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Program Evaluation of the Practicum I Summer Program From a Student's Perspective

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Program Evaluation of the Practicum I Summer Program From a Student's Perspective

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Marshall University Graduate College
2003

Thesis submitted to
the Graduate College of
Marshall University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
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in
School Psychology

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Abstract

The organization, function, and value of the School Psychology Practicum I summer program at Marshall University Graduate College is examined. The perceptions of students recently completing the practicum are evaluated to determine their association with the program objectives. Data collection utilizes a questionnaire developed from the goals and objectives of the program and the criteria for evaluation of student performance. Frequency analysis, descriptive statistics, and crosstabulation are utilized to assess the data. The students expressed an overall satisfaction with the practicum experience. The study's limitations are explored and recommendations for program improvement are presented.

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Literature Review

An evaluation is the process of systematically and objectively collecting and interpreting information to determine the accomplishments, strengths, weaknesses, merit, worth, or significance of an object (McNamara, 2000). Program evaluation is carefully collecting information about a program or some aspect of a program in order to make necessary decisions about the program (McNamara, 2000). The general goal of most evaluations is to gain information in order to provide useful feedback and aid in decision-making about the program. The purpose for program evaluation is to gain information and make informed decisions that influence decision-making or policy formulation through the provision of empirically driven feedback (McNamara, 2000). The study of program evaluation is undertaken with the expectations that it will lead to improvements in practice as well as understanding of the object of study (Scriven, 1999). The main reasons to evaluate a program is typically to determine progress toward achievement of objectives, improve program implementation, provide accountability to stakeholders, increase community support for initiatives, and inform policy decisions (Scriven, 1999).

There are many different types of evaluations depending on the object being evaluated and the purpose of the evaluation. The types of evaluation are distinguished by how the information is going to be obtained and used throughout the program. The type of evaluation one utilizes to improve their program also depends on what one wants to learn about the program. Perhaps the most basic distinction in evaluation types is that between formative and summative evaluation. An evaluation done by or for the developer as an aide to improvement is often called formative evaluation (McNamara,

2000). Formative evaluation is designed to assess the strengths and weaknesses of the object being evaluated. This is often done by examining the delivery of the program, the quality of its implementation, and the assessment of the organizational context, personnel, procedures, input, etc. (McNamara, 2000). Its basic purpose is to maximize the possibility for program success before it is implemented. In contrast, when evaluation is done at the completion of the work, or a phase of work, it is often called summative evaluation (Scriven, 1999). Furthermore, summative evaluations examine the impact, outcome, or effect of a program or method. They summarize the program by describing what happens subsequent to implementation, assessing whether the object can be said to have caused the outcome, determining the overall impact of the causal factor beyond only the immediate target outcomes, and estimating the relative costs associated with the object (McNamara, 2000).

Today, program evaluation activities are extensive, varied, and united with management functions. Program evaluations no longer focus solely on establishing cause and effect relationships, but rather they are utilized for making program decisions relating to effectiveness, efficiency, and adequacy based on systematic data collection and analysis (Rossi & Freeman, 1993). Program evaluation can be beneficial in many ways. It can aid in determining, understanding, and improving the program's effect; improving program delivery so that it is more efficient and cost effective; determining whether the program is operating as originally planned; assessing how the program is progressing toward its goals; producing data or verifying results for public relations and promotional reasons; and producing valid comparisons between similar programs to fully identify, examine, describe, and replicate effective program models (McNamara, 2000).

Designing program evaluation typically depends on the information needed to make major decisions and on available resources. The more focused the examination, the more time efficient and cost effective the evaluation (McNamara, 2000). On the other hand, examining a certain program aspect in great detail typically results in less information about the other aspects of the program (McNamara, 2000). As one acquires more skills and knowledge, the evaluations tend to get better. From experience, one learns from supervision, interaction with colleagues, continued practice, and reflection on advice and the results of experiments. As a result, errors are reduced, efficiency increased, and speed improved. This is the natural development of skill. Novices in program evaluation and those with fewer resources will often utilize a variety of methods to obtain the breadth and depth of information needed to make informative, efficient, and cost-effective decisions (McNamara, 2000). In designing a program evaluation, it is crucial to consider why the evaluation is being done, to whom the information is being presented, the kinds of information needed to make the decisions and/or inform the intended audiences, the sources from which the information should be collected, the manner in which the information can be collected, the time frame in which the information is needed, and the resources available to collect the information (McNamara, 2000).

When designing an evaluation approach, one should consider the following three types of evaluations that are common in organizations: goals-based evaluations, process-based evaluations, and outcomes-based evaluations. Goals-based evaluations determine the extent to which programs are meeting predetermined goals (McNamara, 2000). When utilizing this type of evaluation, it is important to consider how the program goals

were established and whether the process was effective, the status of the program's progress toward attaining the objectives, whether the goals will be met within specified time frames, whether the personnel have adequate resources to meet the goals, whether priorities should be refocused on attaining the goals, whether time frames and/or goals should be modified, and how goals should be developed in the future (McNamara, 2000). Process-based evaluations are designed to fully understand how a program operates and how it gets its results (McNamara, 2000). These evaluations examine what is required of employees in order to deliver the services, the training employees receive to deliver the services, how clients enter the program, the requirements of the clients, the general process the client must go through in the program, what clients consider the strengths and weaknesses of the program, typical complaints about the program, and how employees and clients decide services are no longer needed (McNamara, 2000). Outcomes-based evaluations determine whether the organization is providing the program activities to meet the needs of the client (McNamara, 2000). Outcomes are benefits the program offers to its clients and are usually in terms of enhanced learning, increased literacy, self-reliance, etc. (McNamara, 2000). When designing this type of evaluation, it is important to identify the major outcomes to be examined or verified for the program, identify the outcomes to be examined and prioritize them if needed, specify the observable measures that will represent outcome attainment, specify a target goal for clients, identify the information needed to demonstrate these indicators, decide how to efficiently and realistically collect the information, and analyze and report the findings (McNamara, 2000).

The overall goal in selecting evaluation methods is to get the most useful information to key stakeholders in the most cost effective and realistic manner. When selecting evaluation methods, it is important to consider what information is needed to make current decisions about the program, how much of this information can be collected and analyzed in a cost efficient and practical manner, how accurate the information will be, whether the methods will get all the information needed, what additional methods could be useful in gaining additional information if needed, whether the information will appear credible to decision makers and stakeholders, will the nature of the audience conform to the methods, who is capable of administering the methods or is training necessary, and how the information is to be analyzed (McNamara, 2000). It is ideal to use a variety of methods to quickly collect the information and obtain the depth of information required.

Qualitative research is designed to produce descriptions of observation in the form of interviews, narratives, field notes, recordings, transcripts from audio and videotapes, written records of all kinds, pictures or films, and artifacts (LeCompte & Preissle, 1994). Only since the mid-1980s have these designs been considered respectable in educational research. Most qualitative studies are concerned with the context of events and focus their examination on those contexts that people directly experience, are involved and interested in, and value (Sherman & Webb, 1988). Furthermore, qualitative researchers investigate contexts that are natural, rather than developed or modified by the researcher (Sherman & Webb, 1988).

When analyzing and interpreting quantitative and qualitative data, it is important to start with reviewing one's evaluation goals or purpose of evaluation. This will help to

organize the data and provide focus to the analysis (McNamara, 2000). Depending on the type of evaluation, the data could be organized based on program strengths, weaknesses, and suggestions to improve the program; chronological order in which clients go through the program; and, the indicators for each program outcome. There should be duplicate copies of quantitative information, particularly a secure master copy stored away for later use; the data should be calculated based on useful categories; the information should be rated or ranked based on useful and meaningful analysis strategies; and, the data should convey a range of answers (McNamara, 2000). Qualitative information should be thoroughly examined and organized into similarly labeled categories or themes; patterns, associations, and causal relationships in the themes must be identified; and, all commentary information should be securely stored for several years if needed for future reference (McNamara, 2000). When reporting evaluation results, it is important to consider to whom the report is intended to determine the level and scope of the documentation; carefully review and discuss the report with the employees, clients, etc. to translate recommendations to actions plans; and, record the evaluation plans and activities which can be referenced to when a similar program is needed in the future (McNamara, 2000).

The literature on the use of program evaluation information tends to be divided. Views during the late 1970s and early 1980s were mostly pessimistic. During this time, the general consensus was that there was a shortage of good empirical use studies in the literature (LeCompte & Preissle, 1994). Furthermore, very few empirical studies of evaluation utilization have been conducted. Most of the literature is subjective in form. Many program evaluators came to be concerned with the validity of the use of evaluation

findings and their applicability to making informative and sound decisions (LeCompte & Preissle, 1994). It was also difficult to demonstrate the direct link between evaluation results and educational decisions. At this time, it was uncertain as to whether evaluation would be part of the solution or part of the problems with education. Following this period, definitions of use were broadened, and evaluators increasingly recognized that not all program evaluations can or should be directly used in making specific decisions (LeCompte & Preissle, 1994). At this point, the views became more optimistic. Some authors began suggesting the extent of evaluation use may have been underestimated in previous literature (Datta, 1978). Empirical evidence suggested that administrators found evaluation information useful in identifying possible problem areas, although they found the methodology of some evaluation complicated (Alkin, Kosecoff, Fitz-Gibbon, & Seligman, 1974). These new results were not contradictory with prior data on utilization, but they suggested a broader definition of utilization and different categories of evaluative information was needed. The literature during the 1970s and 1980s reflected a growing recognition that subtle, but still important, types of use may be more typical than are direct uses of program evaluation information (Brown & Braskamp, 1980). From the beginning, program evaluators recognized that the nonuse of evaluative information could have serious results. Nonuse represented an enormous waste of effort. It also represented the potential waste of substantial funds. However, the most detrimental effect of nonuse was that educational and social programs were unable to meet the needs of their clients. Furthermore, views evolved that program evaluators can and should take some responsibility for making program evaluations useful and that such efforts can be productive. This was a dramatic shift from traditional views in which the evaluator

had been very hesitant to claim any responsibility for the use of his or her findings (Polivka & Steg, 1978). This approach made it easy to ignore evaluation results. Concurrent with these shifts in perspective, more research regarding evaluation use that was subjective or qualitative was reported in the late 1980s and the early 1990s (LeCompte & Preissle, 1994).

There are many factors that affect whether evaluation information is used. Evaluation information is most likely to be used when a program is new and administrators cannot make judgments based on past experiences. For example, Matuszek and Holley (1977) reported that evaluation information tended to get the most response when it really does represent something the decision maker does not already know. Literature also suggests that evaluative information is most likely to be used when only moderate changes in the program in procedure, staff use, or costs are required and the environment is not extremely divided or where few interests are threatened (Weiss, 1972, Meltsner, 1976).

The literature on evaluation use includes several recommendations that appear to be essential to optimizing evaluation use. The recommendations involve identifying evaluation issues, acknowledging evaluation subjectivity, considering political realities, explicitly recommending policy decisions, not overemphasizing single forms of proof, and building personal rapport with administrators and program personnel (Thompson, 1994). However, it is important to realize that although the factors affecting evaluation use are distinguishable, they are highly complex and interactive (Brown, Newman, & Rivers, 1985). The evaluation context must be viewed as unique as well. Furthermore, it is crucial that the evaluator consider these factors in a holistic manner, recognizing the

highly complex and interactive aspects, to alter the overall effects of the program (Weiner, Rubin, & Sachse, 1977).

Evaluation results will be useful if they address issues of pressing concern to administrators or potential users (Alkin, Daillak, & White, 1979). In addition, useful information must be easy to identify and within the capacity to provide (Fletcher, 1972). To maximize the likelihood that evaluative information will be used, evaluators should focus on the priority informational needs of specific administrators (Thompson, 1994). Because administrators are unable to forecast or verbalize future informational needs, evaluators “should anticipate questions and be proactive” (Law, 1980, p. 74) when identifying some evaluation issues. Evaluator credibility should improve when there is an honest effort to be responsive to administrators’ needs (Thompson, 1994).

Evaluators should acknowledge the subjectivity of evaluative efforts, when these elements are imminent, and offer informed support for decision-making (Thompson, 1994). This must be provided with caution because sometimes administrators misinterpret these recommendations as admissions of defective evaluation. Over the past 50 years in the social sciences and education, there has been a movement away from exclusive reliance on absolute standards by which to measure the quality of research and evaluation (LeCompte, 1994). In acknowledging the subjectivities of evaluators and participants, the view that evaluation could be truly objective was rejected.

Evaluators must recognize the political aspects of evaluative efforts and consciously work within the context of these boundaries since their work has an effect on government decisions (Thompson, 1994). This does not mean that evaluators must participate in the political activity. According to Brown and Braskamp (1980), “This

means that the relationship between the evaluator and key program staff, and the evaluator's understanding of the organization in its internal and external political environment, are critical for successful utilization" (p. 93). Therefore, evaluators should understand the politics of their work environment and attempt to meet the political needs of stakeholders without jeopardizing the integrity of the evaluation (Thompson, 1994). Since evaluation is subjective and also inherently political, evaluators are often expected to define policy choices or make policy recommendations. Evaluators should outline policy options and also make particular recommendations for policy decisions when appropriate (Thompson, 1994).

Empirical research has demonstrated that administrators often prefer qualitative information than quantitative information. Alkin (1980) concluded that there was little evidence to support that methodologically sound research was an important factor in utilization of evaluative information. This is not to say that evaluators should ignore quantitative aspects of their work; rather, it is not enough just to conduct rigorous research methods (Johnson, 1978). Evaluators should provide both quantitative and qualitative evaluative information in their reports (Thompson, 1994). It is important to provide both quantitative and qualitative information to demonstrate an understanding of program environment, a focus on program improvement, and credibility of quantitative summative results through formative process data (Thompson, 1994). Personal factors have also been shown to be crucial in evaluative information utilization (Pflum & Brown, 1984). However, to some degree these influences may be situation specific. High conflict situations are more likely to produce informal contact with the evaluator when making decisions (Newman, Brown, Rivers, & Glock, 1983). The use of evaluation processes

has been shown to decrease when handled by multiple people or teams of analysts (Oman & Chitwood, 1984). Ripley (1985) concluded people who receive information through non-written sources are more likely to accept the evaluator's recommendations.

Evaluator-client relations and the manner in which the information is put into policy have also been shown to affect on the level of utilization (Holley, 1979; Guskin, 1980). Evaluators must demonstrate a sincere interest in the needs of the whole program in order to gain the respect and trust of the stakeholders, administrators, program staff, and clients (Thompson, 1994). Evaluators must recognize that the way in which they interact with stakeholders and administrators will affect their credibility and the likelihood that they will accept future evaluation results (Thompson, 1994).

The Revised Program Evaluation Standards, drafted by the Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation in 1994, have been shown to include what the literature suggests as best practice (Hansen, 1994; Patton, 1994). Therefore, thorough evaluation of educational programs, projects, and materials in a variety of settings should include the following elements to produce effective and efficient program evaluations: utility, propriety, feasibility, and accuracy (Joint Committee, 1994). The utility standards are intended to ensure that an evaluation will serve the information needs of intended users by guiding evaluations so that they will be "informative, timely, and influential" (Joint Committee, 1994, p. 5). The evaluator will want to know the evaluation's procedures, its findings, and its overall impact. The propriety standards are intended to ensure that an evaluation will be conducted legally, ethically, and will consider the welfare of those involved in the evaluation process, as well as those affected by its outcomes (Joint Committee, 1994). The feasibility standards are intended to ensure that

an evaluation will be realistic, practical, tactful, and economical (Joint Committee, 1994). The accuracy standards are intended to ensure that an evaluation will produce technically adequate information about the features that will determine worth or merit of the program being evaluated (Joint Committee, 1994). The Revised Program Evaluation Standards also encourage evaluators to communicate with all stakeholders, use a variety of data collection strategies, and consider all the possibilities.

King (1988) has shown that evaluators have the greatest potential for improving the use process because they already have a thorough knowledge of the evaluation process. The Revised Program Evaluation Standards place considerable responsibility on the individual evaluator for promoting evaluation use (Joint Committee, 1994). The combined efforts of evaluators to promote the evaluation process can have positive effects on evaluative information use (Huberman, 1990). Burry (1985) described the behaviors and attitudes that evaluators can use to optimize the use of program evaluation information:

The evaluator who adopts the use-promoting stance takes an important step toward fostering the trust and harmony that underlie rapport with users, a rapport that is further strengthened when the evaluator is sensitive to the program's political dynamics and understands that evaluation information is only one of the many possible outlets to the decision-making process and that people with different attitudes, backgrounds, and power or prestige are likely to contribute to the process. (p.14)

In recent years, there has been an increased call for accountability of public services. The public and politicians spearheaded this movement, demanding identifiable

proof that public employees were doing their jobs. As part of this accountability, stakeholders want to know how well the mission and vision statements, and goals and objectives change actual performance. As a result, outcome assessment became the method that would demonstrate an individual's knowledge and job performance.

Outcome assessment typically involves outlining the goals and objectives of a program and the means in which the attainment of the goals could be measured (Jennings, 1989).

Assessment serves many purposes, but possibly the two most important are to improve teaching and learning and to promote greater external accountability. Determining which assessment approach is most appropriate for a program depends on clear knowledge of what is intended, solid research about the available instruments, and a comprehensive understanding of the organizational and political environment (Jennings, 1989).

Outcome assessment of public programs is controversial because of the difficulty of clearly defining the goals and objectives of public programs, the problems involved in measuring the attainment of these goals, and the debate over the possibility of assessing the consequences of actions (Jennings, 1989).

The educational system has been the area mostly affected by the push for outcome assessment. This has been evident in recent political campaigns and numerous national studies. Elementary and secondary education was the first to be affected by the demand for accountability, but there has been increased focus on the level of post-secondary education in recent years. The Council on Post Secondary Accreditation has informed accreditation agencies that it expects them to demonstrate the relation between program standards and outcomes for those programs (Jennings, 1998). Many other professional

governing entities have followed suit by implementing into policies and procedures more effective ways of measuring knowledge, performance, and competencies.

The educational activities of an institution include teaching, research, and public service. Planning and evaluation for these activities must be systematic, broad-based, interrelated, and appropriate to the institution (Whittaker, 1993). The institution must define its expected educational results and describe its methods for analyzing the results. Whittaker (1993) suggests the institution to 1) establish a clearly defined purpose appropriate to the collegiate education; 2) develop educational goals consistent with the institution's purpose; 3) develop and implement procedures to evaluate the extent to which these educational goals are being achieved; and 4) use the results of these evaluations to improve educational programs, services, and operations. The institution must develop guidelines and procedures to evaluate educational effectiveness, including the quality of student learning and of research and service (Whittaker, 1993). This evaluation must encompass educational goals at all academic levels and research and service functions of the institution. The evaluation of academic programs should involve gathering and analyzing both quantitative and qualitative data that demonstrate student achievement. The literature on educational assessment identifies a variety of specific techniques for analyzing outcomes. The various approaches and techniques to evaluate academic programs and general education may include evaluation of instructional delivery, adequacy of facilities and equipment, standardized tests, analysis of theses, portfolios, completion rates, results of admissions tests for student applying to graduate or professional schools, job placement rates, results of licensing examinations, evaluation by employers, and follow-up studies of alumni (Harris, 1985). The institution must

evaluate its success with respect to student achievement in relation to purpose, including consideration of course completion, state licensing examinations, and job placement rates (Whittaker, 1993).

The concept of institutional effectiveness is crucial to institutional programs and operations. This concept presumes that each institution is engaged in an ongoing quest for quality and can demonstrate how well it fulfills its stated purpose (Whittaker, 1993). The quality and effectiveness of education provided by each institution are major considerations in accreditation decisions. Although evaluation of educational quality and effectiveness is a difficult task requiring careful analysis and professional judgment, each institution is expected to document quality and effectiveness by employing a comprehensive system of planning and evaluation in all major aspects of the institution (Whittaker, 1993). Each institution is expected to develop a broad-based system to determine institutional effectiveness appropriate to its own context and purpose, to use the purpose statement as the foundation of planning and evaluation, to employ a variety of assessment methods, and to demonstrate use of the results of the planning evaluation process for the improvement of both educational programs and support activities (Whittaker, 1993). Educational quality will be ultimately judged by how effectively the institution achieves its established goals.

The focus of recent educational reform initiatives has been to direct educational institutions toward performance-based outcomes. Measures of accountability are now seen as the foundations of education. This is true throughout all levels of educational institutions (Cobb, 1995). As a result, professional training programs in education have had to redirect their focus to performance-based standards that demonstrate graduates'

repertoire of knowledge and skills (Waldron, Prus, & Curtis, 2001). It is now crucial for institutions to demonstrate the relationship among training standards that specify professional competencies, continuous performance-based assessment of individual students and program outcomes, and requirements for state and national certification/licensure that focus on demonstration of professional skills (Wise & Leibrand, 1996). Over the past couple decades, national accreditation standards have also placed increasing emphasis on critical performance competencies and outcomes that reflect the knowledge and skills a professional is expected to have upon completion of his/her graduate training program (Waldron, Prus, & Curtis, 2001). This move toward performance-based accreditation has been evident in the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE, 2001) and the most recent Standards for Training and Field Placement Programs in School Psychology (NASP, 2000). Furthermore, the NCATE's Specialty Area Studies Board, which represents NASP, developed Principles for Performance-Based Assessment Systems in Professional Education Programs (NCATE, 2001). The current NASP standards for school psychology training programs (2000) have heightened the focus on a graduate's ability to demonstrate the critical professional knowledge and skills displayed in professional practice.

The field of school psychology is well prepared to meet the modifications in training, accreditation, and certification and licensure standards and procedures. NASP has had a performance-based national certification system since 1988 and implemented requirements for program outcomes and accountability in its training standards since 1994 (Waldron, Prus, & Curtis, 2001). School psychology programs have also required

extensive field-based experiences that allow students to develop, practice, and advance their professional skills. However, programs must increase opportunities for students to demonstrate their knowledge and skills. Assessment procedures must constitute multiple sources of information, multiple methods of gathering data, and continuous monitoring of progress toward program goals and objectives (Waldron, Prus, & Curtis, 2001). These may include examinations, performance appraisals, simulations, portfolios, and survey of students, graduates, supervisors, and employers, etc.

School psychology programs must implement individual student assessment strategies that represent a comprehensive assessment system for the program (Waldron, Prus, & Curtis, 2001). This type of system allows the program to measure individual student performance as well as how effectively the program serves all students. NCATE Specialty Area Studies Board Principles for Performance-Based Assessment Systems in Professional Education Programs (2000) identifies the characteristics of such a comprehensive, performance-based evaluative design. According to Waldron, Prus, & Curtis, 2001, the system must do the following:

- Be clearly defined in program policy and in agreement with the program's vision and goals.
- Utilize multiple methods of assessing knowledge and skills.
- Utilize assessment measures that have a meaningful connection to the program.
- Utilize continuous monitoring and assessment of outcomes.
- Identify, evaluates, and communicates performance standards in the program and across competencies domains to the student.
- Compare program assessment information with external sources of information.
- Accumulate assessment information from students and graduates to effect program develop and performance. (p. 8)

An effective school psychology program has an integrated system of graduate-level preparation that includes coursework, laboratory and field practica, and internship experiences (Knoff & Curtis, 1997). These three interrelated components have been shown to produce an effective, integrated training program. An effective school psychology program must be based on well-founded organizational and functional management procedures that address the areas of a) administration and finance, b) professional training and competency, c) student support and advocacy, and d) evaluation and planning (Knoff & Curtis, 1997). These components and characteristics are based on the organizational management literature on effective programs (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993).

An effective school psychology program must have a well defined administrative structure directly tied to achieving the program's goals and objectives and communicated to all relevant stakeholders (Knoff & Curtis, 1997). Identifiable agreements relating to the identity of the school psychology program and any variance in responsibilities relative to collaboration and operation must be demonstrated (Knoff & Curtis, 1997). Collaborative associations must be well defined and structured through contractual agreements at all levels of the program and the need for changes must be communicated effectively and efficiently (Knoff & Curtis, 1997). There must be adequate funding for program design and implementation and to provide for the students, professional development, research, accreditation, and other programmatic activities (Knoff & Curtis, 1997). The program should also be approved or accredited on the state and national levels allowing graduates to qualify for credentialing (Knoff & Curtis, 1997).

A successful school psychology program must have a well-written philosophy supported by a unified curriculum (Knoff & Curtis, 1997). Program training must be provided by faculty competent in the content areas of the program and that receive continual supervision, training, and mentoring to improve the program's overall effectiveness (Knoff & Curtis, 1997). The training must also provide a continuum of indirect and direct skills across age groups, student needs, races, cultures, languages, and other diverse characteristics (Knoff & Curtis, 1997). The training must hold all students accountable by evaluating demonstration of sufficient knowledge and skills and meeting measurable program objectives (Knoff & Curtis, 1997). Students must be offered an integrated curriculum that is publicly documented and that has well-defined and measurable outcomes (Knoff & Curtis, 1997). Effective school psychology programs must clearly define program policies and procedures and provide students with a formal system of representation and input into program decisions (Knoff & Curtis, 1997). The program must respect and be sensitive to individual differences as well as provide support for students from the training period through the transition into the field by allowing sufficient supervision and mentoring opportunities (Knoff & Curtis, 1997).

School psychology programs must evaluate student performance outcomes, faculty skills, participation, and outcomes, fiscal and system outcomes, and training and practice outcomes (Knoff & Curtis, 1997). The evaluation must be integrated into the learning experiences of the program and directly tied to the program objectives and outcomes. Therefore, each school psychology program should develop an assessment and evaluation system to provide comprehensive information on each student's proficiency in relation to the performance-based standards (Waldron, Prus, & Curtis,

2001). The comprehensive approach to evaluation should utilize a variety of data sources and contexts to assess student competencies and the student's ability to make positive changes in the lives of those he or she serves (Waldron, Prus, & Curtis, 2001). This system should enable the students to acquire and demonstrate the essential knowledge and professional competencies outlined in the program objectives relating to the content areas in professional practice (Waldron, Prus, & Curtis, 2001).

Evaluation must represent a systematic, strategic planning process where actions plans are developed to coordinate resources and staff and to guide and assess implementation activities (Knoff & Curtis, 1997). The performance-based assessment and accountability system should represent an assessment plan for the individual student, the staff, and the program. Evaluation must be both formative and summative in nature to provide continual information that guides program and implementation decisions (Knoff & Curtis, 1997). The results of the assessment system should be helpful to individual students, program operation and revision, and for meeting program approval requirements (Waldron, Prus, & Curtis, 2001). The program should demonstrate how it makes use of the data to monitor the program, improve the program, and assure that all students meet the standards for proficiency in the designated areas of professional practice (Waldron, Prus, & Curtis, 2001). Evaluation must also assess time efficiency and cost effectiveness without sacrificing student or other critical outcomes (Knoff & Curtis, 1997). The evaluation must ultimately hold the system and program responsible for meeting the student's needs and attaining the goals and objectives outlined in the mission statement.

The purpose of the School Psychology Program at Marshall University Graduate College (MUGC), as outlined in the School Psychology Program Handbook, is to prepare professional school psychologists to work within the schools as social systems to meet the following goals and objectives:

1. Apply their knowledge of psychology and education in order to prevent or remove the barriers to optimal growth and development at the community, school, classroom, and individual child level
 - 1A. Students will demonstrate knowledge of the psychological foundations of school psychology.
 - 1B. Students will demonstrate knowledge of the educational foundations of school psychology.
 - 1C. Students will demonstrate knowledge of the concepts of data-based decision making.
 - 1D. Students will apply skills in data-based decision making.
2. Apply the problem-solving process within a collaborative consultation model that embraces both direct and indirect service delivery
 - 2A. Students will demonstrate knowledge of the problem-solving process.
 - 2B. Students will demonstrate knowledge of the collaborative consultation model.
 - 2C. Students will demonstrate knowledge of methods of indirect service delivery.
 - 2D. Students will apply skills in indirect service delivery.

- 2E. Students will demonstrate knowledge of methods of direct service delivery.
- 2F. Students will apply skills in direct service delivery.
- 3. Ensure professional competence based on a solid foundation of ethical, legal, and responsible practice that respects human diversity and individual differences
 - 3A. Students will demonstrate an understanding of human diversity and multicultural awareness.
 - 3B. Students will demonstrate an understanding of individual differences.
 - 3C. Students will demonstrate knowledge of the ethical principles adopted by the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP).
 - 3D. Students will demonstrate knowledge of the legal principles underlying professional practice of school psychology.
 - 3E. Students will demonstrate knowledge of the laws and regulations underlying special education eligibility.
 - 3F. Students will demonstrate skills in ethical and legal decision making in professional practice.
- 4. Apply knowledge and skills in conducting and interpreting research applied to practice
 - 4A. Students will demonstrate knowledge of experimental design.
 - 4B. Students will demonstrate knowledge of basic statistics.
 - 4C. Students will apply skills in experimental design, statistics, and communication of research results.

5. Apply knowledge and understanding of the multiple systems that influence growth and development
 - 5A. Students will demonstrate knowledge of typical and atypical child development.
 - 5B. Students will demonstrate knowledge of families, classrooms, schools, and communities as systems.
 - 5C. Students will apply skills in working within multiple systems to facilitate child growth.
6. Ensure a broad range of quality services in primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention to serve universal, targeted, and selected populations
 - 6A. Students will demonstrate knowledge of the concepts of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention.
 - 6B. Students will demonstrate knowledge of prevention services most appropriate to universal, selected, and targeted populations.
 - 6C. Students will apply skills in the prevention and treatment of academic, behavioral, and mental health problems.
7. Apply skills in program evaluation to improve service to individuals, families, schools, and communities
 - 7A. Students will demonstrate knowledge of the concepts underlying formative and summative program evaluation.
 - 7B. Students will apply skills in program evaluation to conduct a formative program evaluation.

8. Integrate technological applications to facilitate all the above goals
 - 8A. Students will demonstrate knowledge of the applications of technology to the practice of school psychology.
 - 8B. Students will demonstrate knowledge of the legal and ethical issues related to the use of technology within the practice of school psychology.

According to the NASP Standards for Training and Field placement Programs in School Psychology (2000), school psychology training must be “delivered within the context of program values and clearly articulated training philosophy/mission, goals, and objectives” (p. 7). Training is defined as “a comprehensive, integrated program of study delivered by qualified faculty, as well as substantial supervised field experiences necessary for the preparation of competent school psychologists whose services impact children, youth, families, and other consumers” (p.7). The MUGC School Psychology program is committed to abiding by these standards to prepare the most competent school psychologists to meet the needs of children in today’s schools. The MUGC School Psychology program has met the standards for program context and structure as outlined by NASP. With 73 required graduate credit hours, MUGC exceeds the 60 credit hour standard for specialist level programs set forth by NASP.

According to NASP (2000), school psychology candidates must demonstrate basic competency in each of the following areas of professional practice:

1. Data-Based Decision-Making and Accountability
2. Consultation and Collaboration
3. Effective Instruction and Development of Cognitive/Academic Skills
4. Socialization and Development of Life Skills

5. Student Diversity in Development and Learning
6. School and Systems Organization, Policy Development, and Climate
7. Prevention, Crisis Intervention, and Mental Health
8. Home/School/Community Collaboration
9. Research and Program Evaluation
10. School Psychology Practice and Development
11. Information Technology (p.7-8)

NASP (2000) requires both knowledge and skill competency in the above-mentioned areas of professional practice. School psychology programs must ensure that the candidates have a strong foundation of knowledge in “psychology and education, including theories, models, empirical findings, and techniques in each domain” and “demonstrate skills necessary to deliver effective services that result in positive outcomes in each domain” (NASP, 2000, p. 8). The School Psychology program at MUGC provides extensive coursework and/or field experience in each of the previously mentioned professional domains. The Ed.S. program requirements at MUGC are as follows:

SPSY 616, Psychological Foundations I: Typical & Atypical Child Development

(3 credit hours)

SPSY 618, Direct Service Delivery I: Instruction and Behavior Modification

(3 credit hours)

SPSY 601, Professional Competence I: Schools as Systems

(3 credit hours)

CISP 535, Educational Foundations I: General Special Education Programming

(3 credit hours)

PSY 517, Research I: Statistics

(3 credit hours)

SPSY 621, Data-Based Decision Making I

(3 credit hours)

PSY 647, Psychological Foundations II: Biological Bases of Behavior

(3 credit hours)

SPSY 675, Psychological Foundations III: Foundations of School Psychology

(3 credit hours)

PSY 623, Research II: Experimental Design

(3 credit hours)

PSY 526, Psychological Foundations IV: Cross Cultural Psychology

(3 credit hours)

SPSY 603, Professional Competence II: Professional School Psychology

(3 credit hours)

SPSY 622, Data-Based Decision-Making II

(3 credit hours)

SPSY 738, Practicum I

(2 credit hours)

SPSY 617, Indirect Service Delivery I: Consultation

(3 credit hours)

CIRG 636, Educational Foundations II: Developmental Reading

(3 credit hours)

SPSY 624, Data-Based Decision Making III

(3 credit hours)

SPSY 739, Practicum II

(2 credit hours)

SPSY 619, Direct Service Delivery II: Individual & Group Counseling

(3 credit hours)

SPSY 620, Indirect Service Delivery II: Primary Prevention (3 credit hours)

SPSY 740, Practicum III

(3 credit hours)

SPSY 750, Research III: Thesis

(3 credit hours)

SPSY 745, Internship

(6 credit hours)

SPSY 745, Internship

(6 credit hours)

Total: 73 credit hours

NASP (2000) also states that school psychology candidates must have opportunities to demonstrate their application of knowledge, develop skills necessary for effective school psychological services, and utilize competencies to attain the goals and objectives of their training program. These skills must be practiced under appropriate supervision. Supervised practica and internship experiences for program credit must be documented by the educational institution (NASP, 2000). The internship is a

collaboration between the educational institution and a training site that allows the student to meet the requirements of his or her program. There is a written plan to outline the responsibilities of the educational institution and the field site in providing supervision, support, and evaluation of intern performance (NASP, 2000). The internship must include a full year of service and at least 600 hours in a school setting. The MUGC School Psychology program requires the students to complete three Practicum programs as well as a full-year internship in a field site of the student's choice to gain practical experience in the provision of school psychology services. The internship is completed on a contractual basis under supervision, at varying degrees, provided by the site manager and the MUGC program supervisor. The MUGC School Psychology program also requires the students to complete a portfolio to document their experiences, skills, and competencies for certification purposes.

It is apparent that the MUGC School Psychology program meets, if not, exceeds the Standards for Training and Field Placement Programs in School Psychology set forth by NASP in 2000. In addition to this, MUGC's School Psychology program goals and objectives are representative of the elements this research study found to be vital for the effective education and training of school psychologists. Program objectives 1C, 1D, 2A, 3A, 3B, 5A, 5B, 5C, and 8A were utilized to evaluate student performance in the Practicum I summer program at MUGC. This study is designed to determine how effectively these program objectives compared to the students' experiences during the Practicum I summer program.

Methods

Subjects. The study population included the five graduate students from Marshall University Graduate College (MUGC) enrolled in the School Psychology Practicum I summer program. These students represented the first Practicum I class to participate in the summer practicum at MUGC. The group was comprised of three females and two males, ages 24 to 31. The entire group of students was surveyed.

Instrumentation. The current study is a program evaluation of the MUGC School Psychology Practicum I summer program. The program evaluation was designed to compare the students' experiences in the summer practicum with the program objectives outlined in the course syllabus. A 5-point Likert Scale questionnaire was developed to obtain quantitative and qualitative data regarding the students' experiences, application of previously taught skills, and overall impressions of the summer practicum. The questionnaire items were developed from the program objectives and criteria utilized by the professors to evaluate student performance. The questionnaire contained 11 close-ended questions which limited the respondents to the following five response choices: NA/No Opportunity, or No Expectations, Exceeded Expectations, Met Expectations, Below Expectations, Failed to Meet Criteria/Expectations. There were six open-ended questions to which the respondents could provide more detailed comments on their summer practicum experience. There was also a Comments/Concerns section included to allow the students to provide information that was not specifically addressed in the questionnaire. A copy of the questionnaire can be found in Appendix A.

Procedure. The questionnaire was hand delivered to the Practicum I students enrolled in the summer practicum just prior to the beginning of the process/lecture segment on July

22, 2003. The evaluator read the questionnaire directions to the students, answered any questions they had, and made clarifications when necessary. The students were asked to complete the questionnaire anonymously, rating their experiences and impressions of the program. Students were given ample time to complete the questionnaire. All questionnaires were collected face down upon completion and placed in a manila envelope so that students' responses remained anonymous. The students were thanked for their participation in the study and informed that they would be notified of the results when tabulated.

Results

A total of five questionnaires were hand-delivered to the students who completed the Practicum I summer program in 2003. All five of the questionnaires were completed and valid for the purpose of this study. The data were subjected to a frequency analysis, descriptive statistical analysis, and crosstabulation.

The qualitative results of the study suggest that the students were generally positive about their experiences in the Practicum I summer program. Out of the 55 total responses on the 5-point Likert Scale questionnaire, 48 of the student responses valued the identified experience as meeting or exceeding expectations. Of the 7 remaining student responses, 6 responses appraised the identified experience as Below Expectations, and 1 response was labeled as NA/No Expectations. Items #5 and #7 received the most Exceeding Expectations responses (3). Item #5 measured the students' opinions of encountering opportunities to apply their understanding of individual differences. Item #7 measured the students' opinions on encountering opportunities for applying their knowledge of families, classrooms, schools, and communities as systems. Item #3

received the most Met Expectation responses (5). Item #3 measured the students' opinions of encountering opportunities to apply their knowledge of the problem-solving process. Item #9 received the most Below Expectations responses (3) and the only NA or No Opportunity response. Item #9 measured the students' opinions of encountering opportunities for applying technology to the practice of school psychology. This may be attributed to the insufficient definition of technology in terms of the practice of school psychology. It would be beneficial to provide examples of the use of technology in school psychology to obtain a more valid picture of the students' perceptions of Item #9.

The six global questions at the end of the questionnaire yielded some interesting comments and suggestions. Beneficial experiences during the Practicum I summer program included collaboration with other professionals (i.e. teachers, counselors, school psychologists); hands-on experience with the behavior rating scales; and opportunities to perform responsibilities independently. Students also identified the important experiences they thought were lacking in the program such as sufficient preparation in appropriate prerequisites; sufficient knowledge with writing reports and administering behavior rating scales; and adequate guidance in how to perform and complete coursework requirements. Comments made about the supervision during the Practicum I summer program included excellent; great; good, although expectations were a little vague; and not good. Recommendations for improvement with the program included increasing the credit hours earned for the course from two to three; starting the program later in the morning to reduce absences and increase student attentiveness and on-task behaviors; allowing the practicum students to be more involved in programming, implementation, and service provision; improving the flexibility demonstrated by other

professionals; increasing guidance from supervising staff; and setting clearer student expectations. The Practicum I students felt the Practicum III students were beneficial in providing supervision, and assisting in administering behavior rating scales, writing reports, and collaborating on student intervention. The students in this study also documented their opinions on how the summer practicum experience differed from the program in the public school system during the regular academic year. It was reported that continuous availability to consistent group feedback, working with other practicum students, and being able to perform duties independently were experiences in the summer program that differ from the practicum during the regular academic year. One student also commented that the Practicum I course should be waived for experienced educators since the student had performed most, if not all, of the responsibilities during previous direct experience with children. A printout of the frequency table, descriptive statistics, and crosstabulation output can be found in Appendix B.

Discussion

The data supports an overall positive student perception of the Practicum I summer program. The students consistently rated the practicum activities and experiences as meeting or exceeding their initial expectations of the program. However, the students identified several aspects of the practicum as requiring improvement. Student portfolios provide documentation of the students' opportunities to perform the necessary tasks to attain the program objectives and actual samples of their work. Although the opportunities to perform the designated practicum activities were available, students often had to actively seek or produce these experiences in order to complete the course requirements by which their performance was evaluated. It appears that more

guidance provided to the Practicum I students by the supervising staff in this area would diminish the problem and make the practicum experiences more meaningful.

The students regarded these practicum activities as beneficial experiences including collaboration with other professionals (i.e. teachers, counselors, school psychologists); hands-on experience with the behavior rating scales; and opportunities to perform responsibilities independently. Other practicum experiences helpful to the Practicum I students included assistance from the Practicum III students in providing supervision, and assistance in administering behavior rating scales, writing reports, and collaborating on student intervention. The continuous availability to consistent group feedback, working with other practicum students with varied knowledge bases and skills, and being able to perform duties independently were depicted in a positive light.

The critical experiences and opportunities students thought were lacking in the Practicum I summer program included sufficient preparation in appropriate prerequisites; sufficient knowledge with writing reports and administering behavior rating scales; and adequate guidance in how to perform and complete coursework requirements. Students' suggestions of ways to improve the practicum included increasing the credit hours earned for the course from two to three; starting the program later in the morning to reduce no-show incidents and increase student attentiveness and on-task behaviors; allowing the practicum students to be more involved in programming, implementation, and service provision; improving the flexibility demonstrated by other professionals; increasing guidance from supervising staff; and setting clearer student expectations.

The major limitation of this study was the small sample size. It would be beneficial to survey the students in a number of practicum to determine the consistency of

the program, to gain additional recommendations of how to best meet the practicum students' needs, and to improve the quality of the program by providing opportunities for students to participate in the activities with which they have less experience. It would also be useful to compare and contrast the experiences of the practicum students who participated in the summer program with those who completed their requirements during the regular academic year. This would provide data regarding the strengths and weaknesses of each program and aid in developing a program that maximizing student knowledge and skills. It is suggested that the supervising staff develop more clearly articulated course requirements as well as provide further guidance to the Practicum I students since they are new to this experience and do not necessarily understand their responsibilities and expectations in the practicum. Another complaint about the Practicum I summer program was that the course requirements were not specifically outlined prior to the practicum initiation, which led to additional expectations and duties being added throughout the six week program. This made it difficult for the students to complete the required activities in the given amount of time and to the satisfaction of the supervising staff. Modifying this aspect of the summer practicum would improve the link between the course requirements/program objectives and student expectations. This in turn will lead to improved student perceptions of the program.

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Appendix A

Practicum I (SPSY 738) Student Questionnaire

Please circle one response to each of the following questions that best represents your impression and/or satisfaction with the Practicum I summer program:

1. The Practicum I summer program provided opportunities for the student to apply his or her knowledge of the concepts of data-based decision making.

NA or No Opportunity Exceeded Expectations Met Expectations Below Expectations Failed to Meet Criteria/Expectations

Give examples:

2. The Practicum I summer program provided opportunities for the student to apply his or her skills in data-based decision making.

NA or No Opportunity Exceeded Expectations Met Expectations Below Expectations Failed to Meet Criteria/Expectations

Give examples:

3. The Practicum I summer program provided opportunities for the student to apply his or her knowledge of the problem-solving process.

NA or No Opportunity Exceeded Expectations Met Expectations Below Expectations Failed to Meet Criteria/Expectations

Give examples:

4. The Practicum I summer program provided opportunities for the student to examine human diversity and cultural awareness.

NA or No Opportunity Exceeded Expectations Met Expectations Below Expectations Failed to Meet Criteria/Expectations

Give examples:

5. The Practicum I summer program provided opportunities for the student to apply his or her understanding of individual differences.

NA or No Opportunity	Exceeded Expectations	Met Expectations	Below Expectations	Failed to Meet Criteria/Expectations
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Give examples:

6. The Practicum I summer program provided opportunities for the student to apply his or her understanding of typical and atypical child development.

NA or No Opportunity	Exceeded Expectations	Met Expectations	Below Expectations	Failed to Meet Criteria/Expectations
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Give examples:

7. The Practicum I summer program provided opportunities for the student to apply his or her knowledge of families, classrooms, schools, and communities as systems.

NA or No Opportunity	Exceeded Expectations	Met Expectations	Below Expectations	Failed to Meet Criteria/Expectations
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Give examples:

8. The Practicum I summer program provided opportunities for the student to apply his or her skills in working with multiple systems to facilitate child growth.

NA or No Opportunity	Exceeded Expectations	Met Expectations	Below Expectations	Failed to Meet Criteria/Expectations
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Give examples:

9. The Practicum I summer program provided opportunities for the student to apply technology to the practice of school psychology.

NA or No Opportunity	Exceeded Expectations	Met Expectations	Below Expectations	Failed to Meet Criteria/Expectations
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Give examples:

10. The Practicum I summer program provided opportunities for the student to practice appropriate written documentation of all psychological services.

NA or No Opportunity	Exceeded Expectations	Met Expectations	Below Expectations	Failed to Meet Criteria/Expectations
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Give examples:

11. How would you rate your overall experience in the Practicum I summer program?

NA or No Expectations	Exceeded Expectations	Met Expectations	Below Expectations	Failed to Meet Criteria/Expectations
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Give examples:

Please write your responses to the following questions so that your suggestions for program improvement can be included in this research:

12. What were the most beneficial experiences during the Practicum I summer program?

13. What important experiences does the student feel were lacking in the Practicum I summer program?

14. How was supervision in the Practicum I summer program?

| 15. How could the summer practicum program be improved?

| 16. Describe your interactions with students completing Practicum III requirements.

| 17. In your opinion, how does the Practicum I experience for students completing the program in the public school system during the academic year differ from your experience in the summer program?

Additional Comments/Concerns:

Appendix B

Descriptives

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Question 1	5	1	4	5	21	4.20	.447	.200
Question 2	5	1	4	5	22	4.40	.548	.300
Question 3	5	0	4	4	20	4.00	.000	.000
Question 4	5	2	3	5	20	4.00	1.000	1.000
Question 5	5	1	4	5	23	4.60	.548	.300
Question 6	5	1	4	5	22	4.40	.548	.300
Question 7	5	1	4	5	23	4.60	.548	.300
Question 8	5	1	4	5	21	4.20	.447	.200
Question 9	5	1	3	4	17	3.40	.548	.300
Question 10	5	4	1	5	19	3.80	1.643	2.700
Question 11	5	2	3	5	21	4.20	.837	.700
Valid N (listwise)	5							

Frequencies

Statistics

	Question 1	Question 2	Question 3	Question 4	Question 5	Question 6	Question 7	Question 8	Question 9	Question 10	Question 11
N	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
Valid	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	4.20	4.40	4.00	4.00	4.60	4.40	4.60	4.20	3.40	3.80	4.20
Std. Error of Mean	.200	.245	.000	.447	.245	.245	.245	.200	.245	.735	.374
Median	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	5.00	4.00	5.00	4.00	3.00	4.00	4.00
Mode	4	4	4	3 ^a	5	4	5	4	3	4 ^a	4 ^a
Std. Deviation	.447	.548	.000	1.000	.548	.548	.548	.447	.548	1.643	.837
Variance	.200	.300	.000	1.000	.300	.300	.300	.200	.300	2.700	.700
Range	1	1	0	2	1	1	1	1	1	4	2
Minimum	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	3	1	3
Maximum	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	5	4	5	5
Sum	21	22	20	20	23	22	23	21	17	19	21

^a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

Frequency Table

Question 1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	4	4	80.0	80.0	80.0
	5	1	20.0	20.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	100.0	

Question 2

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Met Expectations	3	60.0	60.0	60.0
	Exceeded Expectations	2	40.0	40.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	100.0	

Question 3

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Met Expectations	5	100.0	100.0	100.0

Question 4

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Below Expectations	2	40.0	40.0	40.0
	Met Expectations	1	20.0	20.0	60.0
	Exceeded Expectations	2	40.0	40.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	100.0	

Question 5

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Met Expectations	2	40.0	40.0	40.0
	Exceeded Expectations	3	60.0	60.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	100.0	

Question 6

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Met Expectations	3	60.0	60.0	60.0
	Exceeded Expectations	2	40.0	40.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	100.0	

Question 7

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Met Expectations	2	40.0	40.0	40.0
	Exceeded Expectations	3	60.0	60.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	100.0	

Question 8

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Met Expectations	4	80.0	80.0	80.0
	Exceeded Expectations	1	20.0	20.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	100.0	

Question 9

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Below Expectations	3	60.0	60.0	60.0
	Met Expectations	2	40.0	40.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	100.0	

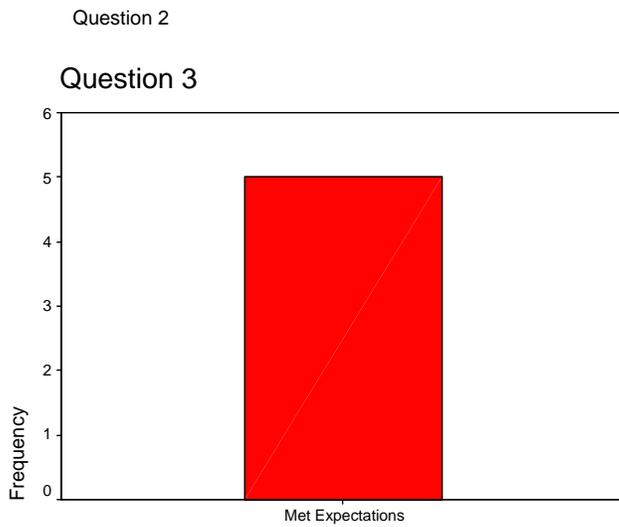
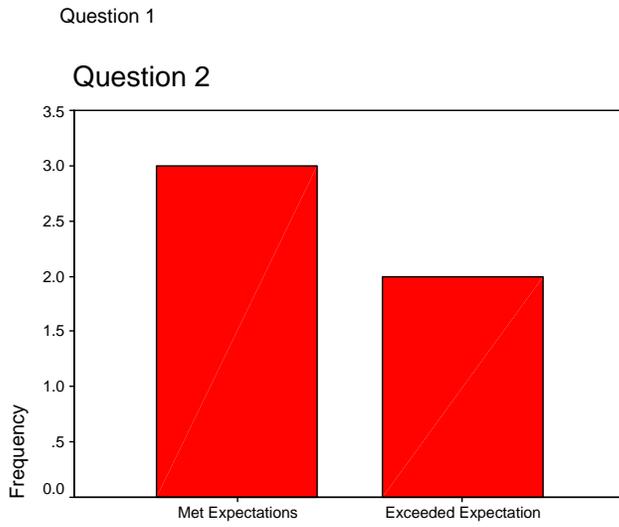
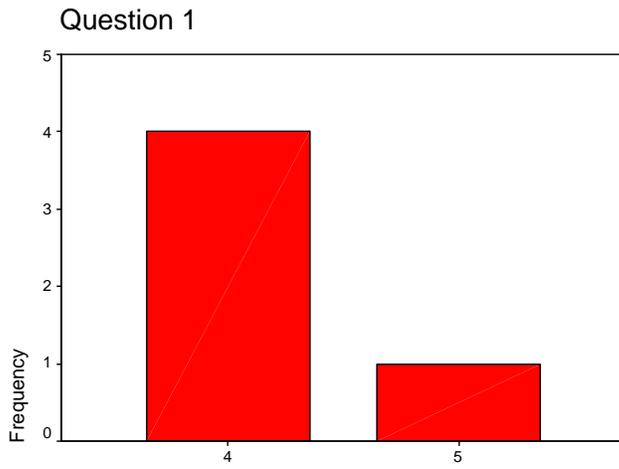
Question 10

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NA or No Opportunity	1	20.0	20.0	20.0
	Met Expectations	2	40.0	40.0	60.0
	Exceeded Expectations	2	40.0	40.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	100.0	

Question 11

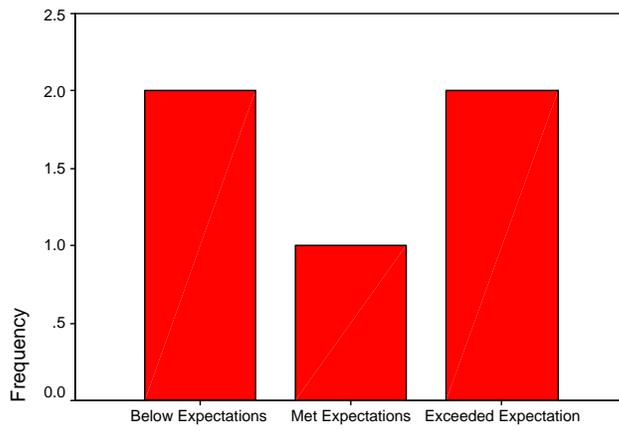
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Below Expectations	1	20.0	20.0	20.0
	Met Expectations	2	40.0	40.0	60.0
	Exceeded Expectations	2	40.0	40.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	100.0	

Bar Chart



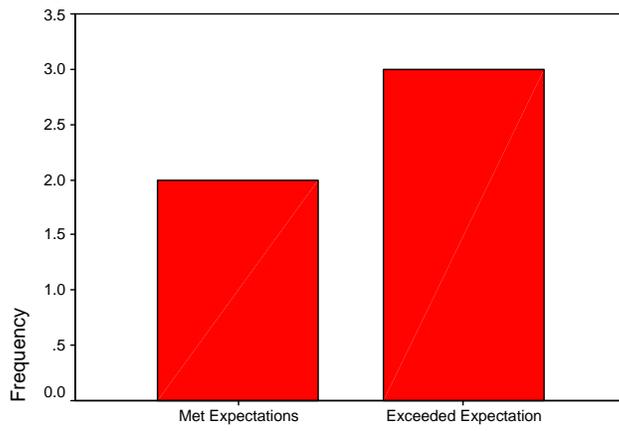
Question 3

Question 4



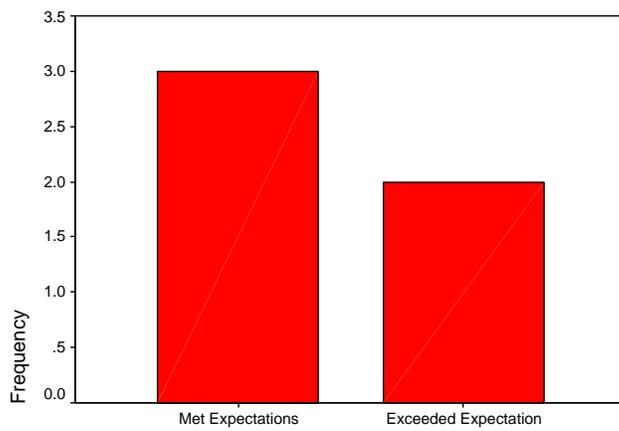
Question 4

Question 5



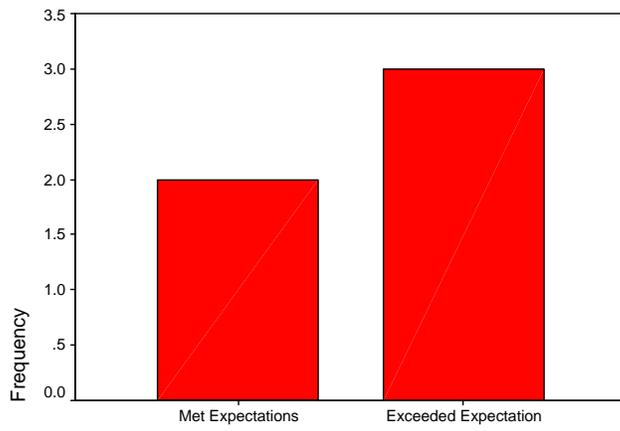
Question 5

Question 6



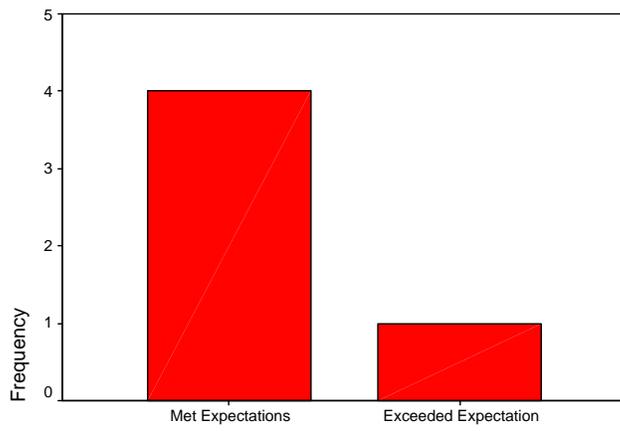
Question 6

Question 7



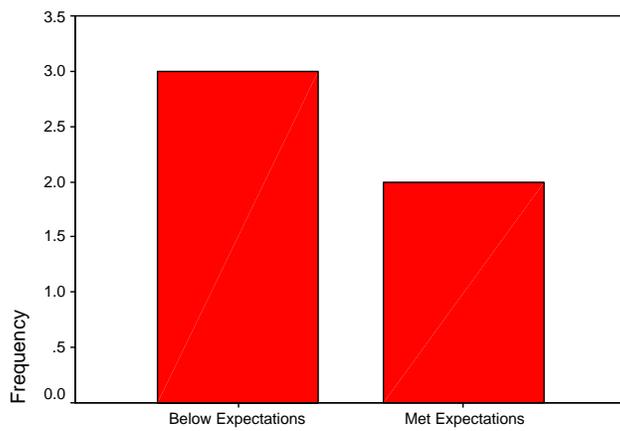
Question 7

Question 8



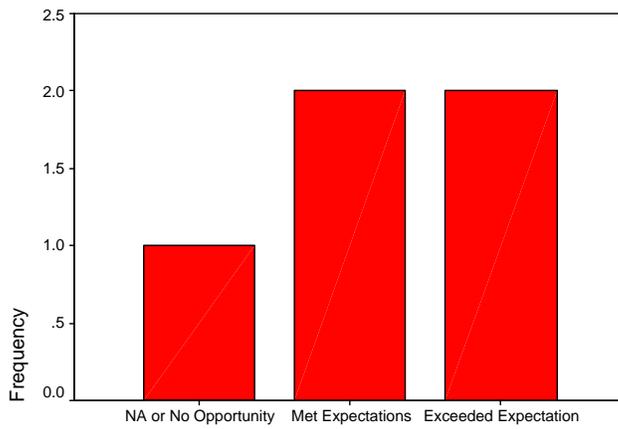
Question 8

Question 9



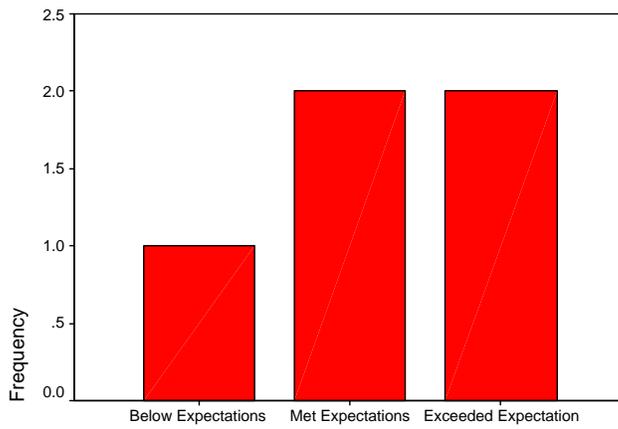
Question 9

Question 10



Question 10

Question 11



Question 11

Frequencies

Statistics

		Question	Answer	Subject
N	Valid	55	55	55
	Missing	0	0	0

Frequency Table

Question

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Question 1	5	9.1	9.1	9.1
	Question 2	5	9.1	9.1	18.2
	Question 3	5	9.1	9.1	27.3
	Question 4	5	9.1	9.1	36.4
	Question 5	5	9.1	9.1	45.5
	Question 6	5	9.1	9.1	54.5
	Question 7	5	9.1	9.1	63.6
	Question 8	5	9.1	9.1	72.7
	Question 9	5	9.1	9.1	81.8
	Question 10	5	9.1	9.1	90.9
	Question 11	5	9.1	9.1	100.0
	Total	55	100.0	100.0	

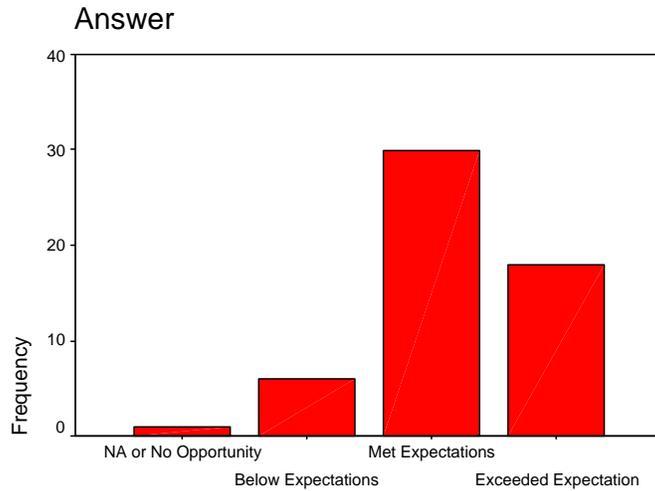
Answer

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NA or No Opportunity	1	1.8	1.8	1.8
	Below Expectations	6	10.9	10.9	12.7
	Met Expectations	30	54.5	54.5	67.3
	Exceeded Expectations	18	32.7	32.7	100.0
	Total	55	100.0	100.0	

Subject

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	11	20.0	20.0	20.0
	2	11	20.0	20.0	40.0
	3	11	20.0	20.0	60.0
	4	11	20.0	20.0	80.0
	5	11	20.0	20.0	100.0
	Total	55	100.0	100.0	

Bar Chart



Answer

Crosstabs

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Question * Answer	55	100.0%	0	.0%	55	100.0%

Question * Answer Crosstabulation

Count		Answer				Total
		NA or No Opportunity	Below Expectations	Met Expectations	Exceeded Expectations	
Question	Question 1			4	1	5
	Question 2			3	2	5
	Question 3			5		5
	Question 4		2	1	2	5
	Question 5			2	3	5
	Question 6			3	2	5
	Question 7			2	3	5
	Question 8			4	1	5
	Question 9		3	2		5
	Question 10	1		2	2	5
	Question 11		1	2	2	5
Total		1	6	30	18	55

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	41.311 ^a	30	.082
Likelihood Ratio	35.874	30	.212
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.124	1	.289
N of Valid Cases	55		

a. 44 cells (100.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .09.

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T ^b	Approx. Sig.
Interval by Interval Pearson's R	-.144	.128	-1.062	.293 ^c
Ordinal by Ordinal Spearman Correlation	-.078	.136	-.573	.569 ^c
N of Valid Cases	55			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

c. Based on normal approximation.