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## Full service schools : problems in research and evaluation

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I am submitting herewith a thesis written by Kylie Gray Cole-Zakrzewski entitled "Full service schools : problems in research and evaluation." I have examined the final electronic copy of this thesis for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science, with a major in Counseling.

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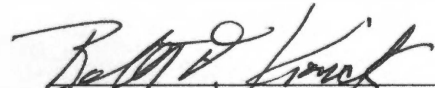
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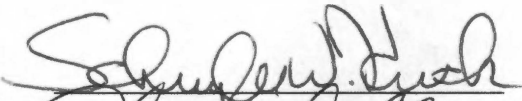
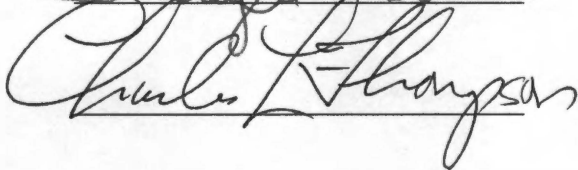
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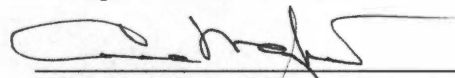
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and recommend its acceptance:

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Vice Provost and Dean of Graduate Studies

**FULL SERVICE SCHOOLS:  
PROBLEMS IN RESEARCH AND EVALUATION**

**A Thesis  
Presented for the  
Master of Science  
Degree  
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville**

**Kylie Gray Cole-Zakrzewski  
May 2002**

Thesis  
2002  
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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my family, who made my education possible. Mom, thanks for the support and encouragement. Dad, thanks for pushing me to do my best. Rob, thanks for inspiring me to achieve my goals.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to thank all those who helped me in completing Master of Science in Mental Health Counseling. The Department of Counseling, Deafness, and Human Services has taught me more than just academics. I thank Dr. Kronick for always being available and for involving me in his work. Thanks to Dr. Thompson and Dr. Huck for their feedback and for serving on my committee. Finally, thanks to my husband, Rob, for the endless critiquing and editing.

## Abstract

The purpose of this thesis was to assess current problems in full service schools and propose possible solutions. Information on current evaluation problems was collected from the literature and from personal contacts with individuals directly involved with the implementation and evaluation of full service schools. The researcher analyzed this information and evaluation models were suggested to correct for the stated problems.

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## I: Statement of the Problem

The numerous recent school shootings leave no room for argument about the need for an overhaul of America's public school system. The Columbine shooting in 1999 made the public aware that the school violence that has been commonplace in inner-city schools since the 1970's, is now prevalent in suburban communities as well. Whether one feels school security, parental supervision, or biologically caused mental disorders are responsible, the situation remains that schools are the medium through which much violence is conducted.

### Factors that Influence Learning

In addition to school violence, there are many other problems that affect the school atmosphere and learning capabilities of children today. Among these are inadequate health and mental health care, improper supervision during non-school hours, inappropriate role models, single-parent families, domestic violence, low parental education levels, and frequent moves that require the child to change schools. These are all non-academic based influences that can cause children to suffer in their academic pursuits. Kronick (2000), emphasized that non-academic needs must be addressed for a child to have the resources to excel at academic endeavors. An example of this is a statement by William Glasser, author of Choice Theory in the Classroom.

If what is being taught does not satisfy the needs about which a student is currently most concerned, it will make little difference how brilliantly the teacher teaches – the student will not work to learn. When I worked in a Watts school in the sixties, we had to feed the hungry children a good breakfast or they would not pay attention. After they were fed, they were eager to work. Teachers are well aware that hungry students think of food, lonely students look for friends, and powerless students seek attention far more than they look for knowledge. (1988, p. 21-22)

There is much research on how poor daily living conditions can negatively affect a child's learning, attending, and behaving. The Annie E. Casey Foundation (2000) disseminated some data on conditions that impact a child's future contributions. One of the most staggering reports is that nearly one-third of children in the United States are living in single-parent homes. This special family environment has been associated with numerous other risk factors such as high dropout rate, high teen pregnancy rate (Achenbach, Howell, Quay, & Conners, 1991), low educational attainment (Nock, 1988), and low supervision and behavior problems (Florsheim, Tolan, & Gorman-Smith, 1998). Medical problems are also more frequent and severe in single-parent families. It has been asserted that children from single-parent families have poorer control over childhood diabetes than children raised in two-parent families (Thompson, Auslander, & White, 2001). Education level of parents is another variable that impacts a child's future. Children are more likely to drop out of high school when raised by a parent who did not finish high school; sadly, this is the case with nineteen percent of today's children (Annie E. Casey Foundation, 1999).

Poverty is another influential factor that determines a child's aspirations. Twenty-two percent of children today live in poverty! This is eight percentage points higher than the next highest level for a developed country (Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2000). Inadequate nutrition, healthcare, housing, and geographic instability are all consequences of this monumental figure for poverty. In addition to the high number of children living in poverty, over 15% of children do not have health insurance. Therefore, they do not get many of the preventative health care procedures, which in turn, leads these students to

miss more days of school than children who have insurance and maintain health care (Annie E. Casey Foundation, 1999).

As one can see, the risk factors just outlined are interconnected and reciprocal in nature. For example, single-parent households are more likely to have income below the poverty line, thus making health insurance unaffordable. No health insurance leads to missing school days, poor performance, and eventually a higher dropout rate. Poverty-stricken families often have low levels of education, thus completing the loop. The consequences for these variables of poverty, education level, healthcare, and single-parent household all stack up and compound one another leaving those who must deal with these factors defenseless. The interrelated nature of these variables makes it more difficult to design programs to help those in these conditions. Programs that are going to be the most successful must deal with all of these components simultaneously in order to keep the loop from continuing.

Teachers and school officials are often held responsible for the progressively lower and lower standardized test scores and grades of today's students. Lawson and Sailor (2000) claimed that:

Educators are caught in double-binds because, even though they do not enjoy much influence and control over some of the most important factors that influence and determine learning and academic achievement, they nevertheless are held accountable for them, and they are being judged in relation to their abilities to demonstrate improvements. Because educators have little or no influence or control over these extra school factors and forces, their abilities to produce improvements in learning and academic achievement are destined to remain limited. (p.19).

Because of these limitations on the teacher's capabilities to improve student's learning, school systems are hard pressed to come up with programs designed to address the non-

curricular needs of students. Since these needs vary widely among students, and frequently involved complex family relationships, several services will be required to “clear the way” for classroom learning to take place.

Many researchers and authors have depicted the solution to these problems as being community-oriented (Anderson, Homan, & Lawson, as cited in McClam & Woodside, 2001; Annie E. Casey Foundation, 1999; The Children’s Aid Society, 1997). Networking with the community and improving living conditions are outlined by the Annie E. Casey Foundation (1999) as steps toward a better future for children. Developing a support network and establishing a common goal with community agencies allows for a more comprehensive and enduring change to take place (The Children’s Aid Society, 1997). Anderson, Homan, and Lawson (as cited in McClam & Woodside, 2001) posit that this collaboration between community, parents, and school system will strengthen the school, community, and residents directly. Community involvement in the lives of these families is centered in the school. The school provides the facility and coordination for parents, teachers, agencies, and community members to develop a plan to meet basic needs of children, thereby improving their learning capabilities.

#### Full Service Schools: A Possible Solution

Full service schools are community-based programs that attempt to combine school and community in order to better children’s lives. The implementation of full service schools may be the solution to many of the aforementioned problems, such as high dropout rates, juvenile crime, teen pregnancies, and poor healthcare. Dryfoos (1994), the pioneer of the full service school model, defines a full service school as a “restructuring of education plus helping children and their families by providing health,

mental health, and social services on sites” (p. 100). By incorporating these services into a school system, as part of meeting the basic needs of the child, many tangential problems are reduced or eliminated.

There are many examples of the problematic areas that can be addressed using a full service school model. One service that schools most need is mental health care. The cost of mental health care to those without insurance is phenomenal, and frankly, mental health needs are often overlooked by the parents of poverty level children because of the imminence of other concerns. When the problem is recognized by either a parent or school personnel, resolution is difficult because school counselors often do not have the time or training to work with the child effectively. Furthermore, the entire family would benefit from counseling in many situations, rather than just the child who is acting out. As Bronstein and Kelly (1998) found, identified problem students shared the commonality that their families were not actively involved in their child’s school experience. Family counseling and interventions are not possible in a traditional school setting. If mental health care were offered at an on-site school location, parents may be more likely to seek services for their children (or themselves), and teachers and school personnel may be more efficient in recommending a child for services before the problem becomes monumental. Another benefit of this arrangement is that the stigma associated with seeking mental health care may be lessened if the counselor is school-based.

Medical and dental needs can be addressed in an on-site, fully staffed clinic (Dryfoos, 1994; Kronick, 2000). The implementation of this service may reduce the number of children who miss school due to illness and dental or medical appointments. In addition, the clinic may be open late hours so the families can make use of the service as

well, possibly increasing awareness of general health care needs such as vaccinations, hygiene, birth control, AIDS awareness, and nutrition. This is a great service to offer children because physical ailments are an obstacle to effective learning; if they can be taken care of, the child will have more energy to devote to school material.

Examples of other expanded services detailed by Dryfoos (1994) and Kronick (2000) are academic and extracurricular based after-school programs to prevent children from being unsupervised from the time they are out of school until their parents get home from work. The most critical hours for prevention of youth crime are from 3 pm to 8 pm (Kronick, 2000; Lamer, Zippiroli, and Behrman, 1999). These programs can be more than simple supervision or baby-sitting services, they should be semi-structured activities that increase learning and support daily classroom material. Social, academic, cultural, and physical needs can be contended with and fulfilled by a well-structured after-school program. Furthermore, evening programs geared for adults can be offered such as GED classes, computer skills training, job-seeking resources, or parenting skills. The availability of such parental education programs and student after-school programs should be individually tailored to each community based on particular needs (Kronick, 2000).

“What goes on after school cannot be separated from what happens in school.” stated Dryfoos (1999, p. 118). Several of the benefits of after school programs are childcare, tutoring, and youth development projects (Dryfoos, 1999). These benefits are only compounded when the after-school program is an integral part of regular school operations. Parents do not have to worry about transportation to the site, qualifications of supervisors, or separating older and younger children into different programs. All of these

aspects are coordinated by administrators who work closely with the school to make the program as beneficial and convenient as possible. This convenience allows busy parents to become more involved in their children's school and activities. Hara and Burke (1998), have found that parental involvement in a child's educational experiences is related to that child's elementary school achievements. Children with mental disabilities are especially at risk for failure when parent involvement is at a minimum (Heymann & Earle, 2000).

Vandell and Shumow (1999) reported that parents often worry about appropriate childcare for the time in between the end of the school day and when the parent arrives home from work. Day care providers may be hired, alternative activities (dance, scouts, sports practice) may be scheduled, or for those parents who do not have the luxury of extra money for these options, children care for themselves. It was reported that nearly half of third graders spent some after-school time unsupervised, either home alone, in public libraries, shopping malls, or with siblings or peers (Vandell & Shumow, 1999). Lerner, Zippiroli, and Behrman (1999, p. 7) state: "FBI statistics indicate that 47% of violent juvenile crimes take place on weekdays between the hours of 2:00 P.M. and 8:00 P.M." This statistic should cause concern for those parents who cannot afford structured child enrichment programs, or expensive day care for their young children. Temptations from gangs, drugs, and other crime can easily infiltrate the time children spend alone. School based after-school programs may be a solution that could combat many problems by providing low or no cost supervision during after-school hours along with many fulfilling activities.

Halpern (1999) cites four reasons for the increased interest in providing after-school care to economically disadvantaged families: 1) safety of children with no after-school supervision, 2) increased pressure on children who care for themselves, 3) increased need for additional academic and social skills training, 4) equality for disadvantaged children to participate in enriching activities. Several examples of programs that meet these needs are reviewed next.

An after-school program in Chicago structured daily activities around homework, games, recreation, arts and crafts, and movies (Halpern, 1992). The program was not school-based, but attempted to incorporate school activities and coordinate with school schedules. Children reported attending the program for the following reasons: because a parent sent them, because a sibling attended, because of the activities, and/or because they had nowhere else to play (go). Participation in this program was found to be stable for only a quarter of participants. The author reported positive effects for the children who continued to attend. Children were physically safe, became involved in adult-organized activities, and spent a portion of their time attending to homework related activities. These children generally would not have gained these positive experiences if not for their participation in the after-school program.

These are just a few examples of many needs that can be addressed by full service schools in order to make the child's environment more amiable to education. Many of the issues that were first enumerated such as poverty, inadequate health care, low parental education levels, high drop out rate, high juvenile crime statistics, and teen pregnancy levels can be affected by the implementation of a full service school that is targeted at community needs. When these risk factors are reduced or eliminated, the child's physical,



mental, and social needs are met, leading to increased energy for learning. Additionally, warning signs of violent acts by school aged children could be more easily recognized if parents and school officials became more involved in student's lives. Children who are challenged, guided, and supervised by responsible adults may develop healthy coping mechanisms, thereby deterring violent acting out behaviors before they cause tragedy. If the children who are prone to violence can be targeted with these programs and services, prevention of further heartbreak may be possible.

## II: Evaluation History

Where do children learn and grow? At home. At school. In the community. It is simply a social fact that youngsters learn from their families, teachers, peers, relatives, part-time employers, another adults in the community. Students develop in all three contexts simultaneously and continuously. Thus, the bridges of home, school, and community are inevitably interconnected. (Epstein, 2001, p. 161)

The idea of addressing comprehensive needs in a school-based program began as early as 1890 (Dryfoos, 1994). The literature on their effectiveness is somewhat limited, but successful programs have been documented (Dryfoos, 1994, 1995, 1996; U.S. General Accounting Office as cited in Bronstein & Kelly, 1998). Dryfoos (1995) responds a “tentative yes” to the question of whether or not full service schools are effective. Quality methodologies for evaluating programs are lacking; additionally there is a deficit in the quantity of studies regarding these programs. Problems with methodology include difficulty in finding quality comparative schools to serve as control groups. Ideally, schools should be matched with regard to several variables depending on the type of program that is being evaluated. Usually control groups are selected based on their comparative percentages of free and reduced lunches, racial minority students, or attenuation rates, but matches on all relevant variables are often difficult to attain (Dryfoos, 1995). Kronick (2000) posited that evaluation must be an ongoing process throughout the development of a full-service school because each program should be tailored to the specific needs of the system and community. Therefore, research on effectiveness should begin at the outset of the program and continue indefinitely to further program success and goal attainment. Weist, Nabors, Myers, and Armbruster (2000) state that “program evaluation should not be viewed as an endpoint; but rather as

the end of one program phase, but at the same time, the beginning of the next” (p. 398).

In the past when full service schools have been evaluated, the goal has not been to improve the current program, but only to assess its value. Although this lack of concrete evidence about the effectiveness of programs is troubling, the initial results of the existing studies are promising.

A true full service school should be a “seamless organization” with mental health, medical, after-school, adult education, and other programs intertwined and easily accessible (Dryfoos, 1994). While a comprehensive evaluation would provide more useful information about the full service school as a whole, there are many methodological problems associated with this type of evaluation. For example, matching, randomness, and complex triangulation of qualitative data would add much difficulty to the process. Millstein (as cited in Dryfoos, 1995) cautions against using the entire school population for evaluation, because only selected students make use of the services provided. Therefore, this method could mask the efficacy of the program for the students and families who access the services. For these reasons much of the current research has focused primarily on specific components of the full service school system.

Full service schools can be categorized in two ways, with either school-based or school-linked services (Talley & Short, as cited in Swerdlik, Reeder, & Bucy, 1999). A school-based full service school uses the school grounds as the center for all of the components of the system. For example, medical staff, dentists, counselors, tutors and test administrators all deliver their services from offices located on school grounds. These programs are more accessible to students and families because of their location.

However, schools often have limited space for such expansion. Additionally, special

liability measure must be addressed before the school can open their facilities to their organizations.

School-linked services are not usually located on school grounds, but referrals are often made to allow families to have access to needed services (Swerdlik, Reeder, & Bucy, 1999). Services provided through school-linked services are often less integrated with the educational component of the school system. They are also less convenient for families and students to access.

Gratigny Elementary School in Dade County Florida is an example of a school-linked service evaluation (Bronstein & Kelly, 1998). The program design assigned Master's Level Social Work (MSW) students to each of the most needy families at the school, as identified by child behavior, attendance, and hygiene. They designed a specific program for each family to encompass the issues of food, housing, immigration status, employment, discipline, depression, or any other concern of the family. The program was evaluated by assessing change in the student's standardized achievement tests, attendance, tardiness, and academic grades from the 1994-95 to the 1995-96 school years, as well as qualitative interviews with the families. School attendance and language arts scores showed positive gains following a family intervention program. The participants reported overwhelming satisfaction with this program and suggested that it be continued in the future. Bronstein and Kelly (1998) acknowledge that while the qualitative results showed a positive program impact, the quantitative measures were ambiguous. They assert that the quantitative measures are affected at a slower rate than the qualitative. Therefore, ongoing evaluations should be completed.

While this program was deemed successful by its evaluators, several problems were encountered during the evaluation process. One such problem was the lack of an available comparison group for the pretest-posttest. This lack of a comparison group creates problems with the internal validity of the study. The report by Bronstein and Kelly (1998) does not specify what difficulty was encountered that resulted in their abandonment of their original pretest- posttest comparison group design; they simply state than “unforeseen difficulties” and “agency obstacles” were encountered. Problems were encountered during the qualitative interview portion of the study. The families were questioned about the services they received during the program. The surveys were conducted orally to eliminate the first problem of language (interviewers spoke their language) and reading level. The second possible problem was the fear of less than honest replies to the survey questions. To combat this potential difficulty the interns interviewed each other’s clients and assured confidence would be kept.

Another difficulty of this research was the cultural barriers between the school, the interns, and the families. A cultural difference was encountered regarding children’s school attendance. What may have been culturally appropriate reasons for missing school for these families were deemed culturally inappropriate by the school system administrators. The interns used this focus for improving attendance records for the children by conveying the necessity of school attendance to the parents. They also attempted to divert financial problems that caused children to miss school. Small sample size (n=25) and low statistical power are other limitations of this study.

A pregnancy prevention program in Baltimore was evaluated using a control group to assess effectiveness over a period of three years. One predominately black and

low socioeconomic status junior high and high school received the pregnancy prevention intervention. A second junior high and high school were matched to compare well with the racial and socioeconomic conditions of the experimental group. Following the three-year follow-up analysis it was found that the students in schools that received the preventative intervention had significantly fewer pregnancies than students in the control school (Zabin, Hirsch, Smith, Streett, & Hardy, 1986).

Several methodological problems were presented by the authors; the first of which was high student mobility. It was discovered that fewer students were available at the follow-up than began the study. While both the experimental and control schools experienced this problem, it could not be determined that the mortality rate occurred randomly because several factors influence student drop-outs and family mobility. Secondly, due to the nature of the school year, pre and post data must be collected at different times of the calendar year (e.g. fall and spring) in order to collect data from graduating students.

Another problem related to student mobility was the researcher's inability to determine the length of exposure to the program by simply looking at the grade level of the student. The authors reported that students may have begun exposure as a freshman, entered the school system (and thus the program) at another time during high school, or left school for a period of time and then returned. Therefore, exposure to the program for certain groups was limited.

In a case study of one full-service school in Vermont, Dryfoos traced the project from its inception through an initial evaluation. This is a good example of a program that involved researcher from the start so that the evaluation component of the project was

considered from the beginning. It began with an evaluation of the needs of this particular institution. Parents, teachers, and community members were all involved in this process of identifying goals. As the program gained prominence, measures were taken to ensure that the school remained in control of the programs and clinics that were being implemented. Data were collected on several variables that were deemed to be important by the focus groups. Such variables included test scores, reading improvement, disciplinary actions, parental support, and family self-sufficiency. When the effectiveness of the full-service school was evaluated four years after its commencement, it was shown that the students had improved academically, suspension rates were down, and attendance rates were up. Teacher and staff reports also indicated success, with student's attitudes toward learning showing great improvement (Kronick, 2000).

Dryfoos (1994) has reviewed some contemporary programs that attempt to incorporate healthcare into the school atmosphere. Programs in Dallas and St. Paul were successful in reducing teen pregnancies with sex education programs, while a Houston program incorporated additional health related programs such as a weight control, substance abuse, and basic preventative measures. The major problem that was encountered with the implementation and evaluation of these programs was the fear that the programs would indirectly promote the unwanted activity. Parents and community members showed concern about the moral implications of providing sex education and birth control options to young people. However, these programs have had modest success in their endeavors. Dryfoos and others (Reeder, Maccow, Shaw, Swerdlik, Horton, & Foster, 1997) agree that access to these programs is impeded when they are not an integral part of the school. This leads Dryfoos (1994) to describe the aforementioned

programs as “add-ons,” and while they are making positive gains, the concept of a full-service school is not encompassed by these attempts. “Add-on” programs are not as valued as a true full service school because student’s needs are better met when the institution is overseen by an administration with the power to access all of its components easily and tailor them to a specific child’s needs.

While several full service school programs have been researched effectively, there are several problems with methodology that are encountered for each evaluation. Without this assessment of the value of the individual programs within the full service school system, funding becomes difficult to attain. Investors, governments, and community members do not value putting their money into programs that cannot be evaluated for success and goal attainment.

In addition to the lack of quality research, the research that has been conducted generally focuses on only one component of a multifaceted program. For example, evaluating a pregnancy prevention program or an after-school tutoring program only provides information on the success of the children who choose to participate in those programs. It does nothing to address the idea of a full service school system and all of the students, parents, volunteers, and community members who are a part of the organization.

A final problem that applies to nearly all full-service school evaluations is the variables that are selected to represent a successful intervention. In most school settings the variables that are examined are teacher-assigned grades, standardized test scores, attendance, tardiness, and incidence of problem behaviors. There are a variety of reasons that these variables are selected. One of the main goals of a full-service school is to increase student learning. Right or wrong, the accepted measure of learning has always



been teacher-assigned grades and standardized test scores. Unfortunately, these are fairly stable variables and may take time to show the indirect effects of the programs. Since many studies focus on one to two year time intervals, these small improvements in grades and tests scores are difficult to ascertain. Teacher-assigned grades may be more flexible to this type of change in student academic success because teacher-assigned grades are inherently more subjective than standardized tests scores. This is especially true if the same individual is assigning grades for the entire length of the evaluation. However, when students change grade levels and new teachers begin assigning grades, this reliability may go down.

Attendance and tardiness are also frequently measured and analyzed when attempting to evaluate full-service schools. School attendance has been shown to be correlated with school success. It makes sense that the more time spent in school, the more learning that will take place. Additionally, parents who allow their children to miss several class days each semester may be less likely to value education than parents whose children do not miss much school. Children will pick up on the attitude that their parents have regarding school, and incorporate it into their own beliefs.

On a related matter, it has been asserted that actual program attendance is related to school attendance and performance (Vandell & Pierce, as cited in Vandell & Shumow, 1999). In other words, children who attended the after school program regularly were more successful than those children who attended sporadically.

Problem behaviors such as acting out, physical or verbal aggression, classroom disruption, and withdrawal are targeted as variables that are worth measuring because they are the most disruptive. Classroom teachers want the incidence of these behaviors

reduced because they affect other important aspects of school such as academic and social learning. This is sometimes the most difficult variable to measure due to the school and parental permission needed for access to this information. Additionally, these behavioral problems may not be reliably documented by teachers or school counselors. However, a qualitative interview with teachers may circumvent this problem because teachers will readily notice the small improvements in behavior that are too miniscule to detect with quantitative measures. It has been posited that these problems behaviors are the first to be affected by an intervention. Behavior may improve before academic grades and attendance are indirectly affected, so the inclusion of his variable is especially necessary in short-term studies.

In conclusion, none of these variables should be blindly adopted to fit any full-service school evaluation, nor should they be dropped from an evaluation because of the difficulties mentioned here. Rather, variables should be selected to fit the type of evaluation that is being done, short or long term, all-inclusive or specific component, grade-school or high school students, inner-city or suburban school setting. Oftentimes, several combinations of variables can be measured in order to get the most accurate picture of a full-service school evaluation.

### III: Problems with Evaluations

Evaluation is a process that professionals do all the time and in every discipline – comparing the actual and real with the predicted or promised. It is a process of judging that is applied to activities, initiatives, people, programs, and results. The basic reason for doing this is to determine the effectiveness, or the efficiency or the appropriateness of a particular course of action. The intention is to highlight good or bad practice, detect errors and correct mistakes, assess risk, enable optimum investment to be achieved and also allow individuals and organizations to learn. (James & Roffe, 2000, p. 12).

Methodological troubles are encountered in all types of research. Even with a sound research design, unexpected problems often arise during the data collection and statistical analysis stages of the process. In Riley's (1963) book on sociological research, it is stated that,

there is considerable danger that the right designs will not be applied to the right problems at the right time, either because the relevant theory lags behind methods and techniques, or because methods are not applied to fit the theory" (p. 641).

This section is designed to help the full service school researcher to apply the right research design to the process and overcome the many methodological problems often encountered in these situations.

Several methodological problems and structural problems are often encountered when designing and carrying out research on school-based services. Enumerating these may allow future researchers to avoid similar roadblocks or to devise more amenable solutions to the problems they may encounter. The problems that affect the research design of many studies are not foreseen by the researcher, but are probably common to the beginning stages of any full service school. Therefore, being alerted to the possibility of potential problems may help full service school coordinators and administrators when

designing aspects of their programs, as well as preparing the researcher for possible troubles.

### Specific Problem Areas

#### Record keeping

One of these aspects that should be addressed is record keeping. Part of the problems with record keeping is that much of the program evaluation is not begun until long after the program is implemented. Because of this it is difficult to foresee the types of information that potential researchers will require. The problem of poor record keeping can be addressed in two ways. One, the administrators can attempt to anticipate the types of information that will be required in program evaluation. This information does not have to be complicated statistical computations; instead it should be comprehensive, updated lists of demographic information about the participants. The participant's names, how often they were present, names of program coordinators, and records of specific activities that were part of the program would all be relevant information. The most important data to keep track of is information that cannot be retrieved post hoc. Related information such as grade level of students, homeroom teachers, and academic records can be found if the names of the participants are known, but none of these are helpful without the basic record of participants. Schools who employ after school program coordinators can do a more efficient job of record keeping than schools which allow individual program administrators to track their own records.

A school familiar to the researcher was functioning without the aid of an overall full service school coordinator. This researcher designed her study and then found the difficulty in obtaining the needed information to complete the analysis. The records that

had been kept were in different locations and possessed by different people. Some of the records had been lost. Some were in spreadsheet format and some were simply handwritten notes. Several of the lists had been scratched out and added to as participants came into and dropped out of the program and dates for these actions were not available. Additionally, some of the lists had not been updated at all for new students and dropouts. The compilation of these problems, along with time pressure, forced this research to be abandoned for the time. Had adequate lists been available, this research could have been carried out and valuable information could have been attained. This information, regardless of the nature of the findings, could have benefited the school and program administrators. From the findings they could have made adjustments to program that were not meeting their goals, they could have added or taken away programs to strengthen the after school programs across the board, and they could have used the information for additional funding opportunities. This situation attests to the fact that the position of a coordinator to oversee full service school programs is essential for the full service school to perform effectively. In systems lacking this administrative connection, many of the important details are overlooked or pushed aside in the process of coordinating other full service school responsibilities. The important thing is that this information cannot be retrieved. In the next section, the role of a coordinator is discussed with emphasis on how this position can eliminate this evaluation problem.

A second solution for this problem of record keeping is more difficult and idealistic, but will be discussed here nonetheless. This method is preferred over mere foresight on the part of administrators to detect potentially valuable research data. In this method, the evaluation is set up at the time of the program implementation; it may be

carried out by the program directors or by independent researchers. This set up would allow researchers and coordinators to know what types of records should be maintained from the outset of a program. Program goals and outcome evaluations could be coordinated so that administrators and researcher know what needs to be evaluated. It seems silly to do a reading comprehension evaluation on a program designed to increase parent/child interaction; these are some of the problems that can be avoided if the goals of the program are considered when designing the program evaluation. Research may be more thorough and comprehensive when planned ahead of time in conjunction with program designers, administrators, and researchers. Problems can be identified and addressed before the program is begun, thus eliminating the problems associated with evaluating programs to which additions or other alterations have been made. In addition to saving time and effort in the long run, experienced researchers may be able to contribute to a program when they are involved from the outset. They may know of ways to increase student and parent participation or results based on their knowledge of similar program research.

Considerable time, money, and effort are needed to make this option a viable one. Coordination between the administrators, program directors, and researchers would need to take place before the program was presented to the children or parents. If no researchers are immediately available their services can be hired. In the least, consulting with experienced researchers can cue the directors in on the types of records that need to be kept. Therefore, when the time for evaluation comes, problems regarding missing or inaccurate data are nonexistent. The school benefits from involving a researcher from the outset of the program as well. As mentioned before, outside funding is important for

keeping existing programs and adding new ones. Community organizations are more likely to pour money into programs that are backed by data showing that they are effective in reaching their goals. Furthermore, research on program efficacy can give clues to what is working and what can be done to improve goal attainment.

Although more difficult to achieve, this option for outcome evaluation is better because some data are not retrievable once the program has begun. For example, if the researchers were interested in how a tutoring program affected reading comprehension on a specific standardized test, they would need to administer the test to the program participants before they began the program. This information would be impossible for a researcher to obtain if he/she did not plan the evaluation until the program had already started. Conclusively, this is the best method for outcome evaluation of a program and should be used whenever possible.

A final problem regarding record keeping is related to ethical dilemma of who can access the information (Swerdlik, Reeder, & Bucy, 1999). Should academic, counseling, and medical records be kept together in the students file? Do teachers have the right to know personal information about their students that may be contained in the records? Can medical and counseling staff share information? Ideally, the information should be shared in a way to best serve the students and families. However, ethical codes differ for medical, counseling, and social work regarding confidentiality and privacy. Which ethical standards should take precedence? At this point the safest route is to secure parental permissions for free sharing of information among the professional staff at the school. But, as will be discussed next, parental permission is often difficult to attain, especially regarding sensitive information.

Parental permission

A second problem that is often encountered in evaluation is the problem of obtaining parental permission to allow the researcher to access their child's information. Parents are sometimes reluctant to release information regarding their children's grades, attendance, health, behavioral problems, learning disabilities, or other personal information. They may be afraid that their children will be discriminated against or categorized based on unfavorable information. It is difficult to communicate to parents that this is not the intention of the researcher, especially with an informed consent form that is mailed or sent home with the student. Response rates may be heightened if the parents can be spoken to directly, either individually or in a group. Face to face communication with the parents regarding the program evaluation offers an additional benefit if the parents are illiterate and therefore unlikely to read and understand the informed consent form. The purpose of the program and evaluation can be explained to the parent directly. This will also allow the parent to understand that by placing their child in this program they are not merely getting "free child care" for a couple more hours of the day, or on the other hand, being required to make another stop in their busy day to drop off and pick the child up. They will understand that the child may benefit from the program in concrete and measurable ways and that the researcher is there to evaluate that change. This makes the program more marketable to busy parents, parents concerned for their child's safety, and parents of children with learning disabilities, because they know that the program directors and coordinators are concerned with the benefits of the program to their child. This awareness may result in increased permission from parents to access children's records.



Another problem with parent permission is that the parents who are likely to allow the researcher to have access to their children's information are probably going to be parents of children who do not have learning disabilities, behavioral problems, or a disadvantaged home life. These children will probably be the most successful students. This heightened response by parents of successful students and lowered response by parents of unsuccessful students may impede the researcher's attempt to get a true picture of the spread of a certain characteristic in a population. One of the values of designing the evaluative research at the same time as the program implementation is the heightened access to parents to obtain consent to retrieve the child's personal information. Parents may be more likely to give permission to researcher to see children's grades, attendance records, behavioral incidents, and other personal information if they are presented with the informed consent at the same time that they are signing a permission form for their child to participate. Once the child is involved in or finished with the program, parents may be less likely to allow the researcher to retrieve the needed information. This activity should not hinder any child's participation in a program that may be helpful to them. It would be explained to the parents that the child could still participate in the program even if permission for access to their records is not given. No child should be penalized if the parent is not willing to sign the informed consent form.

### Mortality rate

Mortality rate of student participants is another problem encountered in program evaluation. Students drop out of programs for a variety of reasons such as domestic situations, family mobility, responsibility for younger siblings, boredom, and many others. This presents problems for the researchers and schools because those who

dropped out may have been the students who were benefiting most from the interactions.

This research problem is difficult to remedy. Involvement of parents in the school activities may help children stay involved with school activities as well. Additionally, family mobility is often caused by domestic violence or drug use, so involving families in programs for family violence and drug abuse may keep them in the area for longer periods of time and allow the children gain the most benefit from the school and after school system.

### Time

A final problem in program evaluation is the time it takes for the results of the program to become evident. Frequently, student test scores, grades, attendance, classroom behavior, mental health, or other fairly stable characteristics are the basis for evaluation of an effective program. Caution should be taken when evaluating programs too soon following their implementation because improvements can take time to show up in these areas. This is especially the case when the after school program is the only change made in the child's environment. For example, if the child begins participating in an after school dance program, attends the practices, and performs in the recitals, but no other changes are made in his/her life, it will be difficult to detect any change in the child's attitude. Imagine this child lives in a physically abusive home with a family history of drug abuse and no money for nourishing food. The after school dance program is not menial to his/her development because it may be the only stable and stimulating thing that the child has to grasp onto. On the other hand, the two-hour a week after school program will probably not make monumental changes in this child's life with all of the other negatives continuing unchanged.

This example shows that researchers, as well as school administrators and community members, must take these factors into consideration when using quantitative evaluations of the child's behavior to attest to the success or failure of a program. This is also the reason that full service schools are designed to cater to the needs of the family, not just the child. With persistence, the family may be persuaded to overcome many of their difficulties through the full service school services. In the meantime, the after school program should not be written off as ineffectual because it did not raise the student's grades by five percentage points or some other concrete measure.

This is a case where there is value in combined short and long term evaluations. Short-term results can help mold the program into a more effective and enjoyable activity; it can increase participation and enhance community involvement. Long-term results should be used to assess the effectiveness of the program regarding concrete, measurable objectives. While quantitative analyses can be collected and used on short-term evaluations, qualitative measures may be more useful. Qualitative interviews of participants, programs directors, administrators, teachers, and parents may provide insight into the underlying benefits of the program (Weist, Nabors, Myers, & Armbruster, 2000). For example, teachers will notice subtle changes in classroom behavior long before it shows up on the report card or behavioral report. The best thing is to use caution when drawing conclusion about a particular program's effects on children's behavior.

One way to learn of and improve current evaluation techniques is to study and incorporate successful techniques of other, similar programs. The Dewitt-Wallace Reader's Digest Funds is a grant-funding organization that encompasses many of the goals of a full service school. The shared objectives include combining the efforts of

community leaders and school administrators to enhance the learning environment (Dewitt-Wallace Reader's Digest Funds: Annual Report, 2000). Libraries, parks, and other educational institutions are often supported and funded by this organization "to provide a rich and varied tapestry of informal learning opportunities in which children and adults engage when the day's school and work obligations end" (p. 5). The foundation's advantage when it comes to evaluation is financial. However, their technique can still be noted and attempted on a smaller scale. The foundation uses a team-based approach to evaluation. They attempt to understand both current research and current practice and combine this knowledge to recognize needed changes. The team consists of program, evaluation, and communication staff, each with a different role in the process. Program staff provide specific knowledge of the field and institutions, evaluation staff develop the design and probable outcome scenarios, and the communication staff gain public support by education, recruitment, and awareness. All three components are essential to the success of the funded programs and by learning from this design, full service schools can achieve faster and more reliable results.

### Coordinator Roles and Responsibilities

One of the necessary positions that is required by either full service schools or other school-community based programs is the role of an after school activities coordinator (Kronick, 2000; Melaville & Blank, 2000). This position can be either full or part time, depending on the particular school's needs, but should not be overlooked as a luxury component of the system. The coordinator's position is important because the duties that he/she will take on will ensure that all aspects of the program support and do not hinder the academic endeavors of the school, students, or faculty. After-school and

tutoring programs will be tailored to complement the daily school activities and enhance learning (Melaville & Blank, as cited in Wang & Boyd, 2000). The coordinator will work hand in hand with the principal in meeting any goals and objectives for the program.

While Melaville and Blank (as cited in Wang & Boyd, 2000) caution that there must be a clear line between supporting the school's mission and becoming distracted from the community-school mission, a good coordinator will promote overlap between the groups and all will contribute for the benefit of the children.

The type of individual that best fits this position varies depending on community needs. Most have a college degree, but the ability to motivate people and accomplish objectives is more important than credentials (Melaville & Blank, as cited in Wang & Boyd, 2000). Communication, organization, and persistence are skills that a coordinator must have. The coordinator serves as the contact person for all after school programs, weekend classes, education field trips, volunteers, tutors, parents, and community members who are interested in the program. They, along with the school principal and board, will discover, approve, design, and research any programs or activities that will be offered to the students, faculty, or parents. In addition to approving and coordinating activities, the coordinator should be prepared to provide information to program evaluators. Sometimes programs are begun with no plans for future evaluation; this should not prevent the coordinator from keeping data on the participants, volunteers, or directors regarding the program. Eventually, most programs will be evaluated to determine their effectiveness. This is also a common way to show that particular programs are beneficial, and therefore gain access to additional funding to support such

programs. The coordinator should be prepared with background data that enables the researchers to access and compute outcome evaluations of each program.

This position also requires foresight and political mindedness to know which programs will be the most beneficial to the students, which will encourage community involvement, and which will lead to more funding and increased budget opportunities. An additional skill that is essential for the coordinator to possess deals with family relationships and sensitive issues (Kronick, 2000). Families dealing with sensitive situations such as domestic abuse, drug use, or learning disabled members may not actively seek help even though it is made available to them. The coordinator must be insightful enough to present the needed services in a non-threatening way. It will do no good to offer a program for abused women and children if the participants feel they are risking more abuse by accessing the services. Additionally, drug and alcohol rehabilitation services will not be beneficial if parents feel that they are at risk of arrest or losing their children. The coordinator will be responsible for presenting these options in a way that is appealing to the families. The main concern is that the children benefit from the services, that the alcohol, drug, and domestic abuse stops and the home environment is safe and secure. An active, energetic, and insightful coordinator can help these families to realize their potential.

Many full service schools and school-community programs begin their endeavors toward an integrated program without first defining the role of and appointing a coordinator. This action, although frequently done in order to save money and “get the ball rolling,” is unfortunate. When coordinating duties are assigned to teachers, school counselors, vice-principals, or other administrators it merely adds duties onto their

workload and may make them less effective in their primary responsibilities or resentful of their new functions. Teachers should be involved in the full service school system because they have the most contact time with the students. Therefore, teachers are usually the first to notice a problem or improvement and bring it to the attention of the appropriate service providers. Teacher involvement should not include coordinating duties such as obtaining parent permission forms, lists of student participants, and scheduling of events on top of their primary responsibility of teaching. Children and classroom activities should be the primary interests of the teachers, and when they begin to see the positive effects of the after school programs in the classroom behavior of their students they will make more efforts to contribute to the system. On the other hand, if more responsibilities are forced on them without evidence of potential benefits to the students, the teachers will resent the extra work and the program will be more likely to produce mediocre or negative results for the participants.

An additional warning is that teachers may become frustrated due to the time demands on the school principal that take away from his/her availability to the staff. A remedy for this potential problem may be staff meetings in which the contribution of each professional or program is delineated in order to promote support (Lawson, 1999; Swerdlik, Reeder, & Bucy, 1999).

Finally, outcome evaluations of after school programs, tutoring, parenting classes, as well as many other programs, can be made easier if there is one individual coordinating all of the programs. If no coordinator is available, agencies will report separately to the principal, teachers, or other administrators. This may lead to confusion as to who has the information, who can give permission for access to data, and what the

final report should include. Additionally, separate permissions may need to be obtained from several agencies such as the Girl Scouts, Child and Family Services, private counselors, and the school board in order to collect the data in which one is interested. This task becomes easier if the coordinator assists the researcher because he/she is known by all of the potential participants, he/she has the correct contact information, and he/she may be able to give permission without involving so many parties in the process.

As evidenced by the previous examples, the position of a full service school coordinator is essential to the smooth functioning of the full service school programs. Teachers, school administrators, program directors, researchers, parents, and students all benefit when the coordinator does his/her job well. There is a great need to screen and interview applicants for this job to ensure they have the ability to fulfill these roles. Since the coordinator does such a variety of activities, his/her job cannot be fulfilled adequately when the responsibilities are divided and assigned to several people. Therefore, the position of full service school coordinator should be filled as soon as possible in the implementation of a full service school system.



#### IV: Proposed Models

The concept of the full service school is to provide services and resources to families in order to help them become better parents, consumers, employees, students, church followers and community members. These lofty goals can be accomplished through the methods outlined in the previous chapters. However, as alluded to earlier, full service schools will never become a widespread phenomenon unless their use can be documented and reported to the people with the power to make extensive changes. In this final chapter, several program evaluation strategies/techniques will be discussed and critiqued for use with the full service school model.

##### Options for Evaluation Models

###### PERT-Program Evaluation and Review Technique

This technique was developed by the U.S. Navy to manage the Polaris missile development program. A complete understanding of the PERT technique is beyond the scope of this paper due to the complicated statistical computations involved. However, the basic premise of PERT is easy to impart. In its simplest form, it is a chart of activities that culminate in a goal. It shows the complexity of the plan, leads to realistic planning, helps with time management responsibilities, and provides immediate information for self-evaluation (Hope & Timmel, 1999).

As an example of this technique applied in a full service school setting, let's assume we are trying to raise a student's reading scores by one grade level in one year. This would be the ultimate goal of the program. Several tasks need to be accomplished before this goal can be reached such as: hire after school coordinator, recruit volunteers to provide after school programs, design programs to enhance reading ability, enlist help

of parents, screen children for admittance to programs, assess progress toward goal with periodic reading examinations, etc. There are probably several other tasks that need to go into this project, however, one can gather from this example the things that will go into the PERT chart. Next, these tasks will be prioritized. Some will be able to be done simultaneously, while others are contingent on a previous task being accomplished. The deadline can be worked in as part of the plan. For example, the volunteers must be recruited by August 24<sup>th</sup>, because the after school programs need to be up and running by September 15<sup>th</sup>. One can see that PERT charts can be made for several of the tasks within a larger PERT chart. A sub-PERT chart for the hiring of an afterschool coordinator might include making a job description, forming a committee, interviewing applicants, and making a final hiring decision. This would fit within the larger PERT chart of raising reading scores by one grade level.

Obviously this is a simplified version of the capabilities of a PERT program. PERT can depict task length, be adjusted to account for under or over estimation, and denote several outcome scenarios. The reason this technique would be beneficial to a full service school is the accountability for every task on the chart. Time frames, personal responsibility, and teamwork are all depicted in the chart and this makes it difficult for the project to get off task or become pushed aside or abandoned.

Another important aspect of PERT that makes it acceptable for use in the full service schools is that evaluators can see where they are in the process quickly and easily; they can improve and change the plan mid-stream if necessary to meet their goals. This is especially helpful in the full service school scenario because of the long-term commitment before results are typically seen. When one has a five or ten-year plan to get

a school system at optimal functioning level, it is difficult to get lost in the middle. PERT allows analysts to track progress and development toward their ultimate goals.

### Empowerment Evaluation

The model of empowerment evaluation, developed by Fetterman (1994), may be a useful tool for full service schools to consider. The model allows those intricately involved in the success of the intervention to be responsible for the evaluation procedures as well. In the case of a full service school, the teachers would take the responsibility for goal setting, program conception, and program evaluation. Central to this idea is that “having teachers who are ‘owners and doers’ of their own evaluation processes is indeed a powerful tool in stimulating and sustaining significant school improvement” (Lee, 1999, p. 159).

This model for program evaluation would work well to give teachers an investment in the success of their school and students. However, this is going to be a difficult concept to sell in many of the communities and school systems where full service schools are most needed. Teacher burnout, low pay, and poor administration practices will combine to cause little or no teacher interest in such a project. Lee (1999) reports that school administration must know the intense process that must take place in their school. Teachers must be given the time and resources in order to become dedicated to the process. Conversely, if the initial involvement can be maintained until some results are available, the ownership in the success may stimulate teachers to continue fighting for improvements in their institution. Lee suggests that teachers are not influenced by the success of programs as reported by other schools, they are in a unique school system and need to see the results working to help their situation.

The empowerment evaluation technique was used in a study of schools in Canada and reported moderate success. The teachers and administrators of these schools were directed and overseen by an evaluation consultant who was concerned “with the need for those delivering programs to understand the importance of program evaluation” (Lee, 1999, p. 162). Teachers were involved from the beginning and used a team approach for addressing problems which caused the program to continuously improve. The evaluation consultant found that as the program progressed, the teachers no longer relied solely on her expertise, but challenged and motivated one another to exercise the evaluation practices and improve the school.

Another twist on this model of evaluation is to include students in the empowering role of evaluating their own school programs. This was attempted in several of the Canadian high schools but the results have yet to be reported. Students were selected to participate based on academic potential and risk for dropping out. Therefore, at risk students were given attention and a position of power in their school and learning and practical experience were gained (Lee, 1999).

A final benefit of this model is that after the consultant has laid the groundwork and initial supervision for the teachers, administrators, and students, the internal evaluation and continuous improvement can become an ongoing process for that school. According to Fetterman (1997, p. 382), “the assessment of the program’s value and worth is not the end point of the evaluation, but is part of an ongoing process of program improvement.” The goals of a program are transient in relation to the population variance, financial changes, or other external forces (Fetterman, 1997). Empowerment evaluation allows the evaluation process to provide flexibility to account for these shifts

in focus. This makes the initial investment of time and resources to learn and apply the empowerment evaluation model very cost effective in the long term.

### Front-End Challenges

This final option for program evaluation is not an evaluation procedure, rather a series of preparations before effective evaluation can take place. Five preparation steps were documented by van Beveren and Hetherington (1997):

- 1) justification from the perspective of funding agencies, 2) defining organizational programs and goals, 3) program enhancement, 4) understanding participant and caregiver satisfaction, 5) justification in pragmatic terms. (p. 119).

These can be applied to a full service school evaluation process to ensure accurate and adequate evaluations take place.

Justification from the perspective of funding agencies allows a community agency that has donated resources to have consideration in developing the program values and outcome goals. This measure will help ensure that funds or resources are not discontinued because of misunderstanding of how these resources are allocated. It may also encourage future contributions from the same source.

Defining organization and program goals is the process of deciding what measurements will provide the most useful outcome information. This step allows everyone involved to get on the same page regarding the goals and predicted achievements of the program that is being evaluated. Organizers should ask not only what changes to expect, but when to expect them (short or long term changes).

Enhancement allows for consideration regarding the quality of the intended evaluation procedure. If other researchers or programs have been evaluated using similar

methods, they are analyzed for strengths and weaknesses that can be utilized in the current project.

Understanding participant and provider satisfaction is a step for continuous evaluation of the effect of the program and the evaluation process on the program providers and the participants. Usually surveys are designed and distributed several times during the study to evaluate the important aspect of satisfaction. This ensures that the people most affected by the intervention have a voice as to its maintenance.

Justification in pragmatic terms means to depict what is gained from evaluation of the program. Such things might include credibility and accountability of program administrators for delivering what they promise. Additionally, cost-effectiveness or participant enhancement could be cited as justifications.

Again, these five steps allow for a more smoothly run evaluation of a program because they address many of the frequently encountered problems upfront. Several of the common problems mentioned in Chapter 3 could be avoided if these simple issues were addressed before a program evaluation commenced. Involving experienced researchers from the beginning of the program is the most effective way to avoid complications and setbacks in the evaluation of any model. However, full services school evaluations seem to be especially susceptible to problematic evaluations due to their complex structure, so an initial evaluation consultation may be even more essential in the full service school model.

A final important consideration, noted by Kronick (in press), is to keep in mind the audience of the evaluative report. The evaluation of a full service school may require reports to several agencies. These might include the school board, community funding

agencies, state budget boards, university evaluation officials, parents and community members, and teachers and students. All of these groups will require a different presentation of data, therefore, the evaluator must keep in mind what elements of the program will be important for each group as the process of evaluation is ongoing.

### Conclusion

This presentation of the full service school model, frequently encountered problems, and evaluation suggestions is meant to serve administrators, researchers, and coordinators of full service schools. All problems and possible solutions are not addressed, but awareness of these roadblocks and their commonalities may contribute to knowledge base of full service school providers. The quest of school officials, external evaluators, and community members to attain valuable data on their failures and successes will help others on the way to the development of a great community resource that will enhance relationships, opportunities, and satisfaction for many students and their families.

Full service schools can provide the necessary components to improve our communities and give children a chance for having fulfilling careers, successful families, and rewarding lifestyles. Implementing this model in a community can curb crimes, drug use, and domestic violence. However, full service schools cannot make an impact on our educational system unless they are properly implemented and evaluated for successes and deficiencies. School administrators, coordinators, community members, parents, and evaluators need to conceptualize all aspects of the full service school model and design evaluations accordingly to ensure accurate data are produced. This will contribute to the

literature on both the full service school and evaluations in educational settings, therefore, ensuring greater benefit to children and their families.





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### Vita

Kylie Gray Cole-Zakrzewski was born in Atkinson, NE on June 30, 1978. She was raised in Emmet, NE and attended grade and high school at St. Mary's Catholic School in O'Neill, NE. Kylie graduated from high school in 1997 and continued her education at Southwest State University in Marshall, MN. After completing a year of schooling there, she transferred to the University of Nebraska at Kearney and completed her Bachelor of Science in Psychology in May of 2000. Kylie completed her M.S. in Mental Health Counseling in May 2002 at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

Kylie intends to pursue her doctorate in Counseling Psychology or Counselor Education with the aspirations of teaching at a university.