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THE IMPACT OF THE COMMUNITY PARTNERSHIP SCHOOLS™
MODEL COMMUNITY SCHOOL ON GRADUATION AND ATTENDANCE RATES
IN ONE FLORIDA HIGH SCHOOL

by

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this quantitative study was to identify and describe the nature and extent of the relationships, if any, that existed between a Community Partnership Schools™ (CPS) model community school and the outcomes of graduation and attendance rates at one public high school in Florida. An evaluation study utilizing an interrupted time series (ITS) design addressed this problem by identifying and describing the relationship between the CPS model and the key outcome measures using visual analysis and descriptive statistics. Graduation and attendance rates for seven years before the CPS model was introduced (2003-2010) and seven years after the CPS model was introduced (2010-2017) at the CPS school were compared to the graduation and attendance rates for the same time frames of five other matched comparison high schools that had not implemented a CPS model community school.

Findings of this study, though mixed, suggest the Community Partnership Schools™ model may have provided a positive environment for improvement in key measures at the targeted CPS high school. Though no definitive conclusions were reached, this study alongside other evaluations of the Community Partnership Schools™ model may be helpful in informing decision makers regarding the potential positive influence of the CPS model on such measures as graduation and attendance rates.

I dedicate this dissertation to my father, Harry Lamar Ellis,

who passed away unexpectedly during my doctoral program. His pride in my efforts propelled

me, and his drive continues to inspire each step toward the next-best version of myself.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

Thousands of community schools exist worldwide with strong community school advancement in Europe, Africa, and North America (Heers, Van Klaveren, Groot, & Maassen van den Brink, 2016; International Centre of Excellence for Community Schools [ICECS], 2012a; Parker, 2010). In the United States, the Coalition for Community Schools (2017) in Washington D.C. reports that 7,500 community schools exist in 44 states and the District of Columbia. Strong community school development can be found in areas such as New York, Nevada, California, Oregon, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Florida (Dryfoos, 2000; Ellis, 2017; Heers et al., 2016; Oakes, Maier, & Daniel, 2017). The number of community schools in the United States has increased significantly over the last decade as shown by the 33 locations reported in 2007 dedicated to the community school strategy compared to the over 100 communities committed in 2017 (Coalition for Community Schools, 2017). According to the Children's Aid Society (2011), what community schools share is a mission "to change the role of education in the lives of students, families, and communities, so that underserved youth may be empowered to overcome obstacles and become happy, healthy and productive adults" (p. 6).

Varying community school definitions exist in the literature, but central to each definition is that community schools partner to leverage resources and harness their communities to address the unmet needs of students, families, and the community (Coalition for Community Schools, 2017; [ICECS], 2012a; Figlio, 2016; Oakes et al., 2017; Quinn, 2009). The Coalition for Community Schools has defined community schools as "both a place and a set of partnerships between the school and other community resources, with an integrated focus on academics,

health and social services, youth and community development and community engagement" (Jacobson, Jacobson, & Blank, 2013, p. 5).

Community schools take a comprehensive and integrated approach to providing services in schools to improve outcomes for children and their families (Children's Aid Society, 2011; Oakes et al., 2017). "Community schools partner with youth organizations, health clinics, social service agencies, food banks, higher education institutions, businesses, and others to meet students' and families' academic and nonacademic needs" (Blank & Villarreal, 2016, p. 3).

Though all community schools share the same focus of improving school outcomes and well-being, they collectively vary in their approach to organizing resources around the needs of the school. Numerous models exist across the United States, including Communities in Schools (CIS), Harlem Children's Zone, Children's Aid Society, and Beacon Schools.

Community Partnership Schools™ (CPS) is a model originally developed in Central Florida in which four core community partners commit to a long-term partnership to establish, develop, and sustain a Community Partnership School. The four core partners of a CPS include a school district, a non-profit organization, a university or college, and a health care provider. Unique to this community school model are the four partners, the four core positions, and the organizational structure (Appendix A). In 2010, Evans High School became the site for planning and implementation of the first CPS model in Florida, followed four years later by replication efforts starting in schools across the state.

Studies have been conducted to define the impact of community schools, but the effects of community school results vary in the literature (Dryfoos, 2000; Gallagher, Goodyear, Brewer, & Rueda, 2012; Heers et al., 2016; Martinez, Hayes, & Silloway, 2013; Oakes et al., 2017). As

noted by Figlio, 2016, one reason for result differences is because community school variances make evaluation difficult: "The fact that there is no uniform definition of a community school has limited the degree to which there have been large-scale rigorous evaluation of the community school model" (p. 1). Longevity results vary; outcome measures exist from community school programs newly in development to those that have been in existence for 10, 15, or 20 years (Dryfoos, 2000; Heers et al., 2016). Some community schools such as the Children's Aid Society in New York offer more robust findings concerning longer-term initiatives, whereas other findings are more preliminary (e.g., Community Partnership Schools in Florida). Indicators are also numerous and varied, leaving little common impact data to show definitive effectiveness of the approach (Dryfoos, 2000; Heers et al., 2016). The scope of the community school effect can make evaluation complex because

> community schools are designed to affect not only educational outcomes but other
> outcomes as well. [These] include improved social behavior and healthy youth
> development; better family functioning and parental involvement; enhanced school and
> community climate; and access to support services (Dryfoos, 2000, p. 1).

Attentive to this context and its related literature, this study was conducted to explore the relationship between the introduction of the Community Partnership Schools™ model community school in one high school in Florida and the school's graduation rates and attendance rates over a seven-year period of time. The school in this study was a high-needs Title I high school with a population of approximately 2,500 students (Florida Department of Education [FDOE], 2018). Over 20% of the students were enrolled in an English speakers of other languages (ESOL) program as non-English speaking students, most of whom were Creole-

speaking Haitians. According to the FDOE Historical Accountability Reports, between 1999 and 2010, the school received school performance grades of "F" four times, and "D" seven times. During the 2010-2011 school year, the school introduced the Community Partnership Schools™ model to improve academic, attendance, graduation, and behavior measures.

Because the Community Partnership Schools™ model is young in its development, limited studies have been completed to evaluate its impact on student outcomes. One Community Partnership School study was completed by Figlio in 2016. Figlio studied Evans High School, a Community Partnership School in Orlando, FL, by comparing changes over time (2008-09/2012-13) in Evans High School versus 12 comparison schools. Though the results provided some evidence suggesting promising results of CPS implementation, more rigorous evaluation was needed at the time of the present study to guide educational practitioners in choosing an evidence-based community school model and Florida legislators in the choices they make as they fund various community school initiatives across the state.

Statement of the Problem

There has been limited research conducted regarding the effectiveness of community schools in terms of achieving desired outcomes, and research regarding the relationship between the introduction of the Community Partnership Schools™ (CPS) model and student outcome measures is even more limited. Empirical evidence is critical in garnering legislative and community backing for community schools in this post-No-Child-Left-Behind evidence-based environment. The lack of research regarding the CPS model has limited the ability of schools to secure long-term support to sustain the model across the state of Florida.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify and describe the nature and extent of the relationship, if any, that existed between the CPS model community school and the outcomes of graduation rate and attendance rate at one public high school in Florida. An evaluation study utilizing an interrupted time series (ITS) design addressed this problem by identifying and describing the relationship between the CPS model and the key outcome measures. A Florida public high school introduced the CPS model during the 2010-2011 school year. Graduation and attendance rates for seven years before the CPS model was introduced (2003-2010) and seven years after the CPS model was introduced (2010-2017) were compared to the graduation rates and attendance rates for the same time frames of five other matched comparison schools that had not introduced a CPS model.

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study is that it addressed a gap in the research on community schools and, more specifically, the Community Partnership Schools™ model. This study was conducted to determine the relationship between introducing a Community Partnership School and school performance trends. According to Oakes et al. (2017), "The evidence base on well-implemented community schools and their component features provides a strong warrant for their potential contribution to school improvement" (p. 1). This study had the potential to not only add to the evidence-base of community schools and Community Partnership Schools, but also to provide potential support to policymakers making programmatic and CPS funding decisions at the state level.

Though the CPS model was not yet understood well enough to support a large-scale initiative, the possibility that the introduction of the CPS model had a positive relationship to student outcomes was significant. More broadly, the CPS model served students, families, and communities in ways not historically well served, and thus had the potential to impact society in positive ways. Typically, the CPS model had been implemented in regions of generational poverty where access to needed programs and services had been limited. In the CPS model, programs and services were located in a school that became the hub of the community. Healthcare was positioned at the school for easy utilization by parents who could continue working while their child visited a doctor, nurse, or dentist. Similarly, families could access the plethora of late afternoon and evening services and programs focused on community growth including classes such as ESOL and GED. With the long-term commitment of partners to the implementation of the CPS model in schools that served as hubs of the community, long-term societal impact could have been possible.

<u>Operational Definition of Terms</u>

The following terms and working definitions are provided to clarify the work of the study.

<u>Community Schools</u>. Community schools are defined as an overarching generic term given to a type of school that has become a place for partnerships between the school and other community resources that offer an integrated focus on academics, health and social services, youth and community development and/or community engagement (Coalition for Community Schools, 2017).

Community Partnership Schools (CPS). Community Partnership Schools (CPS) is a type of community school model. The CPS model includes at least four core partners – a school district, university or college, nonprofit, and health care provider – that commit to a long-term partnership to secure resources to address student, family and community needs. Dedicated staff include a director, after-school coordinator, health programs' coordinator, and parent outreach coordinator, all of which leverage and align resources in the school to support student achievement and overall success (UCF Center for Community Schools, 2018).

Interrupted Time Series (ITS). Interrupted Time Series (ITS) is an experimental design that measures changes in outcomes over time before and after an intervention is introduced, for the purpose of investigating whether the intervention is associated with changes in the outcomes (Biglan, Ary, & Wagenaar, 2000). The intervention is the Community Partnership Schools™ model and the outcomes are graduation and attendance rates.

Graduation Rate. Graduation rate was defined by Florida calculation methods. According to the Florida Department of Education (2018), the Federal Uniform Graduation Rate (FUGR) replaced the National Governors Association (NGA) graduation rate in 2011-2012, and was retroactively calculated to produce consistent graduation rates from 1989-1999 forward. The FUGR is based upon a cohort method, a group of students on the same schedule to graduate from high school. Graduation rate measures the percentage of students who graduate within four years of their first enrollment in ninth grade. Students who die or who transfer out of the school, district, or state are not included in the calculation(s). Students who transfer in to a school, district, or state are included in the calculation(s). FUGR only counts standard diploma

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recipients, not transfers to adult education programs, and students enrolled in Department of Juvenile Justice programs are credited to their home schools.

Attendance Rate. Attendance rate was defined by the Florida Department of Education (FDOE). According to the FDOE (2018), the attendance rate is the average percentage of students actually present each day school was in session during the school year.

Comparison Schools. Comparison schools were defined as the five closest Florida high schools in four contextual variables: race, socio-economic status, size, and exceptional student education (ESE). The five comparison schools were determined through criterion based purposive sampling.

Title I Schools. A Title I school is a school that has a large percentage of children from low-income families. Through the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), federal funds are provided to local educational agencies (LEAs) to help support children in Title I schools to ensure they meet academic state standards (U.S. Department of Education [USDOE], 2018b).

Conceptual Framework

The study was framed by the literature on community schools, which draws on theories regarding the distribution of cultural, economic, and social capital in society (Apple, 1982, 1985; Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977; Bowles & Gintis, 1976; Fraser, 1997; Spring, 1994, 2002) to set forth an explicit theory of change and varied models for interrupting economic reproduction and social stratification by providing students and families with access to resources and supports that address academic and non-academic barriers to student achievement and development. Community schools vary broadly in their approaches to given differences in cultural,

community, and institutional context (Heers et al., 2016). Students in community schools are provided supports for their academic, social, and health-related needs. The four primary common pillars of comprehensive community schools work identified by Oakes et al. (2017) are "integrated study supports, expanded learning time and opportunities, active parent and community engagement, and collaborative leadership and practices" (p. 6).

The conceptual framework for the study was based on the intent and underlying logic model behind community schools as reflected in the empirical and theoretical literature. Low socioeconomic communities in the United States often lack the high-quality education, social, and health resources necessary for children and adolescents to thrive (Children's Aid Society, 2011). Children from lower socioeconomic backgrounds are often exposed to difficulties that create disadvantages in their education (Heers et al., 2016). Schools are then tasked with having to work through barriers that originate outside the context of the school (e.g., trauma from community violence and abuse, student learning limitations, and deprivation). Community schools provide a comprehensive approach to addressing barriers and concerns, utilizing some variation on the following theory of change: If schools provide comprehensive services to address non-academic barriers and concerns faced by students in low resourced communities, the potential for teaching and learning will be more fully realized. Teaching and learning will provide opportunities for students to succeed academically, graduate from high school, have opportunities for positive engagement after high school, and society will be comprised of adults who meet life situations with resilience (Children's Aid Society, 2011).

"Where most schools have had to streamline and increase the target on the one dimension of academic accomplishment, community schools are able to create a system of care to support

the academic environment by providing the needed resources to remove barriers to learning" (Ellis, 2017, p. 2). Community schools are in positions in low-income communities to help raise the level of student access to needed services by leveraging and aligning resources to improve student performance (Biag & Castrechini, 2016). The underlying logic model of community schools is that by providing the supports in the school that students lack in their homes and community, barriers to learning are removed and students will improve academically. Community schools aim to improve student measures including academic performance, dropout rates, and risky behavior (Blank, Melaville & Shah, 2013; Heers et al., 2016; Somers & Haider, 2017). By removing barriers so students can succeed academically, students are more likely to graduate from high school. By graduating from high school, students are provided a clearer path for greater success in life.

In the present study, the same community school logic model was applied to the Community Partnership Schools™ model. Building on and extending the assumption that providing supports and services through a comprehensive community school approach helps remove barriers and improve academic performance, it was reasonable to expect that the underlying logic model of community schools would apply equally, if not more strongly, to the Community Partnership Schools™ model. The CPS model is a comprehensive community school model. Community Partnership Schools extend typical community schools in meaningful ways and have the potential for broader and deeper impact. In this study, the researcher attempted to disclose and characterize the influence of the Community Partnership Schools™ model on the outcome measures of graduation and attendance rates. By investigating the relationship between the introduction of the CPS models and trends for graduation and

attendance rates, the logic underlying the concept of community schools was investigated more specifically.

Research Questions

The research questions for this study were chosen to fill a gap in the literature on community schools by initiating the first study using an interrupted time series design on the Community Partnership Schools™ model. The following two research questions guided the study:

1. In what ways and to what extent, if any, is the graduation rate at one CPS high school related to the implementation of a Community Partnership School (CPS) model?

    a. What is the overall trend for the graduation rate from 2003-04 to 2016-17?

    b. What difference, if any, exists between the graduation rate before and after implementation of the CPS model?

    c. What difference, if any, exists between the trend in the graduation rate before and after implementation of the CPS model?

2. In what ways and to what extent, if any, is the attendance rate at one CPS high school related to the implementation of a Community Partnership School (CPS) model?

    a. What is the overall trend for the attendance rate from 2003-04 to 2016-17?

    b. What difference, if any, exists between the attendance rate before and after implementation of the CPS model?

    c. What difference, if any, exists between the trend in the attendance rate before and after implementation of the CPS model?

<center>Methodology</center>

This quantitative evaluation study utilized an interrupted time series (ITS) design to investigate the potential impact of the Community Partnership Schools™ model on the graduation and attendance rate of one public high school in Florida. Graduation and attendance rates from seven years before introduction of the CPS model (2003-2010) and seven years after the introduction of the CPS model (2010-2017) were analyzed to determine whether the CPS school outcomes were affected by the introduction of the CPS model. Analysis of data determined the overall trends, before/after aggregate, and before/after trend to detect differences, if any. To mitigate the influence of extraneous variables (e.g., state-level policy changes affecting all high schools), performance measures were included for five similar comparison schools that had not introduced a Community Partnership Schools™ model. The data and trends for the CPS school were compared to the data and trends for the five comparison schools to investigate whether results for the CPS school differed from results for the non-CPS schools (a design element that strengthened and added credibility to inferences based on results for the CPS school).

<center>Research Design</center>

From among the many tools considered, interrupted time series (ITS) was identified as the best tool to use, given the type of data available and what was to be measured. An interrupted time series design tests the impact of an intervention on particular outcome measures through time. In this quantitative study, the ITS design matched the need to measure the effect of the intervention Community Partnership Schools™ model on graduation rate and attendance over a 14-year period of time in a public high school in Florida. Time series designs have had great

impact in the development of interventions in education and health promotions and are "particularly well suited to initial evaluations of community interventions and the refinement of those interventions" (Biglan et al., 2000, p. 1).

Population

The primary target population for the present study was one public high school in Florida that began implementing the Community Partnership Schools™ model during the 2010-2011 school year. The school was a high-needs Title I high school, serving an estimated 2,500 students in Grades 9-12 (FDOE, 2018). FDOE data showed that 100% of students were on free or reduced lunch plans. Minority enrollment at the school was 98%, with the majority of 85% of students self-reporting as Black. Over 12% of the students were enrolled in an English for other languages (ESOL) program as non-English speaking students, and most of these were Creole-speaking Haitians. Between 1999 and 2010, the school received school performance grades of F four times, and grades of D seven times. In 2006-2007, the school had a graduation rate of less than 50% and was considered a drop out factory (Sparks, 2018). In the 2010-2011 school year, only 18% of the school's students scored at a level of proficiency or higher in reading. The school began implementing the Community Partnership Schools™ model in 2010-2011 to improve academic, attendance, graduation, and behavior measures.

To mitigate the influence of extraneous variables on the outcomes of interest (i.e., graduation rate and attendance rate), five comparison high schools were selected using criterion based purposive sampling. The five Florida high schools were identified as closest to the CPS school in terms of the four contextual variables of race, socio-economic status, size, and exceptional student education (ESE) and were used as comparison schools. The four contextual

variables were determined because of their salience to understanding student academic performance measures as indicated by their policy use. Disaggregating and reporting data for the sub-groups of race, socio-economic status, size, and exceptional student education (ESE) have been used to measure educational equity and used in research as independent variables when investigating and measuring "achievement gaps" (Murphy, 2010). To accomplish the selection of the five closest comparison high schools, all Florida high schools were ranked on three of the four contextual variable (race, socio-economic status, size). Each high school list, ranked by contextual variables, was divided into 10 equally-sized groups (deciles) of high schools. Five Florida high schools that appeared closest or in the same decile as the CPS school on all four variables were selected. The ESE rates for the six schools (i.e., the CPS school and five comparison) were then compared to ensure that the comparison schools did not differ appreciably with regard to representation of ESE students in the school population. These five closest high schools were used as the comparison (non-CPS) schools for the study.

<div align="center">Instrumentation and Data Collection</div>

For this study, the researcher obtained existing, publicly available school-level graduation and attendance data available on the FDOE Accountability Reports website. Graduation rates and attendance rates of one public high school in Florida and five non-CPS comparison schools were obtained for a 14-year period of time, seven years before introduction of the Community Partnership Schools™ model (2003-2010) and seven years after introduction (2010-2017).

Variables

The dependent variables for the study were graduation and attendance rates. The independent variables for the study were the academic years from 2003-2017, with an emphasis on the year of Community Partnership Schools™ model introduction of 2010-2011.

Data Analysis

An interrupted time series (ITS) design was identified as the best tool with which to analyze the type of data being used to respond to Research Questions 1 and 2. Research Question 1 was answered by using visual analysis (Tufts, 2001) and descriptive statistics (Steinberg, 2011).

For Research Question 1a, the yearly graduation rates for the CPS school and the five comparison schools were plotted for each of 14 school years (2003-2017) and presented as a line graph. Informed by analytical strategies from single-case design (Kratochwill et al., 2010), the researcher identified and described overall trends across the 14-year time span for each of the six schools. Of primary interest was characterizing the trend for the CPS school and determining whether the trend for it differed from those of the comparison schools. Solid lines represented each of the five comparison schools, plotting graduation rate over a 14-year period of time. A line representing the same data points for the CPS school were formatted differently, as a dashed-line. Analysis described the trend for the CPS school compared with the other five comparison schools, and differences were identified and described.

A cross-tabulation table was also used to present variations in the graduation rates by academic year for each of the six schools. Cross-tabulation is shown in a matrix that allows for descriptively presenting the relationship between two variables (Green & Salkind, 2013).

Analysis of descriptives presented in the table paralleled and augmented the visual analysis. Descriptives were reviewed to identify trends and to quantify patterns that were identified via visual analysis.

For Research Question 1b, the researcher calculated the group means for the graduation rates for the CPS school and the five comparison high schools before and after CPS introduction. Group means were displayed in a tabular format, and the results were analyzed to determine (a) the extent to which graduation rates after CPS model implementation differed from graduation rates before and (b) whether the results for the comparisons schools paralleled or differed from the results for the CPS school (e.g., if the CPS school showed an increase from before to after while the comparison schools remained flat).

For Research Question 1c, the yearly graduation rate for the CPS school and the five comparison schools were plotted for the seven years before CPS model introduction (2003-2010) and the seven years after CPS model introduction (2010-2017). Informed by analytical strategies from single-case design (Kratochwill et al., 2010), the researcher identified and described overall trends from years before CPS implementation and the years after implementation for each of the six schools. Of primary interest here was characterizing the trend for the CPS school and determining whether the trend for the CPS school differed substantially from the comparison schools.

For the analysis, solid lines represented each of the five comparison schools, plotting graduation rate over a 14-year period of time. A line representing the same data points for the CPS school was formatted differently as a dashed-line. A vertical line crossed all plotted graduation rates at the year of CPS introduction. Trends for the seven years before CPS

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implementation were compared to the seven years after CPS implementation, and differences were identified and described. Analysis characterized the before-CPS and after-CPS trends for the CPS school and described the extent to which trends for the CPS school differed from those of the comparison schools.

A cross-tabulation table (Green & Salkind, 2013) was used to present variations in the graduation rates before and after CPS introduction. Analysis of descriptives within the table paralleled and augmented the visual analysis (i.e., descriptives were reviewed to identify trends and to quantify patterns identified via visual analysis).

Research Question 2 was answered using visual analysis (Tufts, 2001) and descriptive statistics (Steinberg, 2011). For Research Question 2a, the attendance rates for the CPS school and the five comparison schools were plotted for each of 14 school years (2003-2017) and presented as a line graph. Informed by analytical strategies from single-case design, the researcher identified and described overall trends across the 14-year time span for each of the six schools. Of primary interest was characterizing the trend for the CPS school and determining the extent to which the trend of attendance rates for the CPS school differed from those of the comparison schools. A cross-tabulation (Green & Salkind, 2013) was used to present variations in the attendance rates by academic year for each of the six schools. Analysis of descriptives within the table paralleled and augmented the visual analysis (i.e., descriptives were reviewed to identify trends and to quantify patterns identified via visual analysis).

For Research Question 2b, the researcher calculated the group means for the attendance rates for the CPS school and for the five comparison schools before and after CPS introduction. Group means were displayed in a tabular format, and were analyzed to determine (a) the extent

to which attendance rates after CPS model implementation differed from attendance rates before implementation, and (b) whether the results for the comparison schools paralleled or differed from the results for the CPS school (e.g., if the CPS school showed an increase in attendance rate after implementation but the comparison schools remained flat).

For Research Question 2c, the yearly attendance rate for the CPS school and the five comparison schools were plotted for the seven years before CPS model introduction (2003-2010) and the seven years after CPS model introduction (2010-2017). Informed by analytical strategies from single-case design, the researcher identified and described overall trends from years before CPS implementation and the years after implementation for each of the six schools. Of primary interest was characterizing the trend of attendance rates for the CPS school and determining the extent to which the trend for the CPS school differed from those of the comparison schools. A cross-tabulation (Green & Salkind, 2013) was used to present variations in the attendance rates before and after CPS introduction. Analysis of descriptives within the table paralleled and augmented the visual analysis (i.e., descriptives were reviewed to identify trends and to quantify patterns identified via visual analysis).

<u>Delimitations</u>

This study was delimited to six high schools in a single district in a single state (the school of interest and five purposely sampled high schools). The five comparison schools were selected based on their similarities with the school of interest in terms of key socio-demographic characteristics. Additionally, outcome measures were delimited to graduation and attendance rates for the CPS public high school and the five comparison schools for the school years 2003-2004 to 2016-2017.

<center>Assumptions</center>

The data used for this study, graduation and attendance rates, were assumed to be valid. All data were provided and published by the Florida Department of Education. In addition, the five comparison high schools were determined by four contextual variables of race, socio-economic status, size, and exceptional student education (ESE) rates. These variables were also assumed valid in selecting the five comparison schools. Results of this study could only be as accurate as the data posted, all of which were assumed to have been accurate and valid at the time of publication.

<center>Organization of the Study</center>

This study has been organized into five chapters. Chapter 1 included the background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, significance of the study, definition of terms, conceptual framework, research questions, methodology, limitations, delimitations, and the assumptions of the study. Chapter 2 provides a review of the literature on community schools including a global perspective, the history, approaches, and the results of community schools. Chapter 3 describes the methodology and procedures used in the study, including instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis procedures. Chapter 4 contains the study's results for each of the research questions. Chapter 5 provides a summary of the study, discussion and implication of the findings for community schools and Community Partnership Schools, and recommendations for future research.

<center>Summary</center>

Limited research has been conducted regarding the impact of community schools on student performance. The purpose of this quantitative study was to identify and describe the

nature and extent of the relationship, if any, that exists between the Community Partnership Schools™ model community school and the outcomes of graduation rate and attendance rate at one public high school in Florida. The results of this study add to the limited evidence-based research on community schools, and specifically on Community Partnership Schools, and have the potential to support policymakers in making programmatic and funding decisions at a state level.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

A literature review for this study was conducted to provide context and a broadened

perspective of community schools to support community school practitioners, schools, districts,

and state policymakers as they consider the implementation of the Community Partnership

Schools™ model community school. To provide background and the framework for the

Community Partnership Schools™ model study, this chapter has been organized into five major

sections: (a) a global perspective of community schools, (b) a history of community schools in

America, (c) an overview of community school approaches, (d) an overview of the Community

Partnership Schools™ model community school, and (e) a review of research reporting outcomes

and results from community schools.

A comprehensive review of the literature was necessary to provide an overview of

community school research relevant to this study. A literature search was conducted over

multiple databases subscribed to by the University of Central Florida including Journal Storage

(JSTOR), Education Resources Information Center (ERIC), Education Source, PsychInfo, Web

of Science, PAIS International and Sage Research Methods. Keywords used for the search of the

literature included, "community schools", "extended day schools", "community schools AND

history of", "community schools AND philosophy of", "settlement houses", "settlement houses

AND community schools", "settlement schools", "settlement schools AND history of",

"community schools AND research of", "community schools AND Elsie Clapp", "community

schools AND Florida", "community schools AND Europe", "community schools AND Africa",

"community schools AND Canada." The literature was systematically narrowed by limiting

results in database searches to journal articles, articles in English, by years (1990-2017), and full-text articles. In reviewing literature results individually, articles with a narrow approach to specific community schools other than Community Partnership Schools and articles not directly related to a broader viewpoint regarding a global perspective of community schools, history of community schools in America, U.S. community school models, and community school results were excluded from the review. Additional literature reviewed relevant to the study was retrieved from the Center for American Progress, International Centre for Excellence of Community Schools, Children's Aid Society's National Center for Community Schools, the Coalition for Community Schools, and the University of Central Florida's Center for Community Schools.

Definition of Community Schools

The definitions of community schools vary widely in the literature and from country to country. (Dyson, 2011; Heers et al., 2016; International Centre of Excellence for Community Schools [ICECS], 2012b). Historians, educational theorists, and policy makers have historically defined community schooling in one of two ways, either by their pragmatic components or by the process and philosophy driving the strategy (Crowson & Boyd, 1993; Quinn, 2009; Rogers, 1998). Those defining community schools pragmatically, "point to a set of core elements which a school must enact before it can be considered a community school" (Rogers, 1998, p. 8). For those who define community schools more broadly by the process or philosophy, pragmatic definitions are too narrow. Instead, a broader definition is used to describe community schools

not as a program, but as a strategy (Children's Aid Society, 2011; Crowson & Boyd, 1993; Quinn, 2009; Rogers, 1998).

Though no single global definition exists for community schools, fundamental to most definitions is that community schools engage partners to provide students, families, and communities access to needed resources (Children's Aid Society, 2001; Coalition for Community Schools, 2017; [ICECS], 2012a; Dryfoos, 2002; Figlio, 2016; Quinn, 2009). Definitions "replace the understanding of schools as narrow and separate institutions with a more vibrant image of schools as centers of community life" (Rogers, 1998, p. 12). Coalition for Community Schools, located in the United States, captures the definition of community schools most appropriately and simply for this study as "a place and a set of partnerships connecting a school, family, and community" (Jacobson et al., 2013, p. 5).

<u>A Global Perspective of Community Schools</u>

Community schools exist on all continents and in many countries (ICECS, 2012b), with strong advancement throughout Europe, Africa, and North America (Dyson, 2011; Heers et al., 2016; ICECS, 2012a; Palladino & Guardado, 2018; Parker, 2010). In North America, community schools have been established in the United States and in Canada (Austin & Moore, 1984; Children's Aid Society, 2011; Coalition for Community Schools, 2017; Dyson, 2011; Palladino & Guardado, 2018; Prout, 1977).

Community school development throughout Europe and Africa is supported by capacity building efforts of the International Centre of Excellence for Community Schools located in Coventry, England (ICECS, 2012c, 2014; Parker, 2010). In Europe, community schools can be found in countries such as England, Wales, Sweden, Scotland, Germany, Armenia, Bosnia,

Czech Republic, Kazakhstan, Moldova, Russia, Romania, Poland, and Ukraine; and in Africa, community school development can be found in Ethiopia, Malawi, Guinea, Mali, Bangladesh, Zambia, Botswana, Malawi, Zimbabwe and Namibia, Egypt, Benin, Ghana, South Sudan, and Ugana (ICECS, 2014; Mayer, 2014; Miller-Grandvaux, 2004; Muskin, 1999; Parker, 2010).

Motivations for establishing community schools vary across European and African countries (Dyson, 2011; Glassman, Naidoo, & Wood, 2007; Parker, 2010). Some view community schools in England as a means to create a flourishing community or a way to meet the times of a changing society (Dyson, 2011). Parker (2010) wrote,

> In some countries the prime focus is on instilling citizenship and democratic processes with an emphasis on volunteering and community-based projects. By contrast, in others the emphasis is on raising the attainment of pupils by providing a range of learning experiences in partnership with other agencies. In some, and this is often the case in African countries, community schools need to have the full engagement and support of parents to ensure that children, and especially girls, are allowed to attend rather than fulfill their traditional family roles in caring or income generation. (p. 2)

Other motivations include needs by parents who demand more localized and personalized educational models for their children. Muskin (1999) wrote about two examples of such community schools in Egypt and in Mali. In Egypt, a girls' community school was established for students whose parents were deeply against coeducational establishments. In Mali, parents rejected the government schools because of the distance to the school and because students

gravitated away from the village to the city, so community schools were developed in the villages.

Community schools are referred to by different names globally. According to the International Centre of Excellence in Community Schools (2014) and the Center for American Progress, countries use various terms to describe a community school strategy including "community schools," "extended schools," "full-service schools," "community-focused schools," and "core offer" schools (Bireda, 2009). In some rural or developing countries, the term "community school" or similar descriptors are not needed, and therefore not used, for community school-type schools because integrated community and/or parent involvement is the country's norm (ICES, 2014).

Approaches to community schooling vary from country to country due to differences in educational context and socio-political environments (Glassman et al., 2007; ICECS, 2014; Mariga, McConkey, & Myezwa, 2014; Parker, 2010). In developing countries where state systems are limited (e.g., some South African counties and in countries such as Sweden and rural parts of Poland), traditional schools are fully operated by parents and non-governmental organizations [NGOs] (Glassman et al., 2007; ICECS, 2014; Parker, 2010). The label "community school" in this context refers to a model of community-managed, or community-run schools (Glassman et al., 2007; Miller-Grandvaux, 2004; Muskin, 1999; Parker, 2010), an approach similar to U.S. local community-based charters that offer comprehensive wrap-around services. Save the Children is a US-based NGO charged with developing community schools in Africa (Muskin, 1999; XYZ). The U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID), has funded over 5,000 community-managed schools in Africa in a system-wide educational reform

aimed at achieving greater quality, equality, and access to primary schooling (Glassman et al., 2007; Miller-Grandvaux, 2004). USAID approaches to community schooling vary by region in response to educational and community context. Mali Village Schools are "built with community labor, controlled by a community management committee, staffed by local community volunteers and funded by communities' own contribution and efforts" (Glassman et al., p. 3). In other initiatives, parents and NGOs partner with government-run schools in an effort to strengthen the school (Glassman et al, 2007; Miller-Grandvaux, 2004; Parker, 2010). This is a community schools model approach similar to that of U.S. community schools. Community schools may also develop organically in countries' rural villages where social, community, and educational contexts naturally blend. Examples of these types of community schools include schools in African squatter communities where poverty is extreme and teaching and care for children is inherently provided by villagers (Constas & Colyn, 1996). Though some students' needs of education are addressed in these community schools, such severe levels of poverty continue to result in extreme divides of inequality between rural village students and nearby urban communities. As reflected upon by Constas and Colyn about the teaching in Khayelitsha, a township just outside Cape Town, South Africa, "The extreme poverty of the community setting, the schools' lack of the most fundamental resources, the extraordinarily difficult set of conditions under which teachers and students must teach and learn created a seemingly incomprehensible configuration of educational circumstances" (p. 595).

Unlike the United States which predominantly uses the community school strategy to support students from economically challenged neighborhoods, community schools in other countries are not restricted to low-income regions (Bireda, 2009; Heers et al., 2016; ICECS,

2012b). Some countries use the community school strategy to support all of their public-school students. England enacted 2004 legislation aimed at reforming services for students, and invested $2.9 billion for an aggressive national effort, transitioning all public schools into extended schools from 2003 to 2011 (Bireda, 2009; Heers et al., 2016). According to the Center for American Progress, approximately 14,000 schools in Britain offered extended services in 2009; and by 2010, all of the approximate 23,000 of the country's schools were expected to be transitioned to "core offer" or extended services schools (Bireda, 2009). Like the U.S. community schools, extended services schools partner with local agencies to provide programs and services as an extension of the school day (Birada, 2009).

<center>History of Community Schools in America</center>

Though often marketed as a new idea, the community school concept has a long history dating back to the late 19th century when the first settlement houses were established (Benson, Harkavy, Johanek, & Puckett, 2009; Children's Aid Society, 2011; Dryfoos, 2002; Prout, 1977; Rogers, 1998). "They are based on two premises: that the purpose of schooling is to educate youth for democratic citizenship, and that schools and communities are inextricably intertwined and interdependent" (Benson et al., 2009, p. 22). The Children's Aid Society (2011) noted three other significant eras of community schools marked by growth of and investment in the community school strategy: the 1930s, the 1960s, and the late 1980s and early 1990s when numerous national models were developed. In 1988, Rogers wrote, "Community schooling

seems to rise and fall in salience every generation. It is an idea which has been continually 'rediscovered'—by educators, community activists, policy makers, and presidents" (p. 6).

The settlement house movement began in Britain when Canon Samuel Barnett and his wife, Henrietta, founded the first East End London settlement house, Toynbee Hall, in 1884 (Benson et al., 2009; Bhavnargri & Krolikowski, 2000; Freeman, 2002). Settlement houses began as neighborhood centers formed in impoverished areas in which Britain's affluent would settle, learn about the conditions of the poor residents, and assist them by connecting resources to those in need (Freeman, 2002; United Neighborhood Houses, 2018). Joining the settlement house movement, the United States founded University Settlement Society in 1886 (United Neighborhood Houses, 2018). Located in the lower east side of New York, this first American settlement house served the flood of immigrants living in poverty and struggling to acclimate to the country. The University Settlement Society became a center of living where residents of all ages could access education, resources, and social assistance for their needs (United Neighborhood Houses, 2018). "The educated reformers from the upper class, who were called 'residents' or 'settlement workers' . . . moved into working-class neighborhoods in the congested cities where they actively promoted community development through regularly visiting homes and businesses" (Bhavnargri & Krolikowski, 2000, p. 12).

By 1913, professionals, affluent volunteers, and college-aged upper-class idealists gained exposure and aided the poor in over 400 settlements throughout the United States (Addams, 1909, 1910; Husock, 1992). Of these 400 settlements, Chicago's Hull House was one of the most well-known settlement houses (Addams, 1910; Bhavnargri & Krolikowski, 2000; Husock, 1992; Seaman, 2017). Established in 1889 by Jane Addams (the first woman to win the Nobel Peace

Prize in 1931) and Ellen Gates Starr, Hull House primarily served recently-arrived European immigrants, though anyone could access the offerings of the settlement (Addams, 1909; 1910; Benson et al., 2009; Children's Aid Society, 2011; Husock,1992). Hull House provided clubs for both adults and children, food, arts and crafts, dancing, library services, and employment assistance (Addams, 1909; 1910; Husock, 1992). "Organized children's theatre in the United States began in the settlement houses in New York City and Chicago. Social activists like Jane Addams realized that live theatre offered an ideal way to bring diverse groups of up rooted immigrant children together and to teach them communication and social skills as well as literature and language" (Mercogliano, 1988, p. 17).

Early settlement houses were formally or informally connected to universities, others to churches (Addams, 1909; Beard, 2010; Freeman, 2002; Husock, 1992). Some settlements focused largely on social supports, while others worked to improve the quality of lives through education (Bhavnargri & Krolikowski, 2000; Husock, 1992; Keith, 1999; Moore, 1987). Though service providers were a part of the early delivery model, settlements of this time "focused on treating the poor as citizens, not clients" (Husock, 1992, p. 55).

In the early 1900s, changes were significant in American society due to the increasing numbers of immigrants, industrialization, and child labor laws (Fusarelli & Lindle, 2011). Educators and social reformers believed schools were not functioning as they should, so some focused on the relationship between the school and community, campaigning to bringing needed social and health resources to the schools and to at-risk children (Children's Aid Society, 2011; Dryfoos, 1994; Fusarelli & Lindle, 2011; Prout, 1977; Rogers, 1998). American philosopher and educational reformer John Dewey (1902) "whose ideas about education and democracy were

directly influenced by Addams and Hull House" (as cited by Benson, 2009, p. 24), wrote in his powerful essay, *The School as Social Centre*:

> The feeling that the school is not doing all that it should do in simply giving instruction during the day to a certain number of children of different ages, the demand that it shall assume a wider scope of activities having an educative effect upon the adult members of the community, has its basis just here: We are feeling everywhere the organic unity of the different modes of social life, and consequently demand that the school shall be related more widely, shall receive from more quarters, and shall give in more directions (p. 2).

It was noted by Dryfoos (2002) that "John Dewey brought the school into the community and Jane Addams brought the community into the schools" (p. 394).

World War I negatively impacted support for community school innovations, and the rise of the professional social worker in the 1920s diminished the settlements' volunteer approach to resourcing the poor (Benson et al., 2009; Fusarelli & Lindle, 2011; Husock, 1992). Americans' concerns that social services imbedded in schools would dilute the academic focus increased, and fears of socialism rose (Fusarelli & Lindle, 2011). Favor was gained again for the community school approach in the 1930s when fears of socialism subsided and a focus returned to the whole child (Benson et al., 2009; Fusarelli & Lindle, 2011; Prout, 1977). This began the second generation of community schools, as defined by Children's Aid Society (2011).

The term, community school, began to be used in the 1930s when referring to schools that used their educational facilities to offer community resource services to members of the community (Prout, 1977). Against the backdrop of the Great Depression, Eleanor Roosevelt, a supporter of John Dewey's perspective on education, envisioned a school as the center of a

community (Parker, 1991). In 1934, Roosevelt appointed Elsie Ripley Clapp as Community

School Director to build a community school in Arthurdale, West Virginia (Moyer, 2009; Parker,

1991; Stack, 1999). Clapp was an associate of John Dewey and had made significant

contributions to community schooling and progressive child-centered education (Moyer, 2009;

Parker, 1991; Stack, 1999). Under Clapp's direction, Auburndale opened a community school in

1934, but it closed two years later when funds to sustain the effort could not be secured (Parker,

1991).

In 1935, a start to a long-term partnership began between Charles Stewart Mott, engineer

and philanthropist, and Frank J. Manley, a Flint, Michigan educator and city recreation leader

(Campbell, 1972; Decker, 1999; Dryfoos & Maguire, 2002). Mott believed schools should be

used by the community when not in use by the school (Benson, 2009). After Manley gave a

speech about community-driven programming to the Flint Rotary Club, the two men teamed to

deliver community education and recreation programs (Campbell, 1972; Decker, 1999). Mott

contributed $6,000 from the Charles Stewart Mott Foundation to Flint public schools to

encourage the use of school facilities, and the two men initiated the "lighted schools" community

school (Dryfoos, 2002; Prout, 2077). Initially, Manley and Mott's work focused narrowly on

lessening the delinquency of juveniles by offering recreation activities during non-school hours

in school facilities. Their shared vision eventually evolved into years of partnering on

community school development and advancing the principles of community schools still relevant

at the time of the present study (Campbell, 1972; Decker, 1999; Dryfoos, 2002). The Charles

Stewart Mott foundation has, since its inception, invested steadily and significantly to advance

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the community school concept nationally and internationally (Children's Aid Society, 2011; Rogers, 1998)

By the 1940s, most cities provided residents with public health services, with many being delivered by the schools (Fusarelli & Lindle, 2011). The 1950s brought desegregation orders for U.S. schools; and during the 1960s, community control efforts drove the decentralization of many school systems (Kane, 2007; McNeal, 2009). The government was involved in the delivery of health services, but questions surfaced about who should pay for and receive these services (Fusarelli & Lindle, 2011).

The Children's Aid Society (2011) noted that the 1960s marked the third generation of major community school investment and growth. In 1964, then President Lyndon Johnson initiated a national campaign, the "War on Poverty," which significantly increased school-based social service funding (Fusarelli & Lindle, 2011). Under Johnson's leadership and as the driver on his War on Poverty, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act was passed in 1965. This legislation dedicated significant federal funding to schools that served low-income high-needs students, bringing education into the forefront to minimize the effects of poverty (Paul, 2016; Seaman, 2017). Title I is a provision of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act which continues at present to distribute federal funds to schools with high percentages of students from low-income families (Paul, 2016). Much of the legislation enacted during the Johnson administration from 1963 to 1969, including Medicaid, Medicare, and Head Start, still shapes the current delivery of social services (Fusarelli & Lindle, 2011), and Title I funding has continued

to be used by schools to advance community school efforts across the country in the 21st century (Coalition for Community Schools, 2017; Frankl, 2016).

President Richard Nixon did not support coordinated school-based services through his presidency in the first half of the 1970s, vetoing the Comprehensive Child Development Act that would have provided funding for universal child care (Fusarelli & Lindle, 2011). In 1975, under President Gerald Ford, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act was signed into law, requiring all public schools to provide equal access to education and one free meal to students with disabilities (Fusarelli & Lindle, 2011).

In 1983, President Ronald Reagan presented A Nation at Risk, a report that was commissioned to evaluate the state of education in America. In a Study.com (2014) update, *A Nation at Risk: Summary & Effects on Education*, the report described an education system that was "falling apart," failing on a wide range of issues including teacher quality, academic achievement, graduation, and literacy. "Concern about prevention of adolescent morbidity (sex, drugs, violence, and stress) led to the establishment by outside public health agencies and hospitals of primary health-care clinics in the schools, mostly in secondary schools" (Dryfoos, 2002, p. 395). Following secondary schools, elementary schools soon added school-based health clinics, mental health counseling, and parent resource centers to support families and their children, a model later known as full-service schools (Dryfoos 2002).

The late 1980s and early 1990s marked the fourth era of significant community school momentum (Children's Aid Society, 2011). By the mid-1980s, private foundations such as the Charles Stewart Mott Foundation, Anne E. Casey Foundation, Kellogg Foundation, and the Dewitt Wallace-Reader's Digest Foundation became active in advancing and broadening

community school collaborations and interagency strategies (Fusarelli & Lindle, 2011). The community school concept grew "with the development of several national models (Beacons, Bridges to Success, CAS community schools and university-assisted community schools). All of these initiatives "appear to have been created in direct response to research about the educational struggles of children living in poverty and concerted calls to action by advocacy and philanthropic organizations" (Children's Aid Society, 2011, p. 5). In 1991, Florida created the concept and enacted the first landmark full-service school legislation integrating comprehensive educational, medical, and social services on a school campus (Dryfoos, 1996, 2002). Florida used state funding to relocate service providers to schools where programs could be delivered to meet the needs of students and families (Dryfoos, 1996, 2002). Other states followed with large scale initiatives providing health and mental health services in the schools (Dryfoos, 2002).

During this fourth generation of community school advancement, two national community school organizations were established. After opening its first two community schools in Washington Heights, NY in 1992 and 1993, the Children's Aid Society founded the National Center for Community Schools in 1994 in response to the growing interest in community schools (Children's Aid Society, 2011). The National Center for Community Schools offers technical assistance and consultation to developing community school initiatives (Children's Aid Society, 2011). In 1997, after only four people attended a break-out community school session at a school reform conference in Memphis, Tennessee, Joy Dryfoos, Pete Moses from Children's Aid Society, and Ira Harkavey from University of Pennsylvania made a decision over dinner to form a coalition for community schools to reach the educational community (Children's Aid Society, 2011; Dryfoos & Maguire, 2002). By 1998, an emerging Coalition for Community Schools was

established at the Institute for Educational Leadership in Washington, D. C. after hiring

Founding Director Martin Blank (Dryfoos & Maguire, 2002), who by 2001 had provided the

leadership to partner with over 170 national organizations in the community school movement

(Dryfoos & McGuire, 2002). The Coalition for Community Schools has been described as "an

alliance of national, state and local organizations that helps build awareness and understanding of

community schools, advocates for supportive public policies and helps promote research and

disseminate knowledge among its members and other organizations" (Children's Aid Society,

2011, p. 6).

The U.S. Department of Education and the U.S. Justice Department released a report in

1998, "Safe and Smart: Making the After-School Hours Work for Kids," which claimed that

afterschool programming was a remedy against juvenile crime and victimization (Simpson,

2012). President Bill Clinton and Mott Foundation President, William White, announced support

for the 21st Century Community Learning Centers Program in 1998 (Rogers 1998). By 2001, the

program budget increased to $845.6 million.

In 2002, President George Bush signed the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2001, a

law reauthorizing the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (NCLB, 2002). The major focus

of NCLB was to close the student achievement gaps by increasing accountability (Blank et al.,

2003; Seaman, 2017; Tagle, 2005). According to the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (2002),

for states to receive federal funding, rigorous academic standards had to be adopted and students

were required to participate in annual assessments (NCLB, 2012; Seaman, 2017). The NCLB Act

exposed the growing achievement gap in the United States and, in response, raised the question

of how to create environments in which all children, particularly those historically underserved

could succeed (Coalition for Community Schools, 2003; Tagle, 2005). Many educators were realizing they "need[ed] parents and other community leaders to work with them, not just to raise student test scores but, more important[ly], to develop a community vision of successful, positive outcomes for children and youth" (Tagle, 2005, p. 45).

The first two decades of the 21st century brought increased growth of community school development across the United States (Coalition for Community Schools, 2017; Martinez, Hayes, & Silloway, 2013) as the great recession during the late 2000s and early 2010s increased the strain on families and the need for additional programs and services (Fusarelli & Lindle, 2011). The rising poverty had a tremendous impact on schools, especially those ill-equipped to respond to social service needs (Jacobson et al., 2013). Oakes et al. (2017) commented, "With inequality and child poverty on the rise, community schools have garnered increased attention as a school improvement strategy in high-poverty neighborhoods" (p. 3). In 2007, the Coalition for Community Schools reported 33 places across the nation operating community schools, and in 2017 over 100 were counted (Coalition for Community Schools, 2017). In 2013, 5,000 community schools were reported in 44 states and the District of Columbia (Martinez et al., 2013); and in 2017, the Coalition for Community Schools reported the number of community schools to be "7,500 and growing" (p. 4).

The federal government increased promotion of and investments in the community school strategy beginning in 2000. In 2008, $5 million dollars was allocated to full-service schools through the U.S. Department of Education to provide education, social, and health services to students, families and communities (Bireda, 2009); in 2017, $10 million was allocated, and in FY2018, $17,500,000 was allocated (Coalition for Community Schools, 2018b;

U.S. Department of Education, 2018a). The 21st Century Community Learning Centers which fund extended day programming for students in schools also received increased funding in FY2018 by $20 million by the federal government, up to a total of $1.21 billion (Coalition for Community Schools, 2018b). Responding to the economic crisis of 2009 and the need for additional services, the Obama administration "prioritized the building and support of community schools by providing monies from the American Recovery & Reinvestment Act of 2009, or Stimulus Package" (Fusarelli & Lindle, 2011, pp. 406-407). In 2014, the Full-Service Community Schools Act of 2014 was introduced by Congress (H.R. 5168, 2014), and in 2015, Supporting Community Schools Act of 2015 was introduced "to provide state educational agencies and local educational agencies with the funding, flexibility, and support necessary to implement a research and evidence-based community school model" (H.R. 718, 2015).

Several states have also increasingly promoted and invested in community schools in the first two decades of the 21st century (Biag & Castrechini, 2016; Coalition for Community Schools, 2017). Illinois added community schools to its state school code in 2009, writing "Community schools have a powerful positive impact on students, as demonstrated by increased academic success, a positive change in attitudes toward school and learning, and decreased behavioral problems" (Illinois Public Act 096-0746, 2009). In 2015, 12 bills were implemented across nine states for community schools (Coalition for Community Schools, 2017). In 2016, Maryland passed a law that required the Department of Education (a) to provide community school technical assistance and (b) to notify school districts that Title I funds could be used for community school activity (Coalition for Community Schools, 2017). In 2017, the Florida

legislature allocated, through the Schools of Hope program, up to $2,000 per student for community school strategies as a turn-around solution for persistently low performing schools:

> A traditional public school that is required to submit a plan for implementation pursuant to s. 1008.33 (4) is eligible to receive up to $2,000 per full-time equivalent student from the Schools of Hope Program based upon the strength of the school's plan for implementation and its focus on evidence-based interventions that lead to student success by providing wrap-around services that leverage community assets, improve school and community collaboration, and develop family and community partnerships (not in ref list HB 7069, 2017, p. 213).

In 2016, the Governor of New York invested $175 million in community schools; Minnesota invested $1 million to expand community schools (Coalition for Community Schools, 2017); and Florida allocated $1.5 million to expand community school efforts across the state (UCF Center for Community Schools, 2017). In Georgia, Senate Bill 30 was introduced to begin a Sustainable Community School Operational Grants program and to provide funding for eligible elementary and secondary schools (Coalition for Community Schools, 2018a). From the 2014-2015 to 2017-2018 school years, a total of $4,085,000 had been invested by the Florida legislature for community school (Community Partnership Schools) expansion with another $1.4 million allocated for the 2018-2019 school year (UCF Center for Community Schools, 2017).

In response to the growing number of developing community schools over the past two decades and the need for assistance and expertise to implement, improve, and sustain efforts, capacity builders for community schools have been established (ICECS, 2014; UCF Center for Community Schools, 2018b; Center for Community Schools Strategies, 2018). They include:

International Centre for Excellence of Community Schools (ICECS) in 2014; the University of

Central Florida Center for Community Schools in 2014, and the Center for Community Schools

Strategies in 2015. University-assistance community school regional training centers were

developed at the University of Oklahoma-Tulsa in 2008, Indiana University-Purdue University

Indianapolis (IUPUI) in 2011, and the University of Connecticut (UConn) in 2014 (Harkavey,

Hartley, Hodges, & Weeks, 2016). In 2015, a University-Assisted Community Schools Network

was developed to share best practices and advance university-assisted community school work in

the field (Harkavy et al., 2016). To improve general community school practice, community

school standards have been created by the Coalition for Community Schools (Coalition for

Community Schools, 2018b) and the International Centre of Excellence for Community Schools

(International Centre of Excellence for Community Schools, 2018a), and for specific models of

community schools such as Community Partnership Schools (UCF Center for Community

Schools, 2018d).

<div align="center">Community School Approaches</div>

Each community school is unique, with no two community schools exactly alike

(Children's Aid Society, 2011; Coalition for Community Schools, 2017; Dryfoos & Maguire,

2002; Dryfoos, Quinn, & Barkin, 2005; Ellis, 2017; Oakes et al., 2017). "*Community school* is an

inclusive term, encompassing a growing number of school-community initiatives that feature

both common themes and differing approaches" (Dryfoos & Maguire, 2002, p. 130). Several

models of community schools have developed since the 1980s including CAS community

schools, Bridges to Success, university-assisted schools, Communities in Schools, Schools of the

21st Century, and Community Partnership Schools (Children's Aid Society, 2011; Dryfoos &

Maguire, 2002; Dryfoos et al., 2005; Ellis, 2017). Community schools develop in response to the

school context, the needs of the population being served, school staff, capacities of partner

agencies and availability of resources (Dryfoos et al., 2005). Community school features and

goals vary; some community schools focus on student achievement, and others focus on health

outcomes, behavioral improvement, or family engagement measures (Dryfoos & Maguire, 2002;

Dryfoos et al., 2005; Valli, Stefanski, & Jacobson, 2016). Though community school

programming varies, Oakes et al. completed a review of U.S. community schools in 2017 and

found four common features, or pillars, in most community schools: (a) integrated student

supports, (b) expanded learning time and opportunities, (c) family and community engagement

and (d) collaborative leadership and practices. Oakes et al. (2017) reported that "all four pillars

'matter;' moreover, they appear to reinforce each other" (p. 1).

Thousands of community schools exist nationally and internationally (Coalition for

Community Schools, 2017; Miller-Grandvaux, 2004). In 2016, a typology of school-community

partnerships was used by Valli et al. (2017) to describe four partnership categories connected to

community schools, from least to most comprehensive in purpose and design: (a) family and

interagency collaborations, (b) full-service schools, (c) full-service community schools, and (d)

community development. In family and interagency collaborations, partners extend the work of

the traditional school day of teaching and learning by coordinating delivery of other services that

support students and their families. The primary focus of this design is the teaching and learning

of students. Services may or may not be delivered on the school site, and students are offered or

referred out on a case-by-case basis (Valli et al., 2016). Full-service schools, originating in

Florida in 1991, is a term that has been used to describe community schools that not only offer

academic services, but also integrate the full range of health and social services within the walls of the school (Dryfoos, 2001; Dryfoos & Maguire, 2006; Valli et al., 2016). Often, these schools are referred to as wrap-around schools (Valli et al., 2016). Services are offered primarily to students and families. Extending more broadly, full-service community schools offer academic, health and social services to not only students and families, but also community members. Full-service community schools not only seek to democratize schools but open the schools to the community and provide a voice in decision making as a part of the neighborhood. The community development strategy is the most expansive type of the four categories described by Valli et al. Community developments do not merely service students and families; they aim to transform the whole neighborhood and community through economic, social, and capital advancement. Improving schools is a part of community development, but focus is oriented to neighborhood and community transformation (Keith, 1996; Valli et al.,).

For the purposes of this study, a brief overview of current community school models most referenced in the literature is provided based on a community school taxonomy developed specifically for this literature review. The purpose of this taxonomy is to help describe variances in organizational approaches. Organizational approach categories of the taxonomy presented reflect community partners involved and/or how the partners organizationally relate within the community school framework. Approaches include (a) community-managed, (b) university-assisted (c) community-based lead agency, (d) school-as-lead-agency, and (e) multiple core partners. The most referenced current community school models are described, serving as examples in each of the organizational-approach taxonomy categories. The models listed are intended to further clarify themes of the approach categories, not to provide an exhaustive list of

the innumerable permeations of community schools found in the literature. The researcher does not claim this taxonomy to be a perfect fit for every model; some may fall into more than one category.

<div align="center">Community-Managed Community School Approach</div>

Parents, community members, or community non-governmental organizations (NGOs) operate schools described as using a community-managed community schools approach (Glassman et al., 2007; Miller-Grandvaux, 2004; Muskin, 1999; Parker 2010). Found in the literature as an approach in countries outside the United States, these community-managed community schools aim to provide access to primary schools, and build capacity to improve the quality of education (Glassman et al., 2007; Miller-Grandvaux, 2004; Mwalimu, 2011). As observed by Miller-Grandvaux (2004), varying models of community-managed community schools exist:

> Different models of bringing a community into its school run the gamut from a situation where the community creates its own school and provides all education inputs from teachers to materials and infrastructure to one where the community takes charge of the management of its government school. (p. 1)

In the late 1980s, the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) received funding to help develop the capacity of African countries to provide quality primary education to African children (Miller-Grandvaux, 2004). Since that time, USAID has funded thousands of community-managed schools in Africa as a system-wide educational reform (Miller-Grandvaux, 2004). One of the primary NGOs funded in these efforts has been the U.S. program, Save the

Children. Students in these schools are provided education structure and needed resources to improve academic attainment (Glassman et al., 2007; Miller-Grandvaux, 2004).

University-Assisted Community School Approach

The primary core partnership of a university-assisted community school is between a school and a partnering university. The university is the lead coordinator of the community school partnership and provides support to the school by offering programs and services through mobilization and integration of university resources, particularly students as human capital (Harkavy et al., 2016). University-assisted community schools form a mutually-beneficial relationship between the university and school. Among other benefits, the school offers opportunities for applied learning to university students, and the school receives needed educational and social services and expertise provided by the university (Harkavy et al, 2016).

University-assisted community schools originated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1985 in response to visibly increasing crime and poverty in a West Philadelphia region (Harkavy, 2006; Harkavy et al., 2016). After seeking to impact the deteriorating environment and to develop a stronger relationship with the community, the university-assisted community school approach was born (Dryfoos, 2002; Dryfoos & Maguire, 2002; Harkavy et al., 2016). Through the Netter Center for Community Partnerships, the University of Pennsylvania has provided afterschool hands-on program-based learning activities to multiple university-assisted community schools in their region. As of 2016, more than 200 courses linked University of Pennsylvania students to university-assisted community schools that were focused on action-

oriented, community problem solving, teaching, learning, and service (Harkavy et al., 2016).

Additionally, the University of Pennsylvania has

> pioneered and scaled-up important innovations such as academically-based community
> service –where professors teach their courses in local community schools and other
> community settings—while also demonstrating how higher education institutions and
> leaders of research universities in particular can become transformational agents for
> beneficial social change. (Harkavy et al., 2016, p. 303)

At the time of the present study, Florida International University (FIU) had partnered with Miami, Florida schools through Education Effect, a university-assisted community school partnership aimed "to increase academic achievement and improve educational outcomes for schools in Liberty City, Overtown and Little Haiti (Education Effect Talking Points, 2017). The partnership connects the school with university expertise and resources to address academic and social needs of students by providing instructional and professional development for teachers, assisting students with social and cultural experiences, internships, dual enrollment, ACT/SAT test preparation, family and community engagement, and more (Education Effect Talking Points, 2017). The Education Effect increases dual enrollment classes for students at Northwestern High School, and provides experiences for the high school students who attend classes at FIU to learn about life in a university setting (Harkavy et al., 2016).

Many other university-assisted community schools exist nationally. These include Dayton Neighborhood School Centers in partnership with University of Dayton, "Community as Classrooms" initiatives in partnership with University of Buffalo, and those in partnership with Binghamton University-State University of New York, University of California-Los Angeles,

Johns Hopkins University, University of Maryland-Baltimore, Montclair State University, University of Tennessee-Knoxville (Harkavy et al., 2016).

Community-Based Lead Agency Community School Approach

A community-based agency and a school build the primary core partnership when using a community-based lead agency community school approach. This model relies heavily on the community-based agency to plan, leverage, and secure resources as driven by the needs of the school and students (Dryfoos, 2002; Dryfoos et al., 2005). Other partners are coordinated, aligned, and integrated directly into the school through the community-based agency as service or program providers (Dryfoos, 2002; Dryfoos et al., 2005; Ellis, 2017).

Responding to concern about the decline of public education, particularly in the inner-city schools, Children's Aid Society (CAS), a private child welfare agency in New York City, originated its first two community-based lead agency community schools in Washington Heights in 1992 and 1993 (Children's Aid Society, 2011; Dryfoos, 2002; Dryfoos et al., 2005). The CAS model organizes learning and development opportunities for children, families, and communities (Children's Aid Society, 2011; Dryfoos et al., 2005). A family resource center provides a supportive space at the school for parents to learn and connect (Dryfoos, 2002; Dryfoos et al., 2005). Since the start of CAS community schools in Washington Heights in 1992, CAS community school models have expanded throughout New York City and beyond (Children's Aid Society, 2011; Dryfoos 2002; Dryfoos et al., 2005). The Children's Aid Society established

its CAS National Center for Community Schools in 1994 to assist developing community schools across the nation (Children's Aid Society, 2011; Dryfoos, 2002; Dryfoos et al., 2005).

Bridges to Success (BTS) is a community school model originated by the United Way and Indianapolis Public Schools when it opened the first six BTS community schools in 1993 (Dryfoos, 2002; Melaville, 2004). The model grew out of United Way's interest in finding more creative ways to help solve pressing community problems and impact a broader community (Melaville, 2004). BTS is a comprehensive community school model which assesses local needs, marshals resources, programs and services, and aligns resources in the school to achieve academic and social improvements for children and families (Melaville, 2004). Outside agencies provide healthcare, dental care, mental health services, case management, after-school activities, and tutoring (Dryfoos, 2002). The BTS success in Indianapolis led to BTS becoming United Way of America's model for school-linked community school efforts, and BTS has been replicated across multiple sites in multiple states (Melaville, 2004).

Administered by the Community Service Council of Greater Tulsa (CSC), the Tulsa Area Community Schools Initiative (TACSI) was established through the Tulsa Metropolitan Human Services Commission in 2007. The TACSI staffs a team with leaders from the Union and Tulsa school districts and other key partners to implement community schools in low income neighborhoods throughout the Tulsa, Oklahoma, area (Coalition for Community Schools, 2018x). The TACSI is a holistic community school model that offers comprehensive services to students, families, and communities including early care and learning, healthcare, mental health and social services, youth development, and family engagement (Blank, Jacobson, & Pearson, 2009; Coalition for Community Schools, 2018x). In 2016, The CSC evolved the TACSI into the

Center for Community School Strategies to help schools across the region build relationships and increase opportunities for students across the region.

Communities In Schools (CIS) began in the 1970s in New York (Communities In Schools, 2018). The CIS model focuses on students on track for graduation who are at risk of dropping out of school (Oakes et al., 2017; Somers & Haider, 2017). Using a trained school-based CIS coordinator, CIS identifies partners in the community and coordinates delivery of programs and services that are driven by the needs of families and students (CIS, 2018). The CIS Model of Integrated Student Supports provides preventative and intensive services to students who exhibit risk factors for dropping out, including low academic performance, absenteeism, or behavioral problems (CIS, 2018; Somers & Haider, 2017). The Communities In Schools model has expanded throughout the United States and is currently working with 2,300 schools in 25 states and the District of Columbia (CIS, 2018).

Numerous other community-based lead agency approach initiatives exist. These include community schools in Chicago, Illinois, COMPASS community schools initiative in Greater Lehigh Valley, Pennsylvania, and SUN Community Schools in Portland, Oregon (Iverson, 2005; Melaville, Jacobson, & Blank, 2011),

School-As-Lead-Agency Community School Approach

The schools or school system take on the primary coordinating role in the school-as-lead-agency approach. Day-to-day management of the community school sites as well as the engagement and leveraging of partnerships is the responsibility of the school district or school.

In 1991, the United Way of Southwestern Indiana and others from the community were concerned about risk factors for students and families in Evansville, Indiana (Melaville et al.,

2011). Citing after-school programming as a successful response to minimizing at-risk behaviors, the school system identified four elementary schools to begin community school efforts (Melaville et al., 2011) With successful outcomes at the elementary schools, an expanded vision for community schools was developed in 1994 to include full-service school elements including social and health services (Melaville et al., 2011), and interest in the model of collaboration grew sharply over the years. At the time of the present study, all of Evansville, Indiana schools are in some phase of community school development and a director for community schools has been hired at the school district to assist in expansion of efforts (Coalition for Community Schools, 2018b). Other school-as-lead agency models include community school efforts in Oakland Unified School District, Newark, Albany, and Cincinnati's Community Learning Center Initiative (Chu Zhu, 2018; Coalition for Community Schools, 2017; Frankl, 2016; Melaville et al., 2011).

<div align="center">Multiple Core Partners Community School Approach</div>

A multiple core partners approach goes beyond the more typical two-core partner approach of the university-assisted or the community-based lead agency community school approach. More than two core partners commit to the success of the community school, providing leadership and institutional resources. One partner typically employs the community school director or coordinator, but this employee represents the partnership, not a single organization.

The Community Partnership Schools (CPS) model approach, the focused model for this study, is a multiple core partner approach and is discussed in detail in the following section. Other multiple core partner approach community schools include United Way of Erie, Harford,

and Broome County Promise Zone in Binghamton, NY (Chu-Zhu, personal communication, July 19, 2018).

<p style="text-align:center">Community Partnership Schools</p>

The University of Central Florida, Children's Home Society of Florida, and Orange County Public Schools originated the Community Partnership Schools™ model in 2010 at Evans High School in Orlando, Florida (Ellis, 2017; Figlio, 2016; UCF Center for Community Schools, 2018a). After academic improvements at Evans ignited interest across the state (Figlio, 2016; Frankl, 2018), the UCF Center for Community Schools was established in 2014 to provide consultation and technical assistance to other communities interested in replicating the Evans High School community school effort (Ellis, 2017; UCF Center for Community Schools, 2018b). As of 2018, at the time of the present study, 17 Community Partnership Schools were in varying stages of development (UCF Center for Community Schools, 2018b, 2018c).

The Community Partnership Schools™ model is based on a four-core partnership approach: (a) four dedicated staff members focused on the four pillars, (b) a shared-governance organizational structure that provides the voice of multiple stakeholders, and (c) a certification process intended to ensure CPS model fidelity (UCF Center for Community Schools 2018a, 2018b, 2018c, 2018d). The CPS four-core partner approach engages a committed partnership among key organizations: a school district, a university or college, a health care provider, and a non-profit community-based provider (Ellis, 2017; Frankl, 2016; UCF Center for Community Schools, 2018a). The partners commit long-term to a shared governance structure to establish,

develop, and sustain the efforts of the Community Partnership School (Ellis, 2017; UCF Center for Community Schools, 2018a, 2018b).

The Community Partnership Schools™ model provides dedicated focus in the four pillar areas that Oaks et al. identified in 2017 (UCF Center for Community Schools, 2018a) as those that align, according to Hattie (2008) "closely with evidence-based features of good schools, derived from decades of research identifying school characteristics that foster students' intellectual, social, emotional, and physical development" (p. 5). The four pillars identified by Oakes et al. are (a) collaborative leadership and practices, (b) expanded learning time and opportunities, (c) integrated student supports, and (d) active parent and community engagement (Oakes et al., 2017). The dedicated four core positions of a Community Partnership Schools™ model that focus on the four pillars include a CPS director, an extended day coordinator, a school health coordinator, and a family and community outreach coordinator (Ellis, 2017; UCF Center for Community Schools, 2018c, 2018d). Staff identify, coordinate, and integrate core partner and community provider resources on the school campus that best meet the needs of students and families (Ellis, 2017; UCF Center for Community Schools, 2018d). At Evans, the flagship Community Partnership School in Orlando, Florida wrap-around services were described by Figlio in 2016 as "very well-integrated and coordinated with one another" (p. 8).

Along with the school principal, the CPS director is positioned as a collaborative leader, leading shared responsibilities among partners at all levels of the CPS organization (Ellis, 2017; UCF Center for Community Schools, 2018a, 2018d). Though the CPS director is typically employed through the coordinating non-profit organization in a Community Partnership School, the position represents the CPS core four partners (Ellis, 2017; UCF Center for Community

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Schools, 2018d). Aligned to the expanded learning time and opportunities pillar by Oakes et al.

(2017), a dedicated CPS extended day or after school coordinator manages academic and

enrichment opportunities such as tutoring, mentoring, and clubs, before school, during school,

after school, and on weekends (Ellis, 2017; Oakes et al., 2017; UCF Center for Community

Schools, 2018c). Extended day programming emphasizes high expectations for academic

instruction and provides support for all students (Oakes et al., 2017). A Community Partnership

School aligns the position of a school health coordinator to the integrated student support pillar,

managing referrals addressing barriers to learning with social, emotional, and health programs

and services (Ellis, 2017; Oakes et al., 2017; UCF Center for Community Schools, 2018c,

2018d). Aligning to the parent and community engagement pillar, a Community Partnership

School family and community outreach coordinator connects parents to the school in meaningful

ways (Ellis, 2017; UCF Center for Community Schools, 2018d). Utilizing a parent resource

room as a dedicated space on a Community Partnership School campus for parents, families may

learn about offered resources, empowerment programs, and development opportunities provided

by the Community Partnership School (Ellis, 2017; UCF Center for Community Schools,

2018d).

The organizational structure of a Community Partnership Schools™ model aligns

communication and functions among the various stakeholders of the CPS (Ellis, 2017; UCF

Center for Community Schools, 2018c, 2018d). In 2016, Figlio (2016) reported being

"particularly impressed with the governance structure" and thought it to be a "model for

expansion to other locations" (p. 8). The cabinet is comprised of decision makers from the core

four partners and community and a student and/or parent representative (Ellis, 2017; Figlio,

2016; UCF Center for Community Schools, 2018d). The cabinet is primarily responsible for the vision, strategic planning, evaluation, and sustainability of the Community Partnership School (Ellis, 2017; UCF Center for Community Schools, 2018c, 2018d). The operations team is a mid-level group of a Community Partnership School's organizational structure. This team is responsible for solving operational concerns at a staff-level, data, communications, implementing improvement measures, and securing needed resources from partners and others that align with needs assessments that drive programming (Ellis, 2017; Figlio, 2016; UCF Center for Community Schools, 2018c). A Community Leadership Council (CLC) is comprised of local key community stakeholders including faith-based leaders, community residents, business owners, law enforcement, and others from the community (Ellis, 2017; Figlio, 2016; UCF Center for Community Schools, 2018d). The CLC provides a voice of the community and support to the school through fundraising, mentoring, and volunteering. A member of the CLC sits on the Community Partnership Schools cabinet. Providing the voice of the students, a Student Leadership Council (SLC) is a club of Community Partnership School student promoters, assistants, and champions (Ellis, 2017; Figlio, 2016; UCF Center for Community Schools, 2018d). The chair of the SLC sits on the cabinet, offering insight into the needs and perceptions of students. Other key teams include the CPS staff, provider team, and the school intervention team which is a case-management group of school and CPS staff who work to assist individual students and provide whole-school support in areas such as attendance and behavior (Ellis, 2017; UCF Center for Community Schools, 2018c, 2018d).

In 2016, Figlio completed a preliminary evaluation of Evans High School, the flagship Community Partnership School. Figlio compared academic results of Evans High School versus

12 most similar high schools in Florida. Overall, Evans improved over time relative to the 12 comparison schools (Figlio, 2016). In 2012-13, Evans improved in nine of the 14 academic metrics used to grade Florida high schools versus the 12 similar schools after implementing the Community Partnership School (Figlio, 2016). In 2013-14, Evans improved in 12 of the 14 academic metrics versus the 12 similar schools after implementing the Community Partnership School (Figlio, 2016). Concluding his visit, interviews, and analysis, Figlio reported that the Evans model was "one that is likely to yield considerable successes in other locations in Florida" (p. 12).

Replication of the Community Partnership Schools™ model began in 2015 (UCF Center for Community Schools, 2018b). To ensure fidelity of the model and consistency while replicating CPS programming and framework, the UCF Center for Community Schools, along with partners across the state, developed a certification process based upon passing scores in each of the 12 following standards (UCF Center for Community Schools, 2018d):

STANDARD 1   Partnership

STANDARD 2   Collaborative Leadership, Governance, and Organizational Structure,

STANDARD 3   Foundational Principles

STANDARD 4   Staffing

STANDARD 5   Integrated Community Partnership School Framework

STANDARD 6   Expanded Day Learning Opportunities

STANDARD 7   Comprehensive Wellness Supports

STANDARD 8   Family and Community Engagement

STANDARD 9   Volunteering

STANDARD 10   University Assistance

STANDARD 11   Evaluation

STANDARD 12   Sustainability

Community Partnership Schools must meet certification requirements to become eligible within five years of the first full-year of implementation to retain the Community Partnership Schools name and to be qualified for future funding through the UCF Center for Community Schools (UCF Center for Community Schools, 2018d).

In addition to certification readiness assessments which occur during the third and fifth years of implementation, Community Partnership Schools focus on continuous improvement through on-going progress monitoring sessions at all levels of the organization (Ellis, 2017). As Figlio (2016) witnessed and reported as evidence at the flagship Community Partnership School, "quantitative and qualitative information feeds back to promote improved decision making and service delivery (Figlio, 2016, p. 10).

<div align="center">Community School Results</div>

Variances make comparing community schools and broad evaluation of community schools as a collective strategy difficult (Dryfoos, 2000; Figlio, 2016a; Heers et al., 2016). Community schools adapt to the local context and differ in definition, approach, design, programming, longevity, and breadth of intended impact (Coalition for Community Schools, 2017; Dryfoos, 2000; Figlio, 2016; Heers et al., 2016; Oakes et al., 2017; Valli et al., 2016). Some community schools aim to improve academic achievement, but others also focus on family functioning and primary or behavioral health improvement (Blank et al., 2009; Dryfoos, 2000; Heers et al., 2016). Because of these variances, common impact data is often not available to

show definitive community school effectiveness, limiting definitive research results (Dryfoos, 2000, Heers et al., 2016).

Though limited, in reviewing the literature, research involving specific community school models and community schools as a strategy has increased over the past several years and shows positive trends (Blank et al., 2009; Figlio, 2016a; Heers et al., 2016; Oakes et al., 2017). Though "sound scientific evidence on their effectiveness is lacking" (Heers et al., 2016, p. 1016) and "most of the extant literature on community schools does not meet modern standards of research evidence, the existing case studies provide suggestive evidence that community schools have been successful in a variety of locations" (Figlio, 2016a, p.1). The Coalition for Community Schools reported in 2017 that "research on community schools continues to grow and points in a positive direction for outcomes for children" (p. 2). In reviewing the literature, Oakes et al. (2017) concluded that "the evidence base on well-implemented community schools and their component features provides a strong warrant for their potential contribution to school improvement" (p. 1).

The more comprehensive and well-run the community school, the better the outcome (Blank et al., 2009; Frankl, 2016; Oakes et al., 2017). In their 2017 study, Oakes et al. recommended implementing a comprehensive approach to community schooling that includes four pillars of implementation: (a) integrated student supports, (b) expanded learning time and opportunities, (c) family and community engagement, and (d) collaborative leadership and practices. In a 2016 profiling of community schools, Frankl reached a similar conclusion that when community schools employ multiple strategies (i.e., engaging curricula, high quality teaching, wrap-around supports, positive discipline, parent engagement, inclusive leadership),

"their results can be *sustainably transformational*: increasing school attendance, decreasing suspensions and expulsions, creating healthy and safe communities, and improving academic outcomes" (p. 52).

Frankl (2016) discussed the transformation of schools from struggling to thriving in her profile of six schools, one school district, one city, one county, and one state implementing community schools across the United States that were using transformational community school strategies and achieving positive results. Initiatives included Webb Middle School (Austin, Texas), Reagan High School (Austin, Texas), Evans High School (Orlando, Florida), Wolfe Street Academy (Baltimore, Maryland), The Historic Samuel Coleridge Taylor Elementary School (Baltimore, Maryland), Social Justice Humanitas Academy (Los Angeles, California), Brooklyn Center Full-Service Community Schools District (Minneapolis, Minnesota), Cincinnati, Ohio Public Schools' Community Learning Centers, City of Portland and Multnomah county, Oregon – Schools Uniting Neighborhoods (SUN) Community Schools, and Kentucky's State-wide Family Resource and Youth Service Centers (FRYSCKY's). Positive results from the profiled community school initiatives included academic improvements such as graduation rates, and behavioral improvements such as discipline referral decreases and attendance rate increases (Frankl, 2016). Other positive results included student mobility, college enrollment, and achievement gap reductions (Frankl, 2016). Though data showed positive results in all outcomes provided for each initiative, data indicators between profiles did not match; thus, indicators could not be shared as a collective unit (e.g. "all profiled initiatives improved in graduation rate" or "all profiled initiatives improved student mobility rates").

Two of the most common indicators included in Frankl's profiled initiatives, and the two indicators used for the present study, were graduation and attendance (Frankl, 2016). Of the initiatives reporting improvement in graduation rates, Webb Middle School improved from 48% to 78% in five years; Reagan Early College High School improved from 48% to 85% in five years; Evans High School improved from 64%to 78% in three years; Social Justice Humanitas Academy improved from 83% to 96% in four years; Community Learning Centers improved from 51% to 82% in nine years; Brooklyn Center Full Service Community Schools District improved from 74% to 87% in five years; and SUN Community Schools averaged 9-15 percentage point increases in its graduation rate in three years. Of the initiatives reporting improvements in attendance, Webb Middle School improved from 91% to 96% in five years; Reagan Early College High School improved from 88% to 95% in five years; Wolfe Street Academy improved from 94% to 97% in five years; and Social Justice Humanitas Academy improved its attendance rate from 62% to 96% in four years.

In addition to providing a strategy aimed to improve outcomes for schools, families, and the communities, community schools have demonstrated evidence of being a positive investment strategy (Martinez et al., 2013). The Finance Project reported in 2013 that community schools return $10 to $14 in social benefits for each dollar invested (Martinez et al., 2013). Martinez et al. (2013) used Social Return on Investment (SROI) as a measure. SROI is calculated by measuring the value of returns or outcomes in a social setting and the value of cost savings from negative outcomes avoided, (e.g., the value derived from outcomes such as children acquiring literacy skills, avoiding drugs or alcohol, the number of children ready to start school on time, or early detection of health or mental health conditions). At a $10-$14 return in social benefits for

each dollar invested, if a community school costs \$100,000 to implement per year, the return on that investment calculating the positive social conditions it provides and/or negative social conditions it avoids is between \$1,000,000 to \$14,000,000 back to the community.

Summary

Community schools have evolved over time and across continents. With the seeds of community schools dating back to the early 19th century settlement houses, community schools have a long history of organic periodic growth, resulting in wide variances in definition, approach, motivation, and name. Thousands of community schools currently exist with no two community schools exactly alike. The comprehensiveness of and approaches to community schooling vary widely, and no single taxonomy exists to compare results or frameworks. Generally speaking, however, "the longer and more effectively a community school has been operating, the more services a student receives, the better the outcome" (Frankl, 2016, p. 16). The lack of a clear single definition and the resulting wide variances have made evaluation of community schools as a collective unit of analysis difficult. Though an increasing number of studies have recently shown community schools have a positive impact, research is still limited.

CHAPTER 3
METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to identify and describe the nature and extent of the

relationship, if any, that exists between the Community Partnership Schools™ (CPS) model

community school and the graduation and attendance rate at one public high school in Florida.

Graduation and attendance rates for seven years before the CPS model was introduced (2003-

2010) and seven years after the CPS model was introduced (2010-2017) were compared to the

graduation and attendance rates for the same time periods of five other matched comparison high

schools in Florida that had not introduced the CPS model. An interrupted time series (ITS)

design was used to identify and describe the relationships between the CPS model and outcomes.

The following research questions guided the study:

1. In what ways and to what extent, if any, is the graduation rate at one CPS high school

    related to the implementation of a Community Partnership School (CPS) model?

    a. What is the overall trend for the graduation rate from 2003-04 to 2016-17?

    b. What difference, if any, exists between the graduation rate before and after

        implementation of the CPS model?

    c. What difference, if any, exists between the trend in the graduation rate before and

        after implementation of the CPS model?

2. In what ways and to what extent, if any, is the attendance rate at one CPS high school

    related to the implementation of a Community Partnership School (CPS) model?

    a. What is the overall trend for the attendance rate from 2003-04 to 2016-17?

b. What difference, if any, exists between the attendance rate before and after

implementation of the CPS model?

c. What difference, if any, exists between the trend in the attendance rate before and

after implementation of the CPS model?

Presented in this chapter is the methodology utilized to conduct this study. The chapter is

divided into the following six sections: (a) research design, (b) population, (c) variables, (d) data

collection and procedures, (e) data analysis, and (f) validity and reliability.

Research Design

An interrupted time series (ITS) design was identified as the best tool to use for this

quantitative study, given the type of the study and the data to be gathered. ITS designs are used

to test interventions on specific measures over time, testing for change in an outcome measure

after an intervention by comparing before-intervention and after-intervention time periods

(Biglan et al., 2000). In this study, the ITS design was used to investigate the possible effects of

the Community Partnership Schools™ model intervention on graduation and attendance rates

over a 14-year period of time, comparing the seven years before implementation (2003-2010)

and seven years after implementation (2010-2017) of the CPS model in one public high school in

Florida.

Population

Community Partnership Schools™ (CPS)

The primary population for this study was one public high school in Florida that began

implementing the Community Partnership Schools™ model community school during the 2010-

2011 school year to improve academic, attendance, graduation, and behavior measures. The CPS

school was a Title I high school, reporting 100% of students on free or reduced lunch (FDOE, 2018). The estimated enrollment of the CPS school was 2,500 students in Grades 9-12. Minority enrollment was 98%, with 85% of students reporting their ethnicity as Black. Approximately 10% of the student population was reported as Exceptional Student Education (ESE), and over 12% were enrolled in an English for other languages (ESOL) program. Between the school years of 2003 and 2010, the CPS school earned school performance grades of F three times, and grades of D four times.

<div align="center">Non-CPS Comparison Schools</div>

Five non-CPS comparison Florida high schools were used to mitigate the influence of extraneous variables on the outcomes of the study. The ITS design relies on disclosing and describing trends over time, and the inclusion of comparison schools added strength by allowing for determinations of whether trends were unique to the CPS school or reflected broader trends among similarly-situated non-CPS schools. Criterion-based purposive sampling was used to identify appropriate comparison schools. The comparison schools were identified as the closest to the CPS school in terms of the four contextual variables of race, socio-economic status (SES), size, and exceptional student education (ESE). Murphy (2010) noted that reporting data for race, socio-economic status, school size, and exceptional student education (ESE) have been used to measure educational equity and used in research as independent variables when measuring "achievement gaps." The four contextual variables were determined for this study because of their importance to understanding academic performance as indicated by policy use.

To identify the five closest Florida non-CPS comparison schools, demographic data were accessed for every high school in Florida from the National Center for Education Statistics

Common Core of Data (NCES CCD, 2018). Using the Elementary and Secondary Information System (ElSi), an application that allows users to create custom tables to display public school data, Florida public high school demographic data were downloaded for the most recent school year available (2015-16). Captured in the data set were enrollment by total enrollment, enrollment by race/ethnicity, and the number of students eligible for free or reduced meals. Non-white student population categories were combined to produce a variable for the total number of minority students in each school, then divided by the total enrollment for each school to produce a variable measuring the percentage of minority students in each school. To calculate the socio-economic status rates, the total number of students eligible for free or reduced meals was divided by the total student enrollment for each high school.

A total of 607 Florida high schools were identified with viable data. Sorting first by enrollment, schools were divided into deciles (of approximately 60 schools each) and color-coded to identify common deciles for each variable. For example, the CPS school of this study was captured in the largest decile for enrollment, coded by the color blue along with the other 60 schools found in this decile. Next, the schools were sorted by SES from largest to smallest, with SES then coded by colored decile. The same method was repeated, sorting and coding by race/ethnicity.

A total of 21 schools were identified as being in the same decile as the CPS school in two or three of the contextual variable categories of SES, enrollment, and/or race/ethnicity. To narrow further, non-CPS schools with substantial differences in enrollment and race/ethnicity

from the CPS school were eliminated. The closest five matched comparison schools were finally

identified from these non-CPS schools by comparing contextual variables school-by-school.

The ESE rates for the six schools (i.e. the CPS school and the five comparison) were then

obtained directly from individual district or school websites and compared to ensure that the

comparison schools did not differ appreciably with regard to the representation of ESE students

in the school population. The five matched schools had ESE rates that were less than three

percentage points different from the CPS school.

<div align="center">Variables</div>

The dependent variables for the study were school-level graduation and attendance rates.

The independent variables for the study were the 2013-2017 academic school years. The 2010-

2011 school year was emphasized due to the year's significance in this study. Specifically, 2010-

11 was the Community Partnership Schools™ model implementation year in the targeted high

school.

<div align="center">Data Collection and Procedures</div>

Data for this study were obtained from existing, publicly available school-level

graduation and attendance data available on the Florida Department of Education Accountability

Reports website. To construct datasets for analysis, graduation and attendance rates (student

average daily attendance, or percentage of students present) of the six schools (i.e., one CPS high

school and the five non-CPS comparison schools) were collected in an Excel spreadsheet for

each of the 14 academic years from 2003-2017, seven years before CPS implementation (2003-2010) and seven years after CPS implementation (2010-2017).

The method used by Florida Department of Education (FDOE) to calculate graduation rates changed over the academic years included in this study. It is important to note, however, that the graduation calculations used for this study were consistent across schools within the same years (e.g., 2003 calculations were the same for all schools; 2017 calculations were different from 2003 calculations, but 2017 calculations were the same for all schools). Table 1 displays the FDOE calculation descriptions for the years of this study and the calculation used for each year across schools. For academic years 2003-2008, the graduation rate with special diploma recipients counted as non-graduates was obtained for each of the six schools and used for this study. For the academic year 2008-2009, the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) graduation rate with special diploma recipients counted as non-graduates was obtained for each of the six schools and used for this study. For academic years 2009-2017, the Federal Uniform Graduation Rate was obtained for each of the six schools and used for this study.

Table 1

Florida Department of Education Graduation Rate Calculations: 2003-04 to 2016-17

Calculation Description	Years Available	Years of Study
Graduation rate with special diploma recipients counted as non-graduates	2003-04 through 2007-08	2003-04 through 2007-08
Graduation rate with GED-based diploma recipients counted as non-graduates	2004-05 through 2007-08	Not Used
NCLB graduate rate with special diploma recipients counted as non-graduates	2007-08 through 2009-10	2008-09
NGA graduation rate with diploma recipients counted as non-graduates	200-08 through 2009-10	Not used
Federal Uniform Graduate Rate	2009-10 through 2016-17	2009-10 through 2016-17

Note. NCLB=No Child Left Behind; NGA=National Governors Association; GED=General Education Development

Data Analysis

An interrupted time series (ITS) design was used for this study to answer Research Questions 1 and 2. For Research Question 1, visual analysis and descriptive statistics were utilized to investigate graduation rates over a 14-year period of time (2003-2017). For Research Question 1a, annual graduation rates for the CPS schools and the five non-CPS comparison schools were plotted for 14 years and presented as a line graph. The researcher identified and described the overall trends across the 14-years for the CPS school and five non-CPS comparison schools, with particular focus on whether the trends for the CPS school differed from those of the non-CPS schools. The CPS school was represented by a dashed-line in the line chart, while the five comparison schools were formatted differently as solid lines. A cross-tabulation table was

also used to present variations in the graduation rates by academic year for the six schools. Descriptives were used to parallel and augment the visual analysis, and patterns were quantified.

To answer Research Question 1b, the researcher calculated the group means for the graduation rates for the CPS school and the five non-CPS comparison high schools before and after CPS implementation. Group means were displayed in a tabular format, and the results were analyzed to determine (a) the extent to which graduation rates after CPS model implementation (2010-2017) differed from graduation rates before (2003-2010) and (b) whether the results for the comparison schools paralleled or differed for the CPS school (e.g., if the CPS school showed an increase from before to after while the comparison schools declined).

To answer Research Question 1c, the annual graduation rate for the CPS school and the five non-CPS comparison schools were plotted for the seven years before CPS model implementation (2003-2010) and seven years after CPS model implementation (2010-2017). The researcher identified and described the overall trends before and after CPS implementation for the CPS school and five non-CPS comparison schools, with a primary interest in determining whether the trend for the CPS school differed from those of the non-CPS schools. The CPS school was represented by a dashed-line in the line chart, and the five comparison schools were formatted differently as solid lines. A vertical line crossed all plotted graduation rates at the year of CPS implementation (2010-2011). A cross-tabulation table was also used to present variations in the graduation rates during the seven years before CPS implementation and seven years after

CPS implementation of the CPS school and five non-CPS comparison schools. Descriptives were used to parallel and augment the visual analysis, and patterns were quantified.

For Research Question 2, visual analysis and descriptive statistics were utilized to investigate attendance rates over a 14-year period of time (2003-2017) for the CPS school and the five non-CPS comparison schools. To answer Research Question 2a, attendance rates for the CPS schools and the five non-CPS comparison schools were plotted for the 14 years of the study and presented as a line graph. The researcher identified and described the overall trends across the 14 years for the CPS school and five non-CPS comparison schools, with particular focus on whether the attendance rate trends for the CPS school differed from those of the non-CPS schools. The CPS school was represented by a dashed-line in the line chart, and the five comparison schools were formatted differently as solid lines. A cross-tabulation table was also used to present variations in the attendance rates by academic year for the six schools. Descriptives were used to parallel and augment the visual analysis, and patterns were quantified.

To answer Research Question 2b, the researcher calculated the group means for the attendance rates for the CPS school and the five non-CPS comparison high schools before and after CPS implementation. Group means were displayed in a tabular format, and the results were analyzed to determine (a) the extent to which attendance rates after CPS model implementation (2010-2017) differed from attendance rates before implementation (2003-2010) and (b) whether the results for the comparison schools paralleled or differed from those for the CPS school (e.g.,

if the CPS school showed an increase after implementation beyond that of the comparison schools).

To answer Research Question 2c, the attendance rates for the CPS school and the five non-CPS comparison schools were plotted for the seven years before CPS model implementation (2003-2010) and seven years after CPS model implementation (2010-2017). The researcher identified and described the overall trends before CPS implementation and after CPS implementation of the CPS school and five non-CPS comparison schools, with primary focus on whether the trend for the CPS school differed from the trends shown by non-CPS schools. The CPS school was represented by a dashed-line in the line chart, and the five comparison schools were formatted differently as solid lines. A vertical line crossed all plotted attendance rates at the year of CPS implementation (2010-2011). A cross-tabulation table was used to present variations in the attendance rates between the CPS school and the five non-CPS comparison schools during the seven years before and seven years after CPS implementation. Descriptives were used to parallel and augment the visual analysis, and patterns were quantified.

<u>Validity and Reliability</u>

The dependent variables utilized in the study, graduation and attendance rates, were assumed to be valid based upon quality control measures imposed by the Florida Department of Education [FDOE](FDOE, 2016; FDOE, 2018a). All data used in the analyses were publicly available and were provided and published by the Florida Department of Education. The four contextual variables of race, socio-economic status, size, and exceptional student education (ESE) rates, that determined the five non-CPS comparison schools, were also assumed valid. The contextual variables were publicly available and were provided by the National Center for

Education Statistics (NCES). Because the independent variable could not be manipulated, direct causal inferences were not warranted (Lammers & Badia, 2005). Limited and cautious generalizability to other similar CPS implementation efforts was warranted, however, and has been communicated with appropriate caveats. Visual analysis has been shown to meet What Works Clearinghouse (WWC) design and evidence standards (Kratochwill et al., 2010).

Summary

The purpose of this study was to identify and describe the nature and extent of the relationship, if any, that existed between the Community Partnership Schools™ (CPS) model community school and the graduation and attendance rate at five comparison non-CPS schools. The researcher utilized an interrupted time series (ITS) design to identify and describe the relationship between the CPS model and non-CPS matched schools. Visual line graphs and descriptive tables were used to describe differences in graduation and attendance rates between the target CPS school of the study and five matched non-CPS schools during the 14 years of the study (2003-2017). Graduation and attendance rates for seven years before the CPS model was introduced (2003-2010) and seven years after the CPS model was introduced (2010-2017) were compared to the graduation and attendance rates for the same time periods of the five non-CPS comparison high schools to determine trends.

CHAPTER 4
RESULTS

Introduction

This study's purpose was to identify and describe the nature and extent of the

relationship, if any, that existed between the Community Partnership Schools™ model

community school and the outcomes of graduation and attendance rates at one public high school

in Florida. The following two research questions guided the study:

1. In what ways and to what extent, if any, is the graduation rate at one CPS high school

    related to the implementation of a Community Partnership School (CPS) model?

    a. What is the overall trend for the graduation rate from 2003-04 to 2016-17?

    b. What difference, if any, exists between the graduation rate before and after

        implementation of the CPS model?

    c. What difference, if any, exists between the trend in the graduation rate before and

        after implementation of the CPS model?

2. In what ways and to what extent, if any, is the attendance rate at one CPS high school

    related to the implementation of a Community Partnership School (CPS) model?

    a. What is the overall trend for the attendance rate from 2003-04 to 2016-17?

    b. What difference, if any, exists between the attendance rate before and after

        implementation of the CPS model?

    c. What difference, if any, exists between the trend in the attendance rate before and

        after implementation of the CPS model?

This chapter contains the results of the study. The presentation of the analysis of the data has been organized around the two research questions and their sub questions, all of which guided the study.

Data Analysis for Research Question 1: Graduation Rate

Research Question 1a

What is the overall trend for the graduation rate from 2003-04 to 2016-17?

To respond to this question, the researcher analyzed the yearly graduation rates for the CPS school and the five non-CPS schools over a 14-year period of time, from 2003-2017 (see Figure 1). To parallel and augment the visual analysis of Figure 1, a cross-tabulation (see Table 2) was used to quantify patterns that were identified via visual analysis.

The graduation rate of the CPS school fluctuated from year to year over the 14 years of the study (2003-2017), but an overall upward trend was identified, particularly from 2009-2010 forward when the graduation rate improved every year except for two. Similar to the CPS school, the trend of the graduation rates for the five non-CPS schools improved over the 14 years of the study. An overall graduation rate gain of 18.4% was identified for the CPS school from the start of the study in 2003-2004 (65.5%) to the final year of the study in 2016-2017 (83.9%). The largest graduation rate gain of the five non-CPS schools from the start to the end of the 14-year study was an increase of 46.4% (non-CPS School 5, from 44.6% in 2003-2004 to 91% in 2016-2017). The smallest graduation rate gain of the five non-CPS schools from the start to the end of the 14-year study was an increase of 13.9% (non-CPS School 4, from 63.3% in 2003-2004 to 77.2% in 2016-2017).
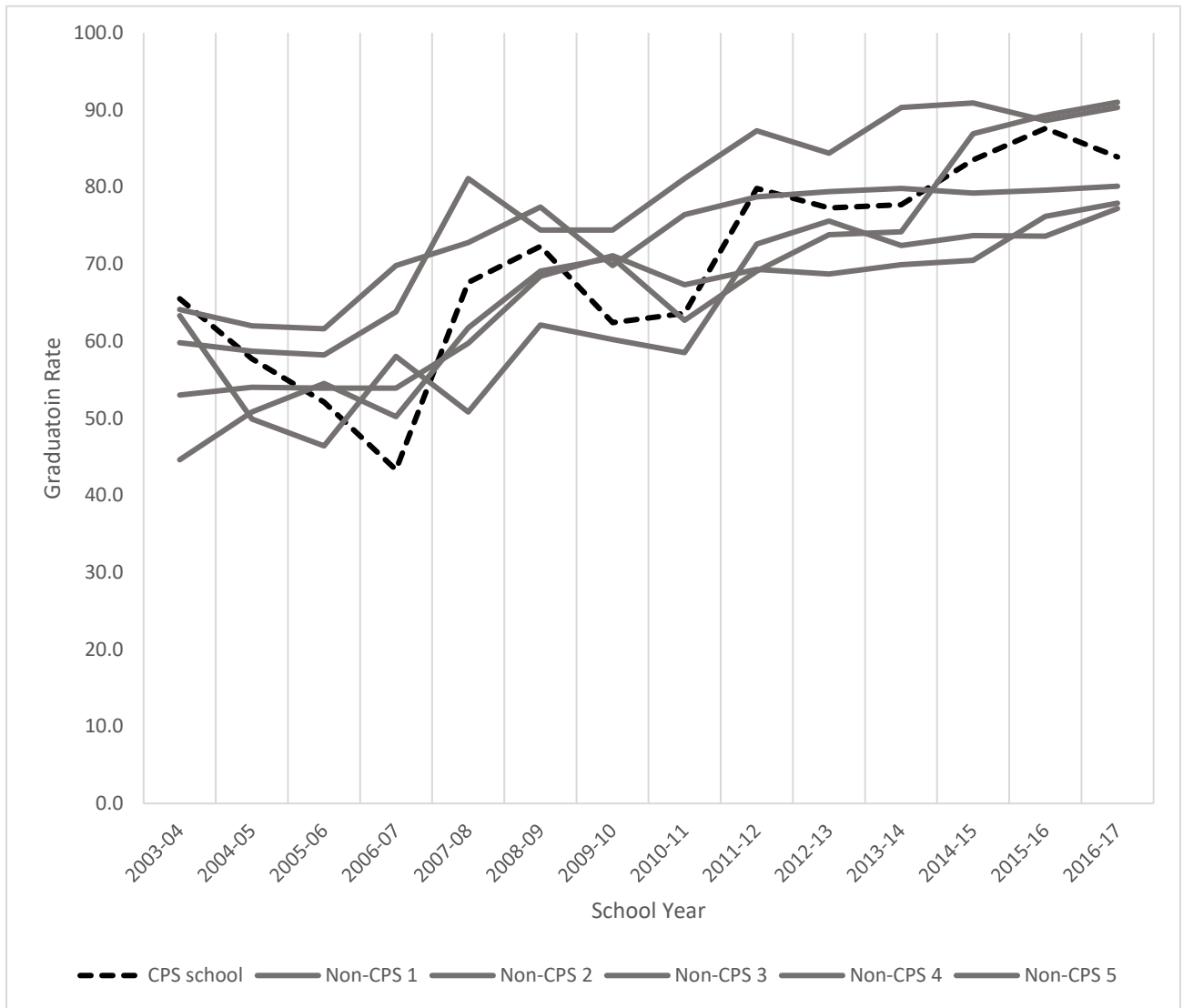
Figure 1. Graduation rates for Community Partnership Schools (CPS) and Non-CPS schools:
2003-04 to 2016-17

Table 2

Graduation Rates for CPS and Non-CPS Schools: 2003-04 to 2016-17

	Percentages: Community Partnership School (CPS) and Comparison Schools					
Years	CPS	School 1	School 2	School 3	School 4	School 5
2003-04	65.5	59.8	64.1	53.0	63.3	44.6
2004-05	57.7	58.7	62.0	54.0	49.9	50.8
2005-06	52.1	58.2	61.6	53.9	46.4	54.5
2006-07	43.3	63.8	69.8	53.9	58.0	50.2
2007-08	67.6	81.1	72.8	59.7	50.8	61.7
2008-09	72.3	74.4	77.4	68.4	62.1	69.1
2009-10	62.4	74.4	69.8	71.1	60.2	70.8
2010-11	63.6	81.1	76.4	67.3	58.5	62.7
2011-12	79.8	87.3	78.7	69.3	72.6	69.1
2012-13	77.3	84.4	79.4	68.7	75.6	73.8
2013-14	77.7	90.3	79.8	69.9	72.4	74.2
2014-15	83.5	90.9	79.2	70.5	73.7	86.9
2015-16	87.6	88.6	79.6	76.2	73.6	89.3
2016-17	83.9	90.3	80.1	77.9	77.2	91.0

For the CPS school, a difference of 44.3 percentage points existed between lowest graduation rate (43.3% in 2006-2007) and the highest graduation rate (87.6% in 2015-2016) during the 14 years of the study. Of the five CPS comparison schools, non-CPS School 5 had the greatest difference, 46.4 percentage points between the lowest graduation rate and the highest graduation rate during the 14 years of the study (44.6% in 2003-2004 to 91% in 2016-2017). The smallest span of difference between the lowest and highest graduation rates over the 14 years of the study of all the non-CPS schools was 16 percentage points (non-CPS School 2, from 64.1% in 2003-2004 to 80.1% in 2016-2017).

The trend for the CPS school graduation rate declined annually for the first three years of the study, from 2003-2004 to 2006-2007, with graduation rates of 65.5% in 2003-2004 to 43.3%

in 2006-2007 (a three-year total decline of 22.2%). For the first two years of the study, from 2003-2004 to 2004-2005, the non-CPS school graduation rates varied in direction; three non-CPS school remained relatively the same (non-CPS Schools 1, 2, 3), one non-CPS school improved each year for a total 9.9 percentage points of improvement (non-CPS School 5), and one non-CPS school declined each year by an overall two-year difference of 16.9 percentage points (non-CPS School 4). From 2005-2006 to 2006-2007, non-CPS school graduation rates again varied in direction; one non-CPS school remained flat (non-CPS School 3), three improved (non-CPS Schools 1, 2, and 4), and one non-CPS school declined (non-CPS School 5) along with the CPS school.

The CPS school's graduation rate improved over the next two years, increasing to 67.7% in 2007-2008 and 72.3% in 2008-2009 (two-year improvement of 4.6 percentage points). All five of the non-CPS schools also had overall two-year gains, though one non-CPS school initially declined in 2007-2008 (non-CPS School 4 from 58.0% in 2006-2007 to 50.8% in 2007-2008) before improving in 2008-2009 (62.1%). In 2009-2010, the CPS school graduation rate declined beyond the two-year earlier 2007-2008 graduation rate of 67.7% to 62.4%. Two of the non-CPS schools also declined in 2009-2010 (non-CPS Schools 2 and 4), though only one declined beyond 2007-2008 levels. The other three non-CPS school 2009-2010 graduation rates were either flat (non-CPS School 1) or improved (non-CPS Schools 3 and 5).

A slight increase of the CPS school graduation rate occurred in 2010-2011, up to 63.6% from the 2009-2010 62.4% (up by 1.2 percentage points). Two of the non-CPS school graduation rates also improved in 2010-2011 (non-CPS School 1 up by 6.7 percentage points and non-CPS School 2 up by 6.6 percentage points). The other non-CPS schools declined in 2010-2011 (non-

CPS School 3 down by 3.8 percentage points, non-CPS School 4 down by 1.7 percentage points, non-CPS School 5 down by 8.1 percentage points). From 2010-2011 to 2011-2012, the CPS school and the five non-CPS school graduation rates improved, with the CPS school improving by the greatest percentage (79.8% in 2011-2012, up by 16.2 percentage points) while non-CPS schools improved by two percentage points (non-CPS School 3) to 14.1 percentage points (non-CPS School 4).

For the next two years, the CPS school and graduation rates of the three non-CPS schools (non-CPS Schools 2, 3, and 4) remained relatively flat while graduation rates increased in the other two non-CPS schools (non-CPS Schools 1, 5). During the next two years, the CPS school graduation improved from 77.7% in 2013-2014 to 83.5% in 2014-2015 and increased to 87.6% again in 2015-2016, up by 9.9 percentage points in two years. The non-CPS school graduation rates during the same two years varied, with three of the non-CPS school graduation rates remaining relatively flat (non-CPS Schools 1, 2, and 4), and the other two improving over the two years (non-CPS School 3 up by 6.3 percentage points and non-CPS School 5 up by 15.1 percentage points from 2013-2014 to 2015-2016). In 2016-17, the final year of the study, the CPS school graduation rate declined by 3.7 percentage points to 83.9%. All of the five non-CPS schools remained relatively flat (non-CPS School 2) or improved.

The two largest one-year improvements in the 14 years of the study of graduation rates for the CPS school occurred from 2006-2007 to 2007-2008 (up by 24.3 percentage points) and from 2010-2011 to 2011-2012 (up by 16.2 percentage points). The two largest one-year graduation rate improvements of all the non-CPS schools in the 14 years of the study also

occurred from 2006-2007 to 2007-2008 by non-CPS School 1 (up by 17.3 percentage points) and from 2010-2011 to 2011-2012 by non-CPS School 4 (up by 13.8 percentage points).

Research Question 1b

What difference, if any, exists between the graduation rate before and after implementation of the CPS model?

To answer this question, the researcher calculated the means of the reported annual graduation rates for the CPS school and the five non-CPS comparison high schools before and after CPS implementation. As shown in Table 3, the mean graduation rate from 2003-2010 before CPS implementation was 60.1%, and the mean graduation rate after CPS implementation was 79.1%, a difference of 19 percentage points. The mean of the reported annual graduation rates from 2003-2010 for the five non-CPS comparison schools before CPS implementation was 61.6%, and the mean graduation rate after CPS implementation was 77.6%, a difference of 16 percentage points. The increase in mean graduation rates (pre-CPS implementation to post-CPS implementation) of the CPS school was three percentage points more than the same increase among non-CPS comparison schools for the same time frames (i.e., a 19 percentage point increase versus a 16 percentage point increase).

Table 3

Means of Reported Annual Graduation Rates Pre- vs. Post-CPS Implementation for All Schools (2003-04 to 2016-17)

Schools	Pre-CPS (2003-2010)	Post-CPS (2010-2017)	Difference %
Community Partnership School (CPS)	60.1	79.1	19
Non-CPS Comparison Schools 1-5	61.6	77.6	16

Table 4 displays the mean graduation rates by school. As shown, the mean graduation rate before CPS implementation of non-CPS comparison School 1 was 67.2%, and the mean graduation rate after CPS implementation was 87.6%, a difference of 20.4 percentage points. The mean graduation rate from 2003-2010 before CPS implementation of non-CPS comparison School 2 was 68.2%, and the mean graduation rate after CPS implementation was 79%, a difference of 10.8 percentage points. The mean graduation rate before CPS implementation of non-CPS comparison School 3 was 59.1%, and the mean graduation rate after CPS implementation was 71.4%, a difference of 12.3 percentage points. The mean graduation rate before CPS implementation of non-CPS comparison School 4 was 55.8%, and the mean graduation rate after CPS implementation was 71.9%, a difference of 16.1 percentage points. The mean graduation rate before CPS implementation of non-CPS comparison School 5 was 57.4%, and the mean graduation rate after CPS implementation was 78.1%, a difference of 20.7 percentage points.

Table 4

Mean Graduation Rate Pre- and Post-CPS Implementation for CPS School and Non-CPS
Comparison Schools (2003-04 to 2016-17)

Schools	Pre-CPS (2003-2010)	Post-CPS (2010-2017)	Difference
Community Partnership School (CPS)	60.1	79.1	19.0
Non-CPS Comparison 1	67.2	87.6	20.4
Non-CPS Comparison 2	68.2	79.0	10.8
Non-CPS Comparison 3	59.1	71.4	12.3
Non-CPS Comparison 4	55.8	71.9	16.1
Non-CPS Comparison 5	57.4	78.1	20.7

Research Question 1c

What difference, if any, exists between the trend in the graduation rate before and after
implementation of the CPS model?

To answer this research question, the researcher analyzed trends in both the CPS school
and non-CPS comparison schools in graduation rates for the seven years before CPS
implementation and the seven years after CPS implementation. To parallel and augment the
visual analysis shown in Figure 2, a cross-tabulation (Table 5) was used to quantify patterns that
were identified via visual analysis.

The CPS school graduation rate fluctuated over the seven years before CPS
implementation from 2003-2004 to 2010-2011, with an overall decline of 1.9 percentage points
from a 2003-2004 graduation rate of 65.5% to a 2010-2011 graduation rate of 63.6%. The five
non-CPS comparison schools also fluctuated over the seven years before CPS implementation,
but four of the five non-CPS schools improved the graduation rates from 2003-2004 to 2010-
2011; only non-CPS School 4 was identified with a declined graduation rate of 4.8 percentage

points by the end of 2010-2011 (2003-2004 graduation rate of 63.3% and 2010-2011 graduation rate of 58.5%).

Over the seven years after CPS implementation, the graduation rate for the CPS school increased overall. The greatest one-year difference in graduation rate occurred after year one of CPS implementation from 2010-2011 (63.6%) to 2011-2012 (79.8%), a gain of 16.2 percentage points. The CPS school graduation rate improved by 20.3 percentage points over the seven years of CPS implementation, up from 63.6% in 2010-2011 to 83.9% in 2016-2017, and reached the school's highest graduation rate of the 14 years of the study in 2015-2016 of 87.6%. The five non-CPS comparison schools also improved graduation rates over the seven years after CPS implementation, but four of the five did not have as large of a graduation rate improvement as the CPS school from 2010-2017 (non-CPS 1, 2, 3, 4).

Figure 2. Graduation rate trends for CPS school rates for CPS school and non-CPS comparison schools before (2003-04 to 2009-10) and after CPS implementation (2010-11 to 2016-17).

Table 5

Trends in Graduation Rates for CPS and Non-CPS Schools: Comparison of 2003-04 to 2009-10 and 2010-11 to 2016-17

	Percentages: Community Partnership School (CPS) and Comparison Schools					
Years	CPS	School 1	School 2	School 3	School 4	School 5
2003-04	65.5	59.8	64.1	53.0	63.3	44.6
2004-05	57.7	58.7	62.0	54.0	49.9	50.8
2005-06	52.1	58.2	61.6	53.9	46.4	54.5
2006-07	43.3	63.8	69.8	53.9	58.0	50.2
2007-08	67.6	81.1	72.8	59.7	50.8	61.7
2008-09	72.3	74.4	77.4	68.4	62.1	69.1
2009-10	62.4	74.4	69.8	71.1	60.2	70.8
2010-11	63.6	81.1	76.4	67.3	58.5	62.7
2011-12	79.8	87.3	78.7	69.3	72.6	69.1
2012-13	77.3	84.4	79.4	68.7	75.6	73.8
2013-14	77.7	90.3	79.8	69.9	72.4	74.2
2014-15	83.5	90.9	79.2	70.5	73.7	86.9
2015-16	87.6	88.6	79.6	76.2	73.6	89.3
2016-17	83.9	90.3	80.1	77.9	77.2	91.0

Data Analysis for Research Question 2: Attendance Rate

Research Question 2a

What is the overall trend for the attendance rate from 2003-04 to 2016-17?

To respond to this question, the researcher analyzed the yearly attendance rates for the CPS school and the five non-CPS schools over a 14-year period of time. To parallel and augment the visual analysis presented in Figure 3, a cross-tabulation (Table 6) was used to quantify patterns that were identified via visual analysis.
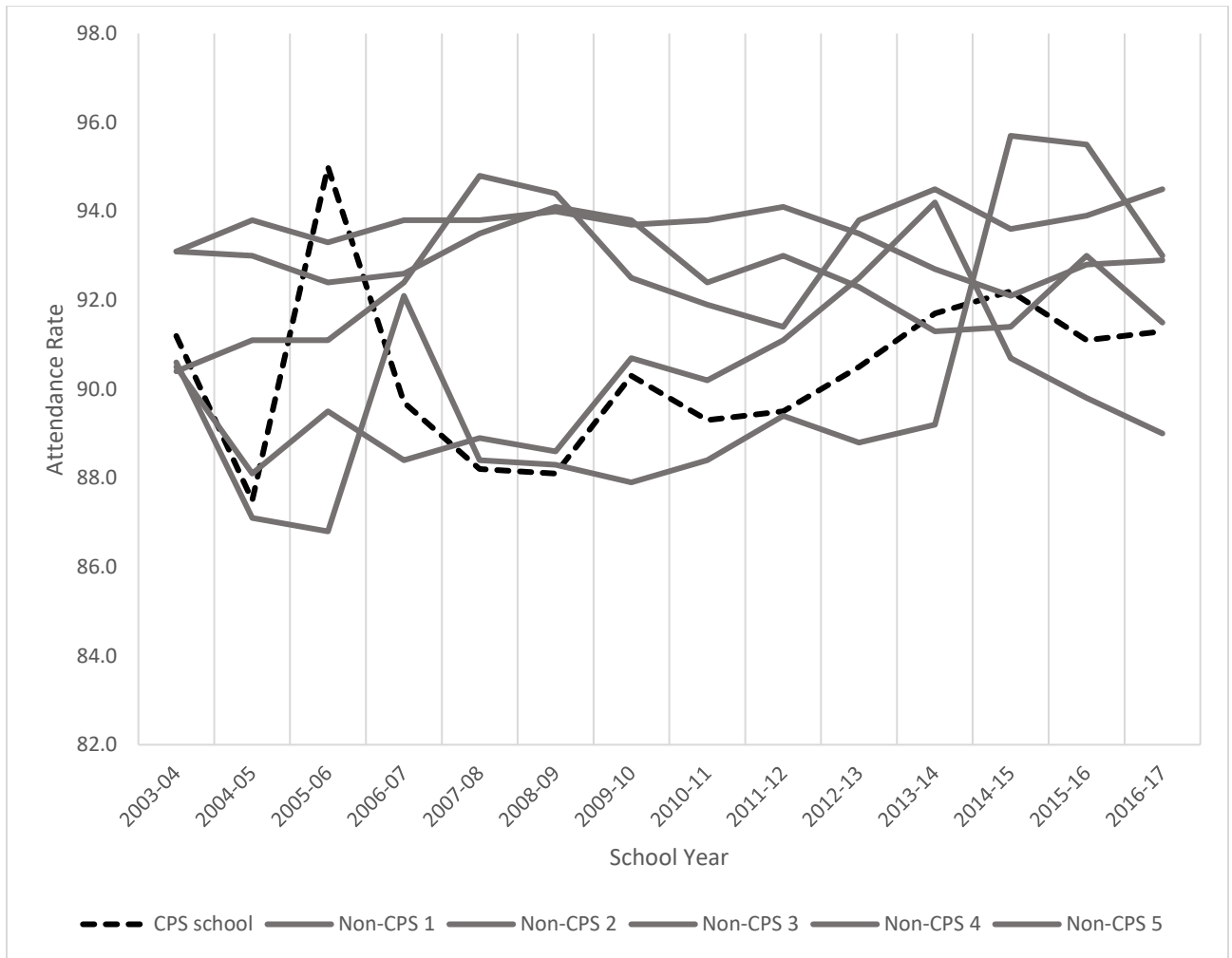
Figure 3. Attendance rates for CPS and Non-CPS schools: 2003-04 to 2016-17.

Table 6

Attendance Rates for CPS and Non-CPS Schools: 2003-04 to 2016-17

	Percentages: Community Partnership School (CPS) and Comparison Schools					
Years	CPS	School 1	School 2	School 3	School 4	School 5
2003-04	91.2	90.6	93.1	93.1	90.4	90.5
2004-05	87.5	87.1	93.8	93.0	91.1	88.1
2005-06	95.0	86.8	93.3	92.4	91.1	89.5
2006-07	89.7	92.1	93.8	92.6	92.4	88.4
2007-08	88.2	88.4	93.8	92.5	94.8	88.9
2008-09	88.1	88.3	94.0	94.1	94.4	88.6
2009-10	90.3	87.9	93.7	93.8	92.5	90.7
2010-11	89.3	88.4	93.8	92.4	91.9	90.2
2011-12	89.5	89.4	94.1	93.0	91.4	91.1
2012-13	90.5	88.8	93.5	92.3	93.8	92.5
2013-14	91.7	89.2	92.7	91.3	94.5	94.2
2014-15	92.2	95.7	92.1	91.4	93.6	90.7
2015-16	91.1	95.5	92.8	93.0	93.9	89.8
2016-17	91.3	90.3	92.9	91.5	94.5	89.0

The attendance rates of the CPS school and the non-CPS schools fluctuated from year to year over the 14 years of the study (2003-2017). The CPS school showed an overall gain from 2003-2004 to 2016-2017 of .1 percentage point (91.2% in 2003-2004 to 91.3% in 2016-2017). The change in overall attendance rates of the non-CPS schools varied over the 14 years of the study; three non-CPS schools had lower attendance rates in 2016-2017 than in 2003-2004 (non-CPS Schools 2, 3, and 5), and two had higher attendance rates in 2016-2017 than in 2003-2004 (non-CPS Schools 1, and 4). For the CPS school, a difference of 7.5 percentage points existed between the lowest attendance rate (87.5% in 2004-2005) and the highest attendance rate (95.0% in 2005-2006) over the 14 years of the study. Of the five non-CPS comparison schools, non-CPS School 1 had the greatest difference of 8.9 percentage points between the lowest attendance rate

and the highest attendance rate over the 14 years of the study (86.8% in 2005-2006 to 95.7% in 2014-2015). The smallest difference of the five non-CPS schools between the lowest and highest attendance rates over the 14 years of the study was 2 percentage points (non-CPS School 2 from 92.1% in 2014-2015 to 94.1% in 2011-2012).

During the first year of the study, the CPS school attendance rate declined by 3.7 percentage points (2003-2004 was 91.2% and 2004-2005 was 87.5%). Non-CPS school attendance rates varied in direction; two non-CPS school showed similar declining attendance rates in year one (non-CPS Schools 1 and 5), one non-CPS school remained relatively flat (non-CPS School 3), and two improved slightly (non-CPS Schools 2 and 4). In year two, the CPS school showed the largest attendance rate improvement of the 14 years of the study, with a 7.5 percentage point gain from 87.5% in 2004-2005 to a 95.0% in 2005-2006. Again, the non-CPS school attendance rates varied in direction from 2004-2005 to 2005-2006; one non-CPS school improved by 1.4 percentage points (non-CPS School 5), one remained flat (non-CPS School 4), and three declined (non-CPS 1, 2, and 3). The CPS school had the largest decline of the 14-year study from 2005-2006, down by 5.3 percentage points, and continued to decline in 2007-2008 and in 2008-2009. No non-CPS school showed similar trends in 2005-2006 and 2007-2008, with four of the schools improving and one declining by 1.1 percentage points. Similar CPS school trends were seen in non-CPS schools from 2007-2008 to 2008-2009, however, with three of the five non-CPS schools declining slightly (non-CPS Schools 1, 4, and 5), and two of the non-CPS schools improving by less than 1 percentage point (non-CPS Schools 2 and 3). The CPS school attendance rate improved from 2008-2009 to 2009-2010, up by 2.2 percentage points. Non-CPS School 5 similarly improved, up by 2.1 percentage points. All other non-CPS school attendance

rates declined in 2009-2010. After a 1 percentage point decline in attendance rate in 2010-2011, the CPS school attendance rate improved each year over the next four years, from 89.3% in 2010-2011 to 92.2% in 2014-2015, an improvement of 2.9 percentage points. Non-CPS School 5 also improved from 2010-2011 to 2013-2014, but showed a 3.5 percentage point one-year decline in 2014-2015. Non-CPS School 1 attendance rates fluctuated from 2010-2011 to 2013-2014 and showed a 6.5 percentage point jump in 2014-2015. After a decline in 2011-2012, non-CPS School 4 also improved in 2011-2012 and 2012-2013, but showed a slight decline in 2014-2015. The other two non-CPS school attendance rates varied but trended down from 2010-2011 to 2014-2015 (non-CPS Schools 2 and 3). The CPS school declined slightly in 2015-2016 (from 92.2% in 2014-2015 to 91.1% in 2015-2016), and gained .2 percentage points in 2016-2017 (from 91.1% to 91.3%). Non-CPS school attendance rates varied the last two years of the study (2015-2016 and 2016-2017); two non-CPS schools showed two-year declines (non-CPS Schools 1 and 5), two non-CPS school improved (non-CPS Schools 2 and 4), and one improved and then declined (non-CPS School 3).

Research Question 2b

What difference, if any, exists between the attendance rate before and after implementation of the CPS model?

To answer this question, the researcher calculated the mean of the reported annual attendance rates for the CPS school and the five non-CPS comparison high schools before and after CPS implementation. As shown in Table 7, the mean attendance rate from 2003-2010 before CPS implementation was 90%, and the mean attendance rate from 2010-2017 after CPS implementation was 90.8%, a difference of .8 percentage points. The mean of the reported

annual attendance rates from 2003-2010 of the five non-CPS comparison schools before CPS implementation was 91.4%, and the mean attendance rate after CPS implementation was 92.2%, a difference of .8 percentage points. No change existed in mean attendance rates (pre-CPS implementation to post-CPS implementation) of the CPS school and non-CPS comparison schools for the same time frames (i.e. .8 point difference versus a .8 point difference).

Table 7

Means of the Reported Annual Attendance Rates Pre- and Post-CPS Implementation for All Schools (2003-04 to 2016-17)

Schools	Pre-CPS (2003-2010)	Post-CPS (2010-2017)	Difference
CPS School	90.0	90.8	0.8
Non-CPS Comparison Schools 1-5	91.4	92.2	0.8

Table 8 displays the mean attendance rates by school. As shown in Table 8, the mean attendance rate before CPS implementation of non-CPS comparison School 1 was 88.7%, and the mean attendance rate after CPS implementation was 91.4%, a difference of 2.7 percentage points. The mean attendance rate before CPS implementation of non-CPS comparison School 2 was 93.6%, and the mean attendance rate after CPS implementation was 93.1%, a difference of -0.5 percentage points. The mean attendance rate before CPS implementation of non-CPS comparison School 3 was 93.2%, and the mean attendance rate after CPS implementation was 92.1%, a difference of -1.1 percentage points. The mean attendance rate before CPS implementation of non-CPS comparison School 4 was 92.4%, and the mean attendance rate after CPS implementation was 93.3%, a difference of 0.9 percentage points. The mean attendance rate

before CPS implementation of non-CPS comparison School 5 was 89.2%, and the mean

attendance rate after CPS implementation was 91%, a difference of 1.8 percentage points.

Table 8

Mean Attendance Rate Pre- vs. Post-CPS Implementation for All Schools (2003-04 to 2016-17)

Schools	Pre-CPS (2003-2010)	Post-CPS (2010-2017)	Difference
Community Partnership School (CPS)	90.0	90.8	.8
Non-CPS Comparison 1	88.7	91.4	2.7
Non-CPS Comparison 2	93.6	93.1	-0.5
Non-CPS Comparison 3	93.2	92.1	-1.1
Non-CPS Comparison 4	92.4	93.3	0.9
Non-CPS Comparison 5	89.2	91.0	1.8

Research Question 2c

What difference, if any, exists between the trend in the attendance rate before and after

implementation of the CPS model?

To respond to this research question, the researcher analyzed trends in attendance rates in

both the CPS school and non-CPS comparison schools for the seven years before CPS

implementation and the seven years after CPS implementation. To parallel and augment the

visual analysis presented in Figure 4, a cross-tabulation (Table 9) was used to quantify patterns
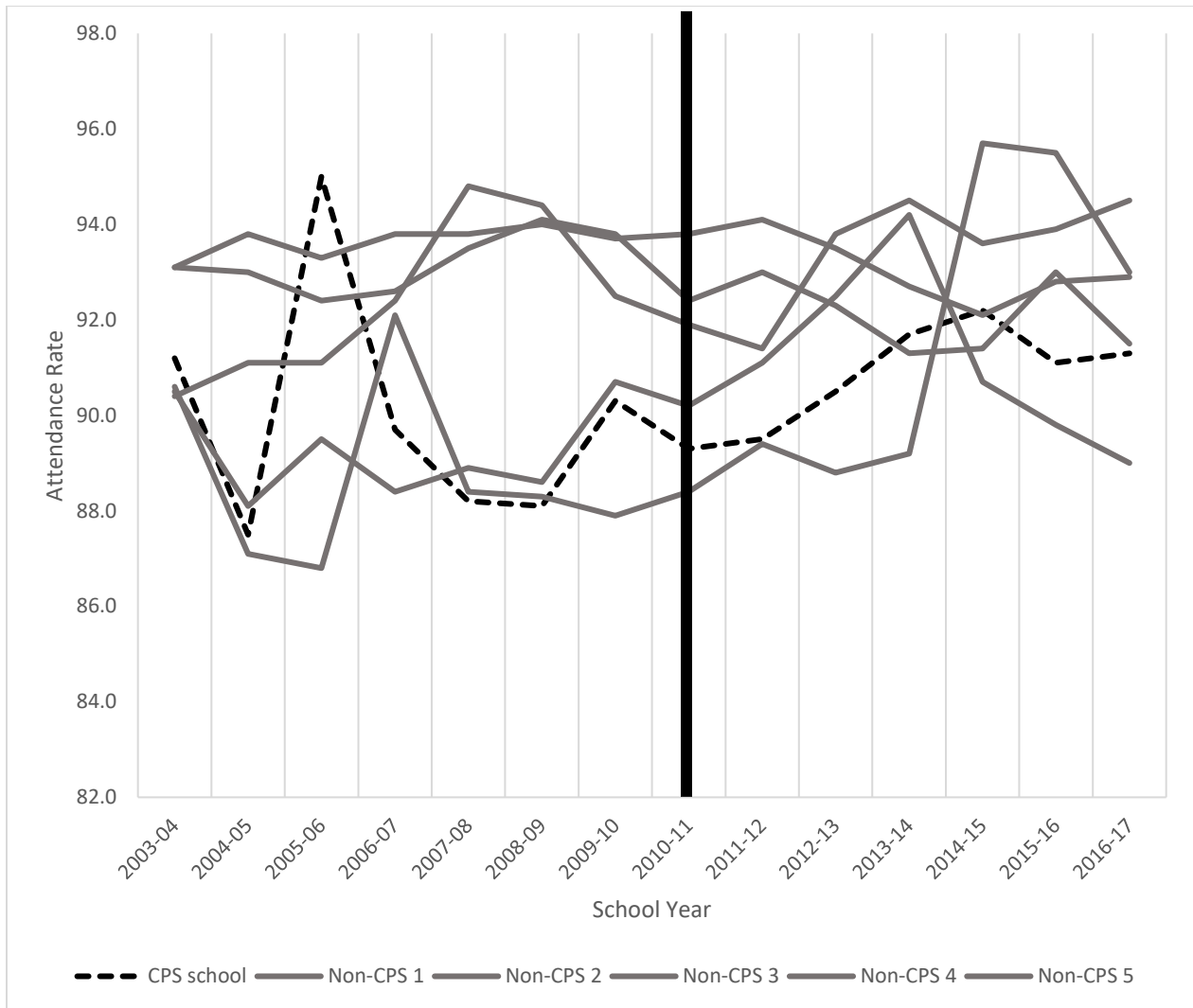
that were identified via visual analysis.

Figure 4. Trends in attendance rates for CPS school and non-CPS comparison schools before (2003-04 to 2009-10) and after (2010-11 to 2016-17) CPS implementation.

Table 9

Trends in Attendance Rates for CPS and Non-CPS Schools: 2003-04 to 2016-17

	Percentages: Community Partnership School (CPS) and Comparison Schools					
Years	CPS	School 1	School 2	School 3	School 4	School 5
2003-04	91.2	90.6	93.1	93.1	90.4	90.5
2004-05	87.5	87.1	93.8	93.0	91.1	88.1
2005-06	95.0	86.8	93.3	92.4	91.1	89.5
2006-07	89.7	92.1	93.8	92.6	92.4	88.4
2007-08	88.2	88.4	93.8	92.5	94.8	88.9
2008-09	88.1	88.3	94.0	94.1	94.4	88.6
2009-10	90.3	87.9	93.7	93.8	92.5	90.7
2010-11	89.3	88.4	93.8	92.4	91.9	90.2
2011-12	89.5	89.4	94.1	93.0	91.4	91.1
2012-13	90.5	88.8	93.5	92.3	93.8	92.5
2013-14	91.7	89.2	92.7	91.3	94.5	94.2
2014-15	92.2	95.7	92.1	91.4	93.6	90.7
2015-16	91.1	95.5	92.8	93.0	93.9	89.8
2016-17	91.3	90.3	92.9	91.5	94.5	89.0

The CPS school graduation rate fluctuated over the seven years before CPS implementation from 2003-2004 to 2010-2011, with an overall decline of 1.9 percentage points from a 2003-2004 attendance rate of 91.2% in 2003-2004 to a 2010-2011 attendance rate of 89.3%. The five non-CPS comparison schools also fluctuated over the seven years before CPS implementation. Three non-CPS comparison school attendance rates declined from 2003-2004 to 2010-2011 (non-CPS Schools 1, 3, and 5), and two non-CPS comparison school attendance rates improved (non-CPS Schools 2 and 4).

Over the seven years after CPS implementation, the attendance rate for the CPS school increased by two percentage points (89.3% in 2010-2011 to 91.3% in 2016-2017). A gradual

improvement in attendance rate was shown from 2010-2011 to 2014-2015 when the CPS school reached a 92.2% attendance rate before declining by 1.1 percentage points in 2015-2016. Two of the five non-CPS schools also showed improved attendance rates over the seven years after CPS implementation (non-CPS Schools 1 and 4), but none showed the sustained year-to-year improvement in attendance rates of the CPS school (2010-2011 to 2014-2015). Overall attendance rates for three non-CPS schools (non-CPS Schools 2, 3, and 5) declined after CPS implementation from 2010-2011 to 2016-2017.

Summary

The trends indicated that both the CPS school and non-CPS comparison school graduation rates improved over the 14 years of the study (2003-2017). Although no single non-CPS comparison school followed the exact same trend line as the CPS school, some similarities between individual non-CPS schools and the CPS school existed by year over the 14 years of the study. The CPS school and non-CPS School 4 declined over the years before CPS implementation from 2003-2004 to 2010-2011. Though four of the five non-CPS comparison schools (non-CPS Schools 1, 2, 3, 4) did not have as large a graduation rate range gain as did the CPS school from 2010-2017, the graduation rates of all six schools improved over the seven years after CPS implementation (2010-2017). The CPS school and five non-CPS schools showed some improvement the first year of CPS implementation from 2010-2011 to 2011-2012 (the CPS school was most improved, up by 16.2 percentage points). The increase in mean graduation rates (pre-CPS implementation 2003-2010 to post-CPS implementation 2010-2017) of the CPS school was three percentage points more than the same increase among non-CPS comparison schools from the same time frames (i.e., a 19-point increase versus a 16-point increase).

Attendance rates for the CPS school and the five non-CPS schools varied over the 14 years of the study, with three non-CPS schools ending lower in the final year of the study (2016-2017) than the starting year (2003-2004). No single non-CPS comparison school followed the exact same trend line of the CPS school, though similarities existed between individual schools and the CPS school in some years during the 14 years of the study. Though the CPS school declined over the seven years before CPS implementation (2003-2010), it trended upward over the seven years after CPS implementation (2010-2017) and had the longest number of years of successive improvement of all schools in the study beginning with the year of CPS implementation (2010-2011). Non-CPS School 5 showed a similar trend with a strong improvement for three of the four years the CPS improved after CPS implementation, but it sharply declined in the three following years. No change was observed in mean attendance rates (pre-CPS implementation to post-CPS implementation) of the CPS school and non-CPS comparison schools for the same time frames (i.e., .8 percentage point difference for CPS and non-CPS schools).

CHAPTER 5
SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter contains a discussion of the findings of the study. Chapter 5 includes a

restatement of the purpose, a discussion of the findings for the two research questions and the

results of the data analysis, limitations of the study, implications for policy and practice,

recommendations for future research, and a final summary.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to identify and describe the nature and extent of the

relationship, if any, that existed between the CPS model community school and the outcomes of

graduation rate and attendance rate at one public high school in Florida. Graduation and

attendance rates of the CPS school for seven years before CPS model community school

introduction (2003-2010) and seven years after the CPS model community school introduction

(2010-2017) were compared to the graduation and attendance rates for the same time frames of

five matched comparison schools that had not introduced the CPS model community school.

Discussion of Findings

This section contains a discussion of the findings for the two research questions which

guided the study.

Research Question 1

In what ways and to what extent, if any, is the graduation rate at one CPS high school related to

the implementation of a Community Partnership Schools™ (CPS) model?

a. *What is the overall trend for the graduation rate from 2003-04 to 2016-17?*

b. *What difference, if any, exists between the graduation rate before and after implementation of the CPS model?*

c. *What difference, if any, exists between the trend in the graduation rate before and after implementation of the CPS model?*

For Research Question 1a, the results of the analysis showed a clear upward overall trajectory of the graduation rate for the Community Partnership School over the 14 years of the study, particularly in later years. The graduation rate results for the comparison schools also trended upward over the 14 years. All non-CPS comparison school graduation rates were lower than the CPS school's graduation rate the first year of the study in 2003-2004, but the CPS school declined over the next three years. Of the six schools included in the study, the CPS school had the lowest graduation rate of all schools in 2006-2007 (43.3%), before CPS implementation. Though the CPS school had an overall graduation rate gain of 18.4 percentage points over the 14 years (from 65.5% in 2003-2004 to 83.9% in 2016-2017), the CPS school had the second highest absolute gain of 44.6 percentage points, moving from the lowest graduation rate of all six schools before CPS implementation in 2006-2007 (43.3%) to the third highest graduation rate of the six schools after CPS implementation in 2015-2016 (87.6%). Of note, after a slight graduation rate decline in 2016-2017 of 3.7 percentage points, data obtained after the completion of this study showed the CPS school graduation rate increased to a high of 88% in 2017-2018.

The results for Research Question 1b indicated that gains in graduation rates were more pronounced in the CPS school than the gains of the five comparison schools combined. Results showed that the increase in mean graduation rates (pre-CPS implementation to post-CPS

implementation) of the CPS school was three percentage points more than the same increase among non-CPS comparison schools for the same time frames (i.e., a 19-point increase versus a 16 point increase).

For Research Question 1c, the analysis of the graduation rates results suggested that graduation rates in the CPS school were improving with the implementation of the CPS model. It was, however, difficult to draw a definitive conclusion because comparison schools showed similar upward trends in graduation rates overall, albeit not as pronounced as the CPS school in some cases. Though fluctuations existed and an overall upward trend of the graduation rates for the CPS school and the five comparison schools occurred over the 14 years of the study, a noticeable change was observed in the CPS trend line after CPS implementation, from 2010-2011 forward.

The graduation rate improved every year for the CPS school with the exception of two years, 2012-2013 and 2016-2017. The CPS school ranked last among all schools in graduation rate gain before CPS implementation (from 2003-2004 to 2009-2010), with a declining graduation rate of 3.1 percentage points, but showed the second highest graduation gain of the six schools after implementation (from 2010-2011 to 2016-2017) with a 20.6 percentage point gain. After the first full year of CPS implementation (from 2010-2011 to 2011-2012), the CPS school showed the largest gain, up by 16.2 percentage points, of any school in that time frame. After CPS implementation in 2010, the CPS school made the second largest absolute gain of 24 percentage points (63.6% in 2010-11 to 87.6% in 2015-2016) which was 9.78 percentage points higher than the average gain of the five comparison schools.

Research Question 2

In what ways and to what extent, if any, is the attendance rate at one CPS high school related to the implementation of a Community Partnership School (CPS) model?

　　　a. *What is the overall trend for the attendance rate from 2003-04 to 2016-17?*

　　　b. *What difference, if any, exists between the attendance rate before and after implementation of the CPS model?*

　　　c. *What difference, if any, exists between the trend in the attendance rate before and after implementation of the CPS model?*

For Research Question 2a, no discernable attendance rate trends over the 14 years of the study were identified to inform the research question; data points fluctuated in direction with a relatively narrow constraint (roughly 10 percentage points from 86% to 96%). It is important to note that the CPS school attendance rate of 95% in 2003-2004 appeared to be an anomaly; the 95% did not match the general trend of the school. If the 2003-2004 attendance rate data point of 95% were to be removed, a slight upward trend might be identified overall for the CPS school.

For Research Question 2b, no differences of substance were identified between the CPS school and the other schools in attendance rate. No change was calculated in mean attendance rates (pre-CPS to post-CPS implementation) of the CPS school and non-CPS comparison schools for the same time frames (i.e. .8 point differences for both).

The results of the analysis of attendance rates to respond to Research Question 2c suggested an association between the Community Partnership School implementation and attendance rates trends before and after implementation of the CPS model. Though fluctuations existed in the attendance rates for the CPS school and the five comparison schools over the 14

years of the study, a noticeable change was evident in the CPS attendance rate trend line after CPS implementation from 2010-2011 forward. Although the CPS school declined in attendance rate over the seven years before CPS implementation (2003-2010), it trended upward over the seven years after CPS implementation (2010-2017) and had the greatest number of successive years of improvement of all of the schools in the study, beginning with the year of CPS implementation (2010-2011). The comparison school attendance rates showed no discernible trends after 2010-2011 (i.e., the schools fluctuated between increases and decreases in an apparently random sequence). The CPS school was ranked fifth of the six schools (CPS school and five comparison schools) in attendance rate gain before CPS implementation from 2003-2010, but ranked second highest after CPS implementation (with a noted 1.16 percentage gain over the average of the five comparison schools).

Limitations

This study was delimited to six high schools in a single district in a single state (the CPS school of interest and five purposely sampled non-CPS comparison high schools), and thus findings were not immediately generalizable. Because the CPS model was early in its development at the time of the study, with only one school in a maturing stage, the researcher's findings were based on limited results from one school that had implemented the CPS model. The findings may not represent the effect of the CPS model at other schools or grade levels (elementary schools or middle schools).

Outcome measures were delimited to graduation and attendance rates for the CPS high school and the five comparison non-CPS high schools for the school years 2003-2004 to 2016-2017. Although studies based exclusively on academic outcomes, graduation rates and

attendance rates have benefit, many of the important impact goals and possible effects of a Community Partnership School are often missed. It is important to note that the Community Partnership Schools™ model community school is not a dropout prevention program. Goals for the CPS model aim to transform schools, families, and communities over time in meaningful ways (e.g., improved education, health, climate, life success), and whole-school academic gains, behavior, and attendance measures are expected distal expectations of implementing the CPS model (CIS, 2018; Coalition for Community Schools, 2017; Heers et al., 2016; Oakes et al., 2017). Results of this study did not allow for understanding the relationship between the Community Partnership Schools™ model and impact on other intended outcome measures such as health indexes, school climate, and social-emotional well-being.

Although graduation and attendance rate improvement are expected distal outcomes of the CPS model, more direct outcomes were not represented in the findings of this study. All students attending Community Partnership Schools have access to CPS programs and services, but student utilization of Community Partnership School programs and services is based on need and choice. Delimiting to whole-school graduation and attendance rates for a Community Partnership School provides a diluted, though important, understanding of the effects of the Community Partnership School on whole-school outcomes, but it does not provide understanding of concentrated outcomes related to students directly utilizing CPS programs and services.

The comparison schools were the closest five high schools matched by the four contextual variables of race, socio-economic status, size, and exceptional student education (ESE). Other variables were not perfectly matched to the CPS model school. Comparison

schools may have offered interventions for improvement that could account for improvements not associated with the CPS model.

The interrupted time series (ITS) design is an ex post facto design. Direct causal inferences are not warranted because the independent variable could not be manipulated by the researcher (Lammers & Badia, 2005). However, visual analysis informed by single-case design principles did meet What Works Clearinghouse (WWC) design and evidence standards (Kratochwill et al., 2010).

Implications for Policy and Practice

This study showed that the Community Partnership Schools™ model community school may have had a positive effect on graduation and attendance rates at one school after implementing the CPS model, but definitive conclusions cannot be made based solely on this study. This study was initiated to add to the evidence-base of community schools and Community Partnership Schools, and to provide additional support to inform policymakers making programmatic and funding decisions. Results of the study should be considered alongside other Community Partnership School evaluations including Figlio's 2016 evaluation, *A Preliminary Evaluation of the Evans Community School and the Extant Literature on Community Schools*.

Rigorous evaluation of the Community Partnership Schools™ model community school continues to be difficult because only one CPS school in the target school district is in a maturing stage of development. The researcher recommends that a large-scale evaluation of the Community Partnership Schools™ model is funded in 2020 or later when more Community Partnership Schools have reached certification status or are beyond year five of implementation.

Though all students have access to Community Partnership School programs and services, utilization is based on need and choice. Capturing student-level data is necessary to understand the concentrated impact of those utilizing the Community Partnership School programs and services. It is recommended that data systems are funded and supported through policy and practice that allow school district and outside partner agency data to merge. Systems are needed to collect, view, and analyze data including (a) school academic, attendance, and behavioral data and (b) other holistic impacts such as extended learning opportunity utilization, family and community engagement programs, and wellness support services. A chief limitation of this study was the lack of available measures for such holistic impacts (the direct outcomes of the CPS model); the availability of such data in the future would allow researchers to better model the input-outcome dynamic and generate actionable results that can improve programs and support efforts to scale up and transfer the model to other sites.

As important as it is to study the effects of the Community Partnership Schools™ model on individual students utilizing services, it is recommended that Community Partnership Schools continually look for creative ways to work with larger groups of individuals within the population of the school. Strategies might include extended provider partnerships, marketing strategies, or expanded grant opportunities for needed programming.

<div align="center">Recommendations for Future Research</div>

1. It is recommended that a larger-scale evaluation of the Community Partnership Schools™ model takes place in 2020 or later when more Community Partnership Schools have reached certification status or are beyond year five of implementation.

2. In addition to studying outcome measures such as graduation and attendance rates, it is recommended that future studies include other measures such as health indexes, school climate, student engagement (with its component academic, affective, behavioral, and cognitive elements), and social emotional well-being to understand the broader holistic impact of the Community Partnership Schools™ model.

3. Beyond studying whole-school measures such as graduation and attendance rates, studies including student-level data are also recommended to understand concentrated CPS model impact on those specifically utilizing Community Partnership School programs and services.

4. It is recommended that researchers consider the use of qualitative data to capture attitudes and beliefs of students, teachers, administrators, and families about the Community Partnership Schools™ model implementation at their school. Focus group and stakeholder interviews can provide opportunities for refining program offerings and deeper understanding of causal relationships such as "How or why does access to the CPS programs/service change the way students perceive their schools or their futures?"

5. It is recommended that researchers study multiple Community Partnership Schools to determine trends that may exist in specific years of CPS implementation.

6. It is recommended that a future study of this kind be structured to collect and incorporate relevant information and data to identify and describe any salient interventions that are being implemented in comparison schools.

7. Longitudinal case studies are recommended to follow students through Community

    Partnership Schools into adulthood to understand long-term effects of the primary

    and/or secondary CPS supports.

Summary

The findings of this study suggest that the Community Partnership Schools™ model may have a positive effect on graduation rates at the targeted school, though definitive conclusions cannot be made because similar trends in graduation rates were also seen in comparison schools, albeit not as pronounced in some cases. Though no discernable trends could be determined in attendance rates over the 14 years of this study, the change in trend line after CPS implementation of the CPS school suggested a positive association between the Community Partnership Schools™ model and attendance rate at the targeted school. At worst, the CPS model had no negative impact on the outcomes of graduation and attendance rate.

It is recommended that studies are conducted of Community Partnership Schools that include not only distal whole-school outcomes, but student-level outcome measures and other intended impact measures such as social-emotional well-being and health indexes. It is difficult to draw any broad conclusions about the Community Partnership Schools™ model because only one school in a maturing stage was available to study. Considering this evaluation alongside other evaluations of Community Partnership Schools, however, may provide a general view of the model.

APPENDIX A
COMMUNITY PARTNERSHIP SCHOOLS™ (CPS) MODEL

Community Partnership Schools™ MODEL

Orlando, Florida

UCF

The **Community Partnership Schools™** model is a community school model in which four core community partners — a school district, university or college, nonprofit, and health care provider — commit to a long-term partnership to establish, develop and sustain the Community Partnership School.

How are Community Partnership Schools unique?

Four or More Partners. Each core community partner is essential to the success of the Community Partnership School. The partners work together to secure resources to address student, family and community needs.

> COMMUNITY SCHOOLS focus on improving student well-being and success by engaging and supporting parents and the community. All community school models share the same focus, but they vary in their approach to organizing resources.

Long-Term Commitment. The partners make a commitment, often through a Memo of Understanding, to support their Community Partnership School for a minimum of 25 years.

Shared Decision-Making. A Community Partnership School is governed by a council of representatives from each of the partner organizations along with leadership from the school and community. The representatives collectively make decisions about securing funding, allocating resources, hiring staff and working with providers.

Four Dedicated Staff Positions. A Community Partnership School's core staff — a director, after school coordinator, health programs' coordinator and parent coordinator — support the four pillars of community school success. Other staff positions may be created as well.

> PILLARS OF COMMUNITY SCHOOL SUCCESS
>
> • Collaborative leadership
> • Expanded learning
> • Student support
> • Family and community engagement
>
> Oakes, J., Maier, A., & Daniel, J. (2017). Community Schools: An Evidence-Based Strategy for Equitable School Improvement. Palo Alto, CA: Learning Policy Institute

Leveraged Resources. The staff identify and coordinate local providers to offer academic support programs, enrichment activities and wellness services at the Community Partnership School. In some cases, local providers relocate to the school.

Organizational Structure. In addition to the core partners and staff, Community Partnership Schools involve administrators, community members, students and other stakeholders.

Certification Eligible. Schools that implement the Community Partnership Schools™ standards and then operate successfully for a full year are eligible to apply for certification by the University of Central Florida. Schools that achieve UCF certification are well-positioned to secure future financial support.

FOR FURTHER INFORMATION

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APPENDIX B
APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

University of Central Florida Institutional Review Board
Office of Research & Commercialization
12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501
Orlando, Florida 32826-3246
Telephone: 407-823-2901, 407-882-2012 or 407-882-2276
www.research.ucf.edu/compliance/irb.html

NOT HUMAN RESEARCH DETERMINATION

From: **UCF Institutional Review Board #1**
          FWA00000351, IRB00001138

To: **Amy Ellis**

Date: **June 08, 2018**

Dear Researcher:

On 06/08/2018, the IRB determined that the following proposed activity is not human research as defined by DHHS regulations at 45 CFR 46 or FDA regulations at 21 CFR 50/56:

Type of Review:	Not Human Research Determination
Project Title:	THE IMPACT OF THE COMMUNITY PARTNERSHIP SCHOOLS™ MODEL COMMUNITY SCHOOL ON GRADUATION AND ATTENDANCE RATES IN ONE HIGH SCHOOL IN FLORIDA
Investigator:	Amy Ellis
IRB ID:	SBE-18-14113
Funding Agency:	
Grant Title:	
Research ID:	N/A

University of Central Florida IRB review and approval is not required. This determination applies only to the activities described in the IRB submission and does not apply should any changes be made. If changes are to be made and there are questions about whether these activities are research involving human subjects, please contact the IRB office to discuss the proposed changes.

This letter is signed by:

Signature applied by Gillian Morien on 06/08/2018 04:38:58 PM EDT

Designated Reviewer

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