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MYLO JAMES MILLER
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AN OUTCOME-BASED EVALUATION OF AN INNER-CITY COLLEGE PREPARATORY PUBLIC CHARTER HIGH SCHOOL

A DISSERTATOIN APPROVED FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND POLICY STUDIES

BY

_____
Dr. William Frick, Chair

_____
Dr. Neil Houser

_____
Dr. John Covaleskie

_____
Dr. Gregg Garn

_____
Dr. Jeffrey Maiden

DEDICATION PAGE

This dissertation is dedicated to my loving wife. Thank you for your support, encouragement and sacrifice. Additionally, this dissertation is dedicated in memory of my grandfather. His unique curiosity and passion to learn inspired me when I was a kid. Somewhere your spirit is in these pages! Finally, this work is dedicated in memory of Dr. Jeff Mills. His life reminds me of the importance of faith, family, friends, and work.

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ABSTRACT

Racial and ethnic minorities are expected to increase in both number and percentage of the college-going population (Department of Commerce, 2009). Meanwhile the historic underrepresentation of low-income, African-American, and Latino students in the college population has a substantial effect on American society and the economy (Dancy & Brown, 2012). Lower rates of participation in postsecondary education by a growing minority population necessitate for many policy officials the creation of free public college preparatory charter high schools. The purpose of this study is to evaluate the effectiveness of a college preparatory public charter high school through the theoretical lens of social capital. This outcome based effectiveness evaluation study investigated the following: an inner-city college preparatory public charter high school's effectiveness in reaching its pre-established, explicit goals: 1) organizational performance and value goals and 2) individual performance and value goals. The evaluation determined whether there were statistically significant differences in organizational performance and value and individual performance and value results between gender, socio-economic status, and ethnic groups in the senior class and if there were any significant relationships between measures of social capital, civic engagement, and student achievement results. This evaluation science study found that the college preparatory public charter high school was effective in terms of closing the opportunity gap through its social capital goals to prepare poor and minority students for post-secondary education. While this determination was important, there were significant differences in student achievement results for poor and minority students. The ascertained relationship between social capital measures and student achievement within the college preparatory public charter high

school context implies that the opportunity gap for poor and minority students is being minimized. As student grade point averages went up so did the level of student social capital measures suggesting that the social capital goals of the college preparatory public charter high school made a difference in the academic outcomes of the students it serves. Additionally, there was an ascertained relationship between ACT scores and parent service hours which indicates an inferred relationship between parental involvement with and in the school context positively effects student achievement. The significant results linking social capital measures and parent service hours with student achievement provides theoretically-based knowledge about the potential of schools to be socially transformative rather reproductive.

CHAPTER ONE

For decades troubling evidence has demonstrated a staggering underrepresentation of poor and minority students matriculating to college (Stoker, 2010). Particularly concerning are the very low rates of Black males matriculating to college. "Black men account for 4.3 percent of the total enrollment at four year postsecondary institutions in the United States, which is the same percentage enrolled in 1976" (Dancy &Brown, 2012, p.222). Additionally, the most recent census suggests that the minority youth population in the United States will only continue to increase rapidly (U. S. Census Bureau, 2010). Compounding the college aspiration and actualization problems for poor and minority students are the projected population growth of African Americans and Latinos, and the widening chasm between the rich and poor (Stoker, 2010). This documented problem has spurred a recent phenomenon within the inner cities of the United States known as college preparatory charter high schools. Examining the literature related to this recent schooling phenomenon and considering the conceptual basis for social capital ties of adolescents in college preparatory charter high schools assists with understanding the effectiveness of such schooling options.

In the year 2000 the college-going population was 26.6 million (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000). The college-age population is projected to increase to 30.3 million by 2025, with strong growth among minority groups (U. S. Census Bureau, 2010). The U. S. Bureau of the Census (2010) estimated that the White college-age population had peaked in 2010 and currently is declining; this is due to the rise in the college-age population of racial and ethnic minorities, largely the substantial increase in the number of Latinos. Given that racial and ethnic minorities are expected to increase in both number and

percentage of the college-going population, the underrepresentation of low-income, African-American and Latino students in the college population is likely to have a substantial effect on American society and the economy in terms of lower lifetime earnings, increased dependence on welfare, and lower productivity (Kirp, 2010). Lower rates of participation in postsecondary education by a growing minority population necessitate for many policy officials the continuing justification for charter schooling in general and the creation of free public college preparatory charter high schools in particular (Perna, 2000) within a broader equity and excellence reform movement within the U.S. A strong argument can be made that such a broad sweeping; policy-driven reform movement is given impetus by a political economy framed primarily by a neoliberal orientation toward public and private life (see Dionne, 2012; Hursh, 2007, Compton & Weiner, 2008).

African-American and Latino students are less likely than White and Asian students to obtain the economic benefits, such as higher lifetime earnings, and noneconomic benefits, including a more fulfilling work environment, better health, longer life, and greater participation in the cultural life of communities associated with higher levels of education (Rothstein, 2004). Society, as a whole, benefits from having more highly educated citizens, as higher levels of education are associated with higher productivity, greater civic involvement, greater volunteerism, reduced dependence on welfare, and lower crime rates (Kirp, 2011).

Public schools have struggled with the "achievement gap problem" for poor and minority student groups for many years. Alternative forms of educating students such as charter schools emerged in the 1990's. Charter schools have been the outcome of state

and national educational policy compromises that have also been promoted by some as *the* panacea for the "achievement gap" and even the "college aspiration and actualization" problems for low-income minority youth (Lake & Hernandez, 2011). This particular evaluation science study seeks to investigate the effectiveness of a nationally ranked Blue Ribbon college preparatory public charter high school. This outcome-based effectiveness evaluation study of an inner-city college preparatory public charter high school, with a racially and socio-economically diverse student population, is important for informing the educational issues of college aspiration and actualization for low income and minority student groups in general and for the utility of systematic feedback to the school as an organization in particular.

Problem and Purpose of the Study

High academic expectations for all ethnic and/or minority groups have not always been the accepted norm in the U.S. In the 18th century there were no schools in the southern states of the U.S. that admitted black children to its free public schools (Black, 2011). However, today the U.S. has reached ''near-universal college attendance" but these trends are still most evident among Whites (American Association of Colleges & Universities, 2002). Many educational movements can be identified that attempt to increase college participation among under-represented racial and ethnic groups such as AVID programs, STEM programs, and charter schools. One endeavor for increasing low income and minority youth in college matriculation have been college preparatory charter high schools (publicly funded schools that typically have unique missions and/or less bureaucratic regulatory oversight), but this kind of schooling is shrouded in controversy.

The history of excluding minorities has evolved over time as the "college for all" construct became popularized (Anderson, 1988). Changing demographics, new job markets, the GI Bill, and the Civil Rights Movement have allowed more diverse people groups into college. Unfortunately, low income and minority youth students still do not attend college at the same rate as their counterparts, even though literature on this topic suggests that there has always been a heightened interest in college preparation within communities of color (Anderson, 1988; Brown, 1999; Billingsley, 1992; Hochschild, 1995; McDonough, 2004; Noeth & Wimberly, 2002; Noguera, 2001; Wilson & Allen, 1987).

This history of race and class polarization in urban communities means that urban students of color have been more likely to live in communities where very few adults have had the opportunity to attend college (Cabrera & La Nasa, 2000; Wilson & Allen, 1987). Due to the relationship between local wealth and school quality (Cabrera & La Nasa, 2000; Wilson & Allen, 1987), these students are also more likely to attend schools that do not have the resources to adequately prepare them for college. The *school-based* obstacles to college preparation in most urban centers are as follows: high student-counselor ratios, fewer available resources targeted toward college planning and preparation, and a limited school-wide emphasis on college preparation (Ceja, 2000; Freeman, 1997; McDonough, 2004; Noguera, 2001).

Oklahoma's Educational Challenges

Low income students and minority youth in Oklahoma face many of the same issues experienced nationally concerning college aspirations and actualizations. The state habitually ranks near the bottom in most criteria concerning education (OSSBA, 2012).

Per-pupil expenditures and teacher pay comparisons are notoriously low to that of regional and national comparisons (OSSBA, 2012). Notwithstanding, Oklahoma's economy has recently fared better than most states during the latest economic recession beginning in 2008. The slowing and halting of the national economic recovery has affected many state educational budgets such as Oklahoma's which was cut by more than 10 percent (OSSBA, 2012). Oklahoma's No Child Left Behind data reveal that low income minority youth students have suffered the most during this national economic recession (OSSBA, 2012). Student test scores for Hispanics and African Americans on federal and state tests in reading dropped below state averages and continued to decline throughout high school (NCES, 2010).

The National Center for Education Statistics (2010) describes this dismal situation for African American and Hispanic students in Oklahoma. By fourth grade African American students were already "three years behind grade level" and by eighth grade they remained "two or more grade levels behind." The NCES (2010) reported that Hispanics were not achieving much better in Oklahoma. The graduation rates for Hispanics and African American youth in Oklahoma are well behind White and Asian populations. The graduation rate for the Asian population is 80 percent, and the White population is 73 percent— a striking contrast to 55 percent for African Americans and 57 percent graduation rate for Hispanics (OSDOE, 2012).

Significance of the Study

The problem of college aspiration and actualization for low income and minority youth can be understood by examining the level and/or degree of social capital development for these particular students. According to Bourdieu and Wacquant (1992)

low-income minority youths' actions pertaining to college aspirations and actualizations cannot be fully examined without consideration of the social context in which these actions occur. Some have tried to explain this problem based on evidence citing the genetic inferiority of minority groups. The racist remarks of Herrnstein and Murray (1992) attributed genetic intellectual inferiority to that of minorities. The social context of education nationally, and specifically in Oklahoma, for low income minority youth, is a better explanation for the achievement gap (and more precisely, the opportunity gap) problem than genetic explanations (Shenk, 2010). There is substantial sociological and social science evidence pointing to the vast differences in college preparation for Blacks and Whites that have been attributed to school quality and access to resources including personnel who promote student achievement (Card & Krueger, 1992; Ferguson, 1998; Kozol, 1992; Wenglingsky, 1997; Cookson & Persell, 1985; Peshkin, 2001; Powell, 1996). Also, there continues to be biased (favored) treatment toward whites and referenced as one explanation for the emphasized importance of race-linked signals about ability and diligence that teachers and schools have long communicated to students, with varying degrees of discreteness (Ferguson, 2003; Oates, 1982; Oates, 2003). Often times, this kind of communication can be the impetus for what is known as stereotype threat – reducing the performance of students who belong to negatively stereotyped groups (Steele, 2010).

The significance of this evaluation science study is the investigation of the effectiveness of a particular preparatory charter high school and whether or not the organization is meeting its pre-established educative goals. More broadly, this study is significant in that it seeks to address the larger work of this recent phenomenon known as

college preparatory charter high schools through the theoretical lens of social capital. This study is realized in the context of the aforementioned barriers and therefore an outcome-based effectiveness evaluation of a free college-preparatory public charter high school seems appropriate based on the problematic gap between "educational aspirations and actualizations" for low income and minority students (Stoker, 2010). The relationship between school quality and the effect of a family's background on a child's education ultimately prompted this evaluation study.

In addressing this aforementioned relationship, Oates's (2009) research revealed that school quality and biased treatment were the primary explanations for differentials between Black and White high-school-assessment performances. The lack of access to high quality schools and receipt of interpersonal cues from "gatekeepers" who were influenced by racial and socioeconomic privilege proved to be definitive in the study. Essentially, Oates' (2009) explanation for the performance gap between Black and White students emphasized what they "brought to" high school was not as influential on performance differentials as was "what happened" to them (such as quality of education provided and race-contingent treatment received) when they arrived. Conversely, Coleman (1966) concluded that variation in school resources had very little to do with the test-score gap between black and white children. Instead, Coleman (1966) suggested that the family backgrounds of black and white students, their widely different social and economic conditions (accurately understood as a distinction based on *social class*, see Rothstein, 2013), accounted for most of the difference.

The combination of these related views, that of Oates (2009) and Coleman, (1966), provides a clearer picture, when taken together, of the lack of social capital

investment in minority students in the U.S. while explaining away any notions of genetic inferiority. Additionally, other research has explained that high schools with high average levels of family income (economic capital) and parental educational attainment (social and cultural capital) increase the probability of their students attending a two-year college (Perna &Titus, 2005). Family background in terms of social, cultural and economic capital investments and parental involvement make a difference in the postsecondary attainment of adolescents.

A lack of social, cultural, and economic capital reinforcement in urban areas of the U.S. has contributed to a number of inner-city minority youth attending schools with maximized resources, and as such, with ironic meaning, is a manifestation of the historical elitism of college preparatory schools reserved primarily for those with wealth and power (Powell, 1996). Historically, college preparatory schools were designed to make sure their ‘‘college prep’’ students were prepared to attend some of the oldest and most elite colleges in the U.S. These college-preparatory schools disproportionately served selectively-admitted whites, males, and/or students from wealthy families (Powell, 1996). Due to college preparatory schools' long association with wealth and privilege, the concept of ‘‘college preparatory’’ continues to signify schooling that is exclusionary and "beset with monocultural educational practices that reproduce social and economic power among the elite" (Cookson & Persell, 1985, p. 37; Peshkin, 2001). These college preparatory schools reinforced the social, cultural, and economic capital of selectively-admitted students (Powell, 1996).

College preparatory charter schools (disrupting the opportunity gap). This history of exclusion and lack of social, cultural, and economic reinforcement is still

influential for students of color as Tierney (2002) explains that integration into the institution's environment and academic success can be exceedingly difficult, especially at majority white institutions. Also, much of the existing research on student retention (aspiration and actualization) was conducted before minority students became a "critical mass" on college campuses. Consequently, the research was often based on white male students (Tierney, 2002) and hence produced a "monolithic view of students devoid of issues of race/ethnicity, culture, gender, politics, and identity" (Hurtado, 1992, p. 52).

For minority youth, this historical influence of assimilation, poor school quality, and social class disenfranchisement all contribute to the infamous "college actualization problem." This gap was enlarged by the many years that college preparatory schools helped elite families in the U.S. replicate and reinforce their social and economic power. Cookson and Persell (1985) note that college preparatory schools have ''trained the children of such illustrious American families as the Rockefellers, Kennedys, and Vanderbilts, and prep schools have gained the reputation of being educational country clubs where children of wealthy families are sent to get socially polished and prepared for admission to acceptable colleges'' (p. 4–5). Many studies of college preparatory schools report that these schools not only attract powerful and wealthy families, but also reinforce their social and economic power by maintaining a selective social climate (exclusive admissions process), offering advanced courses (Advanced Placement (AP) and International Baccalaureate (IB) courses) and guaranteeing access to elite colleges and universities (personalized college planning guidance, bartering with universities for students' admissions) (Cookson & Persell, 1985; Peshkin, 2001; Powell, 1996).

Ironically, college preparatory charter schools once reinforced the social, cultural, and economic capital of only a select few; now, they are an attempt in many urban areas to do this for diverse racial and ethnic populations. Given the educational problems for poor and minority students at the national and state levels, college preparatory schools utilize different strategies to increase social capital networks for students. Kirp (2011) references one important social phenomenon in peer relationships by stating, "the most valuable thing that schools could offer to poor children—far significant, in terms of its impact on achievement, than smaller classes, more up to date textbooks, or well-equipped labs- is the chance to attend school with classmates from better—off families" (p. 96). This access to schooling, that is truly diverse across multiple categories of difference, attributes benefits to less well-off students through a social phenomenon known as cultural capital. Cultural capital "rubs off" in multiple ways, from academic vocabulary to more complex issues of identity formation and achievement goal orientation (Kirp, 2011; DiMaggio & Mohr, 1985; Hagedorn, 2002).

Another strategy to close the opportunity gap for poor and minority students that many college preparatory charter high schools utilize today is the requirement to take Advanced Placement (AP) courses. Increasing the participation in AP and the number of AP courses in high schools in less-advantaged urban school districts is widely being viewed as a solution for low-achievement among low-income and minority students (Cabrera & La Nasa, 2000, 2001; McDonough, 2004). This makes sense to some in view of overwhelming research indicating that the most substantial barriers to four-year college enrollment are a lack of academic preparation, a lack of access to support and information about college enrollment, along with the numerous other barriers that prevent

low-income and minority students from enrolling in four-year colleges (Cabrera & La Nasa, 2000, 2001; McDonough, 2004; Perna, 2000; Freeman, 1997; Hamrick & Stage, 2004; McDonough, 1997, 2004, 2005; Perna & Swail, 2001). In this sense, closing an opportunity gap precedes closing an achievement gap.

The justification for these new college preparatory charter schools and their methods is to prioritize the ideal of ‘‘college for all’’ by reconceptualizing the educational pathways of students who have been made academically and socioeconomically vulnerable by the generational disinvestments of educational resources in urban communities (Farmer-Hinton 2008; King 2004). As King (2004) outlines the ‘‘college for all’’ concept, in college preparatory charter high schools, largely in school communities of color, the educative process involves specific organizational throughputs such as consistent messages between staff and students regarding clear expectations for college preparedness. Additionally, these college preparatory charter high schools emphasize consistent discussions about students' college-going activities, provide rigorous courses, and academic resources dedicated to students' college preparation and college counseling, which are central features of "college for all", where college expectations guide student advising on both instructional and non-instructional issues (Farmer-Hinton, 2006).

These methods attempt to close the opportunity gap for poor and minority students by establishing organizational arrangements that combine academic rigor and school-based social support which are more likely to help underrepresented students transition to college. Martinez and Klopott (2005) found that many of these efforts are bundled in different ways across various college-preparatory charter schools; typically

the combination of academic rigor and school-based social support exists in pre-packaged programs like AVID (Advancement Via Individual Determination), Gates Foundation-funded programs like Early College High Schools, or even small learning communities. While research is still emerging about these varied efforts, there is growing evidence that students of color may outpace their counterparts in public school contexts in terms of higher educational aspirations, more rigorous courses taken, and higher college admissions rates (Alvarez & Mehan, 2006; Fashola & Slavin, 1998; Kahne & Bailey, 1999; King, 2004).

Charter schools and EMO (educational management organization) networks such as KIPP, YES!, and High Tech High, and charter management organizations such as Achievement First and Uncommon Schools and many small individual college preparatory charter schools have opened to serve local neighborhoods with sometimes poorly performing district public schools (Bowles & Gintis, 2002). Some of these schools are located in blue-collar neighborhoods and serve only local students while others are located outside the neighborhood and draw students from a wider area. Of those charter schools located outside the neighborhood, some are able to provide busing while others rely on parents and public transportation to bring students to school (Bowles & Gintis, 2002). Many students who attend these schools are ethnic minorities from low-income families and many have demonstrated in some way that they are motivated and willing to make significant commitments of time and energy to school (Bowles & Gintis, 2002).

Charter schools continue to spread and these schooling efforts exist in almost every type of body politic, their service in extreme need districts with large concentrations of poverty and educationally underprivileged groups place them in a

position to disrupt the educational challenges facing these groups (Adelman, 1999, 2006; SRI International, 2002). Charter schools enroll students based on family choices, rather than contiguity assignments. They are public schools, bound by the First Amendment's disallowance against religious teaching, and typically are exempt from some of the regulations that apply to district public schools. Freed from many bureaucratic restraints, charter schools are, hypothetically at least, held accountable for performance by the threat of closure and by parental choice (Garn & Cobb, 2001), although many if not all charter schools must comply with statewide academic achievement testing requirements.

This autonomy in theory is supposed to provide room for innovative curricular and instructional approaches (Bulkley & Fisler, 2003). Even though charter schools are still a relatively new schooling "innovation," they are expanding in numbers, perceptibility, and influence—not only in Oklahoma, but also across the nation. Since the early 1990s, many states have been ratifying charter school legislation. Currently, 40 states plus the District of Columbia have charter schools. Over 5,200 charter schools are operating in the country, serving over 1.8 million students, almost double that of estimates of the homeschooling population in the U.S. The number of charter schools has increased each year, currently comprising 5.4 percent of all public schools (NAPCS, 2011). Interestingly enough, several large urban school systems are referred to as "portfolio districts", essentially indicating the range of both private and public education service providers that are contracted through LEA governing apparatus (Hill, Jochim, & Campbell, 2013). Portfolio strategies and charter management organizations (CMOs) stem from the ideas of Osborne and Gaebler's (1992) *Reinventing Government.* The primary principle is that government should steer—set goals, determine expenditure

levels, run competitions to find the best providers, judge performances, and replace ineffective providers—but it should not be a provider itself (Osborne & Gaebler, 1992).

President Obama announced his reinforcement for charter schools, by increasing funding for this reform and calling for the lifting of caps on the conception and enactment of charters (Maxwell, 2009). The Obama Administration has encouraged charter school expansion through the Race to the Top initiative that, initiated proposals for sizable grants to states meeting selection criteria that include advocating for the establishment of charter schools (U.S. DOE, 2009). Although there has been fleeting evidence of any action to date, the President has symbolized support of the accountability goal of the charter movement, urging states to shut down low-performing charter schools (Maxwell, 2009).

Methodology

This outcome based effectiveness evaluation study investigated the following: an inner-city college preparatory public charter high school's effectiveness in reaching its pre-established, explicit goals: 1) organizational performance and value goals and 2) individual performance and value goals. The evaluation determined - whether there were statistically significant differences in organizational performance and value and individual performance and value results between gender, socio-economic status, and ethnic groups in the senior class. Culminating this evaluation science study, there was an investigation of any significant relationships between measures of social capital, civic engagement, and student achievement results. This evaluation study utilized Schalock's (2002) methodological pluralism model (see Figure 4.1, page 85) which focused on 1) organizational performance and 2) organizational value measures, 3) individual

performance and 4) individual value measures. This evaluation science study was a within-group comparison among gender, ethnicity, and students' socio-economic status within the senior class marking the tenth year of operation in a college preparatory public charter high school context. The college preparatory public charter high school in this evaluation had many social capital goals for college preparation (association membership, parental involvement, peer relationships, teacher involvement, school counselor involvement, mentoring, media use, school environment, residential stability, and an overall evaluation of the charter school) therefore, the Pre-College Social Capital Survey (Mack, 2010, see Appendix A) was utilized as a ratings scale within Schalock's (2002) methodological pluralism model to assist with evaluating the school's effectiveness in reaching many of its stated goals and objectives for all the students in the senior class.

Research Questions

1. Is the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school effectively reaching its organizational performance and value and individual performance and value goals for all students?
2. Are there statistically significant differences in organizational performance and value and individual performance and value results between gender, socio-economic status, and racial groups in the senior class?
3. Are there any relationships between social capital measures, civic engagement, and student achievement results for the senior class at the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school?

Definitions

1. An outcome-based effectiveness evaluation is a particular *type* of evaluation -that determines the extent to which a program meets its stated goals and objectives. The study combines this *type* of evaluation science approach with a set of specific research questions that are theoretically driven for deriving knowledge. Evaluation science that is driven by a set of research questions and/or constitutes a form of experimental research classifies it as a quasi-evaluation as opposed to a pseudo- or true evaluation (see Madaus, Scriven, & Stufflebeam, 1983).
2. The methodological pluralism evaluation science model is a multiple measurement approach to program/organizational outcome evaluation along four domains: 1) organizational performance, 2) organizational value, 3) individual performance, and 4) individual value.
3. Low income students in this study are students who qualify for free and reduced lunch and must be a resident of the state of Oklahoma. A parent or primary caregiver is one who is responsible for children who attend the high school. Those who qualify must also have an annual household income before taxes not to exceed $26,955 if two people live in the household; $33,874 if three people live in the household; $40,793 if four people live in the household; $47,712 if five people live in the household; $54,631 if six people live in the household; $61,550 if seven people live in the household; $68,469 if eight people live in the household; and $75,388 if more than eight people live in the household. For larger households, $6,919 is added for each additional person in the home.

4. Minority students for purposes of this study are students reported either as Hispanic, African American, American Indian, Asian, and Other.
5. Charter Schools are primary or secondary schools that receive public funding but do not adhere to the same rules and regulations that apply to district public schools in exchange for some type of accountability for producing specific results, delineated within the school's charter.
6. Social Capital is "the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition – or in other words, to membership in a group – which provides each of its members with the backing of the collectively-owned capital, a 'credential' which entitles them to credit, in the various senses of the word" (Bourdieu, 1986, p. 249).

Limitations

This study was limited to the 101 students who were in the senior class of 2013 marking the tenth year anniversary for this particular inner-city college preparatory public charter high school in Oklahoma City, Oklahoma. All 101 students in the senior class participated in this evaluation science study and these students do not reflect the background characteristics, attitudes, and beliefs of all students of color who participate in college preparatory charter high schools. The population of the study was small; consequently, the findings and outcomes from this study cannot be generalized and may not be specifically applicable to other students in other settings. The study is designed to address specific, local problems of practice while generating a theoretically-driven account that can be applicable for researchers and practitioners in other contexts. This

study is a quantitative research study utilizing Schalock's (2002) methodological pluralism model and the use of a pre-published and technically-constructed survey (see Appendix A).

Gay, Mills, and Airasian (2006) indicate that quantitative researchers must be aware of several validity threats to research instruments. The threats cited are as follows: "unclear test directions; confusing and ambiguous test items; vocabulary too difficult for test takers; overly difficult and complex sentence structures; inconsistent and subjective scoring methods; untaught items included on achievement tests; failure to follow standardized test administration procedures; and cheating, either by participants or by someone teaching the correct answers to the specific test items" (p. 138-139). As a result, in this evaluation science study, every effort was made to minimize the previously listed threats. Feedback from school and program officials was considered and used constructively to strengthen the collection of data through the instrument being used and the goals evaluated.

Conclusion

The focus of this study is on a schooling option that is becoming increasingly popular in the U.S.—college preparatory public charter high schools serving motivated, low-income and minority urban youth. These schools (college preparatory public charter high schools) are an appealing option to many disadvantaged groups especially when juxtaposed with the national history of college preparatory schools in the U.S. College-prep public charter high schools have become the most common type of current urban school reform (Bowles & Gintis, 2002). This reform is often embraced by a broad and often disparate affiliation of parents, educators, scholars, and policy-makers with both

conservative and liberal leanings. Urban college preparatory public charter high schools now enroll thousands of students who sign contracts agreeing to wear uniforms, follow stringent disciplinary policies, and spend more hours at school (Bowles & Gintis, 2002). The problem that the U.S. faces concerning its most economically disenfranchised groups is situated in precarious historic and economic times. Charter schools, ironically the by-products of the unfettered capitalist intentions, are discussed either as a solution or a growing problem for social class disparities in the U.S. As philosopher and poet Gilbert Keith Chesterton wrote (Chesterton, 1880, p.5), "Education is simply the soul of any society as it passes on from one generation to the next." The "soul" of the U.S. schooling system is clearly under the most scrutiny it has seen in its long national history.

CHAPTER TWO

Neoliberal ideology has a strong influence on the theory of action driving the creation of charter schools and the types of data utilized by school leaders to determine the effectiveness of this schooling option. The educational policies of neoliberalism have been identified by some as having the primary purpose of creating competition among schools in order to improve educational outcomes for district public schools (Compton & Weiner, 2008; Robertson, 2000). Conversely, many opponents to the charter school movement and neoliberalism in general fear that this reform will have a negative effect on poor and minority students as it may undermine the system as a whole (Rothstein, 2004; Carnoy, Jacobsen, Mishel, & Rothstein, 2005). Skeptics of neoliberal reform products such as charter schools argue that these schools exclude certain parents due to the lack of social networks and language barriers creating social stratification in certain areas of the U.S. These opponents argue that this social stratification is exacerbated by racial, income, and achievement isolation, and that these reforms leave disadvantaged students in district public schools with fewer resources and more low-achieving students (Carnoy, Jacobsen, Mishel, & Rothstein, 2005).

In spite of empirical evidence citing numerous other communal and social variables impacting schools, neoliberal ideals promote the narrow use of student achievement data as a primary indicator of schooling success or failure (Compton & Weiner, 2008). Expensive testing demands, decreased government revenues, and more stringent accountability measures provide symbolic gestures of school reform offered by the U.S. federal and state governments. These symbolic gestures of school reform tacitly acknowledge the need for economic, social, and cultural capital reinforcement (Rothstein,

2004). Policies such as No Child Left Behind and IDEA exemplify these gestures. Most educators agree with the purposes, or liberal intent of the policy in these legislative actions (particularly as they pertain to student equity categories), but the application to the school environment has been narrowly conservative and is nearly impossible to effectuate with any real and lasting results for poor, minority students because neoliberal policies have limited funding due to the emphasis on decentralization efforts (Compton & Weiner, 2008; Gallagher, 2009). Funding for IDEA has never been adequate, and the goals established by NCLB that state "all students in schools shall be proficient by 2014" are simply unattainable through schools alone (Rothstein, 2004).

Testing and accountability are theorized to motivate improvement within the institutionalized profession of education (Gallagher, 2009). The data generated by large-scale testing programs are to provide parents with information to make effective choices and to provide the state with tools to direct schools in what knowledge and skills are to be taught, as well as to provide for direct changes in specific schools (Gallagher, 2009). The testing and accountability system provides a way for the states to direct schools from a distance. The state reduces the degree to which it is a direct provider and financier of educational service, at the same time having more effective tools to direct the intended outcomes of the educational process (Compton & Weiner, 2008).

Charter school research largely investigates student achievement on standardized tests as the primary justification for this particular reform in U.S. schooling (Abdulkadiroglu et al., 2009; Therriault, Gandhi, Casasanto, & Carney, 2010; Clark, 2000; Clark, Phillip, Tuttle, & Silverberg, 2011; Booker, Scott, Gronberg, & Jansen, 2004). Rarely do those who develop educational policies assess or consider the impacts

of inputs, throughputs, or even outcomes associated with social capital investments of community in and around schools (Abdulkadiroglu et al., 2009; Therriault, Gandhi, Casasanto, & Carney, 2010; Clark, 2000; Booker et al., 2009; Mack, 2012). Charter school reform, viewed as a by-product of neoliberal policies, often contributes to the assumption that traditional schooling is a public good under attack (Compton & Weiner, 2008). This assumption is fueled by the overemphasis of school accountability through a single data dimension, student test scores on multiple-choice tests, which ignites the debate among educational leaders as to what is the purpose of formal education (Gallagher, 2009; Rose, 2009).

Empirical Literature Review on Charter Schools

Empirical evidence for charter schools discuss both the positive and negative effects of student academic achievement on standardized tests (Abdulkadiroglu et al., 2009; Therriault et al., 2010; Clark, 2000; Booker et al., 2009). Many studies in this literature review are reports on large scale national projects. Hoxby's (2004) study included data from 99 percent of the nation's charter schools. Hoxby (2004) found that charter school students were 4 percent more likely to be proficient in reading and 2 percent more likely to be proficient in math on their state exams. However, Hoxby's (2004) study has been faulted for inadequately controlling for students' background, as the positive charter effect noted by Hoxby (2004) disappears after controlling for racial composition and income level (Roy & Mishel, 2005). Controlling variables pertaining to social stratification are often missing from most studies about student achievement in charter schools.

An additional large scale study focusing on student achievement in charter schools is Solomon, Lewis, Park and Garcia's (2001) analysis of results on the Stanford Achievement Test (SAT-9) for a group of Arizona students in grades 3-11 over the 1998-2000 periods. Their three-year group consisted of 40,000 overall students, including 8,000 students who attended an Arizona charter school at least one year. Solomon et al.'s (2001) study incorporated a fixed effects statistical model to control for time-invariant student components but did not include lagged test scores to account for the cumulative effects of past educational inputs. Solomon et al. (2001) did find the first-year effect of attending a charter school on achievement was statistically insignificant for both reading and math. Conversely, students who attended a charter school for two or three years experienced achievement gains in both reading and math which eclipsed those of district public-school students. Unfortunately, no measure of the age of charter schools is included in Solomon et al. (2001) analysis. The measured student tenured effects may in part match differences in the maturity of charter schools, rather than the continuance of charter-school attendance. Also, there were no attempts to control for social stratification variables mentioned as a clear drawback in other studies about charter schools (Solomon et al, 2001).

Hanushek, Kain, and Rivkin (2002) analyzed discrete student achievement gains for four groups of Texas students in grades 4-7 during the years 1996-2001. Hanushek et al. (2002) sample included over 6,600 students who were enrolled in a charter school during the period of 1996-2001 with more than 800,000 students overall in both charter and district public settings. Academic achievement was deliberated by year-to-year changes in standardized individual scores on the Texas Assessment of Academic Skills

(TAAS), a criterion-referenced test. In addition to student-level fixed effects, their model included checks for both charter school age and student mobility (Hanushek et al., 2002).

Hanushek et al. (2002) found that student achievement gains in both math and reading were decreased in charters at the beginning of their inception than the average district public school. These negative effects moderated closely as the charters matured. For students in charters that had existed three years or more, there were no statistically significant differences in reading or math achievement gains associated to peers enrolled at district public schools (Hanushek et al., 2002). These average effects disguised the wide variation in quality among both charters and district public schools. Hanushek et al. (2002) divided their sample into geographic regions and included school-level fixed effects to amplify differences in school quality. Hanushek et al. (2002) discovered that higher quality charter schools are often as commendable as or better than district public schools. Nevertheless, the bottom levels of charters were of much lower quality than the lowest levels of district public schools in nearly all regions of Texas.

Booker et al. (2004) also analyzed student test score gains in Texas, however, with a larger data set of six groups that spanned from 1995-2002 and covered 10,000 charter students and 1.4 million students overall in both charter and district public settings. In addition to controls for charter school age and student mobility, Booker et al. (2004) also included school-level demographics to explain school-wide peer effects. Comparable to Hanushek et al. (2002), Booker et al. (2004) found that new charter schools yield lower performance gains in both math and reading than the average district public school and the approximate output of charters improves over time. Nonetheless, while Hanushek et al. (2002) found that charters in operation three or more years are on

equal footing with the average district public school, Booker et al. (2004) approximated that Texas charters in operation six years or more eclipse the achievement of district public schools.

Bifulco and Ladd (2004) analyzed achievement data for students in North Carolina over the period of 1996-2002. Bifulco and Ladd's (2004) dataset tracked 5 cohorts of students from grade 3 through grade 8. Their sample included 496,000 students in total, 8,700 of which were enrolled in a charter school at least one year. Of the 8,700 students who were enrolled in a charter school approximately 5,700 were examined in both district and charter schools. Bifulco and Ladd (2004) adopted the same methodology as Hanushek et al. (2002) but discovered some contradictory conclusions. Similar to that of Hanushek et al.'s (2002) study, Bifulco and Ladd (2004) discovered that students enrolled at newly established charter schools had lower test score outcomes in both reading and math than students in the average district public school. Comparatively, they explained that negative charter effects tend to decrease as charter schools cultivated their existence. However, unlike Hanushek, et al. (2002) results for Texas charter schools, Bifulco and Ladd (2004) discovered that in North Carolina the adverse impact of charter schools on student achievement gains is statistically significant and quantitatively substantial even for schools in operation for five years.

The studies performed by Hanushek et al. (2002), Booker et al. (2004), and Bifulco and Ladd (2004) are respected for their employment of fixed-effects modeling procedures to relatively large clusters of individual student data. However, the studies convergence on the average effects of charter schools on student performance provides scant explanations as to why charter schools perform better or worse than district public

schools and does nothing to speak to issues concerning social stratification of charter schools (Hanushek et al., 2002; Booker et al., 2004; Bifulco & Ladd, 2004). Hanushek et al. (2002) documented large quality variations among charter schools, however, Hanushek et al. (2002), Bifulco and Ladd (2004), or Booker et al. (2004) did not analyze any other attributes of charter schools, other than age of the school and student mobility. Social, cultural, and economic capital variables were neglected attributes within all three studies. These variables are widely known to effect student achievement (Coleman 1988; Perna & Titus, 2005; Putnam, 2000; Rothstein, 2004; Kirp, 2010).

True Evaluation Science Studies

A true evaluation framework is not focused on questions of knowledge as the primary concern of the study hence driven by a set of research questions that constitute a form of experimental research. True evaluation studies determine the value or worth of programs. Conversely, a quasi-evaluation study is guided by questions that may or may not determine the value or merit of a particular program or organization. An example of a true evaluation is an effectiveness evaluation of the Green Dot Locke Transition Project (2012). This true evaluation was important to a number of stakeholders— particularly those who invested money in the project. This type of true evaluation is also known as a consumer-oriented study. A consumer-oriented study is one of five true evaluations according to Stufflebeam (1981). The other four true evaluations are accreditation/certification, connoisseur, adversary approach, and client-centered since the primary goals of these types of studies are to judge the relative merits of goods and services. This true evaluation of the Green Dot project was based on generalized needs

and values, and the design of this study sought to explain a comprehensive range of effects because of the project's importance to investors (Stufflebeam, 1981).

Referring directly to the Green Dot Locke Transition Project, the Alain Leroy Locke High School was one of California's lowest performing secondary schools situated in the Los Angeles Unified School District (LAUSD). It began a transition into a set of smaller, Green Dot Charter High Schools in 2007 (Herman et al., 2012). According to Herman et al. (2012), Green Dot's goals for the transformation effort were clear: "to create high performing, urban schools where all young adults receive the education they need to be prepared for college, leadership, and life" (p.2). The logic model for the Green Dot Charter High School experiment was based on six primary social science research tenets for effective schools: "1) to create small, safe, personalized schools, 2) to provide high expectations for all students, 3) to possess local control with extensive professional development, and accountability, 4) parent participation, 5) maximize funding to the classroom, and 6) keep schools open later" (Herman et al., 2012, p.5). This proof of concept was tested by Herman et al. (2012) to determine the merit or value of the new charter-school model based upon the six tenets. This effort was accomplished with the help from a grant through the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation. The National Center for Research on Evaluation and Standards and Student Testing (CRESST) was charged with monitoring the progress and effects of the Green Dot Public Schools' Locke transformation (Herman et al., 2012).

The Green Dot Locke transition began with two small, off-site schools and was completed in fall, 2008, when Green Dot assumed full responsibility for the existing Locke campus, the full-student community, grades 9-12. Based on the two cohorts of

ninth-grade students who entered GDL in 2007 and 2008 respectively, CRESST used a range of student outcomes to monitor the progress of the GDL transformation. The evaluation study employed a strong quasi-experimental design with propensity score matching that focused on program impacts. Entering GDL students and comparison students from demographically similar neighborhood high schools were carefully matched on their 8th grade achievement and demographics. Analyses revealed consistent, positive effects for the GDL transformation. Results suggested that GDL students performed better than they would have had they attended a demographically comparable LAUSD high school on multiple indicators (Herman et al., 2012).

Statistically significant, positive effects generally were more prevalent for Cohort 2, who started as 9th graders in 2008-2009, than for Cohort 1, who started in 2007-2008 prior to GDL's complete transition. For example, compared to control students, Cohort 2 GDL students were more likely to "persist in school over time, take and pass key 9th, 10th, and 11th grade college preparatory courses, take and pass a total of eight or more key college preparatory courses, score higher on the California High School Exit Examination (CAHSEE) on their first attempt, pass the English Language section of the CAHSEE on their first attempt; and pass both the English Language and mathematics sections of the CAHSEE by the end of 11th grade" (Herman et al., 2012, p. 3).

Green Dot Locke students' performance on California Standards Tests (CST) was also promising: "virtually every descriptive comparison favored GDL students" (Herman, 2012, p.8). Statistically significant differences were found for the GDL Cohort 2 students in mathematics. GDL results are particularly impressive in light of GDL's Cohort 2 increased persistence rates. The Herman et al. (2012) study suggest that the higher

persistence rates may suggest that GDL is retaining more lower performing students who otherwise might have dropped out, yet still are maintaining an advantage in CST scores. Although GDL Cohort 2 showed more statistically significant, positive effects than did Cohort 1, Cohort 1 graduation and college readiness rates, as judged continue to be high. For students who remained at their schools for four years, the GDL graduation rate was 24 percentage points higher than that for the comparison group. Further, the college readiness rate was 34 percentage points higher for GDL graduates than for comparison group graduates (Herman et al., 2012).

Green Dot Public School's transformation of Alain Leroy Locke High School has been an important research project for many reasons. First, previous charter school evaluations have rarely found such consistent, positive effects on a range of student outcomes using quasi-experimental methods focused on program impact (Herman et al., 2012). Secondly, GDL accomplished positive effects on student achievement while maintaining a student population similar to its original population prior to transformation and to the control schools used in the study. This study addresses some of the issues pertaining to social stratification by maintaining the original population. Lastly, given the pattern of increasingly positive results for Cohort 2 students, deeper results may well materialize for successive cohorts and as Cohort 2 students' progress through high school and graduation (Herman et al., 2012).

Another example of a recently conducted true evaluation that had positive effects included a five year study of the effectiveness of Milwaukee's independent charter schools in developing student achievement growth. The evaluation estimated four-year performance gains for independent charter school students who were in grades 3-8 during

the 2006-07 school year using reading and math performance data from the Wisconsin Knowledge and Concepts Examination (WKCE, 2010). Particularly, the report presented the results of an investigation comparing performance gains of independent charter students to the performance gains of a carefully matched sample of students attending Milwaukee Public Schools. This evaluation aligned more closely with an impact evaluation than a pure effectiveness evaluation (Witte, Wolf, Carlson, & Dean, 2012).

The report by Witte et al. (2012) drew upon a panel of 2,295 students attending 10 of Milwaukee's 14 independent charter schools who were in grades 3-8 in 2006-07 with test scores for that year. The four charter schools excluded from the sample either were not open for both the baseline and outcome years or did not enroll students in tested grades. The 2,295 tested Milwaukee independent charter school students were carefully matched to an identically sized sample of students attending MPS to provide a comparison group against which the achievement gains of independent charter students could be assessed. Students were matched on prior achievement and propensity scores, which helped to control for differences between students on observable characteristics (Witte et al., 2012). In the third year of advancement, an ample independent charter school advantage was apparent in all of Witte et al. (2012) analyses. Conversely, that tendency was not continued in the fifth year where calculations of four-year achievement growth are positive for charter schools, but the basic models did not produce statistically significant differences between students attending all independent charters and the MPS sample of students (Witte et al., 2012).

Interestingly, students in conversion charters schools, which were once private schools, consistently exceeded similar MPS students in the matched sample in every year.

Social capital measures were not included in this evaluation, but other research on catholic schools and social capital point to higher student achievement (Putnam, 2001). In one model, the comprehensive growth in math after five years was positive but not quite statistically significant. One of Witte et al. (2012) supplementary analyses determined that students who remained in charter schools over five years made significant performance accumulations in both reading and math in contrast to their corresponding non-choosers in MPS. "This finding held for charter schools on average, as well as for conversion and non-conversion charter schools. The results were between three- and four-tenths of a standard deviation and significant at the 99% confidence level" (Witte et al., 2012, p. 37).

Quasi Evaluation Science Studies

The consideration of quasi-evaluation approaches according to Stufflebeam (1981) is the legitimacy of focus on questions of knowledge without devoting any effort to questions of value. Such studies are, by definition, sometimes not evaluations (Stufflebeam, 1981). These concepts can produce characterizations without producing assessments, although specific studies can produce both. The objectivist ideal is the "gold standard" in research which is known as experimental design research. Experimental design research is the best approach for determining causal relationships between variables. The potential problem with using this approach as an evaluation model is that it is a highly controlled and formalized methodology that may not be sufficiently responsive to the actively changing needs of most human service programs (Mosteller, Boruch, & Boruch, 2002).

According to Stufflebeam (1981), other forms of quasi-evaluations include management information systems which can give detailed information about the changing operations of complex programs. However, this information can be restricted to readily quantifiable data usually available at regular intervals. Testing programs are familiar to the educational setting, the military and large companies (Stufflebeam, 1981). These programs are resourced and skilled at analyzing individuals or groups to chosen norms in a number of subject areas or to a set of standards of achievement. However, they only focus on testing achievement and they might not sufficiently sample what is taught or expected (Stufflebeam, 1981).

Stufflebeam (1981) also describe objectives-based approaches which relate outcomes to pre-specified objectives, allowing judgments to be made about their level of attainment. However, the objectives can often prove to be important or they can focus on outcomes too restricted to provide the basis for concluding the value of an object. Content analysis is a quasi-evaluation model because content analysis determinations need not be based on value affirmations. Instead, they can be based on knowledge (Stufflebeam, 1981). Such content analyses are not evaluations. In addition, when content-analysis determinations are based on values, such studies are evaluations (Schalock, 2002).

A prominent national quasi-evaluation science study focused on the impact of charter schools for students from low-socio-economic backgrounds. This impact evaluation study conducted by Mathematica and leading researchers Clark, Gleason, Tuttle, and Silverberg (2011) questioned whether charter schools, nationally, improved student achievement. This study employed an experimental research design, “the gold

standard", which relied on the random assignment of students through the lotteries held by oversubscribed charter schools—schools that had a larger number of applicants than they had spaces available. The lottery winners formed the treatment group for the evaluation while the lottery losers formed the control group (Clark et al., 2011).

The randomized lotteries from the Clark et al. (2011) study ensured that the only systematic difference between the treatment and control groups was whether the students were admitted to a study charter school—on average it was hypothesized that there would be no differences in the characteristics, motivation, or expectations of the students or their parents. Therefore, comparing the outcomes of the two groups in theory would yield unbiased estimates of the causal effects of being offered admission to the charter schools in the study. Conclusions of the national study suggested that charter schools serving more low income or low achieving students had statistically compelling positive effects on math test scores, while charter schools serving more benefited students—those with higher income and prior achievement—had significant negative effects on math test scores. Impacts generally did not vary across subgroups defined by students' race or gender (Clark et al., 2011). The low-income or low achieving students in this study may have had higher levels of social capital *to begin with* thus effecting their achievement. This claim can be based on other studies that suggest access to information about charter schools in general may indicate they have stronger social capital networks, irrespective of being a minority or being poor (Fuller & Elmore, 1996; Teske & Schneider, 2001; Howell, 2004, Wells, 1996).

An additional recent national quasi-evaluation science study conducted by Mathematica Policy Research and Center on Reinventing Public Education (Furgeson, et

al., 2011) focused on 22 Charter Management Organizations (CMOs) that operated at least one middle school and for which sufficient state and district data were obtained to analyze school impacts on student achievement as of fall 2007. The authors primarily used quasi-experimental methods; however, they also employed a randomized experimental design for a subset of schools for which lottery data were available in order to validate the quasi-experimental design. The results from the two approaches (quasi-experimental and experimental) were remarkably similar, thereby reinforcing the study's findings. Each found that CMO students made gains relative to the control students, but none were statistically significant (Furgeson et al., 2011). The Furgeson et al. (2011) study also revealed wide variation in student impact across CMOs, with some CMOs producing large and significant achievement gains relative to district schools, and others having a negative impact on student achievement. Additionally, when compared to public schools in their local contexts, charter schools have been found to be less racially diverse than their neighboring public counterparts (Furgeson et al., 2011).

Despite the size and significance of the charter school movement, undertaking quantitative analysis of the impact of charter schools on student performance has been narrow. Much of the extant research lacks acceptable controls for student attributes, which creates potential selection-bias problems due to the nonrandom appointment of students between charters and district public schools. Additionally, there is a small amount of recent research explaining the impact of student characteristics on performance in charter schools when undertaking longitudinal data analysis and approximating student-level fixed effects in various statistical models (Furgeson et al., 2011).

Student characteristics such as age, social capital levels, creativity, and intelligence are all difficult variables that can change over time. Non-experimental studies, especially longitudinal studies can be vulnerable to the exclusion of crucial variables. Additionally, many of the student characteristics that impact student achievement are notoriously difficult to measure in student-level fixed effects for various statistical models (Creswell, 2002; Ferguson et. al, 2011).

Pseudo-Evaluation Science Studies

Pseudo-evaluations are politically-controlled studies and public relations inspired studies (Stufflebeam, 1981). This type of study is considered unsuitable science. Pseudo-evaluations, according to Stufflebeam (1981), have a political orientation and are studies that promote a positive or negative view of an object irrespective of its worth. Stufflebeam (1981) suggest that the advanced organizers for pseudo evaluations are "implicit or explicit threats faced by the client for an evaluation or if it is a public relations evaluation then it is for propagandist information needs" (p. 5). Typically the purpose in conducting a politically-controlled study is to secure assistance in acquiring, maintaining, or increasing the client's sphere of influence, power, or money or to create a positive public image for an object (Stufflebeam, 1981). The questions addressed in politically controlled or public relation studies are those of interest to the client and specific groups that share the client's interest. The main questions of interest to the client according to Stufflebeam (1981) are "What information would be advantageous in a potential conflict situation and what data might be used advantageously in a confrontation?" (p.5).

The public-relations type of study, according to Stufflebeam (1981), is similar to cases of politically-oriented or pseudo-evaluations. In the public-relations study, the advance organizers are the propagandist's informational needs. The purpose of the study is to help the client or propagandist create a positive public image for a school district, program, or process (Stufflebeam, 1981). The questions that guide such a study are derived from the public relations specialists' and administrators' conceptions of which questions would be most popular with their constituents (Stufflebeam, 1981).

The Edison Project (1992) delivered a series of evaluations for its schools that could be considered a public relations evaluation. Authorized in 1992 as the Edison Project, the association did not open its first schools until the 1995-96 school years. According to Miron and Applegate (2000), Edison soon became the most comprehensive private educational management organization operating public schools in the U.S. Generally, half the schools Edison directed were charter schools, while the remaining schools were run under absolute contract, or allied, with local school districts, for profit. According to Miron and Applegate (2000), Edison reported that it was operating 113 schools in 21 states and the District of Columbia, with an integrated enrollment of roughly 57,000 students. Edison considered itself to be the first "national system of public schools" (p.34). The enterprise continued to expand and included contracts in Dallas, Texas, and Inkster, Michigan. All of Edison's initial contracts from 1995 were continued except for one with Sherman Independent School District in Texas where Edison had operated two schools (Miron & Applegate, 2000).

Edison itself has prepared three annual reports on student performance at its schools (Edison, 1997, 1999, 2000) and has presented conventional information

regarding the achievements made at its schools at conferences, workshops, and in the media. The statements contained in Edison's annual reports and the messages they spread in conference presentations and in the media have indicated that the company has been quite successful, and that students enrolled in its schools were making large and substantial achievement gains. This is an example of a public relations pseudo-evaluation study. Miron and Applegate (2000) with the help of The Evaluation Center of Western Michigan University completed a thorough true effectiveness evaluation of Edison Schools utilizing test data and found contrary results at nearly every site in stark contradiction to that of the self-evaluation produced by Edison Schools (Miron & Applegate, 2000).

The Knowledge Is Power Program Evaluations

The Knowledge Is Power Program (KIPP) has been an extensive effort to create a network of charter schools designed to transform and improve the educational opportunities available to low-income families. KIPP schools work exceptionally hard to actively engage students and parents in the educational process. KIPP also expands the time and effort students devote to their studies, reinforce students' social competencies and positive behaviors, and dramatically improves their academic achievement (Tuttle, Nichols-Barrer, Gill, & Gleason, 2010). Ultimately, the goal of KIPP is to prepare students to enroll and succeed in college. The KIPP Foundation directs this effort by selecting and training school leaders, promoting the program model, and supporting the KIPP network schools. KIPP's "Five Pillars" distinguish its approach and define its logic model: "1) high expectations for all students to reach high academic achievement regardless of students' backgrounds 2) choice and commitment on the part of students,

parents, and faculty to a public, college preparatory education as well as the time and effort required to reach success 3) more time on learning, both in academics and extra-curricular activities, each day, week, and year 4) power to lead for school principals, who are accountable for their school's budget and personnel 5) focus on results, by regularly assessing student learning and sharing results to drive continuous improvement and accountability" (Tuttle et al., 2010, p.81).

KIPP has grown from a core of two middle schools authorized in the mid-1990s to a nationwide system of connections to 82 schools in 19 states and the District of Columbia. In the midst of this growth, the KIPP Foundation, its funders, and other stakeholders were eager to carefully appraise the effectiveness of the program and identify which school practices may be positively related to student outcomes. This consumer oriented true evaluation focused on program effectiveness was sponsored by the KIPP Foundation which promoted the National Evaluation of KIPP Middle Schools, administered by Mathematica Policy Research, to examine the impacts of KIPP's logic model on the performance and attainment of its students (Tuttle et al., 2010).

The Mathematica, Tuttle et al. (2010) report presented preliminary findings from a matched, longitudinal analysis designed to estimate KIPP's effect on student achievement. The preliminary work estimated effects in 22 KIPP middle schools—making Tuttle et al. (2010) the first report that applied a rigorous (non-experimental) methodological approach across a nationwide sample of KIPP schools. Tuttle et al. (2010) selected schools for which they were able to collect longitudinal, student-level data, and data that were established by the 2005-06 academic calendar years or earlier to ensure that a minimum of two entering cohorts of students per school would be observed

for multiple years. Tuttle et al. (2010) found that students entering these 22 KIPP schools typically had prior performance levels that were lower than average achievement in their local school districts. For the vast majority of KIPP schools studied, program impacts on students' state evaluation scores in mathematics and reading were positive, statistically significant, and educationally substantial (appearing to have meaningful effect sizes). Estimated impacts were frequently large enough to substantially reduce race- and income-based performance gaps within three years of entering KIPP (Tuttle et al., 2010).

Pre-College Academic Preparation Programs

Evaluation science literature pertaining to college preparation and social capital development necessitates a focus on precollege academic preparation programs. Typically, developers and practitioners of academic preparation programs with college matriculation in view agree that these programs exist to supplement and enhance K-12 schools' existing efforts to prepare and guide students toward college (Tierney, 2004). Many district public, charter public, and private schools across the country lack the resources to provide detailed, accurate guidance to all students regarding the academic choices available to them after high school. In an attempt to fill this lack of guidance, state, federal, and privately funded academic preparation programs have been established to assist students in navigating the complex process of college admissions. These programs help students (and their parents) develop the values, aspirations, skills, knowledge, confidence, and expected behaviors needed to go to college (Lee & Sawtell, 2008; Gandara & Bial, 2001; Oesterreich, 2000; Perna, 2000).

Programs have been implemented and evaluated on national, state, and local levels. The federally funded TRIO programs (Upward Bound, Talent Search, and Student

Support Services) were established in the 1960s as an effort of the federal government to assist in providing access to college in order to curtail the nation's war on poverty (Perna, 2000). Programs may also be implemented within or outside of the school structure. All of the programs previously listed are examples of programs that provide services outside the school day setting (afterschool tutoring, test preparation courses, college field trips). One program that has had considerable success at becoming institutionalized within school structures is AVID (Advancement Via Individual Determination). This program is actually implemented as a junior-high and high-school course, where students learn college-going skills while receiving grades and course credits (Mack, 2010).

There is a significant lack of research and corresponding evidence supporting the "success" of academic preparation programs. One key reason is that there is not a common definition of what a "successful" academic preparation program is (Quigley, 2002). Some define success as the completion of the academic requirements needed to attend a four-year university (Quigley, 2002). Others define success as the number of students in the program that go to college and/or graduate from college (Swail, 2001). Others define success as the ability to impart the social capital needed for students to have the academic preparation and social navigational skills necessary for the choice to go to college (Bookman, 2005). Since social science researchers are unable to state convincingly that academic preparation programs are successful, few have become models for best practice or integrated into the existing structure of a school (Hagedorn, 2002; Gullatt & Yan, 2003).

Another reason for the lack of documented success of academic preparation programs is the difficulty in collecting and analyzing the data, both on a quantitative and

qualitative level. Though the funding for academic preparation programs is plentiful (50 percent of all programs receive federal funding, 25 percent receive state funding, and 25 percent receive private funding), funding itself is not contingent on any evaluation or control measures (Swail, 2004). Cost benefit and cost effectiveness analyses are rarely performed on educational programs (Swail, 2004). The main reason for this lack of evaluation is the difficulty of assigning monetary (or any other tangible) values to qualitative (or intangible) goals, specifically developing social capital or imparting knowledge about college and related access tools. With changing budget climates throughout the country, accountability is becoming increasingly significant and academic preparation program administrators are being asked for more quantitative and qualitative data to document the *effectiveness* of services that they are providing to students and parents. Although cost-effectiveness evaluations typically fall under tightly defined policy analysis/evaluation studies examining benefit-cost analyses, these types of studies are most wanting within the schooling sector (Fowler, 2009).

Upward Bound

Of the limited research and academic literature available, most evaluation science studies have focused on the federally supported TRIO programs. One of the most significant studies was conducted on the Upward Bound program by Myers, Olsen, Setfor, Young, and Tuttle (2004). The study found that Upward Bound had no ramification on overall enrollment or total credits earned at postsecondary institutions, but it may have increased enrollment in four-year university institutions (Myers et al. 2004). Myers et al. (2004) did find an ample effect on enrollment at four-year colleges for students who had lower educational expectations, and it had a substantial effect on

credits earned at four-year colleges by students who had lower educational expectations. Finally, Myers et al. (2004) found that staying in Upward Bound for longer periods was associated with better student outcomes. This quasi-evaluation impact study was designed and conducted to assist the federal government to answer specific questions related to the Upward Bound Program. The study employed quasi-experimental and experimental research designs (Myers et al., 2004).

Though the findings of the report were not expansive, they preliminarily show the effectiveness of academic preparation programs. The findings demonstrated that Upward Bound can have large impacts for some groups of students (Myers et al., 2004). Most notably, the program appears more helpful to students with lower initial educational expectations, students with poorer academic performance as high school freshmen, and those who remain in the program for at least two years (Myers et al., 2004).

These precollege academic programs have often been used as a means to increase minority enrollment rates at higher education institutions (Shernoff, 2010). The federal TRIO programs mentioned earlier have been active since the 1960's, and the 1998 establishment of the GEAR-UP program (Gaining Early Awareness and Readiness through Undergraduate Preparation) exemplifies these initiatives (Shernoff, 2010). Perna and Titus (2005) stated, "These programs are designed to promote educational attainment among disadvantaged groups of students by developing the skills, knowledge, confidence, aspirations, and preparation that are needed to enroll in and graduate from college" (p. 486). More than two- thirds (70 percent) of precollege programs that target underrepresented minority groups have a parental involvement component. Moreover,

parent participation is required for one third of all college preparatory programs according to a 1999 College Board survey (Perna, 2002).

After school college-preparatory program studies. Social competence and academic performance has been studied in after-school programs assisting students with college preparation (Shernoff & Hoogstra, 2010). Indicators of social competence were goal setting and planning, conflict resolution, nonconformity, teamwork, and perspective taking (Shernoff & Hoogstra, 2010). Academic performance indicators were end-of-course grades (Shernoff & Hoogstra, 2010). Shernoff and Hoogstra (2010) suggested that in predicting student outcomes, program quality may be a more influential factor than the amount of experience in the program. Shernoff and Hoogstra's (2010) true evaluation of after-school programs attempted to determine the merit or worth of these programs by predicting student outcomes.

Various other research projects have rendered positive associations among after-school activities and social and academic outcomes (Bohnert et al., 2007; Dubas & Snider, 1993; McHale et al., 2001). Students were found to have enhanced personal confidence and social skills based on extensive participation in out-of-school environments (Bohnert et al., 2007; Dubas & Snider, 1993; McHale, Crouter, & Tucker, 2001). Students in after-school programs have reported learning the principles of teamwork and cooperation during extracurricular and community-based activities (Hansen, Larson, & Dworkin, 2003; Jarrett, 1998). Darling (2005) discovered that many students benefited from increased empathy and understanding essential to perspective taking as a result of their participation in after-school programs.

Darling's (2005) quasi-evaluation focused on the effectiveness of eight programs in three Midwestern states serving middle school students documented a total of 4,970 randomly sampled experiences in and out of after-school programs during one week in the fall and spring of the 2001–2002 academic year. Darling (2005) linked school-based extracurricular activities and after-school programs to better psychosocial adjustment and social skills for participants versus nonparticipants. Enhanced peer/adult relationships and improved social competence were the by-products of student participation in organized after-school programs. Darling's (2005) evaluation of after school programs also found that youth who participated in these after-school programs earned higher achievement test scores and grades than nonparticipants.

Conclusion

Many of the nationwide studies of charter schools provided quantitative data measuring student achievement on various test scores. These findings are mixed but tend to indicate that charter schools are not any more effective than district public schools (Abdulkadiroglu et al., 2009; Therriault, Gandhi, Casasanto, & Carney, 2010; Cobb & Suarez, 2000; Booker et al., 2009), the exception being Green Dot charter-school's transformation of Leroy Alain High School (Herman et al., 2012). The report of Green Dot Public School's transformation of Alain Leroy Locke High School found consistent, positive effects on a range of student outcomes using quantitatively rigorous methods and reported positive effects on student achievement while maintaining a student population similar to its original population prior to transformation and to the control schools used in the study (Herman et al., 2012). Additionally, this study addressed issues and concerns pertaining to social stratification by maintaining the original population.

Very little evaluation science literature is available pertaining to social capital development of students in charter schools. KIPP school evaluations address some issues of social capital and social stratification. Some studies indicate the glaring absence of considering and measuring social capital and its possible influence on charter school outcomes. Pre-Collegiate programs and after-school program evaluations provided more details about the development of social capital. The federal TRIO programs and the establishment of the GEAR-UP program (Gaining Early Awareness and Readiness through Undergraduate Preparation) exemplified these initiatives (Shernoff, 2010). As mentioned earlier these programs were designed "to promote educational attainment among disadvantaged groups of students by developing the skills, knowledge, confidence, aspirations, and preparation that are needed to enroll in and graduate from college" (Perna & Titus, p. 486). This focus appears to entail a mix of both cultural and social capital concerns.

The main reason for this lack of evaluation is the difficulty of assigning monetary (or any other tangible) values to qualitative (or intangible) goals, specifically providing opportunities for social capital development or college knowledge. With changing budget climates throughout the country, accountability is becoming increasingly significant and academic preparation program administrators are being asked for more quantitative and qualitative data to document the effectiveness of services that they are providing to students and parents.

CHAPTER THREE

This chapter begins with an introduction advocating social capital as an important construct needed for understanding "school reform" in a more complete way. A literature review of social capital theory is provided. There is a section about previous research that prompted the utilization of the Pre-College Social Capital Survey (PCSCS) in this study, (see Appendix A). A brief overview of each social capital variable measured on the PCSCS is discussed along with its connections to the goals of the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school under evaluation in this study. Additionally, there is a section about charter school access and equity and minority participation in charter schools. Finally, this chapter concludes with a discussion about charter schools and special education.

Social capital theory attempts to explain the rationale for actions of individuals in society (Bourdieu, 1986). Rothstein (2004) concurs that the actions of individuals in society explain in part the achievement gap problems or more precisely identified as the opportunity gap problems in the United States. The lack of social, cultural, and economic capital investment is evident between black and white students and it is a social class and cultural problem that cannot be separated (Rothstein, 2004). Specifically addressing the construct of social capital provides an opportunity to discuss sociological factors that can explain in part the complex nuances in our society that promote or inhibit college aspirations and actualizations for all students.

Upon reviewing the sociological forms of capital, three very important researchers/theorists emerge and are referenced frequently throughout much of the literature pertaining to social capital theory. The three prominent theorists concerning the

sociological forms of capital focused on in this literature review are Bourdieu (1986), Coleman (1988), and Putman (2000). Pierre Bourdieu's (1986) research entitled, "*The Forms of Capital*," describes how three forms of capital (economic, cultural, and social) define social interactions and exchanges within the social world and lay the foundation for social reproduction. "*Social Capital in the Creation of Human Capital*" by James Coleman (1988) explains how obligations and expectations, information channels, and social norms are important for social exchange, stability, and promotion within the context of education. Robert Putnam (2000) contributes to social-capital theory by including themes of civic responsibility, trust, and engagement for individuals, groups, and nations. Each of these theorists describe the role of social capital in society, most importantly how social capital is an indispensable component of our collective social life (Bourdieu, 1986). Coleman (1988) discusses the boundaries of the social exchange, and Putnam (2000) discusses the adaptation of social capital theory from individuals to groups. These concepts apply to this evaluation science study particularly as it pertains to the charter school goal of college preparation for all students.

Social Capital and School Reform

Two influential books on the topic of social capital in schooling shed light on the importance of social capital development and school reform initiatives. Marion Orr's (1999) book entitled, "*Black Social Capital: The Politics of School Reform in Baltimore*" and Childress, Doyle, and Thomas' (2009) "*Leading for Equity: The Pursuit of Excellence in Montgomery County Public Schools*", focus on issues of race, social capital development, and system reform within massive local educational agencies. Jerry Weast, the transformational superintendent, is highlighted in Childress et al. (2009) for his

efforts to close the achievement gap between the impoverished and minority laden red-zone area and the affluent predominantly white green-zone area of the Montgomery County Public School District (Childress, et al., 2009). If educational reformers and politicians view this transformation of Montgomery County Public District through the efforts of Weast's six themes in the book with Orr's (1999) depiction of social capital in the African American community from 1986-1999, they will understand the painstaking effort it takes to turn a district around as large as Montgomery County Maryland. The aforementioned quick business-like results that neoliberalism calls for are problematic for public education. Social capital development and evaluation requires time, money, and community support.

Orr (1999) explains that the African American community in Montgomery County Maryland had strong and unique social capital ties unlike many urban areas in the U.S. A decade later Superintendent Jerry Weast was able to communicate a clear message of social reform in the Montgomery County Public School District. Dr. Weast and a coalition of supporters were able to turn this massive public school district around and provide more opportunities for all students in the district (Childress, et al., 2009).The methods utilized by Dr. Weast and his staff were in part successful because of the vast social networks and unity in the African American community (Orr, 1999). According to the vast literature about social, cultural, and economic capital development in school systems, social capital takes time to mature (Bourdieu, 1986; Coleman, 1988; Orr, 1999; Putnam, 2000; Childress et al., 2009). Student relationships with peers, parents, and professionals within the context of their neighborhoods, homes, and schools have all be operationalized and these social exchanges make a difference in the success and failures

of public school systems (Bourdieu, 1986; Coleman, 1988; Orr, 1999; Putnam, 2000; Childress et al., 2009).

Coleman (1988) describes these social exchanges as the bridging of social capital which is explained through social networks between individuals and/or groups who have inconsistent interactions. Conversely, bonding of social capital refers to relationships that are strongly established and require consistent interactions between individuals (Woolley et al., 2008). Coleman (1988) described strong social ties as relationships with family and friends where individuals have regular contact. These relationships, according to Coleman (1998), are based on information sharing and formal exchanges that facilitate a specific purpose. Jerry Weast was able to unite diverse coalitions through the bridging of social capital to bring about systematic change (Childress et al., 2009).

Additionally, there have been quite a few definitions and distinctions that have been established over the years when conceptualizing social capital. In their original formulation of social capital the description of homophily emerged, as Lazarsfeld and Merton (1954) distinguished between status homophily and value homophily. According to Lazarsfeld and Merton (1954), the definition of status homophily means that individuals with similar social status attributes are more likely to associate with each other. In comparison, value homophily refers to inclinations to affiliate with others who think in similar ways, regardless of differences in status. Perna and Titus (2005) describe homophilous relationships as individuals establishing relationships with individuals with similar socioeconomic backgrounds and perspectives. Further, there is the heterophilous principle, which Perna and Titus (2005) describe as individuals seeking relationships with individuals with higher social status in order to access additional resources.

The purpose of focusing on social capital theory and its many definitions is that the inner-city college-preparatory public charter high school in this evaluation science study clearly identifies explicit yearly goals that pertain to this construct. Additionally, the social capital goals in this evaluation science study offer opportunities for secondary students to be exposed to networks of professionals and resources about postsecondary education. This exposure provides opportunities for students to establish the necessary formal and informal relationships with professionals and peers who have access to college-entry processes and personnel who can support successful matriculation to higher education institutions. College preparatory charter high schools can often foster weak social-ties in conjunction with academic enrichment in an effort to minimize the opportunity gap-problems between Whites and minorities (Coleman 1988; Perna & Titus, 2005).

Theoretical Literature Review

Social capital refers to trust, concern for others, and a willingness to live by the norms of one's community (Bowles & Gintis, 2002). Social capital is also the anticipated economic benefits derived from the favored treatment and cooperation between individuals and groups. Social networks have value and social contacts affect the productivity of individuals and groups (Putnam, 2000). The term social capital has been in use as early 1890 by John Dewey. The term social capital became popularized in the 1980's and especially the 1990's with the work of sociologists such as Coleman (1988) and Putnam (2000).

The conceptual basis of social capital theory has a long history. Philosophers and theorists exploring the relation between associational life and democracy were using

similar concepts regularly during the 19th century. Writers such as James Madison in *The Federalist Papers* and Alexis de Tocqueville in *Democracy in America*, both, incorporated concepts of social cohesion and connectedness into American political science. John Dewey may have made the first direct mainstream use of "social capital" in *The School and Society in 1899*, although no explicit definition was delivered (Bowles & Gintis, 2002).

The attempts to define social capital have focused on the degree to which social capital as a resource should be used for public good or for the benefit of individuals (Putnam, 2000). Putnam's (2000) positive view suggests that social capital can enable co-operation and mutually supportive relations in communities and nations. Social capital is valuable for alleviating social disorders such as crime. In contrast, those focusing on the individual benefit from the connections of social relationships and ties attribute social capital to increased personal access to information, skill sets, and enhanced power (Coleman, 1988).

According to Bourdieu (1986), capital is accumulated labor that may take the form of material or may be embodied in an individual and has the potential to produce profits for an individual or group. Bourdieu (1986) also noted the following characteristics of capital: significant time investment to accumulate; identical reproduction capacity in its original or expanded form; persistence in existence; and presence of "a force inscribed in the objectivity of things so that everything is not equally possible or impossible" (p. 241). Bourdieu (1986) explained that the infrastructure for capital exchange mirrors the structure of the social world. The boundaries for exchange, in each realm, function in a durable way, therefore, determining the probability for

success in each exchange (Bourdieu, 1986). Bourdieu (1986) also theorized that it is impossible to effectively analyze the structures and functions of the social world without accounting for capital in all its forms. Capital has three forms: economic, cultural, and social. Economic capital is directly convertible to money and/or property. Cultural capital is convertible to economic capital under certain conditions and is represented by educational qualifications. Social capital is also convertible to economic capital under certain conditions, is represented by social obligations within networks, and is recognized in society under titles of nobility.

The premise of social capital is that people within society have access to resources and goods that are at their immediate disposal or accessible through relationships with others in society (Bourdieu, 1986). Social capital is defined by its function and access within many social structures (Bourdieu, 1986; Coleman, 1988). As a form of capital, social capital is productive in facilitating an intended purpose or goal. Social capital is different from other forms of capital, such as human and physical capital, since it is less tangible and difficult to quantify (Bourdieu, 1986; Coleman, 1988; Putnam, 2000). Physical capital is defined by tools, machines, and other creations that facilitate productivity in society (Becker, 1964). Human capital is described by the skills and training attained by a person who also facilitates productivity within a social context (Coleman, 1988). Both physical and human capitals are common in that both represent changes in raw materials (people) in producing a public good (Bourdieu, 1986; Coleman, 1988). Social capital also shares the "productive activity" attributes of human and physical capital.

Bourdieu (1986) defines social capital in the following manner: "… the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition—or in other words, to membership in a group—which provides each of its members with the backing of the collectively owned capital, a "credential" which entitles them to credit, in the various senses of the word" (p. 249). This explanation of collectively owned capital is highlighted by Rothstein (2004) as he describes the expectations of credentials in the black community. Rothstein (2004) suggests that black students' expectations are that their academic efforts will not be rewarded to the same extent as the efforts of their white peers. This rationale explains why many black students may not expect to complete college. Rothstein explains "as long as racial discrimination persists in the labor market, the average academic achievement of black students will be lower than the average achievement of white students" (Rothstein, 2004, p. 35).

Quantifying social capital possessed by an individual may be difficult, but observing two parameters assists with making it more tangible: 1) examining the size of the network of connections a person can effectively utilize and 2) examining the volume of capital (economic, cultural, or symbolic resources possessed by the individual) that is of value to those within an individual's network (Bourdieu, 1986). Vast social networks are the products of formal and informal investment strategies that are created with the purpose of establishing and reproducing relationships that are beneficial within the short- or long-term. According to Bourdieu (1986), these relationships are determinant upon evident obligations that promote subjective feelings such as gratitude, respect, camaraderie or established rights within a society. Adherence to this social structure and

the exchange of different gifts (information, services, or capital) is a by-product of social reproduction taught by families in early childhood and reinforced within the school setting (Rothstein, 2004).

A continuous series of exchanges that are characterized by constant recognition sets the foundation for the reproduction of social capital (Putnam, 2000). The effort involved in this reproduction necessitates time and energy that are often intertwined with specific knowledge and skill that will not render immediate economic returns, but theorized to do so in the long-term (Bourdieu, 1986). Based on this reinforcement of social reproduction overtime, Rothstein (2004) also argues that even if discrimination were to end suddenly, community expectations that education will be unrewarded would remain within black communities. One-hundred and fifty years of social reproduction does not disappear over-night. The result of the reproduction of social capital for many black families is one where anticipation of mistreatment remains prevalent (Rothstein, 2004).

Coleman (1988) examined three forms of social capital: obligations and expectations, information channels, and social norms. This relationship is supported by two separate factors: 1) trustworthiness of the social environment facilitating repayment and 2) the extent of obligations held (Coleman, 1988). Without a high level of trustworthiness among the members of the group supporting reciprocity, individuals in social structures with numerous outstanding obligations have more social capital that they can depend on when needed (Putnam, 2000). “A society characterized by generalized reciprocity is more efficient than a distrustful society, for the same reason that money is more efficient than barter” (Putnam, 2000, p. 21). If we don’t have to balance every

exchange immediately, then we can get a lot more achieved. Trust "lubricates" social life. Frequent interactions and involvement among a diverse set of people tends to produce a norm of generalized reciprocity (Putnam, 2000; Rothstein, 2004; Kirp, 2010). Civic engagement and social capital require mutual obligation and responsibility for actions (Putnam, 2000; Rothstein, 2004; Kirp, 2010). Social networks and norms of reciprocity can develop cooperation for mutual benefit (Putnam, 2000).

Social Capital Variables in the Pre-College Social Survey

The Pre-College Social Survey (PCSCS) (see Appendix A) was created and used by Victor Mack (2012) in a study that examined the impact of a STEM college preparatory program on social capital and student achievement. The PCSCS was found to be a reliable and valid instrument (Mack, 2012). The social capital variables measured on the PCSCS include: association membership, parental involvement, peer relationships, teacher involvement, school counselor involvement, mentoring, media use, school environment, and residential stability. These nine social capital variables are discussed in detail throughout this section along with their relationship to the many of the explicit annual goals of the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school under evaluation in this study.

Association Membership

Association membership, an explicit yearly goal for the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school has been operationalized as a social capital variable (Portes, 2000). Association membership, which is measured as the level of participation in youth groups, clubs, organizations, sports, and other extra-curricular activities, also serves as an indicator of individual and collective social capital (Portes,

2000). According to Portes (2000), participation in these activities reflects an individual's desire to "1) acquire and/or strengthen relations with peers and professionals with similar interests, 2) develop and enhance particular knowledge and skill related to the activity, 3) acquiesce to social norms, and 4) to comply with social obligations and expectations" (p. 47).

Participation in nonpolitical organizations may also be considered as an indicator of collective social capital (Putnam, 1996). Extra-curricular activities, previously detailed, can be viewed as a social structure and serve as channels that promote the growth and development of social capital for adolescents (Mack, 2012). Parcel and Dufur (2001) identified participation and involvement in after-school activities as an indicator of social capital. Sun (1998, 1999) discovered that participation in school and community organizations impacted social capital positively. Additionally, relationships and activities outside the family, including involvement in a range of organizations, are positively linked to educational aspirations and actualizations (Pribesh & Downey, 1999). Rothstein (2004) expounds that extra-curricular activities are also affiliated with greater political knowledge and confidence in the ability to influence public life. Adults are more likely to participate in civic, service, and professional groups if they belonged to service clubs in high school (Rothstein, 2004). Adults who participate in voluntary organizations are more likely to vote (Rothstein, 2004).

Parental Involvement

Parental involvement is conceptualized as a social capital variable and is an important component to schooling success. This variable is operationalized in a couple of different ways in this evaluation science study. When discussing the importance of

focusing on the broader communal goals of education school leaders must consider the importance of parental involvement. Individual social capital focuses on individuals or small groups as the participants for analysis and stresses the benefits involved for individuals or families associated with their ties with others (Bourdieu, 1986; Coleman, 1988). Typically, individual social capital is defined as a combination of the following: family structure (where the traditional nuclear family is prioritized and the number of siblings is considered); parental involvement (parent interactions within the context of education and community); and parental networks (parent association with their children's friends' parents) (Israel, Beaulieu, & Hartless, 2001; Morgan & Sorensen, 1999; Portes, 2000; Smith-Maddox, 1999). Coleman (1988) explained the role of social capital in the family and demonstrated the impact of human and financial capital on family structure and on the growth and development of children. Parents' educational levels and provisions for cognitive learning environments that support learning are indicators for human capital (Coleman, 1988). Coleman (1988) stressed the importance of human and physical capital in the growth and development of children.

Positive student outcomes have been based on the relationship(s) children have with their parents and other members of their family. Coleman (1988) hypothesized that the social capital of the family reflects the relations between parents and children. The human capital possessed by the parent is irrelevant to the child's educational achievement and development if it is not incorporated into family relations (Coleman, 1988). Social capital in the family is dependent on the child's access to human capital in the family, which is developed by parental physical presence in the home and attention given to the child by the parents. For example, Kirp (2011) explains the importance of babies forming

secure ties with loving adults "it provides a sense of basic trust and foundation for the infant to explore the world and form attachments with others" (p. 45).

Additionally, Coleman (1988) studied several factors influencing dropout rates for tenth and twelfth grade students after controlling for human and financial capital in each family. The following variables were included: parent presence in the home (one or two parents); additional children (number of siblings); ratio of parents to children (two parents, one sibling versus one parent, four siblings); and mother's expectation for child's education (college expectations). Dropout percentages were lower for two-parent households, one sibling versus four siblings, and mothers with college expectations for their children. The number of siblings is a critical factor because it has an impact on the amount of parental attention each child receives: "Children tend to do better if they have a parent-mother or father-home at least part-time the first year of life" (Kirp, 2011, p. 46).

Coleman (1988) goes on to explain two types of relationships that build social capital through parental involvement: the parent-child relationship; and the parental relationships with other adults, specifically, adults affiliated with the school that the child attends (Dika & Singh, 2002). Coleman's (1988) thesis maintained that parents have a primary role in building social capital. Bourdieu's (1986) research emphasized differential access to resources often facilitated through social networks for racial/ethnic, gender-based, and other groups. Bourdieu (1986) and Lin (2001) suggest that individual college enrollment cannot be fully understood without examination of high-school characteristics, and the context in which the school promoted parental involvement in education. Rothstein (2004) cautions that parental involvement in school can help

somewhat; however, it cannot do much to alleviate the class-based achievement gap because the forms taken by parental involvement are also class-based.

Parental relationships with other parents and community stakeholders support Coleman's (1988) intergenerational closure theory since students benefit from social norms that govern conduct, information gathering that supports positive school outcomes, and reciprocity in securing educational resources. These relationships can be damaged or even severed if a family relocates to another community, therefore limiting access to resources proven to be beneficial to student achievement (Coleman, 1988). Rothstein (2004) explains that 30 percent of the poorest children attended at least three different schools by the third grade. High mobility not only affects children who move but also affects stable children in these schools whose classes are affected (Rothstein, 2004).

Families that enjoy close social bonds and parents who instill the value of reciprocity in their children are more likely to gain a greater degree of compliance and adherence to their values (Putnam, 2000). After controlling for other variables, McNeal (1999) documented a reduction in high-school dropout and truancy rates among African-American, Hispanic, and Asian American students when there was parental involvement. Qian and Blair (1999) found a positive relationship between parental involvement and college aspirations for Blacks, Hispanic, and White high school seniors after controlling for individual characteristics such as socioeconomic status.

Peer Relationships

The inner-city college preparatory public charter high school in this evaluation science study has a school mission to prepare all students for success at a four-year university. The charter high school embeds teaching strategies in all classrooms that

engage students and their peers in regular discussion about courses, colleges, careers, group work, activities, and social functions. Two foundational courses, Advisory Courses and Senior Capstone Courses, are utilized at the charter high school to foster this peer involvement component. Sociological research indicates that consideration must be given to relationships outside the family that influence social capital acquisition and college matriculation.

A student's peer group post-secondary plans greatly impact a student's enrollment in a two-year or four-year institution of higher learning (Perna & Titus, 2005). If a majority of the student's peer group attends a two-year college, it significantly increases the probability of the student attending a two-year college but negatively impacts the probability of attending a four-year institution (Perna & Titus, 2005). If a significant portion of the student's peer group attends a four-year college, it greatly increases the chance of the student attending a two- year and/or four-year college (Perna & Titus, 2005). Peer group academic values and influence are positively related to social capital (Muller & Ellison, 2001; Pribesh & Downey, 1999). Also, the number of close friends attending the same school and peer group values were found to be an indicator of social capital that are positively linked to educational aspirations (Morgan & Sorenson, 1999; Muller & Ellison, 2001).

Teacher Involvement

Teachers have an important role in the promotion and development of students and lay the foundation for future success in college and careers (Mack, 2012). Teachers, as institutional agents, have relatively high status and authority (understanding international status comparisons) in a young person's life and can act directly to convey

or negotiate the transmission of highly valued resources on behalf of the student (Stanton-Salazar, 2001). The ability of institutional agents to empower students is dependent upon the range and development of their own social networks, as well as their assimilation toward effective networking (Stanton-Salazar, 2001). School leadership plays a critical role in establishing a culture of collaboration and collective responsibility (Mack, 2012), as well as relational care and intentionally-minded dispositions of investment in students (see Noddings, 1984, 2002; Frick, 2011).

Teachers' involvement with students must be varied in order to facilitate postsecondary advancement (Stanton-Salazar, 2001). Although primary responsibilities for teachers are instructional, teachers must have high expectations to ensure success academically and socially, as the two pursuits are not mutually exclusive but are very co-dependent (Stanton-Salazar, 2001). Rothstein (2004) explains that teachers who encourage their students to express opinions in class have more positive attitudes toward participation in politics than students whose teachers mostly lecture. The general public recognizes and supports the need for effective pedagogy in the classroom. The general public and outsider neoliberal influences, however, tend to overlook the influence of the teacher in providing counseling for the whole child. College and career expectations, peer relationships, home, and school life represent a myriad of factors that influence learning and student success. Institutional agents such as teachers reinforce student autonomy over their education and future social mobility (Stanton-Salazar, 2001).

DiPaula (2010) strongly advocates the building of student self-efficacy and social capital to increase the number of students graduating from high school who are prepared for college and other training programs. At-risk students, who may have limited or no

contact with adults who have benefited from a college education, many times find it hard to conceptualize the benefits of studying and the rewards from post-secondary education (DiPaula, 2010). School related activities are typically facilitated by a teacher, making their interactions with students multidimensional. Increasing evidence supports students with a non-parental adult in their social circle: they "have better psychological wellbeing, more rewarding relationships with parents and others, academic success, higher school completion, better employment experiences, and fewer problems with peers" (Stanton-Salazar, 2001, p.107; Kirp, 2011). As students interact with teachers in more than one fashion, more opportunities arise for teacher and student relationships to form, promoting formal and informal inquiries into student interests and aspirations. These interactions permit the transmission of information, reinforcement of social norms, and fulfillment of obligations and expectations that social capital is predicated upon (Coleman, 1988, Kirp, 2011).

School Counseling Involvement

School counselors are vital in college counseling for precollege students (McDonough, 2005; Trusty & Niles, 2003). Access to school counselor personnel facilitates student acquisition of college enrollment information, processes, and program offerings (McDonough, 2005). Many school counselor training programs do not include college counseling as a component of their professional development, therefore, leaving a strong loss in college access services for the neediest students, traditionally underserved minorities who do not matriculate to college (Trusty & Niles, 2003). Specifically, current research suggests that high-school counselors have an enormous amount of influence on college planning with minority students (McDonough, 2005). Still, nontraditional college

bound students are not only least likely to have access to school counselors, but it is more likely that they will have access to noncertified counselors. They are also more likely to have counselors who are assigned to tasks that are not college admissions related (McDonough, 2005). Research has revealed that counselors in predominantly African American schools have higher counselor-student ratios, less access to college planning materials and training, and working conditions non conducive to facilitating college access (Corwin, Venegas, Oliverez, & Colyar, 2004).

Bryan, Moore-Thomas, Day-Vines, and Holcomb-McCoy (2011) found that gender, academic achievement, parental involvement, and school size were significant predictors of students applying to college after examining data from the 2002 Educational Longitudinal Study (ELS). They also found that when students received free or reduced lunch, the ethnicity, socio-economic status, student aspirations, and mother's postsecondary aspirations were significantly related to applying to two or more institutions of higher learning (Bryan, et al., 2011). A positive relationship was discovered between the number of school counselors and students applying to two or more schools. Students in schools with higher numbers of school counselors were more likely to apply to two or more universities. No significant relationship was found between the number of school counselors and applications to one college and none (Bryan, et al., 2011).

Mentoring

Kirp (2011) explains the positive effects that mentoring can have on young-people, especially minority students. Minority youngsters are 70 percent less likely to begin to using drugs, are less aggressive, get along better with their families, do better in

school and are 52 percent less likely to skip schooldays if they have a consistent relationship with a mentor (Kirp, 2011). Mentors are non-parental adults who serve as role models and actively engage in the lives of youth (Erickson, McDonald, & Elder, 2009). They assist with the transition to adulthood by providing emotional support and advice to adolescents, sometimes outside of their professional roles. Erickson et al. (2009) examined the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health (Add Health) and the Add Health Academic Achievement study (AHAA) to determine 1) the impact of informal mentoring on the educational success of precollege students 2) the specific types of mentors who have the greatest influence on educational attainment and performance and 3) the relationship between educational success and informal mentoring within the context of a broader set of potential resources (including those that are linked to social background , parents and peers, school , and the individual) (Erickson et al., 2009).

After controlling for access to other resources, Erickson, et al. (2009) found that mentors have a strong positive impact on both performance in high school and educational attainment overall. Their findings also revealed that mentoring may be a compensatory or complementary resource for youth (Erickson, et al., 2009). Young people with access to multiple resources are more likely to form mentoring relationships; therefore emphasizing the corresponding role that mentoring plays for the socially advantaged. Mentoring effectiveness is contingent upon the level of access to resources. Relatives serving as mentors have a more positive influence on educational achievement for socially advantaged youth than disadvantaged youth. Relatives of advantaged adolescents are more likely to have valuable expertise pertinent to education and career advancement (Erickson et al., 2009).

Research has revealed that young African Americans in disadvantaged, urban environments have limited access to adults in their communities who serve as role models and provide guidance (Erickson et al., 2009). Erickson et al. (2009) also discovered that teacher mentors have a dramatic effect upon educational attainment for "at-risk" students. There are various after-school programs and interventions designed to mitigate the lack of access to resources and role models who support educational attainment for youth. These programs have a range of services, from focusing on specific populations, topics, and subject-matter, to skill sets. Mentoring programs provide opportunities for youth to develop relationships and networks with adults. These programs serve as one of many strategies to help develop social capital networks and limit the deficit between disadvantaged students and youth with access to multiple resources (Kirp, 2011).

Media Use

Media use is an important topic for school leaders today as information and communications technology (ICT) becomes more popular and current forms of technology are integrated into the classroom. Teachers and school leaders need to be aware of the specific uses of mass media and the effects media use has on social capital goals. Putnam (2000) stated that civic participation and social interactions declined as a result of increased television viewership. Past research has revealed significant relationships between social capital and mass media use (Putnam, 2000; Shah, Kwak, & Holbert, 2001). People who read the newspaper and view television news frequently have higher levels of social capital indicators, including social trust, civic engagement, neighborliness, and association membership (Putnam, 2000; Shah, Kwak, & Holbert,

2001). Newspaper readership is significantly related to civic engagement (Brehm & Rahn, 1997). Conversely, viewing television for entertainment is negatively associated with social capital (Shah et al, 2001). Civic participation is reduced by 10 percent for each additional hour of television viewing according to Putnam (2000).

School Environment

Charter schools typically receive favorable reviews from their constituents; after all they are schools of choice (Teske & Schnedier, 2001; Wamba & Ascher, 2003). School environment is an important social capital measure, the level of preparation, safety issues, access to mentors, academic assistance, and exposure to potential colleges and majors are indicators of school quality. As mentioned earlier, school quality matters and there is sociological evidence pointing to the vast differences in college preparation for Blacks and Whites that have been attributed to school quality and access to resources and personnel that promote student achievement (Card & Krueger, 1992; Ferguson, 1998; Kozol, 1992; Wenglingsky, 1997). Also, there has been biased (favored) treatment toward whites that has been referenced as one explanation for the emphasized importance of race-linked signals about ability and diligence that teachers and schools have long communicated to students, with varying degrees of discreteness (Ferguson, 2003; Oates, 1982; Oates, 2003). Often times, this kind of communication can be the impetus for what is known as stereotype threat – reducing the performance of students who belong to negatively stereotyped groups (Steele, 2010).

Also, attention must be given to the amount of resources available through social networks and the uniformity of the social networks at the school (Kirp, 2011). The amount of social capital an individual gains is largely dependent upon the size of the

person's social networks as well as the amount of economic, cultural, and social capital individuals within the network possess (Bourdieu, 1986). Social capital is a resource students may call on as needed to increase productivity (Coleman, 1988), perpetuate upward mobility (DiMaggio & Mohr, 1985; Lamont & Lareau, 1988), and actualize economic returns (Lin, 2001). Coleman (1988), Hofferth, Boisjoly, and Duncan (1998), Lin (2001), Morrow (1999), Portes (1998), and Stanton-Salazar and Dornbusch (1995) all believed that the primary function of social capital is to promote access to human, cultural, and other forms of capital including institutional resources and support.

Residential Stability

Lastly, the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school in this evaluation science study establishes a signed agreement with all families, that together, both parties will positively impact the community in their surrounding neighborhood through civic engagement (Family Expectations Document, see Appendix B). The charter school has monthly parent work days and service requirements. Neighborhoods with high levels of social capital could possibly serve as a protective factor promoting positive outcomes (Mack, 2012). Conversely, risk factors such as poor physical conditions and low economic resources in neighborhoods threaten school outcomes (Richman, Bowen, & Woolley, 2004).

The collective socialization perspective would suggest that children's attitudes, behaviors, and beliefs such as the importance of school and the need to work hard to succeed in school are partly shaped by social interactions with parents and adults within the neighborhoods where the children live (Jencks & Mayer, 1990). Adult neighbors, who engage in positive social interactions with members of the community, increase the

level of social capital available to neighborhood children and, by exhibiting successful educational and occupational characteristics, might create an environment in which those behaviors become shared norms for neighborhood children (Ainsworth, 2002).

Access and Equity Issues with Charter Schools

A portion of the philosophical mission statement of the inner-city college-preparatory public charter high school in this evaluation science study states that the school believes "in providing equitable learning opportunities for all students." The mission of this college prep high school is partly based on the past U.S. schooling culture that "rewarded certain patterns of learning—those connected with success in school and other closely related institutions—and provides socially and economically disfavored places in society for those who do not engage in these favored ways of learning" (Resnick & Nelson-Le Gall, 2009, p.27). The mission of the charter school in this study is to provide Advanced Placement courses to every student. This theory of change focused on unfettered access to AP courses in a free public high school is unique when juxtaposed to the history of college prep high schools and AP programs in district public schools. As mentioned earlier, studies concerning college preparatory schools have demonstrated that these types of schools not only attract the powerful and wealthy families in our country, but also have reinforced their social and economic power by maintaining a selective social climate (exclusive admissions process), offering advanced courses (Advanced Placement (AP) and International Baccalaureate (IB) courses) and guaranteeing access to elite colleges and universities (personalized college planning guidance, negotiating with universities for students' admissions) (Cookson & Persell, 1985; Peshkin, 2001; Powell, 1996).

The Advanced Placement Program

The history of the Advanced Placement curriculum as seen in college preparatory schools and district public schools has been one of an intentional exclusiveness with only the best and brightest students being enrolled (DiYanni, 2007). The College Board and Advanced Placement program, which was created in 1955 as a way to provide certain students (mainly the rich and White) with the opportunity to take college-level coursework and earn college credit while still in high school set the stage for its exclusionary past. The College Board openly admits that not all students were permitted to take Advanced Placement Courses from its inception. According to the College Board, "from the beginning, the AP program was seen as an opportunity for well-prepared students to demonstrate their proficiency in subject areas. There was no guarantee that colleges would offer credit for such demonstrations, though there was a clear sense that students should be exempt from preliminary courses and accelerated into appropriate advanced courses, as demonstrated by their performance on AP Examinations" (DiYanni, 2007, p. 2). Historically, AP courses were limited to a minority of highly prepared students, and some high schools banned all but their top students from taking those courses. As such, in 1955, the AP program served only approximately 1,000 students in 100 schools (Willingham & Morris, 1986).

The inner-city college-preparatory public charter high school in this study has a primary mission: to reverse the limited access to Advanced Placement curriculum and provide AP courses to every student believing that all students can succeed when challenged. This mission is not only based on the history of exclusion in AP courses but it also highlights the rationale for the expansion of college prep charter high schools.

Opening access to once an exclusive group is advocated by a consumer driven, free market model of public education. Underlying this position is the paradoxical belief that although social-equity goals are important, they are not paramount (Ladd, 2002; Schneider, Teske, & Marshall, 2000). Rather, the primary aim of public education in this argument is the excellence in academic outcomes for all cultural groups. Advocates maintain that with adequate support in place all students can achieve at comparable standards of competency. This neoliberal perspective is grounded in the assumption that a cultural expectation of achievement will spur all public schools to improve when faced with competition from the private and quasi-private sector (Ladd, 2002; Schneider, Teske, & Marshall, 2000).

Charter school lotteries. Contrary to the mission of the inner-city college-preparatory public charter high school in this study and the market philosophy for charter schools in general, equitable access is not achieved through this schooling option and conversely exclusion is not reversed. Charter-schools nation-wide face the same problems for families who have or do not have information about lottery and application processes or the ability and/or motivation to fill-out admission applications. Many critics of school choice often highlight the issue of access to information as one of the critical sources of inequity in charter-school programs. These critics argue that local educational agencies serve all students; whereas charter-school programs only attract families with the ability and/or motivation and information about schools of choice. Smrekar and Goldring (1999) found that "economically disadvantaged families do not have adequate access to information, may not be aware of their options for choice, and may not have the formal and informal networks to learn about alternatives" (p. 26). Some economically

disadvantaged families lack the social capital necessary to connect with schools of choice.

Social science researchers have found that the majority of charter school parents become aware of charter-schools via informal networks comprised of friends and relatives and through churches (Weiher & Tedin, 2000). This is important since these types of informal networks are more likely to be highly segregated by race and class. For parents of charter-school students who are not "at-risk", the second most important source of information is the media: newspapers, television, and radio (Weiher & Tedin, 2000). Interestingly, after friends and relatives, parents of "at-risk" charter-school students are much more likely to learn of charter schools from district public schools or from teachers (Weiher & Tedin, 2000). The fact that friend and neighbor networks (informal networks) tend to be highly discriminate by race and class may partly explain why charter schools are more racially unique than public schools in general (Weiher & Tedin, 2000). Other studies also support the importance of addressing differences in parents' "access to and ability to process information" about choice options, noting the potential for misinformation with regard to educational decisions resulting in poor decision making (Goldhaber & Eide, 2002, p. 170). This argument can be clearly seen in politically popularized versions school-grading policies where A-F assessment metrics are demonstrated to be flawed and lacking, making choice even more difficult for parents and students (see The Oklahoma Center for Education Policy & The Center for Educational Research and Evaluation, 2013). First-come-first-served admission policies may exacerbate these differences as well. On the surface, such policies may appear

equitable; however, they raise some concerns because their use may limit the choices for families who lack adequate information or informal networks.

Choosers and non-choosers. In Fuller and Elmore's (1996) book *Who Chooses? Who Loses? Culture, Institutions, and the Unequal Effects of School Choice*, the authors provide empirical evidence pertaining to the differences between lower-socioeconomic students and their families who choose charter-schools and those who do not choose charters. One of the studies cited was a survey of parents in the ten largest school districts in Massachusetts. Howell (2004) found that parents whose children attended failing schools preferred the idea of sending their children to an alternative public, private, or charter-school, but could not accurately say whether their children attended schools that made Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) as defined by the federal No Child Left Behind (NCLB) education act.

Under NCLB, parents whose children attend schools that fail to meet AYP for two consecutive years can exercise school choice, if that failing school receives Title I funding (Howell, 2004). Howell's (2004) research indicated that the very parents who would and could transfer their children to other schools did not have the information and resources enabling them to do so. It appeared, in Howell's (2004) words, a case of "those who need the most information…have the least" (p.170). Therefore, choice appears to have a stratifying effect in which the parents of lower socioeconomic and educational levels do not express school preferences through their actions (Fuller & Elmore, 1996; Teske & Schneider, 2001).

Wells (1996) also discovered a comparable finding when examining the desegregation plan in St. Louis, which was directed at moving poor and working class

students from the inner city to the suburbs. Students who made the decision to leave the inner city and were resolute in that choice differed considerably from those who left and returned or those who remained behind. The decidedly resolute choosers were different in the level of parental support for their decisions, in their attitudes toward educational achievement, and in their racial attitudes. Witte (1996) found that even in a program heavily designed for low income parents, the participants who choose the avenue of publicly-financed enrollment in private schools were better educated and more inclined to be active in their children's education, both before and after their decision, than parents who did not choose.

More evidence of the differences between "choosers and non-choosers" is seen in the study of magnet-school programs research by Martinez, Godwin, and Kemerer (2005). Martinez et al. (2005) discovered that students and parents who choose magnet schools differed regularly from those who did not in terms of parents' education, educational expectations, and involvement. Henig's (1994) study also revealed quite different inclinations between minority and white parents as represented by the attributes of the magnet schools they choose. These findings reinforced an emerging pattern of evidence from other sources (Wells, 1991; Martinez & Klopott, 2005) demonstrating that, regardless of the design of choice programs, there is a clear distinction between that of choosers and non-choosers in ways that exacerbate the social stratification of schools rather than reducing inequality. This is an observable phenomenon for the inner-city college-preparatory public charter high school in this study as evidenced through the motivation of parents who fill out an application, wait for the lottery, and desire that their children take all AP courses.

Fuller and Clarke (1994) describe these findings on the effects of choice as evident in the context of other research showing that 1) family environment is a stronger indicator of children's success in school than school qualities and 2) over the past 15 years there has been a growth in the racial, ethnic, and economic isolation of students in American public schools (Fuller & Clarke, 1994; Hanushek, 1994; Martinez & Klopott, 2005; Rothstein, 2004). According to opponents of school choice, the ability to choose will increase both the social stratification of students and the gap in student performance in schools. Social stratification includes the potential that district public schools will retain higher concentrations of poor and working-class families and schools of choice will enroll predominantly white, middle class students. Public-school performance in theory will deteriorate because children's performance in school is heavily influenced by parents' social class and educational background (Rothstein, 2004).

Social Stratification and the Market Philosophy

The aforementioned scholarship is important to consider when developing school-choice options such as charter schools. Martinez and Klopott (2005) explain that helping minority children remains a central justification for choice proponents, however, ignoring the essential civil rights dimensions of choice plans risks compounding rather than remedying racial inequality. It is apparent from the literature that school districts in urban areas developing choice plans should be cautious of only providing enhanced opportunities for inner-city parents and students who have strong achievement inclinations (Fuller & Clarke, 1994; Hanushek, 1994; Martinez & Klopott, 2005; Rothstein, 2004). Developers of choice programs should also consider that such programs could further separate parents and students whose backgrounds are less well formed and

whose knowledge of how to take advantage of complex choice options is limited (Fuller & Elmore, 1996). Based on the previous studies cited, it is also cautionary that inner city choice programs have the potential of separating parents and students based on their educational background, their prior participation in school, and their knowledge of how to engage complicated choice schemes (Fuller & Clarke, 1994; Hanushek, 1994; Martinez & Klopott, 2005; Rothstein, 2004). Therefore, even choice programs that are designed to increase educational opportunities (such as the participation of the inner-city college-preparatory public charter high school in this study) such programs could have the effect of further stratifying parents and students within groups that are already at a disadvantage in the existing structure.

According to Fuller and Elmore (1996), the theory of social stratification should not surprise those who are acquainted with the operation of markets, "markets create product differentiation and segmentation of consumers by providing for the free play of preferences around alternatives and among the characterizations that markets make are those based simply on consumers' competence or ability to choose" (Fuller & Elmore, 1996, p. 67). It is evident, based upon market interactions, that some parents (just as some customers) are at a comparative disadvantage in understanding whether they have choices, or what those choices might be if they should choose to exercise them (Fuller & Elmore, 1996). Henig's (1994) study revealed that even simple awareness of the term magnet school differed regularly based upon parents' ethnicity and social class. As evidenced at the charter-school in this study, sometimes choices are built upon the family's economic resources, such as the ability to provide transportation to another school or to miss work and wait in line to sign up for a lottery.

Fuller and Elmore (1996) view this market feature as potentially solvable if there are some overseeing public interests in assisting people to make "good" choices. District public schools offer programs of educational choice that deliberately separates certain parents and students from access to higher quality educational programs or to other parents who value such programs, but mechanisms should be put in place to assist all parents in making good decisions. Nevertheless, Fuller and Elmore (1996) suggest that this connection between absolute educational choice and social stratification poses an immense challenge to educational leaders and legislatures. Stratifying effects of choice programs are both results of the design of the programs and/or simply the inevitable collective result of the individualistic exercise of choice (Fuller & Elmore, 1996).

There are clear distinctions between the ideological philosophies of redistributed politics for the public good and market theories. The philosophy of market practices produces winners and losers by default. This is evident in the current designs of many choice programs, even those designed to enhance equal opportunity. Many programs are not adequate to deal with stratification issues (Fuller & Elmore, 1996). Market theory seeks to remove government bureaucracy. Conversely, if public funds are used in ways that could promote racial segregation and inequality, they may violate the Constitution (Rothstein, 2009). According to Fuller and Elmore (1996), the utilization of public funding for choice programs to increase social stratification could require more governmental intervention down the road rather than less. However, market-driven practices assert that enhanced choice is the way of taking the government out of private educational decisions, promote local control, and possibly develop social capital in marginalized communities (Putnam, 2000).

Minority Participation in Schools of Choice

Proponents of the choice movement highlight the evidence of racial and ethnic composition of student enrollment in charter schools. The U.S. Department of Education reported in (2010) that charters served a higher percentage of minority students than all United States schools (51.8 percent vs. 41 percent). They were also found to have slightly higher percentages of students deemed poor, based on qualification for the federal lunch program (38.7 percent vs. 37.3 percent). The percentage of special education students was lower for charter schools than for all public schools (8.4 percent vs. 11.3 percent). Finally, one in four charter schools reported that it was founded to serve a special population (USDOE, 2010).

Although, descriptive statistics indicate that charter schools are serving a slightly higher percentage of minorities there are still many philosophical differences between proponents and opponents of school choice programs. These philosophical differences between charter proponents and opponents generally revolve around models of public education that are driven by principles of social justice, equity, civic engagement, and the transmission of traditional democratic ideals through public schools (Buckley & Schneider, 2007; Finn, 2002; Fiske & Ladd, 2000; Tyack, 1999; Moe, 1995). Critics of neoliberal reforms such as charter schools argue that public schools are a public good and that the expansion of choice programs will exacerbate existing inequities in public schools, contribute to social stratification, and drain resources from public schools who are most in need (Goldhaber & Eide, 2002; Fiske & Ladd, 2000; Wells, et al., 1999; Levin, 1998; Henig, 1994). The very idea of a school lottery for admission does not represent the ideal of fairness as equity. A lottery has the appearance of fairness only on

the basis of equality of selection by chance, not on the basis of equity. An alternative meaning for justice is not that it is blind (and evenhanded) but rather, "Justice consists of treating equals equally and unequals unequally precisely in order to be fair (Aristotle, 1980/334-323 BCE). The principle of equity focuses squarely on the needs of society's most marginalized, oppressed, disadvantaged, mistreated individuals"(Frick, 2013, p.7).

Not surprisingly, there is conflicting data around the nation concerning charter schools serving higher percentages of students from low-income and minority backgrounds. Howe, Eisenhart, and Betebenner (2001) conducted a case study of the Boulder (Colorado) Valley School District (BVSD) open enrollment system. These researchers collected data from five available sources: 1) BVSD parent and educator surveys, 2) focus group discussions with the same group, 3) a follow-up survey of principals, 4) a random telephone survey of BVSD parents, and 5) statistical records on open enrollment, test scores, demographics, funding, and fund-raising (Howe et al., 2001). Interestingly, the findings revealed that racial and economic social stratification was a prominent feature of BVSD open enrollment patterns, both regionally and with respect to individual schools (Howe et al., 2001). The pattern of social stratification resulted from students leaving the eastern and northern regions that had relatively higher percentages of minorities. Those regions also had lower enrollments relative to their capacities to regions with higher enrollments relative to their capacities (Howe et al., 2001). Finally, the pattern of increased social stratification in the Boulder Valley School District reflected the trend that white students were leaving high-minority schools through open enrollment programs at disproportionate rates (Howe et al., 2001). This finding is not surprising since historically, urban school systems have catered to the

demands for neighborhood schooling options and enhanced resources for well-to-do municipal enclaves with political clout and higher property values even before the emergence of "parental choice" options and charter entities (Kirp, 2011).

Howe, et al. (2001), offered an example of one BVSD school's students leaving at a rate nearly double their proportion of the school's population. The authors concluded that the repetition of these enrollment patterns led BVSD schools to become significantly more ethnically geospatially-stratified than they were before the expansion of choice options that occurred in the mid-1990s (Howe et al., 2001). The pattern of social stratification with respect to socioeconomic status was similar to that of race/ethnicity. The authors also found an association between socioeconomic status and minority enrollment and described it as "strong to begin with and became even stronger than it was in the mid-1990s" (Howe et al., 2001, p.51). Although there were differences in enrollment patterns that reflected a trend toward increased racial and socioeconomic stratification, the authors reported that the differences in demand (for open enrollment public schools) were more strongly associated with test scores and parental satisfaction ratings than they were with demographic makeup (Howe et al., 2001). Therefore, Howe et al. (2001) concluded that the leading explanation of social stratification was that it was a side effect of choice, rather than a deliberate attempt by parents to re-segregate their schools.

However, Clark (2000) reported that charter-schools in Texas, when taken together, have higher percentages of minority students and lower percentages of white students than district public schools. This pattern of racial distinctiveness in charter schools was attributed to the large number of charter schools serving at-risk students

(predominantly minority students), as well as the accompanying urban concentration of charter schools in Texas (Clark, 2000). Based on data from the Charter School Resource Center of Texas, Fusarelli (2001) reported that nearly 66 percent of Texas charter school students were identified as at-risk of dropping out compared with 37 percent in district public schools. Demographic data from Pennsylvania charter schools reflected similar trends as Texas Charter Schools (Miron & Nelson, 2000). These researchers reported that charter schools in Pennsylvania enrolled a significantly higher proportion of non-white students than did their host districts (80 percent vs. 57 percent). Pennsylvania charter schools are particularly concentrated in Philadelphia.

Nevertheless, Good and Braden (1998) explained in their review of charter school research, specifically regarding demographics, that they took exception to the use of data aggregated at the national level when assessing ethnic segregation in charter schools. Good and Braden (1998) stated, "That when data are aggregated at a national level, the conclusion is that charter and non-charter public schools enroll students with similar demographic characteristics. In contrast, when one looks at individual schools or at schools clustered for neighborhood comparisons, the conclusion is that charter schools contribute to increasing segregation in American education" (p. 151).

Although freedom of choice tends to be a value upheld by most Americans, not all parents take advantage of school choice, or take advantage of it equally, when given the opportunity. Several studies have shown that those parents who do participate in choice programs are likely to be more educated and more involved in their children's schooling than those who do not (Lee, Croninger, & Smith, 1996; Wells, 1996), even when the choice programs target low-income or disadvantaged parents (Witte, 1996).

Special Education and Charter Schools

As referenced earlier, some research shows that charter schools are very diverse and their effectiveness and quality vary widely (Greene et al., 2010; Finn, Vanno, & Manourek, 2000; Loveless, 2010). However, the most compelling argument to this inclusionary practice has to do with students with disabilities and in many cases continues to be the "Achilles heel" for charter schools. Charter schools do not serve a proportionate number of students with disabilities (Fierros & Blomberg, 2005; Fiore & Harwell, 2000; Rhim & McLaughlin, 2001). The practice of excluding students with disabilities from charter schools contradicts the very intent of school choice. Charter schools were created to give public school students and their families' options regarding education. School choice is an umbrella term encompassing a variety of options including charter schools, voucher programs, tuition tax credits, inter and intra-district choice plans, and virtual schools (Merrifield, 2008; Scott, 2005). Philosophically, choice options were developed for a variety of purposes including integration and fostering access to better schools, and options increased exponentially in the 1990s (Colvin, 2004; Hess & Finn, 2004).

There are many reasons parents choose charter-schools rather than their default or neighborhood school which include quality teachers and instruction, school philosophy, safety, and academic reputation (Teske & Schnedier, 2001; Wamba & Ascher, 2003). Low-income parents express a higher preference for small class size than their middle and upper-income peers (Finn, Manno, & Vanourek, 2000), and research consistently shows that parents who participate in the school choice process— or "choosers"— are more satisfied with their children's schools than non-choosers (Greene et al., 2001; Teske

& Schneider, 2001). Parents of children with disabilities express similar reasons as other parents for participating in school choice options and, more specifically, for enrolling their children in charter-schools. In a national study, Fiore and Harwell (2000) found that these parents' reasons fell into two broad categories: 1) positive attributes of the charter school, and 2) negative attributes of the previous school. A "Hawthorne-type" effect takes place, a reaction to being selected into a charter school and the newness of the concept is self-fulfilling with parents (and students) attributing satisfaction with school programs and processes (Fiore & Harwell, 2000).

Fiore and Harwell (2000) also found that parents of students who have a disability are also discouraged from enrolling their children in charter schools. Fiore and Harwell (2000) reported that approximately 25 percent of the charter school administrators interviewed stated they could not serve a particular disability and encouraged parents not to enroll their children at the charter as a result of that disability. One school in their study found that a charter stated that it could not serve students with severe emotional and behavioral difficulties, and another charter forced parents to sign a waiver stating that the charter school was "not equipped, nor do they offer, special education services" (Fiore & Harwell, 2000, p. 20).

Evidence shows that parents who wish to enroll their children with disabilities in charter schools may hide the child's disability during the enrollment process (Rhim & McLaughlin, 2001). This particular problem has been observed at the inner-city college-preparatory public charter high school in this study. Parents fear that their child will not be enrolled based on the school's rigorous college prep curriculum. In an in-depth cross-case analysis of special education policies and practices in seven states and the District of

Columbia, researchers found numerous citations of new charter school parents providing inaccurate information about their children's special education histories (Rhim & McLaughlin, 2001). It is also possible parents may disagree with schools' assessments of their children's disabilities. For example, Hanson (1994) found that African American parents, especially those of children with less severe disabilities such as learning disabilities, "held broader parameters of normalcy than were allowed by the school-based evaluations by which the children were classified" (p.134).

As mentioned earlier Good and Braden (1998) described special education services as "the Achilles heel of charter schools" (p.148). Several authors have addressed the compatibility of charter-school flexibility and students with special needs (Estes, 2000; Lange& Lehr, 2000). Although charter-schools are freed from many district and state rules, they are all still subject to federal legislation regarding the education of students with disabilities since they receive federal funding. Estes (2000) identified key concerns of special education advocates regarding charter schools. These include "1) charter schools with specialized programs for students with specific disabilities may segregate students and undermine the inclusionary focus of the IDEA (Individuals with Disabilities Education Act), 2) operators may lack information regarding special education requirements and fail to plan for provision of services, 3) funding limitations and inadequately trained personnel may be especially problematic for charter schools" p. 78).

At a national level, charter schools appear to enroll a lower percentage of students with disabilities than all public schools in the charter states (RPP International, 2000). The percentages vary from state to state just as data concerning minority enrollment

patterns. Conversely, there is little evidence of how charter educational programs comply or fail to comply with federal special-education laws (Fusarelli, 2001). According to Fusarelli (2001), charter schools have reported a lack of information about their responsibilities for special education services and unfortunately this was true even when the school served students with special needs.

Conclusion

The inner-city college-preparatory public charter high school in this evaluation science study opens up a concept of schooling that was once historically exclusive to privileged groups in the United States. The college preparatory programs, in combination with the Advanced Placement curriculum, are available to all students who apply and are accepted in a random lottery. Paradoxically, the application process, college prep mission, and lottery process may exclude the most disadvantaged groups who have limited access to information, lack motivation, and those who are in need of special education services. In this respect, local educational agencies may do better at educating all children.

Evaluating social capital in a charter school setting is unique. Charter schools have emerged from a rugged neoliberal ideology emphasizing market philosophies in the public sector. This neoliberal ideology is in stark contrast to communitarian and social capital theories (Compton & Weiner, 2008). Communitarianism is an ideology that emphasizes the connection between the individual and the community. Communitarians seek to bolster social capital networks (Putnam, 2000). Interestingly, the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school in this study has established organizational performance and value goals and individual performance and value goals based on a

theory of action that focuses on social capital development in order to promote student success.

Quantifying social capital possessed by an individual may be difficult, but observing two parameters assists with making it more tangible: 1) examining the size of the network of connections a person can effectively utilize and 2) examining the volume of capital (economic, cultural, or symbolic resources possessed by the individual) that is of value to those within an individual's network (Bourdieu, 1986). Typically, educational research focuses on student achievement as measured on standardized tests. Evaluating social capital parameters in a college-preparatory public charter high school is unique to most assessments of charter reform whether large scale social scientific investigations or more narrowly defined evaluation science focused on a particular program or school's worth.

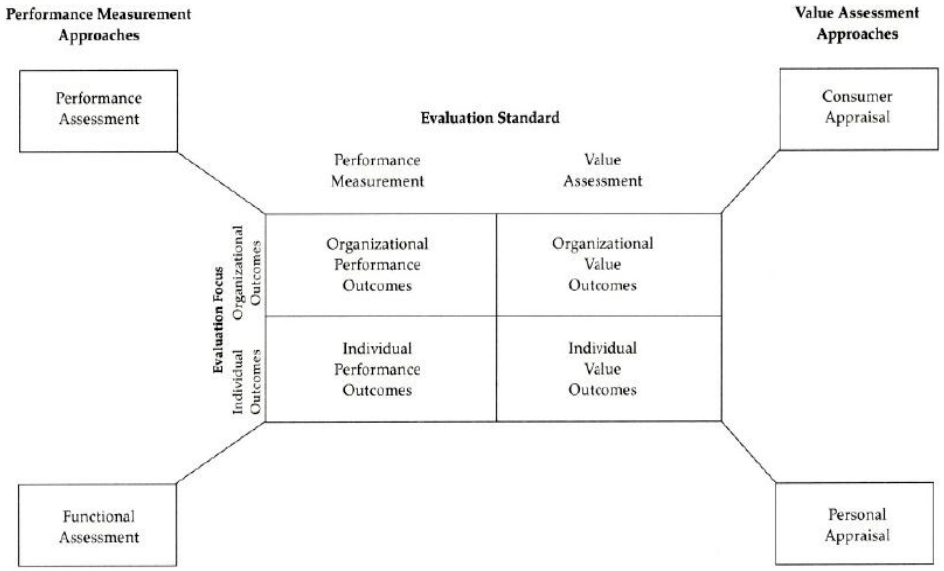
CHAPTER FOUR

Methods and Study Design

This evaluation science study of an inner-city college-preparatory public charter high school is known as an outcome-based effectiveness evaluation. This outcome-based effectiveness evaluation (quasi-evaluation in nature because it is driven primarily by specific research questions) utilizes Schalock's (2002) outcome-based methodological pluralism model. Schalock's (2002) methodological pluralism model is a multi-dimensional assessment, which includes two performance and two value criterions: 1) organizational and 2) individual performance outcomes and 3) organizational and 4) individual value outcomes. Each quadrant provides multiple measureable indicators, which organize data and will assist in describing the effectiveness of the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school in achieving or not achieving its stated goals and objectives.

Figure 4.1

Outcome-based Methodological Pluralism Model for an Evaluation Science Study



According to Schalock (2002), outcome-based effectiveness evaluations have three primary purposes: "1) they compare the program's goals with its achieved outcomes, 2) they report the program's performance and value outcomes, and 3) provide formative feedback information for program change and continuous improvement" (p.42). The purpose of the specific research questions in this outcome-based effectiveness evaluation are to address the charter school's effectiveness in achieving or not, it's explicit goals as they pertain to social capital development for college matriculation and to enhance the organization's accountability and service quality in this area.

Methodological Pluralism Model

Quasi-evaluations focus on specific questions of knowledge and may or may not address programs value or worth (Stufflebeam, 1981). True evaluations specifically address the value and worth of programs (Stufflebeam, 1981). A true evaluation framework does not entirely meet the criteria of this study. This evaluation addresses specific conceptual questions pertaining to the social capital development of students within the context of a college-preparatory public charter high school. The specific conceptual question and outcomes pertaining to social capital set the parameters as to why this study is labeled as a quasi-evaluation study (Schalock, 2002). Stufflebeam (1981) explicitly explain the distinct discernible attributes between true and quasi-evaluation frameworks. One of the dividing attributes is quasi-evaluations focus mainly on questions of knowledge and they may or may not address any questions of value (Stufflebeam, 1981).

More specifically, this quasi-evaluation aligns closely with an objectives based study (Stufflebeam, 1981). The objectives-based framework is by definition a classic

example of questions-oriented evaluation. The objectives based framework defines statements of objectives, which become the advance organizers for a study (Stufflebeam, 1981). This evaluation utilizes Schalock's (2002) methodological pluralism model, which identifies four primary objectives and provides organizational and individual-level indicators that can be operationalized for measurement. The objectives in a questions-oriented approach may be mandated by the client; however in this study, they are formulated by the client and evaluator based on local and national problems in education. According to Stufflebeam (1981), an objectives oriented evaluation is an internal study done by a program leader. The usual purpose of an objectives-based study is to determine whether the program's objectives have been achieved. The typical audiences are program developers, sponsors, and managers who desire to know the extent to which each stated objective has been achieved (Stufflebeam, 1981).

Schalock's (2002) methodological pluralism model provides a framework for organizing and evaluating outcomes. This model specifies each program indicator and organizes the collection and analysis of pertinent information to determine how well each objective is achieved. Tyler (1950) stressed that a wide range of objectives and performance assessment procedures should be employed. This variety of objectives and performance assessment procedures is the rationale behind selecting Schalock's (2002) methodological pluralism model in this study. This approach is set apart from other methods-oriented studies which focus on a particular disciplined-based approach, such as an experimental design or the utilization of a particular standardized test (Stufflebeam, 1981).

Ralph Tyler (1950) is generally acknowledged as the pioneer in the objectives-based study, although Percy Bridgman and E. L. Thorndike have also been credited (Travers, 1977). Several other people have furthered Tyler's (1950) contribution by developing variations of his evaluation model. According to Stufflebeam and Webster (1980), these contributors include Bloom, Englehart, Furst, Hill, and Krathwohl (1956), Hammond (1972), Metfessel and Michael (1967), Popham (1969), Provus (1971), and Steinmetz (1983). These objectives-based approaches are especially applicable in assessing tightly focused projects that have clear, supportable objectives and goals. Objective-based studies can be strengthened by judging project objectives against the intended beneficiaries' assessed needs, searching for side effects, and studying the process as well as the outcomes (Stufflebeam, 1981).

Stufflebeam (1981) explains that the objectives based framework has been the most prevalent approach in program evaluation. Reasons for its prevalence include its common-sense appeal, program administrators have an enormous amount of experience with using it, and it makes use of technologies of behavioral objectives, both norm-referenced and criterion-referenced testing, and performance assessments (Stufflebeam, 1981). Common criticisms of the questions-oriented evaluation approaches are that such studies can lead to terminal information that can be neither timely nor pertinent to *improving a program's processes* and speak to value and worth. Sometimes the information in objectives-based evaluations can often be too narrow to constitute a sufficient basis for judging an object's merit and worth (Stufflebeam, 1981). Objectives-based evaluations sometimes do not uncover positive and negative side effects, and they may unintentionally credit unworthy objectives (Stufflebeam, 1981).

Schalock's (2002) methodological pluralism model is crucial to this outcome-based effectiveness evaluation. All the measurements for this evaluation focus on the multi-dimensional outcomes related to the organization and the person of the inner-city college-preparatory public charter high school. Effectively performing an outcome-based effectiveness evaluation necessitates an examination of the inner-city college-preparatory public charter high school's logic model. The logic model constitutes a basis for a proof of concept test and serves as the conceptual framework for the theory of action the school is undertaking in this study (Schalock, 2002). The narrated-logic model that follows provides a summary of the inputs, throughputs, and outputs of the inner-city college-preparatory public charter high school. The logic model also addresses the context in which these processes occur.

Charter School's Logic Model

As mentioned earlier, this inner-city college preparatory public charter high school was created in an urban school reform context in 2003. The school has not always been a charter school. The building was constructed in 1924 and originally opened as a junior-high school in 1925. In 1955, the school was transformed into an aggregated junior high and high school, whose first senior class graduated in 1958. Ten more senior classes graduated before the school was transformed into a middle school in the summer of 1968. In May 2003, the school's doors were closed, only to re-open quickly thereafter as a new college preparatory public charter high school.

Charter School's Inputs

The inputs for this inner-city college-preparatory public charter school begin with the established purpose and mission of the school charter which is to accept all students

up to the capacity of the charter agreement of 500 students. Those students selected in the lottery take a substantial prescription of the College Board Advanced Placement curriculum. This is an important input for the charter school. It is a free public school of choice. The mission of the school attempts to remedy potential historical barriers that did not allow "non-gifted" students or minority students' access to elite college-preparatory schools or in Advanced Placement programs. The charter school does not select students based on test scores or previous academic performance. However, it is a school of choice and has an application process in order to attain a lottery number. The application process and lottery inhibits access for some students and families who may not have the networks and/or information about choice programs or unique opportunities provided by the school.

Although, there are no testing requirements for admission, a parent or guardian must know about, fill out an application, and provide proper documentation in order to receive a lottery number. After selection in a random lottery students are enrolled by a principal with their parent/guardian present. The inner-city college preparatory public charter high school emphasizes two important social capital goals upon time of enrollment, parental involvement and association membership. Parents and students sign an agreement known as the Family Expectations Document (see FED, Appendix B) which stipulates the service hours required to the school and to the community. The current demographic data shows that the college preparatory public charter high school is a majority-minority school. Sixty-four percent of the students attending the charter school are first-time generational college bound students. The sponsoring school district of the college preparatory public charter high school's charter agreement withdraws a 3 percent

administration fee for each per-pupil allocation received; therefore the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school operates on about 80 percent of the budget of a district public school. Charter-schools in Oklahoma are forbidden from receiving ad-valorem taxes and cannot issue bonds for facilities or other educational purposes. Monies for building maintenance and various other expenses are withdrawn from the general fund.

There are thirty-five total teachers at the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school and all of them are considered highly qualified according to state standards in Oklahoma. Teachers are trained and certified for AP (Advanced Placement) courses. The school has three certified principals. The feedback indicators already in place within the school include: 1) EOI (End of Instruction Oklahoma State test results, 2) PSAT (Preliminary Scholastic Aptitude Test) results, 3) ACT (American College Testing) results, 4) ACT/PLAN test results, 5) AP (Advanced Placement) test results, 6) Parent service hours, 7) Graduation rates, 8) API (Academic Performance Index), and 9) Student service hours. The physical materials and supplies including instructional resources available for consumption include: 1) College-level textbooks school-wide, 2) Six Promethean Boards, 3) Twenty Kindles, 4) Forty-four laptop computers (for student use), 5) Twenty desk-top computers (for student use), and 6) A full service library.

The curricular standards for the charter school include AP (Advanced Placement), AVID (Advancement Via Individual Determination), and Oklahoma PASS (Priority Academic Student Skills) standards. Feedback from various constituent groups has been positive. The school has received many state and national recognitions. The numerous awards and recognitions received include: the ACE Reward (Achieving Classroom

Excellence) the past two years, a 4.0 GPA (grade point average) on the newly implemented and controversial A-F Oklahoma State Report Card, and recently a Blue Ribbon School Award in 2013 by the United States Department of Education. During April and May of each school year Oklahoma End of Instruction (EOI) tests and AP exams are administered.

Charter school's throughputs. The throughputs or day-to-day processes of this award winning inner-city college preparatory public charter high school include all teachers and administrators receiving and applying professional development strategies from the Advanced Via Individual Determination (AVID) Organization and the College Board Advanced Placement Organization (AP). All teachers and administrators are required to attend Advancement Via Individual Determination (AVID) professional development. AVID teaching strategies are utilized in every classroom. Cornell Note-Taking strategies and Socratic-Seminar teaching strategies are an example of the range of teaching methods utilized throughout every class. AVID strategies are also utilized by teachers and counselors in the college going process for students. Teacher and counselor involvement are two very important social capital variables measured by the school. Students are required to bring an agenda to class to write down and organize their homework and assignments. Teachers check to make sure that students are writing their homework assignments down in their agendas (AVID, 2012).

The College Board Advanced Placement curriculum is utilized school-wide and is part of the mission for the school. Teachers and administrators are required to attend College Board professional development. Advisory courses are also utilized throughout the four years a student is enrolled in order to build student and teacher relationships.

Mentoring, a social capital variable the school utilizes in the college aspiration and attainment process is extremely important to the mission of the school. There are many programs for mentoring that include AVID mentors, an agreement with an energy company that has employee volunteers mentor the students, and a senior capstone course, which is the culminating experience of their time where the student job shadows and is mentored by a professional. Senior capstone instructors review and require seniors to fill-out college applications (at least three), FASFA information, and set-up a job shadow mentoring experience for the spring semester, and participate in a variety of other etiquette and college related experiences.

Staff hiring procedures includes attending local job fairs and selecting employees passionate about education. The principals' interview and offer employment opportunities to prospective employees. Background and reference checks are completed for all prospective employees. Prospective employees are recommended for hire and approved by the school board. Leadership decision making processes include weekly principal meetings and monthly board meetings. The school has a Head Principal, and two assistant principals: one assistant principal for 9^{th} and 10^{th} grades, and one assistant principal for 11^{th} and 12^{th} grades. Additionally, there two counselors one for the 9^{th} and 10^{th} grades and another for the 11^{th} and 12^{th} grades. Support services and schooling extensions include partnerships with a well-known eye institute that provides free eye screening and glasses to all new students and a partnership with an energy company that mentors students. The charter school also provides sports, clubs, and organizations for students.

Charter school's outputs. Finally, the outputs for the school are explicitly articulated yearly goals, which include a variety of organizational and individual performance and value measures, thus, employing the rationale behind utilizing Schalock's (2002) methodological pluralism model. Outputs include college acceptance rates, attaining the appropriate test scores for college admissions (ACT & AP test scores). The explicit ACT test score goal set for students is a cumulative average score of 24 for each graduating class. This ACT score goal is based on state universities' ACT acceptance scores.

The school was founded on the premise that taking Advanced Placement courses and utilizing AVID college aspiration strategies would prepare students for college. The school's school-wide goal is for every student to score a 3 or higher on AP exams and by the time a student is a senior they can potentially take as many as five AP courses. The goal is for every senior to take an average of 2 AP tests their senior year. Another yearly goal for the school is that every senior complete three college applications during his or her capstone course. Every senior is also required to complete his or her FASA information during their senior capstone course.

Additionally, there is a required signed agreement known as the Family Expectations Document (see FED, Appendix B) with parents stating that they will serve 25 hours of community service to the school each year. There are no punitive measures for not serving the hours in a volunteer capacity, however, the amount of hours served is reported on student progress reports as an indication of parental involvement. If all the high school's parents (500 families) served 25 hours of service at the school, the total accumulated hour's during the 2012-13 academic year would have been approximately

12,500 hours of service. Additionally, students also sign an agreement that they will serve 30 hours of community service through charitable organizations, and/or association membership. If all the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school's students (500) served and documented their hours, the 2012-2013 academic year total would have been approximately 15,000 hours served. Both parent and student service hours are documented in a notebook at the school and reported by the parents. Students are required to attach signed documentation of their charitable hours to the school office where they are recorded. The documentation contains a reflection section asking students to describe how the community service experience personally impacted them.

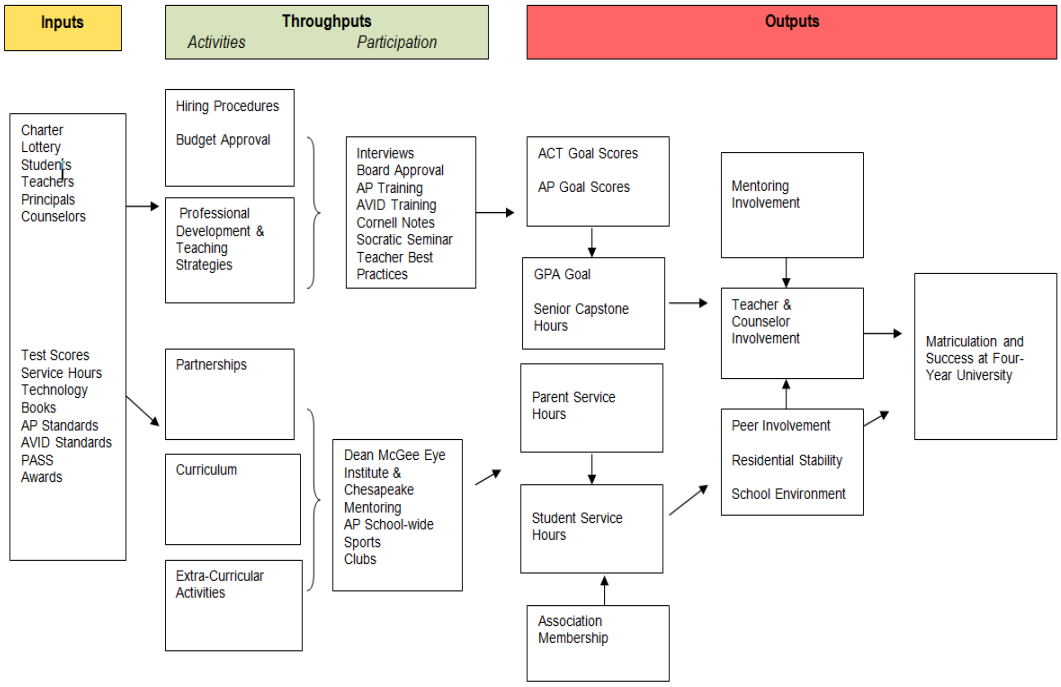
A final explicit yearly goal for the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school is a job mentoring/shadowing program that is required for seniors during the spring semester, one of the many mentoring components of the school. Seniors are required to job shadow an employer over the last seven weeks of school during their seventh-hour senior capstone course. Twenty-eight hours total of job shadowing is required for passing credit in the senior capstone course. This logic model explicitly narrates the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school's inputs, throughputs, and outputs that contribute to development of the social capital needed for student success at a four-year college or university.

Figure 4.2

Logic Model for Inner-City College-Preparatory Public Charter High School

(*Figure 4.2 continues*)

(*Figure 4.2 continued*)



Operationalized Outcome Measures

Schalock (2002) explains that outcomes should not be randomly picked from a hat but rather there needs to be a rationale for the selection of specific outcomes. Outcomes should be selected on the need of accountability and continuous improvement and the selection of outcomes should be consistent with the Methodological Pluralism Model that is presented by Schalock (2002) (see Figure 1, page 85), which is a summary of the four outcome-selection categories. The selection of criteria for outcome indicators for this study is based on a number of the examples listed by Schalock (2002).

The selected indicator outcomes for this effectiveness evaluation were acceptable to the promoters and stakeholders of the inner-city college-preparatory public charter high school. The explicit goals mentioned above and their representations in the Logic Model are the fundamental purposes for establishing the school. Many of the selected

outcome indicators are measurable and the instrumentation used to measure the indicators conform to established psychometric standards. The outcome indicators selected in for examination are timely, reflected major individual and organizational goals, can be measured longitudinally, are accurate, culturally sensitive and multidimensional, and are connected logically to the program (Schalock, 2002). The charter school's organizational and individual performance and value outcomes are consistent with many of Putnam's (2000) social capital index variables. The charter school emphasizes civic engagement, association membership, mentoring, parental participation, teacher and counselor involvement through its Logic Model, and these activities are explicit, yearly measureable goals. The proposed goals are theorized to promote higher student achievement on standardized tests and to develop the social capital competency and proficiency needed for college matriculation at a four-year college or university (realizing college aspiration and actualization).

A number of organizational and individual performance and value indicators were utilized. This was done so as to create a clearer picture of the effectiveness of the charter school in closing the achievement and opportunity gap for disadvantaged students. The organizational and individual performance and value indicators utilized in this study ultimately assisted in answering questions about the level of difference the college preparatory charter school made for low-income and minority students in relation to college aspirations and actualizations. Essentially, the relationship of social capital measures with other school output measures were analyzed in light of determining organizational effectiveness toward college aspiration and actualizations for students.

The organizational performance indicators selected for this evaluation were based on four of Schalock's (2002) suggested outcome indicators, college matriculation rates, student competency, student proficiency, and parental involvement. Specifically, seven outcome measures were operationalized for the quadrant from a much larger range of possible indicators and all taken from the senior class of academic year 2012-2013:

1) College Matriculation Data

2) The Total Number of Advanced Placement Courses Taken

3) Advanced Placement Scores (Competency)

4) American College Test (ACT/Proficiency)

5) Grade Point Averages (GPA)

6) Parental Involvement (Subscale on PCSCS)

The rationale for the first four operationalized organizational performance measures, college matriculation data, Advanced Placement courses taken, Advanced Placement scores, and American College Test scores were partly selected based upon the state and national problems discussed earlier concerning college preparation or the lack thereof for poor and minority youth. As mentioned earlier, there is overwhelming research indicating that the most substantial barriers to four-year college enrollment are a lack of academic preparation and a lack of access to support and information about college enrollment which prevent low-income and minority students from enrolling in four-year colleges (Cabrera & La Nasa, 2000, 2001; McDonough, 2004; Perna, 2000; Freeman, 1997; Hamrick & Stage, 2004; McDonough, 1997, 2004, 2005; Perna & Swail, 2001). Additionally, these test results are important benchmark data points for the school

as students prepare for a four-year college or university. These operationalized organizational performance indicators have explicit yearly goals attached to each of them.

Parental involvement is an explicit yearly goal of the organization and an outcome measure in Schalock's (2002) methodological pluralism model that is easily quantified as a subscale measure on the Pre-College Social Capital Survey (see PCSCS, Appendix A). As mentioned earlier, parental involvement has been identified by many researchers as being associated with numerous positive outcomes for youth and college attendance. Cabrera and La Nasa (2000), Horn (1998), and Perna (2000) found that parental involvement increases youth aspirations to attend college and actual enrollment. Higher grades (Lee, 1993; Muller, 1993; Zick, Bryant, & Osterbacka, 2001), higher eighth-grade mathematics and reading achievement (Lee, 1993; Zick, Bryant, & Osterbacka, 2001), lower rates of behavioral problems (Lee, 1993; Zick, Bryant, & Osterbacka, 2001), and lower likelihood of high school dropout and truancy (McNeal, 1999) are positively associated with parental involvement. Since parental involvement is associated with higher grades (Lee, 1993; Muller, 1993; Zick et al., 2001) and several of the explicit goals of the school are to increase student proficiency and competency on student GPA, the ACT, and AP exams for college preparation, it was appropriate to utilize these scores as organizational performance outcomes within Schalock's (2002) evaluation science framework.

Organizational Value Measures

According to Schalock (2002), "Quality in the 21st century must start with the customer and current definitions of quality have been rooted in the postindustrial, knowledge-based society" (p. 131). The worldwide growth of service economies and the

information revolution have elevated the importance of customer service. Since these services change over time, Schalock (2002) suggests that they need to be flexible to accommodate the ever-changing consumer and his or her demands. The development of new outcome-based models face these new challenges to evaluation and accurately assessing organizational value outcomes of programs is changing the way that school leaders deliver services. Charter schools particularly fall victim to this consumer-driven demand. New "parent trigger" laws throughout the nation are an example of such ideologically-driven customer satisfaction focus on a particular "product" and demanding something else (OSSBA, 2012).

The organizational value indicator suggested by Schalock (2002) is customer satisfaction with program services and in this evaluation science study customer satisfaction is operationalized as student satisfaction with program services for college preparation. Specifically, Mack's (2012) PCSCS survey (see PCSCS, Appendix A) has a number of subscales that were utilized to collect data on student satisfaction with the charter schools services as they pertain to college preparation. There are four subscales on the PCSCS survey that quantitatively measured student satisfaction and were operationalized for the organizational value quadrant with responses taken from the senior class of academic year 2012-13:

1) Teacher Involvement (concerning college preparation)
2) School Counselor Involvement (concerning college preparation)
3) Mentoring Involvement (concerning college preparation)
4) Specific Questions about the School as a Whole (concerning college preparation)

Emphasizing the importance of teachers and counselors in a student's life is explained by Ogbu (1978) in his conclusion that student academic failure among at-risk student groups result in student shutdown, as students do not continue to try to complete assigned academic tasks. "At-risk" students benefit from *personal* connections to faculty who provide access to resources, knowledge, and encouragement conducive to achievement (Stanton-Salazar, 2001). Institutional agents such as counselors and teachers reinforce student autonomy over their education and future social mobility (Stanton-Salazar, 2001).This outcome indicator is important to the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school in terms of developing social capital for all its students. The overall mission of this charter school is to prepare students for success at a four-year college or university.

Individual performance measure. Citizenship, or a sense of personal responsibility, was used as an individual performance indicator that was appropriate for college preparation, and is an explicit yearly goal of the school, and is based on Schalock's (2002) model. Citizenship was measured quantitatively in three important ways. Citizenship hours were tracked as an individual performance measure by the school through parent and student service hours and it was reported on the PCSC survey (see PCSCS, Appendix A) as a subscale question under "association membership." As mentioned earlier, participation in associations such as nonpolitical organizations may also be considered as an indicator of collective social capital (Putnam, 1996). Association membership, which is measured as the level of participation in youth groups, clubs, organizations, sports, and other extra-curricular activities, also serves as an indicator of individual and collective social capital. According to Portes (2000), participation in these

activities reflects an individual's desire to 1) acquire and/or strengthen relations with peers and professionals with similar interests, 2) develop and enhance particular knowledge and skill related to the activity, 3) acquiesce to social norms, and 4) to comply with social obligations and expectations.

The operationalized individual performance measures are:

1) Parent Service Hours
2) Student Service Hours
3) Association Membership (PCSCS Subscale)

Individual value measures. Individual value outcomes used to measure the effectiveness of the charter school's program services within Schalock's methodological pluralism model (2002) were a variety of student quality of life factors. The four quality of life factors were quantitatively collected from four subscale measures on the PCSCS (see PCSCS, Appendix A) which investigated social belonging and empowerment/control criterions as they pertain to college preparation. These four operationalized measures on the Pre-College Social Capital Survey (see PCSCS, Appendix A) were questions pertaining to relationships with peers, media usage, residential stability, and school environment questions.

Residential stability is an important student quality of life factor that can have an enormous impact on schooling outcomes. Putnam (2000) made the following observations of Elijah Anderson's (1999) ethnography entitled, *Code of the Streets*, in which Anderson made the conclusion about the demise of generational leadership in urban areas. Anderson (1999) described the steady erosion of "moral cohesion" in inner-city neighborhoods as a result of numerous economic and social factors. The decline of

social capital in these neighborhoods is directly linked to the decline of financial and human capital (Anderson, 1999).

Individual Value Measures Include:

1) Peer Relationships (as it pertains to college preparation/PCSCS subscale)
2) Media Use (PCSCS subscale measure)
3) School Environment (PCSCS subscale measure)
4) Residential Stability (PCSCS subscale measure)

Holistic Evaluation

Evaluating the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school's organizational performance outcomes by examining college matriculation data, the number of Advanced Placement courses taken, Advanced Placement scores, American College Test scores, students grade point averages, and parental involvement as a subscale measure on the PCSCS (see PCSCS, Appendix A) provided both descriptive and inferential assessments of the organization's performance. The organizational performance measures also addressed many of the barriers that low-income and minority youth students experience locally and nationally concerning post-secondary educational attainment. The organizational value measures of teacher, counselor, and mentoring involvement in the college aspiration process were appropriate as well for this evaluation science study.

The individual performance measures were particularly important to the conceptual questions pertaining to social capital development in this evaluation science study. Parents and students civic engagement as promoted by the mission of the school were examined in terms of parent and student service hours, and association membership.

Finally, the individual value measures of student quality of life factors were measured by analyzing separate subscale measures of the PCSCS (see PCSCS, Appendix A) concerning peer relationships, media use, the school environment, and residential stability.

Overall, the quadrants making up the evaluation science framework provide a holistic picture and effectiveness assessment of the inner-city college-preparatory public charter high school. All outcomes, taken both separately and together, provide a thorough appraisal of the charter school and whether it is effectively accomplishing its goals and stated objectives. The goals and objectives of the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school culminate in the development of social capital networks which assist students in postsecondary educational attainment. The evaluation of these goals and its holistic assessment also address local and national problems facing low-income and minority students as it pertains to college preparation.

In an effort to determine if there were any relationships between social capital measures, student achievement, and civic engagement the Pre-College Social Capital Survey (see PCSCS, Appendix A) was administered to the senior class of 2013 that had a total of 101 students, all of whom consented and participated in the evaluation science study. The selection of this senior class was based on the rationale that it marked the tenth anniversary of the inner-city college preparatory charter high school. The Pre-College Social Capital Survey (see PCSCS, Appendix A) measured student responses in the areas of association membership, parental involvement, peer relationships, teacher involvement, school counselor involvement, mentoring, media use, school environment, and residential stability. Collected survey data were analyzed using Statistical Package

for the Social Sciences or (SPSS) software to determine the following parameters: an inner-city college preparatory public charter high school's effectiveness in reaching its pre-established, explicit goals: 1) organizational performance and value goals and 2) individual performance and value goals. The evaluation determined whether there were statistically significant differences in organizational performance and value and individual performance and value results between gender, socio-economic and ethnic groups in the senior class and if there were any significant relationships between measures of social capital, civic engagement, and student achievement results.

Organizational Performance Outcomes

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effectiveness of the inner-city college-preparatory public charter high school's organizational performance/value and individual performance/value outcomes pertaining to the social capital development of its students and whether the organization is meeting its stated goals and objectives. The outcomes measured for the organizational performance quadrant were:

1) College Matriculation Data

2) Advanced Placement Courses Taken

3) Advanced Placement Scores (Competency)

4) American College Test (ACT/Proficiency)

5) Grade Point Averages (GPA)

6) Parental Involvement (Subscale on PCSCS)

College matriculation data was obtained through student submitted college acceptance letters to principals and counselors, scholarship letters, and then confirmed utilizing the National Student Clearinghouse database. The number of Advanced

Placement Courses taken, Advanced Placement Scores, American College Test scores, students' grade point averages, and parental involvement subscale on the PCSCS were reported to the school. These data was analyzed using SPSS to provide descriptive statistics to the school. A one-way ANOVA was conducted on three of the outcome measures from this quadrant to determine if the charter school was closing the achievement gap. These data points provided a thorough picture of organizational performance. The important measures of organizational performance mentioned in this quadrant are major foundational goals of the organization and outcomes that school leaders are concerned with as it pertains to college preparation. These outcomes were descriptively compared within three groups: 1) race/ethnicity 2) socio-economic status (free and reduced lunches) and 3) gender. The outcomes of the three groups were also compared to the overall explicit yearly goals set by the school.

Organizational Value Outcomes

The important outcomes for this quadrant that contributed to the overall assessment of the school were three very important social capital variables that were operationalized in this evaluation:

1) Teacher Involvement (concerning college preparation)
2) School Counselor Involvement (concerning college preparation)
3) Mentoring Involvement (concerning college preparation)
4) Specific Questions about the School as a Whole (concerning college preparation)

The Pre-College Social Capital Survey (see PCSCS, Appendix A) was utilized as a valid and reliable rating scale for determination of the satisfaction with teacher, counselor, and

mentoring involvement for college preparation. Descriptive statistical comparisons were provided for the various responses by gender, socio-economic status, and ethnicity.

Individual Performance Outcomes

Citizenship and civic engagement are important goals of the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school. As mentioned earlier, students and parents sign a Family Expectation Document (see FED, Appendix B) agreeing to serve their school and communities upon enrollment. The individual performance outcome measures were:

1) Parent Service Hours
2) Student Service Hours
3) Association Membership (PCSCS Subscale)

Association membership is a subscale with many questions asked on the Pre-College Social Capital Survey (see PCSCS, Appendix A) and the results of this subscale were compared descriptively between the three groups in the senior class; gender, socio-economic status, and race/ethnicity. The purpose of evaluating student and parent service hours was based on the school's Family Expectation Document (see FED, Appendix B) that students and parents agree to engage in school and community service hours. In order to effectively evaluate the charter school's service and civic engagement component, a t-Test was utilized to provide comparative descriptive statistics to the school's officials.

Individual Value Outcomes

Student quality-of-life factors were evaluated in the final quadrant. The quality of life factors for students were:

1) Peer Relationships (as it pertains to college preparation/PCSCS subscale)

2) Media Use (PCSCS subscale measure)

3) School Environment (PCSCS subscale measure)

4) Residential Stability (PCSCS subscale measure)

These outcomes listed are social capital variables important to college preparation and important to school leaders in this evaluation science study. These personal appraisals of quality of life factors were asked on the PCSC survey (see PCSCS, Appendix A). The outcomes of these quality of life factors within the school were also compared descriptively among the three-groups of gender, socio-economic status, and race/ethnicity. Finally, this evaluation explored the conceptual question as to whether the social capital development of students within the school made a difference in the college preparation of all student groups in the study. Two linear regressions were conducted to determine if a statistical relationship existed between social capital and a variety of the outcomes in the evaluation.

Research Questions

This outcome-based effectiveness evaluation is primarily concerned with the inner-city college-preparatory public charter high school's organizational and individual outcomes in comparison to the organization's explicit goals driven by the following specified research questions:

1. Is the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school effectively reaching its organizational performance and value and individual performance and value goals for all students?

2. Are there statistically significant differences in organizational performance and value and individual performance and value results between student gender, socio-economic status, and racial/ethnic classification in the 2013 senior class?
3. Are there any relationships between social capital, civic engagement, and student achievement results for the senior class at the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school?

Additional Methodological Issues

This outcome-based effectiveness evaluation assessed the effectiveness of the organizational performance/value and individual performance/value outcomes for the senior class during the 2012-2013 academic year.

Figure 4.3

Outcome-based Effectiveness Evaluation Outcomes

Organizational Performance Outcomes • College Matriculation Data • The number of AP Courses Taken • AP Test Scores • ACT scores • Grade Point Averages • Parental Involvement	**Organizational Value Outcomes** • Teacher Involvement • Counselor Involvement • Mentor Involvement • Charter School Evaluation
Individual Performance Outcomes • Parent Service Hours • Student Service Hours • Association Membership	**Individual Value Outcomes** • Peer Relationships • Media Usage • School Environment • Residential Stability

An analysis of the organization's explicit goals pertaining to the aforementioned social capital outcomes for college preparation was quantitatively conducted and

comparisons among gender, socio-economic status, and ethnicity are describe in the next chapter. The Pre-College Social Capital Survey (PCSCS) survey was administered to the senior class of 2013 in their senior capstone courses. In culminating this evaluation science study, a Multi-correlation Regression Analysis (MCR) sought to address the relationship and influence of a range of variables on social capital so as to determine inferred school-based causal effects.

The Pre-College Social Capital Survey (PCSCS) served as an appropriate measurement for the inner-city college-preparatory public charter high school (see PCSCS, Appendix A). The PCSC survey addressed and measured many of the goals in the quadrants of organizational and individual performance and value domains within Schalock's (2002) outcome-based methodological pluralism model. An analysis of other appropriate extant data was utilized and linked to student responses on the PCSCS (see PCSCS, Appendix A) in order to determine organizational performance/value and individual performance/value effectiveness. This evaluation science study was a "within-group comparison" which compared the effectiveness of achieving or not achieving specified school goals; many that pertained to the construct of social capital theory among gender, socio-economic status, and race/ethnicity.

The rationale for a survey as one of the preferred types of data collection was the economy of the design and the rapid turnaround in data collection. There was also the advantage of identifying attributes from the students' perspective. The survey administration was a cross-sectional administration with data collected at one point in time (Creswell, 2009). The entire senior class consented to participation in the evaluation study marking the tenth anniversary of the school. The Pre-College Social Capital Survey

(see PCSCS, Appendix A) is a much more reliable and valid instrument than most rating scales or customer service surveys used in typical outcome-based evaluations. The Pre-College Social Capital Survey was found to be valid and reliable in another research study of college preparatory STEM programs (Mack, 2012). The PCSCS has 63 items. It incorporates a Likert-type scale that consists of five responses that include a) strongly disagree; b) disagree; c) neither agree/not disagrees; d) agree; e) and strongly agree. There are nine subscales and a separate subscale with questions specifically about the charter school which were counted as a social capital measure as part of the composite social capital average for the senior class. Each of the nine subscale sections has three to ten items in the PCSCS, the subscales include association membership, parental involvement, peer relationships, teacher involvement, school counselor involvement, mentoring, media use, school environment, and residential stability (Mack, 2010). Each of these subscales is a social capital indicator (Dika & Singh, 2002).

The Pre-College Social Capital Survey (see PCSCS, Appendix A) is a variation of the Differential Status Identity Scale (DSIS) developed by Drs. Michael T. Brown, Mindi Thompson, and Nadya Fouad (Thompson & Subich, 2011; see Appendix A). The PCSCS was utilized in an impact evaluation of a college-preparatory STEM program in California (Mack, 2012). The internal consistency reliability (alpha) of the PCSCS total score was .97. Internal consistency is usually measured with a Cronbach's alpha, a statistic calculated from the pairwise correlation between items. A reported statistical score of .97 is an excellent indicator of internal consistency (Thompson & Subich, 2011).

Operationalized Definition of Variables within the Pre-College Social Capital Survey

The PCSCS measures nine survey variables (see PCSCS, Appendix A), including a variable about overall school effectiveness. Association membership has been operationalized in previous studies through eight items that measure how often participants engage in religious organizations, charity or volunteer organizations, ethnic or racial organizations, a neighborhood association, school-related organizations, political clubs or organizations, social clubs, and youth groups (Thompson & Subich, 2011). Parental involvement, peer relationships, teacher involvement, school counselor involvement, and mentoring variables measure discussions between the child, each respective institutional agent, parents, and friends on course, college, and career options (Thompson & Subich, 2011; Mack, 2010).

Parental involvement incorporated parental activity with the child and socialization with others. The peer relationships subscale uses the same six items from the parental involvement section. Teacher involvement includes guest speakers being invited to the classroom and group assignments. Tutoring options are part of the composite measure of school counselor involvement (Thompson & Subich, 2011; Mack, 2012). Doing school work with mentors, socialization with other role models, job-shadowing activities, and regular mentor engagement are included in the measurement of mentoring and are part of the goals of the inner-city college-preparatory public charter high school. Media use is operationalized through 10 items as to whether the following are used for information or entertainment: television, newspaper, internet, radio, and books (Thompson & Subich, 2011; Mack, 2012). School environment is assessed by

evaluating educational delivery, extra-curricular activities, and school safeguards. Residential stability is measured by neighborhood violence, stability, and friendliness (Thompson & Subich, 2011; Mack, 2012). Using the Likert-type scale implemented earlier in the instrument, students were asked to complete five additional questions including how well the school prepared them for college, increased their social network/number of friends, increased their access to mentors, exposed them to potential college majors and careers, and assists them academically. Demographic characteristics of respondents were collected on the survey as well (see PCSCS, Appendix A).

Population

The site of this study consists of a small inner-city, co-educational, college preparatory charter public high school in a Midwestern city with a population of approximately 580,000 people. The population for this study included 101 total students in their senior year during the 2012-2013 academic year. The entire senior class at the charter high school consented to the study along with parents who had children under the age of eighteen. There were a total of 39 Caucasian students, 39 African American students, 11 Hispanic students, 6 Asian students, 1 American Indian student, and 5 students classified as Other due to a dual ethnicity or demographic classification that was not available for their status in the senior class. The senior class was made up of 60 females and 41 males. The socio-economic status of the senior class was made up of 40 students receiving free and reduced lunch assistance and 61 students not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance. There were no students receiving special education services in the senior class. This population did not have any reportable data in this evaluation science study.

Overall the school had 500 students and it was a majority-minority school with 37 percent African American, 17 percent Hispanic, 40 percent Caucasian, 3 percent Asian, and 3 percent Other. Students' receiving free and reduced lunch assistance consisted of 53 percent of the total population. The school is located in Midwestern medium sized city and is chartered through the largest school district in that city.

Table 4.1

Racial and Ethnic, Socio-Economic, and Gender Make-Up of Senior Class

Racial and Ethnic Make-Up of Senior Class	Number of Students
Caucasians	39
African Americans	39
Hispanics	11
Asians	6
American Indian	1
Others	5
Total	**101**
Socio-Economic Status of Senior Class	**Number of Students**
Not Free/Reduced	61
Free/Reduced	40
Total	**101**
Gender Make-Up of Senior Class	**Number of Students**
Males	41
Females	60
Total	**101**

Limitations to the Study

There are several threats to internal validity concerning the administration of the survey as evidenced in other studies that can affect the extent to which the results can be trusted (Thompson & Subich, 2011; Mack, 2012). The most substantial limitation to this

study is the reporting of unbiased results as the principal investigator was also an employee of the school. To alleviate the potential of becoming a pseudo-evaluation this principal investigator chose to conduct an evaluation science study through the theoretical lens of social capital theory. The emphasis on specific social capital questions and previous social capital literature anchors this evaluation science study. This theoretical lens provided transparency and avoided becoming an evaluation and report completely based on test scores. Typically, limiting factors to quantitative studies also include maturation, history, attrition, selection, regression, testing, and instrumentation. Since part of the evaluation science study was a within-group comparison based on extant data and a single questionnaire administered only once, the aging/development of the target population over time was not relevant (Creswell, 2009). Another internal threat to consider was the effect of testing referring to differences in behavior as a result of the observation technique. Since the survey was only administered once, and was confidentiality maintained, this effect was minimized (Creswell, 2009; see PCSCS, Appendix A). Evaluation consistency remained objective as point values were predetermined for the Likert-type scale being used within the instrument (Creswell, 2009; See SPSS Coding, Appendix C).

Threats to External Validity

Potential threats to external validity that can influence the results of this evaluation include: selection-treatment interaction; multiple-treatment interference; specificity of variables; treatment diffusion; experimenter effects; and reactive arrangements (Creswell, 2009). As previously stated, the group was only involved in one self-administered questionnaire, and therefore was not predisposed to assessment topics

as a respondent would be in a pre-test/post-test design (Creswell, 2009). Poorly operationalized variables can make it difficult to interpret data and procedures for generalization (Creswell, 2009). As stated earlier and explained at length, the PCSCS is comprised of nine variables: association membership; parental involvement; peer relationships; teacher involvement; school counselor involvement; mentoring; media use; school environment; and residential stability (see PCSCS, Appendix A). Each of these variables was operationalized since each section of the instrument has a composite score. The social capital index is the composite average/mean of each of the measured variables (Creswell, 2009).

Experimenter effects were limited during the administration of this study. Since the PCSCS is a self-administered questionnaire, conscious or unconscious actions by the researcher had little to no effect upon respondent performance and responses. Simply being in a study can influence respondents in such a way that they may not provide authentic information (Creswell, 2009). Since the instrument was a self-administered questionnaire and did not require face-to-face interactions that are prevalent in interviews and observations, this evaluator believes this potential threat was minimized (Creswell, 2009).

Data Gathering

The consent process included an informational meeting with the senior class about the study and then a two week waiting period for students and parents to think about the research project. This evaluation science study investigated many of the pre-existing data used by school leaders at the school site and took the analysis further and included an evaluation for sociological implications. The school leaders at the inner-city

college preparatory public charter high school annually collect student test scores, parent and student service hours, and customer service surveys from students. Consent was obtained by the principal investigator to use data typically collected by the school to be used in a research project for feedback for organizational performance/value and individual performance/value effectiveness. This research project utilized a variety of statistical methods which are not typically used by the school to determine organizational and individual performance and value feedback.

The principal investigator did not have direct contact with students concerning the research study and evaluation except during the consent process. Students were administered the Pre-College Social Capital Survey (see PCSCS, Appendix A) during their senior capstone course as a class project to provide feedback on how the charter school can improve its services. The pre-existing data used in the study were part of the normal collection process and functioning of the school (test scores, grade point averages, and service hours). Consent was obtained by the principal investigator to utilize the data for purposes of a research project and for feedback for the school. There was sufficient time to review the consent form (two weeks). There was sufficient time to answer any questions and/or address concerns since parents had direct access to the principal investigator for this study since the researcher is also an employee of the school.

The principal investigator was given permission by the charter school's board of education and head of school to obtain consent, assent, and parental permission and to gain access and report data for the purposes of an evaluation study on those that consented and gave permission to be in the study. Consent, assent, and parental permission were obtained in order to gain access and report student grade point averages,

ACT, Advanced Placement scores, survey results, and parent and student service hours. These data were reported directly to the school site. As an employee of the school exposure to these data points are a typical function of the job however this data could not be utilized in terms of an evaluation study without consent, assent, and parental permission.

Treatment of the Data

The data collected were educational records reviewed in a private area. Data were coded and the data key destroyed at the end of the study. Student identifiers were not included with survey results although survey results were linked to grade point averages, ACT scores, AP scores, and student and parent service hours. The data were coded so as not to reveal any student or family directly, and the data key was kept separately and securely to ensure participant anonymity. Data were kept in a locked file cabinet in a locked office. Electronic data were protected with a password and data was stored on a secure network.

This chapter detailed the procedures and methodology for this study. Attention was given to the four domains (quadrants) of Schalock's (2002) Methodological Pluralism Model, research questions, population, and research instrumentation. The survey instrument contains subscales that are supported in educational and sociological research literature for measuring social capital. Procedures were described for data collection, security, and analysis. The next chapter reports the evaluation science results and results from the analysis of data that address the research questions that guided the study.

CHAPTER FIVE

Results

The purpose of this evaluation science study was to provide organizational and individual performance and value feedback to the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school. This study examined the effectiveness of the school in reaching its explicit goals pertaining to social capital development, student achievement, and civic engagement. The population in this study consisted of 101 high school students at an inner-city college preparatory public charter high school in a Midwestern mid-sized urban area. This evaluation was a within group study, which evaluated the extent to which all students in the senior class at the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school were effectively reaching organizational and individual performance and value goals.

The teachers of the senior capstone courses disseminated a paper-and-pencil survey (PCSCS, see Appendix A) to their senior students at the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school. All 101 students completed the survey. The principal investigator for this study linked student achievement and program participation data to the results of Pre-College Social Capital Survey, or PCSCS (see, Appendix A) which measured student social capital levels in relation to their demographic information. Demographics included race, gender, and socio-economic status (see SPSS Coding for Survey Questionnaire, Appendix C). More importantly, the survey was used to identify differences in social capital among race, socio-economic status, gender, and to explore measures of social capital's and its statistical relationship with parent service hours, student service hours, and student achievement operationalized as grade point average,

ACT scores, number of Advanced Placement tests taken and Advanced Placement Scores.

The data collected from the senior class of the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school were used to answer the following questions:

1. Is the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school effectively reaching its organizational performance and value and individual performance and value goals for all students?
2. Are there statistically significant differences in organizational performance and value and individual performance and value results between student gender, socio-economic status, and racial/ethnic classification in the senior class?
3. Are there any relationships between social capital, civic engagement, and student achievement results for the senior class at the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school?

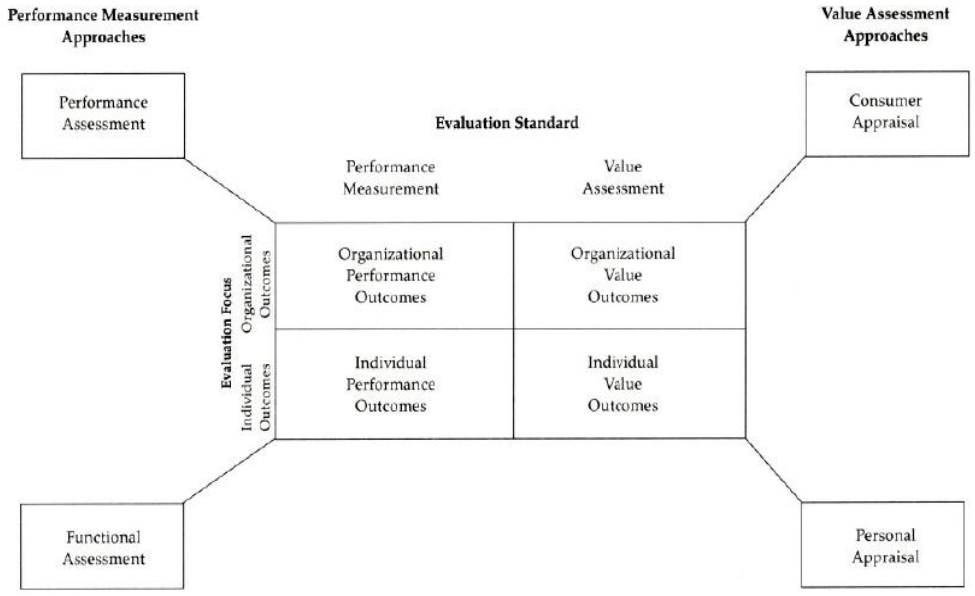
This chapter has five major sections. The first section consists of an overview of the descriptive statistic and ANOVA results of the organizational performance quadrant. The significance level for the ANOVA tests in this evaluation study was set much lower than the $p = .05$ level, since three ANOVA's were conducted within different quadrant analyses. In order to avoid a Type I error .05/3 set the new $p = .01625$. The second section contains descriptive statistics for the organizational value quadrant. The third section reports descriptive statistics and T-test results for the individual performance quadrant. The fourth section provides descriptive statistics for the individual value quadrant. The fifth section expounds upon the results of the Multi-correlation Regression

Analysis (MCR) that addressed the relationship and influence of variables on social capital suggesting school-based causal effects.

Organizational Performance Results

Figure 5.1

Outcome-based Methodological Pluralism Model of an Evaluation Science Study



The results of the organizational performance quadrant for the following organizational performance measures are discussed in detail throughout this section.

1) College Matriculation Data

2) Advanced Placement Courses Taken

3) Advanced Placement Scores (Competency)

4) American College Test (ACT/Proficiency)

5) Grade Point Averages (GPA)

6) Parental Involvement (Subscale on PCSCS)

College Matriculation Results

The primary goal and mission of the school in this evaluation is to prepare students for success at a four-year college or university.

Table 5.1

College Matriculation results for the Inner-City College Preparatory Public Charter High School

College Matriculation results for the Inner-City College Preparatory Public Charter High School

	Percentage
No College	6%
Two-Year College	26%
Four-Year College or University	69%

Note. N=101

Figure 5.1 provides data for the entire senior class at the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school *N*=101. Percentages of the total population are provided and categorized in three groups; no college reported two-year college and four-year college or university. College acceptance data was verified by school officials and the principal investigator of this evaluation science study. Students submit their college acceptance letters in order to have their pictures posted on a bulletin board in the school hallway with a ledger underneath listing the school/s they planned on attending based upon the acceptance letter. University acceptance data were also collected based on information of scholarships received from particular colleges or universities for specific students. Ultimately, college matriculation data were finalized by tracking students through the National Student Clearinghouse.

Table 5.1 indicates that ninety four percent of the students at the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school attended college in the fall of 2013. This is an impressive statistic and demonstrates to some degree that the school is effectively reaching its goal to prepare students for college. However, sixty-nine percent of the senior class matriculated to a "four-year university or college." Essentially, preparing students for success at a four-year college or university is the ultimate goal of the school. The rising cost of college may be a specific challenge to this goal. Students living in the Midwestern mid-sized urban district are able to attend a neighboring two-year community college free of tuition. Many students utilize this opportunity to curtail the cost of college which may partly explain why twenty-six percent of the senior class matriculated to a two-year college.

Table 5.2

College Matriculation Percentages of the Inner-City College Preparatory Public Charter High School by Race/Ethnicity, Gender, and Socio-Economic Status

College Matriculation Percentages of the Inner-City College Preparatory Public Charter High School by Race/Ethnicity, Gender, and Socio-Economic Status

Characteristics	Total	No College	Two-Year College	Four-Year College/ University
Females	60	2%	25%	73%
Males	41	12%	26%	60%
African Americans	39	10%	17%	71%
Caucasians	39	5%	28%	69%
Hispanics	11	0%	45%	55%
Asians	6	0%	0%	100%
American Indian	1	0%	100%	0%
Others	5	0%	40%	60%
Not Free & Reduced	61	5%	26%	68%
Free & Reduced	40	7%	25%	67%

Note. N=101

Table 5.2 depicts the disaggregated population characteristics by percentages for college matriculation data of the senior class $N = 101$. The data is disaggregated by gender, race/ethnicity, and socio-economic status. The percentages are for three separate categories no college: two-year college and four-year college or university matriculation. Analyzing only the female population $n = 60$, nearly 2 percent within that population group did not pursue any post-secondary education. Specifically, within the female population 25 percent of females enrolled at a two-year college and 73 percent of females enrolled at a four-year college or university. The college matriculation results for females in comparison to the entire senior class population $N = 101$ indicates that only 1 percent females did not pursue post-secondary education., 15 percent of females enrolled at a two-year college and 44 percent enrolled at a four-year college or university.

Examining specifically the male population in the senior class $n = 41$, revealed that 12 percent of males did not pursue any post-secondary education, 26 percent enrolled at a two-year college and 60 percent of males enrolled at a four-year college or university. The college matriculation results of the male population in comparison to the entire senior class population $N = 101$ revealed that 5 percent of males did not pursue post-secondary education, 11 percent of males enrolled at a two-year college, and 25 percent enrolled at a four year college or university. The percentage comparisons among gender within the senior class demonstrated that females in the senior class of 2013 enrolled at a four year university or college at a rate of 19 percent higher than males.

Table 5.2 also provides disaggregated data for college matriculation by racial and ethnic demographics. The two largest racial and ethnic groups within the senior class are African Americans and Whites with an equal population $n = 39$. Specifically analyzing

only the African American population suggested that 10 percent African Americans did not pursue post-secondary education, 17 percent of African Americans enrolled at a two-year college, and 71 percent enrolled at a four-year college or university. The results for college matriculation for African Americans in comparison to the overall population of *N* = 101 reveals that 4 percent of African Americans did not attend any college which is the largest percentage of any ethnic group in the senior class, 7 percent enrolled at a two-year college, and 28 percent enrolled at a four-year college or university. African Americans had the highest number of student enrollment at a four-year university or college with 28 total students.

The White population in the senior class was *n* = 39, and equivalent to the African American population. Specifically, analyzing percentages within only the White population 5 percent of these students did not enroll in any post-secondary institution, 28 percent enrolled in a two-year college, and 69 percent matriculated at a four-year college or university. Whites in comparison to the overall population *N* = 101, 2 percent of White students did not attend any college, 11 percent enrolled at a two-year college and 27 percent matriculated at a four year college or university. Hispanics, Asians, American Indian, and Others (not specifically identifiable to any ethnic group) collectively made up less than 25 percent of the entire senior class population. Interestingly, all students from these particular ethnic groups pursued post-secondary education. The Asian population *n* = 6 all enrolled at a four-year college or university. The majority of Hispanics *n* = 11 enrolled in a four year college or university.

The results for the socio-economic status of the senior class population pertaining to college matriculation favored those students not receiving free and reduced lunch

assistance. Within the student population not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance n = 61, 5 percent did not pursue post-secondary education, 26 percent enrolled at a two-year college, and 68 percent enrolled at a four-year college or university. In comparison to the overall population N = 101, 3 percent of students not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance did not attend a college or university, 16 percent enrolled at a two-year college and 42 percent matriculated at a four-year college or university. Finally, students receiving free and reduced lunch assistance n = 40, 7 percent did not pursue any post-secondary education, 25 percent enrolled at a two-year college, and 67 percent matriculated at a four-year university or college. In comparison to the overall population N=101, students receiving free and reduced lunch assistance had 3 percent that did not go to college, 10 percent enrolled at a two-year college, and 27 percent matriculated at a four year university or college.

Total Number of AP Tests Taken by the Senior Class

The minimum goal for the number of Advanced Placement tests (AP) taken was set by school officials for the senior class. The goal was 202 total AP tests. This number was constructed since the two required AP courses that all senior students take are AP Government and AP English Literature and Composition so this is multiplied by the number of students in each senior class which in this case was N = 101. The following section provides descriptive statistic results for the number of AP tests taken by the senior class at the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school in this evaluation by gender, race/ethnicity, and socio-economic status in order to investigate which groups are meeting the specified school objectives, which groups are not, and to determine cumulative performance.

Table 5.3

Descriptive Statistics for the Number of AP Tests Taken by Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Socio-Economic Status for the Senior Class

Descriptive Statistics of the Number of AP Tests Taken by Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Socio-Economic Status of the Senior Class

AP Tests Demographics	M	SD	Total Populations
Total Senior Class	2.09	1.53	101
Males	2.39	1.51	40
Females	1.88	1.53	61
Caucasians	2.33	1.49	39
African Americans	1.64	1.53	39
Hispanics	2.18	1.32	11
Asians	3.50	1.37	6
American Indian	2.00	-	1
Others	1.80	1.78	5
Not Free/Reduced	2.26	1.51	61
Free/Reduced	1.83	1.55	40

Note. N=101

The total number of Advanced Placement tests taken by the senior class was 211. Students have the opportunity to take 5 Advanced Placement (AP) courses their senior year. In theory, if all students took 5 AP courses and each student took the AP test then it is possible that the total number of AP tests taken could total 505. The overall goal of the school was a minimum of 202 total AP tests taken by the senior class of 2013. This goal was established by multiplying the number of students (101) by the minimum number of required AP courses for seniors. The senior class in this evaluation exceeded that yearly goal with a total of 211 total tests taken (2). School leaders set this organizational performance goal of taking as many AP tests as possible with the belief that exposure to the AP test despite performance will benefit students in college classes.

Table 5.3 provides descriptive statistics for the total number of AP tests taken by gender, ethnicity, and socio-economic status. The mean for the number of AP tests taken and standard deviation for the number of tests taken shows females M = 1.88, SD = 1.53 on average took fewer tests than males M = 2.3, SD = 1.51. Overall, the average number of tests taken M = 2.09. The standard deviation for the total senior class N = 101, SD = 1.53 is small across all three groups, males, females and the overall population.

Table 5.3 also provides descriptive statistics for the number of AP tests taken by students receiving free and reduced lunch assistance n = 40 and students not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance n = 61. The mean number of tests taken by students not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance is slightly higher at M = 2.26, SD = 1.51 than students receiving free and reduced lunch assistance at M = 1.83, SD = 1.55. The school does require that all students pay a nominal fee for the Advanced Placement tests. School officials believe that this holds the students accountable for taking the test no matter their socio-economic status. Additionally, Table 5.3 provides descriptive statistics for the total number of AP tests taken by ethnicity. The Asian population n = 6 took more AP tests on average M = 3.50, SD =1.37 than all the other student ethnic groups however, the Asian ethnic group is very small in comparison. African Americans on average took fewer AP tests M =1.64, SD=.1.53. Whites M = 2.33, SD =1.49 and Hispanics M = 2.18, SD = 1.32 were both above the overall mean M = 2.09.

Results of Advanced Placement Scores for the Senior Class

The overall goal set by school leaders is a minimum average score of 3 on all AP tests. Advanced Placement tests are scaled 1-5 with 1 being the lowest score and 5 being the highest. Students scoring 3 or higher have the opportunity at many colleges and

universities to receive full or partial college credit. If students do well on their AP tests they can possibly go to college with college credit and potentially save money. As college tuition continues to rise, taking AP tests and performing well becomes a lucrative venture. The following results are AP scores from two of the required courses for seniors, AP Government and AP English Literature and Composition. These two AP courses and their results were selected since the highest number of students took these two tests.

Table 5.4

Descriptive Statistics for A P Government Scores for the Senior Class by Race/Ethnicity, Gender, and Socio-Economic Status

Descriptive Statistics for A P Government Scores for the Senior Class by Race/Ethnicity, Gender, and Socio-Economic Status

AP Government Test Demographics	M	SD	Totals for Population
Total Senior Class	1.68	.826	66
Caucasians	1.93	.874	27
African Americans	1.62	.740	21
Hispanics	1.11	.333	9
Asians	1.60	.548	5
American Indian	1.00	-	1
Others	2.00	1.73	3
Males	1.83	.791	30
Females	1.56	.843	36
Free/Reduced	1.38	.647	24
Not Free/Reduced	1.86	.872	42

Note. N=101

As stated earlier, seniors are required to enroll in 2 AP courses their senior year, and at a minimum seniors take AP Government and AP English Literature and Composition. However, students are not required to take the AP test at the end of the course. They are strongly encouraged to do so as all instructors exempt them from semester final tests in the spring if they take the AP test. Table 5.4 provides descriptive

statistics for students who took the AP Government Test by ethnicity n = 66 total number of students. Sixty-six percent of the senior class took the AP Government test. The overall mean score for AP Government test was M = 1.68, SD = .826. This result is well below the explicit goal set by school leaders for organizational performance which was a mean score of 3.00. Hispanics n = 9, M = 1.11, SD = .333, African Americans n = 21, M = 1.62, SD = .874, and Asians n = 5, M = 1.6, SD = .548 were all below the overall mean n = 66, M = 1.68.Whites n = 27, M = 1.93, SD = .874, and "Other" n = 3, M = 2.0, SD = 1.732 were all above the overall mean.

Table 5.4 provides descriptive statistics for AP Government test scores by socio-economic status as well. The total senior class population that took the AP Government test is n = 66, M = 1.68, SD = .826. Students who took the test who were receiving free and reduced lunch assistance n = 24, M = 1.38, SD = .647 scored on average well below those not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance n = 42, M = 1.86, SD = .872. Overall, both socio-economic groups and ethnic groups scored on average below the overall goal of 3.0. Additionally, Table 5.4 provides descriptive statistics for AP Government by gender n = 66, M = 1.83, SD = .791. More females took the AP Government test n = 36, M = 1.56, SD = .843 than males n = 30, M = 1.83, SD = .791. The mean score for males was higher on the AP Government test than for females. Both gender groups had a maximum high score of 4; however both gender means were well below the overall mean goal score of 3.

Table 5.5

Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA results for Advanced Placement English Literature and Composition Scores by Socio-Economic Status, Ethnicity, and Gender

(*Table 5.5continues)*

(*Table 5.5 continued)*

Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA results for Advanced Placement English Literature and Composition Scores by Socio-Economic Status, Ethnicity, and Gender

AP English Demographics	M	SD	Total Population	F	Sig.
Total Senior Class	2.50	.876	71		
Not Free/Reduced	2.71	.934	46		
Free/Reduced	2.12	.600	25		
ANOVA				8.315	*.005
AP English Demographics	M	SD	Total Population		
Caucasians	2.68	.760	29		
African Americans	2.44	.869	25		
Hispanics	1.62	.517	8		
Asians	3.00	1.22	5		
American Indian	2.00	-	1		
Others	3.00	1.00	3		
Females	2.57	.876	42		
Males	2.41	.732	29		

Note. *p < .01625 adjusted statistical significance level

More students took the AP English Literature and Composition test $n = 71$, $M = 2.50$, $SD = .87625$ than the AP Government test. The mean score on the AP English Literature and Composition test was higher than the AP Government test score mean. Table 5.5 shows the descriptive statistics and ANOVA results for the AP English Literature and Composition test by socio-economic status, race/ethnicity, and gender. Students receiving free and reduced lunch assistance $n = 25$, $M = 2.12$, $SD = .600$ had a significant lower mean score than students not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance $n = 46$, $M = 2.71$, $SD = .934$. Students not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance were just below the school-wide mean goal of 3 on AP tests. The ANOVA results show a statistically significant difference in AP English Literature and Composition test scores between the comparison groups students receiving free and

reduced lunch assistance and students not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance $F(1, 69) = 8.31$, $p = .005$. Since there are only two groups a post hoc test was not necessary.

The significance level for the ANOVA tests in this evaluation study was set much lower than the $p <. 05$ level, since three ANOVA's were conducted within different quadrant analyses. Two additional ANOVA calculations appear in the following sections. In order to avoid a Type I error .05/3 set the new $p < .01625$. Clearly, the result of the ANOVA supports the literature link between poverty and student achievement.

Table 5.5 provides descriptive statistics for AP English Literature and Composition test scores by ethnicity $n = 71$, $M = 2.50$, $SD = .876$. Asians $n = 5$, $M = 3.0$, $SD = 1.22$ had a mean test score on the AP English Literature and Composition test that met the school's mean goal of 3. However, the Asian population is very small in comparison to the overall number of students who took the AP English Literature and Composition test. Caucasian $n = 29$, $M = 2.6$, $SD = .760$ and "Other" $n = 3$, $M = 2.50$, $SD = 1.0$ had test scores above the overall mean or right on target. African Americans $n = 25$, $M = 2.4$, $SD =. 869$ and Hispanics $n = 8$, $M = 1.62$, $SD = .517$ were below the overall mean score. Table 5.5 shows descriptive statistics by gender and more females $n = 42$, $M = 2.5714$, $SD = .966$ took the AP English Literature and Composition test than males $n = 29$, $M = 2.41$, $SD = .732$. The mean score for females although higher than males was still below the overall school goal of 3.

Results of ACT Scores for the Senior Class

The explicit yearly goal for the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school was mean score of 24 on the American College Test (ACT) for each senior class.

Descriptive statistics are provided for this data set. Schalock (2002) reiterates that an important aspect of program evaluation is to describe events accurately rather than test specific hypotheses. Therefore, these findings summarize the status of recipients on a range of outcome variables. Schalock (2002) further explains that the use of descriptive statistics is very important since it defines important characteristics about the involved clientele.

Table 5.6

Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA results for ACT Scores by Race/Ethnicity, Gender, and Socio-economic status

Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA results for ACT Scores by Race/Ethnicity, Gender, and Socio-economic status

ACT Demographics	M	SD	Total Population	F	Sig.
Total Senior Class	22.1	4.29	101		
Caucasians	23.7	4.01	39		
African Americans	20.6	4.33	39		
Hispanics	20.4	1.86	11		
Asians	25.5	3.01	6		
American Indian	20.0	-	1		
Others	22.1	4.29	5		
ANOVA				3.693	*.004
ACT Demographics	M	SD	Total Population		
Females	21.7	4.33	60		
Males	22.6	4.62	41		
Not Free/Reduced	22.8	4.62	61		
Free/Reduced	20.9	3.47	40		

Note. *p < .01625 adjusted statistical significance level

Table 5.6 provides descriptive statistics for seniors' ACT scores by race/ethnicity, gender, and socio-economic status $N = 101$, $M = 22.108$, $SD = 4.29628$. Most ACT scores had a high variance from the mean Asians $n = 6$, $M = 25.5$, $SD = 3.01662$ had the

highest ACT mean score which exceeded the overall school goal of 24. Whites n = 39, M = 23.7, SD = 4.011 had a mean ACT score which almost reached the school wide goal of 24. African Americans n = 39, M = 20.64, SD = 4.331, Hispanics n = 11, M = 20.4, SD = 1.863, American Indian n = 1, M = 20 and "Others" n = 5, M = 20.8, SD = 5.932 were all well below the school-wide goal. African Americans had the highest overall individual ACT score at 33. Table 5.5 provides results of the ANOVA for ACT scores by ethnicity. The results showed a statistically significant difference in ACT scores between ethnic groups $F(5, 95) = 3.693$ $p = .004$. Post hoc comparison results using the post hoc Bonferroni test indicated the mean score for Whites M = 23.7, SD = .6423 was significantly different than African Americans mean ACT score M = 20.6, SD = .6936.

Table 5.6 also provides descriptive statistics for ACT scores by socio-economic status N = 101, M = 22.1, SD = 4.296. Students not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance n = 61, M = 22.8, SD = 4.627 had a mean ACT score below the school wide mean goal of 24 and students receiving free and reduced lunch assistance $n = 40$, M = 20.9, SD = 3.478 had a mean ACT score below the school-wide goal and below students not receiving financial assistance. Students' not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance had the lowest ACT score of 13 and the highest score 33 which explains the high standard deviation. Table 5.5 provides descriptive statistics for ACT scores by gender as well, males n = 41, M = 22.6, SD = 4.228 had higher mean ACT score than females n = 60, M = 21.7, SD = 4.336. Females in the senior class had the highest overall ACT score of 33 and males had the lowest overall ACT score of 13.

Results for Grade Point Averages of the Senior Class

The school offers a challenging college preparatory AP curriculum. This challenging curriculum can often be reflected in the grade point averages of its students. The grade point scale was not weighted at the time of this evaluation; it was a standard 4.0 scale. School leaders set a minimum goal for a cumulative mean GPA at 2.50. A 2.50 GPA goal also qualifies students in need of financial assistance to receive Oklahoma's Promise Scholarship. One of the qualifying factors for the $50,000 a year tuition scholarship from Oklahoma's Promise is that students maintain a minimum 2.50 grade point average in core classes. This section provides descriptive statistics for grade point averages by ethnicity, gender, and socio-economic status.

Table 5.7

Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA for Grade Point Averages by Ethnicity, Gender, and Socio-Economic Status

Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA for Grade Point Averages by Ethnicity, Gender, and Socio-Economic Status

GPA Demographics	M	SD	Total Population	F	Sig.
Total Senior Class	2.28	.602	101		
Caucasians	2.46	.555	39		
African Americans	2.03	.537	39		
Hispanics	2.27	.647	11		
Asians	3.00	.000	6		
American Indian	2.00	-	1		
Others	2.00	.707	5		
ANOVA				4.867	*.001
GPA Demographics	M	SD	Total Population		
Females	2.25	.628	60		
Males	2.32	.567	41		
Not Free/Reduced	2.33	.569	61		
Free/Reduced	2.20	.648	40		

Note. *p < .01625 adjusted statistical significance level

Table 5.7 provides descriptive statistics for students' cumulative grade point averages by ethnicity, gender, and socio-economic status for the entire senior class N = 101, M = 2.28, SD = .551. There is little variance among grade point averages as seen in the standard deviation numbers and the overall mean is well below the stated school-wide objective. Whites n = 39, M = 2.46, SD = .555 and Asians n = 6, M = 3.0, SD = .000 had grade point averages above the overall mean for the senior class. Asians had a cumulative grade point average above the stated school-wide objective of a 2.50 grade point average. Hispanics n = 11, M = 2.27, SD = .647 and African Americans n = 39, M = 2.03, SD = .537 had low grade point averages given the total number of people in those racial/ethnic groups in comparison to the low numbers in the rest of the racial/ethnic groups. Table 5.7 also provides the results of the ANOVA for grade point averages by race/ethnicity. The results showed a statistically significant difference in grade point averages between ethnic groups $F(5, 95) = 4.867$, p = .001. Post hoc comparisons using the Bonferroni test indicated that the mean GPA score for Whites M = 2.46, SD = .555 was significantly different than African Americans M = 2.03, SD = .537 and there was significant differences between Asians M = 3.0, SD = .000 and African Americans M = 2.03, SD = .537.

Table 5.7 also provides descriptive statistics for students' grade point averages by socio-economic status N = 101, M = 2.28, SD = .602. Students not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance n = 61, M = 2.33, SD = .569 had a slightly higher GPA than students receiving free and reduced lunch assistance n = 40, M = 2.20, SD = .648. Both groups are below the school wide mean goal of 2.50. Students' not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance had a higher grade point average than the overall mean score of

the senior class. Table 5.7 also provides descriptive statistics for grade point averages by gender. Females $n = 60$, $M = 2.25$, $SD = .628$ had a lower mean grade point average than males $n = 41$, $M = 2.32$, $SD = .567$ in the senior class. There is very little variance in grade point average means for gender. Both mean grade point averages were lower than the overall school mean goal of 2.50.

Results for Parental Involvement Scores of the Senior Class

School officials at the school have implemented many programs, initiatives, and curricular strategies to involve parents in the college preparation process. Teachers provide extra-credit to students if they quiz and share with their parents' the learning objectives they have accomplished at school. The school has monthly parent meetings, parent work days at the school, and required service hours to the school. The AVID program requires parents to attend monthly meetings. The senior year a showcase for parents is held to engage parents in the job shadowing program for the senior capstone course. Essentially, school officials desire that parents and their students discuss course options, college options, career options, do school work together, do activities together, and socialize with other people. This subscale on Pre-College Social Capital Survey is the operationalized parental involvement result (see Appendix A). The goals for parental involvement mentioned above were asked to students on the PCSC survey. The responses were on a Likert scale including strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree/nor disagree, agree, and strongly agree. The results for this subscale were analyzed using SPSS software and the Likert scale was converted from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5) (see SPSS Coding of Questionnaire, Appendix C).

Table 5.8

Descriptive Statistics for PCSCS Parental Involvement Subscale by Socio-Economic Status, Gender, and Race/Ethnicity

Descriptive Statistics for PCSCS Parental Involvement Subscale by Socio-Economic Status, Gender, and Race/Ethnicity

Parental Involvement Responses	M	SD	Total Population
Total Senior Class	3.46	.878	101
Caucasians	3.58	.979	39
African Americans	3.41	.868	39
Hispanics	3.23	.756	11
Asians	3.65	.868	6
American Indian	3.10	-	1
Others	3.30	.463	5
Females	3.54	.872	60
Males	3.36	.888	41
Not Free/Reduced	3.54	.872	61
Free/Reduced	3.35	.887	40

Note. N=101

Students in the senior class were asked on the PCSCS (see PCSCS, Appendix A) parental involvement subscale to indicate on a Likert scale whether they strongly disagreed, disagreed, neither agreed/nor disagreed, agreed and strongly agreed if they and their parent/guardian discussed course options, college options, career options, if they did school work together, activities together, and socialized with other people regularly. There were a total of six questions within the subscale. Table 5.8 provides descriptive statistics for the student responses (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree/nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree) by socio-economic status, gender, and race/ethnicity. The overall (*N=101, M=3.4673, SD=.87888*) response for the subscale aligned closest with neither agree/nor disagree. The overall mean of 3.4 divided by 5 on the Likert scale is equivalent to 68 percent parental involvement. Students receiving free

and reduced lunch assistance n = 40, M = 3.35, SD = .88723 had a lower mean than the overall responses indicating slightly lower parental involvement. Students not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance n = 61, M = 3.5443, SD = .872 had a higher parental involvement score.

Table 5.8 also provides descriptive statistics for student responses on the PCSCS (see PCSCS, Appendix A) pertaining to subscale measure parental involvement by race/ethnicity. Asian students n = 6, M = 3.65, SD = .868 had the highest mean score for parental involvement. Whites n = 39, M = 3.58, SD = .979 second highest parental involvement score overall. Hispanics n = 11, M = 3.23, SD = .756 had the lowest parental involvement score. There was not a mean score among any of the ethnic groups for the senior class indicating that they did not agree with parental involvement. Table 5.7 also provides descriptive statistics for student responses by gender. Females n = 60, M = 3.54, SD = .872 had a higher parental involvement score than males n = 41, M = 3.36, SD = .88850. Both mean responses aligned most closely with neither agree/nor disagree. The variance in mean responses is low within both groups.

Organizational Value Results

The results of the organizational value quadrant for the following organizational value goals are discussed in detail throughout this section.

1) Teacher Involvement (concerning college preparation)
2) School Counselor Involvement (concerning college preparation)
3) Mentoring Involvement (concerning college preparation)
4) Specific Questions about the School as a Whole (concerning college preparation)

The school in this evaluation values teacher involvement in the college preparation development of its students. This is an important value goal for the organization. School leaders post signs on teachers' classroom doors with teacher names and university or universities from which they graduated. This is a strategy utilized by the school to try and engage students in a college conversation. Teachers also teach an Advisory course and some teachers teach a Senior Capstone course. Both course curriculums require teacher involvement in discussing course options, college options, and career options. The Pre-College Social Capital Survey (see PCSCS, Appendix A) subscale focuses on teacher involvement and asks students how they feel about teacher involvement in the following areas: "My teacher(s) and I discuss course options, discuss college options, discuss career options, work one-on-one on school work as needed, invites guest speakers into the classroom, and requires group assignments." In all, there are six questions within the teacher involvement subscale.

Results for Teacher Involvement for the Senior Class

Table 5.9

Descriptive Statistics for Teacher Involvement by Race/Ethnicity, Gender, and Socio-Economic Status

Descriptive Statistics for Teacher Involvement by Race/Ethnicity, Gender, and Socio-Economic Status

Teacher Involvement Responses	M	SD	Total Population
Total Senior Class	3.52	.847	101
Caucasians	3.46	.924	39
African Americans	3.51	.793	39
Hispanics	3.40	.667	11
Asians	4.45	.631	6
American Indian	4.00	-	1
Others	3.06	.726	5

(*Table 5.9 continues*)

(*Table 5.9 continued*)

Females	3.54	.797	60
Males	3.48	.923	41
Not Free/Reduced	3.44	.879	61
Free/Reduced	3.63	.793	40

Note. N=101

Table 5.9 provides descriptive statistics for student responses on the PCSCS subscale teacher involvement. The overall $N = 101$, $M = 3.52$, $SD = .847$ mean response for teacher involvement is higher than parental involvement when dividing 3.5 by 5 which is equivalent to 70 percent teacher involvement. The teacher involvement score falls in the neither agree/nor disagree category on the Likert scale. Asians $n = 6$, $M = 4.45$, $SD = .631$ had a very high teacher involvement score. Hispanics $n = 11$, $M = 3.40$, $SD = .667$ and "Other" $n = 5$, $M = 3.06$, $SD = .726$ had the lowest overall teacher involvement scores. The two largest ethnic groups in the senior class Whites $n = 39$, $M = 3.46$, $SD = .847$ and African American $n = 39$, $M = 3.51$, $SD = .793$ had high teacher involvement scores.

Table 5.9 also provides descriptive statistics for teacher involvement by gender. The overall mean response for females $n = 60$, $M = 3.54$, $SD = .797$ resulted in a higher teacher involvement score than the overall mean response. The mean response for females was slightly higher than males $n = 41$, $M = 3.48$, $SD = .923$. Both responses fall in the neither agree/nor disagree category on the Likert scale. Additionally, Table 5.9 provides descriptive statistics for teacher involvement by socio-economic status. Student not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance $n = 61$, $M = 3.44$, $SD = .879$ had a lower teacher involvement score than students receiving free and reduced lunch assistance. Students receiving free and reduced lunch assistance had the highest teacher involvement

score out of all the demographics reported $n = 40$, $M = 3.63$, $SD = .793$. Both socio-economic group responses would range in the middle of the Likert scale spectrum of neither agree/nor disagree.

Results for Counselor Involvement for the Senior Class

The inner-city college preparatory public charter high school in this evaluation values counselor involvement in the college preparation of its students. There are two counselors and both teach a seventh period senior capstone course. It is in this class where specifically counselors assist students by discussing course options, college options, career options, and tutoring as needed. As part of this outcome based effectiveness evaluation, responses from students considered "the direct clientele" are important to this quadrant. The PCSC survey (see PCSCS, Appendix A) subscale counselor involvement has four questions; "My counselor and I discuss course options, discuss college options, discuss career options, and discuss tutoring options." Students responded on a Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), neither agree/nor disagree (3), agree (4), and strongly disagree (5) (see SPSS Coding of Questionnaire, Appendix C).

Table 5.10

Descriptive Statistics for School Counselor Involvement by Socio-Economic Status, Gender, and Race/Ethnicity

Descriptive Statistics for School Counselor Involvement by Socio-Economic Status, Gender, and Race/Ethnicity

Counselor Involvement Responses	M	SD	Total Population
Total Senior Class	3.60	.974	101
Caucasians	3.56	.931	39
African Americans	3.67	.998	39

(*Table 5.10 continues*)

(*Table 5.10 continued*)

Hispanics	3.66	.645	11
Asians	4.15	.871	6
American Indian	4.20	-	1
Others	3.60	.974	5
Females	3.57	.923	60
Males	3.66	1.05	41
Not Free/Reduced	3.57	1.05	61
Free/Reduced	3.65	.841	40

Note. N=101

Table 5.10 provides descriptive statistics for school counselor involvement by socio-economic status. The overall $N = 101$, $M = 3.60$, $SD = .974$ mean response for counselor involvement was 3.60 when divided by 5 is equivalent to 72 percent. School counselor involvement overall was higher than parental involvement and slightly higher than teacher involvement. Students receiving free and reduced lunch assistance $n = 40$, $M = 3.65$, $SD = .841$ favored school counselor involvement. Student not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance $n = 61$, $M = 3.57$, $SD = 1.058$ had slightly lower score for school counselor involvement. Table 5.10 also provides descriptive statistics for school involvement by gender. Males $n = 41$, $M = 3.661$, $SD = 1.055$ had a very favorable response to school counselor involvement. Females $n = 60$, $M = 3.57$, $SD = .923$ had a slightly lower score for school counselor involvement. Both gender group responses range toward the high end of the neither agree/nor disagree category on the Likert scale.

Finally, Table 5.10 provides descriptive statistics for school counselor involvement by race/ethnicity. The highest overall responses came from the Asians $n = 6$, $M = 4.1$, $SD = .355$, African American $n = 39$, $M = 3.67$, $SD = .998$, and Hispanics $n = 11$, $M = 3.66$, $SD = .645$. Whites $n = 39$, $M = 3.56$, $SD = .931$ had a favorable rating for

school counselor involvement. The lowest score for school counselor involvement came from "Other" $n = 5$, $M = 2.5$, $SD = 1.425$.

Results for Mentoring Involvement for the Senior Class

Mentoring involvement is an additional foundational value goal of school in this evaluation. Mentoring opportunities are numerous throughout the school. The Advancement Via Individual Determination (AVID) program provides a number of alumni and other college mentors. The school has a partnership with one of the energy companies in the city that has a mentoring program. The energy company provides twenty employees who mentor students at the school. Most importantly, seniors are required to participate in a mentorship program during their senior year. Seniors find a job shadowing mentor for the last seven-weeks of school. They must document twenty eight hours total for the seven weeks, four hours a week. This mentorship program is essential to the senior capstone course. The responses of students on the Pre-College Social Capital Survey (see PCSCS, Appendix A) subscale for mentoring are provided in the next section. Students answered seven questions within this subsection. The questions for the mentoring subscale are: "My mentor and I discuss, course options, college options, career options, do school work together, socialize with other role models, engage in job shadowing activities, and spend time together regularly."

Table 5.11

Descriptive Statistics for Mentoring Involvement by Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Socio-Economic Status

Descriptive Statistics for Mentoring Involvement by Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Socio-Economic Status

(*Table 5.11 continues*)

(*Table 5.11 continued*)

Mentoring Involvement Responses	M	SD	Total Population
Total Senior Class	3.26	.876	101
Caucasians	3.28	.822	39
African Americans	3.44	.836	39
Hispanics	2.63	.912	11
Asians	3.20	1.29	6
American Indian	3.20	-	1
Others	3.18	.729	5
Females	3.23	.854	60
Males	3.31	.915	41
Not Free/Reduced	3.35	.865	61
Free/Reduced	3.13	.887	40

Note. N=101

Table 5.11 provides descriptive statistics for mentoring involvement by gender, race/ethnicity, and socio-economic status. The overall $N = 101$, $M = 3.26$, $SD = .876$ response for mentoring involvement falls within the neither agree/nor disagree category on the Likert scale. Mentoring involvement scored the lowest compared to parental, teacher, and counselor involvement at 64 percent when dividing 3.2 by 5. Males $n = 41$, $M = 3.31$, $SD = .915$ slightly favored mentoring involvement higher than females $n = 60$, $M = 3.23$, $SD = .854$. There was not a lot of variance in the responses for mentoring involvement. Table 5.11 also provides descriptive statistics for mentoring involvement by ethnicity. Mentoring involvement was most effective with African Americans $n = 39$, $M = 3.44$, $SD = .836$. and Whites $n = 39$, $M = 3.28$, $SD = .822$ two of the largest racial/ethnic groups in the senior class. Both responses fall in the Likert scale at neither agree/nor disagree category. Mentoring involvement was least effective for Hispanics $n = 11$, $M = 2.63$, $SD = .912$ as they reported the lowest overall score falling in the disagree category on the Likert scale. Asians $n = 6$, $M = 3.20$, $SD = 1.29$ had a favorable score for

mentoring involvement. Table 5.10 provides descriptive statistics for mentoring involvement by socio-economic status. Mentoring involvement had a greater effect on students not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance $n = 61$, $M = 3.35$, $SD = .865$. Students receiving free and reduced lunch assistance $n = 40$, $M = 3.13$, $SD = .887$ had a reported mean score for mentoring involvement that falls in the neither agree/nor disagree category.

Results for Overall Charter School Effectiveness for the Senior Class

The final data set for the organizational value quadrant pertains to a subscale section on the PCSC survey (see PCSCS, Appendix A) which questions students about the performance of the school as a whole. There were five overarching questions: "My school is preparing me for college, increasing my social network/number of friends, increasing my access to mentors, exposing me to potential college majors and careers, and assisting me academically." The charter school received very high scores from all students.

Table 5.12

Descriptive Statistics for Charter School Effectiveness by Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Socio-Economic Status

Descriptive Statistics for Charter School Effectiveness by Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Socio-Economic Status

Charter School Effectiveness Responses	M	SD	Total Population
Total Senior Class	3.93	.714	101
Caucasians	3.87	.696	39
African Americans	3.88	.761	39
Hispanics	3.83	.592	11
Asians	4.56	.408	6
American Indian	4.80	-	1
Others	4.16	.792	5

(*Table 5.12 continues*)

(*Table 5.12 continued*)

Females	3.89	.725	60
Males	4.00	.915	41
Not Free/Reduced	3.91	.716	61
Free/Reduced	3.98	.718	40

Note. N=101

Table 5.12 provides descriptive statistics for charter school effectiveness by gender, race/ethnicity, and socio-economic status. The overall $N = 101$, $M = 3.93$, $SD = .714$ mean response for the charter school effectiveness was very high. This response falls within the high end of the Likert scale category of neither/agree/nor disagree. The charter school's effectiveness is higher than parental, counselor, teacher, and mentoring involvement with 78 percent effectiveness score when dividing 3.9 by 5. There is also very little variance among responses as the standard deviations indicate. Asians $n = 6$, $M = 4.56$, $SD = .408$ and "Other" $n = 5$, $M = 4.16$, $SD = .792$ had very high means equivalent to agree on the Likert scale. Whites $n = 39$, $M = 3.87$, $SD = .696$ Hispanics $n = 11$, $M = 3.83$, $SD = .592$ and African Americans $n = 39$, $M = 3.88$, $SD = .761$ had favorable scores for the effectiveness of the charter school.

Table 5.12 also provides descriptive statistics for charter school effectiveness by socio-economic status. Students receiving free and reduced lunch assistance $n = 40$, $M = 3.98$, $SD = .718$ rated the charter school effectiveness on college preparation slightly higher than students not receiving free and reduced assistance $n = 61$, $M = 3.91$, $SD = .716$. Overall, both responses fall in the high end of the neither agree/nor disagree category on the Likert scale and are high marks for the school. Additionally, Table 5.12 provides descriptive statistics for charter school effectiveness by gender. Males $n = 40$, $M = 4.0$, $SD = .701$ had the highest score for charter effectiveness and the mean response

falls within agree category on the Likert scale. The male response was higher than the females $n = 61$, $M = 3.89$, $SD = .725$ which is still a high score.

Individual Performance Results

The results of the individual performance quadrant for the following individual performance outcomes are discussed in detail throughout this section.

1) Parent Service Hours
2) Student Service Hours
3) Association Membership (PCSCS Subscale)

The inner-city college preparatory public charter high school in this evaluation establishes expectations for families and students of the school for individual performance (see Family Expectations Document, Appendix B). These expectations include parent and/or guardian 25 hours of volunteer service to the school per academic year. They also include an expectation that parents will see that their child completes 30 hours of volunteer service to the community per academic year. Parents and students record their service hours in the main office at the school. The following results are for the parent and student service hours reported at the school.

Results for Parent Service Hours for the Senior Class

Table 5.13

Descriptive Statistics and T-test results for Parent Service Hours by Race/Ethnicity and Socio-Economic Status

Descriptive Statistics and T-test results for Parent Service Hours by Race/Ethnicity and Socio-Economic Status

(*Table 5.13 continues*)

(*Table 5.13 continued*)

Parent Service Hours	M	SD	Total Population	t	Sig. (2 tailed)
Total Senior Class	2.06	7.34	101		
Not Free/Reduced	3.29	9.24	61		
Free/Reduced	.200	.156	40		
T-test				1.98	*.026
Parent Service Hours	M	SD	Total Population		
Caucasians	2.46	6.61	39		
African Americans	1.38	3.14	39		
Hispanics	0.00	0.00	11		
Asians	0.00	0.00	6		
American Indian	0.00	-	1		
Others	11.8	26.3	5		

Note. *$p < 0.05$ indicate significance at the 95% level

The total student population for the senior class $N = 101$, $M = 2.26$, $SD = 7.346$ where documented by families linked to individual students. Roughly 18 percent of parents in the senior class documented their yearly service hours at the school. If every parent completed their Family Expectations (see FED, Appendix B) for the senior year, the total would be 2,525 hours of service to the school. The total reported hours for the senior was 209 hours; this is roughly a 9 percent completion of the family expectation school goal. Table 5.13 provides descriptive statistics of parent service hours by race/ethnicity and socio-economic status. The population group "Other" $n = 5$, $M = 11$, $SD = 26.38$ documented the highest average of hours served. This is the highest mean out of all groups however; cumulatively is still much slower than the anticipated goal of 25 hours for every racial/ethnic group. Hispanics $n = 11$, $M = 0$, $SD = 0$, Asians $n = 6$, $M = 0$, $SD = 0$ and American Indian $n=1$, $M = 0$, $SD = 0$ racial/ethnic groups had zero documented hours of service. The two largest ethnic groups in the senior class African

Americans n = 39, M = 1.384, SD = 3.144 and Caucasians n = 39, M = 2.4615, SD = 6.613 had documented hours below the anticipated mean goal. There was a lot of variance among means especially for the ethnic group classified as "Other."

As mentioned earlier only 18 families reported service hours at the school out of the 101 represented families in the senior class for a total of 209 hours served. Student families not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance served 207 of the 209 documented hours. This is well below the expectations set forth by the charter school. Table 5.13 provides descriptive statistics for parent service hours by socio-economic status. Student families not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance n = 61, M = 3.295, SD = 9.244 had the highest mean between the two groups. Student families receiving free and reduced lunch assistance n = 40, M =.20, SD = .992 had a very low mean. A paired-samples t-test was conducted to compare parent service hours between families receiving free and reduced lunch assistance and those not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance. There was a significant difference in service hours reported for students on free and reduced lunches M = 3.295, SD = 9.244 and students not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance M =.20, SD = .992 documented hours t = 1.98 and p = .026.

Results of Student Service Hours for the Senior Class

Parents and/or guardians agree to hold their students accountable to 30 hours of volunteer service to the community per academic year (see Family Expectations Document, Appendix B). The senior class of 101 total students should have logged a total of 3030 hours and had a mean of 30 hours per student. However, only 14 students logged service hours out of 101. Although fewer students reported hours than parents, more

hours by individual students were logged at 1,097. The number of logged hours is still well below the overall total set by the school. The following section provides descriptive statistics and mean differences for student hours by ethnicity, gender, and socio-economic status.

Table 5.14

Descriptive Statistics for Student Service Hours by Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Socio-Economic Status

Descriptive Statistics for Student Service Hours by Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Socio-Economic Status

Student Service Hours	M	SD	Total Population
Total Senior Class	10.8	39.3	101
Males	3.48	18.1	41
Females	15.9	48.4	60
Not Free/Reduced	11.9	45.1	61
Free/Reduced	9.27	28.8	40
Caucasians	12.6	42.9	39
African Americans	6.91	42.4	39
Hispanics	6.59	21.0	11
Asians	21.6	31.7	6
American Indian	0.00	-	1
Others	26.5	33.2	5

Note. N=101

The total $N = 101$, $M = 10.86$, $SD = 39.393$ mean of reported student service hours was well below the goal school officials set for the school (see Family Expectations, Appendix B). The highest mean came from the ethnic group classified "Other" $n = 5$, $M = 26.50$, $SD = 33.286$. Every ethnic group had some reported student service participation with the exception of American Indian however there is only one student in this category. Asians $n = 6$, $M = 21.66$, $SD = 31.728$ had the second highest reported mean. The two largest ethnic groups Whites $n = 39$, $M = 12.64$, $SD = 42.900$

and African Americans n = 39, M = 6.90, SD = 42.421 also had reported student service hours. There was a lot of variance in mean student reported service hours. Table 5.14 also provides descriptive statistics for student service hours by gender. Females n = 60, M = 15.90, SD = 48.408 had a higher mean of documented hours males n = 41, M = 3.487, SD = 18.145. Both reported means are well below the anticipated goal set by school officials.

Finally, Table 5.14 provides descriptive statistics for student service hours by socio-economic status. Students not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance n = 61, M = 11.90, SD = 45.195 had a slightly higher mean of hours documented than students receiving free and reduced lunch assistance. In both instances for parents and students receiving free and reduced lunch assistance they had lower reported hours served. Students receiving free and reduced lunch assistance n = 40, M = 9.27, SD = 28.849 had low reported mean of service hours. Both groups were well below the anticipated goal of 25 hours per student.

Results for Association Membership for the Senior Class

Parents and students both had very low documented hours of service at the school. This evidence does not necessarily indicate that students and parents are not active in the community they just may not be documenting their hours. The Pre-College Social Capital Survey (see PCSCS, Appendix A) has a subscale entitled association membership which asks students how often they participated in religious organizations, charity or volunteer organizations, ethnic or racial organizations, a neighborhood association, school-related organizations, political clubs or organizations, social clubs, and youth groups. There were

8 questions within this subsection and the overall composite mean for each student is reported in Table 5.15 for descriptive statistics.

Table 5.15

Descriptive Statistics Association Membership by Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Socio-Economic Status

Descriptive Statistics Association Membership by Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Socio-Economic Status

Association Membership Responses	M	SD	Total Population
Total Senior Class	3.21	.705	101
Males	3.13	.673	41
Females	3.26	.727	60
Not Free/Reduced	3.12	.628	61
Free/Reduced	3.34	.799	40
Caucasians	2.94	.673	39
African Americans	3.30	.637	39
Hispanics	3.33	.917	11
Asians	3.83	.602	6
American Indian	3.10	-	1
Others	3.54	.450	5

Note. N=101

The overall $N = 101$, $M = 3.21$, $SD = .705$ population had a favorable composite mean for association membership as on average students reported that they neither agreed/nor disagreed. Females $n = 60$, $M = 3.26$, $SD = .727$ had a composite mean which falls in the neither agree/nor disagree category within the Likert scale and is higher than males as it was for the documented student service hours. Males $n = 41$, $M = 3.1317$, $SD = .67396$ had a lower composite mean than females. Association membership at mean 3.2 divided by 5 on the Likert scale had a 64 percent score overall. Table 5.15 also provides descriptive statistics for association membership by socio-economic status. In comparison to the other data sets for parent and student service hour's students and their families

receiving free and reduced lunch assistance had lower means for hours served than students not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance. However, Table 5.15 shows that students receiving free and reduced lunch assistance n = 40, M = 3.34, SD = .799 had a higher mean for association membership than students not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance n = 61, M = 3.1, SD = .628. Both means fall within the neither agree/nor disagree category on the Likert scale for the PCSC survey (see PCSCS, Appendix A).

Table 5.15 provides descriptive statistics for association membership by race/ethnicity. Whites n = 39, M = 2.94, SD = .673 mean response was the lowest overall score out of all ethnic groups. The response for Whites fell toward the upper end of the disagree category. The highest mean was with Asians n = 6, M = 3.83, SD = .602. African Americans n = 39, M = 3.30, SD = .637, Hispanics n = 11, M = 3.33, SD = .917 and "Other" n = 5, M = 3.54, SD = .450 had the highest reported means of the ethnic groups.

Individual Value Results

The following results for the individual value outcomes are described in detail quantitatively throughout this section.

1) Peer Relationships (as it pertains to college preparation/PCSCS subscale)
2) Media Use (PCSCS subscale measure)
3) School Environment (PCSCS subscale measure)
4) Residential Stability (PCSCS subscale measure)

The individual value outcomes are all subscale measures on the PCSCS (see PCSCS, Appendix A) of student responses pertaining to quality life and school climate issues at an inner-city college preparatory public charter high. Most importantly these

quality of life concerns are also social capital variables that can make a difference in the college preparation of young adults. The individual value goals of the organization are emphasized through professional development training of staff and most importantly the school's teachers and the financial investments made for success in college. Teaching strategies from Advancement Via Individual Determination (AVID) are utilized in every classroom and are part of the curricular approach. Group work, peer tutoring, and Socratic Seminars which require student led discussions necessary to promote academic understanding and foster a college going environment. Advisory courses are part of the school schedule. Advisory courses engage students in course, college, and career discussions.

Media use is an important social capital variable for college preparation. The goal for the school is to incorporate technology in and out of the classroom to effectively prepare students for college. Measuring media usage and the purposes for which media is utilized provided important social capital investment results for school leaders. Finally, the last two measures directly investigated quality of life factors: school environment and residential stability. All schools, including the school in this evaluation set goals to have a positive school environment. Residential stability is the final measure. This measure is utilized for the purposes of informing school environment objectives as well as informing school personnel about the backgrounds of its students. School leaders would aspire to see high results for residential stability despite not having complete control over this factor. However, the Family Expectations Document (see FED, Appendix B) outlines specific agreements for the school and the families it serves. A caring community of

service is emphasized as well as reinforcement of specific strategies and support for college preparation in the home.

The quality of life factor of peer relationships measured on the PCSCS (see PCSCS, Appendix A) asks the follow questions: "My friends and I discuss course options, college options, career options, do school work together, do activities together regularly, socialize with other people regularly." In all, there are 6 questions for subscale peer relationships on the PCSC survey. Subsection media use on the PCSC survey asks students 10 questions: "I watch television for entertainment, I watch television for information, I read the newspaper for entertainment, I read the newspaper for information, I use the internet for entertainment, I use the internet for information, I listen to the radio for entertainment, I listen to the radio for information, I read books for entertainment, I read books for information." Subsection school environment asks students to rate the following statements: "My school provides me an adequate education, my school provides me adequate extra-curricular activities, and my school is a safe place." Finally, the PCSC survey asks students to rate the following statements: My neighborhood is safe, friendly, and stable (see PCSCS, Appendix A).

Results for Peer Relationships for the Senior Class

Table 5.16

Descriptive Statistics Peer Relationships by Race/Gender, Ethnicity, and Socio-Economic Status

Descriptive Statistics Peer Relationships by Race/Gender, Ethnicity, and Socio-Economic Status

(*Table 5.16 continues*)

(*Table 5.16 continued*)

Peer Involvement Responses	M	SD	Total Population
Total Senior Class	4.12	.669	101
Caucasians	4.05	.794	39
African Americans	4.14	.566	39
Hispanics	3.89	.498	11
Asians	4.81	.222	6
American Indian	3.10	-	1
Others	4.40	.463	5
Females	4.13	.604	60
Males	4.10	.762	41
Not Free/Reduced	4.10	.762	61
Free/Reduced	4.15	.505	40

Note. N=101

The overall $N = 101$, $M = 4.12$, $SD = .669$ mean response for peer relationships was high at 82 percent when 4.12 is divided by 5. This is a positive quality of life indicator for the school. It might be assumed that teenagers would rate their peers fairly high in general, but the specific questions address college and career discussions. Females $n = 61$, $M = 4.13$, $SD = .604$ rated their peer relationships in the college preparation process higher than the overall mean. Males $n = 40$, $M = 4.10$, $SD = .762$ rated their peer relationships slightly lower than females, however both gender responses fall within the agree category on the Likert scale.

Table 5.16 provides descriptive statistics for peer relationships by socio-economic status. As mentioned earlier, students at the inner-city college preparatory charter school rated peer involvement in the college preparation high. Students receiving free and reduced lunch assistance $n = 40$, $M = 4.15$, $SD = .505$ rated their relationships with peers slightly higher than students not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance. Students not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance $n = 61$, $M = 4.10$, $SD = .762$ had a lower

mean. Both means are high enough to be classified as agree on the Likert scale. Table 5.16 provides descriptive statistics for peer relationships by ethnicity. Whites n = 39, M = 4.05, SD = .794 had a slightly lower mean response compared to the overall mean. The mean response for Whites still fell within the agree category on the Likert scale. African Americans n = 39, M = 4.14, SD = .566 had a higher mean than the overall mean as well falling within the agree category. Hispanics n = 11, M = 3.89, SD = .498 had one of the lowest means among the ethnic groups falling within the neither agree/nor disagree category for peer relationships. Asians n = 6, M = 4.81, SD = .222 had the highest score for peer relationships with very little variance in responses.

Results of Media Use for the Senior Class

Media use can have a positive or negative effect on the social capital goals for the inner-city college preparatory public charter school. The way in which media is used can contribute to association membership (Putnam, 2000) or can cause distrust in society or a lack of involvement adversely affecting the charter school's goals. The school encourages media use and school leaders aspire to see it benefit students towards higher social capital development. The following section provides results for media use by race/ethnicity, gender, and socio-economic status.

Table 5.17

Descriptive Statistics for Media Use by Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Socio-Economic Status

Descriptive Statistics for Media Use by Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Socio-Economic Status

Media Use Responses	M	SD	Total Population
Total Senior Class	3.54	.586	101

(*Table 5.17 continues*)

(*Table 5.17 continued*)

Media Use Responses	M	SD	Total Population
Males	3.51	.608	41
Females	3.56	.576	60
Not Free/Reduced	3.58	.635	61
Free/Reduced	3.49	.506	40
Caucasians	3.57	.672	39
African Americans	3.52	.458	39
Hispanics	3.54	.555	11
Asians	3.73	.471	6
American Indian	3.60	-	1
Others	3.26	1.04	5

Note. N=101

Table 5.17 provides descriptive statistics for media use by race/ethnicity. The overall $N = 101$, $M = 3.54$, $SD = .586$ mean response falls within the neither agree/nor disagree category on the Likert scale and is equivalent to 70 percent when 3.54 is divided by 5. Asians $n = 6$, $M = 3.73$, $SD = .471$ had the highest mean for media use and also had the highest mean for association membership. Whites $n = 39$, $M = 3.57$, $SD = .672$ had a high score for media use. African Americans $n = 39$, $M = 3.5256$, $SD = .45867$ had the lowest mean in comparison and Hispanics $n = 11$, $M = 3.54$, $SD = .555$ had a lower mean.

Table 5.17 provides descriptive statistics for media use by socio-economic status. Students receiving free and reduced lunch assistance $n = 40$, $M = 3.49$, $SD = .506$ had a mean response below the overall mean. Students not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance $n = 61$, $M = 3.58$, $SD = .635$ had a higher overall mean. Both responses fall within the neither agree/nor disagree category. Additionally, Table 5.16 provides descriptive statistics for media use by gender. Females $n = 60$, $M = 3.56$, $SD = .576$ had a mean response higher than the males $n = 41$, $M = 3.51$, $SD = .608$. Both responses fall

within the neither agree/nor disagree category on the Likert scale. Female mean responses were higher for media use as well as association membership.

Results of School Environment for the Senior Class

Students were asked to rate the following statements on the PCSC survey concerning the school environment at the inner-city college preparatory public charter school (see PCSCS, Appendix A): "My school provides me an adequate education. My school provides me adequate extra-curricular activities. My school is a safe place." The following section provides descriptive statistics school environment by ethnicity, gender, and socio-economic status.

Table 5.18

Descriptive Statistics for School Environment by Gender, Race /Ethnicity, and Socio-Economic Status

Descriptive Statistics for School Environment by Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Socio-Economic Status

School Environment Responses	M	SD	Total Population
Total Senior Class	4.07	.734	101
Males	4.25	.660	41
Females	3.94	.761	60
Not Free/Reduced	4.14	.694	61
Free/Reduced	3.95	.786	40
Caucasians	4.07	.696	39
African Americans	4.07	.779	39
Hispanics	3.97	.560	11
Asians	4.48	.806	6
American Indian	4.00	-	1
Others	3.70	1.02	5

Note. N=101

Table 5.18 provides descriptive statistics for school environment by gender, race/ethnicity, and socio-economic status. The overall $N = 101$, $M = 4.07$, $SD = .073$ was

very high which fell on the lower end of the agree category on the Likert scale. Overall students agreed that the charter school provided them with an adequate education, adequate extra-curricular activities, and that the charter school was a safe place at 81 percent effective when dividing 4.07 by 5. Males n = 41, M = 4.25, SD = .660 had the highest score which suggests that males agree with the school environment. Females n = 61, M = 3.94, SD = .761 had a lower response score falling in the upper end of the scale for neither agree/nor disagree with the school environment.

Table 5.18 also provides descriptive statistics for school environment by race/ethnicity. The overall mean for school environment fell within the agree category on the Likert scale. The two largest racial/ethnic groups of the senior class had mean responses almost identical to each other, Whites n = 39, M = 4.07, SD = .699 and African Americans n= 39, M = 4.07, SD = .779 and the scores were high. Hispanics n = 11, M = 3.97 SD = .560 and "Other" n = 5, M = 3.70, SD = 1.022 had the two lowest means comparatively. Additionally, Table 5.18 provides descriptive statistics for school environment by socio-economic status. Students not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance n = 61, M = 4.14, SD = .694 had a high score for school environment. Students receiving free and reduced lunch assistance n = 40, M = 3.95, SD = .786 had a lower mean response. Students receiving free and reduced lunch assistance scores fall on the upper end of the Likert scale of neither agree/nor disagree with the school environment.

Results of Residential Stability for the Senior Class

Residential stability is an important social capital measure and goal for the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school in this study (see Family Expectations

Document, Appendix B). The mentoring programs, service requirements, and family expectations overtly attempt to bridge the gap between the school and the neighborhood. The following section provides results for residential stability by ethnicity, gender, and socio-economic status.

Table 5.19

Descriptive Statistics for Residential Stability by Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Socio-Economic Status

Descriptive Statistics for Residential Stability by Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Socio-Economic Status

Residential Stability Responses	M	SD	Total Population
Total Senior Class	3.84	.947	101
Males	3.77	1.06	41
Females	3.89	.865	60
Not Free/Reduced	4.04	.945	61
Free/Reduced	3.55	.879	40
Caucasians	3.89	1.09	39
African Americans	4.02	.775	39
Hispanics	3.37	.875	11
Asians	3.75	1.02	6
American Indian	4.00	-	1
Others	3.24	.779	5

Note. N=101

Table 5.19 provides descriptive statistics for residential stability by race/ethnicity, gender, and socio-economic status. The overall $N = 101$, $M = 3.84$, $SD = .940$ is on the upper end of the Likert scale response of neither agree/nor disagree that their neighborhood was safe, stable, and friendly. This is still a high score overall when you divide 3.84 by 5 it is 78 percent effective. Interestingly, students responded more favorably to school environment with an overall 81 percent effectiveness in comparison to the 78 percent effectiveness for residential stability. Whites $n = 39$, $M = 3.89$, $SD =$

1.09 and African Americans n = 39, M = 4.0231, SD = .775 and Asians n = 6, M = 3.750, SD = 1.02 responded the highest out of the ethnic groups in the senior class. Hispanics n = 11, M = 3.37, SD = .875 and "Others" n = 5, M = 3.24, SD = .779 had the lowest means for residential stability.

Table 5.19 provides descriptive statistics for residential stability by socio-economic status. Students not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance n = 61, M = 4.04, SD = .945 had an overall high score which fell within the agree category on the Likert scale for residential stability. Students receiving free and reduced lunch assistance n = 40, M = 3.55, SD = .879 had a lower overall score which falls within the Likert scale of neither agree/nor disagree. The mean for students receiving free and reduced lunches was below the overall. Finally, Table 5.19 provides descriptive statistics for residential stability by gender. Females n = 60, M = 3.89, SD =.865 had a high score for residential stability placing it within the higher end of neither agree/nor disagree category. Males n = 41, M = 3.77, SD = 1.06 had a lower mean than females, however males responses fall within the neither agree/nor disagree category.

Overall Social Capital Results

This section provides results of the overall responses of the senior class on the Pre-College Social Capital Survey (see PCSCS, Appendix A) and relationship statistics for various operationalized organizational performance/value and individual performance/value results. Table 5.20 provides descriptive statistics for total social capital composite means on the Pre-College Social Capital Survey for the inner-city college preparatory public charter school.

Table 5.20

Descriptive Statistics for Total Social Capital Scores by Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Socio-Economic Status

Descriptive Statistics for Total Social Capital Scores by Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Socio-Economic Status

Composite Social Capital Scores	M	SD	Total Population
Total Senior Class	3.58	.441	101
Males	3.57	.448	41
Females	3.58	.441	60
Not Free/Reduced	3.61	.461	61
Free/Reduced	3.53	.411	40
Caucasians	3.56	.427	39
African Americans	3.63	.439	39
Hispanics	3.40	.284	11
Asians	3.95	.543	6
American Indian	3.50	-	1
Others	3.30	.570	5

Note. N=101

The overall $N = 101$, $M = 3.58$, $SD = .441$) social capital mean for the senior class is in the upper end of neither agree/nor disagree category on the Likert Scale and dividing 3.58 by 5 is 71 percent effectiveness score overall. Asians $n = 6$, $M = 3.95$, $SD = .543$ had the highest mean for total social capital which is in the upper end of the Likert scale of neither agree/nor disagree. The lowest mean came from the "Other" $n = 5$, $M = 3.30$, $SD = .570$ ethnic group. Whites $n = 39$, $M = 3.56$, $SD = .427$ had a mean below the overall mean. African American $n = 39$, $M = 3.63$, $SD = .439$ had a mean above the overall mean. Hispanics $n = 11$, $M = 3.4091$, $SD = .284$ had a low end mean with very little variance in responses.

Table 5.20 also provides descriptive statistics for students total social capital scores by gender. Females $n = 60$, $M = 3.58$, $SD = .441$ had slightly higher mean than the

overall mean. Females overall social capital score is also slightly higher than males *n* = 41, *M* = 3.57, *SD* = .448. Both groups males and females fell within the neither agree/nor disagree category on the Likert scale. Table 5.20 provides descriptive statistics for the total social capital scores by socio-economic status. Students not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance *n* = 61, *M* = 3.61, *SD* = .461. Students receiving free and reduced lunch assistance *n* = 40, *M = 3.53, SD* = .411 had a lower mean but still in the neither agree/nor disagree category.

Prior to conducting a Multi-correlation regression (MCR) analyses on variables of interest correlation matrixes were constructed to detect relationships among variables and detect issues of co-linearity among variables. The variables of interest within the correlation matrix are a combination organizational performance/value and individual performance/value outcomes and the average total social capital score of students. The variables within the matrix include; student service hours, college attainment, parent service hours, grade point averages, American College Test scores, and total social capital scores.

Table 5.21

Correlation Matrix within Inner-City College Preparatory Public Charter High School

Correlation Matrix within Inner-City College Preparatory Public Charter High School

Correlation Matrix	- Student Hours	- College Enrollment	- Parent Hours	- GPA	- ACT	- Composite Social
Student Hours	1					
College Enrollment	0.100	1				
Parent Hours	0.202	0.045	1			
GPA	0.087	0.042	-0.034	1		
ACT	0.121	-0.053	0.259	0.382	1	
Composite Social	0.092	-0.038	-0.021	0.211	-0.003	1

The correlation matrix depicts a weak positive relationship between the dependent variable total social capital scores and student service hours .092. There was a weak negative relationship between total social capital scores and college attainment levels, as well as parent service hours and ACT scores. There is a weak positive relationship between total social capital scores and student grade point averages .211. Although, a weak positive relationship overall, the strongest positive relationship within the matrix was between two independent variables the ACT and GPA at .382. The other positive yet weak relationship between two independent variables within this correlation matrix was ACT scores and parent service hours. Parent service hours had a positive relationship with ACT scores but a negative relationship with student grade point averages -.034. Interestingly, student service hours had a weak but positive relationship with ACT scores .121.

Table 5.22

Model Summary and ANOVA Results for Regression Analysis for Predicting Students Total Social Capital Scores

Model Summary and ANOVA Results for Regression Analysis for Predicting Students Total Social Capital Scores

Model summary	R	R squared	Adjusted R squared		St. E
	.246 [a]	.060	.011		.445
Source	*df*	Sum of squares	Mean square	*F*	Sig.
Between-groups	5	1.21	.242	1.21	.306 [b]
Within-groups	95	18.8	.199		
Total	100	20.0			

Table 5.23

Regression Analysis Summary for Predicting Students Total Social Capital Scores

Regression Analysis Summary for Predicting Students Total Social Capital Scores

Variables	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients Beta (β)			
	B	SE		t	Sig.	Pearson's r
(Constant)	3.44	.257		13.415	.000	
Student Service Hours	.001	.001	.085	.834	.406	.092
College Attainment	-.008	.040	-.022	-.208	.836	-038
Parent Service Hours	.000	.007	-.006	-.058	.954	-.021
Grade Point Averages	.185	.082	.249	2.243	.027*	.211
American College Test	-.011	.012	-.102	-.887	.377	-.003

Note. *$p < 0.05$ indicate significance at the 95% level

Multiple-correlation linear regression analysis was used to develop a model for predicting students' total social capital scores from their parent and student service hours, college attainment, grade point averages and ACT scores. Table 5.22 shows the results of the regression coefficients. The results from the regression analysis indicated a statistically significant regression $F(5, .242) = 1.219$, $p < 0.027$ among predictor variable student total level of social capital and student grade point averages. Grade point average had a significant relationship with the dependent variable total social capital $p = .027$, however the model accounted for 1.1% (Adjusted $R^2 = .011$) of the variance in total social capital scores. It is predicted that within the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school that as students' grade point averages increased so would students' level of social capital. Total social capital was calculated as a composite average for each subscale on the PCSCS (see PCSCS, Appendix A) the subscales are association

membership, parental involvement, peer relationships, teacher involvement, school counselor involvement, mentoring, media use, school environment, residential stability, and charter school effectiveness.

Prior to conducting the second Multi-correlation regression (MCR) analyses on variables of interest an additional correlation matrix was constructed to detect relationships among variables and detect issues of co-linearity among variables. The variables of interest within the correlation matrix are a combination of student achievement results and parent service hours to the school. The variables within the matrix include; grade point averages, American College Test scores, and parent service hours.

Table 5.24

Correlation Matrix for Inner-City College Preparatory Public Charter High School for Student Service Hours, Grade Point Averages, and ACT scores

Correlation Matrix for Inner-City College Preparatory Public Charter High School for Student Service Hours, Grade Point Averages, and ACT scores

Correlation Matrix	GPA	ACT	Parent Service Hours
GPA	1		
ACT	0.382	1	
Parent Service	-0.092	0.259	1

There is a weak but positive relationship between parent service hours and ACT scores. As ACT scores went up so did parent service hours documented. Conversely, there was a weak but negative relationship between parent service hours and grade point averages, as grade point averages went up documented parent service hours went down. There was also a weak but positive relationship between the two independent variables ACT scores and student grade point averages.

Table 5.25

Model Summary and ANOVA Results for Regression Analysis for Predicting Parents Service Hours to the School

Model Summary and ANOVA Results for Regression Analysis for Predicting Parents Service Hours to the School

Model summary	R	R squared	Adjusted R squared		St. E
	.298 [a]	.089	.070		7.08
Source	*df*	Sum of squares	Mean square	*F*	Sig.
Between-groups	2	478.6	239.3	4.76	.011 [b]
Within-groups	98	4918.9	50.19		
Total	100	5397.5			

Table 5.26
Regression Analysis Summary for Predicting Parents Service Hours to the School

Regression Analysis Summary for Predicting Parents Service Hours to the School

Variables	Unstandardized coefficient		Standardized coefficients	t	Sig.	Pearson's r
	B	SE	Beta (β)			
(Constant)	-5.65	3.96		-1.42	.157	
Grade Point Averages	-1.92	1.27	-.157	-1.50	.135	-0.03
American College Test Scores	.547	.178	.320	3.06	.003*	.259

Note. *p < 0.05 indicate significance at the 95% level

The multiple-correlation linear regression analysis was used to develop a model for predicting an operationalized social capital measure of the charter school parent service hours from two student achievement outcomes student grade point averages and ACT scores. Table 5.24 shows the results of the analysis and regression coefficients. The results from the regression analysis indicated a statistically significant regression F(2, 239.304) = 4.768, $p < 0.003$ among predictor variable parent service hours and the

American College Test (ACT). The ACT had a significant relationship with the dependent variable parent service hours $p = .003$, however the model accounted for 7% (Adjusted $R^2 = .070$) of the variance in parent service hours. Students ACT scores had a relationship between parents hours served at the school. ACT scores had a significant relationship with the dependent variable parent hours served $p = .003$. It is predicted that within the inner-city college preparatory public charter that as ACT scores increased so would parent service hours. Parent service hours were operationalized in this evaluation as a social capital variable for parental involvement for college preparation. As mentioned earlier, casual effects cannot be determined from this model, however it is important to note that within the school both regression models indicate that social capital measures were affected positively by an outcome measure of the school.

This chapter provided the statistical analysis and results associated with determining if the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school was effectively reaching its pre-established goals for all students. The three one-way analysis of variance and T-test conducted for various organizational performance/value and individual performance/value results determined significant differences in many of the results between socio-economic status and racial/ethnic categories. Significant relationships were found between total social capital outcomes and student grade point averages as well as parent service hours and ACT scores. The next chapter elaborates on these findings and discusses conclusions from this study, as well as identifying implications for educational stakeholders, recommendations for future research, and personal reflections.

CHAPTER SIX

The purpose of this evaluation science was two-fold 1) evaluate the effectiveness of the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school's organizational performance/value and individual performance/value goals for the senior class graduating in the tenth year of operation and 2) investigate the relationship of social capital measures within an inner-city college preparatory public charter school context. The senior class consisted of 101 total students. The mission of the public charter is to provide a challenging curriculum through Advanced Placement course work to all students in order to ensure success at a four-year university. Students in the senior class taking AP courses and preparing for college were ethnically and socio-economically diverse. Given the literature highlighting the achievement gap and more precisely the opportunity gap problems and the lack of post-secondary educational attainment issues for low-income and minority students in the U.S. this study explored the effectiveness of a college preparatory public charter high school as a schooling option to remedy these problems.

This study investigated the following questions:

1. Is the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school effectively reaching its organizational performance and value and individual performance and value goals for all students?
2. Are there statistically significant differences in organizational performance and value and individual performance and value results between student gender, socio-economic status, and racial/ethnic classification in the 2013 senior class?

3. Are there any relationships between social capital, civic engagement, and student achievement results for the senior class at the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school?

Organizational Performance Findings

Is the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school effectively reaching its organizational performance? The conclusion to this question is depicted below in Table 6.1. The glaring absence of data for students receiving special education services for the senior class was certainly the "Achilles Heel" as the literature suggests for meeting the goals of the school within all quadrants when accounting for all students (Fierros & Blomberg, 2005; Fiore & Harwell, 2000; Rhim & McLaughlin, 2001). The overall mission of the school may exclude students in need of special education services as the mission emphasizes an Advanced Placement Curriculum with no other options mentioned. In this aspect district public schools do a better job of serving all students. The public college-preparatory school may consider adjusting its mission to be more inclusive of all students.

Table 6.1

Inner-City College Preparatory Public Charter High School's Overall Effectiveness

Inner-City College Preparatory Public Charter High School's Overall Effectiveness						
Organizational Performance –	School Goal –	Results –	Minority Groups –	Low SES –	Special Education –	Overall Effectiveness
College Matriculation	100%	94%	Effective	Effective	N/A	Effective
AP Participation	202 tests	211	Very Effective	Very Effective	N/A	Effective
AP Test Scores	3 or higher	2.2	Ineffective	Ineffective	N/A	Ineffective
ACT Scores	24 or higher	22.2	Ineffective	Ineffective	N/A	Ineffective
Grade Point Averages	2.50 or higher	2.28	Ineffective	Ineffective	N/A	Ineffective
Parental Involvement	100%	68%	Effective	Effective	N/A	Effective
Organizational Value -	School Goal –	Results –	Minority Groups –	Low SES –	Special Education –	Overall Effectiveness
Teacher Involvement	100%	70%	Effective	Effective	N/A	Effective

(*Table 6.1 continues*)

(*Table 6.1 continued*)

Organizational Value -	School Goal – Results – Minority Groups – Low SES – Special Education – Overall Effectiveness					
Counselor Involvement	100%	72%	Effective	Effective	N/A	Effective
Mentoring Involvement	100%	64%	Effective	Efective	N/A	Effective
School Evaluation	100%	78%	Effective	Effective	N/A	Effective
Individual Performance -	School Goal – Results – Minority Groups – Low SES – Special Education – Overall Effectiveness					
Parent Service Hours	2525	209	Ineffective	Ineffective	N/A	Ineffective
Student Service Hours	3030	1097	Ineffective	Ineffective	N/A	Ineffective
Association Membership	100%	64%	Effective	Effective	N/A	Effective
Individual Value -	School Goal – Results – Minority Groups – Low SES – Special Education – Overall Effectiveness					
Peer Relationships	100%	82%	Effective	Effective	N/A	Effective
Media Use	100%	70%	Effective	Effective	N/A	Effective
School Environment	100%	81%	Effective	Effective	N/A	Effective
Residential Stability	100%	76%	Effective	Effective	N/A	Effective
Composite Social Capital	100%	71%	Effective	Effective	N/A	Effective

The most impressive result of the evaluation was the effectiveness the school had in preparing all its enrolled students for post-secondary education. The school effectively attained this goal as 94 percent of the senior class matriculated to at least some form of post-secondary education. The senior class did effectively exceed its participation goal for Advanced Placement tests. A one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of students' socio-economic status on their AP English Literature and Composition test scores. There was a significant effect of student socio-economic status on students AP English Literature and Composition score at the $p < .0125$ for the two conditions $F(1,69) = 8.135 = p < .005$ with more economically resourced students scoring better than students receiving free and/or subsidized lunch.

A one-way between subjects ANOVA was also conducted to compare the effect of students' race/ethnicity on their American College test scores. There was also a significant effect of students' race/ethnicity on American College Test scores at the $p < .0125$ for the two conditions $F(5,95) = 3.693 = p < .004$. Post hoc comparisons results using the post hoc Bonferroni test indicated the mean score for Whites $M = 23.7$, $SD =$

.6423 was significantly different than African Americans mean ACT score *M* = 20.6, *SD* = .6936 with Whites significantly performing better on the test. Additionally, a one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of students' ethnicity on their grade point averages. There was a significant effect of students race/ethnicity on student grade point averages at the $p < .0125$ for two conditions $F(5, 95) = 4.867$, $p = .001$. Post hoc comparisons using the Bonferroni test indicated that the mean GPA score for Whites *M* = 2.46, *SD* = .555 was significantly different than African Americans *M* = 2.03, *SD* = .537 and there was significant differences between Asians *M* = 3.0, *SD* = .000 and African Americans *M* = 2.03, *SD* = .537 with Whites and Asians significantly having higher grade point averages than African Americans. These results indicate that the inner-city college preparatory public charter school is not effectively closing the achievement gap for poor and minority students with respect to end of year absolute comparisons. The parental involvement component was effective for all student groups with the exception of special education. Overall, on average, the organizational performance quadrant received three effective results and three ineffective results.

Organizational Value Findings

The organizational value quadrant received effective scores on average for all data points. Overall, students felt like their school provided them with an adequate education, adequate extra-curricular activities, and that the charter school was preparing them for college at 78 percent favorable rating on the PCSCS (see PCSCS, Appendix A). This high ratings support the literature about charter schools being favored by their patrons (Abdulkadiroglu et al., 2009; Therriault, Gandhi, Casasanto, & Carney, 2010; Cobb & Suarez, 2000; Booker et al., 2009). The lowest percentage rating for the charter

school in this quadrant came from the mentoring opportunities at the school which received a 64 percent overall rating. This question on the PCSCS (see PCSCS, Appendix A) pertained mainly to the job shadowing mentor program that seniors are required to participate in through their senior capstone course. School leaders should further explore this area in order to provide a better experience for all students. Finally, counselor involvement was ranked slightly higher than teacher involvement by 2 percent (72% vs. 70%). The questions on the survey may have been more suitable to the counseling profession however, the charter school attempts to engage teachers in the same college going conversations.

Individual Performance Findings

On average, overall, this quadrant received an ineffective rating. The individual performance quadrant consisted of parent, student service hours, and association membership. Although association membership was viewed as effective as a majority of students from all groups gender, socio-economic, and ethnic reported that they were associated with some group or activity it was still one of the lowest percentages overall at 64 percent on the PCSC survey (see PCSCS, Appendix A). Parent and student service hours documented were well below the overall goal of the school. A paired-samples t-test was conducted to compare parent service hours between families receiving free and reduced lunch assistance and those not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance. There was a significant difference in service hours reported for students on free and reduced lunches $M = 3.295$, $SD = 9.244$ and students not receiving free and reduced lunch assistance $M = .20$, $SD = .992$ documented hours $t = 1.98$ and $p = .026$ with economically advantaged families logging significantly more hours of service. This evaluation was for

the senior class. Senior students and families are busy preparing for college, finishing their AP coursework, and their mentoring hours in the spring. The service hour agreement may be too high for the senior year. This evaluator's recommendation is to cut the service hours in half for the senior class.

Individual Value and Social Capital Findings

The individual value quadrant was the most impressive area overall receiving effective ratings for all data points. Peer relationships received the highest overall rating at 82 percent. School environment received the next highest overall rating at 81 percent. Media use had the lowest overall score at 70 percent and residential stability had a rating of 76 percent. These important social capital measures assist with closing a vital opportunity gap. Overall the charter received an effective rating on average.

The overall social capital score was 71 percent. A multiple linear regression analysis was used to develop a model for predicting students' total social capital scores from their parent and student service hours, college attainment, grade point averages and ACT scores. The only predictor variable to demonstrate an ascertained relationship to student total level of social capital was student grade point averages. Grade point average had a significant relationship with the dependent variable total social capital $p = .027$. It is predicted that within the inner-city college preparatory public charter high that as students' grade point averages increased so would students' level of social capital. Total social capital was calculated as a composite average for each subscale on the PCSCS (see PCSCS, Appendix A) the subscales are association membership, parental involvement, peer relationships, teacher involvement, school counselor involvement, mentoring, media use, school environment, residential stability, and charter school effectiveness. This

model demonstrates a relationship between the charter school's positive effect on social capital development.

Additionally, a multiple linear regression analysis was used to develop a model for predicting an operationalized social capital measure of parent service hours from two student achievement outcomes student grade point averages and ACT scores. ACT scores had a significant relationship with the dependent variable parent hours served $p = .003$. It is predicted that within the inner-city college preparatory public charter that as ACT scores increased so would parent service hours. Parent service hours were operationalized in this evaluation as a social capital variable for parental involvement for college preparation. Again, as student achievement increased in both models the increase predicted higher levels of social capital within and beyond the school context.

College Preparatory Charter Schools and Social Capital Development

The college-age population was 26.6 million in the year 2000 and is projected to increase to 30.3 million in 2025, with strong growth among minority groups (U. S. Census Bureau, 2010). The underrepresentation of low-income, African-American and Latino students in the college population is likely to have a substantial effect on American society and the economy in terms of lower lifetime earnings, increased dependence on welfare, and lower productivity (Kirp, 2010). Lower rates of participation in postsecondary education by a growing minority population necessitate for many policy officials the creation of free public college preparatory high schools (Perna, 2000). The major implication of this evaluation science study overall found the schooling option of the college preparatory public charter high school to be effective in terms of closing the opportunity gap by focusing on building social capital to prepare poor and minority

students for post-secondary education. Although there were significant differences in student achievement scores for poor and minority students, the ascertained relationship between social capital measures and student achievement within the college preparatory charter school context implies that the opportunity gap was minimized. As student grade point averages increased so did the level of student social capital suggesting that the social capital goals of the college preparatory charter school made a difference in the academic outcomes of its students. Additionally, the ascertained relationship between ACT scores and parent service hours suggests an inferred relationship between parental involvement within the school effects student achievement.

This outcome based effectiveness evaluation was driven by the theoretical lens of social capital theory. The inner-city college preparatory public charter school in this evaluation had explicit goals pertaining to the social capital variables of association membership, parental involvement, peer relationships, teacher involvement, school counselor involvement, mentoring, media use, school environment, and residential stability. Students had high social capital scores overall $N = 101$, $M = 3.58$. Further research needs to be conducted on social capital measures in college preparatory public charter high school settings to explore this option as a viable means for closing the opportunity for poor and minority students. The sample size for this evaluation was too small to generalize to a larger population. The relationship between parental service hours at the school and its effects on student achievement should be investigated further.

A longitudinal study of pre-college program participation and college preparatory public charter schools should be conducted incorporating college matriculation and success as success at a four year university was essentially the goal of this inner-city

college preparatory public charter high school. Past quantitative studies involving social capital and educational attainment have involved national data sets that are not specifically designed to capture the influence of social capital on educational achievement, attainment, and college entrance. Feedback from pre-college programs and college preparatory public charter school alumni would provide valuable data regarding higher education matriculation and graduation.

Finally, the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school in this evaluation was effective, on average, in reducing the opportunity gap for poor and minority students. School leaders should consider the larger educational landscape. Segregation, exclusionary mission statements, and arbitrary lotteries are issues that still plague the charter schooling option. Policy officials and school leaders should pay particular attention to charter school mission statements and demand language that is inclusionary of all students. Application and lottery systems need to be retooled to require certain percentages of ethnic, socio-economic, and special needs populations.

As previously mentioned quantifying social capital possessed by individual students, school-sites, and ultimately entire school districts is possible by examining the size of the network of connections a person can effectively utilize and examining the volume of capital that is of value to those within an individual's network (Bourdieu, 1986). The Pre-College Social Capital Survey (see PCSCS, Appendix A) can effectively assist school leaders in evaluating broader schooling goals by measuring the levels of social capital in their schools and districts. This kind of measure serves as an important "dashboard" gauge on how to address issues of capital production in schooling. Addressing the social issues that impact schooling can create more equitable

opportunities for all students. The connections a person can utilize and the volume of capital within those networks are not adequately captured through achievement test score data. School leaders seeking to broaden their evaluations and develop school processes to increase students' own networks whereby contributing to the development of the whole child can do so by establishing and measuring social capital goals. Focusing on social capital measures directly at the school site or school district setting may assist school leaders with identifying, addressing and improving social equity issues and the opportunity gap.

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Appendix A

THE PRE-COLLEGE SOCIAL CAPITAL SURVEY

Pre-College Social Capital Survey (PCSCS)

Your participation in completing this survey is voluntary. At any time, you may refrain from completing this survey and void the information you provide. Anonymity will be maintained. The information that you will provide will be used for educational purposes and a summary of the results will be given to your school administration. The school administration reserves the right to use the summary in determining any changes to current the program. Please fill in the circle that best describes your feelings toward each statement.

Association Membership I often participate in…	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree/Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. religious organizations (ex. church).	○	○	○	○	○
2. charity or volunteer organizations.	○	○	○	○	○
3. ethnic or racial organizations.	○	○	○	○	○
4. a neighborhood association.	○	○	○	○	○
5. school-related organizations.	○	○	○	○	○
6. political clubs or organizations.	○	○	○	○	○
7. social clubs (ex. hobbies, music).	○	○	○	○	○
8. youth groups (ex. scouts, team sports).	○	○	○	○	○

Parental Involvement My parents(s) and I…	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree/Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
9. discuss my course options.	○	○	○	○	○
10. discuss my college options.	○	○	○	○	○
11. discuss my career options.	○	○	○	○	○
12. do school work together.	○	○	○	○	○
13. do activities together regularly.	○	○	○	○	○
14. socialize with other people regularly.	○	○	○	○	○

Peer Relationships My friends and I…	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree/Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
15. discuss course options.	○	○	○	○	○
16. discuss college options.	○	○	○	○	○
17. discuss career options.	○	○	○	○	○
18. do school work together.	○	○	○	○	○
19. do activities together regularly.	○	○	○	○	○
20. socialize with other people regularly.	○	○	○	○	○

Teacher Involvement My teacher(s) and I…	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree/Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
21. discuss course options.	○	○	○	○	○
22. discuss college options.	○	○	○	○	○
23. discuss career options.	○	○	○	○	○
24. work one-on-one on school work as I need it.	○	○	○	○	○
My teacher(s)…					
25. invites guest speakers into the classroom.	○	○	○	○	○
26. requires group assignments.	○	○	○	○	○

School Counselor Involvement My counselor and I…	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree/Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
27. discuss course options.	○	○	○	○	○
28. discuss college options.	○	○	○	○	○
29. discuss career options.	○	○	○	○	○
30. discuss tutoring for me as needed.	○	○	○	○	○

Please complete items 31-63 on the back of this page

THE PRE-COLLEGE SOCIAL CAPITAL SURVEY

Mentoring	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree / Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
My mentor and I…					
31. discuss my course options.	○	○	○	○	○
32. discuss my college options.	○	○	○	○	○
33. discuss my career options.	○	○	○	○	○
34. do school work together.	○	○	○	○	○
35. socialize with other role models.	○	○	○	○	○
36. engage in job shadowing activities.	○	○	○	○	○
37. spend time together regularly.	○	○	○	○	○
Media Use	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree / Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
38. I watch television for entertainment.	○	○	○	○	○
39. I watch television for information.	○	○	○	○	○
40. I read the newspaper for entertainment.	○	○	○	○	○
41. I read the newspaper for information.	○	○	○	○	○
42. I use the internet for entertainment.	○	○	○	○	○
43. I use the internet for information.	○	○	○	○	○
44. I listen to the radio for entertainment.	○	○	○	○	○
45. I listen to the radio for information.	○	○	○	○	○
46. I read books for entertainment.	○	○	○	○	○
47. I read books for information.	○	○	○	○	○
School Environment	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree/Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
48. My school provides me an adequate education.	○	○	○	○	○
49. My school provides me adequate extra-curricular activities.	○	○	○	○	○
50. My school is a safe place.	○	○	○	○	○
Residential Stability	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree / Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
My neighborhood is…					
51. safe.	○	○	○	○	○
52. stable.	○	○	○	○	○
53. friendly.	○	○	○	○	○

Harding Charter Prep

54. Are you a current student at Harding Charter Prep?	○ Yes	○ No

Harding Charter Preparatory High School is…	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree / Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
55. preparing me for college.	○	○	○	○	○
56. increasing my social network/number of friends.	○	○	○	○	○
57. increasing my access to mentors.	○	○	○	○	○
58. exposing me to potential college majors and careers.	○	○	○	○	○
59. assisting me academically.	○	○	○	○	○

Demographics

This information will be used to determine any relationships between the survey items above and respondents with similar backgrounds. Please indicate the item that best describes you.

60. Race	○ African-American	○ White	○ Hispanic	○ Asian	○ Other _____
61. Current grade point average	○ 0 to 1.0	○ 1.0-2.0	○ 2.0-3.0	○ 3.0-4.0	
62. Current grade level	○ 9th	○ 10th	○ 11th	○ 12th	○ ○ ○
63. Gender	○ Male	○ Female			

Thank you for participating in this survey.

Appendix B

Inner-City College Preparatory Public Charter High School

Family Expectations

I understand that the inner-city college preparatory public charter high school's reputation has been built, in part, on the fact that it is a community of caring adults and students. To maintain this level of community there are family expectations, which the administrators value. These expectations include:

- To do my best as parent/guardian to compete 25 hours of volunteer service to the school per academic year.
- To see that my child completes 30 hours of volunteer service per academic year.
- To encourage and support academic assignments such as Summer Readings.
- To provide an environment where homework may be accomplished.
- To communicate to administrators any concerns I might have either about a curriculum issue or about an educator.
- To encourage my student to become their own self advocate involving issues with teachers, grades or assignments.

_____

Parent or Guardian Signature

_____

Student Signature

Appendix C

Coding Instructions for Survey Questionnaire and SPSS

SPSS Data Column	
1	Ethnicity 1 White 2 African American 3 Hispanic 4 Asian 5 American Indian 6 Other
2	Gender 1 Females 2 Males
3	Socio-Economic Status 0 Not Free/Reduced 1 Free/Reduced
4	College Matriculation 0 No College 1 2 Year College 2 4 Year College or University
5	Advanced Placement Participation 0 – 5 AP Tests Taken
6	Advanced Placement Scores 1 – 5 AP Scores
7	American College Test Scores 0 – 36 ACT Scores
8	Grade Point Averages 1.0 – 4.0 Four Point Scale (Non-Weighted)
9	Parent Service Hours 0 – 209 Parents Logged Service Hours
10	Student Service Hours 0 – 1,097 Students Logged Service Hours

11 Religious Organizations
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

12 Charity or Volunteer Organizations
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

13 Ethnic or Racial Organizations
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

14 Neighborhood Association
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

15 School-Related Organizations
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

16 Political Clubs or Organizations
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

17 Social Clubs
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree

4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

18 Youth Groups
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

19 Parent(s) – Discuss Course Options
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

20 Parent(s) – Discuss College Options
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

21 Parent(s) – Discuss Career Options
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

22 Parent(s) – Do School Work Together
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

23 Parent(s) – Socialize With Other People
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

24 Peer(s) – Discuss Course Options

1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

25 Peer(s) – Discuss College Options
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

26 Peer(s) – Discuss Career Options
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

27 Peer(s) – Do School Work Together
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

28 Peer(s)- Do Activities Together Regularly
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

29 Peer(s) – Socialize With Other People Regularly
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

30 Teacher(s) – Discuss Course Options
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree

4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

31 Teacher(s) – Discuss College Options
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

32 Teacher(s) – Discuss Career Options
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

33 Teacher(s) – Work One-On-One On School Work
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

34 Teacher(s) – Invite Guest Speakers
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

35 Teacher(s) Require Group Assignments
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

36 Counselor(s) Discuss Course Options
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

37 Counselor(s) Discuss College Options
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

38 Counselor(s) Discuss Career Options
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

39 Counselor(s) Discuss Tutoring As Needed
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

40 Mentor(s) Discuss Course Options
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

41 Mentor(s) College Options
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

42 Mentor(s) Career Options
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

43 Mentor(s) Do School Work Together
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree

3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

44 Mentor(s) Socialize With Other Role Models
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

45 Mentor(s) Engage In Job Shadowing Activities
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

46 Mentor(s) Spend Time Together Regularly
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

47 Media Use – Television for Entertainment
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

48 Media Use – Television for Information
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

49 Media Use – Newspaper for Entertainment
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

50 Media Use – Internet for Entertainment
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

51 Media Use – Internet for Information
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

52 Media Use – Radio for Entertainment
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

53 Media Use – Radio for Information
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

54 Media Use – Books for Entertainment
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

55 Media Use – Books for Information
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

56 School Environment – Adequate Education
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree

3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

57 School Environment – Adequate Extra Activities
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

58 School Environment – Safe Place
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

59 Residential Stability – Neighborhood Safe
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

60 Residential Stability – Neighborhood Stable
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

61 Residential Stability – Neighborhood Friendly
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

62 Charter School Effectiveness – College Preparation
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

63 Charter School Effectiveness – Network Friends
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

64 Charter School Effectiveness – Access to Mentors
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

65 Charter School Effectiveness – Exposure to College
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree

66 Charter School Effectiveness – Academic Help
1 Strongly Disagree
2 Disagree
3 Neither Agree/nor Disagree
4 Agree
5 Strongly Agree