



The School Psychologist

AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION

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Re-Examining the Rorschach Test in School Psychology Practice

**By Jed Yalof & Pamela Abraham, Immaculata College
Barbara Domingos, Delaware County Intermediate Unit
Bonnie Sockett, Lower Merion School District**

This article examines the application of the Rorschach test to school psychology practice. First, surveys that discuss Rorschach test usage among school psychologists are reviewed. Advantages and disadvantages associated with using the Rorschach test in school-based assessment are discussed. Second, an approach to the Rorschach test that is informed by clinical neuropsychology is suggested, with the objective of integrating a traditional understanding of the Rorschach as a projective personality test with an understanding of neurocognitive executive functioning and educational planning. Third, the Rorschach is discussed as having potential applications to the school psychology assessment of emotional disturbance and social maladjustment. Each perspective is offered in the spirit of supporting the Rorschach test as an important component in the school psychologist's test armamentarium.

Rorschach Use in School Psychology Practice: Pros and Cons

Surveys of test usage have indicated that the Rorschach is not a popular test among school psychologists. For example, only 24% of school psychologists reportedly use the Rorschach test (Stinnet, Havey, & Oehler-Stinnet, 1994). Additionally, fewer than one-third of non-doctoral school psychologists, the group comprising the largest sector of school psychologists in the public schools have had a course in the Rorschach (Culross & Nelson, 1997). Finally, the Rorschach was not cited as a measure frequently used by school psychologists in a recent survey of test usage (Wilson & Reschly, 1996). The situation is somewhat different in clinical psychology, where 43% of survey respondents indicated that they "always" or "frequently" used the Rorschach test and 90% of the respondents felt that clinical students

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Editor's Note

The editorial board of *The School Psychologist* dedicates this issue to all those who were lost or injured in the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001. The board also recognizes all those who have made contributions to help those most affected. *The School Psychologist* is edited in New York City and printed in and mailed from Washington, DC.

APA Response to Terrorist Attacks in NYC and DC

By Ron Palomares & Russ Newman, American Psychological Association

As you read this article, it is hoped that the healing process has begun from the horrific events and aftermath of the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks in New York City and Washington DC. As the events unfolded that morning, many APA staff members went to the roof of the APA building and could see the thick plume of smoke rising off the Pentagon. Concerns for personal safety and those of our families and friends quickly became a priority and the building was closed.

However, once personal safety was insured, APA immediately began efforts to activate the APA

Disaster Response Network (DRN), which works in conjunction with the American Red Cross. As you can imagine, the Practice Directorate was deluged with calls and e-mails from APA members asking for resource materials and offering to volunteer their services to help in the aftermath of the terrible events. In response, and through the combined efforts of our DRN and the Public Education Campaign network, the Practice Directorate quickly developed materials for APA members to use in facilitating group discussions with youth about the events. One document developed specifically for a

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DIVISION 16 EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

President

Jack Cummings, Ph.D.
Education #4038
Indiana University
201 North Rose Ave.
Bloomington, IN 47405-1006
(812) 856-8327
cummings@indiana.edu

President-Elect

Steven G. Little, Ph.D.
Dept. of Psychology
Hofstra University
Hempstead, NY 11549
(516) 463-4027
(516) 463-6052
steven.g.little@hofstra.edu

Past President

Rick J. Short, Ph.D.
Department of Educational and
Counseling Psychology
5A Hill Hall
University of Missouri
Columbia, MO 65211
(573) 882-2592
(573) 884-5989 (fax)
rshort@tiger.coe.missouri.edu

Secretary

Michelle Schicke Athanasiou, Ph.D.
Div. of Professional Psychology
University of Northern Colorado
Greeley, CO 80639
(970) 351-2356
(970) 351-2626 (fax)
mathan@edtech.unco.edu

Treasurer

Sharon A. Missiaen, Ph.D.
5345 Canvasback Road
Blaine, WA 98230
(360) 371-7386
(360) 371-0527 (fax)
smissiaen@home.com

Vice President of Professional Affairs

Deborah Tharinger, Ph.D.
SZB 504
University of Texas
Austin, TX 78712
(512) 471-4407
(512) 475-7641 (fax)
dtharinger@mail.utexas.edu

Vice Pres. of Membership

Colette L. Ingraham, Ph.D.
Department of Counseling and
School Psychology
MC 1179, College of Education
San Diego State University
San Diego, CA 92182-1179
(619) 594-6605
(619) 594-7025 (fax)
ingraham@mail.sdsu.edu

Vice President of Education, Training, & Scientific Affairs

Alberto Bursztyn, Ph.D.
Brooklyn College - CUNY
2900 Bedford Avenue
Room 2107 James Hall
Brooklyn, NY 11210
(718) 951-5214
(718) 951-4816 (fax)
aburstyn@brooklyn.cuny.edu

Vice President of Publication, Communications, and Convention Affairs

William P. Erchul, Ph.D.
Department of Psychology
North Carolina State University
640 Poe Hall, Box 7801
Raleigh, NC 27695-7801
(919) 515-1709
(919) 515-1716 (fax)
william_erschul@ncsu.edu

Vice President of Social and Ethical Responsibility & Ethnic Minority Affairs

Robyn S. Hess, Ph.D.
School of Education, C.B. 106
P.O. Box 173364
University of Colorado-Denver
Denver, CO 80217
(303) 556-6784
Robyn_Hess@ceo.cudenver.net

Council Representatives

Jonathan Sandoval, Ph.D.
Division of Education
One Shields Avenue
U.C. Davis
Davis, CA 95616-8579
(916) 752-3198
(916) 752-5411 (fax)
jhsandoval@ucdavis.edu

Cindy Carlson, Ph.D.
University of Texas at Austin
Dept. of Educational Psychology
SZB 504
Austin, TX 78712
(512) 232-4835
(512) 471-1288 (fax)
cindy.carlson@mail.utexas.edu

SASP Representative

Matt Turner
1559 Chase Arbor Common
Virginia Beach, VA 23462
(757) 467-2378

Historian

Thomas K. Fagan, Ph.D.
Department of Psychology
The University of Memphis
Memphis, TN 38152
(901) 678-4676
tom-fagan@mail.psyc.memphis.edu

Editor, School Psychology Quarterly

Terry B. Gutkin, Ph.D.
117 Bancroft Hall
Dept. of Educational Psychology
University of Nebraska-Lincoln
Lincoln, NE 68588
(402) 472-8317
tgutkin1@unl.edu.



Division 16 Home Page
Check out the Division 16 home page at:
<http://www.indiana.edu/~div16/>

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* Allow 3 to 6 weeks for delivery of 3rd class mail.

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PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE

September 11, 2001

By Jack Cummings, Indiana University

September 11, 2001 began as most other days. My walk from home to the School of Education was typical of an early September morning. It was 60 degrees, but the sun was strong, so it felt warmer. The forecast for the day was that it would be warm—in the mid to high 70's. The weather was noticeable because it was so comfortable. After the hot and humid days of summer, the morning stood out as the start to an ideal late summer/early fall day.

Once in my office, I began the day by checking email to see what had come in over night. I was the first one in the suite of the dean's office, so the quiet of the morning proved a pleasant contrast to the hustle and bustle that begins after 8:00 a.m. My colleague in the office next door arrived shortly after me. He often keeps a television tuned to the Financial News Network or CNN. So my day began much like many others, until he came into my office and said that a plane had crashed into the World Trade Center. The next thing I remember is being joined by our administrative assistant while watching the smoke bellow out of the upper floors of one of the towers of the World Trade Center. We stood there saddened by the loss of lives on the plane and those in the World Trade Center. I looked at my watch and thought that it was good that it was only 7:45 in the morning because not everyone would be in the office before 8:00. Momentarily, I had forgotten that we were an hour behind Eastern daylight-saving time. The sense of loss grew when I realized that it was 8:45 in New York and people would be in their offices. As we were watching what we had assumed was an accident, we saw the second commercial airliner crash into the other tower. It was hard to fathom that it could have been intentional, but the visibility was more than adequate and the plane seemed to veer at the last minute to hit the tower. My immediate reaction was one of sadness. My thoughts went to the loved ones of those unfortunate individuals who were working at their desks or getting a morning cup of coffee. I could not help but compare what I was watching to Oklahoma City that not long ago passed a five-year anniversary.

A momentary break in the sadness was feeling relief that my daughter had returned from a summer internship at GE Capital during which she spent much of her free time making contacts in the finan-

cial district of "the city," in the very place that would later become known as "ground zero." Concurrent with this relief was a sense of guilt that I could feel happy about my daughter's good fortune in such a time of sadness. The feeling of guilt made me feel worse again, so that I was soon returned to a deep sense of loss and felt in sync with the current milieu. It was not until reports of another plane, this one crashing into the Pentagon, that I had a conscious sense of fear and awareness that the United States was under attack. Thinking about it made me come to the realization that I was in Bloomington, Indiana; not a likely target unless the terrorists wanted to make a symbolic strike in the heartland of America. The conscious feeling of fear was easy to quell, but did resurface at various points over the next few days. For instance, when I saw a modest amount of smoke coming from a building about 200 yards from the School of Education, I feared for the safety of those nearby. When I was walking home and heard sirens from either a police car or ambulance, my thoughts returned immediately to Tuesday.

During the past week, I have been on edge and less tolerant of normal frustrations. Above all, it has been a week of thinking about what is important. At first, it was difficult to disengage from the press of everyday urgencies. However, the magnitude of the events of September 11, had the sobering effect of placing daily trivialities in the context of that which is truly important. Family was at the top of my list, my spouse, my children; my sister and her daughters; my wife's parents; my two brothers-in-law and my sister-in-law; etc.

It is within the recent context of tragic loss of life in New York City, Washington, DC., and rural Pennsylvania, that I write this column. Just as I thought about issues of importance in my daily personal life, the same question of what is essential in the short-term and the long-term can be applied to professional life. The events of September 11, 2001 frame the daily urgencies of the Division in the context of what is truly important in the long run.

In January of this year, the executive committee considered the goals of the Division as a starting point for the midwinter meeting. First, we considered the Division 16 goals, articulated on our website, <http://www.indiana.edu/~div16/G&O.htm>. I will



Jack Cummings

“...thinking about what is important.”

CONTINUED FROM THE COVER

Re-Examining the Rorschach Test in School Psychology Practice

“It is not clear why the Rorschach is used infrequently in child and adolescent school assessment”

should be competent in the Rorschach (Watkins, Campbell, Nieberding, & Hallmark, 1995).

The survey results from school psychology, compared to clinical psychology, clearly suggest that the Rorschach test is less popular among school psychologists. School psychologists are required to evaluate the personality needs of children and adolescents as part of their daily work, but have opted to use measures other than the Rorschach when conducting personality assessments. Kamphaus, Petosky, and Rowe (2000) provided a detailed listing of child assessment measures and did not include the Rorschach test under their "Social-emotional-behavioral" category. Exner and Weiner (1995), in contrast, have discussed the role of the Rorschach test in assessing child and adolescent personality functioning.

It is not clear why the Rorschach is used infrequently in child and adolescent school assessment, although there is room to speculate. Three general concerns about the Rorschach that could influence decisions about its usage in special education evaluations are: (1) it is difficult to learn and time consuming to apply, (2) it has a questionable research base, and (3) test variables do not translate easily into IEP decisions. Each point is discussed below.

First, the Rorschach is a difficult test to teach, administer, score and interpret (e.g., Hilsenroth & Handler, 1995; Silverstein, 1996). Mastery of the Rorschach rules for response coding and interpretation requires an extended apprenticeship (Silverstein, 1996). A psychologist who is skilled with Rorschach analysis will still require approximately 90 minutes to complete the interpretation phase (Exner, 2000). School psychologists, who as a group tend not to use the Rorschach when evaluating students, already spend approximately 12 hours on each psychoeducational evaluation (Lichtenstein & Fischetti, 1998). Adding the Rorschach to the test battery would appear to be neither a viable nor popular option (Kamphaus, et al., 2000).

Second, there is a concern about the Rorschach as a reliable and valid instrument (Lilienfeld, Wood, & Garb, 2001). Spirited discussion about the validity and integrity of Rorschach research has surfaced recently in the Rorschach literature (e.g., Bornstein, 2001; Gacono, Loving, & Bodholt, 2001; Ganellen, 2001; Meyer, 2000; Wood, Lilienfeld, Nezworski, & Garb, 2001; Wood, Nezworski, Stejskal, & Garven, 2001). These exchanges provide a forum for evaluating the Rorschach as a viable clinical instrument.

Third, it might be argued that behavioral data

are easier than Rorschach data to translate into the goals and objectives of an IEP. Rorschach variables are described in terms (e.g., "affect regulation," "degree of stress tolerance," and "coping deficit") that are not easily transformed into behavioral objectives, and which may lead school psychologists to favor an objective personality measure that relies on behavioral frequency data or estimates.

Descriptive ratings can be linked to classroom behavior easier than responses to inkblots. Although behavior ratings and Rorschach responses reflect different data sets, observed behavior is easier to identify, monitor, and target for improvement than general variable clusters that are presumed to reflect underlying personality dispositions.

Rorschach proponents might not totally disagree with questions raised about the test's difficulty, research, and application to IEP decisions, but would offer alternative perspectives on these issues in support of decisions to use the Rorschach in school evaluations. Four such counters are presented below.

First, the Rorschach provides valuable descriptive and diagnostic information about personality functioning, perception, and cognitive style when evaluating youngsters who have significant behavioral, ideational, and emotional problems (Lunardi, 1999). The Rorschach is sensitive to identifying personality characteristics highlighted under less structured stimulus conditions. One of the test's strengths is its ability to provide information about the cognitive, affective, self, and interpersonal response features of children and adolescents in response to less well-structured stimuli (Exner & Weiner, 1995).

Second, the 10 Rorschach inkblots provide a different stimulus context for generating hypotheses about personality adjustment than do free drawings, sentence completions, TAT stories, or items on a rating scale. Rorschach findings address self-image, interpersonal relations, emotions, reality testing, information processing, and ideational style in response to unstructured situations. Rorschach responses give rise to highly personal projections and information about personality structure in a way that is different from information gathered through self-report or outside observation. For example, a depressed child who internalizes feelings, but who gives the Rorschach response "A bleeding animal being kicked" to Card VIII might be saying more about his own sense of pain, vulnerability, and anger than could be either verbalized or accessed through classroom observation. Rorschach responses pro-

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Re-Examining the Rorschach Test in School Psychology Practice

vide information that can help teachers develop an appreciation for personality variables that affect student functioning in the classroom (e.g., Chambers, 2000).

Third, Rorschach advocates might point out that Exner (1995) and Acklin, McDowell, Verschell, and Chan (2000) have offered informed presentations of the Rorschach's use in research design and analysis. These discussions provide suggestions for Rorschach research design and analysis, and offer a reasoned counter to questions about the Rorschach's integrity as a psychometric instrument. Rorschach data have also been shown to have many of the test characteristics for admissibility in a court of law (McCann, 1999), which would hold it in good stead at formal hearings.

Fourth, the applicability of Rorschach data to IEP goals and objectives needs to be studied systematically in relation to school problems. To date, there is no substantive research base on how the Rorschach incrementally informs IEP goals and objectives. There is a need to work toward operationally defining Rorschach results for each individual child or adolescent who takes the test, and to tie these definitions to IEP objectives. Systematic study of the relationship between objective behavior ratings and operationally defined Rorschach results might be one way of evaluating the degree to which the Rorschach can contribute to school-based decision-making.

Neuropsychological Applications of the Rorschach

In this section, a Rorschach-based perspective on neuropsychological executive functioning is proposed. Our objective is to encourage a school psychological appreciation for the Rorschach as a clinical measure that has sensitivity to brain-behavior relations beyond its traditional role as a projective personality test (e.g., Colligan, 1997; Ellis & Zahn, 1985; Exner, Colligan, Boll, Stischer, & Hillman, 1996).

Definitions of executive functioning highlight cognitive activities associated with the integration and implementation of response strategies directed toward complex problem solving and adaptation to novel tasks (e.g., Gioia, Isquith, Guy, & Kenworthy, 2000; Lezak, 1995; Pennington, 1991). Representative of these definitions is Sbordone (2000), who defines executive function by stating, "The executive functions of the brain can be defined as the complex process by which an individual goes about performing a novel problem-solving task from inception to

completion" (p. 437). Traditional measures of executive functioning (e.g., Wisconsin Sorting Test, Booklet Category Test) are responsive to the assessment of novel problem solving by providing information about an individual's ability to shift cognitive set and use feedback to reach solutions when presented with novel tasks. In what follows, the Rorschach is discussed as a neuropsychologically informed measure and then as a measure of problem-solving in response to novel stimuli that can be incorporated into the process of evaluating neurocognitive executive functions.

Neuropsychological Processes on the Rorschach

The different components of the Rorschach response process can be understood neuropsychologically. A review of Rorschach test administration procedures illustrates how different neuropsychological processes influence the development of a Rorschach response. Two important components of test administration are the free association stage (i.e., the participant gives responses to the inkblots) and the inquiry stage (i.e., the participant states where on the blot the response was seen and what about the blot made it look like the response).

In the free association stage, the participant is given some basic instructions about how to proceed, handed the inkblot, and asked to state what the blot might be. The participant holds and looks at the card, occasionally changing its orientation from the upright position, and gives responses. In the inquiry stage, the participant receives instructions on how to proceed. The examiner returns the inkblots to the participant, reads back the original response and asks inquiry questions in order to clarify response location (e.g., "Circle where you saw it," or "Help me see it like you do?") and determinants (e.g., "You said it was a soft rug. What about it made it look soft?"). The free association and inquiry stages involve listening to and comprehending instructions as well as manual dexterity and gross motor skill in holding and manipulating the inkblots into different positions. Free association and inquiry involve visual input of stimuli and categorization of visual-verbal associations, verbal and visual search and retrieval of images, shifting cognitive set in response to new stimulus demands, and interpreting potential responses in relation to fit with blots. Free association and inquiry also require attention, concentration, delay/inhibition, synthetic thought, affective modulation, and expressive language.

“Two important components of test administration are the free association stage and the inquiry stage”

Re-Examining the Rorschach Test in School Psychology Practice

Problem-Solving on the Rorschach

The identification of different cognitive processes that underlie the Rorschach response process provides a foundation for considering the Rorschach as a problem-solving test that requires adaptation to novel stimuli. On the Rorschach, the participant must organize and adapt to novel stimuli. Indeed, Exner (1993) has described the Rorschach as a problem-solving task. "In effect, the nature of the test situation forces the participant to convert the blot into something that it is not. A *problem-solving situation* (italics in original) is created which requires some violation of reality. At the same time the subject remains concerned with his or her personal integrity. Thus, the requirement to *misidentify* (italics in original) the stimulus provokes a complex of psychological operations into activity that ultimately culminates in decision-making and the delivery of answers" (p.29).

Rorschach Personality Variables and Executive Functioning

The Rorschach test might be understood in terms of its ability to assess a range of executive functions that incorporate personality variables. Sbordone's (2000) summary of Lezak's (1995) executive functioning schema appears to incorporate personality variables in a way that bridges neuropsychology and Rorschach applications. Lezak's executive functioning schema encompasses deficits in the following areas: (1) volitional deficits, as evidenced by disturbances in mood, curiosity, self-awareness and social awareness, (2) planning deficits, as evidenced by disturbances in abstract thinking, disorganized behavior and thought, rigid thinking, poor planning and organization, and socially inappropriate behavior, (3) purposive action deficits, as evidenced by disturbances in distractibility, emotional lability impatience, disorderly thinking, and problems with novel tasks, and (4) effective performance deficits, as evidenced by perseveration responses, cognitive rigidity, inability to identify and correct mistakes, and failure to follow through on tasks.

School psychologists who are familiar with Exner's Comprehensive System might be able to study Lezak's model and hypothesize ways in which different Rorschach variables might be grouped conceptually within each of the four executive functioning categories. Holoday, Moak, and Shipley (2001) have provided a model for matching Rorschach variables to diagnostic criteria for Asperger's Disorder, suggesting that different Rorschach variables could

be translated in relation to descriptive characteristics of the disorder. Holoday and colleagues et al. reviewed Rorschach protocols of children and adolescents diagnosed with Asperger's Disorder based on the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (4th ed) [DSM-IV]. They linked specific Rorschach variables to specific DSM-IV diagnostic criteria and found significant differences between the Asperger's children and a contrast group on five of eight variables.

Using a model similar to Holoday et al. (2001) a relationship between certain Rorschach variables and Sbordone's (2000) description of Lezak's categories of executive functions is suggested. There is no empirical base for the proposed fit between Rorschach variables and domains of executive function. There are psychometric limitations of integrating Rorschach variables with constructs derived from other tests, such as the MMPI. However, this particular application of the Rorschach is hypothesized in the spirit of heightening the school psychologist's awareness to different ways in which the Rorschach test can inform psychoeducational assessments.

Exner's (1993, 2000) discussion of the interpretive implications of Rorschach variables might be applied to Lezak's category of volitional deficits in the following way.

1. Assessment of a participant's mood can be inferred from a review of the depression and coping deficit indices of the Rorschach test. Each index provides information about mood. For example, elevations in the number of achromatic Color (FC', C'F, C') responses that incorporate the colors gray, black, or white, such as "A black cat") are understood as being sensitive to states of inner tension and sadness. Elevations in the number of white space responses (S) might be considered a reflect of anger. Elevations in the number of diffuse-shading (FY, YF, Y) responses (e.g., "It looks like a coat- the shape and the way the colors go from light-dark.") might be taken as indices of anxiety or helplessness. The number of Morbid content responses also provides information about a participant's mood.

2. Assessment of a participant's curiosity can be inferred by reviewing the ZD score, which reflects processing efficiency when synthesizing the different features of the inkblots. The Lambda score represents an estimate of the degree to which a subject is willing to become involved in a new stimulus field. The total number of responses provides an estimate about an individual's drive to respond and process

In Memoriam Mary Alice White (1920-2000)¹

By **Thomas K. Fagan, University of Memphis**
Marian C. Fish, Queens College, City University of New York

Mary Alice White was born in Washington, DC on March 18, 1920 to Charles Stanley and Blanche (Strong) White. Following a short illness, she died at her home in Salisbury, CT on December 22, 2000. Her father was a surgeon and her mother a nurse. They met while he was receiving specialized training at the Mayo Clinic in Minnesota where she was employed. Mary Alice attended schools in DC and graduated from the Miss Madeira School in Washington. Her deceased brother, Charles Stanley White, Jr., was also a surgeon.



Professional Preparation

Like many early leaders in school psychology, Mary Alice White helped to forge an identity for this field from a background in experimental and clinical psychology. White completed her B.A. in economics at Vassar College in 1941, then her M.A. and Ph.D. degrees in experimental psychology at Columbia University in 1944 and 1948, respectively. Her clinical psychology training at that time meant completing a selection of clinically oriented and applied courses within an otherwise experimental psychology degree. Her academic lineage followed from Henry Edward Garret (White's dissertation advisor), Robert Sessions Woodworth (Garrett's dissertation advisor), James McKeen Cattell (Woodworth's dissertation advisor), and Wilhelm Wundt (Cattell's dissertation advisor) (Blair, 1993). White's dissertation was titled, *A Study of Schizophrenic Language* (White, 1949).

Employment

Her parents were not strong supporters of higher education for women and thus Mary Alice gained much of her education through self-support. During her graduate studies she worked in personnel, labor relations, and training for the General Cable Corporation in Rome, NY and New York City. Following graduate school, she was an Assistant Psychologist in the Psychology Department of the New York Hospital-Westchester Division in White Plains (1948-1950) where she also served as department director (1950-1960). From 1960-1962 she served as Psychological Consultant to the Pelham (NY) School System.

It is not known why she chose to enter academia, but she may have written a book (White & Harris, 1961) to help secure a position. She was appointed Associate Professor in Teachers College,

Columbia University (TCCU, 1962-1966) and Professor of Psychology and Education from 1966-1990 and then retired from TCCU. Paul Eiserer was principal advisor to the school psychology program from 1960-1968 when White appears to have taken the reins until the early 1980s. White assisted Eiserer in organizing the Tri-State School Psychology Conference in March 1962, although White was not a key participant in the conference (Eiserer, Lieberfreund, & White, 1962). During White's career at Columbia, she also served as Director, Center for Behavioral Analysis and School Learning (1972-1977) and of Learning Assessment Services (1974-1980). From 1977 until well after her retirement she was Director of the Electronic Learning Laboratory, which was connected to TCCU, but operated mainly from her home in Salisbury, CT. During her latter years at TCCU, White commuted from home and lived in the city during the week.

Her experimental background and broad interest in school learning and curriculum are evident in her publications (White, 1967, 1983, 1987). Her interests cut across educational, clinical, and school psychology, and technology applications to schooling. In a recent book proposal, she described herself as an electronic learning psychologist (one who studies the influence of the electronic technologies upon human learning). At the time of her death she was preparing a book with colleagues that is still under review (White, Fish, & Fisherkeller, 2001).

Contributions to School Psychology

Her most notable contributions to the professional development of school psychology are her efforts to achieve APA accreditation and then approval to offer the diplomate in school psychology from the American Board of Professional

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Psychology (ABPP). As chair of Division 16's Training Standards and Certification Committee in 1965, she spearheaded efforts to gain APA accreditation recognition. These efforts blossomed in 1971 when the University of Texas-Austin became the first APA accredited school psychology program; White's Columbia program was the third to be accredited (Fagan & Wells, 2000). Her efforts were part of a proud lineage of contributions by women throughout the history of school psychology (Alpert, Genshaft, & Derevenco, 1988; French, 1988; Hagin, 1993). Hagin (1993) and Pryzwansky (1993) emphasized White's central role in the effort to acquire APA's recognition for school psychology through accreditation and the diplomate. "White had strong credentials for this work; prior to her appointment as program head of school psychology at Teachers College, Columbia University, she had built a respected reputation for publications in clinical psychology and had earned the clinical diplomate of the American Board of Professional Psychology" (Hagin, 1993, p. 132). White assisted in the experimental oral examinations and subsequent examinations in 1968 which culminated in Dr. Virginia Bennett being awarded the first school psychology diplomate in September, 1968 (American Board of Examiners in Professional Psychology, Inc., 1968). White was awarded the diplomate in school psychology in June, 1969.



She worked closely on accreditation and the ABPP with June Charry and Jan Duker with whom she published books (Charry & White, 1966; White & Duker, 1973). White recruited Duker into Division 16 accreditation activities during a visit to the University of Minnesota where Duker worked. Duker recalls that White almost single-handedly wrote the school psychology accreditation proposal (Personal communication, July 23, 2001). Duker taught at TCCU for several years joining Ann Boehm on the faculty. White served as a Member-At-Large of the Division's Executive Committee during 1966-1967 and 1968-1969. All of these efforts helped to launch her into the presidency of the Division in 1970-1971. At that time the Division had about 2,000 members and a budget of \$12,000. She followed the presidency of Jack Bardon and was succeeded by Rosa Hagin. As past-president, she chaired the Nominations Committee in 1971-1972.

Shifting Interests

White was foremost an experimental and behaviorally oriented educational psychologist, who attempted to express her visions for school psychology through her program at Columbia. Her 1994 vita, which does not list her articles before 1981, includes a statement that she had "39 articles previously in educational and clinical psychology." The period prior to 1981 was when she was most closely connected to school psychology and her statement suggests she did not see school psychology as distinct from educational and clinical psychology. Nevertheless, she was committed to the notion that school psychology training needed to blend the knowledge bases of both education and psychology (White, 1963-1964). She was never content to train school psychologists in the tradition of clinical training in 1:1 assessment and counseling. She held a broader agenda, a systems level, classroom level agenda on school learning that was evident in much of her writing including her presidential messages (White, 1971a, 1971b).

Within a few years of her Division 16 presidency, her activities on behalf of the Division faded as she intensified her research in technology and school learning, and concentrated on program development at TCCU. She left mainstream school psychology in the late 1970s in order to pursue her interests in educational applications of technology. Perhaps school psychology appeared hopelessly locked into special education following the passage of Public Law 94-142. Reflecting her concerns for the future of the field, she predicted the need for a "psychologist of schooling" not a "school psychologist" well before Bardon popularized that viewpoint in the 1980s (White, 1968-1969). In that article she wrote: "We helped to invent special education, which is beginning to look like another empire of its own, but which may not have made much of a contribution to explaining how different children learn differently, or how they might be taught more effectively" (p. 55). The broader approach is reflected in her book, *The School Psychologist* (White & Harris, 1961) where she stated that the boundaries between school and educational psychology were unclear and that "school psychology is that branch of psychology which concerns itself with the personality of the pupil in interaction with the educational process" (p. 1). "Instead of solving Jimmy's problem, the future school psychologist may have to apply himself to solving the problem of the 'Jimmys'" (p. 13).

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In Memoriam Mary Alice White (1920-2000)

Following passage of Public Law 94-142, training programs in the 1970s adjusted to help practitioners comply with federal and state regulations. Although an emphasis on systems consultation and organizational development was present in the 1970s (see e.g., Schmuck & Miles, 1971) it was probably too short-lived to hold White's interest in mainstream school psychology, and it was not focused on a psychology of schooling. White preferred the more risky cutting edges of the field to the safer traditional roles and functions. The strong behavioral orientation of her Columbia program was against the grain of the more orthodox training of other New York area programs in clinical techniques and psychodynamic theory. For all these reasons, she declared school psychology as "dead" in the early 1980s and had APA accreditation withdrawn from the TCCU program. This was done without consultation of the faculty and it was several years before APA accreditation was reinstated under a new program director, Ann Boehm.

Student and Colleague Recollections

White was intelligent, well-educated academically and culturally, independent and strong of spirit, with a sense of privacy about her personal life. She was upfront and blunt with her opinions, did not suffer fools gladly, and no doubt raised the anxiety and ire of some with whom she worked. Hagin (1993) recalled how surprised White seemed when action on the school psychology ABPP diploma had taken place more quickly than White had expected. During an August, 1968 report to the Division 16 Executive Committee, White "modestly observed that the favorable vote may have occurred because she was absent from that particular ABPP Board meeting" (p. 134). This may have been a humorous exaggeration since Board minutes reveal she had attended the September, 1967 and the February, 1968 meetings when the proposals and decisions were made. The October, 1968 minutes indicate that her term on the ABPP Board expired in September, 1969 and she was succeeded by Marie Skodak Crissey (probably on White's recommendation to the Board). The Board's minutes for July, 1969 list the original 18 school psychology diplomates awarded under the "grandfather" provision and include Crissey and White. Other early recipients are listed in Dettmar (1972).

Former students have varied memories of her but all respected her. Some mention how difficult White was on some matters and that she especially

attempted to intimidate her male students. Others saw no gender differences in how she worked with students. Instead, they recalled that she worked best with students who had a sense of direction, stood up for themselves, and worked hard. Some students retain a loyalty and devotion to her while others do not and even seem angry at White's style of seeming to both love and hate her students.

Others describe how strong her clinical acumen and research skills were, and how loyally she mentored them through the program. She was fondest of students who shared her vision for school psychology and remained loyal to her. Her success at getting NIMH funding in the 1970s helped to finance the graduate education of many students. Among her many students are Judie Alpert, Laura Barbanel, Ann Boehm, Marla Brassard, Valerie Cook-Morales, Maribeth Gettinger, Rich Nagle, and Walt Pryzwansky. One colleague described her as being a superb administrator of the TCCU school psychology program. Others described her as having strong opinions but willing to work hard and collegially with those willing to fight the same battles as she.

White also had a wry sense of wit, that could be perceived as cutting and not always appreciated by others. White was a staunch advocate of the two levels of training and practice (doctoral and subdoctoral). Her Division 16 presidency followed the founding of the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP). She did not fear the NASP movement, but viewed it as mainly subdoctoral practitioners seeking greater recognition. Division 16, now strengthened by program accreditation and the ABPP, could go about its business representing doctoral school psychology. It is rumored that when NASP representatives attended a Division 16 Board meeting, White referred to them as the "field hands" of school psychology, an obvious reference to their subdoctoral backgrounds. White was never a NASP member.

Mary Alice White came from a well-to-do Washington background and her parents were well connected. One colleague related how this cultured lady raised pigs in Vermont as part of a sausage business she had started and that she even delivered the sausage herself, earning her the local title of "the pig lady."

Publications

Her book, *The School Psychologist* (White & Harris, 1961), was an early entry among several school psychology books published in the 1960s,

“she worked best with students who had a sense of direction, stood up for themselves, and worked hard.”

In Memoriam Mary Alice White (1920-2000)

“White was a staunch advocate of the two levels of training and practice”

when school psychology was growing rapidly and viewpoints competed to establish the field's long-term identity (French, 1986). White & Harris' book, emphasizing a psychologist of schooling model, was read by many school psychology trainees and competed with other models, including Gray's (1963) data-oriented problem solver, and Reger's (1965) educational programmer. These models were generally inconsistent with the traditionally accepted special education assessment model of refer-test-report. Although these models succeeded in broadening perspectives on practice, special education, and school psychology continued their close relationship for decades to come.

Her last publication in a school psychology journal continued to express her system's-level interest in school psychology. Titled, "Identifying a school's agenda: Nine steps," she suggested ways of determining a school's "real" agenda, "defined as those behaviors that are encouraged and discouraged by each school's culture on a daily basis" (p. 292). She stressed gathering information that could be contrasted with the school's official statements of objectives and educational philosophy.

Three Careers

White lived three careers in psychology. Her early career was associated with traditional clinical psychology and psychopathology (see e.g., White & Schreiber, 1952). She appears to have spent her early career searching for more rewarding research applications while pursuing research at the time that conveniently fit her employment settings and clients. Her middle career years blended her experimental and clinical interests together as a psychology of schooling expressed through Columbia's school psychology program and her mainstream school psychology publications. Her later career was devoted to learning theory and technology applications to school learning and curriculum and many of her publications were with former or current students (see e.g., Fish & White, 1982). The titles of her research, journals in which she published, and her APA directory listings of fields of interest further reveal these trends, perhaps connected by a loyalty to her experimental background and insistence on a data-based practice. She would strongly support the current emphasis on empirically supported interventions, with the exception that she would prefer classroom, building, and systems level interventions. Her ideas about electronic learning and the need for psychology to get involved with computers were cited

in the *APA Monitor* (Turkington, 1982; White, 1982).

Credentials

White became an associate member of APA in 1945, then member in 1946 in the Division of Educational Psychology before joining Division 16. She was a fellow of Divisions 12, 15, and 16. She also belonged to AERA, was a fellow of the American Psychological Society, a former president of the Westchester County Psychological Association, and board member to the New York State Psychological Association. In addition to her Division 16 contributions, she was a member of the Board of Directors of the American Board of Professional Psychology (serving as Vice-President, 1967-1968), which along with her diplomate in clinical psychology certainly gave her the credibility necessary to successfully propose that school psychology be granted the ABPP. She served on APA's Education and Training Board and on the Board of Directors of the Joint Commission on Mental Health of Children 1965-1969. Mary Alice White was a licensed psychologist in New York State and licensed clinical psychologist in Connecticut. She received the division's Distinguished Service Award in 1974.

Family and Lifestyle

White married Edward N. Kimball, Jr. a New York management consultant on March 26, 1949 and they had two children, Christopher and Katharine. Christopher is married and has four children, and is publisher and editor of *Cook's Illustrated*. With a website and an empirical style of testing recipes on the PBS series, "America's Test Kitchen," he reflects his mother's interests. Katharine Kimball, named after the late Katharine Graham (of Washington Post fame who also attended Miss Madeira School and Vassar), is an attorney in Bend, OR and is married to Robert Davison. She specializes in environmental law and policy.

Mary Alice White always went by her maiden name in professional circles and rarely was addressed as Mrs. Kimball. She always referred to herself as Mary Alice, even hyphenating her name at times (she had no other middle name). Although a spiritual person who believed in nature, White held no religious affiliation.

Mary Alice was very energetic with interests in hunting, farming, gardening, fly fishing, snow shoeing, bird watching, and most anything outdoors. An avocation was her activism in Salisbury, CT where she resided for over 20 years. She was involved in

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In Memoriam Marjorie Alice White (1920-2000)

the leadership of community environmental and planning activities. As head of the Salisbury Land Trust she even placed her own land into conservation easement. She was a lifelong supporter of the Democratic Party.

Despite a difficult personality at times, Marjorie Alice White had a long and distinguished career that significantly influenced the field of school psychology. She wanted nothing for herself simply because she was a woman. She wanted gender equality and the opportunity to demonstrate her competence. She would want to be remembered as a woman of vision, with a sense of where the world was going to be in the future and a quest to arrive there first and teach others to do likewise, especially if they were women.

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² The Division's name changed to School Psychology in 1969, and this committee later became the Education and Training Committee.

“the
community
of school
psychologists
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restate these goals because they represent the core values of the Division and provide a framework to consider our future. The ultimate goal of all Division 16 activity is the enhancement of the status of children, youth, and adults as learners and productive citizens in schools, families, and communities. The goals of the Division of School Psychology are:

- a. to promote and maintain high standards of professional education and training within the specialty, and to expand appropriate scientific and scholarly knowledge and the pursuit of scientific affairs;
- b. to increase effective and efficient conduct of professional affairs, including the practice of psychology within schools, among other settings, and collaboration/cooperation with individuals, groups, and organizations in the shared realization of Division objectives;
- c. to support the ethical and social responsibilities of the specialty, to encourage opportunities for ethnic minority participation in the specialty, and to provide opportunities for professional fellowship; and
- d. to encourage and effect publications, communications, and conferences regarding the activities, interests, and concerns within the specialty on a regional, national, and international basis.

With these goals as a backdrop, we considered our future in terms of action steps to move us forward. Increasing the number of APA-accredited internships in school settings and highlighting exemplary psychological services in schools were seen as important steps for promoting high standards of education and psychology practice. Collaborating with other associations was viewed as another vehicle to achieve advances in school psychological services.

Another step was to leverage the power of the APA for the benefit of school psychology and members of the Division. Toward this end it is clear that we need to better understand the needs and wishes of the Division members. The Division listserv provides a vehicle for effective communication with the executive committee as well as with the general membership. The membership page of the Division homepage provides an opportunity to subscribe to the listserv. I encourage all members to communicate via the listserv as well as directly with members of the executive committee. On the left side of the homepage there is a link to the executive committee. This page includes the email address and phone numbers of all executive committee members. Please let us know your needs.

A third step that was reaffirmed at the midwinter meeting was to influence policy on issues such as high-stakes testing, vouchers, and charter schools. Ron Palomares, Director of the APA Office of Policy & Advocacy in the Schools, provides a responsive link for influencing policy. His office is part of the APA Practice Directorate and works with lobbyists from other directorates of APA and with representatives of other organizations to influence policy.

A fourth step, energizing the continuing professional development of the Division, will be a challenge facing the newly elected vice-president of Education, Training, and Scientific Affairs. The work of the Division 16/Society for the Study of School Psychology Task Force on evidence-based intervention education has been reported in the *School Psychology Quarterly*. Tom Kratochwill and Karen Stoiber have lead an effort that hopefully will have significant influence on how school psychologists provide services to schools and children. The task force has taken great care to debate and refine the criteria for judging the adequacy of research on interventions. As evidence-based interventions are identified, a concurrent effort to involve all our members in professional development is needed. The import of this project is that it will bring research and practice into closer alignment. Distance education tools such as videoconferencing and web-forums will help eliminate the barrier of travel and make programs more accessible. Ideally the professional development process will result in better understanding of the exigencies of practice in the schools by researchers and allow current practice to rest on a stronger empirical base.

We should be cognizant that our strength as school psychologists comes partially from our unity and our commitment to meeting the needs of children. Stated another way, the community of school psychologists is our strength. As a division of APA we derive additional strength from the whole of psychology. As a boundary spanning discipline strength should also be derived from the education side of the house (e.g., research on learning in content areas, literacy acquisition, and the culture of schools/communities). My belief is that there is one community of school psychologists, and that to separate the community along the cleavage point of specialist versus doctoral preparation is not in the best interest of providing psychological services to children. Specialist and doctoral level training should be intertwined. This is a healthy state of affairs. We are fortunate that there are two organizations advancing the profession of school psychology. At the specialist

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President's Message September 11, 2001

level NASP does an effective job influencing federal legislation and often does this in concert with APA and other professional groups. My personal view is that Division 16 advocate for doctoral school psychology within the broader context of all the specialties within the APA. It is essential that doctoral school psychology continue to have parity with clinical, counseling, and the emerging new specialties. School psychologists need to be at the table when various APA Boards (e.g., Board of Educational Affairs and Board of Professional Affairs) are discussing whether the internship should be moved outside the doctoral degree. I have observed that school psychologists representing the Division (and more explicitly school psychology) have been powerful voices in the various debates. The influence of these voices is greater than what would be predicted given our numbers. It has been through a combination of alliance building, careful preparation and representatives who devote incredible amounts of time to the efforts that doctoral school psychology has flourished with the APA. We have parity as a function of strong voices.

The response of psychologists to the tragedy of September 11 is commendable. Within a brief time there were significant resources available to everyone with an Internet connection. A common refrain on listservs was "pardon the multiple postings, but in case you have not seen the notice." Among the first postings was one that provided a useful set of links to multiple sources. It was compiled by the School Mental Health Project of the UCLA Center for Mental Health in Schools (<http://smhp.psych.ucla.edu>.) Likewise, Jean Baker posted an informative site that included streaming video that was produced by Michigan State University's College of Education (http://www.wmsu.org/programs/jean_baker.htm) aimed at helping our student teacher/teacher interns work effectively with children in the aftermath of the tragic events.

Ron Palomares wrote on Sept 14, "As school psychologists, I would like to direct you specifically to the site <http://helping.apa.org/daily/terrorism.html> where you will find a document entitled, Coping With Terrorism. Additionally, you will find APA's Forum Discussion Guide for Schools and several other related materials at the following link: <http://www.apa.org/practice/ptindex.html>."

The last week has been a roller coaster. While at points last week when I was writing this column, I

thought I was able to discriminate the important from the trivial, this morning it became clear that what we do on a daily basis is critically important. Everyday interactions form the corpus of our lives. Being responsive, caring, and working on behalf of others, especially children, define us personally and professionally. I wish you the best as you struggle both personally and as a profession providing services to children and families in the aftermath of September 11. While we all felt the impact from the tragedy in New York, Pennsylvania, and Washington, D.C., I offer on behalf of all members of the Division our sincere condolences to those of you who lost loved ones and friends.



“this morning it became clear that what we do on a daily basis is critically important.”

Re-Examining the Rorschach Test in School Psychology Practice

information.

3. Assessment of a participant's self-awareness can be inferred by reviewing the protocol for the presence of form-dimension and vista responses. Both are scored when the subject offers responses that include perspective (e.g., "A man behind a tree"), which is related to self-awareness and capacity for insightful thought. The egocentricity index is another estimate of the extent to which a subject displays self-awareness.

4. Assessment of a participant's social awareness can be inferred by reviewing the number of popular responses. Also, the coping deficit index, the hypervigilance index, and common detail (D) location scores might be understood in relation to social awareness.

When combined with a neuropsychologically informed approach to school psychology evaluations, the Rorschach can be an important instrument for assessing cognitive processing weaknesses. Instructional and emotional support strategies require a comprehensive appreciation of a student's cognitive and emotional needs. Educational programming for disorders that have a neuropsychological basis (e.g., Autistic Spectrum Disorders, Traumatic Brain Injury, Nonverbal Learning Disability, Attention Deficit-Hyperactivity Disorder) is a particularly challenging endeavor for educators. Effective remedial strategies require a clear understanding of the types of cognitive difficulties, perceptual errors, and ineffective problem solving strategies that impede the progress of students (Gaddes & Edgell, 1993).

The experience balance (EB) is one Rorschach construct to which problem solving strategy seems closely related. The EB represents the ratio of human movement-to-color responses. Individuals have one of three primary EB styles: introversive, extratensive, and ambitendent, depending upon the direction of scores. Introversive individuals have a predominance of human movement responses; extratensive individuals have a predominance of color responses, and ambitendent individuals show no obvious preference. Stylistically, introversives rely heavily upon logic and internal evaluation when making choices, though they may occasionally draw on emotions to inform their decisions. Extratensives tend to have a more hands-on approach to solving problems. They can use thought and affect when making decisions, but show a preference for affect. Ambitendents are the least effective problem solvers (Exner, 1993), requiring more time and operating with less efficiency than either introversives or

extratensives.

The notion of stylistic ways of solving problems has important implications for problem solving in a learning environment. The ability to solve problems is an important part of learning. Learning, in this sense, includes both social and emotional learning as well as academic problem solving. A line of research that investigates the relationship between the Rorschach styles of introversive, extratensive, or ambitendent and learning how to read, spell, write, compute, or listen attentively might prove to be an interesting area for future research in studying the Rorschach in relation to learning styles.

The ability to demonstrate consistently efficient problem solving strategies that successfully traverse the entirety of school ecology is a real issue for problematic students. While the Rorschach can provide its best information about personality adjustment, it also provides insight into problem solving that might not be obvious on the Booklet Category Test or Stroop Color and Word Test. In addition to evaluating a student's EB style, several other Rorschach variables seem to offer information about quality of problem solving when the student is required to impose a fairly high level of internal order in less structured situations.

These variables may include: (1) perseverative responses as an estimate of cognitive rigidity, (2) human movement responses as an estimate of delay and inhibitory capacity, (3) form dimension responses as an estimate of self-reflection/self-monitoring, (4) coping deficit index, D score, and adjusted D score, as estimates of vulnerability to stress overload, (5) the ZD score as an estimate of cognitive drive, and (6) the overall number of responses to the inkblots as an estimate of the student's difficulty incorporating and processing information secondary to stimulus overload. These variables inform us about problem-solving that tap underlying psychological constructs (e.g., capacity for stress tolerance, capacity for self-reflection, capacity for delay) beyond measures of ability to shift cognitive set.

The Rorschach and IDEA

Typical referral questions in the schools frequently center around problems in behavior. As such, the most frequent question the psychologist in schools must address is whether the problem behavior originates from an emotional disturbance or social maladjustment. The former may qualify a student for special education services. These services include entitlements and differential treatment regarding, for example, a maximum number of sus-

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pensions and protection from expulsion if the problematic behavior is determined to be a manifestation of the emotional disturbance. On the other hand, those students whose behavior is attributed to social maladjustment may be given multiple suspensions, expulsions, and other disciplinary exclusions. The students identified as having an emotional disturbance are granted protection under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA 1997). They are then eligible for special education placement entitling them to such services as smaller class size, greater opportunity for individual attention, a therapeutic milieu, counseling, and guidance services. The task of differentiating emotional disturbance from social maladjustment poses clinical and legal challenge (Surgalla, Kelly, & Stanczak, 1999). Socket (2000) presented a model for differentiating emotional disturbance from social maladjustment using the Rorschach based on a classification system discussed by Exner and Weiner (1995). It was argued that the use of the Rorschach in school settings is particularly useful when determining the complex and multiple issues involved in school failure. Empirical research differentiating emotional disturbance from social maladjustment using the Rorschach would be an important contribution to the literature.

Conclusion

Results of surveys of test usage suggest that the Rorschach has not found a home in school psychology practice. The complex diagnostic challenges confronting the school psychologist requires a highly developed skill base and an awareness of how different tests and measures can be integrated to address the needs of students in the school environment. The Rorschach offers a great promise for practitioners in the schools. We look forward to further discussion about the potential applications of the Rorschach test in school psychology and its application to the delivery of school psychology services.

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APA Response to Terrorist Attacks in NYC and DC

terrorist-related disaster is the APA HelpCenter document "Coping with Terrorism." This and many other resources, including "Managing Traumatic Stress," a general brochure about common reactions, can be downloaded from the HelpCenter's website, <http://helping.apa.org>.

The decision to focus specifically on youth reactions to this tragedy had three reasons. First, there already have been many requests for information coming into APA, State Psychological Associations, and individual APA members centered around how to talk to youth about the September 11th events. Second, many APA members involved in the Warning Signs component of the Public Education Campaign had already developed relationships with their local schools, which enabled them to use these materials quickly. Third, by facilitating youth discussions, psychologists provide a tangible and needed service in their local communities, without overwhelming disaster response centers that may already have had more volunteers than they could work with.

Materials for psychologists are available on the Practice Directorate website: <http://www.apa.org/practice>. The web-based resources include a cover memo outlining the pur-

pose of the materials, a discussion guide for use by psychologists, a list of Internet resources as background materials, suggested steps for reaching out to local schools, and "Reactions and Guidelines for Children Following Trauma/Disaster." (For those of you not involved in either the DRN or the Public Education Campaign, please note that in the materials we suggest you contact your state psychological association <http://www.apa.org/practice/refer.html> so that they know of your interest in these activities.) You, and other APA members are encouraged to access and use these materials. Additionally, APA's website, <http://www.apa.org>, provides information useful to the general public on these topics.

Psychologists have much to offer in the aftermath of this tragedy and we continue to work towards providing our members and the public these resources. Without question, the impact of what has happened will be felt by all for some time to come and we in the Directorate believe that the entire profession of psychology will be a valuable resource for the country as we go about the slow but sure task of becoming whole again.

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Author Note

Jed Yalof, PsyD, Department of Graduate Psychology, Immaculata College; Pamela Abraham, PsyD, Immaculata College; Barbara Domingos, PhD, Delaware County Intermediate Unit; Bonnie Socket, PhD, Lower Merion School District.

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Correspondence concerning this article should be directed to Jed Yalof, Department of Graduate Psychology, Box 682, Immaculata, PA 19345 or Pamela Abraham, Department of Graduate Psychology, Box 500, Immaculata, PA 19345. Electronic mail may be sent via the Internet to jyalof@immaculata.edu or pabraham@immaculata.edu

Beyond the Academic Rhetoric of 'g': Intelligence Testing Guidelines for Practitioners

By **James B. Hale, Children's Evaluation and Rehabilitation Center
Albert Einstein College of Medicine**
and

Catherine A. Fiorillo, Temple University

Beyond the Academic Rhetoric of 'g': Intelligence Testing Guidelines for Practitioners

"The best measure of intelligence is a standardized intelligence test." This statement will likely lead to strong reactions among practitioners and scholars alike. Many individuals will acknowledge that this statement codifies their training experiences and practice of psychology. If there's one thing a psychologist can do well, she can certainly measure intelligence. Conversely, many will dismiss this statement, calling into question the utility of intelligence testing for practice and research purposes. They will point out that much harm can come from intelligence testing, and the little benefit derived from results does not warrant the continued use of these measures. Can both positions be right?

Those who oppose traditional intelligence testing may argue from a multiple intelligences perspective, criticizing traditional intelligence tests because they fail to assess all aspects of intelligent behavior. We have a difficult time distinguishing between intelligence, intelligent behavior, and intelligence test results, often confusing the three concepts (Sternberg, 1997). Opponents may say that assessing children's learning styles is the key to understanding their strengths and needs, and traditional intelligence tests tap only a few intellectual domains. Other opponents will argue against the use of intelligence tests because they are culturally or racially biased, discriminating against children of racial or ethnic difference. In addition, they may say intelligence testing and report writing take up too much of our valuable time; we need to avoid 'admiring the problem' (Allen & Graden, 1995) and spend our time developing, conducting, and evaluating interventions. After all, we became psychologists to help children succeed with their learning and behavior, not to assign some dubious label to them. To accomplish this change, psychologists should conduct fewer standardized and more intervention-oriented assessments (Reschly, 2000). Citing the paucity of evidence regarding aptitude-treatment interactions (Braden & Kratochwill, 1997), some have suggested that there is no ecological validity to intelligence tests, and functional behavior analysis is the key to understanding and helping children with need.

Proponents of intelligence testing will often rely on clinical and empirical evidence, as well as historical doctrine, to support their claims. We have known about intelligence testing for a long time and studies apparently show we measure it well, because most validity coefficients for intelligence tests are relatively high and internal consistency is often excellent. Proponents will note that intelligence tests are well-constructed tools for assessment and differential diagnosis. Psychometric analyses confirm that they are technically sound, as they typically have excellent reliability and validity, and extensive normative populations to support the generalizability of test findings. Proponents will argue global Intelligence Quotients (IQ) are related to important outcomes, such as achievement, occupation, and social status (Brody, 1997). In fact, some have argued that nomothetic interpretation of global IQ is the only valid intelligence test score worth analyzing (Glutting, Youngstrom, Ward, Ward, & Hale, 1997), and all other analyses (e.g., factor or subtest interpretation) should be avoided. This is especially true when it comes to ipsative analysis of subtest data. Profile or pattern analysis of subtest data has been vehemently attacked as being so unreliable that practitioners should "just say no" (McDermott & Glutting, 1997). Other proponents of IQ testing argue that interpretation of an individual child's strengths and weaknesses is an integral part of the process (Kaufman, 1994) and that measuring a variety of cognitive abilities beyond global IQ is critical to understanding the child's functioning and school performance (McGrew & Flanagan, 1998).

Faced with strong arguments for and against intelligence testing, and controversy regarding test interpretation, what is the practicing psychologist to conclude? What are the benefits and costs of intelligence testing? Despite the disparate viewpoints, there are no readily apparent answers. We have come to realize in our clinical, teaching, and research experiences that no opinion is worth ignoring, and finding value in the opinions of others, even if initially we are diametrically opposed to those opinions, furthers our knowledge, understanding, and ability to serve children well. Extolled by many a scientist and practitioner, there is merit in the

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opinions expressed above, and understanding their positions will advance our knowledge, skills, and practice of psychology. To that extent, we explore each of the positions and points presented above.

Are There Multiple Intelligences?

The multiple intelligences literature is worth examination. We agree that our standardized tests measure only some aspects of intelligent behavior. Consistent with the arguments presented by Carroll (1992), there are many useful intelligence constructs not readily tapped by our measures. Recognizing the strengths and weaknesses of children is what we do as psychologists, so we shouldn't ignore constructs or skills that are not measured by our favorite intelligence test. No one test measures all aspects of intelligent behavior, especially since test items are highly structured, unlike the complexities of everyday life (Sattler, 2001). As discussed later, current thinking about hemispheric processing differences reveals that the "correct answer" format required by most standardized test items results in inadequate measurement of right hemisphere cognitive processes. However, if we measured all possible intellectual constructs using all possible item formats, we'd be testing children for days. We need to supplement standardized intelligence test results with other diagnostic tools (including informal and criterion-referenced measures), interviews, and systematic observations to ensure we obtain a holistic picture of the child and his/her environment. In addition, it is important to recognize that several important cognitive constructs are either poorly, indirectly, or not tapped by our most popular tests. For instance, psychologists are often asked to provide information on a child's learning ability and memory, yet few practitioners administer standardized (or informal) measures of learning and memory. They base their interpretations on the child's subtest performance or the global IQ score. We think it is questionable to conclude that a child is or isn't intelligent, or does or does not have a disability, on the basis of such a limited sample of behavior or single score. The view that intelligence is complex and multifactorial has predominated in recent times (Daniel, 1997), suggesting the single global IQ derived from an intelligence test does not reflect intellectual functioning for all children.

In Sternberg's (1985) Triarchic Theory of Intelligence, metacomponential thought is a critical component of intelligent behavior. In neuropsychological terminology, Sternberg's construct is most likely related to executive functions.

Executive functions can be thought of as brain "manager" or "boss" skills. Like a boss on the job, the brain manager doesn't do the work per se, but makes sure the workers (other brain areas) do their work effectively. The frontal lobes are intimately involved in the executive functions of planning, strategizing, organizing, sequencing, monitoring, shifting, evaluating, and changing behavior. This is the "executive" brain area. Why is this important for us to know? Several psychological disorders are related to brain manager (dys)functions, including Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD). A growing body of evidence has revealed that the frontal lobes of children with ADHD are hypoactive (due to low dopamine availability), and this is why Ritalin (a dopamine agonist) positively influences the learning and behavior of children with ADHD (see Hale, Hoepfner, DeWitt, Coury, & Trommer, 1998). Without an assessment of executive functions, we have limited our understanding of the children we serve, especially children with ADHD. Until recently, most intelligence tests only tapped executive functions indirectly, but several neuropsychological tests do it quite well, and some take less than five minutes to administer! There is movement toward using executive function measures in intellectual test batteries, as evidenced by the Planning and Attention measures included in the Cognitive Assessment System (CAS; Das, Naglieri, & Kirby, 1994).

Although the multiple intelligence theories are typically not grounded in neuropsychological science, there is convergence among Sternberg's theory and our understanding of brain-behavior relationships, which is very exciting. Two additional theories that include a wide variety of cognitive functions are the Horn and Cattell (1967) Gf-Gc Theory, and Carroll's (1993) Three Stratum Theory. Recently, these two theories have been integrated into the Cattell-Horn-Carroll (CHC) Theory. As we will discuss later, the Cattell-Horn-Carroll Comprehensive Gf-Gc model also appears to be consistent with current brain research. The new Woodcock-Johnson III Tests of Cognitive Abilities (WJ III COG; Woodcock, McGrew, & Mather, 2001) includes measures and interpretive guides based in both CHC Theory and Woodcock's Information Processing Theory (Woodcock, et al., 2001). While these findings are promising, we believe multiple intelligences theories have produced few standardized measures and validated applications to date. In addition, the "intelligences" are sometimes treated as orthogonal, separate, and distinct. However, intelligence test measures are necessarily interrelated, the "positive mani-

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fold" effect used to support the notion of *g* or general intelligence (Kranzler, 1997). Likewise, the learning styles assessment tools often categorize children as certain types of learners (e.g., "auditory," "kinesthetic"). However, unless a child is severely sensory or motor impaired, she will learn through all modalities, and one must examine the interrelationship among these learner characteristics. Recognizing child strengths and needs from a neuropsychological perspective is helpful for pinpointing learning problems and developing specific interventions (Groth-Marnat, Gallagher, Hale, & Kaplan, 2000), but we need to recognize how it all fits together, so we obtain the proverbial "big picture." Similar to Guilford's (1967) multiple intelligences model and Kaufman's (1994) intelligent testing approach, we need to examine the input, processing, and output demands of our measures, a process we call Demands Analysis. Demands Analysis is relatively straightforward for the Input Demands (stimulus) and Output Demands (response), but it is more difficult for the Processing Demands, as this requires inference and clinical acumen. This is, of course, the proverbial "black box" that has caused so much controversy in psychological assessment. Demands Analysis allows a practitioner to determine how one intelligence construct is related to another to gain a more holistic understanding of the child, and how the purported constructs affect her daily life, thereby ensuring ecological validity.

What About Racial and Cultural Bias?

There is a strong belief of many practitioners that intelligence tests are racially and culturally biased (Scheuneman, 1987), suggesting that no one intellectual assessment tool can be used for our diverse population (Greenfield, 1997). Early intelligence tests were often normed on middle class Caucasians in a particular geographic region. This simply isn't done any more, and most current tests systematically ensure they are not biased. However, bias is different than fairness. Bias is a statistical concept, and it refers to the extent to which validity coefficients are the same for different populations. The results of these analyses reveal that intelligence tests predict various outcomes just as well for most any racial or ethnic group. This finding has been used to argue that certain minority groups, especially African-American and Latino groups, are less intelligent than European-American groups (Herrnstein & Murray, 1994). Proponents of this position will argue that an unbiased test, one that holds up statistically across groups, reveals that

racial or ethnic group IQ differences are the result of inherent intelligence differences between groups. This is where the error in reasoning takes place. Yes, certain minority groups score consistently lower on intelligence tests than European-Americans, but the cause, in our opinion, has to do with the concept of fairness. Most intelligence tests measure crystallized abilities, those abilities acquired through formal and informal experiences and education. By definition, these abilities are inseparable from prior learning or achievement, so they cannot be true measures of innate ability. Those who have enriched backgrounds and educational experiences typically score better on crystallized measures than those who come from impoverished or varied backgrounds. Does this mean the former children are smarter? We think not.

Those who use group differences to draw conclusions about racial group intelligence tend to ignore within-group variability and often collapse different abilities into a global IQ score for subsequent group comparisons (Suzuki & Valencia, 1997). For instance, we typically use language to measure crystallized abilities, so anyone whose primary language is not English, or those who use colloquial or nonstandard forms of English, will be less likely to do well on crystallized tasks or any other tasks requiring verbal facility. Intelligence test scores are intimately related to academic achievement in a reciprocal fashion (Ceci & Williams, 1997). If one has a good education and enriched environments, one will probably score better on intelligence tests. If, however, one has limited experience and education, one will not score as well. For these reasons, intelligence tests can be unfair for children of color or cultural difference, but the unfairness is not statistical, it's the result of the clinician's error in interpreting a low crystallized score as being the result of low intelligence. Ever since Binet and Simon developed the first "true" intelligence test, our intelligence tests have been unfair to some groups, individual people of cultural or linguistic difference from the overall normative population.

Removing crystallized measures would reduce this probability. This has been advocated by some test developers (e.g., Kaufman & Kaufman, 1993; Das, et al., 1994). However, neuropsychological research suggests our left hemisphere specializes in verbal and crystallized abilities (Groth-Marnat, et al., 2000; Hale, Fiorello, Kavanagh, Hoepfner, & Gaither, 2001; Rourke, 1994), and eliminating measurement of these abilities would leave out crucial brain functions. We recommend the use of crystallized mea-

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asures with careful interpretation. When low scores are obtained we attempt to determine whether the score is related to an auditory-verbal learning disorder or limited experience and education. To accomplish this, we typically administer measures of new verbal learning and memory (e.g., Children's Memory Scales, Test of Memory and Learning, Wide Range Assessment of Memory and Learning). If the child can encode, store, and retrieve new verbal information as well as her peers, then we might conclude that the deficit is more related to limited prior experience and education. Critical in this determination is an examination of the child's current home and classroom environment. If Spanish is the primary language at home, the child may still have difficulty with new verbal learning and memory. In addition, thorough developmental histories, acquired from parents, teachers, and archival record review, can help determine whether the child has a learning disability or limited experience and educational opportunity.

Is Standardized Testing Appropriate Service Delivery?

Based on the "medical model" belief that children have problems that can be diagnosed and treated, our roles have been overly focused on formal psychoeducational assessments and report writing (Sheridan & Gutkin, 2000). The purported goal of the psychological evaluation is to provide the interdisciplinary team with information that will help determine special education eligibility and placement, and to help develop recommendations for intervention. Our experience suggests that psychologists spend too much time testing, and the team meeting emphasis is on eligibility and placement, not intervention. In addition, as our caseloads are typically high, we seldom do the thorough assessments we've been trained to do. So why do we spend so much time testing? We could conclude that there are just too many children with special needs and too few of us to serve them. This assumption is probably true, but it is not that simple. While we could advocate hiring many more psychologists in our districts (a worthy endeavor), it may be helpful to explore alternative models of service delivery as well.

In our opinion, one of the biggest obstacles to effective psychological testing is the prereferral and referral practices in many schools. Even though prereferral strategies were first mandated by P.L. 94-142, and then by IDEA, many psychologists have little to do with a child until the referral for formal evaluation is put in our mailbox or hits our desk.

Then we have little time to gather critical information, because we are taxed by the large number of referrals. Thus, we have to base our diagnostic and treatment decisions on too little data, and then we hope our results are generalizable to the actual environment. Making these 'leaps of faith' (Reschly & Gresham, 1989), psychologists, unfortunately, are the team members most likely to get the "problem admiration" process rolling. We've been on teams where the problem is discussed over and over, yet little time is spent on discussing the implications of the findings, or the interventions that may alleviate the problem. After the meetings, the psychological report typically is placed in the child's administrative file, and then the teacher does whatever he thinks is best, typically what he does for the other children in the classroom. Even though we have had Individualized Education Plans and Programs for over 25 years, we still don't individualize educational programs well (Reynolds, 1988).

Our belief is one must intervene to assess. That is, one must develop an effective prereferral intervention program using a team approach, such as Intervention Assistance Teams (see Ross, 1995), and problem-solving consultation, to reduce the number of referrals for formal psychological evaluation. We think that a large majority of children can be helped using an indirect service delivery model, and team or psychological consultative approaches can effectively reduce the number of referrals for formal standardized evaluation. The use of a problem-solving model (see Allen & Graden, 1995) is best practice for many children with learning and behavior problems. No matter what the child's problem, the behavioral techniques touted by problem-solving advocates, namely operationalizing target behaviors, developing measurement systems, using differential reinforcement and extinction operant procedures, and evaluating interventions on an ongoing basis is best practice. However, for identifying problems and developing interventions, a strict behavioral orientation is not enough. We must adopt an eclectic orientation if we are to meet the needs of all children. Almost every psychological orientation has something to offer that will help us help children. We also need to learn more about teaching. If you didn't learn much about classroom instruction and management in your training program, buy one or more special education books on these topics and develop a critical understanding of education. Written for regular and special education teachers, there are numerous books about teaching children that are extremely helpful for consultative problem-solving purposes.

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In addition to instructional and behavioral consultation approaches, we believe it is important to emphasize individual differences. Every child is an "N of 1" case study. There are dozens of journals with hundreds of research articles, primarily in the neuropsychological or clinical psychology literature, that validate our impressions about the importance of individual differences. Brain imaging technologies, such as fMRI and PET scans, now allow us to clearly see what areas of the brain are active during different activities, resulting in a re-conceptualization of how the brain works. In addition, it is no longer just experimental literature, the clinical findings are real and being replicated. How often does one see these studies cited in the literature? We are always taken aback when we read an article that condemns exploration of learning disorder subtypes or idiographic test interpretation approaches, and there are no references to the neuropsychology literature. While some children will benefit from a purely behavioral and curriculum-based intervention approach, others will not. Some children require a thorough psychological evaluation using standardized measures and other data sources, preferably using the Demands Analysis technique described above. Combined with a thorough understanding of learning disorder subtypes and psychopathology, and a complete evaluation of the ecological determinants of a child's behavior, a psychologist can provide team members with an accurate understanding of the child's strengths and needs. This is the beginning of a truly individualized education.

For children who have documented failure to respond to systematic prereferral interventions, we believe a thorough psychological evaluation should be used as part of a problem-solving approach. With the reduced caseload brought about by fewer referrals, a psychologist can do the kind of evaluation she has been trained to do and successfully determine if a child's attention problem is due to ADHD, depression, anxiety, thought disorder, contralateral neglect, oppositional defiant disorder, or some comorbid combination. One of the authors of this article (Hale) recently saw two children diagnosed with ADHD who had been treated unsuccessfully with Ritalin (one for several years). Our evaluation, which included measures of attention, memory, and executive function (see Hale, et al., 1998), revealed these children did not have the type of ADHD that benefits from stimulant treatment (presumed frontal lobe dysfunction), but rather neglect of themselves and their environment (presumed right parietal lobe dysfunction). Although they both met behavioral cri-

teria for ADHD, the interventions attempted are much different for a child with presumed frontal versus right parietal lobe impairment. Self-monitoring strategies probably would not work well for the former (unless treated with stimulants), but would be a good strategy for the latter. The point is, if we have good prereferral programs, we can do thorough evaluations to understand a child's unique strengths and needs. Not only can we do thorough evaluations, but we can have the time to do systematic classroom observations, functional analyses, and teacher/parent interviews to ensure our results have ecological validity.

Do Intelligence Tests Measure Intelligence?

Intelligence tests are some of the most technically sophisticated instruments we have in psychology (see Flanagan, Genshaft, & Harrison, 1997). They have undergone extensive standardization efforts. For most tests, great care has been taken to use representative samples of children, stratified by region, race, socioeconomic class, and gender. As a result, modern intelligence tests are reliable and valid for the purpose of measuring intellectual functioning, but not intelligence. Intelligence and ability are nebulous constructs, something one cannot directly measure or make inferences about. Even if one could make inferences about these constructs, experience and education would confound conclusions. One may think, "What about Spearman's g or general mental energy?" For some time people have used factor analysis to suggest that an underlying factor, g, represents intelligence, and the IQ is the best measure of g (Brody, 1997). Since psychometric g is stable across time (Carroll, 1997) and measures (Jensen, 1992), many have erroneously concluded that these constructs represent true intelligence. Most prefer a hierarchical view of intelligence, with g at the apex, and several abilities subsumed below (e.g., Neisser, et al., 1996). However, a single underlying factor can be found for just about any test. We don't call the single factor derived from a depression inventory factor analysis "intelligence." The point is we assume that an intelligence test measures intelligence, and then call the one factor solution for the test g, because this affirms our belief that we are measuring intelligence. As a result, the general population tends to equate IQ with intelligence.

Herrnstein and Murray (1994) made this set of assumptions in the analyses reported in their infamous book, *The Bell Curve*. For several of their analyses, they used the Armed Forces Qualification

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THE COMMENTARY SECTION

In our first issue of *The School Psychologist* (TSP; Volume 55, Number 1), we announced a new addition for the newsletter, **The Commentary Section**. This section will function similarly to that of the *American Psychologist* and will present members' thoughts and critiques of articles published in TSP or other journals, current events, or discussions sent on the various school psychology listservs. It is our hope that this new section will serve as a platform for thoughtful scholarly debate and discussion. Below are three critiques of TSP feature articles.

VOLUME 55, NUMBER 1 (WINTER, 2001):

"YES, VIRGINIA, THERE IS A SEVERE DISCREPANCY CLAUSE, BUT IS IT TOO MUCH ABOUT SOMETHING?"

BY RONALD DUMONT, JOHN WILLIS, AND GUY MCBRIDE.

LD Diagnosis: Pathology or Goodness of Fit?

By Dennis R. Valone

The recent severe discrepancy article (Dumont, Willis, & McBride, 2001) in the Winter Issue of *The School Psychologist* shed some important light on an important diagnostic problem in the practice of psychology in the schools (i.e., the clinical and legal diagnosis of learning disabilities [LD]). However, even though the diagnosis of LD is legally, and to some degree, professionally, regulated by a discrepancy model, we should not become excessively obligated to this model for it can cause us to have tunnel vision in our diagnostic judgment. The origin of LD and a transactional model for understanding human development can help place the LD diagnosis into a broader human development perspective.

History of LD

Cruikshank (1980) provided a brief but frank overview of the origin and evolution of the term "learning disability." In the 1930's researchers in Germany studied neurologically based learning difficulties in children whom they called exogenously mentally retarded. In the 1960's in the United States, similar learning difficulties in intellectually normal children were studied by Cruikshank and others (e.g., Kirk and Clements). At that time there were some 40 terms used to describe this population of children (e.g., brain-injured, minimal cerebral dysfunction). One of the investigators, Sam Kirk, summarized some of the work being done with this population of children for a conglomeration of parent groups who were meeting in Chicago in 1963. In his address Kirk described certain children (those with and without mental retardation) who had neurologically based learning disabilities. The next day some of these parents consolidated into one group and called themselves the Association for Children with

Learning Disabilities (ACLD). The ACLD subsequently excluded from their organization children with mental retardation.

The parent group processing of Kirk's research information mutated the original meaning of LD from a description of learning characteristics to a handicapping condition and diagnostic entity. Professionals subsequently extended this changed meaning into the clinical community. Today, we psychologists tend to regard LD as a well-accepted and legitimate part of our clinical nosology.

Cruikshank lamented the distortion of the original meaning of learning disabilities. He was particularly angered by the professional practice of restricting LD "diagnoses" to children above certain IQ levels. Many others have found the diagnosis of learning disability to be of little utility. For example, Cronbach (1990) said "Learning disability remains a political-bureaucratic concept having no scientific meaning" (p. 350).

Transactional Model of Human Development

Major authors in the field of human development (e.g., Bell, 1968; Bronfenbrenner, 1977; Sameroff, 1983) have described how human developmental functioning is the result of complex transactions between the individual and his or her environment. Transaction means that both the individual and the environment have proactive as well as reactive influences on one another.

The transactional approach to understanding human developmental functioning has been applied in studies of parent-child relationships and psychosocial adjustment (Thomas & Chess, 1977, 1984), student-school relationships and student achieve-

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LD Diagnosis: Pathology or Goodness of Fit?

ment and adjustment (Keogh, 1989; Lerner & Lerner, 1983), and genetic-environment relationships (Bourchard, Lykken, Mogue, Segal, & Tellegen, 1990; Plomin, 1989). Martin (1989), Pullis (1989), and Keogh (1986) found important relationships between child temperament and educational achievement when they applied this transactional model in studies of children who were diagnosed as learning disabled. These authors recommended viewing mild LD problems as a function of individual differences in child temperament interacting with different degrees of teacher and curricular demands and expectations.

Common among these studies has been the notion of "goodness of fit" between the environment and the individual. A good fit means that the environment (e.g., parents, teacher, therapists) makes reasonable accommodations for the individual, based upon an accurate appreciation of that individual's particular profile of abilities, temperament, and interests. A bad fit occurs when an individual is not reasonably accommodated because of a high degree of homogeneity in the individual's environment (e.g., rigid curricula insensitive to individual differences in learning abilities and styles, parenting strategies insensitive to individual differences in child temperament). These homogeneous environments are formed and perpetuated by unrealistic expectations (e.g., everyone can be average or above average, children do not differ in their temperamental dispositions, etc.).

This transactional theory of human development and the notion of goodness of fit can help psychologists who are faced with the prospect of diagnosing children as learning disabled. In addition to qualities in the child, the psychologist should also evaluate the child's school environment by asking strategic questions (e.g., how accommodating is the teacher, the curriculum, and are teacher expectations realistic based upon an accurate appreciation of the child's abilities and temperament?). If there is a poor fit between the school environment and the child, the psychologist should contemplate if it is reasonable to expect that environment to become more accommodating with a greater understanding of the child's particular developmental profile. The psychologist can help the environment obtain this greater appreciation of the child through consulting with school staff (e.g., sharing knowledge of human development and case understanding in a manner that would help school staff develop realistic expectations and accommodations based upon the developmental portraits of individual children).

Although the focus in consultation for good-

ness of fit is to help the school environment accommodate a maximum degree of individual differences, it may be unreasonable to expect the regular school environment to accommodate children with severe learning difficulties. However, this assumption is being seriously challenged by judicial decisions, the inclusion movement, and the Americans with Disabilities Act. That some regular education environments have successfully accommodated children with severe learning problems, while other environments have not accommodated even those children with mild problems highlights the importance of evaluating the child's environment in any endeavor that seeks an understanding of a child's learning difficulties.

Pre-referral efforts are designed to have regular education accommodate increasingly more variance in individual learner characteristics. The multidisciplinary team (MDT) could also be seen as a process for helping regular education be more accommodating (e.g., through helping regular education accommodate children who are evaluated but not diagnosed or by helping school staff provide 100% regular education IEPs). By consulting with pre-referral teams and MDTs and by moving beyond the test-diagnose paradigm of clinical practice, psychologists are in a good position to help improve the goodness of fit between particular children and their school environments. Equipped with a good understanding of human development, the most reliable and valid instruments for measuring individual learner characteristics, and the transactional theory described here, psychologists can provide a major consultative service by directing some of their efforts toward the evaluation and modification of children's environments. To focus only, or even primarily, on intra-individual factors like ability-achievement discrepancies is an inappropriate application of the medical, pathological model. In addition, looking primarily inside the child for explanations of educational dysfunction has been associated with an excessive number of children being diagnosed as LD (e.g., Weiner, 1985). Although the measurement of ability and achievement is essential because children's constitutional factors do have proactive influences on their environments, the application of the information we glean should not end inside the individual (i.e., with an LD or DSM diagnosis). Through our consultative work, we should apply the insights we develop in our child study and diagnostic evaluations to help increase the goodness of fit between the child and his or her environment. When we conclude that the school environment can not accom-

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2001 APA Convention Program

Division 16 School Psychology

August 24-28, 2001 San Francisco, CA

Division 16 President: Jack A. Cummings

Convention Co-Chairs: Tanya L. Eckert and John M. Hintze

Tom Oakland



**Bill Erchul, Tanya Eckert,
& Melissa Bray**



**Rosemary Flanagan, Irwin Hyman,
& Bill Erchul**



CDSPP Dinner



Steve Little & Joe Witt



Jack Cummings and SASP

Division 16 Poster W inners



Ron Palomares & Nadyne Schneider



Psychological Corporation Staff



Richard Woodcock, Kevin McGrew, & Fred Schrank



Tom Fagan & Sue Gorin



American Guidance Service Staff



**Tom Fagan,
Angeleque Akin-Little,
& Tanya Eckert**



**Jack Naglieri &
Terry Gutkin**



**Riverside
Publishing Staff
& R. Steve
McCallum**



Women in School Psychology: At work in San Francisco

**By Stacy Overstreet
Tulane University**

It was a busy weekend in San Francisco for the Division 16 Committee on Women in School Psychology (CWSP). The CWSP was established in 1999 with two primary goals: to develop a mentoring program to provide support, knowledge, and encouragement to young women starting their careers in academia and to establish a network for women to discuss issues related to their professional development and growth. Activities at this year's APA convention centered around advancing those two goals.

The co-chairs of the CWSP, Anne Teeter Ellison and Karen Callan Stoiber, organized a symposium at the conference entitled, "Challenges and rewards of academic careers: Women in school psychology." The symposium provided a forum for women to hear about and discuss issues related to careers in academia. The symposium had a developmental twist, with presentations related to the student perspective (by Stacy Tobiasz, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee), insights from new faculty (by Dawn Reinemann, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee; Janine Saunders, Seattle Pacific University; and

Susan Swearer, University of Nebraska-Lincoln), a discussion of the promotion and tenure process (Stacy Overstreet, Tulane University), and issues related to research and scholarship (Margaret Semrud-Clikeman, University of Texas-Austin).

Other CWSP events at APA included a reception for Women in School Psychology honoring the contributions of Jane Close Conoley to the field of School Psychology. We all felt very fortunate to share in Jane's wisdom and insights. Following the reception, there was a meeting on the progress of the Mentoring Program being organized by CWSP. Based on responses to the survey sent out by the CWSP last year, several mentoring matches have been made. However, the CWSP is interested in expanding the program and will be planning strategies to increase involvement over the next year.

Thanks to all who have supported the development and growth of the CWSP! If you have any questions about the CWSP or would like to become more active in the Committee, please contact Anne Teeter Ellison at teeter@uwm.edu for more information.

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LD Diagnosis: Pathology or Goodness of Fit?

modate a particular child based upon our pre-referral or diagnostic (MDT) consultative efforts in understanding the child and her environment, then we are persuaded to move on to more intervention (e.g., we agree to conduct formal diagnostic evaluation or we make a diagnosis of LD so that an IEP can legally assure more environmental accommodation and specific intervention). Through this process, the psychologist's clinical judgment about a learning disability hinges on a particular child's developmental profile and needs in a particular learning environment.

An awareness of LD history and the transactional model of human development helps us realize that our diagnostic role with children should not end with the calculation of an ability-achievement discrepancy. Although important, this discrepancy is not really a diagnosis at all. It is only one child quality that is transacting with an environment that could or could not be more accommodating. Before a diagnosis is made, other important child qualities need to be measured, as does the child's educational environment. The discrepancy model is legally required in federal regulations. We are obligated to use it. However, even these regulations include a provision requiring an evaluation of the child's educational environment through a classroom observation to determine whether or not the child's educational difficulties are primarily the result of inappropriate instruction. Thus, we have regulatory as well as the theoretical and research grounds on which to proceed with our goodness of fit efforts.

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Volume 55, Number 1 (Winter, 2001):
"Yes, Virginia, there is a severe discrepancy clause, but is it too much ado about something?"
by Ronald Dumont, John Willis, and Guy McBride.

I am a school psychologist in Rhode Island. My school district has debated this issue lately. I spoke with one of the "higher ups" at our Department of Education and was told that we could either use the formula they have included in their regulations manual or not. Their formula does take into consideration regression to the mean and SEM bands. My dilemma is that although our district has always considered severe discrepancy as part of its identification process, our district uses two methods of assessing it. Some MDT's chop off 23 points (1 1/2 sd) from the Full Scale IQ and call it a day. Others of us use the state formula that, as mentioned earlier, takes into consideration several important statistical properties.

I feel that if both IDEA and the state indicate that a severe discrepancy must exist for there to be a learning disability, then we must have an objective and measurable way of determining it. If not, it's a guesstimate at best. The reality is that without a measurable component to the process there is room for more gray area in an already gray process.
 Donna Dyer

Volume 55, Number 3 (Summer, 2001):
"The post-doctoral re-specialization experience: Lessons from the field" by Tony D. Crespi and Jonathan P. Fieldman.

The article, "The Post-Doctoral Re-Specialization Experience: Lessons from the Field," in Volume 55 (3) of The School Psychologist, is a good summary of the differences between School Psychology and Clinical Psychology. I think a Clinical Psychologist who is seeking a School Psychologist position should complete a re-specialization degree before attempting practice.

I currently work as a school psychologist in the Western United States. I have seen how many Clinical Psy.D. trained individuals enter the schools and provide services in which they have no training. I do not understand how they receive certification without the appropriate degree, but somehow they slip through. They spend time unwisely by testing too much. They administer inappropriate personality tests (tests that should probably be used in a clinical setting and not in a school). Furthermore, they are unfamiliar with school policies, and special education materials, methods, and materials.

School Psychology is such a specialized, defined field, I do not believe it is appropriate to work as a school psychologist without proper training in that field. I applaud the individual in the article who took the time and made the commitment to return to school for a re-specialization before trying to provide direct school psychology services. I wish more individuals would take that time.

A Concerned School Psychologist

Please email all submissions for the Commentary Section to: LReddy2271@aol.com

REVIEW OF

Assessment for crisis intervention: A triage assessment model

By Jeffrey A. Miller
Duquesne University

Myer, R. A., (2001). *Assessment for crisis intervention: A triage assessment model*. Belmont, CA: Brooks/Cole Thomson Learning.

“some clients may need only support while others may need specific direction on how to begin coping”



There is increasing recognition that school psychologists play important roles in crisis intervention in schools (Poland & McCormick, 1999). These roles include developing school crisis plans; preparing staff to implement crisis plans; intervening with children, parents, staff, and the media at the time of a crisis; and helping cope with the aftermath. This situation suggests that continuing education and training of school psychologists should endeavor to increase school psychologists' competencies in crisis intervention. While work in the areas of crisis intervention and coping with the aftermath has increased, crisis assessment remains less well addressed. This latter issue is the focus of Rick A. Myer's book *Assessment for Crisis Intervention: A Triage Assessment Model*.

Assessment related to crisis could mean many things including determining the severity and nature of the client's response to the crisis, assessment of risk for further harm such as suicide triage, standardized assessment of confounding mental disorders, identifying intervention strategies, or determining the effectiveness of intervention. *Assessment for Crisis Intervention* is concerned with assessment for the purposes of understanding an individual's responses to crisis and identifying interventions that address these responses. These are innovative contributions to psychologist training because, to date, crisis intervention training typically has focused on intervention techniques. As Myer writes, "assessment is the most critical aspect of crisis intervention because it guides the intervention and tells you what you need to know to help your clients" (p. xiii).

In Myer's review of extant methods of crisis assessment, two striking weaknesses were noted. First, other methods were not easy to recall and apply under stressful conditions. Second, they were not adequate guides for selecting interventions. This latter issue is probably the most important contribu-

tion of Myer's crisis assessment model. The Triage Assessment Model, the foundation of *Assessment for Crisis Intervention*, remedies these two weaknesses by providing an intuitive, accessible assessment algorithm that leads to recommendations for intervention. With that said, it is important to note that *Assessment for Crisis Intervention* is focused primarily on teaching the assessment process.

The Triage Assessment Model is a systematic approach to assessing the complex interactions among affective, cognitive, and behavioral reactions of individuals faced with crisis. Each of the three reaction domains is rated on a severity scale resulting in information necessary for determining how directive interventions should be. This is an essential feature of the model because crisis intervention can be thought of as on a continuum from nondirective to directive. For example, some clients may need only support while others may need specific direction on how to begin coping. Use of the model is facilitated through the Triage Assessment Form provided in an appendix. The form has three sections (describe the crisis situation, evaluate the reaction domains, and compute the severity scale) and can be completed in about 15 minutes. The main portion of the book is dedicated to explaining proper assessment of the reaction domains and use of the Triage Assessment Form.

Assessment for Crisis Intervention is well designed for training settings. The book is clearly written and well-organized resulting in a brief presentation, only 157 pages, of extremely useful information. Each chapter concludes with a summary of "Points to Remember" and "Study Questions." The first chapter provides a thorough introduction to definitional and other issues of crisis assessment and intervention. Chapter 2 examines research on current crisis assessment approaches and introduces the Triage Assessment Model. Chapters 3, 4, and 5 address affective, cognitive, and behavioral reactions, respectively, and describe the assessment of each. Included are tables that provide characteristics

2001 Division 16 Dissertation Awards

Outstanding Dissertation

*Aleta Ann Gilbertson Schulte, Ph.D.,
University of Wisconsin-Madison
Chair Steve Elliot*

DISSERTATION TITLE:

Effects of testing accommodations on standardized mathematics test scores: An experimental analysis of performance of students with and without disabilities.

Honorable Mention

*Carrie Watkins-Emonet, Ph.D.,
Mississippi State University
Chair: Steuart Watson*

DISSERTATION TITLE:

Direct behavioral consultation: Direct skill training and skill generalization in Head Start classrooms.

*Mary R. Levinsobn, Ph.D.,
University of Maryland
Chair: Sylvia Rosenfield*

DISSERTATION TITLE:

Evaluating instructional consultation teams for student reading achievement and special education outcomes.

New Fellows of Division 16

Dr. Mary Henning-Stout

Dr. John Kranzler

Dr. Virginia Harvey

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REVIEW OF

Assessment for crisis intervention: A triage assessment model

of reactions to assess their severity. The final chapter ties together the process of assessment for crisis intervention, describes the use of the Triage Assessment Form, and provides case examples.

Assessment for Crisis Intervention by Rick A. Myer is useful for continuing education seminars on crisis intervention as well as for university classes on crisis intervention. The only drawback of the book for school psychologists is that it is not specifically focused on children. On the other hand, there are no books dedicated to crisis assessment of chil-

dren and the model appears quite applicable to children middle-school age and older. The primary contributions of this book to school psychology are an applied focus to crisis assessment, a pioneering approach to assessment for crisis intervention selection, the availability of the assessment form in the text, and a useable format for educational purposes.

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Recognizing Resistance: A Psychology Trainee Enters the Real World

By Jennifer A. Fay
Ferkauf Graduate School of Psychology
Yeshiva University



Introduction

The two most important systems in a child's life are the family and the school. These help to shape a child's emotional and cognitive growth. It is ironic that many times these two systems do not collaborate with one another. Rather, one often finds the family and the school systems at odds. A great deal of literature has pointed out that schools often do not encourage family participation (Silverstein, 1997; Weiss & Edwards, 1992). Yet, it is clear that family-school collaboration is critical for all families, especially for parents who are socially or economically disadvantaged (McCaleb, 1994). Raffaele and Knoff (1999) have pointed out that family-school collaboration efforts for these parents must be proactive rather than reactive, cognizant of cultural differences, and empowering of parents.

Why do parents and school staff find it difficult to collaborate with one another towards a common goal – a child's education? Blame is often the reason. When a child begins to have difficulty at school, anxiety increases in everyone including parents, teachers, and children. The natural reaction to increased anxiety is for each person to blame the other. Although this process is natural in all human systems, it is extremely unhelpful. As a result of my belief in the power of family-school collaboration, I initiated a family-school collaboration project designed to block blame between families and educators.

The Setting

During 2001, I was a psychoeducational therapist at a Psychoeducational Treatment Program for adolescents in an urban setting in the northeast. My responsibilities included conducting remediation, or psychoeducational treatment, with five young men. I saw each young man twice a week either individually or in a group session. Over the course of the year, I had minimal contact with their families. I felt uneasy about the lack of parental involvement in the program. The adolescents with whom I worked were all diagnosed with learning disabilities and experienced many psychosocial stressors in their lives.

There were, however, two mandatory times when I was required to make parent contact. The

first was at the end of the first semester when a feedback session with parents was conducted over the phone. The second was at the end of the year when parents were invited to the program for a feedback meeting. In this model, parents and psychoeducational therapists often met for the first time in June. This program did encourage psychoeducational therapists to include both the parent and the adolescent in the end of the year meeting. Including the adolescent seemed to me a wonderful, novel method of increasing the collaborative atmosphere among the adolescents, their families, and the psychoeducational therapists. However, given the abundance of literature pointing to the importance of intense parental involvement in education, I felt this model was problematic.

An Eye Opening Experience

Midway through the year, while scheduling my phone feedback sessions, my supervisor and I decided to invite one adolescent's family in for a face-to-face meeting. This decision was made because "John" was performing poorly and was having difficulty attending his sessions. In preparation for my meeting with both John and his caretaker, an adoptive brother, I read an article about the family-teacher conference (Weiss, 1995). In this article, Weiss spoke about the feelings of dread experienced by all parties involved in parent-teacher conferences. He proposed an alternative to these anxiety-producing conferences. Weiss described a meeting between teacher, parents, and children which drew upon a strength-based perspective. In these meetings, Weiss pointed out the importance of blocking any party from blaming another party. My agenda for the meeting with John and his brother was how we could utilize John's strengths to improve his poor attendance and motivation. Thus, I entered the meeting predicting a fairy tale atmosphere similar to the one in Weiss' article. I was very disappointed!

The meeting quickly turned into a "bashing" session. John's brother interpreted the meeting as an opportunity to complain about all the "bad" things that John did. John remained silent and sullen. He appeared to be angry and upset as he listened to all the things that were "wrong" with him. Although I

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Recognizing Resistance: A Psychology Trainee Enters the Real World

made attempts to draw the focus away from John's negative behavior and utilize more of a strength-based approach, I left the meeting realizing that what had just occurred was definitely not what Weiss had in mind!

Process

I told my supervisor how disappointed I was with the meeting with John and his brother. I talked about how unprepared I was for all the blaming that had occurred. I asked if we could initiate a project to provide more training in family-school collaboration.

After some discussion with the other trainees, we decided to have an in-service training session. Although I had hoped that we could organize a family-school curriculum night involving parents, teachers, and trainees, I realized that project would require a great deal of extra work. The in-service session, in contrast, could be inserted into an existing structure, the regularly scheduled group supervision meeting.

As we planned for the in-service session, I remembered that Raffaele and Knoff (1999) discussed the importance of including integral individuals who would be able to maintain the infrastructure in such a way that it would last over time. Thus, I felt it was crucial that the Director attend the in-service program.

The In-Service on Family-Clinic Conferences

The other psychoeducational trainees at the program, as well as the Director of the program attended the in-service. I began by sharing my experience with John and his adoptive brother. I talked about feeling depressed that it had not gone as I planned. I reviewed the research literature showing that parental involvement in a child's education increased academic achievement (Christenson, Rounds, & Gorney, 1992). I also discussed strategies to increase family collaboration (Weiss & Edwards, 1992).

I spent a great deal of time discussing two key concepts one should keep in mind when working with families: blocking blame and utilizing a strength-based perspective. Blame is frequently the reason why two systems experience difficulty collaborating with one another. As soon as a consultant recognizes that one individual is making a blaming statement, the consultant must interrupt and stop the blaming. Making an empathic statement to the

person who is doing the blaming, and then shifting to a different perspective which draws upon strength rather than weakness, can usually accomplish this. However, a single interruption is rarely enough to stop the blaming process. One may need to make numerous empathic statements and redirections before a decrease in blaming occurs.

I illustrated the concept of blocking blame by describing the meeting with John and his brother. I shared the following statement with the trainees as an example of how I could have attempted to block John's brother from blaming John in the meeting, "I'm so glad that you brought up your views on John's difficulty getting his homework done. I understand that it is frustrating to you. I would like to take this time to share with you some things that I have noticed about John. Maybe you can use these impressions of John to help him do his homework more regularly." By first validating his brother's frustration, then sharing some of John's strengths with his brother, the meeting might have begun to shift from a negative to a positive atmosphere.

This speaks to the second important concept involved in family-school collaboration, utilizing a strength-based perspective. When families hear about how wonderful their children are, they are more likely to be motivated to participate actively in the meeting. In the best of all possible worlds, the meeting should begin with the student's strengths rather than "problems."

The next component of the in-service was to identify specific strategies for creating a collaborative atmosphere between the families and the psychoeducational therapists. Drawing upon the work of Weiss and Edwards (1992), I spoke about how to prepare for and initiate a collaboration effort. It is important to discuss with the adolescent the process of the meeting beforehand and invite the adolescent to plan the atmosphere of the meeting (i.e., food, beverages, music, etc.). By doing so, one gives the adolescent some power and allows him/her to place a personal touch on the meeting. This active involvement frequently results in an increased comfort level on their part. Asking the adolescents to create the invitation for the meeting, and having them choose samples of their work to display also allow the children to feel more a part of the process. It is also very important for all members of the family to be invited. One must not assume that only one parent (usually the mother) is solely responsible for, or interested in, the adolescent's education. Often,

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School Psychology in the Land of the Olympic Games 2004: Greece

By **Anastassios Matsopoulos**
Fairleigh Dickinson University

Greece is a Mediterranean country at the tip of the Balkan Peninsula and has been a member of the European Communion since 1981. Emphasis on education is high both by the government and by the family. For example, the government offers free public education from kindergarten all the way to graduate school. Although psychology has been recognized in the last few decades, more ground still needs to be broken. School psychology in specific is a field which is in its infancy and is now starting to crawl. In this next section, I will highlight a number of driving forces that have influenced the development and growth of school psychology in modern Greece. At the end of the article some challenges and associated opportunities for school psychologists in Greece will be underscored.

Special Education and School Psychology: Their Developmental Paths

School psychology is a new specialty in Greece and its development has been directly connected with special education legislation in the last 15 years (Matsopoulos, 1991, 1998). The first legislative recognition for the field of school psychology came in 1985 with the Special Education Law 1566/85 in which schools and services for children with special needs were established and organized. In that legislation, 50 school psychologists were to be hired to work in special education schools to provide assessment and consultation services to teachers. In other words, the recognition of school psychologists was directly related to special education and the provision of services to children with special education needs. The 1985 Special Education Law has significantly increased the recognition of school psychology and can be compared to PL 94-142, which put school psychology on the map in the United States.

The second and by far more decisive recognition of psychology and especially school psychology came in 2000, when the government passed the 2817/2000 law. This law revisits the education of individuals with special needs. The innovation of this special education law is the establishment of Centers for Assessment, Evaluation, and Support. These centers are places in each and every state of Greece (52 in total) to which referrals can be made

for an assessment, consultation, or psychological support for any number of children with special needs. In order for those centers to function properly, this law called for the employment of 149 psychologists (preferably school psychologists) among other professionals such as speech therapists, physical and occupational therapists, special educators, social workers, and child psychiatrists. These centers are still in the initial organizational stage and in the process of hiring all necessary professionals in order to function properly. Therefore, there is some speculation as to how exactly school psychologists will function within this framework and what their role will be in delivering psychological services to children, families, and the school community.

Another significant force in the recognition of the field of school psychology is the establishment of the Greek Association of School Psychologists (GASP) in 1999. GASP's philosophy is based on a practitioner-scientist model of psychology and its members are school psychologists with graduate degrees in school psychology and a minimum of two years of practice in the schools. GASP is aligned philosophically with the International Association of School Psychologists (ISPA), and recognized by ISPA as an affiliate member. It maintains a code of ethics, and since its inception it has been advocating for employment of school psychologists in regular public schools and more psychological services in all public preschools and schools.

Challenges and Opportunities for School Psychology in Greece

Despite these advances in psychology and especially school psychology in the last decade, the field still faces a number of challenges. One issue is related to the training of new school psychologists who need to be well-rounded in all areas of child development, behavioral interventions, consultation, and assessment. They also need to have adequate practical training (internship) with a pre-specified number of hours under the supervision of certified school psychologists. The universities need to play an active role in making this a reality for the new field of school psychology.

Another challenge which is generic to psychol-

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ogy and definitely affects school psychology is the acceptance of psychology as a science by the general public and the Greek society overall. Psychology is perceived as a science of the West and lots of people still associate a stigma to those receiving services from psychologists. This mentality has been changing lately as the Greek society has moved closer to a western-type society with its advantages and problems.

In addition, uniform standards of professional practice need to be established and legislature needs to be in place to support such standards. One of the main purposes of GASP is to promote a common professional identity for all psychologists working in the schools. School psychologists' roles need to be expanded outside the realm of special education to allow professionals the ability to provide comprehensive psychological services to all students including those in regular education. This is one of the challenges that school psychologists face around the globe since special education can absorb the biggest chunk of time for professionals, especially in schools where the referrals are increasingly high and no pre-referral interventions are encouraged by the school structure.

Another challenge specific to school psychology is the fact that oftentimes psychologists with specialization in developmental, clinical, and other specialties are employed as school psychologists. This results in little agreement among practicing psychologists in schools with regard to practices and model of services. This may contribute to a lack of uniformity among professionals. The fact that the majority of Greek psychologists are trained abroad and in a variety of countries becomes a strength and a challenge. GASP is working to address this challenge by the establishment of minimum criteria that all registered school psychologists need to fulfill in order to be recognized as members no matter where they complete their studies, domestically or internationally.

An additional challenge is the resistance the school psychologists experience from the teachers, perhaps due to misconceptions about the school psychologist's role. (Panagiotou, 1979). However, this may be changing since this psychologist has personal experiences from visits to public schools in which teachers and administrators have been very open to school psychological services. The educational system needs to support school psychological

services and provide resources for school psychologists to function in schools to address all sorts of problems.

Finally, the Greek educational system has traditionally focused on remediation of severe problems, such as mental retardation and physical handicaps, rather than prevention of educational and psychological difficulties. The roles of school psychologists become limited because "serious" (involved) cases have been assigned to the psychiatrists and "milder" cases or preventative action go unnoticed (Nicolopoulou, 1986). This philosophy has been and continues to be a problem for the profession and needs to be dealt with through advocacy and education.

Future of School Psychology In Greece

According to this psychologist, one promising development in psychology and for school psychology is the accreditation and recognition of psychology as a separate profession by the governmental agencies which have provided guidelines for getting licensure and certification as a psychologist. These licensure guidelines were not in place 15 years ago (Nicolopoulou, 1986).

Even though school psychology in Greece has a long way to go, certain achievements for the development of the new field are a reality. For example, the establishment of a professional school psychological association in 1999, some rudimentary licensure and certification procedures are in place, and a campaign to inform the general public, teachers, parents and administrators about the role and the services of school psychologists has been gaining momentum.

One of the more existential and important challenges for school psychology in Greece is to define its identity and to work towards fulfilling this identity to better serve the educational community and their families. Furthermore, attention needs to be paid to legislature on special education and the development of new Centers for Assessment, Evaluation, and Support that will further shape the role and identity of school psychologists into regular and special education.

Despite the fact that school psychology faces a number of challenges as a new field in professional psychology, this is an exciting time for the field in Greece. It is also a time of opportunity for well-trained school psychologists to have an impact in

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the Greek public education system for the first time ever. This is a historic time for Greek school psychology because the profession is new and the role of the school psychologist is yet to be defined by the professionals to all decision makers and to the general public. Even though school psychology is in its infancy, it has no limits in terms of its contribution to the welfare of children, families, and the whole school system; a contribution that is so much needed in Greece and in the Greek educational system.

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Recognizing Resistance: A Psychology Trainee Enters the Real World

fathers are involved with children, even when they are not living in the home. Other extended family members may also be important to the child.

Feedback and Resistance

At the conclusion of my presentation, I asked the trainees and the Director for some feedback about my ideas. The Director and the other students appeared to be receptive to the ideas involving increased collaboration between the adolescents, their families, and the staff. I did encounter some resistance when one of the trainees brought up the question of how much can one include families when dealing with adolescents. This student felt that due to the child's age, the treatment needed to be more individually-based. This was my first glimpse into resistance regarding collaboration with families. Most of the therapists were trained in an individual child therapy paradigm. Thus, working collaboratively with an adolescent's family violated many of the assumptions of their training. The trainees did appreciate the ideas regarding how to prepare for the feedback meetings and all reported that they were going to have each adolescent create an invitation for his/her family.

The Director seemed very receptive to increasing collaboration within the program and at one point stated, "After listening to you talk and thinking about your ideas, it bothers me that our parents are not more involved." Given this statement, I felt very excited that perhaps my project would spark a growing interest. In a naive way, I visualized a complete overhaul of the current program to incorporate a more active family component.

A few weeks later during supervision, my supervisor and I were discussing the upcoming end-of-year feedback meeting with families. My supervisor alluded to the in-service program saying, "If you want the

kids to make invitations, I think that is fine." After hearing that statement, I felt very bad. After all the work and effort I had put into the in-service program, the only component that appeared to "stick" was the invitations! What about empowering families? What about blocking blame? What about a strength-based perspective?

This project has opened my eyes to the slow pace of systemic change. Initially, everyone in the system seemed very receptive to the idea of increasing family participation. However, as time passed, the system adjusted itself and reasons were generated as to why a more active family component would not work. I have reminded myself that having the adolescents issue the invitations is a way of empowering them. It does represent an increase in family collaboration. I am optimistic that the in-service program sparked some interest in the other trainees and the Director regarding the empowerment of families and the need to increase family-clinic collaboration.

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Test (AFQT) from the Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery (ASVAB). They justify using the AFQT/ASVAB by providing evidence that these measures correlate with other intelligence tests, and, like the other tests, they produce a one-factor solution assumed to be g. But further examination of *The Bell Curve* appendix reveals that the ASVAB subtests have names such as General Science, Paragraph Comprehension, and Numerical Operations, which make it sound like an achievement test. As would be expected, the ASVAB largely measures crystallized abilities, which makes it primarily a test of achievement (Roberts, et al., 2000). One could argue that the relationship between the ASVAB and other intelligence tests confirms that intelligence tests are, at least in part, achievement tests. Those with enriched environments and better educational opportunity not only achieve economic and social benefits, they are likely to have increased intelligence test scores as well, and this relationship is bi-directional (Ceci & Williams, 1997). In fact, most of the best measures of g on the WISC-III (except Block Design) are verbal-crystallized subtests (Kaufman, 1994), so couldn't we claim that g is really achievement? Put in perspective, the Herrnstein and Murray findings, namely that the races differ on measures of achievement, are much more palatable and understandable than if they differ in intelligence.

Should We Interpret Levels of Performance or Patterns of Performance?

While some have advocated that psychologists completely abandon intelligence testing, others have suggested that only the global IQ is worth exploring (McDermott & Glutting, 1997), and subtest or factor interpretation should be avoided (Macmann & Barnett, 1997). We agree that intelligence testing is only needed in some cases, since most children can be helped using a problem-solving consultation model (Allen & Graden, 1995). We also agree that subtest or factor interpretation is extremely difficult and should be undertaken only if necessary. We also think practitioners should use approaches that have empirical support, because these measures are factorially complex (McGrew & Flanagan, 1998) and the derived scores are generally less reliable than global scores (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997). Subtest profile or pattern analysis can be problematic, especially when clinicians use a "cookbook" approach. However, for some children, psychologists must analyze the pattern of performance because global IQ is rendered invalid by significant subtest or factor variability (Hale, Fiorello, McGrath, & Ryan, 2001). When sig-

nificant scatter is evident, we believe the global IQ should never be interpreted. If the WISC-III Verbal Scale Standard Score (SS) is 119, and the Performance Scale SS is 80, how can we say the child's overall intelligence is average? Isn't this similar to a bimodal distribution of ability that we collapse into a single summary score of 100? If we put one hand in ice water and the other in boiling water, can we conclude that everything, on average, is fine? We think not. In these cases, we have to interpret the child's pattern of performance, because the level of performance is not valid.

While many clinicians recognize the limitations of interpreting nomothetic IQ, several have claimed that global IQ scores are the only reliable and valid measures of intellectual functioning, and have used dubious statistical methods to support their claims. Using the Glutting et al. (1997) WISC-III paper as an example, this academic group typically covaries the Full Scale IQ (FSIQ) or enters other global scores first into regression equations, and then determines whether factor scores or subtest analysis adds additional information beyond that obtained from the global IQ. These papers have been accepted in a wide range of journals, and they typically say the same thing. That is, global IQ is the only score worth interpreting, and subtests or factor examination provides little additional or useful information for practitioners. Typically, these authors take the variance from FSIQ statistically out of the picture, and then they look at the remaining variance from the subtests/factors. What is wrong with this picture? The variance for FSIQ is virtually the same as the subtest/factor variance, since these variables are collinear - they are made of the same thing! In fact, 10 of the 12 WISC-III subtests used to compute factor scores are used to compute the FSIQ. If one enters FSIQ first, and then looks at factors, then there is obviously little factor variance remaining. However, as demonstrated in Table 1, if one does the opposite, enters the factors first, and then looks at FSIQ, the converse happens, and FSIQ becomes irrelevant (Hale, et al., 2001). It is interesting to note that Glutting et al. (1997) enter the FSIQ, then four factors, then FSIQ and each factor individually. This comparison confirms that hierarchical regression is inappropriate for these data, and negates the Glutting et al. (1997) and other similar findings by this academic group. If their position is to support global IQ interpretation, and stop subtest or factor interpretation, this statistical trick is not the means to do it.

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Beyond the Academic Rhetoric of 'g': Intelligence Testing Guidelines for Practitioners**Table 1****Comparing Entry Order in Hierarchical Regression of Reading**

Regression Step	Percent Increment	Regression Step	Percent Increment
Glutting Referred Sample^a		Hale Learning Disability Sample^b	
Step 1		Step 1	
Enter FSIQ	36.0****	Enter Four Factors	26.2***
Step 2		Step 2	
Enter Four Factors	8.8****	Enter FSIQ	0.0
Enter FSIQ	0.0		
Enter VC	2.0****		
Enter PO	0.0		
Enter FD	4.4****		
Enter PS	0.0		

Note. FSIQ = Full Scale IQ; VC = Verbal Comprehension; PO = Perceptual Organization; FD = Freedom from Distractibility; PS = Processing Speed.
****p < .00005; ***p < .001 (sample differences related to sample size).

^a Adapted from Glutting et al. (1997).

^b Adapted from Hale et al. (2001).

The question remains whether global IQ is the best measure of intellectual functioning for all children? We addressed this using commonality analysis (Pedhazur, 1997), which looks at unique and shared predictor variance similar to main and interaction effects in ANOVA (Hale, et al., 2001). We examined the WISC-III factors (Verbal Comprehension, Perceptual Organization, Freedom from Distractibility-Working Memory, Processing Speed) as predictors of FSIQ. If FSIQ were made up of mostly shared factor variance, then a global IQ or g interpretation would make sense. However, if FSIQ was made of mostly unique factor variance, then we must interpret the unique components separately. Our results found convincing evidence for the latter position. We found that the WISC-III FSIQ was composed mostly of unique (72%), not shared (23%), factor variance for children with learning disabilities (LD). This provides convincing evidence that intellectual functioning is made up of at least four unique aspects (the factors) for our LD population, not one global score. We were amazed at how little variance was accounted for by the common elements, so we sought to replicate the findings using the WISC-III/WIAT standardization data from the Psychological Corporation (see Table 2; Hale, et al., 2001). Not only did the original finding hold true for a new sample of children with learning disabilities, and those with ADHD, but also typical children with variable test profiles (n = 707), *approximately 4/5 of the standardization sample!* As can be seen, factor and subtest variability are commonplace in both typ-

ical and atypical populations, and this fact has been used to argue against profile interpretation (Glutting, McDermott, Watkins, Kush, & Konold, 1997). However, our results clearly demonstrate that the FSIQ is invalid for even typical children with variable profiles, with commonality results similar to those with disabilities. The results suggest that FSIQ is valid for only children with flat profiles (n = 166), because common variance was more important than unique variance in predicting FSIQ scores for this subsample. We encourage other researchers to confirm our results with other populations and measures, but are convinced these results will be generalizable.

As a result of these convincing findings, we encourage practitioners to *never interpret the global IQ score if there is significant scatter or score variability*. Considering that most children referred for testing will display variable test profiles, our research suggests that we should rarely interpret a global IQ in daily practice. One may ask, what about ability-achievement discrepancies? We concur with many in the field who argue against discrepancy use for learning disability determination (e.g., Berninger & Abbott, 1994). However, if an ability-achievement discrepancy must be used, our results suggest that the FSIQ should not be used for a measure of "ability" for children with variable test profiles. We also need to avoid the "Mark Penalty" by using an appropriate factor or subtest cluster score instead of FSIQ (see Dumont, Willis, & McBride, 2000 for lucid discussion). For the reasons stated above, we advise practitioners to rethink their practice of reporting IQ scores in reports. If necessary, practitioners could report Standard Scores instead of IQ, score ranges based on confidence intervals, and/or range descriptors instead. The focus of the report should be on the child's strengths and needs, not her overall ability. Our results suggest that the level of performance (e.g., Full Scale SS) interpretation is appropriate for most children with flat profiles. (See Table 2, next page.)

When subtest or factor variability is limited, the global SS seems to be the most parsimonious measure of the child's level of intellectual functioning. However, even when a flat profile is evident, recall that intelligence tests may be unfair for children of linguistic or cultural difference, and global SS are intimately related to prior education and experience.

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Beyond the Academic Rhetoric of 'g': Intelligence Testing Guidelines for Practitioners**Table 2****Factor Predictors of FSIQ for Typical and Atypical Populations**

Variance Type	Flat Profile	Variable Profile	Learning Disability	ADHD
Unique	9%	62%	59%	48%
Shared	87%	36%	41%	50%

Note. ADHD = Attention Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder.

As the FSIQ does not appear to be valid for a majority of the population, we are left with interpreting factors and subtest profiles when we assess a majority of referred children. While profile or pattern analysis is difficult and controversial, a substantial number of practicing psychologists conduct these analyses (Pfeiffer, Reddy, Kletzel, Schmelzer, & Boyer, 2000). As a result, we need to develop scientifically sound methods to increase classification accuracy and reduce error, and explore the treatment utility of our findings for individual children. We could choose to avoid using the intellectual or cognitive tests altogether, and for some psychologists, this may be preferable for the reasons discussed previously. But as stated earlier, the growing body of neuropsychological evidence about brain-behavior relationships can inform us about the characteristics of the children we serve. As this knowledge base will only increase in the years to come, it is important that we consider its value in our daily practice. As commented upon earlier, our previous understanding of how the hemispheres process information is growing and changing, resulting in an exciting convergence between theories of intellectual and neuropsychological functioning. Specifically, the Cattell-Horn-Carroll Comprehensive Gf-Gc model (see McGrew & Flanagan, 1998) appears to fit well with right and left hemisphere processes, respectively. The right hemisphere is especially designed for processing complex, global, novel information, and the left hemisphere is designed for detailed, rote, automatic, and well known information. When faced with a problem, the right hemisphere door is opened to explore multiple, diverse possibilities; whereas, the left hemisphere attempts to look for details related to the current knowledge base, and choose a specific answer. These processes have been referred to as discordant-divergent (right hemisphere) and concordant-convergent (left hemisphere) (Bryan & Hale, 2001). Because intelligence test items (see Sattler, 2001), and elementary school

curricula for that matter, require specific concordant-convergent responding to respond with the "right" answer, it is no wonder we identify children with left hemisphere difficulties at higher rates than children with right hemisphere difficulties.

As Rourke (1994) points out, children with right hemisphere deficits do well in their academic subjects until the later grades, when discordant-divergent processes become more critical. As a result, we often miss the children with right hemisphere dysfunction—or label them as emotionally disturbed, because these children often have socioemotional problems due to poor social interaction and novel problem solving (Rourke, 1994).

How Do We Analyze Patterns of Performance?

This reconceptualization of how the hemispheres work opens the door for numerous intellectual assessment interpretation possibilities beyond the traditional auditory-verbal/visual-spatial dichotomy. It also provides a plausible explanation as to why early attempts at aptitude-treatment interactions failed. If one bases aptitude groups (subtypes) on measures that don't reflect how the brain really works, and then links those subtypes to interventions, one will be unsuccessful because the result will be a heterogeneous mix of children in each group. Some children would benefit while others would not, and as a group, the positive results would be negated. As this reconceptualization allows us to meaningfully examine hemispheric processing differences, all we need to do is add metacomponents (Sternberg, 1985), or measures of attention, memory, and executive function (see Lyon & Krasnegor, 1996), and we will have a better understanding of how a child processes information. In addition to a better understanding of cognitive processes, we need to determine how the cognitive processes are intimately related to academic achievement and behavior (Detterman & Thompson, 1997). This will be the key to linking assessment to intervention in the future. A growing body of evidence suggests that there are meaningful relationships between psychological constructs, academic achievement, and psychosocial functioning (see Hale, et al. 2001; McGrew,

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Beyond the Academic Rhetoric of 'g': Intelligence Testing Guidelines for Practitioners

Flanagan, Keith, & Vanderwood, 1997; Rourke, 1994). While these findings are beyond the scope of this paper, they suggest that Demands Analysis, exploring individual patterns of performance, is a worthwhile endeavor for practicing psychologists in the field.

We need to remember, however, that an intelligence test, and any direct measure for that matter, is just a sampling of behavior. We learn this in graduate school, but then tend to put it aside in practice. We would all benefit if we periodically reread Sattler's (2001) chapter on administering tests. We tend to make generalizations about behavior after testing, and then write our assessment observations paragraph, yet seldom do we recognize the minute-to-minute variations in test performance that become critical in interpretation. When we teach intelligence testing, we have students write behavioral observations all over the entire protocol (messy protocols are required!). We also look for subtle motivation changes, as we need to take into account that children are going to be more motivated to complete tasks they enjoy than tasks they dislike. In addition, we need to remember that sample space influences interpretation. Tests with limited sample space are more difficult to interpret, because a change in one or two items can lead to erroneous conclusions. However, too much sample space leads to very long test sessions, and then performance deteriorates because the child is exhausted.

Even if an examiner can obtain maximum performance from a child, and her score is the same as another child's score, this doesn't mean they have comparable skills. In other words, one cannot interpret the same score from the same subtest in the same way for every child. This is a critical point. For example, our research shows that Digits Backward on the WISC-III is sensitive to attention and executive function problems, whereas Digits Forward is not (Hale, Hoepfner, & Fiorello, 2001). A child who can repeat six digits forward, and five digits backward will probably not have an attention problem, yet a child who repeats eight digits forward and three digits backward may have executive dysfunction, which is characteristic of ADHD. Each examinee would have a raw score of 11 with the same scaled score. Another example can be found on Block Design, which most examiners interpret as a right hemisphere task due to its visual-motor nature. But as Kaplan (1988) points out, reversal errors are seen in individuals with left hemisphere dysfunction, and configuration errors are common in right hemisphere disorders. Kaplan argues that clinicians

should look for this pattern during item administration, because the child may ultimately respond correctly to the item right after an extended period of time. In addition, just because one earns a high score on Block Design doesn't mean that the person's visual-perceptual skills are adequate. For example, some children use good processing speed and a trial and error approach (good executive functions) to compare and contrast the visual model with their own design and still respond successfully. To reiterate, not every subtest is measuring the same thing for every child, and comparable subtest or factor scores can be interpreted in different ways. As one can see, these arguments suggest interpretation is exceedingly difficult and can lead to error, so other methods must be introduced to ensure the findings have external validity.

While interpretive texts (see Groth-Marnat, et al. 2000; Kamphaus, 1993; Kaufman, 1994; McGrew & Flanagan, 1998; Sattler, 2001) can be helpful in conducting Demands Analysis, practitioners should not be lulled into a "cookbook" approach when interpreting the data. This tendency often results in erroneous interpretation. For instance, concluding that poor WISC-III Information subtest performance is due to a limited fund of factual knowledge may not be correct if the child has retrieval problems or poor verbal facility. Psychologists also tend to use the strategies given in interpretive texts as mandatory. For instance, most psychologists tend to compute means for subtests and then determine strengths and weaknesses if any subtests vary from that mean. This technique may not be advantageous because very low or very high subtest are often included in the mean (see arguments regarding IQ above) and it is unclear what group of subtests one should use to compute the mean (i.e., factor, subscale, or all IQ subtests). We prefer to examine significant subtest differences at 95% confidence or better (preferably at the .01 alpha level). If significance tables are not available, significant differences can be calculated using the Standard Error of the Difference (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997). This helps us begin to determine the pattern of performance, but Demands Analysis provides further insight into the child's strengths and weaknesses. We prefer Demands Analysis because one cannot determine what a given subtest score suggests without reference to other scores and data (Groth-Marnat, et al., 2000). An interpretive strategy must take into account both the pattern and the level of an individual child's performance and integrate the results with other data from a comprehensive evaluation.

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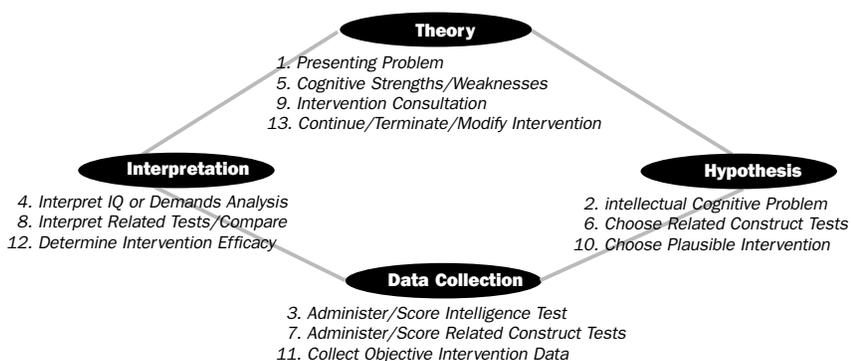
Beyond the Academic Rhetoric of 'g': Intelligence Testing Guidelines for Practitioners

If we use Demands Analysis, examining a child's input, processing, and output pattern of performance, we must ensure the ecological validity of our findings, and be able to determine how the finding affects the day-to-day life of the child. Without this critical validity dimension, any Demands Analysis conclusion, no matter how strong, should be considered tentative until ecological validity is obtained. The seminal work on the cross-battery approach (see McGrew & Flanagan, 1998) provides us with a conceptual thematic to address referral questions thoroughly by choosing additional measures to supplement our standard intellectual batteries, thereby increasing predictive validity. However, our hypotheses regarding individual child characteristics and preferred intervention strategy, are just that, hypotheses. They must be examined for external validity and modified until we understand the child's unique strengths and needs. In our Cognitive Hypothesis Testing model (see Figure 1), the referral question and prereferral interventions are examined (Theory). If cognitive functioning is thought to be related to the referral question (Hypothesis), the intelligence test is used as a screening tool (Data Collection). The findings are interpreted using Demand Analysis (Interpretation) to determine possible cognitive strengths/weaknesses (Theory). Our Cognitive Hypothesis Testing model goes beyond this typical practice in that we subsequently choose additional measures (Hypothesis) to confirm or refute the intellectual test data (Data Collection). The results are examined in light of the record review, systematic observations, and parent/teacher interviews to gain a good understanding of the child (Interpretation). It is important to note that while we should address the original referral question, we should remain flexible (i.e., engage discordant-divergent processing!) to examine other possible problems to ensure we have a holistic view of the child. This is where the process begins, not ends. Interventions must be developed using collaborative consultative follow-up meetings with teachers and/or parents. Possible intervention strategies are explored in consultation with the teacher (Theory) and an intervention plan likely to succeed is developed (Hypothesis). After baseline data are collected, the systematic intervention is undertaken (Data Collection) and then evaluated to determine intervention efficacy (Interpretation). If the intervention

does not appear to be effective, we revise or recycle until we gain beneficial results (Theory).

The Cognitive Hypothesis Testing model we describe uses the problem-solving approach and single subject methodology to examine child performance over time. We see the intelligence tests and other cognitive measures merely as tools to be used within the context of a larger problem-solving model (Hale, et al., 2001). We conceptualize the problem identification and analysis phases a little differently than others using the problem-solving approach, but still believe the ultimate challenge for psychologists is to make their assessment results meaningful for the daily lives of the children they serve, whatever their orientation. Having good ideas about cognitive processes and a good understanding of intervention techniques is not enough; one must learn how to link the two to meet the unique needs of the children we serve. It is up to us to use single subject techniques to explore aptitude-treatment interactions (Braden & Kratochwill, 1997), and ensure instructional techniques are sensitive to the child's unique characteristics (Reynolds, 1988). In this way, we may reveal that individual differences are meaningfully related to learning and behavior.

Figure 1. Cognitive Hypothesis Testing Model.



Intelligence Testing: A Practitioner's Guide

While there is much ado about intelligence testing, the door has not closed on the intellectual tests or their interpretation. Instead, it would appear that we are entering a new era of exploration and discovery, one that we predict will help the children we serve in the years to come. While the ideas presented above provide only a blueprint for practice rather than a definitive answer, the following guidelines could help us make intellectual assessment meaningful for intervention for each individual child.

Student Affiliates in School Psychology (SASP)

SASP Update and News

President's Column

**By David Shriberg, SASP President
Northeastern University**

I am honored to serve as the president of SASP for the upcoming year. For those of you unfamiliar with our organization, SASP stands for Student Affiliates in School Psychology and is an organization for graduate students who are members of APA's Division 16. Many of my best experiences as a graduate student have resulted from my participation in this energizing organization—and I expect the upcoming year to be no different!

Once again, the Annual SASP Mini-Conference featured outstanding presentations. The student presenters for our 3rd mini-conference were Jackie Buckley (University of Wisconsin), Gena Ehrhardt (Indiana State University), Caroline McKnight (University of South Carolina), and Teri Nowak (University of Kentucky). In addition to the phenomenal student presentations, SASP was honored to have the keynote speech delivered by Dr. Steven Little, incoming president of Division 16, and to have so many other Division 16 luminaries attend. Finally, many thanks need to go to Sara Davis, Emma Jurrens, Gena Ehrhardt, and Matt Turner for doing such an excellent job in putting this mini-conference together. If you have not yet attended a SASP Mini-Conference, I would really encourage you to join us next year in Chicago. Not only is it a great way to meet many of the current and future leaders in the field, but it is a wonderful place to hear presentations on topics important to school psychology graduate students.

SASP is fortunate this year to have a very talented group of officers who already have many exciting projects underway. One of the best things about SASP is that while we have official positions, we are not a very hierarchical group, and any school psychology graduate can take on a leadership role.

SASP has evolved into an organization with a very solid foundation that will allow it to continue for many years, but the directions that SASP progresses is yet to be determined by persons who believe—as I do—that students can make a difference.

What follows are five goals that I have set for SASP and the SASP presidency. It is my challenge to school psychology graduate students to join us and help bring these goals to fruition or, better yet, to develop your own goals that you would like SASP to pursue.

- Goal #1: To help graduate students to feel a real connection to the field of school psychology generally and to Division 16 specifically.
- Goal #2: To provide an advocacy mechanism through which students can have a role in determining the direction that school psychology takes.
- Goal #3: To be an organization skilled in helping school psychology graduate students to meet and learn from one another.
- Goal #4: To be the most comprehensive and relevant resource for school psychology graduate students.
- Goal #5: To continue to build a solid and wide-ranging infrastructure so SASP will endure as a highly respected national organization for graduate students in school psychology.

I encourage you to contact me (dshriberg@yahoo.com) or any other SASP officer to learn more about what we do and where we are headed. You can learn more about us by going to our web site at www.saspweb.org, or by joining our listserve (directions for joining the listserve can be found at www.saspweb.org/eforum.html). There is room for all types of student leadership in SASP, so please let us know what we can do that you would find meaningful and how you would like to be involved as we continue to grow as an organization.

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Join the SASP Listserv Today!

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**SASP Executive Committee
2001-2002**

**David Shriberg
President**
Northeastern University
dshriber@lynx.dac.neu.edu



**Gena Earhardt,
President-Elect**
Indiana State University
hardt13@juno.com



**Teri Nowak
SASP Liaison**
University of Kentucky
tmnowa0@pop.uky.edu



**Karyn Ciappa
Membership Chair**
Hofstra University
Karpsey@aol.com



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Student Affiliates in School Psychology (SASP)**President-Elect's Column****By Gena Ehrhardt, President-Elect
Indiana State University**

Serving my second year as an executive officer in SASP, I can honestly say that this year will truly be an exciting one. New opportunities continue to unfold for school psychology graduate students and, due to the tremendous support and leadership of many students and mentors, SASP members have the opportunity to participate in a variety of ventures that coincide with their professional goals. Beginning this year, I hope to work with SASP members in the areas of program evaluation and public policy. Although both ventures are distinct, their importance leads me to encourage SASP members to begin exploring them.

Prospective students may begin their application process based on how a program will best meet their professional goals. SASP would like to offer assistance by providing information about APA and NASP-accredited school psychology programs. For doctoral students who are preparing for internship, it may also be beneficial to have knowledge of various training sites' expectations. Therefore, SASP will begin a program evaluation initiative in order to address these issues. Members interested in program evaluation will:

- Acquire knowledge regarding APA and NASP accreditation standards;
- Enhance research skills in analyzing the relationship between internship expectations and program of study requirements; and
- Create a list of school psychology programs' strengths, emphases, and faculty specializations.

For SASP members interested public policy and advocacy, SASP will soon begin an initiative to improve the mental health delivery for children in schools. Members interested in public policy and advocacy will:

- Learn about the advocacy process;
- Strengthen communication skills in dialoguing

with legal aides and legislators;

- Enlist in advocacy groups and listservs promoting mental health service delivery in schools; and
- Advocate for legislative and funding support for mental health legislation in schools.

SASP members interested in participating in either the program evaluation or public

policy initiatives are encouraged to contact me at hardt13@juno.com. I would certainly be delighted to work with committed graduate students who are motivated in making a difference—not only for themselves, but also for the children that we will serve.

Check out **SASP's web page** at:
www.saspweb.org

SASP Third Annual Mini-Convention**By A. Alexander Beaujean,
Communications Chair
University of Missouri-Columbia**

On August 26, 2001, SASP hosted its third annual mini-convention. This year's theme centered on professional development and featured three outstanding presentations.

SASP was honored to have the keynote speech delivered by Dr. Steven Little—incoming president of Division 16. He delivered an insightful speech on how School Psychology has changed since he was a graduate student and gave the attendees some great pointers on how to be an effective school psychologist in the local school system.

Following Dr. Little's remarks, Gena Ehrhardt (Indiana State University), and Caroline McKnight (University of South Carolina) talked about the internship process, specifically centering on how School Psychology doctoral students can obtain an APA-accredited internship. The attendees appreciated their insight and tips, and the information will defiantly be useful when beginning the internship application process.

Jackie Buckley (University of Wisconsin) and Teri Nowak (University of Kentucky) ended the mini-conference by presenting how school psychology graduate students can acquire funding for their



Jackie Buckley delivers her presentation that she did with Teri Nowak, Grant W riting SASP News The Newsletter of the Student Af filiates in School Psychology

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**A. Alexander Beaujean,
Communications Chair**
University of Missouri-Columbia
abeaujean@ur each.com



**Jennifer Lozano
Diversity Affairs**
Indiana State University
lozanoj@citrine.indstate.edu



**Denise Charles
Convention Chair**
Indiana State University
dmc6848@hotmail.com



**Melinda Stanley
Technology Chair**
Indiana State
UniversityMkismee@aol.com

(no picture available)

Student Affiliates in School Psychology (SASP)

research. Their presentation was very perspicuous (a necessity when discussing the internal and external funding process) and their handouts will serve as an invaluable resource to those seeking research appropriations.

Sara Davis, Emma Jurrens, Gena Ehrhardt, and Matt Turner were in charge of putting this year's mini-convention together. They deserve much recognition for doing such an excellent job!

If you missed this year's mini-convention, you will definitely want to attend it next year. It will be held concurrently with APA's annual convention, which is August 22-25, 2002 in Chicago, Illinois. Start planning now to attend!

Beyond the Academic Rhetoric of 'g': Intelligence Testing Guidelines for Practitioners

- Intervene to assess. Reducing the number of referrals will allow thorough evaluations and ecological validity.
- A failure to respond to systematic prereferral interventions may indicate a need for a full evaluation.
- Read recent theoretical and empirical advances in intelligence theory and testing.
- Explore neuropsychological literature for application to cognitive functioning, achievement, and behavior.
- Supplement standard intellectual assessment instruments with additional measures to ensure assessment of all critical cognitive functions.
- Assess attention, memory, and executive functions, constructs critical to school success.
- Assess crystallized abilities, but interpret scores in light of cultural, linguistic, and experiential background.
- Use measures of new verbal learning and memory to assess learning potential rather than inferring it from crystallized measures.
- Interpret both level and/or pattern of intellectual test performance based on the individual child.
- Interpret global IQ scores only where there is no significant subtest or factor variability.
- Use Demands Analysis to determine input, processing, and output test demands when global scores are invalid.
- As Demands Analysis is difficult and can lead to interpretation error, avoid "cookbooking" and relate test scores to data from other measures and sources to ensure ecological validity.
- Test assessment and intervention hypotheses by collecting within-subject (single-subject) intervention data over time.
- Avoid confirmation bias—use discordant/divergent

processing to consider alternative hypotheses and interventions to meet unique child needs.

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Correspondence regarding this article should be directed to:

*James B. Hale, Ph.D.
Children's Evaluation and Rehabilitation Center
Albert Einstein College of Medicine
1165 Morris Park Avenue
Bronx, NY 10461
(718) 430-3900
jhale@aecom.yu.edu*

Rosalynn Carter Institute for Human Development Professional Opportunities

The Rosalynn Carter Institute for Human Development (RCI) is seeking creative individuals who are interested in an exciting professional opportunity in the "Carter professional family".

Pope Eminent Scholar

The Pope Eminent Scholar is dedicated to furthering the work of the RCI in practice, research, policy, and education/training. It is named for John & Betty Pope, who created an endowment for the RCI, and offers the University System of Georgia designation as an "eminent scholar" to signify the prestige carried by the person selected for the role.

The Pope Eminent Scholar works in concert with the RCI Executive Director and Deputy Director to implement the Institute's strategic plan. Specific activities for the Pope Eminent Scholar are determined as part of the position negotiation. Activities allow the Scholar to make a meaningful contribution to the work of the RCI and may include: research, program development & evaluation, teaching, policy development & implementation, development of publications, coalition building, advocacy, and other activities, based on the specific skills, expertise, and networks of influence that the Scholar brings to the position. During and after completion of the Pope Eminent Scholar experience, the Scholar is expected to be a prestigious ambassador for the RCI to its external publics. Short- & long-term opportunities available. Ph.D. required.

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This is a full-time, grant-funded position with the Rosalynn Carter Institute for Human Development reporting directly to the RCI Executive Director. The project focuses on two areas: a national field study, which involves initiation, expansion, and replication of caregiving initiatives, and the development of a science-to-practice information base in caregiving. Responsibilities and duties include general oversight of the project; consultation and technical assistance to staff who are implementing the initiatives; developing and conducting training for agency and organizational leaders; data col-

lection for monitoring progress; providing support for project evaluation; assisting in the development of an international web site on caregiving; conducting a meta-analysis on caregiving issues and programs; convening expert panels to discuss and write articles on caregiving; and performing other duties related to project implementation. Periodic travel is required.

Minimum requirements include superior management and organizational skills, including supervision and project management skills, excellent ability to communicate with individuals and groups, and superior writing and editing skills. Ability to conduct training and consultation activities; knowledge of emerging technologies, educational methods, and techniques to train groups; ability to speak effectively before groups and elicit discussion; excellent interpersonal and communication skills; planning and coordination skills; and knowledge of data collection procedures; are required. Experience in integrated service models desired. Master's degree in psychology, education, counseling, social work, nursing, health policy or administration, public administration, or related human services or human development field required. Ph.D. and knowledge of caregiving issues/literature preferred, but others with exceptional professional skills may be considered. Salary commensurate with experience and expertise. Based in Americus, GA.

Director, Research & Program Evaluation

This is a full-time, grant-funded position with the Rosalynn Carter Institute for Human Development reporting directly to the RCI Executive Director. The Director of Research & Program Evaluation is responsible for the development of a research agenda for the RCI, building on the RCI's previous work in this area. The Director will design quantitative and qualitative research and evaluation projects and oversee their implementation. This includes designing data collection procedures/instruments, including web-based data-capture forms; coordinating field work; selecting and applying appropriate data analysis techniques; and reporting data in written and visual formats appropriate to a variety of audiences. Initial work will focus on

directing the evaluation of caregiving programs in the Johnson & Johnson/Rosalynn Carter Institute Caregivers Program.

Minimum requirements include superior research and data management skills, excellent data analysis skills, ability to communicate findings to a wide variety of groups and individuals, and excellent writing skills. Ability to conceptualize, implement, and communicate research & program evaluation activities; knowledge of emerging technologies, methods, and techniques in research, program evaluation, and data analysis; ability to speak effectively before groups and elicit discussion; excellent interpersonal and communication skills; and planning and coordination skills are essential. Knowledge of caregiving issues/literature preferred. Ph.D. required in education, evaluation, statistics, measurement, psychology, counseling, public health, social work, nursing, health policy or administration, or related field. Salary commensurate with experience and expertise. Periodic travel is required. Based in Americus, GA.

Director, Education & Training (funding pending)

This is a full-time, grant-funded position with the Rosalynn Carter Institute for Human Development reporting directly to the RCI Executive Director. The Director of Education & Training will be responsible for the development of a program of outreach to local, regional, state, national, and international caregiving communities. The Director will develop the RCI's education & training agenda, providing leadership to our national education, and training roll-out. The Director will develop distance learning opportunities in caregiving, oversee the annual RCI conference, lead training sessions, coordinate an annual caregiving intensive course, arrange for CE provider designation, develop caregiving curriculum for children as well as medical/allied health professionals, plan an annual caregiving symposium at the Carter Center, and present/represent the RCI at national conferences and other meetings.

Minimum requirements include superior knowledge of education and training paradigms, excellent management and organizational skills, excellent ability to communicate with individuals and groups, excellent writing and editing skills, and knowledge of caregiving related to children and/or adults. Ability to conduct training and consultation activities; knowledge of emerging technologies, educational methods, and techniques to train groups; ability to speak effectively before groups and elicit discussion; excellent interpersonal and communication skills; and planning and coordination skills are required. Experience in integrated service models desired. Master's degree in psychology, education, counseling, social work, nursing, health policy or administration, public administration, or related human services or human development field required. Ph.D. preferred, but others with exceptional professional skills and credentials may be considered. Salary commensurate with experience and expertise. Periodic travel is required. Based in Americus, GA.

For information about the RCI and these positions, please see our website at <http://rci.gsw.edu>.

Rosalynn Carter Institute for Human Development
Georgia Southwestern State University
800 Wheatley Street
Americus, GA 31709
229-928-1234 (telephone); 229-931-2663 (fax)
rci@canes.gsw.edu

SASP Officers



People & Places

Compiled by Angeleque Akin-Little

The University of Georgia is pleased to announce the addition of **Dr. Jonathan Campbell** to the School Psychology Faculty. Dr. Campbell is a recent graduate of the clinical psychology program at the University of Memphis. He completed his predoctoral internship and postdoctoral year at the Yale University Child Study Center. Dr. Campbell will be supervising practica and teaching courses in his areas of research and clinical expertise which include Autism and Pediatric Psychology. He joins the current faculty that includes **Dr. Roy Martin** (Director of Training), **Dr. A. Michele Lease**, **Dr. George Hynd** (part-time affiliation with the program), **Dr. Leslie Munson** (Clinic Director), and **Dr. Randy Kamphaus**.

The School Psychology Program at **North Carolina State University** recently obtained four years of funding from the U. S. Department of Education Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services for personnel preparation. This grant involves eight school psychology students annually, and provides training in assessment, intervention, and consultation services that address reading problems of students with disabilities in the general education curriculum. A total of \$683,000 in support funds will be provided over the four-year period. **Ann Schulte** is the PI and **Bill Erchul** is the Co-PI.

The School Psychology Program at the **University of Kansas** is pleased to announce the addition of **Dr. Patricia Lowe** to the program faculty beginning in the Fall, 2001. Dr. Lowe is a 2000 graduate of the School Psychology Program at Texas A&M University. She will be teaching clinical courses in consultation, assessment, and intervention.

Lehigh University's School Psychology Program is pleased to announce that **Dr. Patricia Manz** will be joining the faculty as a Visiting Assistant Professor. Patti comes to Lehigh having spent the last several years at the Children's Seashore House of the Children's Hospital of Philadelphia. She has a strong background in school/community partnerships and consultation process. Patti earned her Ph.D. at the University of Pennsylvania.

Centennial School of Lehigh University and the School Psychology Program are pleased to announce that **Dr. David Miller** will

be joining the staff of Centennial and will serve as the Director of the Centennial Predoctoral Internship Training Program, and an Adjunct Assistant Professor in the School Psychology Program. Dave comes to Lehigh from the University at Albany, State University of New York where he had been on the faculty of the school psychology program. He has a strong background in working with students with emotional/behavior disorders, with special interest in children with internalizing disorders. Dave earned his Ph.D. from **Lehigh University**.

Tim Keith (University of Texas at Austin) recently received the 2001 Mensa Education & Research Foundation and International Mensa Award for Excellence in Research. The award was for Tim's continuing research on the nature and measurement of intelligence. Tim is especially grateful for the contributions of his collaborators on the various studies considered by Mensa: **John Kranzler, Dawn Flanagan, Colin Elliott, Kim Quirk, Cindy Schartzler, Kevin McGrew, and Mike Vanderwood**.

Steven Pfeiffer was the recipient of the **2001 Award for Excellence in Research by the Mensa Foundation**. He also co-edited (with Linda Reddy) a book entitled *Innovative Mental health Interventions for Children: Programs That Work* published in May 2001 Haworth Press, Inc.

Please forward additions for People & Places to Angeleque Akin-Little at: dr.steve@worldnet.att.net

ANNOUNCEMENTS

THE SOCIETY FOR RESEARCH ON ADOLESCENCE will hold its Ninth Biennial Meeting in New Orleans, Louisiana, April 11-14, 2002. The Hyatt Regency New Orleans will serve as the headquarters for SRA 2002. Invited speakers include Karen Hein, William T. Grant Foundation; Marcelo and Carola Suárez-Orozco, Harvard Graduate School of Education; Richard Tremblay, University of Montreal. For more information, please visit the SRA website, <http://www.s-r-a.org>.

NEW APA PUBLICATION FEATURES EMERGENCY MEDICAL SERVICES FOR CHILDREN

Helping the EMS Professional: The Stress of Providing Emergency Medical Services for Children has been produced by the APA Public Interest Directorate with support from the federal Emergency Medical Services for Children (EMSC) program.

Edited by George Everly, PhD, of the International Critical Stress Foundation and April Talley of the APA PsycINFO staff, *Helping the EMS Professional: The Stress of Providing Emergency Medical Services for Children* includes a review article and a 129-item bibliography with abstracts. The publication highlights the stressful impact of providing services in pediatric medical emergencies and offers resources for further study and consideration of ways to support professionals who do this work. The introduction by Dr. Everly reviews literature on stress among emergency services providers, describes the special context of treating childhood trauma, defines basic terminology, discusses the need for intervention services, and offers commentary on Critical Incident Stress Debriefing and Critical Incident Stress Management. The ensuing annotated bibliography is a resource for researchers, practitioners, and students who wish to pursue other information and contribute to the development of the EMSC field.

To request a single free copy, contact Luis Espinoza at (202) 336-6046, or by email at LEspinoza@apa.org. Additional copies are available at \$2.00 each.

DIVISION OF INTERNATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY MENTORING AWARD

The Division 52 Mentoring Award is presented annually to a member or affiliate of Division 52, who plays an exceptional mentoring role in an international context. Mentoring may be defined by any of the following activities:

1. Mentoring students or faculty in or from other countries (e.g., helping a foreign university set up a program in psychology)
2. Mentoring students who contribute to international research, or who go on to work in international settings
3. Promoting projects that advance the education of psychologists with respect to international aspects of psychology
4. Contributing to the development of psychology in foreign countries
5. Assisting in research and/or applications of psychology as a profession in foreign countries.

Nominations should consist of a curriculum vita and at least two letters, attesting to the mentoring activities of the nominee. The nominations will be reviewed by the Division 52 Mentoring Award Committee. The Committee's recommendation will be reported to the Division Board of Directors. Nominations should be sent by March 1, 2002 to

Lynn P. Rehm, Ph.D.,
Department of Psychology,
University of Houston,
Houston, Texas, USA,
77204-5341.

JOB OPPORTUNITIES

The public schools of Haddonfield, New Jersey are seeking a School Psychologist

with several years experience in a school environment. Responsibilities include: psychological assessments, participation in case management, supervising junior psychologists, member of child study team, and assessment of emotional, behavioral problems within the school setting. Ten or twelve month position possible. Haddonfield is a quiet, upper middle class community that is proud of its history, which is rooted in the earliest colonial times. The borough is a suburb of Philadelphia and is home to many professionals and successful business people.

The Haddonfield school district is committed to the development of excellence in each of its approximately 2300 students. The structure of the public schools consists of three neighborhood elementary schools, one middle school and a high school. The community has high expectations for the schools and is proud of the performance of its students. The class of 2001 had an average SAT score of 1175 with 99% of the students taking the test. Over the last five years, 98% of the students have gone on to further their education with approximately 90% attending four-year schools. The district staff operates as a collaborative professional community and supports the individual growth of each of its members.

The mission, beliefs, and parameters and other information regarding the Haddonfield Public Schools can be found on its website, www.haddonfield.k12.nj.us <<http://www.haddonfield.k12.nj.us>>. You can apply by forwarding a cover letter and resume to William Smith, Director of Curriculum and Instruction. To apply by mail, use the address Haddonfield Public Schools, 1 Lincoln Avenue, Haddonfield, NJ 08033. To apply by email, send the information as Microsoft Word documents attached to an email addressed to wsmith@haddonfield.k12.nj.us <<mailto:wsmith@haddonfield.k12.nj.us>>. To fax the information, use the number 856-354-2179.

Associate Professor, School Psychology, Department of Psychology, North Carolina State University:

Applications are sought for a tenure-track faculty position at the associate professor level in NC State's APA-accredited and NASP-approved School Psychology Ph.D. Program, beginning August 15, 2002. This faculty member will teach undergraduate and graduate courses (2-2 load), continue an active and productive research agenda, supervise students' field placements, direct graduate student research, secure external funding for research initiatives, and provide leadership within the profession and academic community. Preference will be given to those with expertise in psychological assessment and a stated interest in assuming the role of program director by his/her third year. Applicants must be graduates of APA-accredited programs, have demonstrat-

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ANNOUNCEMENTS

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ed teaching excellence, and have a record of accomplishments in research and grant activities. Eligibility for licensure as a school psychologist and health service provider psychologist in North Carolina is required. The NC State Department of Psychology currently has 27 faculty and Ph.D. specializations in five areas (developmental, ergonomics & experimental, industrial/organizational, psychology in the public interest, and school), and is searching for six new faculty members this year. Applicants should submit a description of current

research and teaching interests, a curriculum vitae, reprints of recent publications, and three letters of recommendation to School Psychology Search Committee, Department of Psychology, North Carolina State University, Poe 640, Stinson Drive, Box 7801, Raleigh, NC 27695-7801. Application review begins November 1, 2001 but applications will be accepted until the position is filled. Women and minorities are especially encouraged to apply. AA/EOE. For ADA accommodations, please contact the Department of Psychology.

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EDITOR

Vincent C. Alfonso, Ph.D.
 Fordham University
 Graduate School of Education
 113 West 60th St.
 New York, NY 10023
 (212) 636-6464 (w)
 (212) 636-6416 (fax)
 alfonso@fordham.edu

ASSOCIATE EDITOR

Linda A. Reddy, Ph.D.
 Fairleigh Dickinson University
 Teaneck-Hackensack Campus
 1000 River Road – T110A
 Teaneck, New Jersey 07666
 (201) 692-2649 (w)
 (201) 692-2164 (fax)
 LReddy2271@aol.com

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