



Literature review and background research for the National Collaboration Project: Extended Service School Model

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The Foundation for Young Australians

Final report



Australian Government
Department of Education, Employment
and Workplace Relations



Department of Education

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Background and methodology

The Foundation for Young Australians has been contracted to undertake an analytical summary of the Australian and international literature in relation to:

1. How different jurisdictions and overseas countries have defined extended service models
2. The reported rationale behind trials and implemented approaches
3. Critical success factors and inhibitors that have been identified as impacting on effective implementation.

This report provides a detailed response to each of these questions, with a particular focus on models of provision that aim to facilitate the delivery of services to children and young people at risk of not engaging in education or making a successful transition to schooling, further education and training and participation in the wider community, as well as a focus on the transferability of international experience into the Australian context.

The report also provides brief descriptions of Australian and international practice to date. These are not necessarily intended to indicate best or even representative practice. Instead, they have been selected to demonstrate the broad range of practice that characterises the field. At the same time, an effort has been made to select examples that have been identified by independent evaluations or by systemic initiatives as making a difference to student outcomes or demonstrating responses to the various challenges that attend the practice of extended service schooling.

Searches have been undertaken of the following Australian academic databases: A+ Education, Australian Public Affairs, the Australasian Education Directory and Family and Society Plus. Searches have also been undertaken of the following international databases: Academic Search Premier, Education Complete, Educational Administration Abstracts, Educational Resources Information Centre (ERIC), Expanded Academic ASAP, JSTOR, Source OECD and the Web of Science. The following keywords have been applied to these searches:

- extended schools/schooling
- extended service schools/schooling
- full service schools/schooling
- community schools/schooling
- wraparound.

In addition, literature has been sourced from a range of Australian and international policy sites, with an emphasis on publications from 1990 through to the present. Other literature has been sourced directly from agencies such as the Youth Research Centre at The University of Melbourne that have undertaken previous studies into extended or full service schooling practice in Australia. Extensive searches of the World Wide Web have also been undertaken to identify literature and research arising from practitioner sites and non-government agencies.

The rationale for extended service schooling

“Extended and ‘full service’ models of schooling are an exciting part of (a) developing movement towards greater community engagement in educational achievement. They are an important element of a strategy to overcome disadvantage in school communities” (Commonwealth of Australia 2008, p.26)

Common definitions

While there is a long history of schools working flexibly with other agencies to meet the needs of their communities, the concept and terminology of extended service schooling has developed within the past two decades, with particular takeup in Australia, the United Kingdom and the United States. This takeup has seen the development of numerous initiatives and individual sites of practice, but it has also been characterised by a pervasive lack of clarity and a troubling lack of consensus about the definition, purposes, best practice implementation and even the terminology of extended service schooling.

Extended service schooling has been implemented under or in relation to a range of terms that include ‘full service schooling’, ‘school-linked services’, ‘school-based services’, ‘community schools’, ‘family service centres’, ‘inclusive schools’ and ‘school-linked integrated services’ (Sammons et al, 2003; Wilkin, White & Kinder, 2003). Related initiatives have been implemented under such terms as ‘wraparound’ services. It has also been implemented in the service of a wide variety of purposes, which are outlined in the next sections of this report, and under a wide range of governance arrangements. As one study notes:

“There is no consensus as to what ‘extended school approaches’ actually mean in practice. This lack of clarity tends to generate a range of activities that have different aims and rationales” (Dyson, Millward & Todd, 2002, p.v).

This marked diversity of terminology and practice makes it difficult to propose a definition that may have usefulness in the Australian context. These are some of the more concise definitions that have been applied to extended service or full service schools:

“Schools that provide a range of services and activities, often beyond the school day, to help meet the needs of children, their families and the wider community” (Department for Children, Schools and Families, 2008, p.7)

“A model for the provision of coordinated health and welfare services to “at-risk” children, young people and their families, within local school and community clusters” (Mudaly, 1999, p.43)

“Onestop centres where the educational, physical, psychological and social requirements of students and their families are addressed in a rational, holistic fashion’ (Dryfoos, 1996, p.18).

Other definitions employed by systems provide a more detailed picture:

“A school which serves as a central point of delivery, a single ‘community hub’, for whatever education, health, social/human, and/or employment services have been determined locally to be needed to support a child’s success in school and in the community. Such a school is locally planned and designed to meet the holistic needs of students within the context of their families. (It) becomes a family resource center, a ‘one-stop service’ for children and families and, where appropriate, for people in the surrounding community (Calfee et al., 1998, in Wilkin, White & Kinder, 2003, p.18)

“Schools which act as a focal point for a range of family, community and health services for their students, families, staff and the wider population. They are likely to have community facilities located on site and to offer community access throughout the school day and out of school hours. They are also likely to work with local partners to deliver services such as childcare, health and social services, adult education and family learning, sports or arts activities” (Dyson, Millward & Todd, 2002).

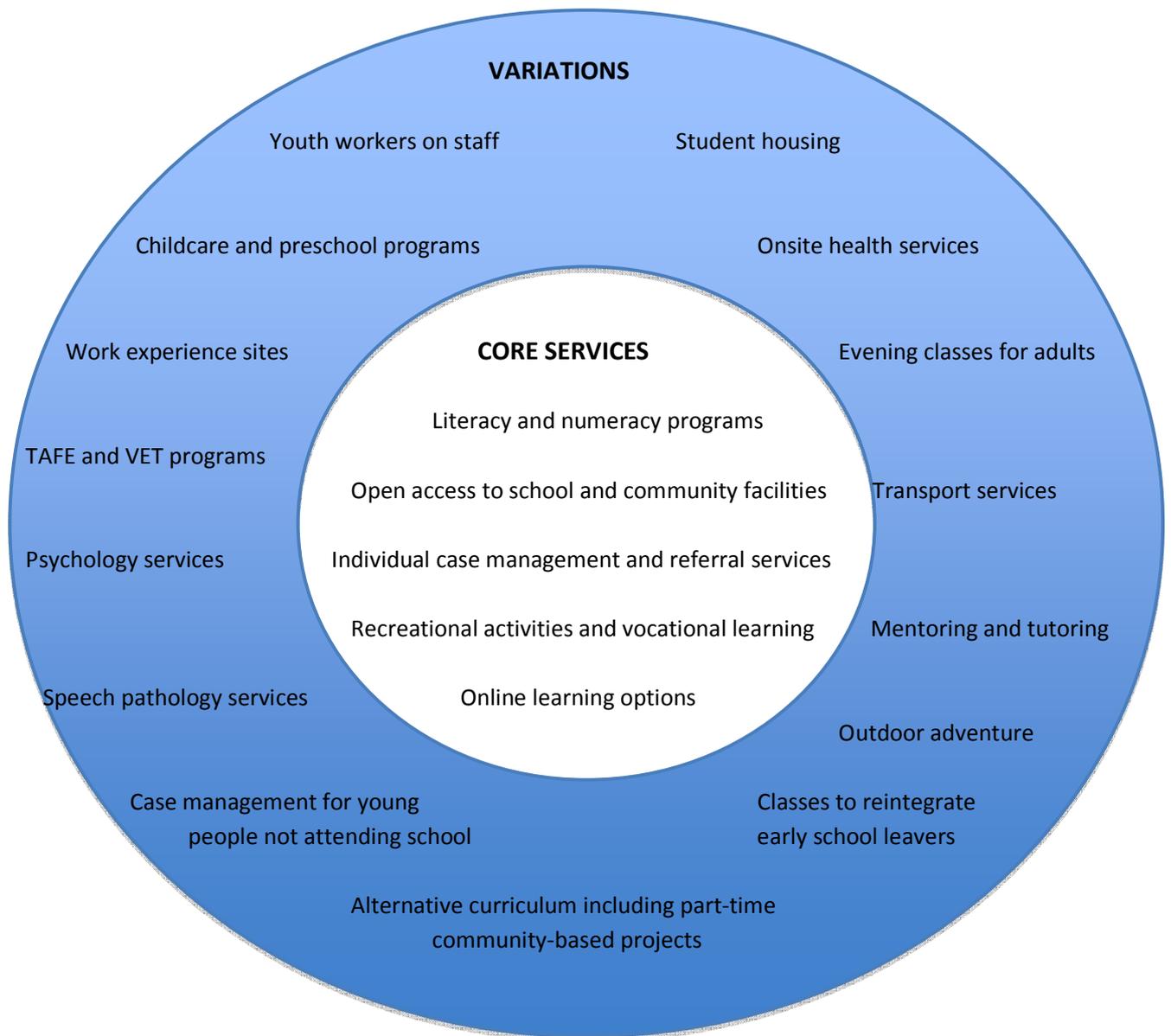
Common premises and service provision

Despite the variability we have described, the broad underlying premises of extended service schooling are generally consistent. They propose that:

- A significant proportion of young people have complex social, health, emotional and cultural needs associated with social exclusion and disadvantage
- These needs must be met before schooling can be effective
- These needs cannot be met in isolation or by institutions or agencies acting alone
- Conventional school systems are failing to meet these needs
- Schools cannot ensure a quality education for young people without specialist service delivery and support (Coleman, 2006; Dryfoos, 1995; Mudaly, 1999; Muijs, 2007; Sutherland, 2003; Wilkin, White & Kinder, 2003).

As a natural extension of these premises, extended service schooling is typically directed towards vulnerable and at-risk young people and towards the communities in which these young people live. In the United Kingdom, for example, the Full Service Extended Schools initiative is designed to support young people at risk of exclusion, disaffection or disengagement with education (Rose, 2009). Scotland’s New Community Schools program encompasses aims that are applicable to all schools, such as modernising schools and raising attainment, but its 37 pilot schools are located in areas of greatest disadvantage (Sammons et al, 2003). In Australia, extended service schooling can be seen as the logical extension of a large number of initiatives that seek to achieve more integrated service provision for children and young people in high need contexts. Some of these, such as the integration of early childhood and schooling services, are mandated by education systems. Others are generated at the level of the individual school or community.

Within these broad parameters, the range of services employed by extended service schools varies enormously. Given the degree of decentralisation that characterises most extended service schooling initiatives, the decision regarding what services to offer is typically made at the level of the individual site. The diagram below provides a summary of the core and variable services that characterise extended service schooling provision in Australia to date.



Classifying extended service school models

Given the broad range of terms and purposes already discussed, extended service schooling is, inherently, not a one-size-fits-all model. In addition, the breadth of extant practice makes it difficult to locate it along any one spectrum. Instead, it can be classified in a number of ways that relate to the purpose, focus and origins of practice.

School-based or school-linked models

One of the most common ways of classifying extended service schooling practice is according to the location and integration of services. A distinction is frequently made between school-linked and school-based provision. As the terms suggest, school-based services are delivered at the school site while school-linked services are formally connected to the school but delivered through other sites.

The advantages of school-based provision are clear. Schools are an ideal site for the early identification of issues in relation to children and young people and an ideal site for early intervention and preventative strategies. They provide easy access to a range of services for children or young people and their families in a convenient location that is familiar to students and represents a visible and usually non-threatening first point of contact for community-based or social care agencies. Basing extended services on school sites is often more acceptable to parents, who may be hesitant for their children to use services located in unfamiliar settings. For some young people and their families – although not for all – accessing services within a school setting is considered to carry less of a stigma than accessing services within social care settings (Wilkin et al, 2008). Locating services on the school site also has the benefit of transforming the school into a community facility, which in turn expands the benefit derived from the considerable investment that rests in school sites (Grossman, Walker & Raley, 2001).

In addition, school-linked service provision is a less integrated model of delivery than school-based service provision. There is a suggestion within the literature that these less integrated models of service provision are less likely to meet the purposes of extended service schooling that relate to systemic change. Especially in high need areas where services are limited, less integrated models of provision are unlikely to substantially build the capacity of the community to meet young people's needs.

At the same time, more integrated approaches require greater resources and facilities and a higher level of leadership and support. School-based services also raise the risk that provision may centre around the school in a way that leaves little room for other, non-educational perspectives (Smith, 2000). In addition, while they may be more attractive to some parents or families, they may alienate the most at-risk young people, who may be disengaged from school to a degree that renders them unwilling to access school-based services. This is discussed in greater detail elsewhere in this report. Tyler and Stokes propose that three questions should be satisfactorily answered before the decision is made to base services within schools:

- Is it in the best interests of the young people?

- Is it in the best interests of the services?
- Is it in the best interests of the school? (1997).

Craig and his colleagues propose that extended service schools also ask themselves: “why do we want to become an extended school?” and “what is the scope of our ambition and what do we want to do?” (Craig, Huber & Lownsborough, 2004, p.42).

Full service or extended practice

Another way of classifying extended service schooling is by the nature of the services offered as well as by the degree to which practice alters or reforms the culture and operations of the school, the nature of its staffing and governance and its relationship to the local community.

At one end of this spectrum, practice is guided by the recognition that “existing schools and education systems are failing in their contemporary contexts as they can no longer meet the complex needs of their students” (Wilkin, White & Kinder, 2003, p.6). In response, extended service schooling is understood to involve “the complete re-conceptualisation and re-organisation of the way in which health and education services are delivered” (Wilkin, White & Kinder, 2003, p.iii). It is also understood as a means by which schools, as widely trusted and respected institutions, can engage their local communities in ways that improve social inclusion and address geographically-based disadvantage (Coleman, 2006; Craig, Huber & Lownsborough, 2004; Cummings et al, 2007; Sammons et al, 2003). For many schools, the desire to better engage the local community is a primary factor in the decision to participate in extended service schooling. Much extended service schooling provision is underpinned by the notion that schools are “places where everyone in a community works in partnership to educate children” (Blank, Melaville & Shah, 2003, p.5). It has even been suggested that the ultimate aim of extended service schooling should be “not to transform schools, or even education, but to *transform communities*” (Middlewood, 2009, p.3, original italics).

These ambitious statements pepper the landscape of extended service schooling. On the one hand, they provide a strong vision and purpose for extended service school initiatives. At the same time, it must be asked how realistic such aims are. As one study queries, “how likely is it that a school (albeit working with partners) will be able to generate such change?” (Raffo & Dyson, 2007, p. 277, original parentheses). This issue is discussed in further detail elsewhere in this report. A second question relates to the core purposes of extended service schooling. While wider aims are valid and even admirable, the central underpinning purpose of extended service schooling must surely be to improve outcomes for young people. An effective extended service school “never loses sight of the fact that its first focus and its daily ‘bread and butter’ concern remains the child and the child’s learning and achievement” (Middlewood, 2009, p.15).

In Australia, as in the United Kingdom, much practice is located at the most ambitious end of the spectrum, in the form of full service schooling. Schools that commit themselves to this form of provision

also commit themselves to a significant whole school change process that may include changes to school structures, school culture and resource allocations (McLeod & Stokes, 1999). In many instances, the motivation for these schools to participate in this form of provision stems from their belief that radical change is needed if student outcomes are to be improved. The Victorian School Focused Youth Service provides a representative example of practice at this end of the spectrum. It has a commitment to prevention and early intervention, working with young people at the closest point of contact, building the capacity of the school and community to address young people's needs, creating linkages and networks within the community for more informed and integrated service provision and encouraging strategic partnering and collaboration to improve outcomes for young people (Success Works, 2001).

At the other end of the practice spectrum is what Middlewood has called "extended practice" (2009, p.14), whereby schools extend their services, facilities and opening hours as an 'add on' to their normal practice. What may be considered extended practice often takes the form of before- or after-school programs, breakfast programs or study support such as homework clubs. Many schools and systems have invested heavily in these programs (Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills, 2002). Examples include the Schools Plus initiative, which targets schools in disadvantaged neighbourhoods in the United Kingdom (Shaw, 2003) and the 21st Century Community Learning Center program in the United States (Little, Wimer & Weiss, 2008). For some schools, extended practice represents a significant development in provision and is, therefore, "worthwhile in itself" (Middlewood, 2009, p.14). Activities developed as part of extended practice initiatives can be highly innovative: they involve "new ideas, delivered in different ways, often by different partners and sometimes in different locations" (Shaw, 2003, p,iv).

As with many other aspects of extended service schooling, there is debate about where on this spectrum practice should sit. On the one hand, there is a strong view within the literature that service provision should depend upon the specific nature of the local context. This issue of responsiveness to local contexts is discussed in further detail elsewhere in this report. On the other hand, there is an equally strong suggestion that the more ambitious models of provision are the most effective. This proposes that the outcome of extended service schooling should not be just the "reallocation or relocation of resources" for young people but a "total transformation of the nature and scope of intervention activity" (Adelman & Taylor, 1997, p.415). Particularly in highly disadvantaged contexts, extended service schools have been criticised for benefiting a cohort of students without changing the culture of the school, focusing on superficial problems rather than addressing root causes, and of implementing educational reform without the social and economic reforms needed to change the circumstances of such communities (Dyson & Raffo, 2007; Muijs, 2007; Success Works, 2001). As one study reports:

"Schools in the most challenging (...) circumstances, even full service extended variants, cannot do it by themselves. It is not enough for schools to list a set of needs that young people, families and communities have and then provide specific and piecemeal provision that will hopefully ameliorate each of these needs. Nor is it enough to provide schools in challenging (...) circumstances with

some additional funds and resources to become full service extended schools when this is clearly not adequate to address the issues they have to face” (Raffo & Dyson, 2007, p.279).

Central steering or local entrepreneurship

Extended service schooling has also been classified according to the source of the practice model, whether this is developed and mandated by a central system or generated at the local level by the school and its partner agencies.

The policy trend in relation to extended service schooling is to set no single blueprint for practice. An example comes from the largest centralised initiative to date, the Full Service Extended Schools program in the United Kingdom. Within this model, schools are expected to decide what constitutes their local community, what the needs of that community are, whether interventions are best directed at the level of the young person, the family or the community, and which interventions should be employed. This is endorsed by a thread of commentary within the literature that suggests that diversity of interpretation is desirable because it enables service provision to be designed around the needs of specific school and local communities (Success Works, 2001; Wilkin, White & Kinder, 2003).

In response, schools design different forms of practice and provision that stem from different understandings of what is needed within their own community setting. Some schools, for example, adopt a more holistic focus in which the improved wellbeing of families and communities is a primary goal in its own right. Others maintain a narrower focus on young people, in which working with families and the community is primarily a means to improve outcomes for students (Cummings et al, 2007). The importance of this flexibility is certainly reinforced by some schools. In the United Kingdom, a pathfinder pilot program has trialled two approaches to extended service schooling in highly disadvantaged contexts. The first model imposes clear definitions of those groups that are eligible for service provision and requires schools to provide services within specific parameters. The second model gives schools flexibility both in defining eligibility and providing services. Schools implementing the more flexible model have indicated that a rigid model of provision would not be appropriate to the local context in which they worked and would exclude too many students and families from needed supports (Peters et al, 2009).

The present trend within Australia is in line with the United Kingdom model. In the Australian Capital Territory, for example, the creation of four new early childhood schools has been deliberately accompanied by the expectation that each school will be unique and provide a different mix of services (Australian Capital Territory Department of Education and Training, 2008). There are warnings, however, about how far this variability should extend. A dissenting view from the literature is that the absence of a single, coherent vision or mandate from educational systems represents a significant challenge to the efficacy of extended service schools. This “lack of central steering” (Cummings, Todd & Dyson, 2007, p.196) has been strongly criticised. An authoritative evaluation of the Full Service Extended Schools initiative suggests that good practice should rely less on what it calls “entrepreneurship at the school

level” and more on “policy coherence and stability” (Cummings et al, 2007, p.4). The evidence is that services have proven most effective when supported by a policy plan that establishes minimum standards for practice and considers long-term sustainability (Office for Standards in Education, Children’s Services and Skills, 2006). A good practice framework, for example, has been found to be an important component of successful wraparound programs because it sets out principles for practice (RPR Consulting, 2002).

Challenges and strategies

Extended service schools face numerous challenges in their implementation. Those challenges that emerge most consistently from the literature include the evaluation and measurement of models and initiatives; providing adequate financial, physical and human resources; professional development; interagency collaboration; and leadership and governance. This section of the report examines the nature of these challenges and describes the strategies that some schools have employed in response to them.

Measures of success

Effective practice in extended service schooling, as in any other educational practice, includes the thorough monitoring and measurement of its actions and outcomes and the capacity to respond to the evidence that this yields. Yet this kind of practice is relatively uncommon. Instead, the collection and analysis of data in relation to extended service schooling is frequently overlooked.

This may be, in part, the result of dominant sectoral cultures. The youth welfare sector lacks a strong tradition of documenting its activity or collecting quantitative data (Success Works, 2001). In schools, too, the extent and quality of program evaluation varies widely. This may also stem from a lack of systemic authorisation or regulation. Even in the United Kingdom, where systemic support for extended service schooling has been greatest, some extended service schools have been rigorous in their collation and analysis of data while others have collected no monitoring information whatsoever. In some cases, schools have been more vigilant in monitoring some services, such as childcare, than other services such as parental support services or community access. Secondary schools have been less likely than primary schools to collect data about their activity (Ipsos MORI, 2008).

Even where data about extended service schooling has been collected and assessed, there remains some uncertainty about what it tells us. There is a strong suggestion within the literature that little of the existing evaluation data can be taken at face value. There is certainly evidence that effective models of extended service schooling do increase young people’s engagement and participation in school and that they improve young people’s educational outcomes, self-confidence and well-being (Cummings et al, 2007; Grossman, Walker & Raley, 2002; Office for Standards in Education, Children’s Services and Skills, 2006; Quinn & Dryfoos, 2009). There is evidence that they foster greater family engagement in the school, create a more positive school environment and build community capacity (Blank, Melaville &

Shah, 2003; Cummings et al, 2007; Quinn & Dryfoos, 2009). There is evidence that they lead to the earlier identification of children and young people's needs, quicker access to services and improved communication between schools and families (Wilkin et al, 2008). There is evidence that they enhance the capacity of social care professionals to be proactive rather than reactive in the identification of children and young people in need (Blewett, Lewis & Tunstill, 2007; Wilkin et al 2008). There is also evidence that extended services play a positive role in widening schools' external contacts, networks and partnerships (Shaw, 2003).

However, because they are complex interventions with multiple variables, extended service schools do not lend themselves readily to neat analyses (Kenny et al, 2002). Even wraparound programs, which are characteristically designed to include more rigorous evaluation processes, are subject to an "idiosyncratic course of evolution" that makes it difficult to comparatively assess their impact (Suter & Bruns, 2009, p.345). Wraparound initiatives such as the *Turnaround* program described elsewhere in this report yield what has been described as "a mixed picture with no clear patterns" in relation to improved outcomes for young people (Wyles, 2007, p.51). This raises a number of issues for any wider Australian implementation.

Firstly, many of the outcomes that extended service schools aim to achieve require time to change and to accurately assess (Kenny et al, 2002). They are typically complex initiatives in complex settings often characterised by the presence of many other related initiatives, yet evaluations are frequently conducted within a short time span or at the pilot or demonstration phase of development (Raffo & Dyson, 2007; Shaw, 2003). To make matters worse, many evaluations are conducted or commissioned by the agencies that are responsible for funding extended service schools and eager to justify their provision (McMahon et al, 2000) and many are methodologically flawed (Carbone et al, 2004; Raffo & Dyson, 2007; Zief, Lauver & Maynard, 2006). Secondly, most evaluations of extended school provision have focused on the experiences of the school, with little attention paid to the perspective or contributions of non-school partners (Wilkin et al, 2008). Lastly, while there is no shortage of descriptions of individual practice, there has been little systematic analysis of how the challenges of extended service schooling are managed in practice or of how best practice is achieved. The diversity of implementation of extended service schools makes it difficult to evaluate the approach as a whole, but there also seems to be a lack of will to do so.

Perhaps as a result, much of the literature is characterised by a "breathless advocacy" (Cummings et al, 2006, p.198) that lacks a rigorous critique. Many of the statements made in support of extended service schooling are "descriptive, advisory or exhortatory" (Raffo & Dyson, 2007, p.270). Many are wildly optimistic in their scope and many describe potential or hoped-for benefits rather than known outcomes. Both Australian and international studies have made it clear that more needs to be done to provide a more rigorous analysis of extended service practice. These include the development of a clear and agreed definition of effective practice accompanied by qualitative and quantitative indicators of

performance (Carbone et al, 2004) and the greater use of meta-analytic techniques to measure overall program impacts (Zief, Lauver & Maynard, 2006).

In some cases, extended service schools do establish their own good processes for the monitoring and measurement of outcomes. One example comes from Caboolture State High School in Queensland. As part of its extended service program, the school has introduced a computerised tracking system that closely monitors students' progress against individual action plans. The school guidance officer meets weekly with the school chaplain and a project officer to review a student progress database, which is regularly updated and accessible to all school staff, and plan appropriate case management interventions (Caboolture State High School website). A second example comes from Glenthorne High School in the United Kingdom, which has set up a community steering group involving a wide variety of stakeholders. The steering group monitors the success of the school's extended service programs as well as creating synergy between these and the school's other activities. The school's collection and analysis of data enables it to indicate concrete outcomes of its extended service activity such as a sustained positive trajectory of attainment over a five year period, greatly improved attendance and a declining rate of exclusions (Department for Children, Schools and Families, 2008).

In many instances, however, quality evaluation and measurement takes place because of the presence or intervention of a third party such as a funding body or evaluation consultant. One example of this comes from the United Kingdom. Consultants undertaking an evaluation of the Full Service Extended Schools initiative created an evaluation grid to measure the extent to which key objectives were being reached. The grid describes what providers are attempting to do and the desired outcomes for students, parents, families and the community. It links each desired outcome to methods of collecting the data that would indicate the degree to which it is being achieved. It also documents the format of the evidence, the date of its receipt and the person or agency responsible for its collection (Cummings et al, 2006, p.79). A second example comes from the Linking Education and Families program in Bunbury, Western Australia, which operates in seven primary school sites. Funding from Lotterywest has included support for an extensive independent evaluation of the program. This shows that the program has been successful in reducing anxiety about the transition to school, positively influencing the home learning environment, increasing the use of services to support child and family development, facilitating early intervention and improving opportunities for interagency collaboration (Gregg, 2009).

These point-in-time evaluations yield important findings, but the measurement of outcomes needs to be woven into the regular practice of extended service schools. The national Australian Reconnect program has found that action research combined with regular professional learning forums has helped to build coherent service delivery with a focus on outcomes for young people. Action research provides a core evaluation methodology by which Reconnect services can continually refine their service delivery approaches. All services participating in Reconnect receive initial training and some ongoing support in developing action research skills. Reconnect has also carried out a longitudinal study that measures outcomes for young people and parents who have used the program (RPR Consulting, 2002).

Resourcing models

As with any ambitious endeavour, extended service schooling requires adequate resources, not only during its establishment phase but on an ongoing basis. Particularly if services are to become an integral part of school planning and operation, adequate resources must be allocated to their development and management.

Firstly, resources are needed to build the knowledge and capacity of staff involved in service provision. The imperative for professional development is discussed in greater detail elsewhere in this report.

Secondly, resources are needed to ensure adequate staffing. Despite the recommendations of some systems that teachers not be asked to assume additional responsibilities (Department for Education and Skills, 2005), the early implementation of extended service schools includes a significant additional workload for teachers (Centre for Social Research and Evaluation, 2009; Department for Children, Schools and Families, 2008; Muijs, 2007; Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills, 2009). It also increases the workload for school principals (University of Ballarat, 2008). Especially in high need settings, involvement in extended service activities can impose additional burdens on school staff which distracts them from their core educational responsibilities (Dyson, Millward & Todd, 2002).

The way in which schools cope with this increased workload is not necessarily productive. In many instances, staff simply work longer hours. In other cases, existing workloads are reassigned amongst staff. Only a relatively small number of schools take measures to increase staff resources (Peters et al, 2009). This represents a clear challenge to the quality and sustainability of extended service schooling. Especially in larger settings, there is a consensus that the coordination of extended services requires at least one dedicated full-time coordinator or integration manager within the school. This role is sometimes assumed by a member of the school leadership team, but this raises the question of what elements of school leaders' usual roles may have to be abandoned or scaled back (Cummings et al, 2007; Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills, 2009).

An example from the United States illustrates the value of an extended service coordinator who is appointed by school leadership and works closely with them. The George Washington Elementary School in Pennsylvania attributes the success of its extended learning program to the collaborative leadership of its principal and community school coordinator. These two staff members operate on a shared calendar and meet at least once a week to consider program successes and challenges. They draw on their respective experiences in education and social services to overcome barriers and implement a program that extends the school's vision and expectations. Their inclusive leadership style has encouraged others to become involved with the program, including parents (National Association of Elementary School Principals, 2006).

Understaffing is also a challenge for non-school agencies. One Australian evaluation notes that as extended service schools become more established, this can see an escalation in the expectation that all student and family needs be met. This is a particular concern in rural areas, where there are greater limitations on resources and where many services may already be operating at capacity (Success Works, 2001). Conversely, the capacity of agencies may increase as services mature, collaboration improves and the initial demands of planning and needs analysis diminish (Grossman, Walker & Raley, 2001).

Resources are also needed in the form of adequate funding for site-related costs. It has been acknowledged for some time that the implementation and sustainability of extended service schooling is expensive (Dryfoos, 1996), generating high incidental costs associated with ongoing site security, maintenance and insurance (Grossman, Walker & Raley, 2001; Ipsos MORI, 2008). Extended service schooling may also require significant investment in infrastructure. For example, it has been suggested that extended services are ideally located within a separate building on the school site that offers separate entrance points to the main school and facilitates alternative and independent opening times (Wilkin et al, 2008). Extended service schools are already vulnerable to “turf” issues (Dryfoos, 1996, p.21) whereby school and social care staff compete for space and autonomy. In overcrowded schools or schools with limited physical resources, competition for appropriate space can have a particularly adverse effect on the type and quality of services that can be offered (Grossman, Walker & Raley, 2001, 2002; Office for Standards in Education, Children’s Services and Skills, 2009; Walker et al 2000).

A related challenge is that of transportation. In some contexts, this is a significant logistical barrier to young people’s participation in the out-of-hours components of extended service school programs. Studies in both the United States and United Kingdom have noted that the lack of school-provided transportation creates safety concerns for young people. While this has greatest relevance for children, young people in disadvantaged neighbourhoods may also be unsafe if they have to walk home from late programs at the school. Some schools have reduced their out-of-hours programs in an attempt to avoid transportation costs (Grossman, Walker & Raley, 2001; Office for Standards in Education, Children’s Services and Skills, 2009).

The amount of funding required by and allocated to extended service schooling is, therefore, a significant issue. In one United Kingdom study, almost two thirds of evaluated schools were satisfied with the level of funding support they had received (Ipsos MORI, 2008). By contrast, other studies have found that the establishment of successful and sustained practice is hampered by short term funding (Office for Standards in Education, Children’s Services and Skills, 2002, 2006), by the increased workloads needed simply to manage government grants (Peters et al, 2009) and by the need to disentangle complex financial arrangements in order to demonstrate accountability to multiple funders (Shaw, 2003). The greatest concern comes from studies that show that fees for some services, levied to offset the intrinsic costs of service provision, are prohibiting the participation of the poorest families (Peters et al, 2009).

A common approach to overcoming these issues is to share human or physical resources with other organisations. For example, Garden School (researchers' pseudonym) in the United Kingdom is built around a strong rationale of community education. The school is designed for dual use by both children and adults during both the day and evening. It offers a wide range of facilities for use by the local community including a library and resource centre, an arts building, a sports centre, a lecture room and workshops. The school is one of a group of schools in the local area which have opted to pool their community education budgets and work collaboratively. They jointly employ adult and youth education managers and have an area-based planning system with strong community representation. Similarly, Caster School (researchers' pseudonym) has developed an extensive community education program delivered through a funding partnership that combines its resources with that of a number of local colleges and other organisations involved in adult education. In addition, the community education program pays its way by charging fees and securing project funding (Dyson, Millward & Todd, 2002).

These responses are innovative and draw on the existing resources of the local area, but they also place the onus for funding solutions on the school and its partners. Some schools have been successful in attracting new external funding opportunities as part of their extended service practice, but few schools have the capacity to fundraise on a large scale (Sammons et al, 2003; Shaw, 2003). In settings where there is less vision, less creativity and less cross-agency trust between service providers, funding issues may seriously hamper the effectiveness of extended service schools.

Professional development

While school and social care staff are likely to be experienced in their own field, extended service schooling is a sophisticated model of practice that requires them to adopt complex new roles. It requires them to rethink the nature and parameters of their daily practice. It requires them to accommodate "diverse theoretical, ethical and practical perspectives" and to see their work in a new and wider context (McLeod & Stokes, p.9). It requires them to interact with professionals and workers from different disciplines, to respect one another's disciplinary knowledge and expertise and to accommodate one another's requirements (Boyd, 1996; Middlewood, 2009; Smith, 2000). In various ways, therefore, it represents "a significant shift in working practices" for both school and social care staff (Wilkin et al, 2008, p.35).

The evidence is that, unsurprisingly, those schools and agencies that collaborate most effectively are also the most successful in meeting the needs of children, young people and families. In the absence of existing collaboration, however, working in partnership presents a significant challenge for the agencies involved in extended service schools. Schools in particular find it challenging to navigate the complex landscape of social care (Black, 2008; Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills, 2009). They are particularly implicated in contributing to the cultural gaps that weaken interagency collaboration (Boyd, 1996) and frequently accused of being "self-centred" institutions (Kemmis, 2000, p.16). This shows itself in various ways. School leaders may fail to share leadership with their partner agencies. Resistance to extended service practice may come from teachers who see the role of the

school in purely academic terms. This is not to suggest that other agencies do not also struggle with the transition to partnership: the integration of social services into extended service schools also represents an enormous shift in working practices for social care professionals (Wilkin, White & Kinder, 2003).

Inadequate training and professional learning is one of the clearest threats to effective practice in extended service schools (Dryfoos, 1995; Mudaly, 1999). Earlier evidence from Australia shows that staff in new extended service schools have been unprepared for the changes to their roles (Success Works, 2001). Adequate professional development requires the development of specific knowledge and expertise such as knowledge about referral procedures and confidentiality issues. It requires the fostering of new attitudes and approaches including a more family-centred approach to service delivery. It also requires continued and well-supported opportunities for communication between school and social care staff (Wilkin et al, 2008). At the least ambitious end of the spectrum, this suggests the need for funded professional learning opportunities. At a more ambitious level, it may involve formal cross-sectoral or multidisciplinary training for both school and social care staff (Dryfoos, 1999; Sammons et al, 2003). Ideally, these professional learning opportunities should be available on an ongoing basis, not just at the outset. Especially in culturally sensitive settings, regular training, support and supervision in inclusive practice is essential for all staff (Carbone et al, 2004).

School leaders also need training, especially at the full service end of the provision spectrum. There is evidence that school leaders as a group have limited capacity to manage and oversee the sort of health and support services associated with extended service schools, including the liability issues that can surround extended services (Smith, 2000). This indicates a clear need for means to build this capacity, yet school leaders of extended service schools are not routinely offered training for their new role. It is worth noting that some school leaders do not feel that formal training is the best way to acquire the necessary skills, preferring to receive mentoring and coaching that allow them to find solutions to the needs of their own communities (Craig, Huber & Lownsborough, 2004; Muijs, 2007). To what degree such mentoring and coaching is routinely available to school leaders is unclear from the literature.

In some instances, extended service schools have elected to build their professional knowledge by seeking out and utilising external expertise and support. This expertise is frequently available within the local community, and some schools have shown a preference for these local sources. In the United Kingdom, for example, a group of Schools Plus schools chose not to draw upon the pool of national experts recommended to them. Instead, they formed a project steering group made up of key school staff and external partners from local authorities and organisations (Shaw, 2003). In other instances, professional development is built into the extended service program from the outset. Linking to Learn & Learning to Link, for example, is a collaboration between Griffith University and Mission Australia with the support of the Queensland Government. The project aims to create an integrated system of comprehensive support for children in Inala, an outer-fringe suburb that has been identified as the poorest urban area in Queensland. It is being conducted in six schools over a period of five years. One of

the project's central strands is dedicated professional development and support that enables teachers to engage parents as partners (Griffith University, year unknown).

Interagency collaboration

Extended service schooling is, in essence, a form of cross-sectoral partnership and should encompass the practices that characterise effective partnership. These include:

- Clear operating procedures and mechanisms that ensure maximum participation between members
- Agreed and common values and purposes
- Trust and respect based on equity and shared ownership
- Adequate resources including human capital
- The active involvement and advocacy of leadership
- A paramount focus on enhancing student outcomes
- The capacity to respond to local circumstances
- The capacity to progress from soft collaboration to innovative or 'next' practice (Black, 2008).

Ideally, this collaboration should first apply within the school. A whole school approach is intrinsic to extended service schooling as it is understood within Australia (Strategic Partners and Centre for Youth Affairs and Development, 2001; Mudaly, 1999). This presupposes a highly integrated, highly prioritised and highly visible model that features prominently within the school's daily functions and organisational structure and that is understood not as an auxiliary support service but as a central aspect of the school's operation (Adelman & Taylor, 1997). Secondly, effective collaboration is needed between local primary and secondary schools so that continuity of student and family support is not lost during the transition from primary to secondary schooling (Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills, 2009). Thirdly, collaboration should operate between the school and its partner agencies and within the service provision model itself. For Australian schools engaged in full service schooling, for example, a pivotal recognition has been that the practices of relationship and partnership building are "primary tasks, essential in enabling schools to do their educational work" (Kemmis, 2000, p.16).

Evidence suggests that extended service school practice produces the strongest outcomes in contexts where there is an existing history of collaboration (Success Works, 2001). For example, the evaluation of one group of extended service schools in the United States notes that pre-existing collaborations were instrumental in easing and accelerating the progress of new initiatives (Grossman, Walker & Raley, 2000). This may be partly because extended service schooling requires partners to be willing to participate in something that will evolve and be implemented over a long timeframe. It requires them to become sufficiently comfortable with one another to share ideas, resolve differences and maintain commitment to a shared vision (McMahon et al, 2000). At the same time, the introduction of extended

service schooling can reinforce, amplify and provide an important authorisation for pre-existing collaboration (Cummings et al, 2007).

In practice, working together across sectors can be a difficult and demanding process. The cultures of the school and social care sectors can be so different that staff can struggle to find a common language, set common priorities, reach a common understanding of the social and political context in which they operate or develop an agreed approach (Black, 2008). Historically in Australia, these sectors have largely operated in parallel to one another: the expectation that they suddenly learn to collaborate can raise substantial challenges. In Victoria, for example, these were evident during the initial implementation of the School Focused Youth Service (Success Works, 2001). Particularly within full service schools, the governance of more complex models requires more sophisticated collaboration (Dryfoos, 1996). Within the United Kingdom's Full Service Extended Schools initiative, the difficulties of partnership working emerged as a prominent issue at the outset and remained problematic into the third year of the program (Cummings et al, 2007). These difficulties can include confusion, communication breakdowns and the impact of territorial behaviours and local politics, which can result in conflict or competition between agencies or individuals, uneven power relationships and the exclusion of some stakeholders (McLeod & Stokes, 1999; McMahan et al, 2000).

Settings that show the greatest success are those in which collaboration is guided by mutual benefit, mutual respect, agreed purposes and processes, shared goals and targets, a common terminology and a clearly articulated conceptual framework or set of protocols which is understood and supported at all levels of the collaboration (Mudaly, 1999; Muijs, 2007; Success Works, 2001; Shaw, 2003). They are also those in which adequate time and resources have been allocated to the development of collaborative practice, especially during the early stages of new initiatives (Centre for Social Research and Evaluation, 2009; Success Works 2001).

A common mechanism to facilitate the successful operation of cross-sectoral partnerships is the use of a third party broker or intermediary. Credible and adequately resourced intermediaries can bridge cultural gaps and unequal power relationships between schools and their partner agencies. They can provide the ongoing professional learning and support required for effective collaboration. They can help to ensure the right fit between service provision and need. Locally based nonprofit organisations with skilled staff and existing relationships and strong knowledge of the community are ideally placed to provide this role (Black, 2009). The engagement of many of these organisations as School Business Community Partnership Brokers under the Australian Government's National Partnerships initiative means that, in many disadvantaged settings, there may already be agencies well placed to support extended service schools (Black, 2010).

A similar mechanism that has been employed is the appointment of a partnership coordinator. The United Kingdom's implementation of the Schools Plus pilot project included funding for the appointment of experienced consultants who served as team leaders for each school. This role was

essential in guiding and mentoring schools in the development of their extended services (Shaw, 2003). In Victoria, School Focused Youth Service coordinators are employed to work with clusters of schools and community agencies across the state. These facilitate the development of partnerships by introducing potential partners, generating dialogue, communicating a shared vision, mapping existing services, identifying needs and collating data. The work of the coordinators is guided by clear performance indicators and supported by a pool of brokerage funds (School Works, 2001).

Leadership and governance

Effective and stable leadership and governance are key factors in the extended service schooling models that work best. Leading extended service school initiatives are characterised by strong leadership, clear management structures and a steering committee representative of all key stakeholders. They encompass both a bottom-up and a top-down approach to change (Centre for Community Child Health, 2006). They recognise that the development of an extended service school is a cultural change process that requires all partners to be involved in the establishment of new norms, new values and new ways of operating on a daily level (Dryfoos, 1995). This requires what Middlewood has called a “relentless flexibility” (2009, p.16) in staff roles and organisational structures. It also requires effective and formal leadership. Without this leadership, service provision is easily swamped by differences in sectoral cultures, unclear accountabilities, competing priorities and demands on resources (Mukherjee, 1997; Shaw, 2003).

In order to be successful, extended service schools also require continuity. They require “a stable group of people committed to the process” (Dryfoos, 1996, p.21). In practice, some attempts to implement extended service school approaches have been hampered by a high principal turnover that inhibits the process of partnership building and collaboration (Walker et al, 2000). Other attempts have been hampered by a lack of engagement on the part of principals, which results in a lack of ownership by schools (Adelman & Taylor, 1997; Middlewood, 2009; Success Works, 2001). Still others have been troubled by a lack of leadership from other agencies, which has meant that approaches have been predominantly shaped by the views and efforts of school leaders (Cummings et al, 2007). The consensus of the literature is that a collaborative approach to leadership yields the greatest benefits. This may require the creation of new forms of distributed leadership and governance that redistribute authority and accountability between service partners and foster shared decision making and ownership amongst key stakeholders (Adelman & Taylor, 1997; Middlewood, 2009).

In some instances, leadership is shared by an umbrella organisation or initiative that sets the vision for each extended service school operating under its auspices and provides funding and other program support. In the United States, for example, the School of the 21st Century program is based at Yale University with funding support from the George Lucas Educational Foundation. The program creates a well-funded, structured and sustainable network that links schools, early years and family support services in over 1,300 schools across the country (School of the 21st Century website). In Australia, examples of extended practice auspiced by outside organisations include the Foodbank WA School

Breakfast Program. This is operated by Foodbank WA, a non denominational, not for profit organisation that links the food industry to community support agencies serving disadvantaged communities. The Program began in 2001, targeting high risk students in 17 Western Australian schools. It now reaches over 330 schools across the state, serving tens of thousands of breakfasts each week through funds donated specifically for it (Foodbank WA School Breakfast Program website).

In other instances, leadership is taken up by one of the partner agencies, which acts as a lead agency for the extended service school. A strong lead agency is a characteristic of effective extended service schooling. Lead agencies are typically organisations with a recognised role in the delivery and coordination of services for children and young people and the capacity to broker partnerships among diverse stakeholders. Schools frequently serve as the lead agency in extended service schools, but this is not without problems. In particular, extended service schools in which the school is the lead agency may struggle to attract the most educationally disengaged young people and their families, an issue that is discussed in further detail elsewhere in this report. Some Full Service Extended Schools in the United Kingdom, for example, have found that locating services on school sites makes some parents reluctant to visit and that services based at the school have experienced few 'walk-in' referrals as a result of this (Wilkin et al, 2008).

Some leadership and governance solutions have focused on the use of non-school sites as a means of distributing responsibility for program delivery. At North Rockhampton State High School in Queensland, the Full Service School initially operated from a shopfront in the Rockhampton Central Business District before moving to new premises in the local TAFE campus. This is because it was felt that students who were not experiencing success in the school environment might benefit from a clearly differentiated setting. Many of these are 'self-excluders' from formal schooling, some are referred by other schools and some are referred by welfare agencies. At any given time, about one third of enrolments are Indigenous students (What Works website). In Ballarat in Victoria, extended service school provision has also been offered through settings such as the University of Ballarat's TAFE Division and the local YMCA. After school care is delivered by the YMCA in collaboration with local schools including Ballarat and Clarendon Colleges, Buninyong Primary School and Mt Clear Primary School, with before-school care hosted off-site in community venues such as the Ballarat Aquatic Centre (Ballarat YMCA website).

As a corollary, some schools have consented to a community-based or social care organisation acting not only as the key site for the location of services but as the lead agency in the service provision arrangement. Community-based agencies have a particularly significant role to play in relation to young people who are not in contact with the schooling system and do not belong to the existing school community (Smith, 2000). Some extended service schools have emphasised their association with a community based organisation that presents a more acceptable and accessible face for these young people (Grossman, Walker & Raley, 2001, 2002). In Geelong in Victoria, for example, the Barwon Adolescent Taskforce is an alliance of organisations in the region that share a role in the provision of services for young people. It serves as a vehicle to develop, implement and evaluate initiatives as well as

means of sharing practice and facilitating collaboration. This has made it a natural partner for schools implementing extended services through Victoria's School Focused Youth Service program. Its role as lead agency includes working with schools to develop priorities for full service schooling provision, seek funding, sponsor local research and advocate on behalf of young people (Barwon Adolescent Taskforce website).

In other instances, schools and community-based organisations may operate as a combined or shared lead agency (Dryfoos, 1999). In Canada, the Bruce/WoodGreen Early Learning Centre is a Toronto First Duty site, designed to demonstrate the provision of integrated and accessible child care, kindergarten and family services. Bruce Public Junior School and WoodGreen Community Services are the lead site partners. The school principal and centre manager, employed by WoodGreen, jointly supervise the program. The management committee includes parents, WoodGreen, the school, the City of Toronto's children's services and public health divisions, the Toronto District School Board, the Atkinson Charitable Foundation and the Atkinson Centre for Society and Child Development at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education at the University of Toronto. Under this integrated governance model, the partners pool their resources to plan and deliver the program. The school supplies the physical space and educational staff. WoodGreen supports the centre manager and early childhood education staff as well as providing administrative assistance and professional development. The District School Board contributes professional development and release time for staff, the Foundation supports the nutrition program and Toronto Public Health delivers health services (Toronto First Duty, 2009).

Different modes of delivery also require different governance structures. In the United Kingdom, schools are free to select from governance and delivery modes that include direct delivery, where the school makes all necessary arrangements; delivery with third parties, where the school works with third parties from the private or voluntary sector; or cluster delivery, where the schools shares resources and personnel with other local schools (Department for Education and Skills, 2005). Other governance solutions include the appointment of an Extended Schools Remodelling Adviser who helps to guide the school's decisions about what services to provide, what facilities will be required and what changes may be needed in order to accommodate extended service schooling provision. In Australia, School Focused Youth Services are supported by Local Advisory Groups who play a similar role. The School Focused Youth Service also provides a useful model of multi-level governance. At the statewide level, a Statewide Advisory Group and Working Group supports a statewide program approach. At the regional level, the service is supported by a Regional Advisory Group that oversees and guides the regional implementation of the service. At the local level, the Local Advisory Group works in partnership with service providers to develop effective communication strategies within their area and respond to local issues (Success Works, 2001).

Cluster arrangements have been identified as a particularly effective form of governance and delivery for extended service schools. Forming clusters of schools and social care agencies enables a greater range of provision within a local geographic area without the costly duplication of services and without

each school having to provide all services (Peters et al, 2009). Cluster arrangements also have the potential to foster stronger links and communication between schools and agencies, although large clusters may make it difficult to fully engage all partners (Success Works, 2001).

Engaging the cooperation and involvement of children, young people and families

One strong message arising from the literature is that effective extended service schools require the cooperation and involvement of children, young people and families. There is little differentiation in the literature about which extended services are particularly dependent on this cooperation and involvement: instead, the implication is that all services require it. There is evidence, however, that many schools do not succeed in engaging the hardest to reach groups.

Responsiveness to family and community needs

One of the first steps in engaging the cooperation and involvement of children, young people and families is to ensure that services are adequately directed to their needs and priorities. Extended service schooling recognises that “cultural, communal, and familial factors” provide a central context for the education and wellbeing of children and young people (Kenny et al, p.733). As a result, most extended service schooling models presume that services are delivered at the level of the local community and are finely tuned to the needs of that community (Brown et al, 2001; Gammage, 2004; Kemmis, 2000; White, 2004). This suggests that extended service schools should be open to the community in ways that are both physical and philosophical, that there should be a clear synergy between the aims of the school and the community it serves, and that the school should be willing to engage in innovation to address the specific needs of the community (Coleman, 2006; Ipsos MORI, 2008; Smith, 2000). One study has gone so far as to suggest that “successful implementation in one setting does not mean replication is possible in another” because provision is so strongly shaped by local need and needs to be so sensitive to local variations in culture and ethnicity (McMahon et al., 2000, p.73). This is particularly indicated with regards to Indigenous communities (Sutherland, 2003). Craig, Huber and Lownsborough suggest that the development of extended service schools should be guided by such questions as:

- “What relationships do we have? What are their qualities, and when, where and how do we currently engage with different stakeholders?
- What key new relationships do we need to build?
- (...)
- How can we involve those we would wish to work with from the outset in the planning and development process?” (2004, p.42).

An important first step in meeting the needs of the community is to ascertain what these needs are and what services already exist within the local area to address them. Because poor or inadequate planning is a common limitation of existing extended service schooling programs, the literature regularly stresses the importance of detailed planning prior to implementation that is informed by local circumstances.

This may require a comprehensive local needs analysis that maps existing services and identifies potential new partners for the extended service school (Grossman, Walker & Raley, 2000; Ipsos MORI, 2008; McMahon et al, 2000; Success Works, 2001; Walker et al, 2000). In the Australian context, these existing services may include programs offered at the level of the local community as well as through the structures of local, state or national government. They may also include existing partnerships and networks that bring together aspects of the community to benefit children and young people. Potential new partners may include other education and training providers, community agencies, business and industry and philanthropic organisations supporting initiatives in the local area (Black, 2008). In low socioeconomic contexts that are already the focus of numerous interventions, a local needs analysis may yield a rich list of resources, knowledge and good will on which extended service schools can build.

A strong example comes from Yuille Park Community College, which is part of the Wendouree West Learning Hub located in a Neighbourhood Renewal area of Victoria. The Hub is a ‘whole-of-life’ learning and community centre. It co-locates the College with the Wendouree West Community House, which offers adult and community learning programs as well as facilities that can be used by the whole community seven days a week, and an early childhood centre that incorporates a kindergarten, childcare and maternal and child health services. In this way, the school is an integral part of a community centre that offers learning, health care, childcare, employment and recreation facilities for the local area. Both the Hub and the College are the result of extensive community consultation and a deep investigation of community need carried out over a number of years (University of Ballarat, 2008). A second example comes from two neighboring schools in the United Kingdom that worked together to fund and conduct an extensive local needs analysis and consultation process as a precursor to the integration of pre-school services for the area (Dyson, Millward & Todd, 2002).

To be most effective, local needs analysis should be both an ongoing process and an activity that builds the capacity of the community. An extensive United States study suggests that “policymakers need to shift their thinking from creating the program to expanding the set of options available in a community” (Grossman, Walker & Raley, 2002, p.vi). It concludes that young people are most likely to benefit if they are able to “put together a mosaic of positive experiences—broadening the range of activities, widening their geographic horizons, and increasing their network of adults and peers” (Grossman, Walker & Raley, 2002, pp.vi-vii). Supplying the pieces of this mosaic requires more than simple service provision: it suggests that multiple opportunities need to be generated through and within the local community.

This notion already has resonance in Australia: there is a strong historic view here that extended service schooling, especially in its full service form, should mobilise the community to collectively address the issues facing its children and young people. This positions the extended service school as a community development initiative that empowers the community and provides a locus for its collective expertise (Kemmis, 2000; Mukherjee, 1998; Social Policy Research Centre, 2008). Responsiveness to the local community may also ameliorate or prevent the community controversy and opposition that can arise in response to new extended service schools. For example, McMahon and his colleagues (2000) have

noted the potential for community opposition to services that may be seen as controversial such as family planning services. To offset this opposition, Dryfoos (1996) has highlighted the importance of providing the local community with data from local needs analyses early in or even prior to the development of the new services.

The Yipirinya School in the Northern Territory provides one example of a school that has prioritised responsiveness to its community as a guiding principle of its extended service provision. The school offers childcare, preschool, primary and secondary school programs for students who may travel up to 150 kilometres to attend school each day. Indigenous Assistant Teachers and tutors work with students and teachers in the classroom, supported by the Principal and Cultural Principal, the Curriculum Coordinator and a Special Needs Teacher. School Liaison Officers assist with communication with parents. Congress workers and a School First Aid Officer assist with health issues. The School Council is assisted by a Kwertengwerle or Advisory Committee, made up of prominent local people with special expertise. Students, their families and many staff have strong cultural ties to their country and the school maintains ongoing interaction with each of the communities, outstations and families from which its students come. It also operates in collaboration with a strong network of Aboriginal and mainstream organisations with established links to mainstream and Aboriginal secondary and tertiary education, training, health, welfare, and community organisations. The school attributes its success to its educational environment, which extends through cultural trips to students' home country and dreaming sites (Yipirinya School website).

Engaging hard to reach children, young people and families

One of the biggest challenges of extended service schooling is the engagement of those groups most in need of service support. Frequently, it is the children and young people who are most engaged in schooling and whose parents have the highest income and level of education who participate in before- or after-school activities and extended service programs. These young people participate more frequently, in a greater number of activities and in a more sustained manner than their more disengaged and disadvantaged peers (Grossman, Walker & Raley, 2001).

Young people at risk of educational disengagement are particularly sensitive to the nature of their relationship with teachers and other adults. Models of service provision that have been the most successful in engaging these young people are those that are the most flexible and responsive and that offer the most equitable and connected relationships and interactions (Grossman, Walker & Raley, 2002). In some instances, they are models that draw heavily on existing relationships between young people and staff outside the school. One Australian full service schools program, for example, targeted a group of young people with complex family relationships and a lack of connection to school. In the absence of other support, these young people's connection to community agencies and workers was a pivotal element in their wellbeing. The program recognised the importance of these relationships, utilised them and built upon them (Stokes, 2000). Engaging hard-to-reach young people may also require the creation of a more adult learning environment and organisational culture than commonly

pertains in schools. It may require actively involving young people as participants in the planning and ongoing operation of services. It may require lower student-to-staff ratios, which has direct implications for funding (Grossman, Walker & Raley, 2000).

Engaging parents can be just as much of a challenge. Parental engagement is an ongoing issue for many schools serving disadvantaged communities (Black, 2007). It is not surprising, therefore, that some extended service schools struggle to involve and include parents (Ipsos MORI, 2008; Little, Wimer & Weiss, 2008; Shaw, 2003), especially within the short timeframes frequently mandated by extended service school pilot programs (Sammons et al, 2003). This may stem from the low priority of education within the local community and a poor history of local community involvement in the school. In some cases, the negative attitude of parents in relation to their own schooling experience makes them reluctant to cooperate with any institution boasting a legacy of authority (Wilkin et al, 2008). The result is that parents who are willing to become involved in the school are those in the least need of assistance and that those in the greatest need receive the least support. This can be exacerbated by high family mobility. When children or young people transfer to a new school, parents have to reestablish relationships from scratch. This can mean that students undergo a period without support, until their new school begins to recognise the signs of underachievement (Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills, 2009).

The findings of Australian research into early childhood services are instructive. This has found that a significant minority of families do not make good use of important services. These include Indigenous families, families from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds, families experiencing unstable housing or homelessness, families experiencing violence, families with a parent with a disability and families associated with child protection services. The research indicates that while these families may make initial contact with services, they often attend infrequently, cease attendance or do not become fully engaged in the services' activities (Carbone et al, 2004). Engaging these families may require a significant cultural shift for extended service schools:

"The central challenge of extended schooling is legitimacy - it is about engaging with a community, and with the other agencies inside the community, in a manner that invites their participation, ownership, even leadership. Simply dictating undifferentiated, unresponsive services will miss the point entirely, however cost effective, rigorous and integrated these services are" (Craig, Huber & Lownsborough, 2004, p 2.)

Despite these challenges, some extended service schools have succeeded in engaging the cooperation and active involvement of children, young people and families, including those who are considered hard to reach. Successful strategies include targeted recruitment of parents, the engagement of parents as volunteers, regular forums through which parents can meet, adult learning programs and parent education classes (Centre for Community Child Health, 2006; Department for Children, Schools and Families, 2008; Grossman, Walker & Raley 2001, 2002). Other strategies that have been employed include parent support advisers, parental liaison workers or family support workers, although these

have reported mixed results (Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills, 2009; Sammons et al, 2003; Shaw, 2003). The early years provide a particularly rich source of strong models of child and family engagement. The next section of this report provides examples of practice from both the early and later years of schooling.

Engaging children and families

One example of a school that has been successful in engaging the cooperation and involvement of families is the Challis Parenting and Early Learning Centre, which serves a low socioeconomic suburb south of Perth with a high proportion of Indigenous families. It is jointly funded and managed and co-located with Challis Primary School and the Challis Early Childhood Education Centre, which has won numerous awards for innovative practice in engaging Indigenous children and their families. The Parenting and Early Learning Centre provides programs for parents and young children aged from birth to 4 years, with a focus on improving school readiness. It was formed out of the recognition that local families need a central community hub where their children's health and development needs can be addressed. Parent and Play Centres and an Indigenous playgroup, Kartajin Danjoo, provide a family-friendly environment in which parents and children learn and play together supported by Centre staff (Communicare, year unknown; Dare to Lead website).

Another strong example comes from Meadowbank Primary School in the outer Melbourne suburb of Broadmeadows. The Meadowbank Early Learning Centre is an organic community hub designed to address the impact of socioeconomic disadvantage among local families. It acts as a key contact point for families and facilitates their connection to a range of services, resources and opportunities. It has been particularly effective in engaging with families who would otherwise be unlikely to seek preschool education for their children. This is in part because of its empathetic understanding of the circumstances of these families, including the families from culturally diverse backgrounds that make up a significant proportion of the school community, and because of its open door policy, which continually encourages and supports parental involvement. This fosters a sense of belonging amongst parents that shows itself in the number who give back to the Centre by volunteering and joining Centre committees (Warr, 2007).

A third Australian example is Minimbah Preschool in Armidale, New South Wales, where a special family support program for children aged between birth and 2 years has been established to help Indigenous families and children become more comfortable with the educational environment. Family members take part in activities like sewing, watching videos and discussing health issues while their children play in the same room. Families and children also cook and eat together in the nutrition centre. When children turn three, they move to the preschool, which is run by Indigenous staff. During their first year at the preschool, parents and grandparents continue to stay with the children. The preschool holds regular roundtable discussions with all those involved in the child's life and call on multiple professionals to provide them and their families with the necessary support (Hutchins et al, 2007).

The United Kingdom provides further examples of successful practice. Riverview Primary School (researchers' pseudonym) has established multiple strategies to engage parents, with the result that a high level of parental involvement is a significant feature of the school. Its popular childcare centre provides an immediate link with parents. It also hosts an after school Kids Club, a Parent and Toddler Club and a Social Services Centre for adults with learning difficulties. A team of parents provide support to students during classtime, some of whom have completed a Specialist Teacher Assistant course. To continue to encourage parental involvement, an area of the school has been adapted as a multi-purpose room designed to host the local Parent Partnership Service for parents of children with special educational needs (Dyson, Millward & Todd, 2002). In Scotland, Chadhill Primary School has boosted family engagement by inviting parents to join their children in the classroom and observe their progress. Parents are then asked to reflect on their observations and to talk through them with their children at home. Allenhead School has a specifically appointed family liaison officer. It also provides parenting skills training in collaboration with social workers, health workers and a Positive Parenting group, which has led to greater social support amongst parents. The Gorburn New Community School cluster has created a parents' group that has reportedly given parents far more confidence in their role as legitimate and influential members of the school community (Sammons et al, 2003).

Engaging young people and families

There are numerous examples of initiatives that have been both inventive and successful in engaging young people and their families. Some of these are encapsulated in schools that have set up specific strategies geared towards parents. As a Full Service Extended School in the United Kingdom, Keith High School has established a Community Learning Centre that offers health services and vocational training programs for adults. As part of its attempt to combat low levels of parental involvement, the school now has an explicit policy of recruiting parents for employment or volunteer roles with a view to engaging "the parent as governor; the parent as FSES coordinator; the parent as teaching assistant, and the parent as 'achiever' whose success, it is hoped, will by example impact directly on students and the wider community" (Cummings et al, 2006, p. 77).

Other examples are encapsulated in wraparound initiatives that provide comprehensive community-based services to young people and their families. Originally developed for young people with significant mental health and behavioural difficulties, wraparound services within the Australian context refer to individualised services designed to meet the specific needs of the child or young person (NSW Department of Community Services, 2007). The seminal Wraparound program in the United States is guided by ten principles of practice: "family voice and choice, team-based, natural supports, collaboration, community-based, culturally competent, individualised, strengthbased, persistence, and outcome-based" (Wyles, 2007, p.46).

One example of wraparound practice in action in Australia comes from the Turnaround Program in the Australian Capital Territory. Turnaround has been developed to improve the coordination of service delivery for young people with high and complex needs: on average, young people referred to

Turnaround are involved with seven different services on their entry to the program. It also seeks to ensure that young people and their families are active partners in the service delivery process. Each young person is supported by a team that includes professionals and people with whom they already have relationships, such as family members. The young people themselves help to identify those individuals and agencies that need to be members of their support team. The program provides an individual case plan for each young person that allocates those services and resources that best meet each young person's current assessed needs and provides transition planning to meet their longer term or future needs. Regular case conferences are held between the young person and their support team to identify and work towards the goals of the case plan.

Other initiatives include the work of schools such as Canberra College, which has partnered with the Child, Youth and Women's Health Program from the Australian Capital Territory Department of Health to create the CC Cares unit. This is a separate Year 11 and 12 campus established alongside the main school to support the needs of pregnant or parenting students as well as young carers and students not experiencing success in mainstream school settings. Of the young parents who attend, 95 per cent bring their children with them to the school. The campus also offers an adult evening education program and a one stop shop for educational and health services. Students have shown greater engagement with school, higher rates of educational completion and an increased sense of belonging in the school and local community. In 2009, CC Cares was the National Impact Award winner for the inaugural Schools First program conducted by the National Australia Bank with the Australian Council for Educational Research and The Foundation for Young Australians (Schools First website).

A similar example comes from Corio Bay Senior College in Victoria, a school with a low socioeconomic and culturally diverse student body, a proportion of whom are young, single parents. Launched in 2004, the Young Parents Access Project provides onsite childcare, giving priority to young parents who are students at the school. The Project operates within the wider context of an onsite family centre that offers maternal and child health, a women's service and a father's group. The childcare and family centres are managed separately from the school but maintain close communication with it to identify student need. They are funded separately from the school. The Department of Families, Housing, Community Services and Indigenous Affairs currently funds the family centre. The Department of Human Services funds places in the childcare centre, with generous subsidies for parents enrolled in the school. The Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations and the School Council jointly fund workers within the Young Parents Access program. The City of Geelong Cardinia Women's Service refers students to the school and Bethany Community Support assists with the family centre (Black & Celata, 2008; Shacklock, 2007).

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