the extent to which self-efficacy acts as a mediating variable between the learning environment and achievement.

Research has shown that cooperative learning environments with reward structures have positive effects on student motivation (Slavin, 1995, 1987b). When the learning environment is geared toward student participation, students are far more likely to see learning as a pleasurable and satisfying experience (Fry & Coe, 1980). Slavin has documented greater motivation among students who worked cooperatively. Individual accountability, group goals, and student interaction, all components of the Success for All program (Slavin, Madden, Dolan, Wasik, Ross, & Smith, 1993), are essential for achievement gains relative to cooperative learning (Slavin, 1987b, 1989).

Seven schools participated in this study. Each school was only five years old. One hundred seventy-five students were used in the analysis. Each class was assigned one of three methods for instruction of the social studies lesson. This assignment of either cooperative, competitive, or individualistic was to remain for five weeks. At the five weeks' end, students were post-tested for efficacy. Then classes were assigned a different instructional environment for the last five weeks. Concluding this, a post-test

was given to measure efficacy.

Each environment was defined as follows. Cooperative students worked together and helped each other on different but complementary tasks. Students were still individually accountable because every task had to have satisfactory completion in order for the group to receive its reward. In the competitive environment, tasks and groups were formed the same manner as the cooperative environment. However, students were told to work alone and competed for goals which could be achieved by only one person in the group. (Putting students in groups increased the number of students experiencing success.) The one student reaching the goal per group was rewarded. In the individualistic environment, each student worked on the same content, and rewards were given to individuals based on how well each student completed the task.

Videos were also made of each classroom as they participated in the study. Results acquired through video tapes revealed cooperative environments were associated with a high degree of purposeful activity and task related interaction between students. The competitive environment, however, had a large amount of time spent on unrelated activities. The purpose of the lesson seemed to get lost. The longer they worked in a competitive environment, the worse the off-task behavior became. Students in the competitive environment performed well on mapping skills even after having been in the individualistic environment for the first half of the study.

The findings of this study show that, developed over reasonable periods of time in a particular learning environment, self-efficacy can have a positive influence on behavior and over self-efficacy growth and achievement levels, given students proceed in different environments. They also show when students work in cooperative learning environments, they are likely to have greater levels of self-perception of achievement, self-efficacy, and actual achievement for knowledge and mapping skills in social studies.

Summary

Chapter 2 gave an overview of the literature currently related to the areas that the SFA program seeks to address. It further discussed the practitioners who have brought life to the theories presented in Chapter 2. Achievement (reading, gender, Title I), attendance, and academic self-efficacy were all explored as to their relevance and effect based on the implementation of the SFA program.

Chapter 3

Methodology

Chapter Overview

The purpose of this causal-comparative study is to analyze the impact of the Success for All Program on reading achievement, language achievement, attendance and academic self-efficacy at an urban elementary school. This chapter will discuss the sample population, measures used, and procedures followed to answer the questions posited in Chapter 1.

Population

The subjects in this study consisted of approximately 27 third grade students (to include special education learning disabled identified mainstreamed students) who have participated in the Success for All Program since beginning school and approximately 40 third grade students matched by gender who have not participated in the Success for All reading program.

The schools chosen to participate in the study were selected based on demographic similarities and their having met the qualifications for implementation of the SFA program. The experimental group has implemented the SFA program for four years. The control group has not implemented the SFA program, but plans to do so in the fall of 1997. For purposes of this study, all test and attendance data collected reflect 1996-97 third grade classes. Student surveys will be obtained from the control group prior to SFA implementation and from the experimental group during the same time frame.

Both schools are in divisions located on the East Coast, and both serve urban, diverse populations and are classified as Schoolwide Title I schools.

Data Collection Design and Procedures

A quantitative/qualitative, causal-comparative study analyzing the Success for All Reading (SFA) Program was designed using the 1996-97 third grade students who attend a

Schoolwide Title I school. This SFA school was selected because it is a Schoolwide Title

I school which has implemented and continues to use the Success for All reading program.

In a different school division, another Title I school with a like population that has not

implemented the Success for All program (non-SFA) was chosen as the control group.

The non-SFA group also consisted of all 1996-97 third grade students in the school. The

non-SFA and SFA groups can be classified as similar because the non-SFA group has

qualified to receive the treatment although for purposes of this study they have not. The

dependent variables, reading achievement, attendance, and reading comprehension self-

efficacy, were measured with the independent variables, group membership grades and

program (SFA, Non-SFA), and the moderator variable gender. To address these variables

a triangulated methodology was used: test data collection, document analysis, and

surveys.

A qualitative approach, responsive evaluation, pioneered by Robert Stake (1967),

was used to address the perceptions of stakeholders. The school administration was

asked to randomly nominate persons to serve as members of the groups. An

administrator and two teachers were selected for one focus group. Five parents were

invited to be a part of another focus group. Each group of stakeholders was asked seven

questions.

Quantitative Instrumentation: Stanford 9. For the purposes of this study, the

Stanford 9, an abbreviated form, was used. The Stanford 9 test is designed to "provide

data descriptive of overall group achievement trends" rather than individual achievement

because the individual domains are not measured with as much depth as the Stanford 9.

The Stanford 9 subtests contain only 20 to 30 items. During test construction, each of

these items underwent intense review by content and curriculum specialists to ascertain

that they were well constructed, adhered to the test blueprint, and were seemingly free

from cultural, racial/ethnic, and gender biases with regard to content, style, and

vocabulary. The items on the Stanford 9 cover a broad range of material within each subject area. A range of item styles also is presented. Many items incorporate visual aids, several require students to apply knowledge, and others ask them to draw parallels between two different sets of variables. Kuder-Richardson-20 (KR-20) measures of internal consistency are given as evidence of reliability. KR-20 coefficients for each subtest and composite test are provided separately for fall and spring administrations and test form. As with the full-scale battery, scores are available for each subtest, as well as composite scores for total reading, mathematics, and language and overall scores for the partial, basic, or complete test battery. Several types of scores are available with the Stanford 9. In addition to typical raw scores, percentile ranks, and scaled scores, the Stanford 9 provides stanines, grade equivalents, and normal curve equivalents (NCE). NCE scores were used to analyze data. Because these scores are on the interval scale of measurement, they provide more comparable data.

Quantitative Instrumentation: Reading Self-Efficacy Instrument. The self-efficacy reading survey selected will be based on the literature review relative to reading achievement and academic self-efficacy. The self-efficacy survey will assess children's perceived capabilities for correctly answering different types of questions that tapped comprehension of main ideas. The efficacy scale will range in 10-unit intervals from 10 (not sure) to 100 (really sure). The reading materials for the efficacy test will include eight passages from Books A, B, and C of Scoring High in Reading (Cohen & Foreman, 1978). Passages will range from four to 25 sentences, and each passage will be followed by one to four questions for a total of 20 questions. Four passages (nine questions) are appropriate for grade two students of average reading ability (Book A), two passages (six questions) for grade three students (Book B), two passages (five questions) for grade four students (Book C) and two passages (five questions) for grade five (Book D). A sample efficacy passage and question from Book A is shown in the Appendix A.

Efficacy passages and questions corresponded in reading level to those on the ensuing skill test, although they were not identical. Reliability of the efficacy measure has been determined in prior research using children comparable in age and reading skills to those in the present study (Schunk & Rice, 1987). The test-retest reliability coefficient was .82.

       Document Analysis: Attendance. Attendance data was collected for each cohort group based on number of days absent of 181 possible school days. This information was obtained from student attendance records.

       Qualitative Focus Groups. Qualitative analysis was used to solicit perceptions of the impact of the SFA program. Two focus groups were considered to provide feedback on the questions in Appendix A and B. One focus group involved the administration and teachers, while the other was comprised of parents. All members of the focus groups have been involved in the SFA program, either directly (as an administrator or teacher) or indirectly (through their child's attendance at the school), since its inception.

Method of Analyses

       A non-equivalent control group, one-shot post test, quasi experimental design were used to analyze all data. Two way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), with a predetermined alpha level of .05, were employed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Responses from the stakeholder focus groups were recorded. Reports of results by common theme and/or answer and recommendations have been prepared.

Chapter 4

Results

Chapter Overview

The primary purpose of this study was to analyze the impact of the Success for All (SFA) program on reading achievement, attendance, and academic self-efficacy. A secondary purpose was to determine the perceptions of parents and staff members relative to the impact of SFA. These purposes were accomplished through the compilation of data on students receiving SFA for four years and compared to similar students who had not received SFA.

This chapter will first summarize the descriptive characteristics of students in each group upon which information was obtained. Second, results of quantitative analyses are provided to address each of the posited null hypotheses tied to reading achievement, attendance, and academic self-efficacy. Third, qualitative results are offered which were obtained through focus groups interviews examining parent and staff perceptions of program impact.

Descriptive Characteristics

Data were collected and analyzed on a cohort of 67 students who were in third grade in 1996-97. As noted in Table 3, 27 (40.2%) of these students had participated in the SFA program for the past four years at Westhaven Elementary School. The remaining students (n=40, 59.7%) attended a neighboring school since first grade but had not participated in SFA. This group of 67 students was selected for this study on the basis of having remained at their respective school for four years. Of this cohort group, 30 (44.8%) were males (14 SFA; 16 non-SFA) and 37 (55.2%) were females (13 SFA; 24 non-SFA). There were 40 (59.7%) students receiving free/reduced lunch (14 SFA; 26 non-SFA) and 27 (40.3%) students who paid for their lunch (13 SFA; 14 non-SFA).

Table 3

Descriptive Characteristics of Sample

		SFA		Non-SFA	
Gender	n (%)	27	(40.2%)	40	(59.7%)
Males		14	(46.6%)	16	(53.4%)
Females		13	(35.1%)	24	(64.9%)
Socioeconomic Status					
Free/Reduced Lunch		14	(35.0%)	26	(65.0%)
Paid Lunch		13	(48.2%)	14	(51.8%)
		M	SD	M	SD
Reading	M (SD)	58.6	(11.2)	33.6	(19.8)
Attendance		6.6	(5.0)	8.2	(8.3)
Self-Efficacy		87.6	(10.2)	68.6	(17.3)

Total reading comprehension Stanford 9 scores yielded a mean normal curve

equivalency score (NCE) of 43.8 (SD=20.8). Results disaggregated by group indicated an

average reading score of 58.6 (SD=11.11) for those in SFA, and 33.6 (SD=19.8) for non-

participants. The average attendance for the full cohort was 7.5 (SD=7.2). The average

was 6.6 (SD=5.0) for SFA and 8.2 (SD=8.3) for non-participants. Total self-efficacy

scores yielded an average rating of 79.1 (SD=17.6). Of those receiving SFA, an average

rating of 87.6 (SD=10.2) was calculated. Of non-SFA participants a rating of 68.6

(SD=17.3) was obtained.

Results: Quantitative Analyses

Reading Comprehension. In Chapter 1, a research question tied to the

investigation of reading comprehension is posited. A two-way ANOVA was employed

with group member (SFA and non-SFA) and gender as the independent variables and

NCE reading comprehension scores from the Stanford 9 the dependent variable. Using

SPSS and a predetermined alpha level of .05, results indicated significance for two of the

three tested null hypotheses (see Table 4).

Table 4

Decisions Tied to Reading Comprehension Null Hypotheses

Null Hypotheses:	Decision
There will be no statistically significant difference between group with regard to reading comprehension.	Reject
There will be no statistically significant difference between gender with regard to reading comprehension.	Fail to reject
There will be no statistically significant interaction between group and gender with regard to reading comprehension.	Reject

As summarized in the ANOVA Source Table presented in Table 5, the two-way

ANOVA yielded a significant main effect for group membership (F=39.9, df=1/60) and a

non-significant main effect for gender (F=.90, df=1/60). Results further provided a

statistically significant interaction for group and gender (F=6.2, df=1/60).

Table 5

ANOVA Source Table for Reading Comprehension

	SS	df	MS	F	Sig. of F
Main Effects					
Group	10354.5	1	10354.5	39.9	.001*
Gender	233.8	1	233.8	.9	.346
Interaction					
Group X Gender	1616.9	1	1616.9	6.2	.015*
Residual		15569.9	60	259.5	
Total	27282.3	63	433.1		

* p   .05

These ANOVA results show that, while no statistically significant differences

existed between boys and girls (42.6 vs. 44.7, respectively), those in SFA scored higher in

reading comprehension than their non-participating peers (58.6 vs. 33.6, respectively).

The results also indicated that reading comprehension for non-SFA boys was low

(M=25.0), while boys in SFA were high (M=61.5). This significant interaction between

group and gender is displayed in Figure 2 with means provided in Table 6.

Attendance. This study further proposed to investigate attendance. A two-way

ANOVA was employed with group member (SFA and non-SFA) and gender as the

independent variables and attendance as the dependent variable. Using SPSS and a

predetermined alpha level of .05, results indicated no significance for the three tested null

hypotheses (see Table 7).
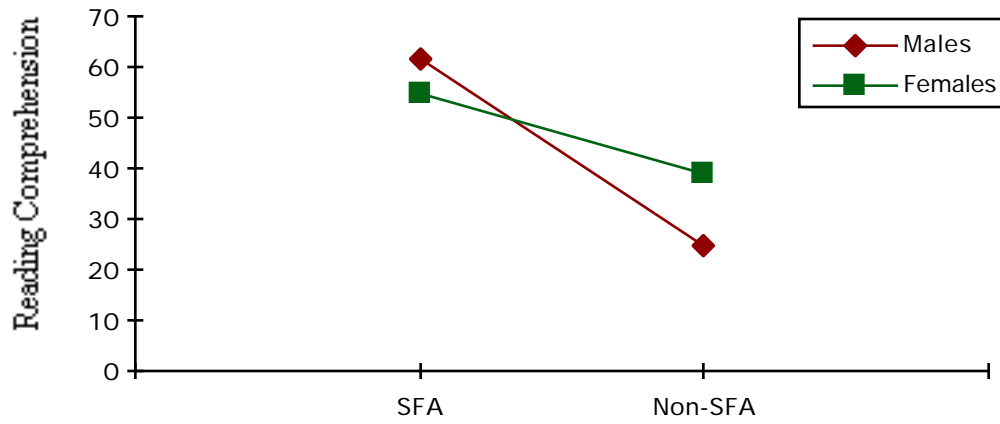
Figure 2. Plotted Graph for Group X Gender for Reading Comprehension Interaction

Table 6

Reading Comprehension Means

	M	SD
Males	42.6	25.8
SFA	61.5	9.6
Non-SFA	25.0	12.4
Females	44.7	15.9
SFA	55.1	12.4
Non-SFA	39.3	15.0
Groups		
SFA	58.6	11.2
Non-SFA	33.6	19.8
Total	43.8	20.8

Table 7

Decisions Tied to Attendance Null Hypotheses

Null Hypotheses:	Decision
There will be no statistically significant difference between group with regard to attendance.	Fail to reject
There will be no statistically significant difference between gender with regard to attendance.	Fail to reject
There will be no statistically significant interaction between group and gender with regard to attendance.	Fail to reject

As summarized in the ANOVA Source Table presented in Table 8, the two-way

ANOVA yielded a non-significant main effect for group membership (F=1.0, df=1/63)

and gender (F=.0, df=1/63). Results further provided a non-statistically significant

interaction of group and gender (F=2.7, df=1/63). These ANOVA results show that

participating in SFA and gender had no statistically significant effect on attendance.

Means are provided in Table 9. In other words, results indicated that the SFA and non-

SFA groups had comparable attendance patterns (6.6, 8.2, respectively) and no

differences existed between boys and girls (7.8, 7.4, respectively). Furthermore, no

interaction effects were obtained.

Table 8

ANOVA Source Table for Attendance

	SS	df	MS	F	Sig. of F
Main Effects					
Group	53.0	1	53.0	1.0	.311*
Gender	.4	1	.4	.1	.931
Interaction					
Group X Gender	137.6	1	137.6	2.7	.105
Residual	3205.7	63	50.9		
Total	3390.4	66	51.4		

* p   .05

Table 9

Attendance Means

	M	SD
Males	7.8	7.4
SFA	5.3	5.1
Non-SFA	10.0	8.5
Females	7.4	7.0
SFA	8.1	4.5
Non-SFA	7.0	8.1
Group		
SFA	6.6	4.9
Non-SFA	8.2	8.3
Total	7.6	7.2

Reading Comprehension Self-Efficacy. To examine self-efficacy, student responses to each item (ranging from 10 - 100 with a 10-point unit) were tallied. An overall average rating was then calculated for each student. This score then served as the dependent variable. Taking this dependent variable with the independent variable of group member (SFA, non-SFA) and gender, a two-way ANOVA was employed. Using SPSS and a predetermined alpha level of .05, results indicate significance for one of the three tested null hypotheses (see Table 10).

Table 10

Decisions Tied to Reading Comprehension Self-Efficacy Null Hypotheses

Null Hypotheses:	Decision
There will be no statistically significant difference between group with regard to reading comprehension self-efficacy.	Reject
There will be no statistically significant difference between gender with regard to reading comprehension self-efficacy.	Fail to reject
There will be no statistically significant interaction between group and gender with regard to reading comprehension self-efficacy.	Fail to reject

As summarized in the ANOVA Source Table presented in Table 11, the two-way ANOVA yielded a significant main effect for group membership (F=22.8, df=1/55) and a non-significant main effect for gender (F=1.0, df=1/55). Results further provided no

statistically significant interaction of group and gender (F=.1, df=1/55).

Table 11

ANOVA Source Table for Reading Comprehension Self-Efficacy

	SS	df	MS	F	Sig. of F
Main Effects Group	5214.2	1	5214.2	22.8	.001*
Gender	240.4	1	240.4	1.1	.309
Interaction Group X Gender	3.1	1	3.1	.0	.907
Residual	12558.4	55	228.3		
Total	17798.8	58	306.9		

* p   .05

These ANOVA results show that, while no statistically significant differences

existed between boys and girls (75.4 vs. 76.7, respectively), those in SFA scored higher

on the reading comprehension self-efficacy survey than their non-participating peers

(87.6 vs. 68.7, respectively). Means are provided in Table 12.

Table 12

Reading Comprehension Self-Efficacy Means

	M	SD
Males	75.3	17.7
SFA	85.5	9.7
Non-SFA	66.5	18.6
Females	76.7	17.7
SFA	90.2	10.9
Non-SFA	70.2	16.6
Group		
SFA	87.6	10.2
Non-SFA	68.7	17.3
Total	76.1	17.5

Results: Qualitative Analyses

Two focus groups were used to analyze the perceptions of parents and staff members relative to the impact of the Success for All program. Five parents were nominated by the school administrator and invited by the researcher to attend a session in which seven semi-structured questions about SFA were posed. Three parents attended the session. The focus group targeting staff consisted of one administrator and two teachers Seven semi-structured questions were asked concerning their perceptions of SFA. Focus group transcripts are provided in Appendix B.

Parent Focus Group.

Question 1. Based on your knowledge, what is your understanding of the SFA program?

All parents provided an explanation which included an understanding that "children perform at their level" in reading and they go to classes that mixed, children from other grades. They also expressed how pleased they were with their children's reading progress. Comments such as "As far as her reading, it's, to me, outstanding for her age" and "He reads very well," implied positive perceptions about SFA's impact on reading for their children. They also felt it enhanced the children's self-esteem and motivation to read, particularly with respect to decoding, reading with expression, and reading for meaning.

Question 2. How did the 20 minutes of oral reading homework impact your child?

All parents conveyed that they did read with and listen to their children. Comments such as "There are not many words that they won't attempt to try" and "He is really persistent" expressed a parent. "He loves to read" was one parent sentiment based on what they saw exhibited at home. The theme that emerged from this question really was an impact of the homework assignment and the parents' observation of the SFA reading program on confidence (self-esteem) and motivation.

Question 3. What effect did the SFA program have on your child's motivation for attendance?

All parents were quiet and a little hesitant to answer because their children have always had good attendance. Parents did, however, state that their children were enjoying school, feeling successful, and thereby excited about attendance. As one parent shared, "Even days that she might not be feeling well, she likes to come to school (for reading) and then call somebody to come pick her up." Another parent shared, "My child has

good attendance. He doesn't want to stay home even when he's sick. That's good."

Question 4. How did it impact your child to be in reading class with students of different ages and /or grade levels?

"I don't think it impacted him any" was one parent's sentiments since there was no prior knowledge of this fact. Parents felt that any impact was positive and motivating for children "because it made her feel good about herself," as one parent shared. Generally, parents felt that competition might work as a positive motivator in this setting.

Question 5. What did you see as the role of the Family Support Team?

Parents were unfamiliar with this team or concept and, therefore, were unable to respond. All indicated that they had not had contact with the team.

Question 6. How did the Family Support Team impact your family?

Again, there were no responses. All indicated that they had not had contact with or knowledge of this team and could not answer the question.

Question 7. How did the SFA program impact your involvement in your child's education?

Parents felt that their involvement was not directly tied just to school visits and activities but was done so through homework and the sharing of the day's learning events. "I just don't see how in this program you could be a parent and not be involved. There is just so much that the children bring home that is open for you to see too," shared one parent. Extracurricular involvement, such as civic and church affiliations, were described as being impacted for both children and parents. One parent shared that his son now

tutors smaller children in a church tutoring program. "He's a little bossy, you know,"

which might indicate a little boost in self-esteem and self-efficacy. Another parent noted

that she had seen increased writing performance. She said, "I haven't seen anything as

successful as this program in teaching these children how to write. And both of my girls

write beautifully and I think that's a very difficult thing to teach a child."

Staff Focus Group.

Question 1. How did the 20 minutes of oral reading homework impact students?

The general feeling was that this was "an excellent link between home and school

as it relates to communication" as expressed through the administrator's comment. There

was also a common feeling that this boosted the students' confidence and enjoyment of

reading because they were able to read well at home. It also seemed to make students

more responsible and accountable for their part in the learning process. This homework

also made parents more aware of what their children were doing in reading over other

subjects.

Question 2. What were your feelings concerning the students changing classes for

reading?

The highest common point that was shared by all was how this movement seems

to build responsibility. The fact that they are given the responsibility to move from one

class to another, quickly and quietly, gives students a sense of accomplishment. It was

also felt that it "heightens their day of interest" in that they don't necessarily see the

same teacher all day or even the same students. But they see a variety of persons daily

and it places them in a reading group where all needs are being met. It was also felt that

"it builds a lot of teams within the building." It was felt that teachers began to view teaching children to read was the responsibility of everyone since students were shared among teachers. "Everybody has to be doing the same thing when it comes to teaching."

Question 3. How did the Family Support Team impact parents and students?

It was felt that the Family Support Team empowers parents because they are a part of the team and many times get tips on how to help in their children's education, especially with particularly difficult issues. It also is viewed by teachers as "an opportunity to take a closer look at what might be causing this child to have difficulty." It was felt that this team served as a direct link between the Child Study Team and the Parent Team.

Question 4. How did the Family Support Team affect staff?

Since they had really answered this question in conjunction with Question 3, there were no additional responses.

Question 5. How do you feel about having various ages and grade levels in one class for reading?

"You never hear a child mention it, you never hear a parent mention it, and you never hear teachers mention it," expressed the sentiments of this group. It was felt that this is not viewed negatively or even as an issue. It just simply is a part of Success for All. With the multi-aged group "no one feels inferior."

Question 6. How do you feel SFA has impacted the climate of the school?

"The climate of the school during the reading block is very calm, orderly" and a lot of learning appears to take place. The general consensus was that it had brought structure

and focus to the school as a whole. Teachers and students are on task and know exactly what is expected. The program also was noted to have reduced discipline concerns and office referrals to a minimum if not eliminating them totally. The program has been "absolutely wonderful." "We have a record of nothing but student success," was shared by one participant.

Question 7. What effect do you feel the tutoring component has had on the SFA program?

The tutoring component was viewed as most important to the SFA program's success. It helps to build students' self-confidence while reinforcing skills. "Just to look at their faces and to see the progress made when they take that eight-week assessment lets "you know it's a wonderful part of the program" expressed the group's feelings regard tutoring. Overall, it was felt that students really not only benefit from the one-to-one tutoring, but look forward to participating.

Chapter 5

Discussion

Interpretation of Results

Results of the data indicate that four of the nine hypotheses were supported. The data clearly shows that those participating in the SFA program have higher reading comprehension achievement and reading comprehension self-efficacy than similar peers not participating in the SFA program. Specifically, significant interaction was seen between group and boys. SFA boys scored high while non-SFA boys scored low. The thought that boys are not high achievers is surely rejected in this study. Given an effective method of teaching and circumstances, boys can achieve in reading.

Attendance results showed no significant differences between SFA participants and non-SFA students. This indicates that program participation did not improve attendance. It also indicated that there was no difference between boys and girls in SFA for attendance. There was no interaction between group and gender indicating that SFA did not impact attendance at all for either group. This was also supported in the focus group discussion by parents. They shared that their children had always attended well. The overall absentee rate for students was very low at both schools. This indicates that either attendance is not affected by SFA or that absenteeism is not really an issue in these two school populations.

Reading comprehension self-efficacy results supported the theory that higher achievement usually brings higher self-efficacy (Slavin, 1989). In this study, it is clear that SFA students have a higher reading self-efficacy than their non-SFA peers. It did also show that there were no differences in gender, meaning that boys' and girls' reading comprehension self-efficacy scores were not impacted differently, independently, or when analyzed with group as a variable. No interaction between group and gender

relative to attendance indicates that SFA boys and SFA girls show no difference when compared based on reading comprehension self-efficacy.

Focus groups showed overwhelming support for the Success for All program. Parents are knowledgeable about the program components, with the exception of the Family Support Team. This team, however, might only be familiar to families who have had a need for help or an issue which would generate a Family Support Team meeting. This is not and should not be viewed as a weakness of parent knowledge or communication on the part of the school but definitely might be an issue that the administrator might address to remind parents that this is available to them upon their referral as well as to staff.

Parent focus group sessions also showed that the 20 minutes of oral reading required is of benefit to the parent and child. It seems to be viewed as a positive parent-child time and an informative piece for parents relative to their children's reading performance.

The staff focus groups were also very supportive of the program. It was felt that the focus on reading and the uniformity of the condition in which it is taught brought greater quality to the reading instruction, lessened discipline concerns, and built a stronger teaming effort from the staff. The homework was also viewed as a positive, more exciting time for families rather than a begrudged task.

Staff saw the Family Support Team as a resource that served to help with issues not related to special education.

The overall impact of the Success for All program is positive. This school has enjoyed great results, characterized by higher student achievement, higher self-efficacy, and positive parent perceptions.

Limitations of the Study

The interpretation of the results from this study may be limited in several ways. First, missing data was an issue since mortality impacted the reading comprehension self-efficacy survey population. Second, identified special education students did not have test data to analyze. Also, the student demographics for the cohort groups were not as closely matched as the study had originally planned. Third, while this design had the disadvantage of not being able to randomly assign students to groups, it was highly practical for applied school research in which random assignments cannot be made.

Last, a limitation in this study was the potential of a Hawthorne Effect, in which experimental conditions were such that subjects were receiving special attention which tends to improve performance (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996).

Despite these limitations, the results seemed to show higher student achievement and self-efficacy relative to reading comprehension for SFA students. This specific sample alone, warrants the continuation of the SFA program.

Implications for Further Research

Further studies may examine self-efficacy with a cohort group of SFA and non-SFA regularly to examine the rate and impact that SFA has on a variety of specific self-efficacy domains. This would be useful because positively impacting efficacy over time may result in higher reading achievement. Future research might also consider looking at state standards of learning and their relationship with eight-week assessments. This study has potential because it would not be looking at norm-referenced measures, but state standards, which would be more essential and relevant to educators.

Conclusion

The most important findings of this study hold true to previous research (Slavin, 1989, 1991, 1995, 1996; Schunk, 1989, 1990a, 1990b) that SFA students when compared to similar peer groups have higher achievement, especially in the language arts areas.

It is crucial for instructional improvement that research continue to explore program effectiveness across widely diverse elementary school contexts over extended time periods. It is imperative that schools have every possible edge to assist them in trying to ensure that all children have equal and appropriate opportunities to learn and be successful in school. Hopefully, the inevitable results will be "Success for All."

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APPENDIX A

EFFICACY SURVEY

EFFICACY MEASURE

Instructions

Let's try some questions that ask about some things you do in reading. I'm going to give you some stories to read. After you read each story, I'm going to ask you some questions about the story. I don't want you to try to answer the questions. I want you to decide whether you think you could answer the questions like the ones I ask and get the right answers; that is, for each question I ask, could you answer questions about as easy or hard as that one and get the right answer? Then I want you to circle a number on this line that matches how sure you are that you could answer questions like that one and get the right answer. (Show child the scale and explain it. Emphasize that the child can mark any number, not just those where words appear.)

Now remember, if you don't think you could answer questions about as easy or hard as the one I ask and get the right answers, you could circle the 10. If you think you could answer questions like the one I ask and get the right answers, then mark a number bigger than 10. The higher the number you circle, the more sure you are that you could get the right answers to questions like the one I ask. You'll only have a short time to circle each number, so you need to pay attention.

Please be honest and mark how you really feel. Some of the questions I'll read to you will be like those you've done before, but other questions are going to be harder. You should mark a low number if you don't think you could answer questions like the one I read and get the right answers. It's okay to mark low numbers. You don't get a grade on this work. I won't show your papers to your teachers or anyone else here at school, and I won't send your work home.

You'll work down each page, using a new line each time. Just move the colored paper down to the next line after you circle a number. Let's try a couple of practice questions.

Efficacy Measure Practice

(Teacher Questions)

Passage 1

The Beast of Baluchistan (buh-LOO-ki-stan) was the biggest mammal that ever lived on land. He lived millions of years ago. He was an early member of the rhinoceros family. But he didn't have a horn on his head as rhinos do now. He didn't need anything. He was so huge, other animals stayed away from him. But he was peaceful. All he wanted to do was eat.

1) What is the best title for the story?
    1. "A Giant Plant Eater"
    2. "The Peaceful Monster"
    3. "So You Wanna Fight!"
    4. "An Ancient Legend"

2) What is the main idea of the story?
    5. The "Beast" was huge, but gentle.
    6. Huge animals are not always vicious.
    7. Other animals stayed away from the "Beast."
    8. The "Beast" had no horn.

Passage 2

Alice stopped at the water's edge. The ocean stretched before her, as far as she could see. She felt very small She wasn't sure she liked the sea. She scooped a hole in the sand. Water filled the hole. She patted a handful of wet sand onto her hot feet. It felt cool. She stretched one foot and pointed it toward the waves. A thin swoosh of water rushed toward her toes and then slipped back. She waited. Again the sudsy line came toward her. It looked so cool and inviting. Alice was too hot to wait any longer. She pranced happily into the beautiful green sea.

3) The best title for this story would be
    1. "The West Sand"
    2. "A Sudsy Line"
    3. "Sand and the Sea"
    4. "At the Seashore"

4) What is this story mainly about?
    5. cool sand
    6. the suds
    7. the beach
    8. hot feet

Efficacy MeasurePractice
(Student Passages)

Passage 1.

The Beast of Baluchistan (buh-LOO-ki-stan) was the biggest mammal that ever lived on land. He lived millions of years ago. He was an early member of the rhinoceros family. But he didn't have a horn on his head as rhinos do now. He didn't need anything. He was so huge, other animals stayed away from him. But he was peaceful. All he wanted to do was eat.

	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
1	Not Sure			Maybe			Pretty Sure			Really Sure
	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
2	Not Sure			Maybe			Pretty Sure			Really Sure
	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

Passage 2

Alice stopped at the water's edge. The ocean stretched before her, as far as she could see. She felt very small She wasn't sure she liked the sea. She scooped a hole in the sand. Water filled the hole. She patted a handful of wet sand onto her hot feet. It felt cool. She stretched one foot and pointed it toward the waves. A thin swoosh of water rushed toward her toes and then slipped back. She waited. Again the sudsy line came toward her. It looked so cool and inviting. Alice was too hot to wait any longer. She pranced happily into the beautiful green sea.

	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
3	Not Sure			Maybe			Pretty Sure			Really Sure
	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
4	Not Sure			Maybe			Pretty Sure			Really Sure
	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100