
**School-Family-Community
Collaborations**

**Retrospective on what has been done
and what has been learned**

Volume 2

School-Community Relations



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School-Community Relations

The presentation of this document, like the one on *School-Family Relations*, is based on Deslandes and Bertrand's first text published in 2001a and entitled *La création d'une véritable communauté éducative autour de l'élève: une intervention plus cohérente et des services mieux harmonisés*. This document was in some ways a precursor to several other works, literature reviews, research, and initiatives. The first part of this text deals with collaborative school-community relations or school-community collaborations. The second examines the two sub-groups of school-community collaborative initiatives: extracurricular programs and integrated services for students and their families. The third part focuses on the community school concept.

Note that in this volume, the terms collaboration and collaborative relationships will be used interchangeably. In addition, when referring to comprehensive programs, the family component is necessarily included.

First Part

Definition

School-community relationships refer to the links between schools, community members, organizations and businesses in the community that directly or indirectly support and promote the social, emotional, physical and intellectual growth and development of children and youth (Sanders, 2006). They may also include neighborhoods, cultural groups, local community and other service centres, recreation centres, institutions, municipalities, universities, etc. (Sanders, 2006). The community, when defined in terms of membership and sense of belonging, can thus refer to the resources and opportunities available to its members (Bauch, 2001; Casto, 2016; Wentzel, 1999). These connections are not limited by geographic boundaries. They correspond to social interactions that occur within and outside physical boundaries (Nettles, 1991, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a, 2001b; Sanders, 2006, 2019).

Close ties between the community and the school facilitate the transitions that children and adolescents experience between different living environments and expose them to common rather than contradictory values, thereby promoting their social, emotional, physical and intellectual development and their academic progress (Nettles, 1991; Sanders, 2001, 2008). Collaboration - particularly between community organizations, health and social services institutions, municipalities and schools - also makes it possible to offer coordinated services that respond on an ongoing basis to the specific needs of children and adolescents at each stage of their development (Dryfoos, 2003; Dryfoos & Maguire, 2002). Through such collaboration, children and youth can be surrounded by significant adults who take care of all of their needs. Community support thus increases what Coleman (1987) calls "social capital".

Supporting collaborative school-community relations

According to Deslandes and Bertrand (2001a, 2001b; 2002), and to a great number of other authors, the schools of the 21st century will succeed only if teachers are prepared to face an ever-changing future. Changing demographics affecting families, the demands of the workplace, and the growing diversity among young people make it imperative that we join forces to help young people (Cathey, 2000; McLaughlin, 2000; already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a). The community is of particular interest to researchers and policy makers because of its direct and indirect role in the socialization of youth (Sanders, 2006). Schools are located in communities and are central not only to improving individuals' life experiences but also to efforts to improve the social fabric in the neighborhood and community (Riehl, 2000, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a, 2001b).

The literature reports various arguments for collaborative relationships between the school and the community. Three different perspectives have emerged. For some proponents, school-family relationships help schools better prepare students to learn 21st century skills and even better prepare tomorrow's workers. The school is thus seen as serving the economic interests of the nation. For others, eco-community relations are associated with the development of social capital (Coleman,

1987). Social capital is created and shared through positive and caring relationships among people who share attitudes, norms, and values, which in turn lead to mutual expectations and trust (Cathey, 2000, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a). In this sense, Driscoll (2001, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a) argues that close ties between schools and young people on the one hand, and networks within the community on the other, help reduce inequalities in terms of social capital. With the help of volunteers and by integrating certain services, schools thus become living environments that promote the well-being of young people (Dryfoos, 2008a, b). Finally, other proponents suggest the development of horizontal links between the school and the community to promote networking, educational and economic opportunities, and cultural enrichment (Keith, 1996). For his part, following a review of the literature, Casto (2016) emphasizes that relations between the school and the community are aimed primarily at school improvement, support for students and families, community development, and the development of a sense of belonging. For Riehl (2000, cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a), the community is of particular interest to researchers and policy makers because of its direct and indirect role in the socialization of young people (Sanders, 2006). Schools are located in communities and are central not only to improving individuals' life experiences, but also to efforts to improve the social fabric in the neighborhood and community.

Benefits of school-community collaboration

When schools and community partners provide services and support, measurable benefits are noticeable. For example, mentoring programs that take place on the school site have positive effects on school attendance and behavior (Durlak, Weissberg, & Pachan, 2010; Grogan, Henrich, & Malikina, 2014; O'Donnell & Kirkner, 2014a, b). Extracurricular programs have measurable effects on social skills and academic performance (Durlak et al., 2010; Grogan et al., 2014; O'Donnell & Kirkner, 2014a; Sanders, 2019). Other programs that have focused on academic topics have improved students' attitudes about investing in these topics and the attitudes of teachers and parents (O'Donnell & Kirkner, 2014b). Sanders and Sheldon (2009) also discuss the contribution of these collaborations from a social capital perspective. They define social capital in terms of interpersonal relationships or networked ties that provide access to information and other resources that can influence people's attitudes and behaviors. Given the great diversity of students and their families, Sanders and Sheldon (2009) recommend a multidimensional approach to school, family, and community collaboration.

Operating mechanism

How does the community influence youth? In his review of the literature, Nettles (1991, already cited in Deslandes, 2001; Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a, 2001b) identified four ways in which the community exerts its influence: (1) conversion, or the ability of the community to directly influence students' goals and beliefs; (2) mobilization, which occurs when community members become change agents (e.g., when parents get involved in the governance of the school or initiate curriculum changes); (3) allocation, which refers to the removal of barriers to access to essential resources such

as health services, the use of incentives to achieve positive outcomes, such as high school graduation (activities through which community actors provide a set of resources to youth), and (4) instruction in the form of tutoring programs, mentoring, literary projects, parenting education, etc. Communities have rules, norms and values (Lightfoot, 1978, 2003). Interventions by community members promote the intellectual development of youth and the learning of rules and values that govern social relations in the community.

Constraining characteristics and challenges

Many of the constraining characteristics related to school-community collaboration have already been mentioned under the umbrella of school-family relations. They are mainly related to the relationships between the actors and the sharing of power, such as, for example, the school's fear of being judged and exposed to the social criticism, the fear that the current overload of school staff will increase as a result of collaboration with the community, as well as the attitudes and perceptions of educators and administrators (Casto, 2016; Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a, 2001b; Sanders, 2001, 2006, 2019; Sanders & Sheldon, 2009). Some perceive their community as indifferent to youth and lacking resources that can contribute to youth's academic success. In addition, educators and school staff members want to protect their "territory" and the information they hold (Crowson & Boyd, 1993; Cushing & Kohl, 1997 cited in Sanders, 2001, 2006; Mawhinney, 1994, 1998 already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a, 2001b). Other challenges are associated with insufficient participation, lack of time, leadership, communication, and targeted goals (Sanders, 2006).

Epstein (2011, 2019) speaks instead in terms of challenges that consist of: (1) linking school-community activities to school improvement objectives (educational project and success plan in Quebec); (2) helping families identify programs and services in the community that can meet their needs; and (3) developing two-way school-community collaborations so that schools can offer useful services to communities and receive some from them.

How do we deal with these challenges?

According to Sanders (2019), the effectiveness of these collaborations depends on the ability of the school team and the community partners to confront their respective visions with respect to the various points of contention. In addition, preparation for collaboration at the professional level involves developing skills and the ability to work collaboratively with other players. In the context of school-community collaboration, disagreements will inevitably arise regarding territoriality, funding, and the definition of roles and responsibilities (Dryfoos & Maguire, 2002; Epstein, 2011). The choice of partners is also very important and must be based on shared goals and a joint commitment to the basic principles of effective collaboration: open communication, joint decision-making, and respect for all. The intensity and duration of collaborations must also be considered. These collaborations can range from the simplest to the most complex. The school then needs time to identify the partners most likely to contribute to the achievement of youth success goals (Anderson, 2016). The role of the principal leadership is critical to the success of these partnerships (Sanders, 2016; Sanders & Sheldon, 2009). Sanders (2018) identifies three relational strategies that principals must use: actively

engage with the various stakeholders; facilitate interactions among actors and appropriately select team members to create and sustain collaborative school cultures; develop partnerships that provide services to students, families, teachers, and community members; and secure political support and funding for ongoing implementation of the school-community partnership. In each school, principals are called upon to address the conflicts that threaten the collaborative environments they are trying to create. Their success influences stability and trust in the school.

Facilitating conditions

The facilitating conditions for school-community collaboration identified in the literature include long-term planning and authentic dialogue (Sanders, 2001, 2006). Four factors strengthen a school's ability to develop and maintain meaningful community partnerships: a willingness to support student learning, principal support for collaboration, a welcoming school climate, warmth with expressions of gratitude (letters of thanks, greetings from students, etc.), and honest, two-way communication with potential community partners regarding their level and type of involvement (Sanders, 2019). The role of the leadership of the school principal is critical to the success of these partnerships (Sanders, 2016; Sanders & Sheldon, 2009). According to Sanders and Sheldon (2009), principals shape their schools by influencing school goals, structure, and networking through their interpersonal relationships and the way their leadership is exercised. For immigrant parents and parents from disadvantaged backgrounds, Sanders (2008) argues that school-family-community partnerships are more difficult when schools and families do not share (1) a set of beliefs about the role of schools, families, and teachers in the education and socialization of children; (2) their cultural or social backgrounds; (3) educational or personal experiences; or (4) a common language to discuss these issues. Charrette and Kalubi (2016) discuss the role of the intercultural intervener in accompanying recently immigrated parents to school in Quebec. Immigrant parents are unfamiliar with the school system and have different expectations regarding their roles and the child's school career (Deniger, Anne, Dubé, & Goulet, 2009). They find it difficult to make sense of: children's rights, their relationship to authority, the concept of success, visions of schooling and socialization of the school and the family, gender equality, and the role of parents (Bérubé, 2004; Changkakoti & Akkari, 2008). Parents welcomed into the school environment of the host society should have access to a support resource during this transition period, given the needs related to the appropriation of a new school environment and the complex issues associated with it. Moving in the same direction, Lopera (2017) developed an accompanying guide to promote the school integration of young refugees. By identifying strategies to address the needs of refugee families, Lopera underscores the relevance of considering the family's migratory journey, the resulting challenges, the demands of the family's settlement and the challenges of providing effective educational support for their children. However, the author points out that many of the needs identified are also mentioned by parents of Quebec origin, such as teacher-family communication and their empowerment to participate in support groups, but that these same needs are more pronounced among immigrant families.

Types of school-community collaboration

School-community collaboration can take various forms. For example, in her study of 443 schools in Maryland, Sanders (2001, already cited in Deslandes, 2001; Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a, 2001b) found that community partners could be classified into ten different categories: 1) businesses, 2) universities and other educational institutions including neighborhood schools, 3) government agencies and military services, 4) health care, social services, and child care organizations, 5) religious organizations, 6) volunteer associations, 7) seniors' associations, 8) recreational and cultural institutions, 9) other organizations located in the community, and 10) community members. The largest proportion (45%) of collaborations involved both small and large businesses (Sanders, 2006, 2019).

School-family collaborations with businesses are the most common. The majority aims at improving student performance. Often, these initiatives do not include school staff, parents, and community members in planning and developing youth. Engeln (2003) recommends three strategies for successful partnership practices: the school principal should play an active role in selecting the enterprises, defining the nature and duration of the partnership, promoting a shared understanding of the goals of the partnership, and avoiding misunderstandings. Planning is also needed for open communication and dispute resolution. An evaluation process should be in place to improve the effectiveness of the partnership (Sanders, 2006).

Universities play a unique role as partners from the community. Collaborations may focus on teaching, student performance, school improvement, increasing parental involvement, or exposing students to career opportunities. Elements associated with success include a shared vision, open communication, joint decision-making, and reflective evaluation. The main challenge for this school-university partnership is the non-collaborative culture of most universities. Successful collaborative initiatives require individuals who are comfortable in multiple domains and who can facilitate dialogue and joint decision-making across interprofessional, intraprofessional, and experiential boundaries (Badiali et al., 2000, cited in Sanders, 2006).

The focus of school-community collaborative activities may be on (1) the student (rewards, retention incentives, tutoring, mentoring), (2) the family (workshops for parents, adult education, counselling, etc.), (3) the school (materials, equipment, school-wide projects or staff development activities), or (4) the community and its citizens (science, art exhibits, community revitalization activities). In Sanders' (2001) study, most of the activities listed were student-centred and a small number was community-centred. There is obviously a need to develop collaborative activities that serve the community (Sanders, 2006, 2019).

Links with Epstein's typology. All school-community collaboration activities correspond to Type 6 of the Epstein typology (2019) discussed above. School-community partnerships, regardless of their form, purpose, or complexity, can support or reinforce all six types of collaboration. For example, community partners can provide meeting space or speakers for parenting workshops (Type 1), interpreters for school meetings with families (Type 2), a volunteer tutor (Type 3), information

about books that families can read with their children at home (Type 4), and meals or transportation to reduce barriers to parental attendance at meetings (Type 5; Epstein, 2019).

Vocational training and partner selection

According to Sanders (2006, 2019), professional development in collaboration should be offered to future teachers and principals. Such training must include structured opportunities to develop the skills and capacity to collaborate with other educators, with service agencies in the community, and with adults from students' families and the community. This theme should be developed throughout the training, so that educators can arrive in schools and other settings with an understanding of the benefits of collaboration and knowledge of strategies for developing it. Schools that have been successful in developing a 'sense of community', that are collaborative, communicative and inclusive, appear to be most successful in developing connections with the community outside the school walls. When the ability to collaborate becomes an integral part of professional identity and basic knowledge, partnership with the community becomes a customary affair.

Professional development will also assist educators in selecting appropriate community partners and partnership opportunities. Partner selection should be based on shared goals and a common commitment to the basic principles of successful collaboration: open communication, joint decision-making and respect for all stakeholders. Before any collaboration begins, representatives of different groups or organizations should meet to discuss objections to a potential connection and how their work will be organized (Sanders, 2019).

Duration of partnerships/collaborations

When selecting partners, educators should consider the intensity and duration of collaborations. Community partnerships, viewed on a continuum, are characterized by short-term exchanges of goods and services. A school may partner with a local restaurant to provide free or discounted food coupons to motivate students to attend school regularly. Long-term activities should be characterized by two-way or multi-directional exchanges, high levels of interaction, and extensive planning and co-ordination. For example, community health and social services can be integrated educational services to meet the complex needs of disadvantaged students through a community perspective with integrated services. Complex partnerships can offer substantial benefits; however, they require significant coordination of resources, space, time, and funding (Sanders, 2016, 2019).

Reflection and evaluation

School-community collaboration is a process, not an event. It is important that partners take the time to reflect and evaluate the quality of their interactions and the implementation of their activities. This exercise will help them refine their efforts and improve their collaborative skills. To engage in a process of reflection, partners need time to meet. The challenge of finding time for educators to fully

engage in collaborative efforts is perhaps most important for urban schools in disadvantaged areas (Sanders, 2019).

Emerging points of school-community collaboration

School-community collaboration can emerge from the school or from the community. For example, some schools choose to provide parents with a directory of community resources including programs, services, and agencies, while others work with local businesses to plan work training or to raise funds to purchase materials to further support students with special education needs. Some teachers prefer to work with community organizations to develop service-learning projects, while others work with retired people associations on reading or homework projects (Deslandes & Lemieux, 2005; Sanders, 2006; Sanders & Sheldon, 2009).

In the same line of thoughts, Epstein (2019) argues that all communities have the human, economic, material and social resources to improve schools, strengthen families and help students succeed in school and in life. Some schools create community profiles to identify all the programs and services available to teachers, families, and students. Others work with businesses and agencies for special projects (e.g., playground renewal). Others collaborate with organizations to increase students' problem-solving skills, provide opportunities for internships, build capacity, and develop philanthropy in the community.

Studies conducted in Quebec

In a study, Bilodeau, Bélanger, Gagnon and Lussier (2009) present the results of the evaluation of two projects, one school-based and the other community-based, both aimed at supporting the academic success of youth from two disadvantaged areas of the city of Montreal. The study is based on a realistic evaluation approach that examines various relevant mechanisms and contexts to explain variations in results. Their analysis focuses on three main dimensions of the project: (1) discussion on school-community collaborations and their innovative processes in terms of the services offered; (2) description of two homework help projects, one offered at school and the other in the community; (3) presentation of the effects of the interventions carried out on parental supervision, on the youngsters' skills and on their performance. Their study reaffirms the importance of evaluating education programs in order to reach more families and better equip them to support their children, and as a mechanism through which reforms can be effectively implemented. Similarly, their study puts in light the importance of the role of school principals in promoting family involvement in schooling. In addition, their study shows that schools with rigorous partnership programmes tend to have a higher percentage of families involved in the school, which would explain the significant relationship observed between the quality of the partnership programme and the level of student attendance at school.

In another of their studies, Bilodeau et al. (2011) describe interventions resulting from school-community collaboration in a multi-ethnic and socioeconomically disadvantaged Montreal context. The resulting interventions largely correspond to the orientations of public policies and programs in education and health. The Ministère de l'Éducation et de l'Enseignement Supérieur (MELS) situates

the role of these collaborations in the complementary educational services sector to which corresponds the basket of interventions composed of extracurricular activities, specialized and professionalized treatment (health or psychosocial), assistance to young people in their school career, in their professional orientation and in dealing with their difficulties, and activities to improve the school and the neighborhood environment. This range of interventions follows the orientations of the Healthy School Approach (Ministère de l'Éducation, des Loisirs et du Sport, 2005). The interventions that have been identified are mainly remedial and assistive in nature, targeting only young people with academic, perseverance or behavioral difficulties. They do not constitute population strategies that would act upstream with a view to breaking the cycle of reproduction of social inequalities in education, for example by working to reduce the social and cultural distance between school and disadvantaged environments. Such a perspective might require a collaborative strategy where the community would contribute to the regular school program with the objective of supporting its adjustment to the cultural and social reality of poverty and immigration. The authors talk about the compartmentalization between regular educational services and complementary educational services resulting from school-community collaboration.

In their book, Desmarais et al. (2012) describe the passage of seven young people through a community organization aimed at fighting school dropout (OCLD), or rather, a specific moment in these stories. This field study presents the coaching practice of three OCLDs with youngsters having difficulties at the high school level in three Quebec regions (urban, semi-urban and rural). In addition, it puts forward the point of view of young people: notwithstanding the length of their stay, the OCLD has become a real living environment for these youngsters, where they have established meaningful relationships and regained a taste for learning.

Kanouté and Lafortune (2011) present an overview of the work of a few community organizations working primarily in contexts of low socioeconomic milieus and recent immigration. These organizations offer activities, support or training, either free or at a low cost. In some of them, the explicit presence of the school community is one of the objectives. The authors refer to Kanouté's study (2003, cited in Kanouté and Lafortune, 2011) on schooling by families from disadvantaged backgrounds. At that time, parents stressed the need to give greater importance to community resources to complement the efforts made by the school. The authors discuss the role of a mediating community in decoding school culture (Kanouté, Duong & Charrette, 2010; Kanouté & Lafortune, 2011). The authors state that addressing the complex needs of families, especially in an urban context combining multi-ethnicity and low socioeconomic status, requires a dynamic of collaboration, even partnership, between the school and resources such as community organizations.

Proliferation of initiatives in Quebec

Examples from a first generation of school-community initiatives were presented by Deslandes and Lemieux in 2005: (1) Entrepreneurship in the CoeurVaillant elementary school involving not only students and teachers, but also parents and daycare staff; (2) a vision towards integrated services by a high school that hired new staff, such as a social worker, nurse and school police officer; (3) intergenerational mail between elementary school youth and a team of volunteers; (4) the *Famille-*

école-communauté program: réussir ensemble (FECRE) program initiated in 2003 and (5) the Conseil régional de prévention de l'abandon scolaire du Saguenay-Lac Saint-Jean (CRÉPAS).

In addition to the initiatives already described in Quebec, a number of projects have been developed in recent years with respect to collaborative relationships between schools, businesses, and community organizations. These projects have the particularity of being much more substantial and rigorous and of including evaluation elements. Here are a few examples.

As a type of school-enterprise project, it is imperative to present the FAST project on work-study training in science and technology for disadvantaged students having difficulties (Laferrière et al., 2014a). Companies and organizations in Region X have agreed to receive students for internships in their offices and laboratories. Some of the objectives were to motivate young people, develop their autonomy and interest in working in organizations that use science or technology. The digital tablet was used not only for classroom learning, but also to foster communication between teachers, colleagues in enterprises and students during work training. Partner companies/organizations included the Centre de transfert pour la réussite éducative du Québec (CTREQ), the Centre facilitant la recherche et l'innovation dans les organisations (CEFRIO) and a team of researchers from the Centre de recherche et d'intervention sur la réussite scolaire (CRIRES). The latter collaborated in the implementation of the project and its evaluation. The importance of the student-teacher relationship (mentoring) and the time required for teachers to change their practices were identified as conditions for success.

Mention should also be made of the **Université-milieu** project on the contribution of **community stakeholders** to student success as part of the **École en réseau** (ÉER) project at the Région éducative en réseau (RÉR), led by a team led by Allaire and Dumoulin (2017). The RER concept lies at the confluence of the ÉER model and infrastructure and the movement towards openness to the community. **Initiated by teachers and the school**, it calls upon environments other than the classroom and school, whose extracurricular actors agree to provide time so that teachers and students can benefit from their expertise, through digital means, in learning situations that take place in the classroom. For example, classes from the **École en réseau** (ÉER) network collaborated with a science animator from the Musée de la Mer des Iles de la Madeleine, who met with them by videoconference during a science learning situation. Another teacher brought in a journalist by teleconference to share his strategies for identifying scientific-based sources and commenting on those identified by the students. One teacher also called on a nurse from a CLSC, who raised awareness of the importance of healthy lifestyles to promote their academic success. The authors listed conditions considered essential to the long-term viability of the RÉR concept.

Also added as a **Université-Milieu** collaborative project is the initiative on telecollaboration environments in the classroom and online collaborative learning, which was analyzed by Hamel, Turcotte, Laferrière and Bisson (2015). The use of technology and, more specifically, of the Knowledge Forum has enabled students in primary classes to develop their ability to explain things in a way that is more comprehensible than simply memorizing facts. Their online collaborative discourse was also analysed. What students write on the screen seems to add value to the work done in class.

As an example of a **School-Organization** project initiated in the **Community**, we cannot overlook the contribution of the *Jeune Coop et Ensemble vers la réussite* programs of the Conseil québécois de la coopération et de la mutualité (CQCM) evaluated by Laferrière et al. (2014b). These two programs were put in place after the *Fondation pour l'éducation à la coopération et à la mutualité* (CQCM) developed a strategy for education in cooperation that included the development of pedagogical tools. These tools have been promoted in all regions of Québec since 2004 by a network of agents promoting collective youth entrepreneurship, thanks to special partnerships with the Government of Québec through the Youth Action Strategy with Desjardins Group and the *Centrale des syndicats du Québec*. The objectives of the two programs were, among others, to develop skills for group cooperative work, for managing a class project in a cooperative manner, for introducing students to the management of a cooperative business, for promoting self-improvement, perseverance and commitment, and for stimulating students' motivation and educational success through cooperative projects. The results are interpreted in terms of promising avenues. One of them is to facilitate the establishment of links between students, education staff members, and community organizations. It was found that some school principals are promoting the collaboration of internal education staff members in order to use community resources.

As a **School-Organization project** initiated by a **community organization**, the Access 5 program is composed of five spheres of intervention by non-school actors. Implemented in 2013 by the Maison Jeunes-Est (MJE), in collaboration with a high school and other partners in the Sherbrooke area (Lessard, Bourdon & Ntebutse, 2016), this program targets youth at risk of dropping out of school who are then subject to preventive, systemic and motivational interventions. Support includes (1) individual psychosocial follow-up, (2) academic support, (3) extracurricular programming, (4) financial or material assistance, and (5) specific targeted actions. The group of interveners includes eight pivot interveners, five managers and volunteers. Two types of non-academic stakeholders were identified as having a crucial role in the effect on student perseverance and success: pivotal workers and volunteers. According to the authors, the fact that the program takes place in a number of locations, including the neighborhood high school, where tutoring and extracurricular activities take place and community workers are welcomed in the school, is indicative of a partnership which is the result of several years of consultation and collaboration. The stakeholders have made room for community workers in the school and have developed a common language and weekly opportunities for sharing.

As an illustration of a major project in terms of community support for the school's mission and in parallel with the so-called *traditional* schools, *Centres de formation en entreprise et de récupération* (CFERs), which work with students with severe learning difficulties and have a board of directors made up of members of the community, have been developed. The CFERs have a Research Chair headed by Professor Nadia Rousseau of the Université du Québec à Trois-Rivières (UQTR). The Victoriaville CFER seems to have been a notorious success, characterized as much by the number and variety of its business projects as by the number of students trained, graduated and subsequently employed. The people in the community who are members of the board of directors have made a significant contribution to this success. An analysis of the comments gathered during semi-directed interviews conducted by Deslandes and Fournier (2009) highlighted the importance of the

leadership of Normand Maurice, known as *le Père de la récupération* in Quebec, the expertise and experience of the participants' business community and their ties with other members, organizations and businesses in the community. Other explanatory elements include adherence to the mission of the CFER and the principles of open communication, sharing of ideas, respect and honesty (Deslandes & Fournier, 2009).

Part Two

School-Community Collaboration Activity Sub-Groups

Extracurricular programmes and the grounds in their favor

Extracurricular programs represent a sub-group of school-community collaborative activities. Following their literature reviews, Deslandes and Bertrand (2001a, 2001b) concluded that they provide a means for the school to integrate community resources, skills, and talents into its curriculum. These programs provide supervision, while at the same time allowing experiences that broaden children and adolescents' horizons and improve their socialization process as well as their academic performance. They are a primary source of trusting, supportive, and safe relationships with clear rules, ownership, and ongoing access (Halpern, Spielberger, & Robb, 2001; McLaughlin, 2000, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a).

Extracurricular program objectives

In order to ensure the child's overall development, extracurricular programs should include activities that combine academic, recreational and cultural components. The academic component provides opportunities to enhance performance through activities related to the classroom curriculum or enriched activities. Programs with an academic component for which evaluations report a significant impact include reading activities, work methodology activities, activities of an academic nature (e.g., science workshops, multidisciplinary curriculum modules), and reading tutoring activities. The recreational component allows children, especially those from low socioeconomic backgrounds, to have access, for example, to music, dance, chess, oral communication, or scouting classes, etc. The recreational component also provides children, especially those from low socioeconomic milieus, with the opportunity to participate in a variety of activities such as music, dance, chess, oral communication, scouting, etc. Participation in sports provides opportunities to get to know each other, to take risks and to have positive "gang" experiences. The cultural component is also important, as it allows for the learning of skills other than academic ones. Hobbies such as fishing, woodworking, sewing, etc. are just a few examples. For example, interviewing skills, conflict resolution and respect for elders can be learned through this component. Childcare is also considered an after-school program (before and after school; Fashola, 1998; Petitpas & Champagne, 2000; Wasik, 1997, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a).

Two types of programs are particularly discussed in the literature. The latter are also discussed from the perspective of school-business or school-university partnerships (Sanders, 2006). These are service learning programs and mentoring programs. These collaborations require careful planning that includes teachers, administrators, and supervisors. These projects must be linked to academic content (Sanders, 2006). In service learning programs, students engage to meet local, regional, national, or international needs. These experiences are integrated into the school curriculum and

seem to benefit both regular and special education students. The learning process has four stages: preparation (getting to know the community, choosing a problem, developing an action plan), action, reflection, and celebration. These programs differ from community and volunteer services in that they seek to balance the needs of the community with those of the learner. They are called reciprocal partnerships (Claus & Ogden, 1999; Muscott, 2001; Rockwell, 2001, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a, 2001b; Larivée, Bédard, Couturier, Kalubi & Larose, 2017).

Mentoring programs aim to establish a meaningful helping relationship between an adult volunteer and a student at risk of dropping out of school. Goals are related to self-actualization (e.g., self-esteem and self-confidence), learning, prevention of grade retention (more positive attitudes towards school and academic achievement) and behavioral improvement. On the U.S. side, evaluations of some of these programs report higher enrolment in advanced education programs, higher educational aspirations, lower absenteeism, and better first language performance (Brown, 1996; McPartland & Nettles, 1991, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a, 2001b; Gordon, Downey & Bangert, 2013). In Quebec, Théorêt's (1996) study findings do not appear to be conclusive. The author recommends intensifying intervention and guiding mentors towards a more directive style of assistance. Mentors are usually adults from the community.

Conditions for success

Often, workshop facilitators are community volunteers. Good quality after-school programs focus on hiring individuals who are enthusiastic, welcoming, warm, reliable, and skilled at providing support to children and youth (McLaughlin, 2000; Halper et al., 2001, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a). To ensure effective implementation of after-school programs, whether offered on the school site, in the community, or elsewhere, Fashola (1998, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a) recommends first training volunteers, then creating a comprehensive program with structure, including youth and family representatives in the planning, followed by a program evaluation, and finally, establishing an advisory committee. In complex school-family collaborations, challenges related to territoriality, funding, roles and responsibilities will inevitably arise (Sanders & Hembrick-Roberts, 2013). If educators have been prepared for collaboration, they will have the resources and skills to address these challenges (Sanders, 2019).

Evaluation of extracurricular programs

In a longitudinal study of 10,000 students, Mahoney and Cairns (1997, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand 2001a) examined 64 activities in nine mutually exclusive domains, such as athletics, arts, student council, school activities, etc. The results showed a reduction in the dropout rate among at-risk students who had engaged in extracurricular activities early in their school career. These students are more engaged in school and, consequently, do better when they participate in structured activities or when they spend time with adults. Other research findings report lower absenteeism, improved social skills and academic performance, and a reduction in youth crime, delinquency, drug use and teen pregnancy among participants in extracurricular activities with an academic component (Durlak et al., 2010; Grogan et al., 2014; Jordan & Nettles, 1999). It is interesting to note that teachers appear to have higher expectations in terms of academic performance for youth involved in

extracurricular activities, especially for girls (Van Matre, Valente & Cooper, 2000, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a).

Over the past ten years, McLaughlin (2000, already cited in Deslandes, 2001, Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a) and his research team have studied nearly 120 youth-focused organizations in 34 different American cities. They found that despite the challenges related to school, neighborhood and family, teens involved in academic and after-school activities performed better than their peers. These teens are more optimistic and more aware of their worth. They demonstrate greater social responsibility. Similarly, the results of the evaluation of the 25 after-school programs of the Bayview Fund for Youth Development, funded at a cost of \$5.6 million (369 activities), indicated that the programs provide safe places for youth, connect them with caring adults, and increase their involvement in the community (Frank & Walker-Moffat, 2001, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a). In general, after-school programs appear to be more beneficial for children from disadvantaged backgrounds, younger children, and boys in urban areas or in high-crime environments (Vandell & Shumow, 1999, already cited in Deslandes 2001).

Integration of services for students and their families and grounds in their favor

The movement associated with the integration of services for students and their families emerged out of the realization that a child's academic and educational success is compromised if his/her primary needs are not met. The service complementarity agreement entitled *Deux réseaux, un objectif: le développement des jeunes - Entente de complémentarité des services entre le réseau de la santé et des services sociaux et le réseau de la santé et le réseau de l'éducation* was signed in 2003 (Government of Quebec, 2003). This agreement ruled on principles that support parents as the primary caregivers for their child's development, the school as one of the major components of the community, and the development of a set of integrated services. It is important to link both education reform and the reform of services offered to youth and their families (Deslandes, 2006, 2007; Deslandes & Bertrand, 2002; Deslandes & Rousseau, 2007; Larivée et al., 2017). School alone is no longer enough. The concerted reinforcement of partners is now a strategic necessity that will make it possible to offer complementary services in order to improve the functioning of students and their families (Blank, Johnson, Shah and Schneider, 2003, already cited in Deslandes, 2009a). This observation of crisis stems from three intellectual perspectives: (1) a new ecology of school and of schooling (schools, families, and neighborhoods); (2) a perspective of investment in educational resources (human and financial); and (3) a focus on child development (Adelman, 1996; Burt et al, 1998; Crowson & Boyd, 1993; Dryfoos, 1994, 1998a, 1998b; Keith, 1996; MEQ, 1999; Sailor & Skrtic, 1996; Skrtic & Sailor, 1996; Smrekar & Mawhinney, 1999, already cited in Deslandes and Bertrand, 2001a, 2002).

Objectives of the movement

The service integration movement aims to make educational, wellness and health services available within a single service delivery system in which educators, social workers and health care providers work together to provide individualized services to children and their families (Calfee, Wittwer & Meredith, 1998; Dryfoos, 1998a; Sailor & Skrtic, 1996; U.S.A. Ed., 1996, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2002). The goal is to better coordinate resources, lower redundancy, and increase efficiency in the distribution of services (Adelman, 1996; Calfee et al., 1998, as cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2002; Dryfoos & Maguire, 2002, as cited in Deslandes & Rousseau, 2007). Without the inclusion of all the systems that contribute to student learning, any educational reform may not produce the expected sustainable results (Adelman, 1996; Dryfoos, Quinn & Barkin, 2005; Walsh & Park-Taylor, 2003, cited in Deslandes & Rousseau, 2007). From this movement toward a continuum of services for youth and their families have emerged new forms of practice and new models of service, and in particular, the concept of full-service schools, which will be discussed later.

Theoretical background

Deslandes and Bertrand (2002) have described the different theoretical underpinnings on which service integration is based. The most well-known model is unquestionably Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological model. This model contributes to a better understanding of the influence of different life contexts on the development and well-being of children and adolescents. The contexts in which young people evolve include family processes, peers, sources of social support, community resources, neighborhoods, schools, etc. The model is based on the following principles: "The context in which young people evolve is the context in which they live and work. (Burt et al., 1998, already cited in Deslandes and Bertrand, 2002). The notions of empowerment, human, social and cultural capital and community development are also associated with patterns of interaction between educators, parents, caregivers and other community members (Crowson & Boyd, 1993; Smrekar & Mawhinney, 1999; Waddock, 1995; White & Wehlage, 1995, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2002). Clark and Engle (2000, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2002) suggest that organizational change theories should be considered to better understand program implementation processes and their impact.

Definitions

A variety of approaches are used to integrate student services. There is not one, but several basic models for integrating services for youth and their families. Each unique model is modulated by the needs, resources, and political realities of the communities (Deslandes & Bertrand, 2002). There are three potential sites for a school-based program with integrated services. These may be services located in the community or linked to the school, located on the school site, or a combination of the two.

The literature reports several examples of these models, which have reached a certain maturity (Burt et al., 1998; Doktor & Poertner, 1996; Smrekar & Mawhinney, 1999, already cited in Deslandes

& Bertrand, 2001a, 2002). Services located in the community are administered by agencies to which school practitioners refer, whether they have an agreement with the school sector or with other points of service (Dryfoos, 1998a, b; already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a, 2002; Dryfoos & Maguire, 2002). In this category, the authors include school-related services, with the school becoming an equal partner with other service agencies involved in a framework agreement. For example, these may be youth centres that offer programs either in addiction, mentoring or certain extracurricular activities, or family resource centres that offer services for preschool clients, parental education, literacy, health, food or clothing services. Services located on the school site also include physical and mental health services, family resource centres with support and parenting education services, after-school care services, and crisis intervention services. These services are often introduced by external agencies. The school then becomes the main organizational centre for the location, administration and integration of services (Cosmos, 2001, Dryfoos, 1994, 1998a, 1998b; Dryfoos et al., 2005; Skrtic & Sailor, 1996; U.S. A. Ed. 1995, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a, 2002). Depending on available resources, some schools choose to use a mixed model combining both on-site and off-site services (Calfée et al., 1998). Regardless of which model is chosen, the school remains the starting point. A school with integrated services brings together educational, medical, social and human services to meet the needs of youth and their families on the school site or in easily accessible locations. These high-quality services are found along the prevention, treatment and support continuum (Dryfoos, 1994, 1998b, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a, 2002; Dryfoos et al., 2005). The school is the ideal point of contact because of its unique relationship with students and families (Doktor, 1996; Smrekar & Mawhinney, 1999; Wyatt & Novak, 2000, as cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a, 2002). The school becomes a community when it is open in the evenings, on weekends, and during the summer (Dryfoos, 1994, 1998a, 1998b; Dryfoos et al., 2005; Jackson & Davis, 2000, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2002). This concept of a community school with integrated services thus includes the coordination of services as well as the lease of services (see Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a, 2002). We will come back to this a little later.

Challenges and resistance linked to service integration

The service integration movement requires changes in administrative structures, in the roles of stakeholders and in the distribution of human and financial resources. These changes often do not occur smoothly and without disagreement. These difficulties encountered by service integration initiatives have been amply documented in the literature. For example, Deslandes and Bertrand (2002) report that many authors point to administrative and bureaucratic issues such as space issues, salary policies, negotiating new roles and relationships, type of leadership, planning, professional development programs, and communication and confidentiality issues. There are also issues of resistance to changes in practice. According to Crowson and Boyd (1996, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2002), an important task in service integration is to move beyond the interests of organizations that focus on persistence and replication of existing institutional patterns in the face of pressure to collaborate. Finally, because policies on inter-organizational linkages involve a redistribution of resources and an appropriation of organizational resources (e.g., prestige, identity, and status), this sometimes results in competition for power and professional autonomy. Given the

range of issues involved, some works nuance the results by discussing structural and process dilemmas based on a point on the continuum (from little to a lot) of cooperation to collaboration and coordination of services (Calfee et al, 1998; Carrière, 2001; Crowson, 1998; Crowson & Boyd, 1993, 1996; Larivière, 2001; Smrekar & Mawhinney, 1999; Wyatt & Novak, 2000, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2002).

Facilitating conditions

Many authors consider certain conditions to be critical to the success of service integration initiatives. Deslandes and Bertrand (2002), based on Calfee et al. (1998), make the following recommendations: use an incremental approach, start small, insist on quality, focus on the needs of children and their families, keep communication channels open, welcome feedback, and, above all, persevere. They also draw attention to planning, an important step that takes a lot of time, and the importance of developing a shared vision of the service integration initiative to be implemented. It is during this step that participants clarify goals, decide which services and programs will be offered, in what quantity and to whom? **This process begins with an analysis of the community's needs and resources (needs study, resource inventory;** survey, inventory of community services and physical facilities), followed by a decision on the additional resources required (collaboration with schools, community organizations, etc.). This is then specified in an action plan (Deslandes & Bertrand, 2002). In the case of community schools, Deslandes and Bertrand (2001a) point out that services from the community must complement those already offered in the school. The principal's role is crucial in the implementation and operation of the community school. He or she leads the restructuring of the school, ensures that the community partners feel comfortable in the school, and ensures that they have enough space. All staff members must receive training related to youth development, cultural diversity and community empowerment. A place should be designated in the school as an anchor point for community organizations. To contribute to the success of these collaborative efforts, individuals who have a combination of communication skills, an understanding of organizational dynamics, and the ability to exercise independent judgment in unfamiliar situations are needed from the various spheres of organizations. At the national level, a coalition organization among community schools is an interesting asset (Calfee et al., 1998; Dryfoos, 1998a, 1998b; Kastan, 1998; McMahon et al., 2000, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a).

Other facilitating conditions include training for practitioners, information sharing, instrumentation of new practices, a conflict resolution mechanism, and organizational support for change (Carrière, 2001). Such service integration initiatives require changes in the functions of practitioners and educators. They must develop new competencies (e.g., communication skills, understanding of organizational dynamics, etc.). In this regard, some authors recommend multidisciplinary training based on both specialized and generalist activities (Adelman, 1996; Doktor & Poertner, 1996; Smrekar & Mawhinney, 1999, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a, 2002).

Operating mechanisms

In order to increase the effectiveness of service integration initiatives, as reported in Deslandes & Bertrand (2001a, 2002), Adelman (1996) proposes combining health and social services reform with education reform, which is concerned with both teaching and administration in schools. To do this, Adelman (1996) suggests the "enabling component", a unifying conceptual framework referring to a continuum of comprehensive and integrated activities (e.g., promotion, prevention, protection, recovery, adaptation/rehabilitation, and integration/reintegration) necessary to remove barriers to student learning and development. The operationalization of this concept includes six areas of activity in which any school committed to youth success should intervene: (1) working with teachers to promote learning in the classroom (e.g., pedagogical practices, in-service training for educators, student retention and suspension systems, peer tutoring, etc.); (2) helping students and their families (triage, case studies, direct services, integrated services including special education resources); (3) providing assistance and follow-up in crisis situations and in the prevention of violence, suicide, abuse, etc.; (4) support during transitions (newcomers, new school, school-to-work transition, school-to-graduate transition, extracurricular programs outside of school hours, etc.; 5) parental involvement in schooling parental support, parent education and school-family communication programs; family resource centre); (6) openness to the community, including recruiting volunteers and creating collaboration with private and public service agencies, businesses and community organizations (see Figure 1 in Appendix).

Governance models

There does not appear to be a consensus on the most effective management model to support the success of service integration initiatives. Dryfoos (1998a, 1998b, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2002) highlights a community-based process where a community agency assumes responsibility for the organization and administration of the initiative. Adelman (1996) describes the components of the program development process which emphasizes the central role played by the organizational facilitator (external consultant). The organizational facilitator, trained in systemic changes, acts as a catalyst in the creation of a new service delivery system. However, the consultant withdraws once the program has been implemented (McMahon et al., 2000, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2002).

Adelman's (1996) management model initially included program teams divided into six areas of activity offered on the school site (see Figure 1 in Appendix). They are made up of motivated and competent individuals who are responsible for planning, implementing, evaluating and improving programs. The resource coordinator, supported by his/her team, ensures cohesion among the programs. The organizational facilitator works with 10 to 12 community schools during the first year. In the second year, he/she helps other schools, but continues to respond to calls from schools in the first cohort. His/her job is to help develop leadership at the school site, develop programs with the coordinating and program teams, help make connections with services in the community and foster community engagement, and ensure that each of the community agencies that provide services at

the school site has a representative on the coordinating team. Adelman also suggests an inter-school co-ordinating council that co-ordinates and integrates services between schools, creates links and collaborations between schools and service agencies, and sees to the evaluation.

For their part, Calfee, Wittwer and Meredith (1998) propose a community-based management model consisting of a steering committee, a local supervisory board, existing inter-organizational councils, representatives of schools with integrated services, and family services co-ordination teams (see Figure 2, in Annexe). Such a model may well fit well with Adelman's (1996) model, which is primarily local.

Service integration models

For the state of Florida, Calfee et al. (1998, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2002) report over 350 different models of schools with integrated services. Each unique model is modulated by the needs, resources, and political realities of the communities. Here are a few examples of programs that Calfee et al. (1998) found to have reached a certain maturity: (1) School-Based Youth Services Program, funded by the New Jersey Department of Human Services and located on the school site, which offers five categories of interventions aimed at preventing school dropout: mental health services (e.g., counselling and support services), social services (e.g., counselling and support services for students with mental health problems) and social services (e.g., counselling and support services for students with mental health problems), (2) Kentucky Family Resource and Youth Centres, which are located either in or near the school, and (3) New Beginnings in San Diego, California, which provides services to families and their children in or near the school. Additional services are offered by the community. These are primarily the co-location of service agencies in a multi-service centre (Burt et al., 1998; Doktor & Poertner, 1996; Dryfoos, 1998a, 1998b; Smrekar and Mawhinney, 1999; U.S. Ed., 1995, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a).

In Quebec, following the signing of the complementary services agreement between the Ministère de l'Éducation (MEQ) and the Ministère de la Santé et des Services sociaux (Government of Quebec, 2003), initiatives have emerged from various sectors and private-public partnerships, including the Programme de soutien à l'école montréalaise, the Agir autrement intervention strategy, the Programme Famille, école, communauté, Québec en Forme, and the École en santé approach (Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a, 2001b, 2002); Deslandes & Rousseau, 2007; Government of Quebec, 2005).

Training

Such service integration initiatives require changes in the roles and functions of stakeholders. Specialization and training must be balanced by a generalist perspective. The tendency is to counteract over-specialization by developing interdisciplinary training programs to better equip professionals for their new roles (Adelman, 1996, cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a). They need to develop new skills (e.g., negotiation and problem-solving skills) and therefore their training needs to be modified (Doktor & Poertner, 1996, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a, 2002).

Evaluation of Service Integration Initiatives

In 2001, there were few initiatives that had been in operation for more than 10 years and, overall, evaluations were available from reports with limited distribution. For the most part, the development of new projects is guided by descriptions of existing projects (Burch & Palanski, 1995; Calfee et al., 1998; Dryfoos, 1994, 1998a, 1998b; OECD, 1996, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a). In general, it appears that despite the difficulty of developing and institutionalizing them, schools with integrated services contribute to promoting a better interface between human service systems and those of the school, to increasing the use of services and to having a positive effect on the outcomes of youth at risk (McMahon et al., 2000, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a, 2002). To date, the available results seem to show a decrease in the rate of student absences caused by minor health problems such as headaches, premenstrual cramps, etc. (McMahon et al., 2000, already cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a, 2002). Clinic clients are less sexually active; they use more contraceptives; teenage girls are having fewer pregnancies; and youth are using fewer drugs and dropping out of school less often. As for school-related services, they are more effective when they are located on the school site. Students, parents and teachers report high levels of satisfaction with these services and appreciate their accessibility and the caring attitude (Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a).

Part Three

Community school concept

From the movement towards a continuum of services for youth and their families have emerged new forms of practices and new models of services, in this case, the concept of the community school (full-service schools; Deslandes, 2007; Deslandes & Rousseau, 2007).

The concept of the community school refers to both a place and a set of partnerships between the school and other community resources, with a view to improving student learning, making families stronger and communities healthier (Blank, Johnson, Shah, & Schneider, 2003, already cited in Deslandes & Rousseau, 2007). The community school can be compared to a two-way street where the school, families, and community work together, creating networks of shared responsibility for student success and development (Berg, Melaville, & Blank, 2006, already cited in Deslandes, 2007). The community school is established in a public building open to students, their families, and communities before, during, and after school, seven days a week, throughout the year (Children's Aid Society (CAS), 2001). Being at the heart of the community, these schools make it possible to forge inventive relationships between the actors involved in the success and development of young people. Health and social service agencies, family support groups, youth organizations, institutions of higher learning, community organizations, businesses, and municipal associations all take part. By sharing their expertise and resources, schools and communities act together to transform traditional schools into partner institutions (Deslandes & Rousseau, 2007).

Philosophy and characteristics of community schools

The philosophy underlying the operation of community schools is based on a set of conditions considered essential to the learning of children and adolescents: a challenging curriculum, a safe place to learn, basic needs that are met, multiple caring relationships between youth and adults, high expectations for success, and abundant opportunities for responsible and meaningful social participation. There are several variations of the community school concept, ranging from the most modest to the most comprehensive. For example, the working team on the community school in Quebec (2005a) chose to speak of a shared school, a school open to the community, and a school rooted in the community (2005, already cited in Deslandes & Rousseau, 2007). The shared school is based on agreements and the sharing of properties. The extended school focuses on the complementarity of services between the school environment and other organizations aimed at facilitating educational success, while the networked school wants to be part of collective action and is seen as a community project. In the context of the last two models (extended school and networked school), which are closer to the American definition of the community school, it is clear that social workers, in addition to working in multidisciplinary teams in the health and social services network, can play an important role, whether as institutional coordinator or liaison officer, community organizer or manager (Government of Quebec, 2006, already cited in Deslandes & Rousseau, 2007).

In fact, several angles have addressed the issue of school-family-community relations. Deslandes (2009a) reminds us of (1) the effective schools movement, which integrates family and community involvement (Leithwood, 2002, cited in Deslandes, 2009a); (2) the complementary learning approach, which refers to a support network aimed at the optimal cognitive and social development of young people from birth to adolescence (Harvard Family Research Project, 2005, already cited in Deslandes, 2009a); (3) the movement for service integration, which aims to make services more accessible, improve case studies and better coordinate service resources (Adelman, 1996; Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a, 2001b, 2002; Dryfoos and Maguire, 2002), and (4) the movement for community schools, which places the school at the heart of the community. It seems that the latter approach should be favored, especially for schools located in urban and disadvantaged areas, since it includes all the other approaches mentioned above. It includes a number of measures that are crucial to the educational success of all young people, i.e., a demanding and interesting curriculum, caring relationships between young people and adults, high expectations of success, parental involvement, extracurricular programs including sports, the arts, mentoring, etc, prevention services, community engagement, and coordination and integration of existing services, both private and public (Blank et al., 2003; CAS, 2001, as cited in Deslandes, 2007, 2009a; Deslandes & Rousseau, 2007).

Advantages associated to the community school

Compared to traditional schools, community schools have three advantages: (1) they allow for the addition of supplementary resources to reduce demands on school personnel; (2) they provide learning opportunities that facilitate the development of academic and non-academic skills; and (3) they contribute to the growth of social capital, that is, networks and relationships that support learning and provide learning opportunities for young people while strengthening their communities (Coleman, 1987). Each of these advantages brings benefits to students, families, and communities (Blank et al., 2003; CAS, 2001, already cited in Deslandes & Rousseau, 2007, 2009).

Among the services most often offered in community schools are after-school and extracurricular activity programs, reading and writing awareness programs, family support centres, employment assistance programs, school daycare services, etc. (Blank et al., 2003; CAS, 2001, already cited in Deslandes & Rousseau, 2007, 2009). (Blank et al. 2003; Deslandes, 2007; Deslandes & Rousseau, 2007). Certainly, some of these activities can also be offered in traditional schools. The difference is essentially based on the fact that each activity is chosen insofar as it is part of the general orientation of the community school and is focused on the implementation of conditions that facilitate the learning and development of youngsters and their families (Blank et al., 2003).

Theoretical Foundations of Community Schools

As a theoretical foundation, developmental systems theory is particularly relevant (Lerner, 1995; Lerner, Walsh and Howard, 1998, as cited in Deslandes & Rousseau, 2007; Walsh & Wieneke, 2009). This metatheory includes both the ecological vision of human development, that of human

development throughout life and that of relational developmental processes, i.e. from the perspective of interactions between the individual in change and the complex and evolving environments to which he or she belongs (Baltes, 1987; Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Elder, 1980, cited in Deslandes & Rousseau, 2007). In other words, it recognizes the importance of (1) contextual aspects (family processes, peers, sources of social support, community resources, neighbourhoods, schools) in child development; (2) lifelong development; and (3) the many levels of interactions in development (e.g., the development of the child's own environment, the development of the child's family, the child's peers, the child's social support system, the community's resources, the neighbourhood, and the schools), (3) and the role of forces and risk (e.g., poverty) in development (Lerner et al., 1998; Walsh & Parker-Taylor, 2003; as cited in Deslandes & Rousseau, 2007; Walsh & Wieneke, 2009). Recognizing that students' academic success is influenced by the living conditions of the child and the adults around him/her is the first step in creating links between the school and the community.

Moreover, according to Deslandes and Rousseau (2007), the premise that development occurs throughout life and in many areas calls for interprofessional collaboration involving a team of professionals with expertise in different developmental stages and in different sectors (e.g., teachers, physical educators, social workers, psychologists, nutritionists, physicians, psychoeducators, etc.). It is clear that the problems of children and their families cannot be divided into disciplinary silos. In the same vein, the deficit-based model, which has long been used by practitioners, only allows us to see one side of the coin. Taking strengths into account appears to be just as important as considering risk to understand the development of young people and their families (strength-based model). Better collaboration among various professionals makes it possible to develop a more complete vision of students' strengths in a variety of contexts and to propose more appropriate solutions (Walsh & Park-Taylor, 2003, cited in Deslandes & Rousseau, 2007; Walsh & Wieneke, 2009).

From an educational reform perspective that is concerned with teaching, school administration, and the integration of health and social services, Adelman's (1996) model seems entirely appropriate to represent the levels of intervention deemed essential (Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a, 2001b, 2002), promotion, prevention, protection, recovery, adaptation-rehabilitation and integration-reintegration).

Role of parents in the community school and relational approach

To foster greater parental engagement in disadvantaged areas, Warren et al. (2006, cited in Deslandes, 2007; Warren & Hong, 2009) agree that building relationships is the first step in developing relationships, the precursor to involving parents as equal partners in the school, followed by developing parental leadership and then bridging the culture and power of parents and educators. In many low-income communities, public schools often feel disconnected from families (Warren, 2005). According to Warren and Hong (2009), many teachers come from different ethnic backgrounds and social classes than their students; they live outside the neighborhood and do not necessarily understand the realities of the lives of the youth they teach. Parents who do not speak English (or French in the case of Quebec) or who feel that they have been "failures" themselves as

students are often reluctant to go into the schools. Very often, they do so only when their child has a problem. When low-income parents feel excluded from schools, many of them criticize the school and then express anger. If parents enter community schools for positive reasons such as attending classes or receiving health services, they become familiar with the school environment, meet with school staff, and as a result, they become more likely to become involved in their children's education (Blank et al., 2003). At the same time, they meet other parents and community residents. The school becomes a place to build relationships and get to know each other's children. According to Warren and Hong (2009), parents can thus discuss issues they have in common in the education of young people. As they participate in activities together and discover their common values and interests, parents begin to build trust among themselves and with school staff. While all community schools can be potential sites for relationship building, Warren (2005, cited in Deslandes, 2007; Deslandes & Rousseau, 2007) points out that there are community organizations whose mission includes building relationships between parents, considering that these ongoing relationships between families are just as important as the relationships that need to be built between the school and the parents. Relationships help to create a sense of community and a sense of shared responsibility for children. The relational approach recognizes the potential for conflict between parents, community leaders, and educators. At the same time, however, it opens the door to collaborative processes that foster the power to create solutions together (Warren et al., 2006, as cited in Deslandes, 2007).

Community school models and evaluation methods

Deslandes (2009b) described three models of community schools in Canada. She also reports on their evaluations and the challenges these schools face.

Community schools in Saskatchewan. The philosophy and characteristics of Saskatchewan's community schools are consistent with those of their American counterparts: an ambitious curriculum, multiple and supportive relationships between youth and adults, high performance expectations, and multiple meaningful opportunities for social participation (see also Blank et al., 2003; CAS 2001). The success of the learning component seems to depend on three other components: family and community partnerships, integration of services, and community development or vitality. Data were collected from students, teachers, staff, administrators, parents, and community members. The main sources included questionnaires completed by some 920 participants from thirty schools and seventeen focus groups with staff, parents and community members in nine community schools. The results of the evaluation report were grouped into six questions: inclusion, shared responsibility, shared accountability, leadership, responsiveness, integrated services, and lifelong learning. There was some confusion about the role of school-based coordinators. Researchers believe that some schools should try to reach out to community members rather than wait for them to come to them. The list of challenges is quite long and includes: defining the mandates and jurisdictions of various agencies, inter-agency communication, the issue of confidentiality, the availability of funds to ensure continuity of services, and the time and expertise required to implement specific services. Leadership is a priority. Study participants understood the importance of the principal's skills in motivating team members and in creating a climate of commitment and shared leadership. Working with social service agencies and the community to

identify strengths and needs is an opportunity to link the school's work with community values and expectations and to discover expertise, ideas, resources, and support. The role of community school co-ordinators appears to be essential to the success of the program, but it does not appear to be understood or supported. There is a call for more clarification and communication as coordinators act as liaisons between the school and the community. According to the research team, in order to develop a school-community partnership, relationships must be built. An investment in creating links between the various players - teachers, school team members, school administrators, parents, administrators and community members - is therefore crucial. Taking the time to work together to build relationships and trust, increasing the ability to create a shared vision and clarify goals, roles and expectations in order to turn that vision into reality, is becoming a promising practice. Offering adults the opportunity to learn and grow together is key to changing mindsets and learning new ways of working together (Deslandes, 2009b).

Community Learning Centres (CLCs). The second model is in fact the first large-scale initiative of this type for English-language schools in Quebec. The project aims to help English-language schools in Quebec secure their future in their respective regions and establish a network of centres that successfully integrate school and community activities under one roof (Livingstone et al., 2008, already cited in Deslandes, 2009b). Each school participating in the project receives funding to hire a coordinator for three years and to obtain videoconferencing equipment. CLCs, like American community schools (CAS, 2001), are open to students, their families, and the community before, during, and after school hours, seven days a week, year-round (Langevin, 2008, already cited in Deslandes, 2009b). The project aims to: (1) foster better academic performance among young people, (2) promote the language, culture and vitality of the English-speaking community, (3) provide better access to services in English, particularly in rural and outlying areas, (4) encourage the development of a symbiotic relationship between schools and their communities, and (5) renew the role and importance of the school and its services to communities (Livingstone et al., 2008, already cited in Deslandes, 2009b). Desired collaboration includes a commitment to goals, shared responsibility, mutual authority, accountability, and shared resources.

Structures and resources

A toolbox with templates and workbooks is available to schools to facilitate the transition to CLCs. The steps involved in developing an action plan are similar to those of action research (Smith, 2007, as cited in Deslandes, 2009). Each CLC must develop its own theory of change (Mediratta, 2004), adapted to its context, and describe the expected short-, medium-, and long-term outcomes and the strategies chosen. For support and training, CLCs are supported by a team of four professionals (called a "project team" or PRT), including a project leader, a community development coordinator, an evaluation coordinator, and a learning coordinator. The team also relies on the assistance of a project implementation committee headed by the Assistant Deputy Minister of Services to the English-speaking Community of the MELs (WestEd Learning, 2008, already cited in Deslandes, 2009b).

Some results

Initial results are mainly related to the implementation process (WestEd Learning Evaluation, 2008; WestEd & Lamarre, 2008, already cited in Deslandes, 2009b). At the project level, results show that the training and support provided by the Project Resource Team (PRT) helped staff to develop action plans, establish partnerships with community organizations, and collaborations with school boards. The results for the CLC indicate that coordinators play a key role and that many school principals rely on them to lead the CLC. Some coordinators, however, felt overwhelmed by the amount of work to be done. Others resigned because their own working conditions were not adequate. The support of principals was seen as essential to the development and implementation of the CLCs. In addition, with respect to the individuals hired to liaise with CLCs and school boards, it appears that principals and coordinators were not clear about their roles. In fact, they play different roles with the CLCs depending on the situation and needs of the CLCs and the school boards' initiative. The involvement of teachers, parents and students varied considerably from site to site. At one end of the continuum were teachers who appeared to be proud of what was happening, while others, at the other end, chose to ignore everything about the CLCs or took a "wait and see" approach. Student participation also varied considerably from site to site. One of the most significant achievements relates to the partnerships, programs, and activities put in place for students to support their success and for parents and the broader community. Here are a few examples. For students: after-school and weekend homework clubs, tutoring programs, literacy programs and Saturday school; promotion of special events related to education, health and literacy, and facilitated volunteering in the community. For parents: Parenting skills training workshops and language classes; parent room at school; health information by videoconference, especially in rural and remote areas. For community members: access to language classes, computer training, etc.

Recommendations

The WestEd evaluators (2008, cited in Deslandes, 2009b) recommend, among other things, allowing more time for coordinators, principals, and school teams to interact and share ideas and knowledge. They suggest clarifying the types of documents needed to implement the project, involving school teams in planning CLC training and events, and paying more attention to developing links between individual activities and school improvement plans. They believe that teachers would benefit from training on implementing community learning and that more support from school boards would be beneficial (see Deslandes, 2009b).

Family, School, and Community, Succeeding Together (FECRE), the third model, was implemented in Quebec from 2003 to 2009. It contains some elements of community schools and is aimed primarily at disadvantaged francophone families and their children aged 2 to 12. The FECRE program is an intervention program aimed at setting up educational communities (school, family and community) to promote academic success in disadvantaged areas. This program has an integrative, dynamic, interactive and partnership-based organizational structure under the responsibility of the MELS. It involved around 24 disadvantaged elementary schools in 12 school boards across the

country. The intervention approach is multidisciplinary, comprehensive and concerted and is based on the systemic approach (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Five intervention systems are targeted: the child, the family, the classroom, the school, and the community, in order to promote an integrated evolution of practices. The FECRE program has mobilized more than 325 partners from the education, health, social services, social solidarity, public security and community networks in the work and projects of 19 local teams led by 14 development officers at the end of the program. The evaluation was conducted in 2010 by Larose et al.'s research team. The main sources of information included qualitative and quantitative data. Data analysis models included: text statistics, statistical analysis of categorical, univariate, bivariate, and correspondence factor analysis and multivariate. The analyzed effects are too numerous to list all of them in this document (see the evaluation report by Larose et al., 2010).

Here are a few examples. In relation to the school system, the evaluators found that regular contact practices were deployed to convey a positive image of the child's school experience. The content and style of written communication was modified to take into account the parents' literacy level. As for the family system, there appears to have been a decrease in negative parental discourse about school and the practices of teachers in disadvantaged environments. Parental support and encouragement seemed to be more present with regard to the importance of the child's presence and involvement in the school. School-team members observed a higher level of parental presence in formal school activities and in extracurricular activities. Larose et al. (2010) also report the emergence of some forms of professional interdisciplinarity as well as better knowledge of each individual's skills. The major role played by the development agent is highlighted. The school principal's task related to the management of activities and projects generated by the success plan appeared too heavy. According to the evaluators, the FECRE program has fostered the school's integration into its environment. As for the program's effects on the success and perseverance of young people, the evaluators do not have direct data, but it seems that they can lead not only to a change in the attitudes of school staff and parents, but also to changes in attitudes and behaviors observed among students. For example, as protective factors with respect to students' difficulties in social and academic adjustment, especially in disadvantaged environments, evaluators report a reduction in school absenteeism, a decrease, according to school staff members, in inappropriate behaviors on school grounds, and an increased presence of parents in information and training activities offered by the school (Larose et al., 2010).

On the American side, a variety of models have been specially tested since the 1990s. Just in the state of Florida, Calfee et al. (1998) reported over 350 community school models. It is therefore inappropriate to speak of "the American model". The most frequently mentioned are the Children's Aid Society (CAS) community schools, the New York City Beacons, 21st Century Schools, and Boston Connects (Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a; Deslandes & Rousseau, 2007; Walsh & Wiekene, 2009). Overall, the results show that community schools are beneficial because they help enhance student learning, foster family engagement with students and schools, help schools function better, and revitalize communities (Blank et al., 2003; Decker, Decker, & Brown, 2007; Dryfoos, 2003; Dryfoos et al., 2005, see an inventory of these results in Deslandes & Rousseau, 2007). To what factors do we attribute this success? For example, for the CAS, Smrekar and Mawhinney (1999, cited in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a) find the absence of internal inter-organizational tensions in these schools even

more impressive than the abundance of available resources. The credit for this spirit of co-ordination and co-operation between the school principal and the director of the family resource centre rests on several years of planning between CAS and the New York City school system. Shared leadership is based on mutual respect, shared goals, and open communication to resolve conflicts or anticipate problems. The full-time presence of a coordinator and adequate financial resources also appear to contribute to the success of the initiative.

The authors unanimously recognize the complexity of evaluating community schools. The variation in models and their implementation in different contexts makes comparisons between these schools difficult. The complexity of these multiple interventions has challenged many researchers who usually work with cause-and-effect paradigms and experimental designs. However, even if causality cannot be established, the strength and direction of the findings provide an incentive for confidence. Evaluators agree that results are consistent across different evaluations (Deslandes & Rousseau, 2007). In this vein, Walsh and Weineke (2009) use the Boston Connects program as an example of the methodology and issues associated with the complexity of evaluating family-school-community-university partnerships. The program builds on contextualist development (developmental-contextualism, Lerner, 1995, already cited in Deslandes & Rousseau, 2007), thus affirming that development is a complex process involving not only several areas of interaction - biological, psychological and social - but also multiple contexts such as family, neighborhood and school. The CIPP (Context, Input, Process, and Product) model was chosen for its focus on assessing context, input, process, and product. It has been widely used for both short- and long-term evaluations of different programs (Stufflebeam, 2003, cited in Walsh & Wieneke, 2009). Both quantitative and qualitative methods are used, as well as measures to assess the impact of partnership programs on students, families, teachers, the community, and school districts. Positive outcomes are reported in terms of services provided, academic achievement, student behaviors and work habits, health knowledge and behaviors, and partner satisfaction (see Walsh & Wiene, 2009).

Similarly, Emmons and Comer (2009) report on the complexity of evaluating the School Development Program (SDP). The SDP was developed by James P. Comer and his colleagues almost fifty years ago. The SDP uses a theory of change that states that the SDP model moderates the impact of external factors (federal, state, and local policies and mandates, community contexts, available resources) on the organization and factors related to school management (leadership, governance and communication structures), policies and resources consulted, factors related to school climate and culture (relationships between students, staff, and parents, physical and psychological safety, and feelings of effectiveness, competence, and accountability), and factors related to the classroom (classroom management and curriculum strategies and content). In other words, the introduction of the SDP model directly influences school organizational and management factors, and influences school culture both directly and indirectly, through its impact on organization and management. The SDP model influences classroom practices both directly and indirectly, through its effects. The authors employ an implementation theory, which postulates that SDP transforms the school into an environment that develops positive interpersonal relationships, promotes teacher effectiveness and competence, fosters the development of positive attitudes among students, and increases students' pro-social behaviors and enhances their development and academic success. In order to find out if the SDP is making a difference, evaluators have also developed their own evaluation program based

on theory and research. In addition, they use several quantitative and qualitative data collection methods to triangulate and better interpret the results. The SDP systemic process has proven to be very effective in districts where it has been properly implemented, resulting in significant gains in student achievement, student personal development, and professional development for teachers, principals, and other school staff. Improvements in school organization and school climate have also been documented (Comer & Emmons, 2006). Particular recognition of the effectiveness of SDP has come through the results of a meta-analysis of research on twenty-nine comprehensive school reform programs (Borman, Hewes, Overman, & Brown, 2003). The authors found that SDP is one of the three models of reform models with the "strongest evidence of effectiveness" in improving student achievement (Emmons & Comer, 2009).

Conclusions and some lines of thought

Schools are located in communities and are central not only to improving the life experiences of individuals, but also to efforts to improve the social network in the community. Many of the statements made by Deslandes and Bertrand (2001a, b), who argued for collaborative relationships between school and community, are still relevant 20 years later. Three perspectives emerge: for some, they are seen as serving the economic interests of the nation; for others, they are associated with the development of social capital created and shared through positive and caring relationships between people who share attitudes, norms, and values that, in turn, lead to mutual expectations and trust, while other proponents suggest the development of horizontal links between school and community to foster networking, educational and economic opportunities, and cultural enrichment.

Over the past decade, in addition to the effective schools movement, it is above all the movement for the integration of services that has developed and then contributed to the emergence of the community schools movement, which in turn encompasses the other movements mentioned above. A "community school" includes several measures that are crucial to the educational success of all young people, i.e., a demanding and interesting curriculum, caring relationships between youth and adults, high expectations of success, parental involvement, extracurricular programs including sports, the arts, mentoring, etc., prevention services, community involvement, and the coordination and integration of existing services, both private and public, that fall along the *prevention, treatment and support continuum*. Regardless of the angle from which these movements are studied, the facilitating and challenging conditions are similar, even sometimes redundant. According to the classic definition of a community school (CAS, 2001), a community school is established in a public building open to students, their families and communities before, during and after school, seven days a week, throughout the year. In the literature, there appears to be some confusion about the use of the term integrated services school and community school. The term corresponding to *community school* is more commonly used and appears to fall on a continuum from less to more complex. It refers to both simple and complex partnerships. The latter require a great deal of planning and coordination. Nevertheless, community schools appear to be more responsive to acute needs in urban and disadvantaged areas.

The importance of the **school principal's leadership, along with his/her organizational and relational strategies**, is emphasized. Appropriate choices must be made regarding the selection of partners and the duration and intensity of partnerships. As in any relationship, these partnerships are based on the basic principles of effective collaboration: open communication, joint decision-making, and respect for all. Inevitably, disagreements will arise over territoriality, funding, and the definition of roles and responsibilities of each partner. Discomfort is on the horizon with regard to rules of confidentiality and the division of responsibilities between professional orders and other stakeholders, as well as educators and volunteers. Finding time to reflect and to get on the same page is one of the challenges: it remains a rare but necessary ingredient. The context of student diversity also represents a major challenge, which can be partly overcome by adding an intercultural facilitator from the community to bridge the gap with immigrant families, and by using the relational

approach used by certain community organizations to facilitate networking especially among families in urban settings that combine multi-ethnicity and poverty.

The effectiveness of these collaborations depends on the ability of the school team and the community partners to compare their respective visions with respect to the various points of contention. In addition, preparation for collaboration at the professional level is essential in terms of developing skills and the ability to work in collaboration with other stakeholders. We therefore see in this, as in school-family relations, the important role that the Change Laboratory method, bringing together representatives of the various stakeholder groups, can play in helping partners develop a common vision of the situation in order to identify tensions and find solutions. Equally important are the collaborations between universities and communities in order to offer training to the actors involved in the school-community collaboration process.

Over the past few years, several Quebec projects have been developed in the area of collaborative relationships between schools, businesses and community organizations. They are initiated by teachers and the school, by a community organization or in the form of business training and recovery centres. Research in this area has also evolved. Quebec studies have taken an interest in community organizations. For example, one of them highlights the compartmentalization between regular teaching services and complementary educational services. (Bilodeau et al. 2011). Another refers to a community organization as a living environment for certain youth at risk (Desmarais et al. (2012). A last one reports a dynamic of collaboration between the school and community organizations in disadvantaged and multi-ethnic settings (Kanouté & Lafortune, 2011).

Through the description of large-scale national and international projects and their evaluation, Deslandes (2009c) was able to see the scope of the initiatives, as well as the complexity of the evaluation processes. Development workers, stakeholder groups, partners, and evaluation teams have done an amazing job. The range of resources deployed for each project and the challenges that leaders have faced and continue to face are both astonishing and impressive. Deslandes (2009c) highlights the large number of structures and strategies put in place to support stakeholders and the wealth of tools developed to guide them. The elements needed to implement the initiatives seem to overlap. Moreover, these elements correspond in many respects to those identified in a previous, smaller-scale program conducted with two elementary and two secondary schools (Deslandes, 2006, 2007; Deslandes, Bastien, Lemieux & Fournier, 2006). For example, it appeared important to (1) have a school principal and a program coordinator with strong leadership and strong relationships; (2) provide the coordinators with stable and facilitating working conditions; (3) allow time to share ideas, develop a common vision and mutual trust, and clarify each person's role; (4) integrate the proposed activities into the school's educational project and success plan (similar to the school improvement plan); (5) respect the rhythm of each school and community; and (6) obtain the support and commitment of the school councils.

To back out is no longer an option. The movement towards a community-based perspective is well underway, as the Education Minister, Jean-François Roberge demonstrates in his *School Governance Plan. Putting schools back in the hands of the community* (Roberge, 2018). Moreover, the education project was redefined in this sense, following the adoption of Bill 105 in July 2018 (LIP,

art. 37). This new project is the result of a process of analysis and reflection carried out in collaboration with all stakeholders interested in the school, including students, parents, school staff, as well as community and school board representatives. It appears that most Quebec schools are currently on this continuum, moving towards a quest for greater interinfluence and interdependence. Since this movement based on a community perspective includes the movement to improve school effectiveness, we understand that schools in rural areas, for example, will be able to continue to draw inspiration from it while integrating elements of the community school. These perspectives are not in opposition, but are intertwined.

Innovative initiatives ranging from simple to complex must continue to develop, in line with the pace of school development and in a progressive manner. They can become case studies that enable researchers to describe and better understand the different stages of planning, implementation and evaluation. Change Laboratories will inevitably be required to identify and resolve the tensions that arise throughout the process. Professional learning communities in vocational training will also need to support and equip the actors involved.

One of our concerns relates to the apparent heaviness of the process. How can we make it as simple as possible so as not to add to the task of school principals and all the actors involved? This is a major challenge that each school will have to face. It is advisable to move gradually from the simplest to the most complex, and from small to large scale.

Another of our apprehensions is shared by the researchers who will be working on these initiatives. We are appealing to their sense of ethics as part of the reporting of their work. The aim is not to discredit theories, but rather to understand how theories have evolved over time and to try to explain how the contribution of other theories complements, encompasses or replaces them. In short, we must build or propose avenues based on what has been done and what we must avoid doing again. This also applies to the language used to report on the processes and impact of the initiatives implemented. Some use jargon that is inaccessible to young researchers who are new in regards to specific theories or methodologies. Isn't it a sign of competence and respect to use clear and easily accessible language?

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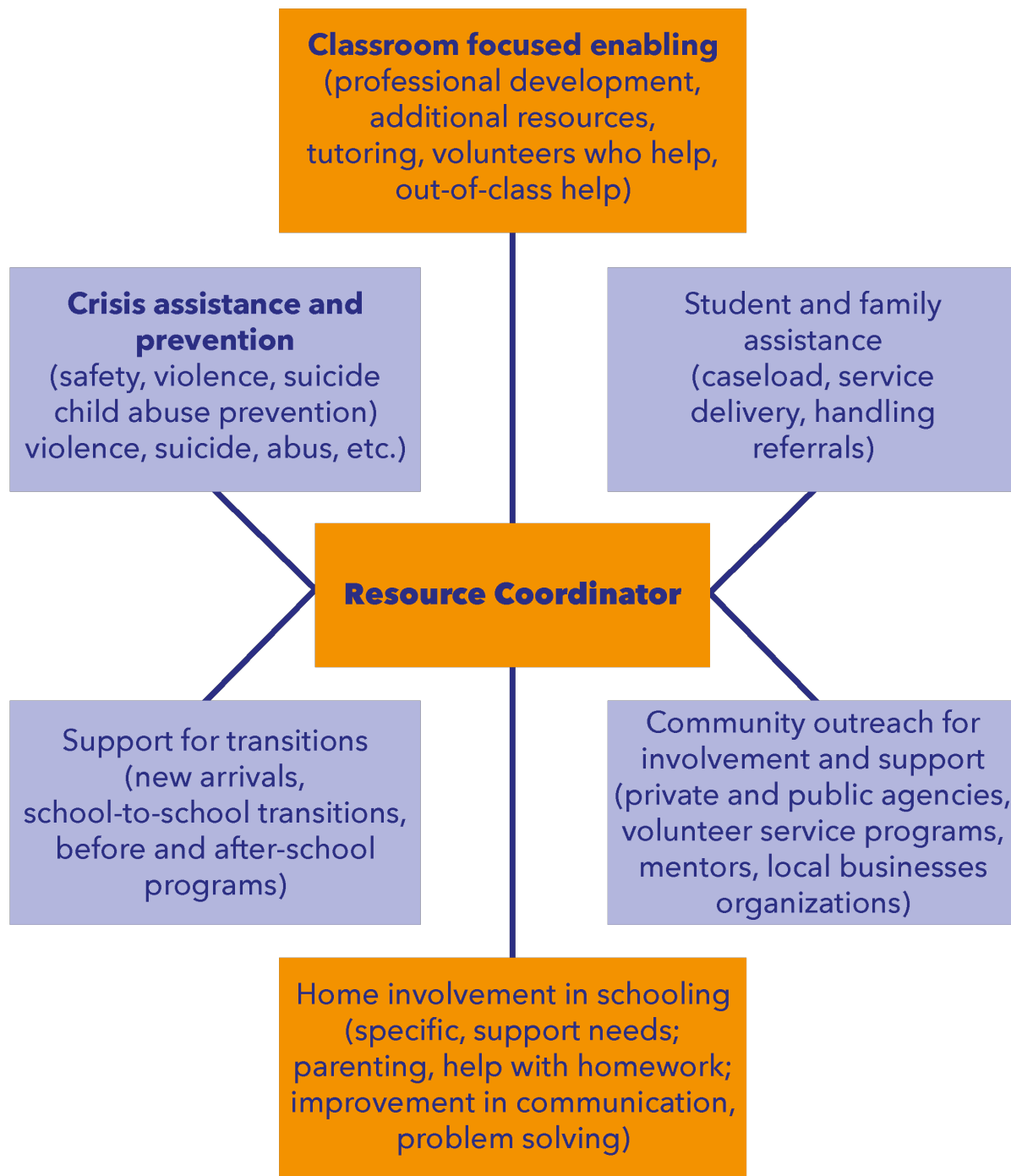
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Figure 1

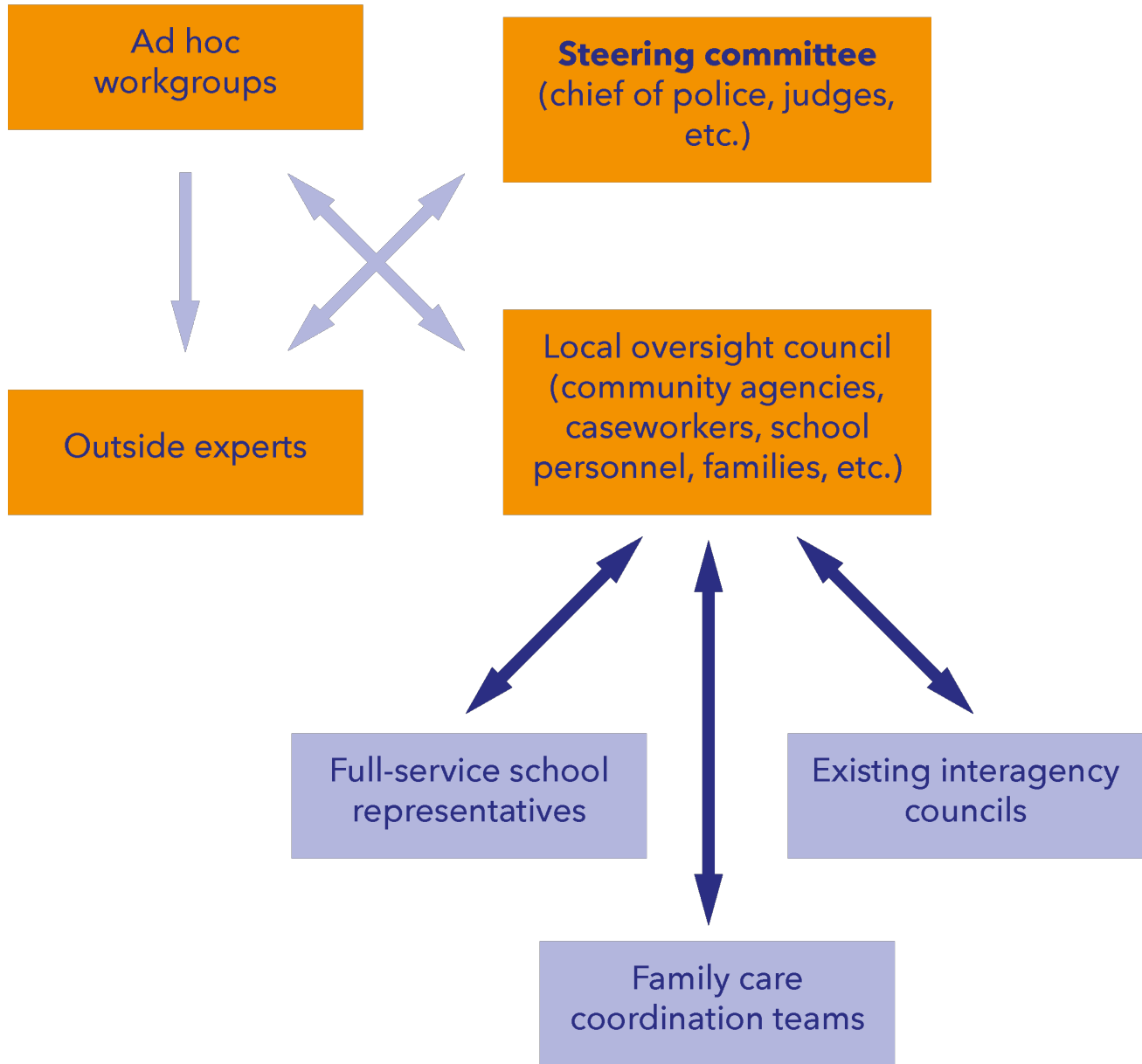
Enabling Component to Support Children’s and Adolescents’ Learning and Development (six areas of programmatic activity)



(*Enabling component, Learning Center Model*, Adelman, 1996) (free translation in Deslandes & Bertrand, 2001a, 2002, p. 143; Deslandes & Rousseau, 2009, p. 88)

Figure 2

Community-Based Governance



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