1991

Alternative teaching strategies for the at-risk student

Christin M. Nugent
University of Northern Iowa

Alternative teaching strategies for the at-risk student

Abstract

The focus recently in education has been on the at-risk student. Money from national, state, and local agencies has poured into the area of at-risk education. This money generated a significantly high level of research. Many questions can be answered using this body of research. What is an at-risk student and what factors cause a student to be at-risk? What programs have worked when dealing with at-risk students? How does a teacher's behavior affect at-risk students? What programs are the Dubuque Community Schools currently using with their at-risk students? The answers to these questions can provide a teacher with successful means for dealing with the at-risk student.

ALTERNATIVE TEACHING STRATEGIES

FOR THE

AT-RISK STUDENT

A Graduate Project

Submitted to the

Department of Curriculum and Instruction

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts in Education

UNIVERSITY OF NORTHERN IOWA

by

Christina M. Nugent

August 1991

This Research Paper by: Christina M. Nugent

Entitled: ALTERNATIVE TEACHING STRATEGIES FOR THE AT-RISK STUDENT

has been approved as meeting the research paper requirement for the Degree of Master of Arts in Education.

7/31/91	Mary Nan Aldridge
Date Approved	Director of Research Paper
7/31/91	Mary Nan Aldridge
Date Approved	Graduate Faculty Adviser
7/31/91	Marcus Yoder
Date Approved	Graduate Faculty Reader
7/31/91	Peggy Ishler
Date Approved	Head, Department of Curriculum and Instruction

INTRODUCTION

The focus recently in education has been on the at-risk student. Money from national, state, and local agencies has poured into the area of at-risk education. This money generated a significantly high level of research. Many questions can be answered using this body of research. What is an at-risk student and what factors cause a student to be at-risk? What programs have worked when dealing with at-risk students? How does a teacher's behavior affect at-risk students? What programs are the Dubuque Community Schools currently using with their at-risk students? The answers to these questions can provide a teacher with successful means for dealing with the at-risk student.

What is an At-Risk Student and What Factors Cause a Student to be At-Risk?

The state of Iowa defines at-risk as any identified student who is at-risk of not being able to do the following: (a) meeting the goals of the educational program established by the district, (b) completing a high school education, or (c) becoming a productive worker. These students may include, but are not limited to: dropouts, potential dropouts, teenage parents, substance abuse users and abusers, low academic achievers, abused and homeless children, youth offenders, economically deprived, minorities, culturally isolated, those with sudden negative changes in performance due to environmental or physical trauma and those with language barriers, gender barriers, and disabilities

(Morley & Clay, 1985). Some students can possess the characteristics mentioned in the Iowa definition and still graduate from high school and become productive members of society. The Children of the Garden Island study supports this idea. In this study in 1955, almost 700 babies were studied for 30 years. Some students came from very poor home lives, dropped out of high school, and were unproductive. Other students from very similar situations graduated and did become productive. This study shows that some students are resilient and can survive a lot of stress without too many problems, but others suffer greatly from the stress.

Much research has been done on identifying at-risk students and the effect high school dropouts have on society. Currently, studies show that dropouts are less likely to get jobs or stay in the labor force. As a whole, dropouts earn 1/3 less than graduates (Orr, 1987). High school dropouts cost society money in the form of welfare benefits and taxes. Society is affected by a high jobless rate and crime rate. Iowa and Dubuque are not immune to this problem. Something must be done about the at-risk population in Dubuque.

Research shows that by the end of third grade it is possible to predict which students will eventually dropout of school. Maximum benefit can be gained by assisting those students during the earliest possible points in school (Phlegar, 1987). At-risk students need to be identified as early as possible and evaluated

frequently (Donnelly, 1987). Early intervention and frequent evaluation have a positive impact on at-risk education today.

Previously at-risk education was limited to high school students in the form of alternative schools. Generally, alternative schools offer a relaxed environment, smaller class sizes and school itself, teachers that want to be there, and an individualized curriculum (Willman, 1989). Though high school alternative schools have been successful to a certain extent, the national dropout rate, as well as the Iowa dropout rate has remained high. As the research states and history shows, interventions need to be done at an earlier age; high school interventions may be too late. Many schools are implementing at-risk programs for elementary and junior high students, but in Iowa, these programs take on many different forms avoiding the alternative school model.

The middle level age group is also unique. The New York City Board of Education task force in a major study done in 1988 emphasized that middle schools have a unique place in education and unique needs. At the middle level, school climate, curriculum, instructional programs, and the availability of positive adult role models all affect student performance (Bergmann, 1989). This is especially true of the at-risk student.

There is a growing body of literature concerning characteristics that signal possible attributes of potential dropout problems. Students who score low on achievement tests are

six times as likely to dropout as those who score higher (Orr, 1987). Separate studies by Mann, Reese, and Witt in 1987 reinforce the theory that a relationship between behavior and academic achievement does exist. When this is combined with the fact that students who have discipline problems are three times as likely to drop out, the repercussions are great (Hawaii Department of Education, 1984). Stanley Anderson (1987) says that disruptive behavior hinders progress, and at-risk students are not succeeding under current teaching practices. This creates students with low self-esteem.

At-risk status is determined by many other factor including attendance. Poor attendance causes students to fall behind. Students cannot officially drop out of junior high school. However, Orr (1987) asserts that students can mentally drop out by being absent frequently or for long periods of time.

Parents also can determine whether or not a child is at-risk. Students who drop out are twice as likely to have a parent who has dropped out (Orr, 1987). Disinterested parents or parents who are non-supportive of their children and the school can also have an effect on at-risk behavior (Anderson, 1987). Dysfunctional families are on the rise in today's society and they can also contribute whether or not a child is at-risk (Perez-Selles & Hergert, 1989).

Many students today do not get involved in school activities. This can put some students at-risk. Students who drop out are far

less likely to participate in extra-curricular activities, particularly athletics, when in school (Weber, 1986). Donnelly (1987) said that students who do not participate in school activities have a minimal identification with the school, and this can put them at-risk.

Students who are at-risk may also come from poverty. Twenty-two percent of students from low income families will drop out, in contrast to only 7% from upper income families (Orr, 1987).

Drug abuse has also become a major problem in today's society. The United States has the highest rate of teen drug abuse of any industrial nation (Hodgkinson, 1985). Parents who use drugs are more likely to have children who use drugs because of the pro-drug attitude in the home and also because the parents are modeling a behavior (Hansen, 1988). Students who smoke and drink often experiment with illegal drugs and early, unprotected sex as well. These are the same young people who are prone to school failure (Turning Points, 1989). A student's friends also influence a student to take drugs (Hansen, 1988). The media is also a big influence. On one hand children are told that drugs are bad and can hurt them, but on the other hand they see people using a wide variety of drugs, some legal, on television (Green, 1989). Rebelliousness is also a factor when determining whether or not a student will take drugs. Those students who are prone to risk-taking, rebelliousness, and independence are most likely to

experiment with substances and put themselves at-risk (Hansen, 1988).

There are a few additional reasons for at-risk status as well. Society itself is also changing. Teenage parents, run-aways, and youth offenders are at-risk (NCREL). Since 1960 delinquency rates for children age 10-17 have increased 130% (Hodgkinson, 1985). Many students live in one parent families, and extended families are not available for help as they once were. Television is also a major influence on students. What once could only be seen on the PG movie screen can now be viewed on prime time television. By age 18 students have watched 18,000 hours of television, averaging 26 hours a week, between the ages of 2 and 12 (Green, 1989). The invention and availability of VCRs and videogames keep students inside and less active as well.

What Programs Have Worked When Dealing With At-Risk Students?

When people think of programs to help the at-risk student, many think of an alternative school. For a long time, the alternative school was the main intervention for dealing with at-risk students. The NCREL defined an alternative school as: "houses of students within schools and smaller schools designed for those students who do not benefit from the typical set of 40-50 minute periods with 6 different teachers" (p. 26). Alternative schools find ways to educate and support students along with addressing issues that interfere with their success (Perez-Selles & Hergert, 1989). In 1987, Ron Garrison said the benefits of an

alternative school were a quality education, students stayed in school, instruction was individualized, and students felt safe.

In order to be an effective alternative school there are many things that need to be present. The teachers must want to be there and be empathetic, not sympathetic to the students. The curriculum should deal with real life problems. Parents and the community need to be involved. A mentor program needs to be implemented. Peer tutoring and cooperative learning must be a big part of the teaching process. The principal and teachers need to develop constructive ways of dealing with disruptive behavior and the interventions must be personal, not broad. Some of the special services an alternative school may offer are child care, medical care, substance abuse counselors, and bilingual instructors (Donnelly, 1987). All in all, alternative schools need to build self-esteem, meet physical needs, and challenge the intellect (Perez-Selles & Hergert, 1989).

There are a couple of disadvantages to an alternative school. In the beginning, alternative schools were designed to be schools of choice. Are they schools of choice today, or are they dumping grounds for trouble makers? Some people think that they encourage alienation and class distinction as well (Garrison, 1987).

Accelerated schools may help students who are having achievement problems. These schools are designed to bring students up to grade level so the students are prepared to enter mainstreamed secondary schools. The schools involve peer

tutoring, cooperative learning, parent involvement, and applying learning to everyday problems (Phlegar, 1987).

Magnet schools are another facet of at-risk schools. They often evolved out of a school with a high at-risk population. The reputation of a school was changed by acquiring newer and unique equipment and an alternative curriculum. One example of a magnet school is Park City School in Connecticut. In an attempt to desegregate the school by making it more attractive to a broader range of students, a program was developed which included a media lab, computer-assisted math program, many field trips, and lots of basic skills and remedial work. The school also had a dedicated, hand-picked staff, a strong principal, and lots of parent involvement (Goldner, 1988). Detroit, Michigan, also has a strong magnet school system.

There are other programs designed to help the at-risk student besides specialized schools. Any program can be successful as long as the program relates real life situations to education, has a low student to teacher ratio, and provides counseling and supportive services. These successful programs also emphasize flexibility and tailoring the curriculum to the individual student. They are often innovative, and provide an alternative to the traditional promotional policies (Donnelly, 1987).

One such program is peer tutoring. Peer tutoring increases learning and socialization and self-esteem (Turkel & Abramson, 1986). In 1982, a Cohen and Kulik (Turkel & Abramson, 1986) study

showed positive gains for both the tutor and the tutee. There was a study done by the New York Board of Education to evaluate a peer tutoring program which was implemented in the schools. This program had City University of New York students help New York school system students. It was supposed to provide adult role models, provide a personal relationship, and help with academic, personal, and social concerns. Before and after the program the students were given the Quality of Schools Life Scale. The results indicated that the tutees felt better about school and teachers after the program than before. School attendance also went up. This study indicated that college students are a cost-effective resource as long as they are monitored closely (Turkel & Abramson, 1986). Another successful peer tutoring program is the Valued Youth Partnership which trains at-risk students as peer tutors to younger students (Perez-Selles & Hergert, 1989). Learning disability (LD) students can also be effective tutors. Placing an LD student in the position of a teacher reinforces academic demands, it builds self-concept, encourages positive social interaction, teaches responsibility, and encourages good behavior (Lazerson, Foster, Brown, & Hammel, 1988).

Another program is the QUEST: Skills for Adolescence. QUEST includes increased parent involvement, inservice for teachers, learning for students, community partnership teaching of critical thinking, problem solving, and goal setting (Green, 1989).

Student Assistance Teams also work well with at-risk students. A Student Assistance Team is a core group of well-trained adults including teachers, administrators, counselors, and sometimes police, business people and parents who work together to identify at-risk students. Sometimes a team can also include students who serve as role models and liaisons between teachers and peers (Moskowitz, 1989).

Project Adventures motivates students and acts as a mini-outward bound project. "Here's Looking at You 2000" is a program developed by the Seattle Washington School District. It is a comprehensive program that includes filmstrips, videos, and computer software that is informational and builds social skills and bonding among students and teachers (Moskowitz, 1989).

There are three programs that are alternatives to suspension. One is the Time Out program which came from Steven Dent in Kentucky. Another is Positive Alternative to Student Suspensions which is from John Kackley and Ralph Bailey in St. Petersburg, Florida. A third is the Saturday School program which gives no detentions but makes the student come to school on Saturday. James Furgason in Columbus, Ohio, directs this program.

Project SMART is a crisis intervention/resolution strategy for students, teachers, and parents. The program's goals include teaching students new skills in communication and conflict resolution, decreasing tension and violence among students, giving students the power to resolve their own conflicts, and building a

sense of community among the students. This program is another way for administrators to deal with conflict. B. Emanuel in Brooklyn, New York, is a key person in this program. Project NET helps school districts develop strategies for truancy/dropout prevention. Each student's particular needs are carefully studied with the student, family, and school. The problem is identified, interventions are considered, and action toward a solution is taken. Joan Abeshouse Grossman of Norwalk, Connecticut, is a contact person for this program.

A school-community guidance center works on school attendance, academic achievement, disruptive behavior, and contacts with courts. Center staff members counsel with individuals and act as a liaison between the student and the administrators, teachers, school officials, and social service agencies. The center also provides guest speakers for weekly assemblies, home visits, and attendance calls. A study of a school-community guidance center in Austin, Texas, showed that the center made attendance go up and dropouts go down, but most students reverted to their old behavior once they left the program (Frazer & Beanen, 1988).

Another way to deal with attendance problems is by home visits and personal contacts and incentives for attendance like t-shirts, free time, outings, etc.
(NCREL).

Some students may need drug programs. These programs are successful as long as they include the following things: peer pressure resistance training, conservative norms on drug abuse, inoculation against mass media messages, parent influences, peer leadership, and relevant consequences (Hansen, 1988). There are two additional programs which work on a variety of skills. These programs are Diversified Educational Experience Programs directed by Jane Connett in Wichita, Kansas, (National Dissemination Study Group, 1988) and FOCUS directed by Don May in South St. Paul, Minnesota, (Michigan State Board of Education, 1986).

How Does a Teacher's Behavior Affect the At-Risk Student?

Teachers can make or break a program or a class, either by teaching methods or personality. Most kids say that school would be better if teachers would listen to them more (Bergmann, 1989). Teachers who are particularly concerned with the educational and personal needs of their students are more likely to be successful when working with them (NCREL). When the teacher is not actively teaching and allowing students to participate, there can be behavior problems and academic trouble (Bergmann, 1989). Teachers need to stress intervention with programs such as Glasser's Reality Therapy before students become disinterested and drop out (Hodgkinson & Mirga, 1986). Most students do not mind being asked to leave the class as a consequence for disruptive behavior. Studies show that they only leave the classes that they do not like.

In summary, teachers need to lecture less, pay attention to the physical needs of their students, avoid down time, become aware of poor transitions between activities, and give critical thought to the seating of students. Teachers need to provide a caring school environment, encourage adult attention and guidance, as well as a supportive classroom environment to promote open communication (Green, 1989). This is more of a proactive approach rather than reactive (Bergmann, 1989).

On April 17, 1991, several students from Central Alternative School in Dubuque were informally interviewed about what qualities their favorite teacher possessed. Students said things like: "Didn't embarrass you in front of the class," "Didn't lecture all the time," "Had a sense of humor," "Made learning fun," and "They cared about us." All these comments coincide with what the research says.

School climate can also have a lot to do with at-risk students. Many at-risk students feel alienated. To reduce alienation in students, schools need programs that eliminate segregation from peers, younger children, and adults; provide opportunities for students to make meaningful contributions to society; focus on responsibility in health education; teach awareness of economic exploitation; and actively involve senior citizens (Calabrese, 1987). Turning Points (1989) has a lot to say about school climate. Parents should be involved and teachers need to provide home learning activities. When students are

constantly shifting and changing classes formidable barriers are created that hinder the formation of stable peer groups and close, supportive relationships with caring adults. In order to solve these problems, Turning Points suggest that schools need to establish smaller communities for students to belong to, integrate subject matter, implement a mentor program, have a core academic program, provide youth services, use cooperative learning not tracking, and use cross-age tutoring. These things stimulate higher levels of thought and decision-making as well as good physical fitness and mental health.

The student population of schools are changing. Teachers are being challenged to take on more responsibilities and deal with a more diverse population. Currently in the Dubuque Community School District teachers have many students who at one time were in residential treatment like Hillcrest Family Services and a wide variety of foster homes. PL-94-142 states that students must be educated in the least restrictive environment, hence many are a part of the regular classroom.

What Programs are the Dubuque Community Schools Currently Using with Their At-Risk Students?

The Dubuque junior high schools have come up with a variety of ways of dealing with at-risk students. First of all, Washington Junior High offers the SAM program. This is a guided study hall for students who need more structure. In this study hall, the teacher monitors students' assignment notebooks and

helps them with any homework they might have. Both junior high schools offer an adopt-a-student plan. At the beginning of the school year a volunteer teacher "adopts" a student forming a close emotional bond. Jefferson Junior High School also has a School Based Youth Program with an at-risk coordinator. The coordinator acts as a liaison between teachers and students. She does minimal problem-solving and focuses mainly on preventative measures. Teachers refer students who are having problems. The coordinator talks to students and refers them to the correct person who can help, including using community resources. Some of the community resources are a mental health counselor, a substance abuse counselor, a psychologist, a Visiting Nurse Association worker, and the recreation director of the YMCA. Since these services have become available not as many people have had to go to in-house treatment for mental health or substance abuse reasons. (Information gained from interviews with Duane Frick, Principal of Jefferson Junior High School; Art Roling, Principal of Washington Junior High School; and Dana Boleyn, At-risk Coordinator.)

The Dubuque Schools seem to have a start on alternative programs for junior high students. Many more are available. Teachers need to be aware of more alternatives especially in the areas of classroom management and teaching strategies. With the coming of site-based management in the Dubuque Community School District, it is important that schools with a high population of

at-risk students make finding and investigating these alternatives a priority.

Conclusions

From the preceding discussion one has learned that a variety of factors determine whether a student will be at-risk. The status of the student, whether at-risk or not, can change from year to year, depending upon a variety of emotional, motivational, and environmental factors. Therefore, the following strategies are important to consider when devising programs to meet the needs of the at-risk student: cooperative learning, peer tutoring, and cross-age tutoring. In addition, programs to build self-esteem, like QUEST, should be included. Attention must be given to career education and establishing a relationship between schoolwork and everyday problems. Teachers and principals need to devise and apply constructive programs when dealing with disruptive behavior. Discipline programs in schools should be tailored to coincide with the specific needs of the students.

No one program is going to work for all students. Teachers should be willing to try any one of the programs mentioned previously as well as any other program suggested. After all, teachers can make or break a program. Many students I spoke with at the Central Alternative High School in Dubuque defined a good teacher as someone who made learning fun and did not always "nag or yell" at the students. Research previously mentioned agrees with these students.

As a member of the Dubuque Community School District, I plan on implementing as many of these strategies in my classroom as I can. For example, I have planned a career day once a month wherein a parent will be invited to the classroom to talk to the students about his/her job and the skills needed to perform that job. This program will tie career education to parent involvement. I am also planning a adopt a class program wherein our fifth grade class will become "big brothers and sisters" of a kindergarten class. The two classes will be integrated for whole language activities, picnics, and playtime.

The key to successful interventions with at-risk students is the involvement of a caring teacher skilled in the melding of the strategies available in at-risk education to the individual student.

REFERENCES

Anderson, S. D. (1987). Improving achievement, behavior, and parent involvement for middle school students through a behavior management program. Fort Lauderdale, FL: Nova University.

Bergmann, S. (1989). Discipline and guidance: A think line in the middle level school. Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals, ISBN 0883203357.

Calabrese, R. L. (1987). How schools can reduce alienation in adolescents. The High School Journal, 71, 14-18.

Chenoweth, T. (1989). The survival of public alternative schools: A symbolic perspective. Urban Education, 24(1), 93-108.

Conner, T. (1987). The quiet child: Student at risk. Academic Therapy, 22(5), 523-527.

Cooley, E. J., & Ayres, R. R. (1988). Self-concept and success-failure attributions of nonhandicapped students and students with learning disabilities. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 21(3), 174-178.

Cooper, D. H., & Speece, D. L. (1990). Maintaining at-risk children in regular settings: Initial effects of individual differences and classroom environments. Exceptional Children, 117-126.

DeBlois, R. (1989, April). Keep at-risk students in school: Toward a curriculum for potential dropouts. NASSP Bulletin, 73(516), pp. 6-12.

Detroit Board of Education. (1986). Detroit public schools. Schools of choice: Unique educational alternatives. Detroit, MI: Author.

Donnelly, M. (1987). At-risk students. ERIC Digest Series, 21.

Eyre, D. (1986). The organization of schools outside the traditional educational sector: An exploratory study. Stanford, CA: Stanford University.

Foley, E. (1983). Alternative schools: New findings. Social Policy, 13(3), 44-46.

Foley, E., & Crull, P. (1984). Educating the at-risk adolescent. More lessons from alternative high schools. A report. New York: Public Education Association.

Frazer, L. H., & Beanen, N. R. (1988). An alternative for high-risk students: The school-community guidance center evaluation. Austin, TX: Austin Independent School District, Texas Office of Research and Evaluation.

Garrison, R. W. (1987). Alternative schools for disruptive youth (NSSC resource paper). Malibu, CA: Pepperdine University, National School Safety Center.

Goldner, E. (1988). Magnet schools: Connecticut's quiet revolution. New Haven, CT: Connecticut Association of Alternative Schools and Programs.

Green, R. R. (1989). Quest backs students when the going gets tough. The School Administrator, pp. 13-19.

Gregory, T. B., & Smith, G. R. (1983). Differences between alternative and conventional schools in meeting students' needs. Paper presented at Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association.

Hansen, W. (1988, March). Effective school-based approaches to drug abuse prevention. Educational Leadership, 9-14.

Hawaii State Department of Education. (1984). Promising and successful programs and practices in schools with intermediate grade levels: Programs, projects and activities (Information and dissemination series 18. Honolulu, HI: Office of Instructional Services.

Hodgkinson, H. L. (1985). All one system: Demographics of education kindergarten through graduate school. Washington, D.C.: The Institute of Educational Leadership.

Hodgkinson, H. L., & Mirga, T. (1986). Today's numbers, tomorrow's nation. Education Week, 5(34).

Kleinbard, P. (1983). Alternative schools: Current issues. Social Policy, 13(3), 46-47.

Lazerson, D. B., Foster, H. L., Brown, S. I., & Hummel, J. W. (1988). The effectiveness of cross-age tutoring with truant, junior high school students with learning disabilities. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 21(4), 233-235.

Meier, D. (1987). Central park east: An alternative story. Phi Delta Kappan, 68(10), 753-757.

Michigan State Board of Education. (1986). Alternative schools/programs. Proven exemplary educational programs and practices: A collection from the National Diffusion Network (NDN). Lansing: MI: Author.

Moilanen, C. (1983). Portland public schools internal alternative schools. Portland, OR: Portland Public Schools, Evaluation Department.

Morley, R. E., & Clay, H. I. (1985). Alternative schools and programs, Iowa: Reaching out to help people (1985-1986 State Directory). Des Moines, IA: Iowa State Department of Public Instruction.

Moskowitz, J. B. (1989). At risk supplement. Media and Methods, 25(3), 25-40.

National Dissemination Study Group, Sopris West, Inc. (1988). Education programs that work: A collection of proven exemplary educational programs and practices (edition 14). Longmont, CO: Author.

North Central Regional Educational Laboratory (NCREL). Students at risk: A review of conditions, circumstances indicators and educational implications. Elmhurst, IL: Author.

Orr, M. T. (1987). What to do about youth dropouts? A summary of solutions. New York: Structured Employment/Economic Development Corporation.

Perez-Selles, M. E., & Hergert, L. F. (1989). Support services for at-risk youth: A resource packet. Andover, MD: The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands.

Phlegar, J. M. (1987). Good beginnings for young children: Early identification of high-risk youth and programs that promote success. Andover, MD: The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands.

Raywid, M. A. (1983). Alternative schools as a model for public education. Theory into practice, 22(3), 191-197.

Raywid, M. A. (1983). Schools of choice: Their current nature and prospects. Phi Delta Kappan, 64(10), 684-688.

Raywid, M. A. (1984, April). Synthesis of research on schools of choice. Educational Leadership, 41(7), 70-78.

Stevens, M. (1985). Characteristics of alternative schools. American Educational Research Journal, 22(1), 135-148.

Structured Employment/Economic Development Corporation (SEEDCO). (1987, July). What to do about youth dropouts: A summary of solutions. ISBN: 0943567009.

Tifft, S. (1989, June). Help for at-risk kids. Time, p. 51.

Turkel, S. B., & Abramson, T. (1986). Peer tutoring and mentoring as a dropout prevention strategy. The Clearing House, 60(2), 68-71.

Turning Points. (1989, June). Educating American youth for the 21st century [David Hornbeck, Director]. Commissioned by the Carnegie Corporation of New York.

Weber, J. M. (1986). The role of vocational education in decreasing the dropout rate. Columbus: Ohio State University, National Center for Research in Vocational Education.

Werner, E. E. (1989, April). Children of the garden island. Scientific American, pp. 106-111.

Willman, M. L. (1989). A case for alternative schools: A look at students achievement in self-paced programs. 1-13.

Wooten, M. (1982). Case studies of selected alternative schools. Alternative schools I, II, III, Orca, Nova, Summit K-12. (Report Nos. 82-10A to 82-10F). Seattle, WA: Seattle Public Schools, Department of Planning, Research, and Evaluation.

Zirpoli, T. J. (1990). Physical abuse: Are children with disabilities at greater risk? Intervention in School and Clinic, 26(1), 6-11.