

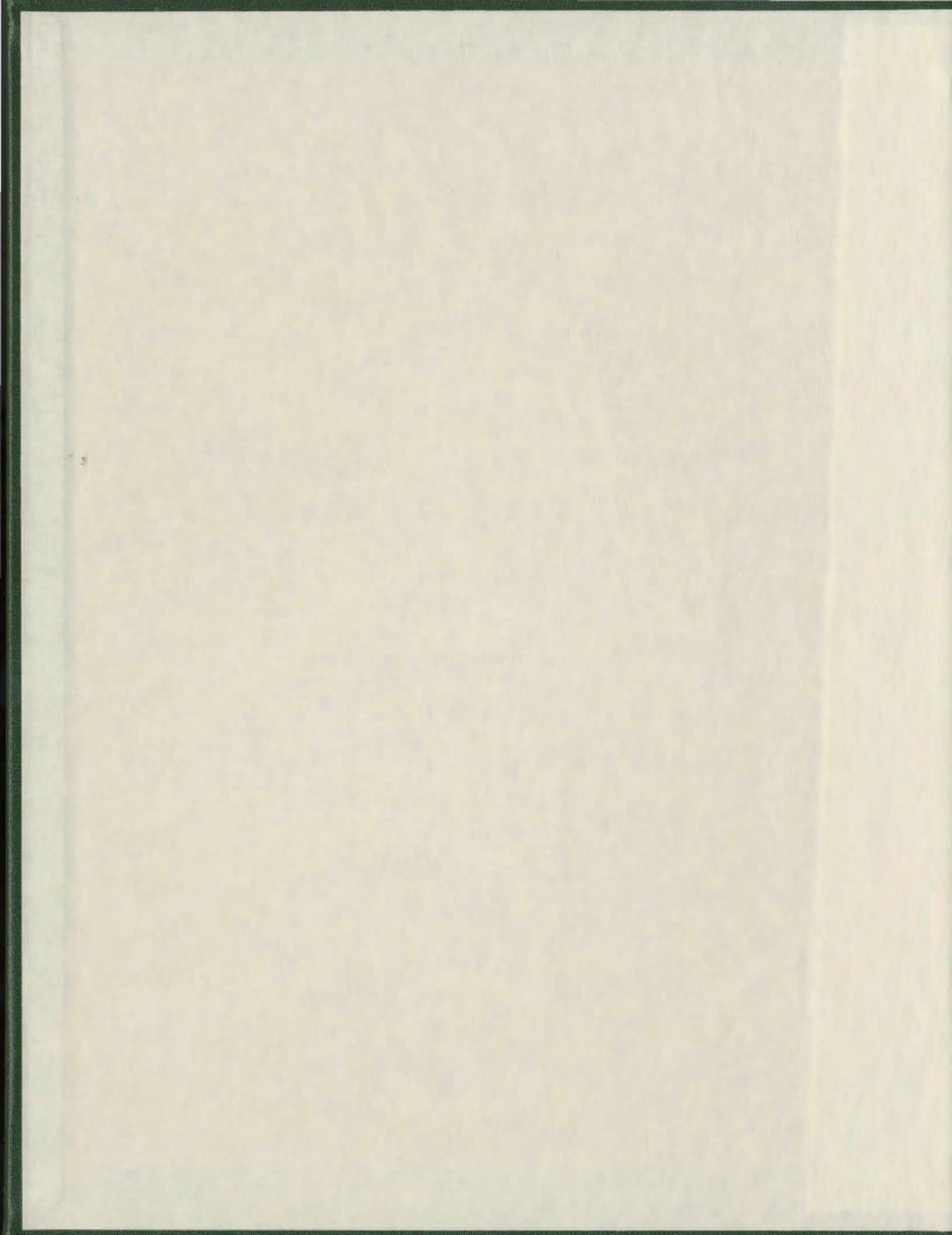
SCHOOL-BASED FAMILY RESOURCE CENTRES:
THE VILLAGE APPROACH
A HANDBOOK ON SCHOOL-COMMUNITY PARTNERSHIPS
FOR PROFESSIONALS SERVING FAMILIES

CENTRE FOR NEWFOUNDLAND STUDIES

**TOTAL OF 10 PAGES ONLY
MAY BE XEROXED**

(Without Author's Permission)

LORELL C. FRITZ



**SCHOOL-BASED FAMILY RESOURCE CENTRES:
THE VILLAGE APPROACH
A HANDBOOK ON SCHOOL-COMMUNITY PARTNERSHIPS FOR
PROFESSIONALS SERVING FAMILIES**

By

Lorell C. Fritz, B. Ed.

**A project report submitted to the School of Graduate Studies in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education**

**Faculty of Education
Memorial University of Newfoundland
January 2001**

St. John's, Newfoundland

ABSTRACT

Children are our much-cherished resources and our hope for the future. As Hill (1999) notes: "Children's issues have seldom been far from the headlines in recent years" (p. 7). Current studies (Gordon, 1998; Guy, 1997; McCain & Mustard, 1999; Pickens, 1997) highlight issues such as childhood poverty, child abuse, increasing rates of suicide, drug use, crime and violence among today's youth as examples of needs in today's society. There is much discussion about the need for prevention and early intervention to enhance development of the child. Continued research (Cugmas, 1998; Dwivedi, 1997; Coleman & Wallinga, 1999; Melaville, 1996; Whipple, 1999) has been conducted to ascertain effective interventions in meeting the needs of children, and many of these needs are being addressed. Unfortunately, children and their families are often entwined in a fragmented support system that may result in continued problem-orientation and crises management rather than in capacity-building and prevention.

The purpose of this project is to develop a handbook for professionals who serve families. It proposes ways in which a Family Resource Centre could provide an integrated, multidimensional, unified system of support for families. By establishing community partnerships and using the school as a hub for delivering services such a centre would benefit students, staff, administration, families and the larger community. The handbook will discuss the following issues: early child development; family support programs; philosophical bases of family resource centres; possible programs at family

resource centres; and the benefits of family resource centres. It will also outline how to establish a family resource centre or school-community partnerships of varying levels of complexity and point to resources available for family resource centres.

This paper is divided into four chapters: Chapter 1 is an introduction that outlines ways that family resource centres may address the issues and stressors that families face today; Chapter 2 is a review of the literature on selected theories of child development, interventions, and school-community partnerships; Chapter 3 is an outline of the methodology; and Chapter 4 is the handbook itself.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER I - INTRODUCTION.....	1
A need to belong.....	1
Current school counselling models.....	5
School-based family resource centres:	
school-community partnerships.....	7
Summary.....	8
CHAPTER II - LITERATURE REVIEW.....	10
Introduction.....	10
Child Development.....	10
Maturational Theory.....	11
Psychoanalytic Theory.....	12
Learning Theory.....	13
Cognitive-Developmental Theory.....	15
Sociocultural Theory.....	16
Developmental or Contextual Approach.....	17
Attachment Theory.....	18
Early Brain and Child Development.....	19
Interventions.....	21
Family Support.....	22
School-Community Partnerships.....	28

The Process of Establishing Successful School-Community Partnerships.....	31
Summary.....	36

CHAPTER III - METHODOLOGY

Introduction.....	38
Literature Review.....	39
Consultation.....	40
Handbook.....	41
Summary.....	45

CHAPTER IV - SCHOOL-BASED FAMILY RESOURCE CENTRES:

The Village Approach	
A handbook about school-community partnerships for professionals serving families.....	47

REFERENCES.....	80
------------------------	-----------

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

School counsellors today face numerous challenges in their quest for the optimal development of the child. The structural changes in families and society itself have resulted in provoking high stress for students at all age levels on multiple issues. As well, attempting to address the needs of more than 1,000 students, staff, parents and community members, in one or more schools, is not a simple task. The school counselling program, once focussed on individual and group counselling and crisis intervention, has become more preventive, developmental and comprehensive in nature. The current model for counselling services aims to respond to the social context in which the students live, and to the lives they may face in the future. Systems theory provides a theoretical basis for recognizing the influence of the various players in this social context. Students live within systems such as the family, school and community, and these distinctive systems need to be connected structurally to provide effective support to the school population. The following chapter examines the issue of isolation in today's society, current models of school counselling, and ways in which a school-based family resource centre can create a sense of connectedness and provide the necessary comprehensive, integrated and unified system of support for the school community.

A need to belong

One general theme woven through research on counselling in today's society was the need to address the feeling of isolation that results from contemporary life. Despite

the connections provided by modern technology, individuals, including children and youth, are experiencing an increasing number of stress-related problems related to a sense of isolation and alienation. Healthy development in children is known to be dependent on supportive relationships. Gunner (1998) found “that infants and toddlers who have experienced consistent responsive and sensitive care from secure attachments with their parents, tend to develop into socially competent pre-schoolers.” (Gunner, 1998 as cited in McCain & Mustard, 1999, p. 33) Attachment theory emphasizes the importance of the emotional connection with parent or caregiver, and examines how secure attachment in the early years affects a person’s sense of self-worth and ability to become independent and willingness to explore and master the environment.

As Borgen and Amundson (1995) explained, the youth of today face a rapidly changing society in which they strive to meet personal and career needs that are “inextricably intertwined”. They encounter feelings of uncertainty and lack of personal control. Some of their basic needs include: a sense of community, meaning in life, physical and emotional security, and basic structure in relationships and living (Borgen & Amundson, 1995). Roberge (1995) in his study entitled Project Providing Opportunities for Developing Success, (P.O.D.S.), addressed the need for at-risk students to feel a sense of belonging, identification and membership within the school community. He examined programs aimed at reducing drop-out rates, and found that successful programs were comprehensive and provided services to all students, without segregating at-risk students. He concluded that “learning takes place within social relationships and a caring

environment. Kids learn best in an environment that instills and promotes self-esteem and which provides more personal and caring contact with fewer teachers.” (Roberge, 1995, p. EDO-CG-95-56). Edwards (1995) further highlighted the positive relationship between a student’s sense of belonging and their personal, social and academic growth. His research clearly links learning and growth to students’ feelings of belonging. Alienating environments were “found to be an underlying factor in violence, vandalism, and poor achievement”(Edwards,1995, p. 192).

The technological revolution and the resulting social changes also present serious risks to families. Guy (1997) wrote:

Upheavals and disruptions that come with a major technological revolution tear at a society’s cohesion and create instability. There are often disruptions in the families and neighbourhoods where children grow up. These have negative effects on child development and on the health and well-being of the entire population. Technological changes hit the most vulnerable members of a society the hardest. In our society the most vulnerable members are mothers and children. (p. 25)

Peterson & Hawley (1998) examined stressors tied to family functioning and found that increased stress resulted in decreased family cohesion and increased conflict in the family environment. They also found that parenting attitudes became less nurturing and more controlling as stressors increased. The study looked at the effects of prevention and early intervention and found that “preventive programming aimed at reducing stressors, managing conflict, building cohesion, and strengthening attitudes toward parenting may be useful in equipping parents of newborns in adjusting to their roles” (Peterson & Hawley, 1998, p. 226). It appeared that providing information, education and support to

new parents did not decrease stressors, but did help parents adjust and cope in their new roles.

Families today experience increased stress, and it is crucial that schools create a sense of belonging for families as well within the school community. Coleman and Wallinga (1999) suggested that counsellors need to empower families to participate in and promote their children's education, thus reinforcing their sense of belonging. This can be done by recognizing their cultural context and vulnerabilities, creating social networks, encouraging collaborative projects and addressing their needs and interests. School-community partnerships facilitate these networks through collaboration in determining and meeting the needs of the school community. Community commitment and caring create "unbreakable bonds" that strengthen the community as a whole.

The definition of family has also changed significantly in the past few years. It has traditionally included the relation by marriage, birth or adoption. However, family structures have undergone enormous changes and as counsellors we must be sensitive to emerging family structures. Pickens (1997) defined family as "any group of people who are related legally or by blood, or who are perceived to be family by an individual"(p. 1). Pickens (1997) statistically examined changes in family composition from 1970 to 1995. He highlighted changes such as an increase in single-parent families, step families and gay and lesbian families, and examined the specific stressors and needs of these emerging structures. One example is the social isolation experienced by gay and lesbian parents, and their need to address issues such as: disclosure, custody, family roles,

sexuality, dysfunctional social attitudes, homophobia and guilt. In general, these families would benefit from being linked to community resources and support networks. It is imperative that schools recognize emerging family structures and the counselling implications.

Current school counselling models

In 1988, the Department of Education in Newfoundland and Labrador issued a document entitled *Guidelines for the Development and Delivery of Guidance Services*. It outlines the model for counselling services and includes rationale, aims, program development, program organization, its delivery, and its evaluation. The document addresses the needs of students in today's world. The rationale of school counselling is to address the psychological, emotional, educational, spiritual, and career-developmental needs of students. The aims include fostering personal, social, educational and occupational growth of the student through knowledge and skill development. In addition, the school counsellor aims to provide the necessary consultative support and liaison services to the school community (Department of Education, 1988, p. 5). The potential components of a school counselling program are: individual or group counselling; consultation; assessment; information services to students, staff and parents; research on school population needs; referral; clerical duties pertaining to the administrative aspects of guidance; program evaluation; and, prescribed guidance curriculum (Department of Education, 1988, p. 11).

Counselling in schools is shifting from a focus on crisis-oriented individual and small group counselling to a more comprehensive, preventive and developmental program. Baker (1992) views “the successful counselor as one who strikes a balance between treatment and prevention activities as well as between direct and indirect service activities” (Baker, 1992 as cited in Hardesty and Dillard, 1994, p. 85). Paulson and Edwards (1997) examined what parents expect from elementary school counsellors, and their findings support this shift. Parents from a school in Edmonton identified the following seven expectations of elementary school counsellors: information resource, conflict resolution, consultant to teachers, communication link, counselling services, special needs programming, and developmental programs. These services reflect the shift from ‘direct service’ towards consultation, coordination and collaboration. Although parents respected and recognized the need for counselling and crisis intervention, they advocated comprehensive, integrated and developmental programs that would support all children. Counsellors were encouraged to draw upon ‘collective resources’ such as school personnel, family and other relevant community members in serving the child. A school-based family resource centre is based on a network of school-community partnerships aimed at providing an integrated, multidimensional, unified system of support. The concept of community partnerships fits the current shift within the counselling field to a systems approach.

Individuals do not operate in a vacuum. Systems theory, as Kennedy (1998) explains, shifts the emphasis from the intrapsychic where problems exist within the

individual, to a focus on the interpsychic where problems exist in social relations.

Traditionally we have viewed the individual as the unit of intervention, and practice was based on “one-person paradigms”. Family-systems theory is based on the premise that “the individual members of a family are so interrelated that any experience or problem affecting one member will affect all” (Peeks, 1993, p. 246). This notion of family systems may be expanded to include community systems. When working with students, members of a family system, within another system - the school-, that operates within another system - the community-, it becomes clear that the distinctive systems must become connected structurally to provide for the education and socialization of the child. It is important to determine the important players within the school, and to respect and address the needs of students, families, school and community populations.

School-based family resource centres: school-community partnerships

Children and families today are facing issues such as poverty, family instability, rapidly changing family patterns, unemployment, child abuse, substance abuse, and feelings of isolation and alienation. Many of these issues seem to be out of the realm of education, but it is evident that they affect the child's ability to learn and develop to her or his potential. Traditionally we have responded to these issues with fragmented programs of support. We have reacted to crises, and treated the individuals through multiple agencies. Current counselling models emphasize the need for a comprehensive, preventive and developmental approach. Also, the social systems in which students live

must be recognized, and the systems of influence must be connected structurally. Family support in a school setting reflects the interdependence of systems in the lives of children.

Family resource centres provide quality programs and services for parents and their children. They emphasize prevention, early intervention and support of the family in community-based settings. These centres recognize that children's needs are inseparable from the needs of their family and community. They build upon existing strengths within the family and community by collaborating in the development and implementation of the program. They are rooted in the belief that communities are best positioned to determine their needs, and that they have the resources to meet their needs. Community members are respected and the social context in which they live is acknowledged.

Summary

A school-based family resource centre can serve as a 'hub' for the delivery of services for children and their families. Family involvement in school is known to positively affect student performance (Peeks, 1993), and this centre could provide an early link and positive transition for families. Resource centres address the feelings of isolation and alienation so prevalent today through their very structure of networks and community ownership. Members of the school-community population have 'authentic voices' in the development, implementation and evaluation of programs. A school-based family resource centre, through a network of school-community partnerships can provide a comprehensive, integrated, responsive, flexible, effective and streamlined program of

services to meet the needs of the school population. School-community partnerships “aim to eliminate or reduce conditions and behaviours that impede a student’s ability to learn, and to improve the quality of life for children and families” (Fleming & Lubin, 1998).

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

The review of the literature is divided into two sections: child development and interventions. The child development section discusses selected theories of child development including: maturational, psychoanalytic, learning, cognitive-developmental, sociocultural, developmental, attachment, and early brain development. The interventions section examines the shifts in the role of the school counsellor, and current interventions used to support students, families and school communities. Close attention is paid to school-community partnerships, family resource centres and the process of establishing these partnerships at varying levels of complexity.

CHILD DEVELOPMENT

The following section discusses selected theories of child development. These theories address the nature of the relationship between the child, the environment, and the social context or systems in the acquisition of knowledge. The maturational theorists (e.g., Gesell, 1925; Terman, 1916) focus on genetically predetermined development. The psychoanalytic theorists (e.g., Erikson, 1980; Freud, 1965) emphasize the resolution of conflicts at various stages of development. The learning theorists (e.g., Bandura, 1977; Pavlov, 1957; Skinner, 1957) propose that external knowledge is acquired through experience, but there is a broad range of opinions within the learning theorists as to what influences this learning, such as learner style, environmental stimuli and other factors.

The cognitive-developmental theorists (e.g., Piaget, 1977; Flavell, 1985) propose that knowledge is constructed by the child through his/her interactions with the environment. The sociocultural theorists (e.g., Vygotsky, 1962) emphasize the role of the child's culture and social context in the construction of knowledge. The developmental systems theorists (e.g., Lerner, 1986; Bronfenbrenner, 1986) emphasize the influence of systems in which the child exists. Attachment theorists (e.g., Ainsworth et al., 1978; Bowlby, 1988) examine one of these systems, and emphasize the importance of secure parent-child attachment as a factor in the development of the child. Neuroscience is a burgeoning field, and the focus is on early brain development. Theorists (e.g., Shore, 1997; Sylwester, 1995) examine "critical periods", "windows of opportunity", "wiring and sculpting", and the effects of proper nutrition, stimulation, experience and interactions on child development.

Maturational Theory

Maturational theory originated in the late nineteenth century and was based on Darwin's theory of evolution. According to Schickedanz, et al., (1998) it "suggests that within a broad range of normal conditions, the appearance of a particular behaviour depends on genetically determined timetables, not on experience or environment" (p. 5). Gesell (1925) furthered the concept of "neurological ripening" or "readiness" that refers to children being able to learn or master a skill only after they have matured and are biologically ready. Notions such as the Waldorf education belief that children should not

be introduced to reading until the age of 7 stem from this theory. Also, Terman (1916), who developed the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test, supported this theory. His tests were developed to measure I.Q. as a genetically fixed characteristic. This belief was associated with some disturbing eugenics movements that proposed eliminating genetically “inferior” people. Today, many people question this view of intelligence. Theories such as Gardner’s (1983) “multiple intelligences” propose that intelligence has a number of different domains, is not fixed and is affected by both the child’s heredity and her or his experience. The influence of the environment and experience in child development is the topic of much research today especially in the area of prevention and early intervention.

Psychoanalytic Theory

Freud’s (1965) psychoanalytic theory stressed the interaction of biological components of the personality with the environment. The three components of the personality, the id, ego and superego, interact in the individual’s drive to gratify sexual, or pleasure-seeking instincts. Child development is seen in terms of progression through stages: oral, anal, phallic, latency and genital. Bee (1989) wrote that in each of these stages : “the sexual energy is focused on [‘invested in’, as Freud says] a single part of the body, which he called an erogenous zone, such as the mouth, the anus, and the genitals” (p. 336). The child will successfully pass through these stages if the instincts are neither overgratified or undergratified, otherwise the child will become fixated at this stage and throughout his or her life will experience difficulties. Critical periods of development

and the long-term influence of early experiences are emphasized in child-development theory today.

Erikson (1980) challenged Freud's focus on the psychosexual influence in child development. He proposed that children pass through a series of stages with a crisis related to social rather than biological conflicts. He "sees development over the life span as a prolonged search for a mature sense of identity. In the process, Erikson proposes that a person moves through a fixed sequence of tasks or dilemmas, each centered on the development of a particular facet of identity" (Bee, 1989, p. 20). The eight stages of his psychosocial theory are: trust versus mistrust; autonomy versus shame or doubt; initiative versus guilt; industry versus inferiority; identity versus confusion or diffusion; intimacy versus isolation; generativity versus stagnation; integrity versus despair. Individuals are seen to experience the above crises or conflicts that they must resolve in order to progress to the later stages of development. Erikson's theory has been found to be relevant to those in the field of education as "it describes the kinds of tasks and expectations children will encounter at various ages, and the balance of feelings and competencies children can achieve by engaging them" (Schickedanz, et al., 1998, p. 11).

Learning Theory

Learning theory is rooted in behaviourism, emphasizing the importance of observable behaviour and experience and disagrees with the focus of psychoanalysts on inner psychological states. Developmental changes and learning are seen to be a direct

result of experience. Pavlov (1957) demonstrated that animals could learn a new physiological response to a stimulus. Classical conditioning refers to learning that “involves the acquisition of new signals for existing responses” (Bee, 1989, p. 15). Pavlov’s research on instrumental conditioning illustrated that behaviour could be increased or decreased depending on rewards or punishment following that behaviour. This is the basis for the behaviour modification programs that use rewards to reinforce behaviour. Skinner (1957) further developed the concepts of reinforcement, and delineated positive reinforcers (something that adds something to the environment following a response) and negative reinforcers (something that takes away something following a response). He studied the influence of schedules of reinforcement and ways of “shaping” behaviour. To teach a new behaviour he employed shaping that is “the process of reinforcing successive approximations until the desired behaviour appears” (Schickedanz, et al., 1998, p. 16).

Bandura (1977) challenged the notion that learning occurs solely through experience and the shaping process. He proposed that much learning occurs as a result of observation and imitation of others. Social learning theory emphasizes the cognitive processes involved in learning. Individuals are seen to be active participants in their choices and goals: “They reflect on and regulate their own thoughts, feelings, and actions to achieve those goals” (Schickedanz, et al., 1998, p. 17). Social learning theory proposes that individuals are not passive; they affect their environment; a “person is the producer and the product of his/her own environment” (Corey, 1996, p. 285). Bandura (1977) also

proposed that individuals are more successful at this if they have a strong sense of self-efficacy, or feeling of control over events and their environment.

Educators concern themselves with how students learn, what reinforces concepts as well as what influences learners' success in learning. Puckett and Black (1994) suggested "that environmental, emotional, sociological, physical, and psychological stimuli affect the learner's success in learning" (p. 14). Some of the classroom environmental stimuli under scrutiny in this study were lighting, colour, aesthetic features, tactile characteristics, auditory features and temperature. The learner style is also of interest to educators and researchers. Various cognitive styles of learning include visual, auditory or tactile/kinesthetic. Gardner's (1983) theory of multiple intelligences is also particularly relevant to educators planning for different types of learners. Gardner (1983) suggested that there are eight different intelligences: linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, musical, interpersonal, intrapersonal and naturalist. Learning theory encompasses a broad range of ideas about how learning occurs, and what influences this learning.

Cognitive-Developmental Theory

While maturational theorists emphasize genetically predetermined development, psychoanalytic theorists focus on resolution of conflicts at various stages of development and the learning theorists focus on external knowledge acquired through experience, the cognitive-developmental theorists propose that knowledge is constructed by the child.

Piaget (1977), the founder, “thought knowledge was constructed or created gradually, as maturing individuals interact with the environment” (Schickedanz, et al., 1998, p. 18). Children learn through a process of assimilation, accommodation and equilibration. They assimilate knowledge into an existing schema, or accommodate new information by changing the schema to fit it. When cognitive conflict occurs they will create new schemas or structures to accommodate this new knowledge; this is the process of equilibration. The child passes through four stages of development: sensorimotor (birth - 2 years), preoperational (2 - 6 years), concrete operational (7 - 12 years) and formal operational (12 years and older). These stages outline the various ways that knowledge is acquired. Piaget’s theory also provides “a theoretical basis for the notion of intrinsic motivation ... children will act simply to understand (Schickedanz, et al., 1998, p. 20). Educators have for many years used this cognitive-developmental theory in curriculum development. Using this approach, educators “start with the interests of the learner, building new information and experiences on the learner’s prior knowledge and experience” (Puckett & Black, 1994, p. 8).

Sociocultural Theory

Vygotsky (1962), like Piaget, believed that children construct knowledge. He differed from Piaget in that he emphasized the importance of social interaction in the acquisition of knowledge: “While Piaget portrayed learners as constructing meaning primarily through their own actions on the environment, Vygotsky emphasized the

importance of the child's culture and social contexts as sources of guidance and support for learning" (Puckett & Black, 1994, p. 9). He proposed that knowledge is socially constructed through language, and while "we can say that Piaget's child constructs knowledge about the world Vygotsky's child, on the other hand, internalizes knowledge that is socially and culturally constructed" (Schickedanz, et al., 1998, p. 22). In addition, Vygotsky developed the concept of a zone of proximal development, that "refers to the point at which children are on the verge of understanding or being able to do something and all they need is a clue or other assistance to follow through on their own" (Puckett & Black, 1994, p. 9). He suggested that children should be grouped according to achievement and similar zones of proximal development, and that instruction should be aimed at the top of the zone.

Developmental or Contextual Approach (ecological)

All of the preceding theories address child development and to some extent the nature of the relationship between child and environment in the acquisition of knowledge. However, many child development theorists are now looking towards a developmental-systems approach that examines the influence of systems where the child exists. It is proposed that "a single system influences both the systems within it and the system of which it is a part" (Schickedanz, et al., 1998, p. 25). Following this notion, in examining child development it is important to consider the child and the influences of the systems outside of the child. One of the most prominent systems theory is Bronfenbrenner's

(1986) ecological systems theory. He delineates four levels of systems: "Microsystem refers to relations between the child and the immediate environment; mesosystem refers to the network of interrelationships of settings in the child's immediate environment; exosystem refers to social setting that affect the child but do not directly impinge upon him or her, and macrosystem refers to the attitudes, mores, beliefs, and ideologies of the culture" (Schickedanz, et al., 1998, p. 27). The ecological approach emphasizes recognizing the social context of the child. The child lives within systems such as home and school (microsystems) that interact (mesosystem), and also exist in systems such as extended family and social welfare (exosystems) also residing within the subculture and culture of the child (macrosystem). All of these systems influence child development. To bring about optimal development of the child, one must consider each level and the interaction of these systems.

Attachment Theory

Another theory that reinforces the notion of nurturing and meeting the child's needs is the attachment theory (Ainsworth, et al., 1978; Bowlby, 1988). The theory proposes that the emotional tie between mother and infant is a crucial factor in later psychological, social, emotional and cognitive development of the child. A secure attachment with the mother affects the child's sense of safety and willingness to explore. Numerous studies have examined attachment and all concur that the quality of attachment affects child development. Cugmas (1998) reported that children with secure attachment:

have higher social competence; are less aggressive; are better able to control their environment; have better spatial capacities; have greater interest in exploration; score higher on tests measuring mental development; are better problem solvers; are more imaginative; have higher self-esteem and self-confidence; and have a more positive attitude towards themselves (Cugmas, 1998, p. 66-67). At the other end of the spectrum, children with insecure attachment are at increased risk of “becoming emotionally dependent, aggressive, noncompliant, easily frustrated in the face of challenging tasks, inattentive, and hyperactive” (Schickedanz, et al., 1998, p. 281). It does appear that parent-child attachment is a significant factor in the later psychological, social, emotional and cognitive development of the child.

Early Brain and Child Development

Neuroscience has recently proven what so many early childhood educators and parents have known for years, that children need good nurturing, nutrition and health to develop. The research (Shore, 1997; Sylwester, 1995) singles out the early years as critical to the optimal development of children, especially the “sensitive periods” or “windows of opportunities”. Gordon (1998) identified the critical years as conception to three years of age, and discussed the effects of adversity in the early years, and their impact on brain development. McCain and Mustard (1999) examined the recent findings in the field of neuroscience and concluded that early brain development is interactive, rapid and dramatic. They showed that during critical periods particular parts of the brain

require stimulation, and the quality of this stimulation affects brain development (pp. 25-26). By providing the child with proper nutrition and positive stimulation, experience, and interactions with adults, we promote their development. Chronic stress and lack of essential positive experience in the first three years will negatively influence the “wiring and sculpting” of the brain and its “neural cross-connections”. These difficulties may be very difficult to overcome later (McCain & Mustard, 1999, p. 25). It is abundantly clear now that the early years are critical to the optimal development of children.

Puckett, Marshall and Davies (1999) caution that “premature interpretation and misapplication of ‘brain-based learning’ may narrow the focus of early childhood care and education to content, producing cookie-cutter programs and interfering with young children’s optimal development and learning”(p.10). They further advocate the need to safeguard the children from the trend of “neuromania” and “high-stakes brain development”, and try to reassure parents “that the essential ‘food’ for the brain comes from what most of them already do naturally with their children and enjoy: rocking, playing peek-a-boo, singing lullabies, talking - in short, sharing all loving physical and verbal interactions, and encouraging explorations” (Puckett, et al.,1999, p. 11). McCain and Mustard (1999) discuss environments that support early child development and encourage children to explore, discover and create. The programs offered include play-based learning and problem-solving opportunities. The authors conclude that “play-based problem-solving with other children and an adult is an early learning strategy that has a crucial effect on early brain development and should be the format for children entering

the school system” (McCain & Mustard, 1999, p.164).

INTERVENTIONS

Current research (Cugmas, 1998; Dwivedi, 1997; Fleming and Lubin, 1998; Goldberg et al., 1995; Gordon, 1998; Health Canada, 1998; Kennedy, 1998; Leon, 1999; Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, 1998) regarding early brain development, the importance of the parent-child attachment, and the developmental and contextual approaches support the importance of developing a comprehensive program of support for students and of every interacting system of support and influence in their lives. The following section will examine shifts in the role of the school counsellor and current interventions used to support students, families and school communities.

The twentieth century saw the inception of the role of school counsellors. This role has evolved throughout the century. Counsellors early in the century focussed on testing aptitudes and personality traits. After World War II, social shifts resulted in an increasing interest in ‘mental health’. The counselling profession responded with ‘directive counselling’ or ‘trait-and-factor’ interventions. Not long after, Carl Rogers had a significant influence on the field of counselling. The Rogerian, or humanistic approach led to focus on individual and small-group counselling, and his non-directive techniques centred on listening, reflecting and clarifying. In the early 1980's a significant reform occurred in the counselling profession. The role of counsellor began to focus on coordinating services and consulting with other professionals, as well as counselling. The

counselling program shifted from “an ancillary, individual, small group, reactive, crisis oriented service to a more comprehensive, preventative, developmental approach” (Wittmer, 1993, p. 4). The developmental approach is based on the concept of providing a counselling program for all students. The program includes an organized and planned curriculum which is sequential and flexible and is integrated into the total educational process. The developmental counsellor serves not just individual students, but staff, administration, parents and community. While counsellors will still respond and react to crises, their main efforts will be more preventive and proactive.

Family Support

Prevention and early intervention strategies are most effective when they focus on working with the child within their primary system of support, the family, rather than working with the child in isolation. Interventions designed to support families have historically been seen to be directive in nature and centre around parent education.

Parenting in today's rapidly changing society presents unique challenges. Social shifts in family structure, work and employment patterns have affected the parenting process. According to Dwivedi (1997), parenting has “become more isolated and unsupported” (p. 101). There are numerous reasons for parent support and education, some of which include: to improve mental health of parents and children; to improve social support networks among parents; to improve knowledge of child behaviour and development; to increase confidence for parents; to increase pleasure between parents and

children; and to improve ability to access support for parents (Dwivedi, 1997, p. 100).

Roberts (1994) contended that current “parent-education models have reflected three major theoretical positions”(p. 75). These positions are: Rogerian (humanistic), Adlerian, and behavioural. The Rogerian theoretical position is reflected in the Parent Effectiveness Training (PET) program. It consists of eight three-hour sessions. The purpose of this program is to create a healthy family atmosphere based on mutual acceptance and respect. It stems from the belief that healthy growth and development of children is dependent on their ability to communicate their feelings. They are also seen to be capable, with effective counselling, of negotiating their own problems. Parents are taught skills such as active listening to facilitate communication and encourage positive interaction. By accepting and respecting their children, parents will encourage positive interaction and autonomous exploration of issues and solutions.

Adlerian parent education is based on the examination of the goals of misbehaviour in children, and ways to encourage children to act more responsibly. The Systematic Training for Effective Parenting (STEP) is based on the Adlerian approach. It consists of nine two-hour sessions. The sessions cover various parenting techniques in dealing with misbehaviour. A democratic approach is encouraged through family meetings to deal with issues. Misbehaviour results in natural or logical consequences that in turn will teach the child self-control and responsibility.

Behavioural parent education focuses on teaching parents skills to manage their children’s behaviour. Parents are taught techniques to establish or eliminate certain

behaviours. In addition, ways to reinforce or shape behaviour are examined. Various types of rewards (social, material or privileges), and schedules of reinforcement are examined. Despite the effectiveness of this model with problem behaviour, some people take issue with the mechanistic and hierarchical underpinnings of this approach. In addition, extrinsic rewards fail to create intrinsic motivation in children.

The above parent-education models have been found to have varying levels of effectiveness, and only short-term gains have been demonstrated in families. Roberts (1994) summarized some of the criticisms of these approaches: they are based on a linear cause-effect model of reality with parental behaviour causing the child's behaviour (no bidirectional change); they focus on specific child behaviours without regard for developmental issues ("cookbook-like"); they are reductionistic and do not appreciate the complexities of parent-child relationships; they focus on nurturing and controlling children while failing to recognize the interactive and ecological aspects of parenting.

While these parent programs provide some helpful skills, the focus on skills in absence of context is rather simplistic. A systems perspective of parent education "would focus on the functional aspects of the child's misbehaviour for the family" (Roberts, 1994, p. 90). This approach differs from the traditional approaches in that it does not prescribe specific techniques or assume that if parents change their behaviour the child will change his or her behaviour. This approach does encourage good communication skills; consider the age of the child and developmental issues; require participation of all persons involved in parenting the child; and consider social and cultural factors relating

to misbehaviour (Roberts, 1994, p. 91). In short, the systems approach recognizes the influence of systems in the life of the student.

Parent education from any approach is only one aspect of family support. I believe that it is essential to provide non-directive support to families, and create an environment which validates and responds to their concerns. Family involvement in schools is shown to be advantageous to student outcomes (Peeks, 1993), and Coleman and Wallinga (1999) examined strategies for facilitating family involvement. They suggest strategies such as: empowering families, recognizing their cultural context, reinforcing their sense of belonging, responding to the vulnerable and reflecting on family involvement barriers. By giving families a voice and influence in the school and broader community system, family involvement in the school will be fostered. They also stress the need for professionals to understand family priorities, first physiological needs, then, safety, belonging, esteem and self-actualization needs. It is imperative that professionals be responsive to the evolving needs of families. Parents initially attend educational or parenting support programs to meet the needs of their children. However, it is apparent that addressing the needs of the parents and supporting them in their parenting will positively affect their children and family. The personal growth and development of parents enabled them to meet their personal and familial needs.

Gordon (1998) argued that support of families of young children significantly improves the personal development of the children. By improving parent-child interactions one can optimize their readiness to learn. School readiness is

recognized as more than academic knowledge and skills. It encompasses five general domains: physical health and well-being, social competence, emotional maturity, language richness, general knowledge and cognitive skills. The Community Action Program for Children (1999) has found that one of the best ways to influence the health and well-being of children is by offering assistance and support to their parents. As Carroll (1993) stated: "In the future, counselors will be recognized more as child development and parenting specialists, necessitating more preparation in working with parents" (p. 221).

The key factor to lack of school readiness and student success has often been thought to be poverty and the resulting poor parenting skills. There is in fact "a higher proportion of children in the lowest socioeconomic sector of society who are in difficulty, [and therefore] there is legitimate concern about the effects of low income and poverty on early child development. Parents with limited resources, particularly lone parents, have difficulty in providing the best circumstances for early child development" (McCain and Mustard, 1999, p. 96). In 1994, a national longitudinal survey of children and youth presented a challenge to the "culture of poverty" thesis. This study found that although a higher proportion of students in the lower socioeconomic levels do not do as well academically and socially, more do do well despite their family economic circumstances. In addition, because of the size of the middle class, more children from middle class families do not do as well as they could. The term "disadvantaged" has been used in the past to denote children from the lower socioeconomic backgrounds. This label implies

that all children from this background need “compensatory education”. It is clear that this is not the case, and thus the new term “at risk” is used to imply that children with this background fit a number of risk factors, and may in turn experience difficulty in the future. In order to reduce the risk factors and improve chances of success, schools must look for effective transition programs and supports throughout the school system. These programs “appear to be those that begin with a holistic view of the child, that are monitored for quality and developmental appropriateness and that integrate all the available community components which provide services designed to meet the complex needs of the children and their families” (OECD, 1998, pp. 38-39).

McCain and Mustard (1999) indicate “the effect of low income is responsible for only 10 % of the behavioural and academic difficulties” (p. 99). The key factor in student performance was found to be “the quality of parental interaction with children in the early years” (McCain and Mustard, 1999, p. 10). Another “interesting finding was that poor parenting was present in all socioeconomic sectors, and although a slightly higher incidence of good parenting was in the middle and upper SES sectors, it was also strong in the lower SES sectors” (McCain and Mustard, 1999, p. 63). These findings highlight the need for accessible family centres for everyone. One parenting program that was initially designed to target the disadvantaged population (young, single parents, economically disadvantaged) found that those who attended and were not in the intended target group “spoke eloquently about their own needs for the program and the benefits to them and their children of participating. From this perspective, those who come are the

target group by self definition” (Sykes, Gendreau, Wolfe and Workman, 1997, p. 9).

Equal opportunity for optimal development is dependent on availability and accessibility to centres dedicated to child development and parenting support.

School-Community Partnerships

Family support in a school setting reflects the interdependence of systems in the broader context. This approach recognizes the social factors influencing child development. Health Canada’s (1998) Community Action Program for Children (CAPC), is rooted in the belief that “children grow through play, children grow with love; children grow in healthy homes; children need hope; children grow through cultural pride; children need to be safe; children need informed, confident parents; children grow when part of their community”(p. 3). Community is recognized “alongside family and educational facilities, [as] a Child Development System. It is where children establish associations, gain identity and develop social skills through play, investigation and interaction with peer groups” (Hill, 1999, p. 104). It is imperative that a comprehensive program of support address the interrelating systems in the life of the child. School-community partnerships can provide comprehensive, integrated, responsive, flexible, effective and streamlined programs of services to meet the needs of community members.

The philosophy behind family resource centres is prevention, early intervention and support of the family in community-based settings. These build upon existing strengths within the family and community by collaborating in the development,

implementation and evaluation of the program. The community development model “springs from the awareness that communities are best positioned to recognize the needs of their children, and have the capacity to draw together the resources to address those needs. CAPC builds on community strength by funding community-based coalitions to establish and deliver services to meet the developmental needs of children living in conditions of risk” (Health Canada, 1998, p. 1). This represents a shift from the ‘expert model’ to a ‘participant-driven model’ of delivering services. The goal of the community development approach is to maximize participant input. Participants include students, families, staff, administration, and community members. It is believed that providing integrated services, determined by the school community, to students and their families will positively affect students’ learning and achievement of their full potential. The centres need to be accessible, respectful of the diversity of families, responsive, locally driven, flexible, and both parent-oriented and child-oriented.

Community support of schools may be seen to be a natural extension of its responsibility to its citizens. Schools serve a broad cross-section of children. Students and families experience a wide range of problems often seen to be outside of the realm of education; some of these are: poverty, family instability, parental unemployment, child abuse, teen pregnancy, truancy, and substance abuse. If schools do not create alliances with other community institutions, they may find themselves responsible for dealing with issues far outside the scope of education. It is, therefore, in their interest to serve as a “hub” for the delivery of services that support the education of children. There is a

current shift to locate services at school rather than relying on referrals between schools and other community based services (OECD,1998, p. 93). Community partnerships design “comprehensive strategies to bring together a range of resources including education, health, mental health, child care, social and recreational services to strengthen families and promote the healthy physical, social, emotional, and cognitive development of children” (U.S. Department of Education and Regional Educational Laboratory Network, n.d.).

Peterson (1995) discusses the need for integrated services, especially for students at risk. These students are often receiving services from a variety of agencies. In order to address the needs of these students, he suggests including parents, health and social service agencies, community organizations, businesses and universities. He proposes that schools that provide a central location where agencies can meet students’ needs will find that their collaboration reduces the fragmentation of services, builds a comprehensive support system, as well as increases the awareness of professionals dealing with the students and their families (Peterson, 1995). Families deserve a unified system of support, one that is integrated not fragmented, multidimensional not one-dimensional, and continuous not sporadic. Family Resource Centres rooted in prevention, early intervention and family support can provide this. Lewington and Orpwood (1993) stated: “education is a collective responsibility of the community. One cannot promise educational excellence without clearing the path for its achievement at school” (p.179). We have a collective responsibility to ensure that children are ready and able to learn to

the best of their ability.

The Process of Establishing Successful School-Community Partnerships

Restructuring schools in order to support school-community partnerships is not a simple process. Fleming and Lubin (1998) outline some of the barriers staff may experience as a result of restructuring. Staff from various organizations may have different training, philosophies and approaches that could complicate collaboration. School staff may be reluctant to take on new responsibilities and roles, and may fail to see the positive link between addressing physical, social and emotional needs with academic achievement. The staff may also feel threatened by new programs and personnel. They may fear losing their autonomy or their specific approach to service, and may also be concerned about unequal power relations. Ill-defined roles, lines of authority and responsibility will create tension and obstacles to cooperation and collaboration. Clarification could be assured by involving the staff in both the development and implementation stages. Professional development may address the additional resources and personnel, redefined roles and responsibilities, and the positive impact on academics from adopting such a model.

Systemic policies may also hamper restructuring. If the aim is more test scores than personal growth, the concept of school-linked services will be difficult to sell. The funding will also be difficult to secure if the administrators and team are unaware of the benefits. The collaborative projects may be considered “extras” or “frills”, and may be

vulnerable to budget cuts. School boards and departments of education need to be committed philosophically to student, family and community development using a partnership approach. They need to see the benefits of the integration of services driven by the community for the community. There is pressure currently to shift funding allocated for specific services to funding of more inclusive services. Government agencies and foundations respond more positively to funding partnerships that ensure a broad resource and delivery base.

The guiding principles that facilitate community-wide commitment in addressing the needs of the whole child/youth are: involvement of all key players; insurance that the collaborative leadership is visionary; establishment of a shared vision; construction of ownership at all levels; establishment of communication and decision-making processes; and inclusion of collaborative goals by earmarking funds to carry out collaborative activities (Kunesh & Farley, 1995). It is important to go slowly and lay a solid foundation on which the partners will develop a collaborative vision, goals and commitment. The process needs to be inclusive and open communication must be maintained throughout. The most critical barrier to successful partnerships is lack of communication at any stage of development and implementation:

Maintaining effective and ongoing communication between partners is a real challenge. Collaborations that maintain a participatory and open planning process sometimes neglect to institute mechanisms for continuing communication and information sharing once the project begins. This is a formula for disenchantment of staff and workers and a refragmentation of services. It also often leads to one organization bearing the burden of the project whether by default or because it is the only

organization that communicates with everyone else.
(Kraemer, 1993 posted at Fleming & Lubin, 1998)

Common goals and objectives lay the foundation for integration of services and community partnerships; communication however, is vital to the implementation and ongoing evaluation of such a program. In restructuring the work environment (physically and philosophically), partners will need to be flexible, open to risk-taking and willing to meet problems head on. This requires a partnership built on a solid foundation of trust and respect of all involved.

This foundation must be built from the very beginning. All partners must be involved in determining the needs, deciding on an action, implementing and evaluating the partnership. One school in Edmonton, for example, conducted a needs assessment using a method called *concept-mapping* focusing on parent expectations of elementary school counsellors (Paulson & Edwards 1997). Concept-mapping combines both the qualitative and quantitative approach to assessment and is a participant-oriented process. It is not a pre-determined questionnaire, limiting the scope of questions and participant responses. Instead participants are asked to create thematic representations of ideas that they generate, structure and map in thematic form. This encourages active participation and enhances partnerships from the beginning. Upon entering into partnerships some memorandum of understanding of the philosophical roots and policies regarding the partnerships is valuable.

In addition, continuous participant-driven evaluation is one way that the centre

can remain responsive to the changing needs of its population. There was an evaluation done of the CAPC projects that used a participatory action research model. It included interviews and focus groups with parents, staff, board members, volunteers, community stakeholders, government representatives, and other qualitative data such as children's drawings of their experiences (Wood Catano, 1999). The evaluation examined changes in individuals as well as broader systemic and social change. The effects of the program, personal development and community development, were evident throughout the layers of the community systems.

Community partnerships may range from "single targeted services" (e.g., volunteer tutoring) to "cooperative partnerships" (agencies providing on-site services) to "collaboratives" (in which schools and community agencies redefine their responsibilities). As the partnerships become more complex, more work and school restructuring are needed. The roles and responsibilities of all involved need to be developed collaboratively. A common vision and goals must be established. It is important to remember that the services need to be locally defined and driven by the needs of the school and the larger community. It is worth noting that "effective collaboration between schools and social services is based on the viewpoint that children's needs are inseparable from the needs of the family and the community" (Fleming & Lubin, 1998).

Partnerships may take many forms, and it is worthwhile examining the characteristics of the successful programs. The programs have the following

characteristics: they are comprehensive, preventive, family-centred and family-driven, integrated, developmental, and flexible. They are also sensitive to cultural, gender, ability and racial differences. Research suggests that effective service integration initiatives share the following characteristics: they are school linked, rooted in the community, and engage all citizens in decisions about the social and economic well-being of children and families (Turnbaugh, Lockwood, Stinnette and D'Amico, n.d.). In addition, "the most promising models,...., do not operate from a deficit model but instead strive to be a normal part of a community -- in which positive relationships develop in a natural way and are not solely based on need. 'The successful programs try to serve youth in general instead of identifying who is at risk and who is not at risk and then only serve those labeled at risk. Why not just serve them all?' " (Turnbaugh Lockwood, Stinnette and D'Amico, n.d.). Joy Dryfoos (1994), as cited in Turnbaugh Lockwood, Stinnette and D'Amico (n.d.), explores the rationale for "full-service schools". She envisions various models such as family resource centres, youth service centres, community schools, and school-based health centres or "one-stop educational service centres". These centres will be able to offer a comprehensive program to address the wide-range of needs in the community. Prevention, early intervention, and positive student development are also involved.

School size was noted as significant in restructuring to fit newly emerging models (Turnbaugh Lockwood, Stinnette and D'Amico, n.d.). An interpretation of the data suggests that "small school size not only improves student performance on grades and test

scores, but lowers drop-out rates, reduces violence and drug abuse” (Turnbaugh, Lockwood, Stinnette and D’Amico, n.d.). “Small schools” have the following characteristics: they have populations of no more than 250-300 students, they are mixed heterogeneously, with a cohesive, self-selected faculty, democratic structure, and a high degree of autonomy around issues such as curriculum. Many schools unable to reduce their size have attempted to restructure in other ways, such as creating “schools within schools”.

When schools become linked with the community through various partnerships of various complexities the school needs to restructure in a number of other ways. As schools adopt the model of school-linked services, they will need to focus on integration and development of a “total” structure. It will involve the examination of common goals, of strategies of integration, of where the services will be delivered (on or off-site). Space allocation, adequate funding, professional development, on-going evaluation, as well as a redefinition of the roles and responsibilities of all stakeholders involved (students, families, school personnel, school board, and community agency personnel) will also have to be settled.

Summary

Current theories of child development, specifically the developmental systems approach, attachment and early brain development support the importance of developing a comprehensive program of support for students and all interacting systems of influence

in their lives. It is clear that resource and service centres can provide a comprehensive, integrated, multidimensional, and unified system of support for children, their families and the broader school community. School-community partnerships increase the opportunity for access to comprehensive, coordinated and meaningful services. The awareness of services available can also increase, duplication of services can be reduced, and gaps can be promptly identified. The school community can become a “caring community” in which students, families and staff can feel connected to the community. There can be a shift in focus from crisis intervention to prevention and early intervention. Centres could provide the support the community needs, and could respond in an effective and efficient way to school issues. They could help to create an environment conducive to personal growth, adaptability, competence and resilience. School-based resource centres can support students and families in their quest for personal meaning, and in their taking charge of their destiny.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this project was to develop a handbook for professionals serving families that would outline ways in which a Family Resource Centre can provide an integrated, multidimensional, unified system of support for families. The following chapter outlines the process used in obtaining the information for the handbook. It provides a description of the qualitative methodology employed, and the three phases of this process: the literature review; consultation; and the development of the handbook.

The idea for this project first stemmed from my experience as a parent who used a family resource centre. I had wanted to have children, I had lots of experience with young children on a personal and professional level, and I did not anticipate needing support as I entered the parenting phase of my life. I was surprised at how much I needed the services and benefitted from visiting the centre. I used the drop-in-play program and participated in parenting courses, such as a first-aid course, art and young children, nutrition in the early years, and the importance of play. I appreciated the professional support, but more importantly, I appreciated developing a supportive network of parents and caregivers of young children.

This past year I have had the opportunity to work one morning a week at a Family Resource Centre based at Holy Cross Elementary School in St. John's. I facilitated a Parent-Child Mother Goose program aimed at strengthening parent-child attachment as

well as developing pre-literacy skills. The program is based on oral-language play, and it provides parents with a repertoire of material that can improve parent-child interactions, and, in turn, foster secure attachment. I have worked with that program for two years and I was struck by the uniqueness of the family resource setting. The group was cohesive but open to newcomers, and members shared their struggles and joys openly. They spoke about ways they used the new material and the resulting shifts in family dynamics. What was unique to this group was the evidence of internal supports and networks that increased comfort and participation levels. It often felt as though the group facilitated itself once the material was presented. I was concurrently working on graduate courses in counselling/educational psychology and was wondering about the ways in which this centre could facilitate a comprehensive/developmental counselling program.

The project was conducted using a qualitative methodology. I explored current research, observed subjects in a natural setting and conducted interviews. I looked for emergent themes and attempted to find meaning in the research and observations. The boundaries for the handbook were negotiated throughout the process. It was completed in three phases. The first phase was a literature review, the second phase was consultation with professionals involved in education and serving families and the third phase was the development of the handbook.

Literature Review

The first phase was a literature review of child development, interventions and

school-community partnerships. I primarily did a library search and found literature on child development and interventions. There was little available, however, regarding school-community partnerships. I obtained a lot of my information for this topic on-line and in education courses at Memorial University. These findings placed in Chapter II of this document and my previous work experience assisted me in developing questions about the viability of family resource centres in school settings.

Consultation

The second phase involved consulting with various professionals in the fields of education and community service with families, as well as people using a school-based family resource centre. The purpose of these consultations was to explore emergent themes from the literature and from work experience and to explore other issues and ideas they presented about school-based family resource centres.

The participants included: two parents currently using the school-based family resource centre; a program coordinator from Brighter Futures Coalition in St. John's; the executive director of Brighter Futures Coalition in St. John's; the Provincial Program Coordinator for National Child Benefit Family Resource Centres; a counsellor based in an elementary school currently using a family resource centre; a consultant in Student Support Services at the Department of Education; and a coordinator with CAPC sites with Health Canada. There were six women and two men.

Each of these respondents was initially contacted by telephone and asked to

participate in the consultations. Some people were able to meet in person, while other consultations were done via the phone. The meetings ranged in length, but were generally around 45 minutes. The consultation began with a brief explanation of the project. Each participant was then asked the same open-ended question: What do you think should be included about school-based family resource centres in a handbook for professionals serving families? The discussion then flowed, and other specific questions relating to the individual participant's field of expertise were asked. I took detailed notes.

Handbook

The conclusions from the literature review and the consultations were then outlined and described. The common emergent themes were identified and the structure of the handbook evolved.

Prevention and early intervention

One of the first themes to emerge was the need for prevention and early intervention. The 'at-risk' population is entitled to equal opportunities to develop to its full potential. Accessibility to family support in the early childhood years will empower families to promote the healthy development of their children. One respondent pointed out the need for awareness of early child development, and stressed how play-based programs set the stage for later learning. Academic skills and competencies were noted as the indicators of school readiness. One consultant suggested discussing not 'school readiness', but 'readiness to learn'. The critical role of parent-child relationship in the

growth and development of the child was highlighted. One professional stressed that if parent-child relationships are not conducive to growth and development, it does not help to work with the child in isolation. Thus, the importance of family resource centres to strengthen children, parents and families rang through. The multilayered effects of early family support were discussed by each consultant, and through most of the literature.

Community development

The community development approach also emerged as a common theme. In order to address the needs of the community, programs must be participant-driven and community-based. This approach is based on the recognition of the existing strengths and capacity for development within the community. It encourages members to work together towards common goals by building on their existing strengths and skills. This approach has been effective in meeting the needs of people and encouraging community involvement. One respondent referred to the need to maximize participant input, and indicated how the community development model can accomplish this. By giving recognition and authentic voice to the members, this approach creates a caring environment that enhances members' sense of belonging. One consultant referred to comments from parents of the school with regards to the "warmth", "caring" and "welcoming" atmosphere of the school. This consultant spoke about the need to build informal and formal structures to strengthen family involvement. The consultant reinforced the ineffectiveness of working with children in isolation. It is important to link the systems that interact in the world of the child. This approach is beneficial in

involving those 'at-risk' that may avoid the more traditional approaches that are rooted in a philosophy of addressing the deficits and problems by experts.

Benefits of resource centres

The benefits of a family resource centre were discussed by all consultants, as well as in the literature. Each consultant recognized that the benefits were far-reaching. The parents discussed particular benefits for their children, such as socialization, language development, skill development, and communication. Children had also gained an understanding of how to behave in a school atmosphere, listening skills, a sense of ownership of the school, and a sense of connection to other children, parents and teachers. In addition, they spoke of the increased social support they found from sharing with other families. One respondent noted that she realized that she was not alone in her struggles, and was able to glean a lot of valuable information from other parents. They both spoke of having valuable input into the programming of the resource centre. In addition, one of the respondents spoke of becoming involved in school governance and politics about the issue of busing before his children officially enter the school system. The other consultants spoke of the benefits to the school community such as improved readiness to learn, increased parental involvement, new resources and a stronger sense of community. As well, benefits to the broader community were discussed, such as a stronger and healthier population, child development as a catalyst for adult personal development in various areas, less fragmented delivery service and a stronger alliance of organizations serving families.

The process of establishing a centre

Some of the consultants who are directly involved in the implementation of resource centres discussed the process of establishing a centre. One consultant mentioned the need for a space dedicated to the resource centre only, free of interruption and intimidation. The idea is not exclusion, but respect for the programs and participants. Most consultants stressed the need for 'true' partnerships from the very beginning. One consultant stressed the need for some sort of memorandum of understanding, that would highlight the agreement on philosophical and policy issues. It was noted that all involved need to have 'authentic voices' in all stages of development, implementation and evaluation of the programs. Participant-driven evaluation was also discussed as a way to be responsive to the evolving needs of the population. One respondent noted the need to move from the expert, to the participant-driven model. Another consultant also spoke of the need to move from the charity to the community development model, or from 'I'm here to help them' to 'They have a right to equity and accessibility to build on their strengths and skills'. What was central to this process was the letting go of control and giving ownership to the community members.

New roles and responsibilities

Another emerging theme was the need for training for those involved in this new structure. The new roles and responsibilities can be confusing, and at times threatening to those involved. Training should focus on child development, family support, community development and the positive links between this support and achievement of potential. In

addition, clarification of roles and responsibilities, as well as involvement in the development and implementation, will increase the understanding and commitment of the people involved.

Summary

The following handbook was developed for professionals involved in serving families. It was based on the current literature regarding child development, interventions and school-community partnerships, the recommendations of various professionals in the fields of education and community service with families, and people using a school-based family resource centre. Its purpose is to outline ways that a Family Resource Centre based in an elementary school could provide an integrated, multidimensional, unified system of support for the school population. By establishing community partnerships and using the school as a hub for delivering services, students, families, staff, administration, and the broader community will benefit.

CHAPTER IV: SCHOOL-BASED FAMILY RESOURCE CENTRES

A handbook on school-community partnerships for professionals serving families.

SCHOOL-BASED FAMILY RESOURCE CENTRES:

The Village Approach

“It takes a village to raise a child.”

African Proverb

***A handbook on school-community
partnerships for professionals serving
families.***

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank my project supervisor Dr. Mildred Cahill for her support and encouragement throughout this project. I would also like to thank Dr. Stuart Pierson for his editorial support. Also, sincere thanks to my family, Mark, Sam and Isaac for their love, patience and support.

I would also like to thank the consultants who contributed to this handbook. Their valuable comments and questions were vital in shaping *School-Based Family Resource Centres: A Village Approach*.

Consultants

Roy Morrell	<i>Parent Representative of School-Based Family Resource Centre</i>
Tina Fisher	<i>Parent Representative of School-Based Family Resource Centre</i>
Debra Capps	<i>Program Coordinator of Brighter Futures Coalition in St. John's</i>
Rod O'Driscoll	<i>Executive Director of Brighter Futures Coalition in St. John's</i>
Debra Randell	<i>Provincial Program Coordinator for National Child Benefit Family Resource Centres</i>
Deanna Drover	<i>Guidance Counsellor for Holy Cross Elementary School which is currently housing a family resource centre</i>
Mandy Tucker-Anstey	<i>Consultant with Student Support Services at the Department of Education, Government of Newfoundland and Labrador</i>
Frances Ennis	<i>Coordinator of CAPC sites of Newfoundland and Labrador, Health Canada</i>

Table of Contents

Introduction.....	51
Chapter 1- Setting the stage for school success.....	52
Early child development.....	52
Family support programs.....	55
Chapter 2- What are family resource centres?.....	56
Philosophical roots of family resource centres.....	56
Possible programs at family resource centres.....	58
One case study to illustrate the possibilities.....	59
Benefits of family resource centres.....	61
Chapter 3- How to establish a family resource centre or school-community partnerships of varying levels of complexity.....	62
Connecting with families.....	62
Process of establishing school-community partnerships.....	63
Restructuring schools.....	67
New roles and responsibilities.....	70
Chapter 4- Conclusion.....	74
Chapter 5- Resources.....	75
Helpful provincial organizations and resources available.....	75
Provincial Family Resource Centres:	
Funded by National Child Benefit.....	76
Funded by Community Action Program for Children	77
Helpful on-line resources.....	78
Helpful books and articles.....	79
References.....	80

**The development of the whole child,
giving consideration to a comprehensive
model of seamless supports and early interventions,
is of paramount importance.**

(McCain and Mustard, 1999,1)

**By participating in preventive, capacity-building
strategies, such as early childhood and family support programs,
schools and their partners can play a major role in building
strength and resiliency among students, families, and communities.**

(U.S. Department of Education and Regional Educational Laboratory Network, n.d.)

Introduction

Schools today face numerous challenges in enhancing optimal development of the child. The structural changes in families and society itself have resulted in provoking high stress for students at all age levels on multiple issues. Many of the issues, such as poverty, family instability, parental unemployment, child abuse, teen pregnancy, truancy, and substance abuse, are seen to be outside of the realm of education. However, it is clear that these issues do impede a children's ability to learn and develop to their potential. We have a collective responsibility to ensure that children are ready and able to learn to the best of their ability. We have responded to the complex issues and social structures with fragmented, patch-work programs of support for 'at-risk' students and their families. If schools do not create alliances with other community institutions, they may find themselves responsible for dealing with issues far outside the scope of education. It is therefore, in their interest to serve as a "hub" for the delivery of services which support children and their families. It is imperative that a comprehensive program of support address the interrelating systems in the life of the child. The following handbook will explore ways in which a school-based Family Resource Centre, through a network of school-community partnerships, can provide an integrated, responsive, flexible, effective and streamlined program of services to meet the needs of school-community members. I believe that it does indeed take a village to raise a child, and by building villages we can facilitate a comprehensive system of support for children and their families.

Chapter 1 - Setting the Stage for School Success

Early Child Development

It is abundantly clear now that the early years are critical to the optimal development of children. Child development theorists continue to address the nature of the relationship between the child, the environment and the social context in the child's acquisition of knowledge. Various theorists examine issues such as genetically predetermined development, resolution of conflicts at various stages of development, knowledge acquired through experience, knowledge constructed by the child and the influence of their culture and social context. However, for the purpose of this handbook, I pay particular attention to attachment, developmental-systems and early brain development theorists.

Attachment theory proposes that the quality of attachment between the parent and child is a crucial factor in later psychological, social, emotional and cognitive development of the child. Secure attachment has been shown to build self-esteem, self-confidence, social competence, spatial capacities, problem-solving, creativity and mental development. In designing a program of support for students, it is critical to address the crucial parent-child relationship. Improving parent-child interactions can optimize the child's readiness to learn, and her or his personal, social and cognitive development. Developmental theorists expand upon this notion of parental influence, and recognize the influence of all levels of social systems in which the child lives. The systems such as

home, school, social welfare, and culture influence the child, and the other systems of which they are a part. In developing programs of support for students, one must consider and address the various interacting systems influencing their lives.

There is much research in the area of early brain development. It is clear that by providing the child with positive stimulation, experience, nutrition and interactions with adults we stimulate their development. It has also been shown that chronic stress and lack of essential positive experience in the first three years will negatively influence the “wiring and sculpting” of the brain and “neural cross-connections”, and these difficulties may be very difficult to overcome later. Researchers highlight the rapid early development and specific “windows of opportunity” or “sensitive periods of development”. While I think that the research is indisputable regarding early brain development, we need to safe-guard the children from the trend of “neuromania” and “high-stakes brain development”. Parents need reassurance that children do not need earlier cognitive “programming”. They need confirmation that talking, singing, rocking and other loving interactions are essential to the optimal development of their child. This research also makes clear that environments that support early child development, encourage children to explore, discover and create. Possible programs include play-based learning and problem-solving opportunities.

School readiness is recognized as much more than academic knowledge and skills. Readiness to learn encompasses five general domains: physical health and well-being; social competence; emotional maturity; language richness; general knowledge and

cognitive skills. The key factor to lack of school readiness and student success has often been thought to be poverty and the resulting poor parenting skills. However, in 1994, a national longitudinal survey of Canadian children and youth (McCain & Mustard, 1999) presented a challenge to this “culture of poverty” thesis. This study found that although a higher proportion of students in the lower socioeconomic ranks do not do as well academically and socially, more do well despite their family economic circumstances. They found that the key factor in student performance was the quality of parent-child interaction in the early years. Poor parenting was found in all socioeconomic sectors, and good parenting was also found to be strong in the lower socioeconomic sectors.

The term “disadvantaged” has been used in the past to denote children from the lower socioeconomic backgrounds. This label implies that all children from this background need “compensatory education”. It is clear that this is not the case, and thus the new term “at risk” is used to imply that children with this background fit a number of risk factors, and may in turn experience difficulty in the future. In order to reduce the risk factors and boost chances of success, schools must look for effective transition programs and quality supports throughout the school system. Equal opportunity for optimal development is dependent on availability and accessibility to centres dedicated to child development and family support.

Effective Family Support Interventions

Counselling programs in schools are shifting from a focus on crisis-oriented individual and small-group counselling to more comprehensive, preventive and developmental counselling. Counsellors are encouraged to consult, coordinate and collaborate with others involved in serving the students. The social system in which students live is recognized and in connecting structurally the systems of influence, the needs of students are more effectively addressed.

The Community Action Program for Children (CAPC), Health Canada (1998), has found that one of the best ways to influence the health and well-being of children is by offering assistance and support to their parents. Prevention and early intervention strategies are most effective when they focus on working with children within their primary system of support, the family, rather than working with children in isolation. Parents initially attend educational or parenting support programs to meet the needs of their children. However, it is apparent that addressing the needs of the parents and supporting them in their parenting will positively affect their children. Family support in a school setting reflects the interdependence of systems in the lives of children. Families deserve a unified system of support, one that is integrated not fragmented, multidimensional not one-dimensional, continuous not sporadic.

Chapter 2 - What are family resource centres?

Philosophical Roots

The philosophy behind family resource centres is prevention, early intervention and support of the family in community-based settings. They build upon existing strengths within the family and community by collaborating in the development, implementation and evaluation of the program. The community development model proposes that communities are best positioned to determine their needs, and that communities have the capacity to gather resources to meet their needs. This represents a shift from the 'expert model' to a 'participant-driven model' of delivering services. The goal of the community development approach is to maximize participant input. Participants include students, families, staff, administration, and community members involved. It is worth noting that the collaboration of services is rooted in the belief that children's needs are inseparable from both the needs of the family and community. It is believed that by providing integrated services, determined by the school community, to students and their families, it will positively affect students' learning and achievement of their full potential.

Family resource centres provide quality group programs for parents and their children. They affirm the critical role and importance of the parent-child relationship, and attempt to help parents to learn to respond to their children's needs. They provide programs regarding early child development, parenting, and personal development. They

also provide quality programs for children to engage in play-based, problem-solving learning with parents and other children. A school-based family resource centre is the perfect place to facilitate transition into school for child and parents. Family involvement in school is known to positively affect student performance, and this centre could provide an early link and positive transition for families. The programs are determined by the school community and are all optional. Also, the centre needs to be accessible, respectful of the diversity of families, responsive, locally driven, flexible, and both parent-oriented and child-oriented.

Family Resource Centres

- focus on prevention and early intervention
- support the family in community-based settings
- build on existing strengths in the family and community
- believe that communities are best positioned to determine their needs
- provide quality programs to both parents and children
- are accessible
- are respectful of family diversity
- are responsive to locally determined needs

The following section will outline possible programs which may be offered at school-based family resource centres.

Possible Programs at School-Based Resource Centres

FAMILY RESOURCE CENTRE Elementary School	YOUTH SERVICE CENTRES Junior High and High Schools
parent-child drop-in group programs offering play-based, problem-solving experiences, socialization opportunities, early literacy and numeracy, music, physical activity and creative arts	career counselling: personal development; co-op training and placement; summer and part-time job development; scholarship information
referral services (on or off-site): family crisis and mental health counselling	referral services (on or off-site): family crisis and mental health counselling; substance abuse counselling; teen crisis hotline
parent training: personal development, parenting courses, early child development, workshops, family literacy and numeracy, computer skills, English as a second language	peer counselling and advocacy programs
prenatal and postnatal support: nutrition, child birth, breast-feeding and child development information	legal system coordination; facilitation of re-entry to school
toy and resource libraries	resource library
health screening services; early problem identification and intervention	after school recreation
consultation with school and sharing of resources; promoting of curricula that deals with bullying, conflict resolution, diversity and tolerance, stress management, career exploration, decision-making and self-esteem.	consultation with school and sharing of resources; promoting of curricula that deal with violence, conflict resolution, sexuality, diversity and tolerance, career exploration, decision-making and stress management.

It is important to remember that a centre does not simply provide these services. It collaborates with the community and coordinates a system of support determined by the population to strengthen children, families, and the community as a whole.

One case study to illustrate the possibilities

One such program operating in the Avalon East School Board district is the Holy Cross Family Resource Centre. This is an inner city elementary school dedicated to the service and support of families and children. The FRC is run by the Brighter Futures Coalition of St. John's and District, a not-for-profit organization made up of families and professionals looking to serve families in need. It is funded by CAPC (Community Action Program for Children), NCB (National Child Benefit Provincial Reinvestment Plan) and CPNP (Canada Prenatal Nutrition Program). They provide quality programming promoting healthy birth and development of children 0-6, and with their funding from NCB they are able to serve children 0-12. They are philosophically rooted in community-based programming and have established a network of community partnerships. They partner with: Froude Avenue Community Centre, Newfoundland and Labrador Housing Corporation, Memorial University, Dr. William Fagan (PRINTS program), The Parent-Child Mother Goose Program, Revenue Canada Green Team, Health and Community Services, Daybreak Child Centre, Holy Cross School, Avalon East School Board, CAPC, NCB and CPNP. Their approach stems from an idea of community development and community capacity building. They do not determine programming for a community, but instead help establish community committees that determine their own needs. Outreach into the community is done through existing centres, door-to-door campaigns, and tenant associations. The programs are then developed to serve the needs of the community. The major focus is on supporting

families, especially those in need, and facilitating a healthy environment for children and their parents.

The family resource centre at Holy Cross School has offered the following programs: Parent & Tot Playgroups, Storytime, Parent Club, Cooking with Kids, Parent-Child Mother Goose Program, Stress Management, Parent Computer Training and Literacy Support, Quarterly Outings, Resource Room for Parents, Referrals and Support, The Babysitting Course for Grade 6 students, and various workshops on any requested topic. Other programs available include: Breast-feeding Support, Parenting Programs such as How to Talk So Kids Will Listen, Nobody's Perfect, PET, Early Learning, PEPS (Program for Early Parent Support), Healthy Baby, Books for Babies, Community Kitchens, Basic Shelf, PPP (Personal Power Program), Nutrition Programs, Volunteer Program Toy/Book Lending Library, Literacy Programs (e.g., PRINTS). It is evident that the resource centre functions as a "hub" through which community partnerships of varying complexities operate within the school setting. The programs facilitate prevention, early intervention, and integration of services for families in need.

Benefits of School-Based Family Resource Centres

Benefits for All: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased sense of a caring community. • Greater awareness of services available. 		
Students: Increased opportunity for access to comprehensive, coordinated and meaningful services. Heightened sense of belonging, identification and membership in the school and broader community. Improved school readiness and support at other transition periods. Improved social skills, language, basic skills and self-esteem. Holistic focus on personal development.	Families: Strong voice in determining the direction of services at the school. Opportunities to contribute in a meaningful way to children's education. Increased social support networks. Parents become more confident and competent in their parenting. Ability to recognize strengths as parents and as part of a community. Positive parent-child interaction. Increased self-acceptance and self-esteem.	School: Increase in the resources at no extra cost. Increase in political support. Informed support of families and community members. Physical and financial supports for the school. Comprehensive and integrated program of service to support the school population. Increased knowledge about the world of work and the community in general.
Agencies: Sharing resources, staff power, responsibilities, and expenses. Reduced duplication of services. Prompt identification of gaps in services. A wider range of coordinated community-based resources. Increased sense of connection to the community. Greater opportunities for discussion and collaboration. Focus on prevention and early intervention rather than crisis-oriented.	On-Site Professionals: Increase in morale, heightened engagement in their work, and a feeling that work will net results. Ability to focus on redefined role and responsibility. Increased chance of professional development. Shift in focus from crisis intervention to prevention and early intervention.	Community-at-large: A comprehensive and well-integrated program of service for community members. An educated and healthy workforce. Physical, social and emotional health in the population. Recognition of the capacity to build collective action and mutual support among families and the community.

Chapter 3 - How to establish a school-based family resource centre, or school-community partnerships of varying levels of complexity.

Connecting with families

Family involvement in schools has long been known to positively affect student performance. It is critical that as professionals we understand family priorities. Families will set priority on physiological needs first, then, safety, belonging, esteem and self-actualization. It is imperative that school-based family resource centres be responsive to the evolving needs of families. Parents initially attend centres to meet the needs of their children. However, it is apparent that addressing the needs of the parents and supporting them in parenting will positively affect their children and family. The personal growth and development of parents enables them to meet their personal and familial needs. Resource centres need to be responsive to the changing needs of the school community. By giving families a voice and influence in the school and broader community system, family involvement in the school will be fostered.

Some strategies used to strengthen family involvement are: empowering families, recognizing their cultural context, reinforcing their sense of belonging, sharpening responsiveness to the vulnerable and reflectiveness on family involvement barriers. There are populations that are more difficult to reach, and accessibility needs to be closely examined. Accessibility is much more than physical in nature, and certain populations need to define their unique needs and wants regarding programming support. Using a

community development approach permits professionals to come to know, understand and address the community concerns. It is critical to view families and the community as true partners in the establishment of the centres, the development of programs, and the implementation and evaluation of the services. It is imperative that everyone involved be considered equal partners from the inception of the centre, and that parents have an authentic voice in the creation and direction of the resource centre. Families will cease to be managed, and will participate fully in the decisions and be assisted by professionals in the coordination of the services needed.

Process of establishing partnerships

The overall guiding principle that facilitates effective school-community partnerships is involvement of all key players in each step of the process. It is important to go slowly in the development of a collaborative vision, goals and commitment. Common goals and objectives lay the foundation for integration of services and community partnerships; open communication is vital to the implementation and ongoing evaluation of such a program. In restructuring the work environment (physically and philosophically), partners will need to be flexible, open to risk-taking and willing to meet problems head on. This requires a partnership built on a solid foundation of trust and respect of all involved. This foundation must be built from the very beginning. All partners must be involved in determining the needs, deciding on an action, implementing and evaluating the partnership. Continuous participant-driven evaluation is one way that

the centre can remain responsive to the changing needs of its population.

Key Factors to Effective School-Community Partnerships of Various Levels of Complexity

- involvement of all key players at all steps of the process
- shared vision: common goals and objectives
- effective and continuous communication at all levels
- slow deliberate action to lay solid foundation of trust and respect of all involved
- continuous participant-driven evaluation
- school linked and rooted in the community
- comprehensive programs: preventive, integrated and developmental in nature
- family-centred and family-driven
- sensitive to cultural, gender, ability and racial differences
- small school size (under 300) or “schools within schools”

When schools become linked with the community through various partnerships of various complexities, the school needs to restructure in a number of other ways. As schools adopt the model of school-linked services, they will need to focus on integration and development of a “total” structure. This will involve the examination of common goals and strategies of integration, decisions as to where the services will be delivered (on or off-site), space allocation, adequate funding, professional development, continuous evaluation, as well as a redefinition of the roles and responsibilities of all involved. As the partnerships become more complex, more work and school restructuring will be needed.

Various Types of Partnerships

- single targeted services (e.g. volunteer tutoring)
- cooperative partnerships (e.g. agencies provide on-site services)
- collaborative partnerships (schools and community agencies redefine their responsibilities)

The following table is a summary of the steps that can be followed in establishing school-community partnerships of varying levels of complexity.

Establishing School-Community Partnerships

STEP	ACTIVITIES	QUESTIONS
1. Identification of a need.	Needs assessment. Remember to involve all key players. Concept-mapping is a type of needs assessment developed and driven by the population you are surveying. Participants compile list of ideas, and create thematic representations. Then a statistical analysis of ideas they generated, structured and mapped is done.	What do we need? Who are we serving? How can they best be heard? How can our assessment be driven by the school community?
2. Explore a shared need.	Research various agencies in your community. Meet with agencies. Remember relationships need to be reciprocal. Look for complementary goals that benefit student learning as well as the community.	What exactly do we need? Who could help? How could I help them? What are my limits in working with them?
3. Decide to act in collaboration.	Develop common goals and measurable objectives. Determine funds and budget. Clarify roles and responsibilities of all involved. Determine the system of partnership. Pay specific attention to decision-making, communication, financial control and ongoing monitoring and evaluation of tasks.	What are our shared goals? Who are we trying to help? What are our specific objectives? How will decisions be made? What will this cost? Where will we get the money? How will we operate? How will we know if we are succeeding?
4. Implement the plan of collaborative action.	The action that will benefit the student and community.	How are we doing?
5. Evaluate the success of the joint venture and re-assess the partnership itself.	Implement evaluation of goals and objectives. Distribute the results to all interested parties, the funders included. If the need for collaboration continues refine plans.	How are we doing? Do we need to: recruit new partners, adjust our projects, or revise our goals and objectives?

Restructuring Schools

Restructuring schools in order to support school-community partnerships is not a simple process. As well as establishing common vision and goals, the roles and responsibilities of all involved need to be developed collaboratively. Staff from various organizations may have different training, philosophies and approaches that could complicate collaboration. School staff may be reluctant to take on new responsibilities and roles, and may fail to see the positive link between addressing physical, social and emotional needs with academic achievement. The staff may also feel threatened by new programs and personnel. They may fear losing their autonomy or their specific approach to service, and may also be concerned about unequal power relations. Ill-defined roles, lines of authority and responsibility will create tension and obstacles to cooperation and collaboration. Clarification could be assured by involving the staff in both the development and implementation stages. Professional development may address the additional resources and personnel, redefined roles and responsibilities, and the positive impact on student learning from adopting such a model.

Systemic policies may also hamper restructuring. If the focus is more on test scores than personal growth, the concept of school-linked services will be difficult to sell. The funding will also be difficult to secure if the administrators and team are unaware of the benefits. The collaborative projects may be considered “extras” or “frills”, and may be vulnerable to budget cuts. School boards and departments of education need to be

committed philosophically to student, family and community development using a partnership approach. They need to see the benefits of the integration of services driven by the community for the community. There is pressure currently to shift funding allocated for specific services to funding of more inclusive services. Government agencies and foundations respond more positively to funding partnerships that ensure a broad resource and delivery base.

The easiest way to establish a school-based family resource centre is to forge a partnership with an established centre and provide a space in the school for on-site services to be offered. An example of this was offered in the case study at Holy Cross Elementary School. Also, the school board itself may be approached for space and other in-kind services your school community needs. Other partnerships can be explored with businesses, churches, agencies, associations, foundations and government departments. Please see in the list of resources specific resources available in the province.

In September 2000, the federal government announced that six million dollars will be directed to Newfoundland and Labrador for early childhood development. This new money will be available in the spring of 2001, and currently a committee has been struck to determine how this money will be spent.

Below is a list of helpful Canadian on-line sites that will provide information on funding, funding agencies, foundations and current strategies for positive child development and family support. In addition, Chapter 5 includes a listing of helpful provincial organizations and resources, on-line resources, and helpful books and articles.

The Funders Alliance for Children, Youth and Families

<http://www.fundersalliance.org>

This is a cross-sectoral partnership of funders with an interest in improving the well-being of children, youth and families. The organization aims to assist funders to become more strategic in supporting the needs of children, youth and families, as well as maximizing the effectiveness of their resources. The site serves as a focal point to discuss common issues and effective strategies.

Charity Village

<http://www.charityvillage.com/charityvillage/fund.asp>

This site contains links to online databases and directories of funding agencies and foundations of interest to Canadian individuals and organizations. It includes: Blue Book of Canadian Business, Grant-Giving Foundations, Government Agencies and Departments, Databases of Funding Sources and Agencies, Corporate Funding Information, and U.S. and International Information Sources.

Campaign 2000

<http://www.campaign2000.ca/>

This cross-Canadian coalition of 85 diverse organizations is committed to the elimination of child and family poverty and improving life chances for all children. This site has excellent summaries and updates of the National Children's Agenda.

Health Canada Childhood and Youth Site

<http://www.hc-sc.gc.ca/hppb/childhood-youth/>

This is a site dedicated to current research and reports on trends and issues affecting Canadian children, youth and families.

Growing Healthy Canadians: A Guide for Positive Child Development

<http://www.growinghealthykids.com>

This guide is for anyone interested in promoting the well-being of children, youth and families. The site clarifies the shared responsibility we all have in growing healthy Canadians.

Sparrow Lake Alliance

<http://www.sparrowlake.org/>

This Alliance is a voluntary coalition of professionals, service sectors providing services to children, and representatives of parents' and youth organizations. It is dedicated to promoting the optimal development of all children and youth. It is also committed to improving the effective, efficient integration and humanity of services for children, youth and families. They are determined to raise public appreciation of children and youth as our hope for the future.

New Roles and Responsibilities

Fleming and Lubin (1998) outlined newly defined roles and responsibilities in their online article *Critical Issue: Restructuring Schools to Support School-Linked Services*.

Below is a summary of the main points presented in this article.

Parents and Families

- Participate in school activities and decision making.
- Promote various school-linked services to other families.
- Communicate with the collaborative team by expressing needs and requesting resources.
- Collaborate with service providers to make appropriate decisions for their children and themselves.

School Staff (including teachers, counselors, nurses, social workers, psychologists, and library media specialists)

- Learn about school-linked comprehensive services for children and families.
- Read and discuss case studies of school-linked service partnerships, such as the Integrated Services Partnership and the Multifocus Partnership.
- Develop an expanded view of teacher responsibilities that extends to each child's academic development, health, and social well-being.
- Identify areas of student need.
- Learn about social service agencies in the local community.

- **Develop broad goals for an integrated program reflecting the school's vision.**
- **Participate in professional development to learn how to identify and refer children who are in need of services.**

Principal

- **Become acquainted with social service agencies in the community. Set up one-on-one meetings or group meetings with service providers, and learn more about what services are available to students and their families.**
- **Serve as a liaison to the community by participating in community groups.**
- **Advocate an expanded role for the school in working with families and social service agencies.**
- **Take the lead in establishing collaboratives and partnerships with community agencies and service providers.**
- **Provide support, assistance, and professional development to teachers who are collaborating with service providers. Devise strategies to create more time for teachers, enabling them to collaborate with service providers.**
- **Provide professional development opportunities for teachers to expand teacher beliefs and ideology, increase teachers' knowledge of human services, extend teachers' knowledge of collaboration and referral skills, and build teachers' capacity for reaching out to parents.**

Collaborative Team (comprising school leaders, teacher representatives, a school-site coordinator, leaders or representatives from various service agencies, parents, and students as appropriate)

- Develop a vision and a mission statement.
- Establish common goals, a time frame, and accountability.
- Determine the organization, operation, and administration of the collaborative.
- Emphasize shared control and collective decision making among all stakeholders.
- Study community demographics and conduct a needs assessment to determine what services are needed by students and families.
- Determine which services will be provided and the delivery systems for such services.
- Participate in interprofessional development or cross-training between agencies in order to work together more effectively.
- Consider various options for allocating space at a school for on-site services or choosing a conveniently accessible location for off-site services.
- Consider ways to maximize human resources.
- Determine strategies for the school and collaborating agencies to redeploy financial resources to provide a continuum of services to children.
- Establish an identification system that helps determine students who could benefit from services and a referral system that enables school staff to refer students to appropriate services.

- **Provide a means of informing families about the available services.**
- **Develop confidentiality guidelines.**
- **Incorporate specific approaches that are appropriate for the type of community--urban or rural.**
- **Develop evaluation procedures to determine the number of teachers who have identified and referred students in need of services, the number of students and families who have received services, the ease with which the service delivery system operates, the functioning of the partnerships, and the benefits that students and families have received from the services provided.**

Superintendent and School Board

- **Promote school restructuring and support for collaboration with service agencies.**
- **Determine policies regarding the provision of services on or near school property.**
- **Work in conjunction with service agencies to establish the collaborative team if the school-linked service initiative is a district effort.**

Chapter 4 - Conclusion

It is clear that resource and service centres can provide an integrated, multidimensional, unified system of support for students, families, staff and the broader community. Community and school partnerships increase the opportunity for access to comprehensive, coordinated and meaningful services. Duplication of services can be reduced. The awareness of services available can also increase, and gaps can be promptly identified. The school community can become a “caring community” where students, families and staff can feel connected to the community. There can be a shift in focus from crisis intervention to prevention and early intervention. Centres could provide the support the community needs, and could respond in an effective and efficient way to school issues. They help to create an environment conducive to personal growth, adaptability, competence and resilience. School-based resource centres can support students and families in their quest for personal meaning, and in taking charge of their lives.

Chapter 5 - Resources

Helpful Provincial Organizations and Resources Available

Health Canada: Population and Public Health Branch

John Cabot Building

P.O. Box 1949

10 Barter's Hill

St. John's, NF

A1C 6M1

tel: (709) 772 2880

fax: (709) 772 2859

e-mail: frances_ennis@hc-sc.gc.ca

Contact: Frances Ennis or Helen Murphy Coordinators of CAPC sites and CPNP programs of Newfoundland and Labrador

Department of Education

The Strategic Literacy Plan

Confederation Building

P.O. Box 8700

St. John's, NF

A1B 4J6

(709) 729 6185

Contact: Luanne Leamon, Assistant Deputy Minister - Literacy

Cindy Christopher, Director of Policy and Planning

Della Coish, Director of Literacy Development Council

Department of Health and Community Services

Confederation Building

P.O. Box 8700

St. John's, NF

A1B 4J6

(709) 729 4984

Contact: Rosalyn Smyth Project Manager of National Child Benefit

Debra Randell Program Coordinator for National Child Benefit Family

Resource Centres

The Community Services Council

A directory of community support services throughout the province, \$8 a copy.

Phone: (709) 753-9863

Provincial Family Resource Centres

National Child Benefit Family Resource Centres FRC

Kilbride to Ferryland FRC
P.O. Box 1039
Goulds, NF
A1S 1H2
Tel: 747-8530 Fax: 747-8531
email: kffrc@avint.net
Coordinator: Rhonda Thomas
Chair: Bernadette Coady Condon

Vista FRC
P.O. Box 458
Bonavista, NF
A0C 1B0
Tel: 468-2450 Fax: 468-2587
email: vistafamily@nf.aibn.com
Coordinator: Jackie Penney
Chair: Vickie Stead

Tree House FRC
P.O. Box 1577
Deer Lake, NF
A0K 2E0
Tel: 635-5808 Fax: 635-5812
email: drlakefrc@nf.aibn.com
Coordinator: Tanya Wight-Gilley
Chair: Lorna Bursey

Sheshatshiu FRC
P.O. Box 160
Sheshatshiu, Labrador
A0P 1M0
Tel: 497-8522 Fax: 497-8757
email:
Coordinator: Mary Dyke
Contact: Marcel Ashinni

*St. John's Brighter Futures Coalition
Holy Cross FRC*
P.O. Box 28146
St. John's, NF
A1B 4J8
Tel: 739-8096 Fax: 739-8097
email: futures@seascape.com
Coordinator: Rodney O'Driscoll
Chair: John Flood

Hare Bay-Dover FRC
P.O. Box 250
Dover, NF
A0G 1X0
Tel: 537-2990 Fax: 537-2991
email: doverfrc@nf.aibn.com
Coordinator: Nicole Parsons
Chair: Kelly Knott

*Northern Peninsula-Labrador Straits
FRC*
P.O. Box 774
St. Anthony, NF
A0K 4S0
Tel and Fax: 454-3122
email: stanthonfrc@nf.aibn.com
Coordinator: Hope Colbourne
Chair: Rodger Nippard

Southern Labrador FRC
P.O. Box 142
Cartwright, Labrador
A0K 1V0
Tel: 938-7700 Fax: 938-7707
email: mildred.martin@nf.sympatico.ca
Coordinator: Mildred Martin
Chair: Tish Kinsley

**Community Action Program for
Children Family Resource Centres**

*Community Action Committee Bay St.
George*

P.O. Box 421
Stephenville, NF
A2M 2Z6
Tel: 643-5399 Fax: 643-5490
Coordinator: Bernice Hancock

North Shore Early Childhood Committee

P.O. Box 3764 RR#2
Corner Brook, NF
A2H 6B9
Tel: 783-2996 Fax: 783-2970
Coordinator: Valerie Penny

Exploits Valley Community Coalition

61-13th Avenue
Grand Falls-Windsor, NF
A2B 2E6
Tel: 489-8940 Fax: 489-8599
Coordinator: Kathryn Barry Paddock

Burin Peninsula Brighter Futures

P.O. Box 659
Marystown, NF
A0E 2M0
Tel: 279-2922 Fax: 279-2902
Coordinator: Winnie Banfield

*Brighter Futures Coalition of St. John's
and District*

P.O. Box 28146
St. John's, NF
Tel: 739-8096 Fax: 739-8097
Coordinator: Rodney O'Driscoll

*Organization for Community Action
Initiatives*

P.O. Box 712
Corner Brook, NF
A2H 6E6
Tel: 634-2316 Fax: 634-2319
Coordinator: Bonnie Randell

Fortune Bay North FRC

General Delivery
Belleoram, NF
A0H 1B0
Tel: 881-2181 Fax: 881-2180
Coordinator: Cyril Brown

*Gander Bay Community Coalition for
Children*

c/o Riverhead Academy
Wings Point, NF
A0G 4T0
Tel: 676-2396 Fax: 676-2382
Coordinator: Kim Cooper

Trinity-Conception FRC

9 Newfoundland Drive
Carbonear, NF
A1Y 1A4
Tel: 596-0712 Fax: 596-0713
Coordinator: Lisa Osmond

Helpful On-line Resources

Alliance for Children and Families
<http://www.alliance1.org>

Child and Family Canada
<http://www.cfc-efc.ca>

Health Canada: children and parenting, CAPC, community based programs, Centres for Excellence in Health
<http://www.hc-sc.gc.ca>

Canadian Health Network
<http://www.canadian-health-network.ca>

Canadian Council on Social Development
<http://www.ccsd.ca>

Vanier Institute of the Family
<http://www.vifamily.ca>

Community Partnerships.
<http://www.edweek.org/context/topics/communit.htm>

NCREL's Policy Briefs, Integrating Community services for Young Children.
<http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/pbriefs/93/93-3toc.htm>

School-Community Collaboration.
<http://www.ncrel.org/cscd/pubs/lead21/2-1toc.htm>

A Parent's Place
<http://www.parentspace.com/>

Department of Justice, Canada
<http://www.crime-prevention.org/>

Critical Issue: Establishing Collaboratives and Partnerships.
<http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/areas/issues/educatrs/leadshp/le300.htm>

Building Relationships between Schools and Social Services. ERIC Dig.
http://www.ed.gov/databases/ERIC_Digests/ed339111.html

Family Resource and Youth Services Centers, Kentucky Department of Education.
<http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/areas/issues/envrnmnt/css/cs11k27.htm>

Critical Issue: Restructuring Schools to Support School-Linked Services.
<http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/areas/issues/envrnmnt/css/cs100.htm>

Developing Parent Partnerships in Education: The Community Education Philosophy in Action.
http://www.nccenet.org/library/articles/developing_parent_partn.htm

National Association of Partners in Education Homepage.
<http://www.napehq.org/>

National Standards for Parent/Family Involvement Programs
<http://www.pta.org/programs/stnrdoc.htm>

Child Welfare League of Canada
<http://www.cwlc.ca/>

Institute for Child and Family Policy
<http://childpolicy.org/>

Helpful Books and Articles

- Bernard, N. et. al. (1999, April). Community Action Program For Children (CAPC). Learning to listen: What program participants can teach us about empowerment. Paper presented at the 5th International Qualitative Health Research Conference, Newcastle, Australia.
- Community Action Program for Children. (1999). CAPC Works for Children [Brochure]. Ottawa: Health Canada.
- Community Services Council. (1998). Directory Seventh Edition. St. John's, NF: Community Services Council.
- Guy, K. (Ed.). (1997). Our Promise to Children. Ottawa: Health Canada.
- Health Canada. (1998). Strong Families Healthy Children Canada's Community Action Program for Children (CAPC). Ottawa: Minister of Public Works and Government Services Canada.
- Hunt, K. and Robson, M. (1999). Empowering parents of pre-school children. International Journal for the Advancement of Counselling, 21, 43-54.
- Leon, A. (1999). Family support model: Integrating service delivery in the twenty-first century. Families in Society: The Journal of Contemporary Human Services, January-February, 14-24.
- McCain, M. N., and Mustard, F. (1999). Early Years Study Final Report. Toronto: Government of Ontario.
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (1998). Children and Families at Risk: New Issues in Integrating Services. Paris: OECD.
- Peeks, B. (1993). Revolutions in counseling and education: A systems perspective in the schools. Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 27, 245-251.
- Pickens, M. (1997). Evolving family structures: Implications for counseling. Counseling and Human Development, 29(5), 1-8.
- Puckett, M., Marshall, C. and Davis, R. (1999). Examining the emergence of brain development research the promises and the perils. Childhood Education, 75(1), 8-12.
- Schickedanz, J., Schickedanz, D., Forsyth, P. and Forsyth, G. (1998). Understanding Children and Adolescents. Toronto: Allyn and Bacon.
- Shimoni, R. & Baxter, J. (1996). Working with Families. Don Mills: Addison-Wesley.
- Wang, S. & Lawton, S. (1995). What's wrong with parent-school relationships? The ATA Magazine, January/February 1995, 19-22.

REFERENCES

Ainsworth, M., Blehar, M., Waters, E., and Wall, S. (1978). Patterns of Attachment. NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Arts Education Partnership. (1999). Learning Partnerships. [On-line]. Retrieved November 1999 from the World Wide Web: <http://www.aep-arts.org/LPs/LearningPartnerships.html>.

B.C. Council for Families. (n.d.). Family Connections Resources to Strengthen and Support Families. [On-line]. Retrieved March 2000 from the World Wide Web: <http://www.bccf.bc.ca/>.

Bandura, A. (1977). Social Learning Theory. NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Barlow, M. & Robertson, H.J. (1994). Class Warfare: The Assault on Canada's Schools. Toronto: Key Porter Books.

Bee, H. (1989). The Developing Child. New York: Harper & Row.

Bernard, N. (1999, April). Community Action Program For Children (CAPC), Learning to listen: What program participants can teach us about empowerment. Paper presented at the 5th International Qualitative Health Research Conference, Newcastle, Australia.

Bernard, N. (1999, April). Community Action Program For Children (CAPC), Made to measure: Qualitative data and evaluation empowerment research. Paper presented at the 5th International Qualitative Health Research Conference, Newcastle, Australia.

Bishops College. (n.d.). Bishops College Partnership Overview. [On-line]. Retrieved November 1999 from the World Wide Web: <http://www.bishops.ntc.nf.ca/partners/partnero.htm>.

Borgen, B. and Amundson, N. (1995). Models of adolescent transition. In G. Walz and B. Hiebert (Eds.). Exemplary Career Development Programs & Practices: The Best From Canada. (EDO-CG-95-59). Ottawa: ERIC/CASS at the Canadian Guidance and Counselling Foundation.

Bowlby, J. (1998). A Secure Base: Parent-child Attachment and Healthy Human Development. NY: Basic Books.

Bricker, D. and Woods Cripe, J. (1992). An Activity-Based Approach to Early Intervention. Toronto: Paul H Brookes.

Brighter Futures Coalition of St. John's and District. (1999). A Profile of the Brighter Futures Coalition of St. John's & District. Paper presented at the 1999 Annual General Meeting of Brighter Futures Coalition, St. John's, NF.

Brofenbrenner, U. (1986) Ecology of the family as a context for human development: Research perspectives. Developmental Psychology, 22, 723-742.

Burin Peninsula Brighter Futures Inc. (1998). St. Bernard's Family Resource Centre Parent Handbook. [Brochure]. NF: Burin Peninsula Brighter Futures.

Campbell, D. (1998, Sept.). Topsail Elementary comprehensive school guidance program. The Dogberry Tree: The Guidance Newsletter of Topsail Elementary School, Sept., 2-7.

Canadian Child Care Federation. (2000). Child and Family Canada. [On-line]. Retrieved March 2000 from the World Wide Web: <http://www.cfc-efc.ca>.

Carlson, N. (1991). School counseling implementation and survival skills. The School Counselor, 39, 30-34.

Carroll, B. (1993). Perceived roles and preparation experiences of elementary counselors: Suggestions for change. Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 27, 216-226.

Charity Village Ltd. (2000). Charity Village: Sources of funding. [On-line]. Retrieved November 2000 from the World Wide Web: <http://www.charityvillage.com/charityvillage/fund.asp>

Coleman, M. and Wallinga, C. (1999). Teacher training in family involvement: An interpersonal approach. Childhood Education, 76(2), 76-81.

Community Action Program for Children. (1999). CAPC Works for Children [Brochure]. Ottawa: Health Canada.

Community Services Council. (1998). Directory Seventh Edition. St. John's, NF: Community Services Council.

Corey, G. (1996). Theory and Practice of Counseling and Psychotherapy. Pacific Grove: Brooks/Cole.

Crespi, T. (1997). Bridging the home-school connection: Family therapy and the school psychologist. Family Therapy, 24 (3), 209-215.

Cugmas, Z. (1998). The correlation between children's personal behavioural characteristics and indicators of children's attachment to their mother or father, respectively. Early Child Development and Care, 143, 65-78.

Department of Education (1988). Guidelines for the Development and Delivery of Guidance Services. St. John's: Government of Newfoundland and Labrador.

Dibbon, D. (1993). Educational partnerships: pooled resources make everyone richer. PRISM, Fall 1993, 27-28.

Dupont, J.M. and Edwards, P. (n.d.). Growing Healthy Canadians: A Guide for Positive Child Development. [On-line]. Retrieved November 2000 from the World Wide Web: <http://www.growinghealthykids.com>

Dwivedi, K.N. (1997). Enhancing Parenting Skills A Guide Book for Professionals Working with Parents. Toronto: John Wiley & Sons.

Edwards, D. (1995). The school counselor's role in helping teachers and students belong. Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 29, 191-197.

Edwards, C., Gandini, L. & Forman, G. (Eds). (1998). The Hundred Languages of Children The Reggio Emilia Approach - Advanced Reflections. London: Ablex.

Erikson, E.H. (1980). Identity and the Life Cycle. New York: Norton.

Flavell, J.H. (1985). Cognitive Development. NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Fleming, R., and Lubin, S. (1998). Critical Issue: Restructuring Schools to Support School-Linked Services. [On-line]. Retrieved November 1999 from the World Wide Web:
<http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/areas/issues/envmmnt/css/cs100.htm>.

Frampton, A. (1996, August). The rhymes that bind. Equinox Magazine, August 1996, 3-5.

Freud, S. (1965). A General Introduction to Psychoanalysis. New York: Washington Square Press.

Fu, D., Hartle, L., Leonard Lamme, L., Copenhaver, J., Adams, D., Harmon, C., and Reneke, S. (1999). A comfortable start for everyone: The first week of school in three multi-age (K-2) classrooms. Early Childhood Education Journal, 27 (2), 73-79.

Fullen, M. and Quinn, J. (1996). School councils: non event or capacity building for reform? Orbit, 27(4), 2-5.

Gardner, H. (1983). Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligence. New York: Basic Books.

Gesell, A. (1925). The Mental Growth of the Preschool Child. New York: Macmillan.

Gitterman, A., Levi, M., and Wayne, S. (1995). Outcomes of school career development. In G. Walz & B. Hiebert (Eds.). Exemplary Career Development Programs & Practices: The Best From Canada. (EDO-CG-95-58). Ottawa: ERIC/CASS at the Canadian Guidance and Counselling Foundation.

Goldberg, S., Muir, R. and Kerr, J. (1995). Attachment Theory: Social, Developmental, and Clinical Perspectives. London: The Analytic Press.

Gordon, M. (1998). Parenting and Family Literacy Centres of the Toronto District School Board. Paper presented at Daybreak Conference on the Family, St. John's, NF.

Graham, P. (Ed.). (1998). Cognitive-Behaviour Therapy for Children and Families. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Guo, L. (2000). Campaign 2000. [On-line]. Retrieved November 2000 from the World Wide Web: <http://www.campaign2000.ca/>

Guy, K. (Ed.). (1997). Our Promise to Children. Ottawa: Health Canada.

Hall, A., and Lin, M. (1994). An integrative consultation framework: A practical tool for elementary school counselors. Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 29, 16-27.

Hardesty, P. and Dillard, J. (1994). The role of the elementary school counselors compared with their middle and secondary school counterparts. Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 29, 83-91.

Health Canada.(1998). Strong Families Healthy Children Canada's Community Action Program for Children (CAPC). Ottawa: Minister of Public Works and Government Services Canada.

Health Canada (2000). Childhood and Youth Web Site. [On-line]. Retrieved November 2000 from the World Wide Web: <http://www.hc-sc.gc.ca/hppb/childhood-youth/>

Herr, E.L. and Cramer, S.H. (1996). Career Guidance and Counseling Through the Lifespan: Systematic Approaches. New York: Harper Collins College Publishers.

Hill, M. (Ed.) (1999). Effective Ways of Working with Children and Their Families. London: Jessica Kingsley Publishers.

Humphries, S. (1998). A Chance for Childhood: A Handbook about Child Abuse for Teachers of Newfoundland and Labrador. Unpublished master's thesis, Memorial University of Newfoundland, St. John's, Newfoundland, Canada.

Hunt, K. and Robson, M. (1999). Empowering parents of pre-school children. International Journal for the Advancement of Counselling, 21, 43-54.

Kennedy, W. (1998). Counselling in the New Millenium: A Postmodern Perspective. Calgary: Detselig Enterprises.

Klaus, M., Kennell, J. and Klaus, P. (1995). Bonding Building the Foundations of Secure Attachment and Independence. Don Mills: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co.

Kunesh, L. and Farley, J. (1995). NCREL's Policy Briefs, Integrating Community Services for Young Children and Their Families. [On-line]. Retrieved November 1999 from the World Wide Web: <http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/pbriefs/93/93-3toc.htm>.

Lee, R. (1993). Effects of classroom guidance on student achievement. Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 27, 163-171.

Leon, A. (1999). Family support model: Integrating service delivery in the twenty-first century. Families in Society: The Journal of Contemporary Human Services, January-February, 14-24.

Lerner, R.M. (1986). Concepts and Theories of Human Development (second edition). New York: Random House.

Lewington, J. and Orpwood, G. (1993). Overdue Assignment: Taking Responsibility for Canada's Schools. Toronto: J. Wiley.

Liontos, L. (1991). Building Relationships between Schools and Social Services. [On-line]. Retrieved November 1999 from the World Wide Web: http://www.ed.gov/databases/ERIC_Digests/ed339111.html.

Lye Chng, C., and Wong, F. (1998). Gay, lesbian and bisexual (GLB) children: Implications for early childhood development professionals. Early Child Development and Care, 147, 71-82.

McCain, M. N., and Mustard, F. (1999). Early Years Study Final Report. Toronto: Government of Ontario.

Melaville, A. (1996). Critical issue: Linking the at-risk students and schools to integrated services. [On-line]. Retrieved November 1999 from the World Wide Web: <http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/areas/issues/students/atrisk/at500.htm>.

Millar, G. (1995). Helping schools with career infusion. In G. Walz and B. Hiebert (Eds.). Exemplary Career Development Programs & Practices: The Best From Canada. (EDO-CG-95-57). Ottawa: ERIC/CASS at the Canadian Guidance and Counselling Foundation.

National Association of Partners in Education. (n.d.). Keeping Children at the Center. [On-line]. Retrieved November 1999 from the World Wide Web: <http://www.napehq.org/>.

National Association of Partners in Education. (n.d.). Other helpful online links. [On-line]. Retrieved November 1999 from the World Wide Web: <http://www.napehq.org/8.html>.

National Association of Partners in Education. (n.d.). 12-Step Partnership Process. [On-line]. Retrieved November 1999 from the World Wide Web: <http://www.napehq.org/4.html>.

National Center for Community Education. (n.d.). Developing Parent Partnerships in Education: The Community Education Philosophy in Action. [On-line]. Retrieved November 1999 from the World Wide Web: http://www.nccenet.org/library/articles/developing_parent_partn.htm.

National Council on Education. (April 1993). Matching Education to the Needs of Society. A Vision Statement Working Paper. Ottawa: The Conference Board of Canada.

Nicholson, B., Brenner, V., and Fox, R. (1999). A community-based parenting program with low-income mothers of young children. Families in Society: The Journal of Contemporary Human Services, May-June, 247-252.

North Central Regional Educational Laboratory. (n.d.). Family Resource and Youth Services Centers, Kentucky Department of Education. [On-line]. Retrieved November 1999 from the World Wide Web: <http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/areas/issues/envrmmnt/css/cs11k27.htm>.

North Central Regional Educational Laboratory. (1994). Kentucky's Family and Youth Service Centers Break New Ground. [On-line]. Retrieved November 1999 from the World Wide Web: http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/cityschl/cityl_1e.htm.

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development. (1998). Children and Families at Risk New Issues in Integrating Services. Paris: OECD Publications.

Partnerships Administration. (n.d.). Partnerships A Foundation Supporting Lake Washington Schools. [On-line]. Retrieved November 1999 from the World Wide Web: <http://www.partnerships.net/>.

Paulson, B., & Edwards, M. (1997). Parent expectations of an elementary school counsellor: A concept-mapping approach. Canadian Journal of Counselling, 31 (1), 67-81.

Pavlov, I. (1957). Experimental psychology and other essays. New York: Philosophical Library.

Peeks, B. (1993). Revolutions in counseling and education: A systems perspective in the schools. Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 27, 245-251.

Peterson, J., & Hawley, D. (1998). Effects of stressors on parenting attitudes and family functioning in a primary prevention program. Family Relations, 47, 221-227.

Peterson, K. (1995). Critical Issue: Establishing Collaboratives and Partnerships. [On-line]. Retrieved November 1999 from the World Wide Web: <http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/areas/issues/educatrs/leadshp/le300.htm>.

Piaget, J. (1977). The Development of Thought. Equilibration of Cognitive Structures. New York: Viking Press.

Pickens, M. (1997). Evolving family structures: Implications for counseling. Counseling and Human Development, 29(5), 1-8.

Poulson, S. (1999). Reggio Emilia preprimary schools: A brain-based learning and teaching approach. Early Childhood Education, 32(2), 39-44.

Power, B. (1999). Resource Manual for Parents. St. John's, NF: Brighter Futures Coalition of St. John's and District.

Principals of the Inner City Schools Cluster. (2000). Programming Needs of Inner City Schools: A Presentation to the Programs Committee of the Avalon East School Board. Paper presented at a meeting of the Avalon East School Board and the Principals of the Inner City Schools Cluster, St. John's, NF.

Puckett, M. and Black, J. (1997). Authentic Assessment of the Young Child Celebrating Development and Learning. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc.

Puckett, M., Marshall, C. and Davis, R. (1999). Examining the emergence of brain development research the promises and the perils. Childhood Education, 75(1), 8-12.

Robb, M. (1995). ENGAGE: A career development-based, learning-to-learn program for youth, parents, & teachers. In G. Walz and B. Hiebert (Eds.). Exemplary Career Development Programs & Practices: The Best From Canada. (EDO-CG-95-60). Ottawa: ERIC/CASS at the Canadian Guidance and Counselling Foundation.

Rebora, A. (Ed.). (2000, Sept.). Community Partnerships. Education Week. [On-line]. Retrieved October 2000 from the World Wide Web: <http://www.edweek.org/context/topics/issuespage.cfm?id=46>.

Resources for Education, Adaptation, Change and Health Inc. (1999). FRYSC Program Description. [On-line]. Retrieved November 1999 from the World Wide Web: <http://www.reachoflouisville.com/FRYSC/PRODESC.HTM>.

Roberge, R. (1995). Project P.O.D.S. - Providing opportunities for developing success. In G. Walz and B. Hiebert (Eds.). Exemplary Career Development Programs & Practices: The Best From Canada. (EDO-CG-95-56). Ottawa: ERIC/CASS at the Canadian Guidance and Counselling Foundation.

Roberts, T. (1994). A Systems Perspective of Parenting. California: Brooks/Cole.

Schickedanz, J., Schickedanz, D., Forsyth, P. and Forsyth, G. (1998). Understanding Children and Adolescents. Third edition. Toronto: Allyn and Bacon.

Schlesinger (1998). The Vanier Institute of the Family. Contemporary Family Trends, Strengths in Families: Accentuating the Positive. [On-line]. Retrieved March 2000 from the World Wide Web: <http://vifamily.ca/cft/strength/strength.htm> .

Schmidt, J. (1997). Invitational counselling: An expanded framework for comprehensive school counselling programs. Canadian Journal of Counselling, 31(1), 6-17.

Shimoni, R. and Baxter, J. (1996). Working with Families. Don Mills: Addison-Wesley.

Shore, R. (1997). Rethinking the brain: New insights into early development. NY: Families and Work Institute.

Skinner, B.F. (1957). Verbal Behavior. NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Sparrow Lake Alliance (2000). Sparrow Lake Alliance. [On-line]. Retrieved November 2000 from the World Wide Web: <http://www.sparrowlake.org/>

Sykes, B., Gendreau, L., Wolfe, R. and Workman, L. (1997). Rhymes That Bind: Parent Child Mother Goose Summary of Learning with Implications. Edmonton: Prospects Literacy Association.

Sylwester, R. (1995). A celebration of neurons: An educator's guide to the human brain. VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Terman, L.M. (1916). The measurement of intelligence. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

The Funders Alliance for Children, Youth and Families (n.d.). Funders Alliance for Children, Youth and Families. [On-line]. Retrieved November 2000 from the World Wide Web: <http://www.fundersalliance.org>.

The Northeast and Islands Regional Educational Laboratory at Brown University. (1995). Comprehensive School Reform Demonstration. [On-line]. Retrieved November 1999 from the World Wide Web: http://www.brown.edu/Research/The_Education_Alliance.

The Texas Education Network. (1999). Resource Center School/Community Partnerships. [On-line]. Retrieved November 1999 from the World Wide Web: <http://www.tenet.edu/voluteer/partners.html>.

The Vanier Institute of the Family. (n.d.). Canadian Family FAQs. [On-line]. Retrieved March 2000 from the World Wide Web: <http://vifamily.ca/faqs/faq.htm>.

Thurston Community Network. (n.d.). The Mission of the Thurston Community Network is to create a vision of hope and opportunity that enables people to develop solutions for community problems through strong community partnerships. [On-line]. Retrieved November 1999 from the World Wide Web: http://www.members.tripod.com/~claytoly/Thurston_Community_Network.

Turnbaugh Lockwood, A., Stinnette, L. and D'Amico, J. (n.d.). Leaders for Tomorrow's Schools, School-Community Collaboration. [On-line]. Retrieved November 1999 from the World Wide Web: <http://www.ncrel.org/cscd/pubs/lead21/2-1toc.htm>.

U.S. Department of Education and Regional Educational Laboratory Network. (n.d.). Putting the Pieces Together Comprehensive School-Linked Strategies for Children and Families. [On-line]. Retrieved November 1999 from the World Wide Web: <http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/areas/issues/envrnmnt/css/ppt/intro.htm>.

Vygotsky, L.S. (1962). Thought and Language. New York: Wiley.

Wang, S. and Lawton, S. (1995). What's wrong with parent-school relationships? The ATA Magazine, January/February 1995, 19-22.

Wittmer, J. (1993). Managing Your School Counseling Program: K-12 Developmental Strategies. Minneapolis: Educational Media Corporation.

Whipple, E. (1999). Reaching families with preschoolers at risk of physical child abuse: What works? Families in Society: The Journal of Contemporary Human Services, March-April, 148-159.

Wood Catano, J. (1999). Spread the Word: CAPC Works! Halifax: Health Promotion and Programs Branch.

Consultants

Roy Morrell	<i>Parent Representative of School-Based Family Resource Centre</i>
Tina Fisher	<i>Parent Representative of School-Based Family Resource Centre</i>
Debra Capps	<i>Program Coordinator of Brighter Futures Coalition in St. John's</i>
Rod O'Driscoll	<i>Executive Director of Brighter Futures Coalition in St. John's</i>
Debra Randell	<i>Provincial Program Coordinator for National Child Benefit Family Resource Centres</i>
Deanna Drover	<i>Guidance Counsellor for Holy Cross Elementary School which is currently housing a family resource centre</i>
Mandy Tucker-Anstey	<i>Consultant with Student Support Services at the Department of Education, Government of Newfoundland and Labrador</i>
Frances Ennis	<i>Coordinator of CAPC sites of Newfoundland and Labrador, Health Canada</i>

