SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY:
From Science to Practice

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Editor

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Periodical Description

Student Affiliates in School Psychology (SASP) is the student-led organization of the American Psychological Association's Division 16. *School Psychology: From Science to Practice (FSTP)* is the quarterly periodical of SASP. It serves as a multipurpose platform for promoting and disseminating graduate-student scholarship; sharing applied knowledge and valuable practicum experiences; exchanging information and perspectives on critical issues in school psychology; propagating scientific and applied insights from current faculty, practitioners, and interns; and informing the membership of relevant activities, opportunities, resources, and happenings within the organization.

Manuscript Guidelines

FSTP currently accepts articles for seven themed columns: Scholarship, Research Reviews, Lessons from the Field, Forum, Commentary, Chapter Spotlight, and Perspectives. All submissions should be submitted directly to the editor via email at *trenshaw@education.ucsb.edu*. Submissions are accepted on a rolling deadline, so articles may be accepted well in advance of publication. For word count, content, and formatting guidelines for each column, please reference the "Manuscript Guidelines" document located on the SASP website (*http://www.iu.edu/~sasp/*). All manuscripts should be submitted as Word documents and adhere to APA style.

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SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY:
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PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE

Good-Bye, *SASP News*. Hello, *FSTP*!

Sara E. House
Oklahoma State University

Our quarterly newsletter—*SASP News*—received a major makeover. It now has a new look and new name, but it still has the same great resources, too! So, what prompted the change? Well, this year Division 16 introduced their visionary theme, "Science for policy and practice in school psychology." This theme has a dual emphasis: one, that practicing school psychologists will use and promote empirically supported practices to best serve students and schools; and two, that school psychology scholars will seek to generate pragmatic science that can help practitioners better serve students and schools. In accordance with this vision, our newsletter has morphed into a quarterly *periodical*—emphasizing the role and necessity of graduate student scholarship. Thus, we have given it a new name: *School Psychology: From Science to Practice* (*FSTP*).

The primary aim of *FSTP* is to inform the readership about the current scholarship that is being conducted by and with graduate students and how such scholarship can inform school psychology policy and practice. With this slight change of focus, graduate students will now have increased opportunities to disseminate their work and contribute to the advancement of the field. However, in addition to the scholarly articles, information about scholarships, profiles of individual SASP chapters, and updates on current school psychology events will still be included. Ultimately, we hope that this periodical becomes a valuable resource to school psychology students that are seeking to disseminate and consume scholarship as well as enhance their professional development.

Included in this issue of *FSTP* are several great articles about different contemporary topics in school psychology, including bullying, ADHD, social justice and service learning, ecological assessment, and student engagement. Each article has a section regarding how scholarship can and should inform the practice of school psychology. So, please take the time to look through this issue of *FSTP* and see what it has to offer you and the children and schools you serve!

SCHOLARSHIP

Toward Ecological Assessment: Advancing the "Right Science" in School Psychology

Tyler L. Renshaw and Meagan D. O'Malley

University of California, Santa Barbara

Abstract. Luminaries in the field have long advocated for an ecological approach towards school psychology service delivery. To date, however, such calls have been largely unheeded. Given that effective prevention and intervention efforts hinge on effective assessment, the first step towards heeding these calls is to realize an ecological assessment. We have undertaken preliminary efforts towards this end. Thus, the purpose of the present work is to (a) briefly discuss our provisional efforts to conceptualize the theory underlying ecological assessment; (b) delineate our methodological approach towards carrying out such assessment practices; (c) provide a preview into our future directions within ecological assessment research and practice; and (d) explore some implications of ecological assessment for school psychologists.

School psychologists' dissatisfaction with the *medical model* of service delivery, which emphasizes the identification of individual pathology for the purposes of taxonomy and unilateral treatment, has been noted by leading scholars in the field since the early 1970's. Commenting on this subject, Conoley and Gutkin (1995) declared that we are "answering the wrong sets of questions" when we deal only with the psychology of individuals, rather than the psychology of their ecologies. They further argued that a medical-model perspective leads to myopic answers that, at best, drain resources to provide services for students, while ignoring the broader, system-level causes of students' problems. Ultimately, their cogent arguments suggest that school psychological service delivery will be plagued by limitations, as long as we conceptualize disorders as existing within the child alone. Using contemporary practice as a gauge of professional perspective, it seems that the medical-model perspective is, unfortunately, alive and well in school psychology. As a result, our service delivery has yet to realize its potential. To obtain such potential, Conoley and Gutkin argued that we ought to

apply the "right science"—methods based on ecological systems theory—to the practice of school psychology.

The movement toward conceptualizing the contextualized individual began with Bronfenbrenner's (1977) early assertion that understanding human development requires examination of "multiperson systems of interaction not limited to a single setting" (p. 514). He further outlined the now-ubiquitous concepts of proximal and distal systems (i.e., microsystem, mesosystem, macrosystem, exosystem) that, in concert with individual ontological processes, constitute the driving force of human development. In other words, the child's ecology includes proximal structures, such as the family, as well as increasingly distal structures, such as peer groups, school, and current socio-political organization, that interact with and shape each other over time.

Despite the theoretical evidence and philosophical support for applying methods based on ecological theory, school psych-ologists continue to spend inordinate amounts of time conducting medical-model assess-ments for the purpose of making eligibility determinations for special education (Sheridan & Gutkin, 2000). We refer to these as *traditional* assessments because they tend to focus only on student variables that are traditionally implicated in state and national eligibility criteria (see Figure 1), while ignoring other plausible contributing factors. The *nontraditional* alternative to this approach is ecological assessment, which is grounded in methods that are "tied very closely to the broad based environmental systems that surround the children we serve" (Sheridan & Gutkin, p. 489). Given that assessment is the starting point for all effective service provision, we propose that advancing ecological assessment is the first step toward grounding school psychological practice in the "right science."

The aim of ecological assessment is to gain a comprehensive understanding of student ecologies by assessing the proximal and distal systems that make up their lives. Ecological assessment incorporates under-utilized methods along with reconceptualized traditional methods. (Such methods will be outlined later herein.) The overarching function of these methods is to create a portrait of students in context, for the purposes of informing intervention-related decision-making (Chambers, 2000; Krane & Baird, 2005)—beyond what is possible using the medical-model perspective and traditional methods. Therefore, by accessing methods to assess each of these system levels and their major content areas, school psychologists can align practice with theory, improving service delivery and thus benefiting students and schools.

Given this backdrop, the purpose of the present work is fourfold: (a) to discuss our provisional efforts to conceptualize the theory underlying ecological assessment; (b) to delineate our preliminary methodological approach for carrying out such assessment practices; (c) to provide a preview into our future directions for ecological assessment research and practice; and (d) to explore the

Figure 1. *Factors Implicated in Traditional (Medical-Model) School Psychological Assessment*
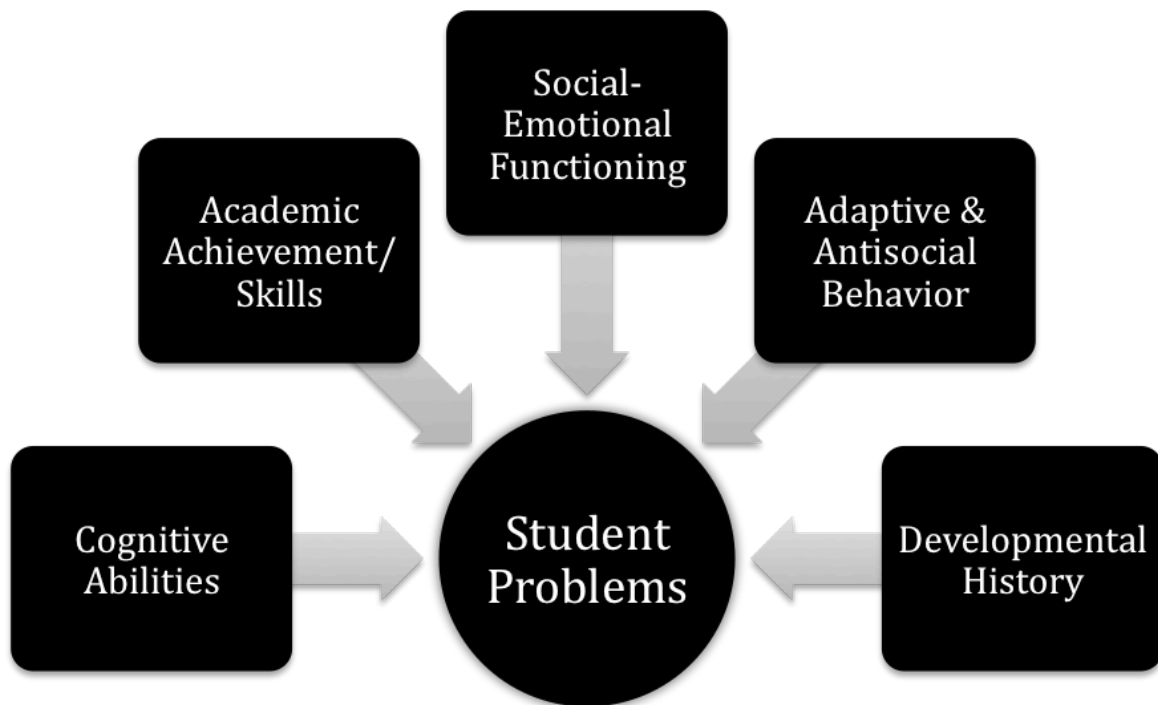
implications of ecological assessment for school psychologists. Before embarking, however, we emphasize the preliminary nature of our efforts outlined herein. Indeed, we expect continual revision and reconceptualization as we move forward.

Theoretical Foundation

Our first step toward realizing an ecological assessment was to ground such an approach in sound, contemporary theory. As aforementioned, an ecological perspective in

school psychology has traditionally been advanced using Bronfenbrenner's (1977) ecological systems theory; however, since the 1970s, his initial ideas have been further developed via theorizing that is equally relevant to school psychology practice. Specifically, our review of the ecologically-oriented literature revealed two theories of human development that seem especially pertinent and are empirically supported: the *bioecological* (Bronfenbrenner, 2001) and *ecological-transactional* (Cicchetti & Lynch, 1993) theories. Thus, we fused the central tenets of these theories with those of

Bronfenbrenner's original theory, creating what we believe to be the most comprehensive view of student development to date.

Taken together, this amalgamation of theories conceptualizes all of student development (whether behavioral, cognitive, affective, social, biochemical, or physical) as the product of adaptational processes regulated by transactions within and between students' and other persons' three core developmental systems: (a) *phenotypes* (i.e., phenomenological experience and current developmental expressions), (b) *envi-rontypes* (i.e., experience across multilevel nested environments), and (c) *genotypes* (i.e., genetic and biochemical makeup; Sameroff, 1989). Furthermore, it posits that these transactions are primarily regulated by proximal processes —the longstanding, in-creasingly intricate inter-actions between individuals and the persons, objects, and symbols in their environments over time (Bronfenbrenner, 2001). By accounting for this array of influences, this perspective conceptualizes students as integrated wholes, constantly negotiating their lives within complex systems and with complex persons.
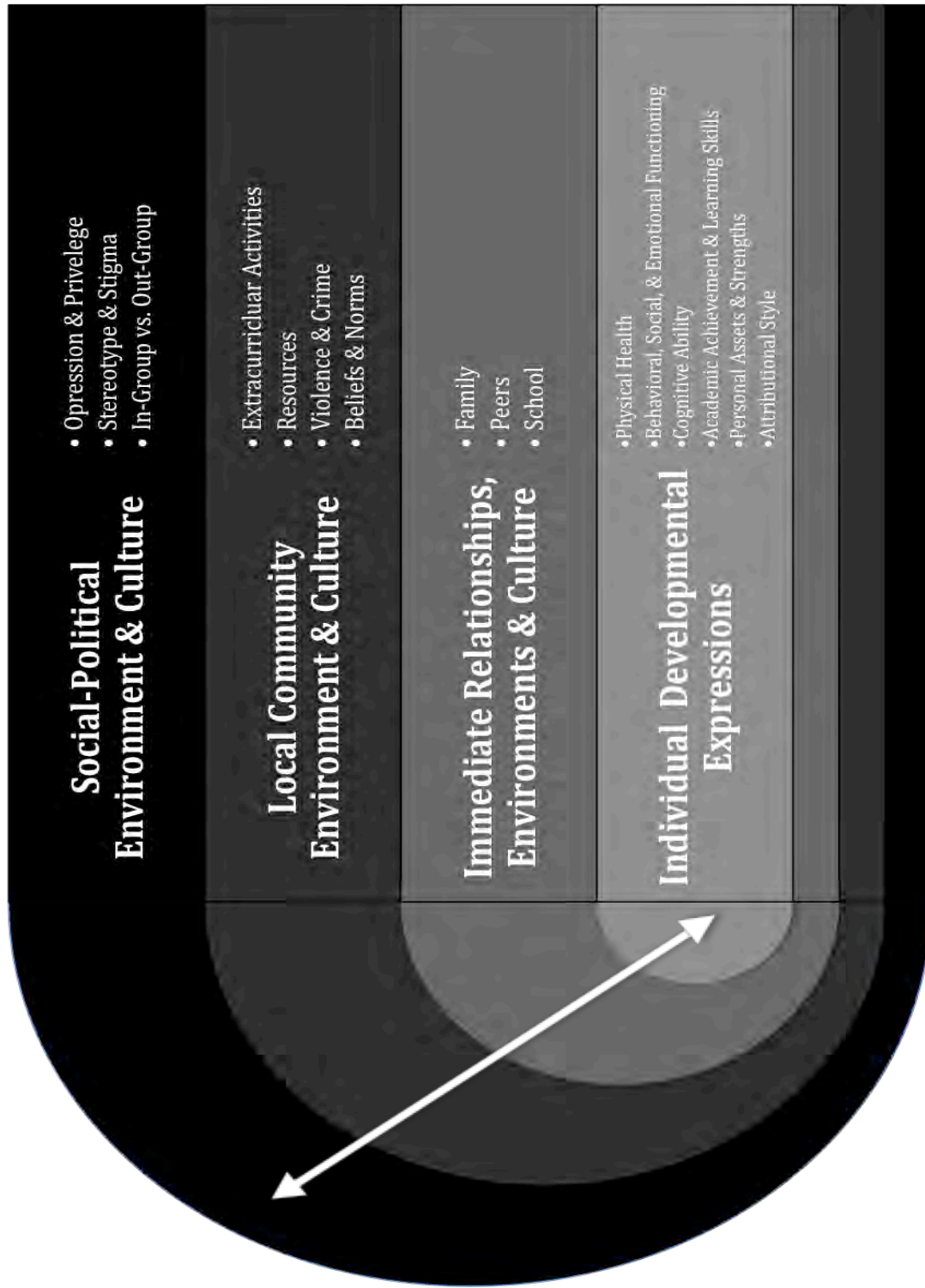
Given that phenotypes and environtypes are more amenable to observation and measurement than genotypes, our theoretical underpinnings are grounded in the proximal and distal systems that are accessible to practitioners. Building from Bronfenbrenner's (1977) original conceptualization of such systems, our amalgamation of ecological theories conceptualizes students' ecologies as consisting of (a) *macrosystem*, (b) *exosystem*, (b) *microsystem,* and (c) *ontogenic development* levels (Cicchetti & Lynch, 1993). To clarify the meaning of these opaque terms and align them with assessable variables, we simply re-termed them in more descriptive language: (a) *social-political environment and culture,* (b) *local community environment and culture,* (c) *immediate relationships and environments,* and (d) *individual developmental expressions.* Moreover, to more easily comprehend such variables for assessment purposes, we created a basic model that delineates the nested nature of these systems, including major types of assessable variables that are located within each (see Figure 2). The simplistic double-sided arrow in this model—spanning across all levels—represents the transactional nature of these systems, indicating the interrelated essence of all variables.

Assessment Methods

After adopting theories and making a model, our next step toward realizing ecological assessment was to formulate methods that could be grounded in this model. In our view, a true ecological assessment will measure each of the major factor areas within each of the four major systems (see Figure 2). Given this, at first glance, ecological assessment may appear to require an abundance of assessment. So in undertaking this task, we were especially mindful of social validity considerations, recognizing that an ecological approach needed to be flexible, adaptable to

Figure 2. *System Levels and Sub-Levels Implicated in Ecological Assessment*

Social-Political Environment & Culture
- Opression & Privelege
- Stereotype & Stigma
- In-Group vs. Out-Group

Local Community Environment & Culture
- Extracurricluar Activities
- Resources
- Violence & Crime
- Beliefs & Norms

Immediate Relationships, Environments & Culture
- Family
- Peers
- School

Individual Developmental Expressions
- Physical Health
- Behavioral, Social, & Emotional Functioning
- Cognitive Ability
- Academic Achievement & Learning Skills
- Personal Assets & Strengths
- Attributional Style

the idiosyncrasies of each assessment case, and feasible for practitioners. Thus, instead of prescribing a set of rigid methods for assessing each system and each set of factors, we compiled a loose compendium of methods that serve as an assessment menu—allowing practitioners to select the methods that best fit their case needs. Moreover, we attended to the multidimensional nature of assessment tools, emphasizing that some measures and techniques can be used to assess multiple systems. To gather ecological methods, we reviewed both traditional assessment methods (see Merrell, 2008, for references) and nontraditional strength-based methods (see Gilman, Huebner, & Furlong, 2009, for references). The results of these initial efforts advance ecological assessment by providing plausible methods that significantly expand and balance traditional assessment methods (see Tables 1 and 2).

As we searched for various measures of students' developmental assets, we recognized a variety of limitations in the extant scales. First, there is a noticeable lack of omnibus measures. There are several small-scale tools available for assessing single constructs (e.g., hope, gratitude, self-efficacy), but these only provide insight into isolated dimensions of positive youth development. Furthermore, of the omnibus measures available, all are rather lengthy (i.e., exceed 50 items), likely contributing to low feasibility and usage among school psychologists. The Patterns of Adaptive Learning Survey (PALS; Midgley & Maehr,1993), for example, tops out at 94 items. Another limitation of

these measures is that only a few assess school-specific constructs (e.g., academic self-efficacy, school connectedness), as opposed to general constructs (e.g., life-satisfaction, hope). Mindful of these limit-ations, and in our efforts to further advance ecological assessment, we have also under-taken initial steps towards creating an omnibus, brief, strength-based scale for measuring school-specific wellness factors.

While developing this school-specific scale, we have become aware of the lack of available measures and techniques for assessing other integral areas of students' ecologies (e.g., social-political environment and culture). Therefore, we strongly encourage others to undertake efforts to develop and validate these much-needed methods for students. Because for ecological assessment to be realized in school psych-ological service delivery, it will require more than just changing perspectives and using available yet underused methods; it will require creating new and viable methods, too.

Future Directions

Our efforts so far have established ecological assessment in contemporary theory (see Figure 2) and initiated the translation-to-practice process by formulating a loose compendium of ecological assessment methods (see Tables 1 and 2). We project that future directions of this project will be guided by a series of iterative and enterprising processes. For example, we expect to

Table 1. *Compendium of Ecological Assessment Methods*

System Level	Sub-Level	Measures and Techniques
Individual Developmental Expressions	*Physical Health*	• Traditional developmental history interview
	Behavioral, Social, & Emotional Functioning	• Traditional omnibus rating scales (BASC-II or ASEBA) • Adaptive behavior measures (Vineland, ABAS)
	Cognitive Ability	• Traditional cognitive abilities tests (DAS-II, KABC-II, WJ-III)
	Academic Achievement & Learning Skills	• Traditional achievement tests (WJ-III-A, WIAT-III) • Work samples • Classroom observations • Curriculum-based measurement (MAZE; Shinn, 1998)
	Personal Assets & Strengths	• Positive youth development measures (see Table 2) • Student/Teacher/Parent Assets Interviews (Morrison, et al., 2006) • Social-Emotional Assets and Resilience Scale (Merrell, 2008)
	Attributional Style	• Children's Attributional Style Questionnaire—Revised (Thompson et al., 1998)
Immediate Relationships & Environments	*Family*	• Self-Report Surveys (BASC-II, ASEBA) • Home observations • Student interviews • Home and Community Social Behavior Scales (Merrell et al., 1999)

Domain	Subdomain	Measures
	Peers	• Self-Report Surveys (BASC II, ASEBA) • Student Interview
	School	• ClassMaps Survey (Doll et al., 2009) • Academic self-efficacy (PALS Student and Teacher Reports) • California Healthy Kids Survey (CA Department of Education, 2009a) schoolwide report • California School Climate Survey (CA Department of Education, 2009b) schoolwide report • School Connectedness Scale (Resnick et al., 1997) • Teacher-Student Relationship Inventory (Ang, 2005)
Local Community Environment & Culture	*Extracurricular Activities*	• Student/teacher/parent/other caregiver interviews • Community observations
	Resources	• Family interview • Local statistics (see local agencies' online reports) • Community informant interviews
	Violence & Crime	• Local statistics (see local agencies' online reports) • Community informant interviews
	Beliefs & Norms	• Family interview • Community informant interviews
Social-Political Environment & Culture	*Oppression & Privilege*	• Perceived Racism Scale—Child (Nyborg & Curry, 2003) • National statistics (see government agencies' online reports)
	Stereotype & Stigma	• Social psychology findings (e.g., Brown & Pinel, 2003)
	In-Group vs. Out-Group	• Multigroup Ethnic Identity Scale and Other Group Orientation Scale (Phinney, 1992)

Table 2. *Compendium of Positive Youth Development Measures*

Measure	Authors
Gratitude Questionnaire-6	McCullough, Emmons, & Tsang, 2002
Youth Life Orientation Test	Ey et al., 2005
Children's Hope Scale	Snyder et al., 1997
VIA Inventory of Strengths for Youth	Park & Petersen, 2009
Patterns of Adaptive Learning Scales	Ross, Shannon, Salisbury-Glennon, & Guarino, 2001
Grit Scale	Duckworth, Peterson, Matthews, & Kelly, 2007
Social-Emotional Assets and Resilience Scales	Merrell, 2008
Subjective Vitality Scale	Ryan & Frederick, 1997
Psychological Sense of School Membership Scale	Goodenow, 1993
California Healthy Kids Survey: Resilience Youth Development Module	California Department of Education, 2009
Developmental Assets Profile	Search Institute, 2004
Multidimensional Student Life-Satisfaction Survey	Huebner, 2001
School Connectedness Scale	Resnick et al., 1997
Gratitude Adjective Checklist	McCullough & Tsang, 2002
Subjective Happiness Scale	Lyumbomirsky & Lepper, 1999

continually revise and thus create updated versions of both our current ecological systems model as well as our ecological methods compendium, refining them to be as sound, comprehensive, and user-friendly as possible. Moreover, we intend to undertake documented case studies for the purpose of validating the utility and exploring the social validity of an ecological approach towards assessment. This enterprising case-study process will then become iterative, as we will utilize findings to refine methods and then reapply them with further case studies. Beyond this, we also intend to enhance the translation-to-practice process by developing prevention-intervention methods that align with each of the system levels and their associated content areas. With a resource of this kind, practitioners could more effectively link ecological assessment results with ecological prevention and intervention strategies, facilitating a more comprehensive and effective approach to service delivery.

Implications for Practice

Obviously, ecological assessment should not be conceptualized as an end in itself. Our intent as school psychologists is not just intellectual: we do not seek to understand what factors are impeding and facilitating students' learning just for curiosity's sake. Rather, our intent is moral and action-oriented: we seek to understand such factors so that we might help students, if needed. Thus, ecological assessment should be viewed

as a medium for helping—a process for enhancing eligibility decision-making and prevention-intervention efforts. Given this viewpoint, ecological assessment has at least two major implications on the role of school psychologists as helpers.

First, because ecological systems theories conceptualize all students as integrated wholes who are constantly negotiating their lives within complex systems as well as with complex persons, ecological assessment requires a balanced focus on the adaptive and maladaptive development of the student of interest, significant persons surrounding that student, and the environments in which they all reside (Sameroff, 2000). In this way, school psychologists are freed from having to conceptualize disorders or psychopathology as existing solely within students; rather, they can be seen as relational problems between students and their contexts (Mash & Dozois, 2003). As a result, ecological assessment also allows school psychologists to maintain a dual focus on risk and resilience in students, so that they can utilize student strengths to promote more optimal functioning within non-optimal contexts. Thus, overall, ecological assessment facilitates an expansion and balancing of school psychological assessment.

Such an expanded scope of assessment is more likely to be maintained if school psychologists have an expanded repertoire of methodologies and technologies for linking assessment to intervention. Given this, the second implication of ecological assessment is that it allows school psychologists more

freedom and creativity in selecting prevention and intervention strategies. Because if maladaptive factors that are imbedded in students' developmental systems (e.g., poor parental supervision, lacking classroom management) are implicated in students' so-called pathology, then these factors, rather than just the students themselves, are also targets for intervention. Furthermore, when providing intervention to individual students, school psychologists can provide, integrate, and coordinate multiple types of interventions from multiple service providers that use multiple paradigms. For example, physicians, therapists, coaches, religious advisors, and community leaders could all be recruited to collaborate in student intervention, targeting different areas of ecology. In short, such latitude is possible because all of these modes and methods are subsumed within an ecological systems perspective (Mash & Dozois, 2003). This possibility facilitates a more potent school psychological service delivery—allowing for multiple, simul-taneous interventions to be undertaken at pivotal levels of students' ecologies—while allowing school psychologists to share intervention responsibility with significant caregivers.

Conclusion

In short, we are enamored with the potential of school psychology. We concur with Sheridan and Gutkin (2000) that "Perhaps more than any other discipline, [school psychology] is situated within an ecological frame and has unlimited opp-ortunities to [help] children, families, schools, and communities" (p. 499). However, we realize that such far-reaching potential often goes unrealized by school psychologists because of limited professional perspective toward assessment, contributing to rigid systems for prevention and intervention service delivery. Thus, the intent of our initial and future undertakings, described herein, are to help expand school psychologists' perspectives by advancing an ecological approach towards practice. Given that effective intervention and prevention efforts hinge on effective assessment, establishing the theory and general methods underlying ecological assessment for individual students is our first (but far from last) aim. Looking forward, we envision the creation of a spectrum of viable, ecologically-grounded practices for assessing and intervening at classroom and schoolwide levels, too. We envision an entire practice continuum that is built upon the "right science."

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RESEARCH REVIEW

Female Aggression: Risk and Protective Factors that Impact the Educational Experience

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Abstract. Research exploring aggression in females has only emerged within the last couple of decades. To date, critical findings regarding the nature and correlates of female aggression in comparison to male aggression have been revealed. However, there is still a salient need for more research investigating the risk and protective factors of aggressive females, to prevent aggression and promote more positive outcomes in the future. Given what is known, the purpose of this work is to review the risk and protective factors of aggressive females as related to their educational experiences. The implications of these findings for practitioners and educational professionals will be discussed herein.

Although research on aggression is prevalent in the field of psychology, it has only been within the past couple of decades that research has focused on the phenomenon of aggression amongst females, particularly relational aggression. In the past, researchers resisted the notion of female aggressiveness likely because it was inconsistent with the understanding of femininity and females (Richardson, 2005). It was only recently that we have begun to accept the idea that females can be aggressors. According to Crick et al. (2006), past studies on aggressive behavior have been limited in two ways: (1) boys have received most of the attention in studies while

aggressive girls have been excluded; and (2) the forms of aggression that are prevalent in females have been neglected while emphasis has been placed on male forms of aggression. Specifically, the literature has focused on more direct types of aggression (e.g., physical) over more indirect or covert types of aggression (e.g., relational). This is unfortunate because research has demonstrated that females are more likely to engage in relational aggression over physical aggression (e.g., Ostrov, Woods, Jansen, Casas, & Crick, 2004).

Much of the research examining aggression among females has focused on

describing the types of aggressive behavior within this population (e.g., Crick et al., 2006; Merrell, Buchanan & Tran, 2006). This has been essential in understanding and defining more indirect forms of aggression such as relational aggression. Given that much of the research has focused on males and more physical types of aggression, it is also important to determine the effects of the types of aggression that females are more likely to engage in, namely, relational aggression. Moreover, research needs to examine risk and protective factors for females involved in relational aggression, specifically because aggressive behaviors in childhood have been linked to later maladjustment (Fergusson & Horwood, 1998; Kupersmidt, Coie, & Dodge, 1990).

The focus of this review is to examine the risk and protective factors impacting the educational experience of aggressive females. Understanding relational aggression within the school context is important because the school setting is typically the first significant setting where a child learns social roles, expectations, hierarchies, and conflict within large groups (Merrell et al., 2006). Increased knowledge about relational aggression in schools may help to increase the positive experiences of aggressive females and those at-risk for developing aggressive behaviors. Thus, herein we review the risk and protective factors that impact the educational experience of females rated as aggressive and what educators can do to address relational aggression in the schools.

Relational Aggression

Before we can begin to discuss the risk and protective factors that influence the educational experience of aggressive females, we must gain an understanding of the form of aggression that is most typical of females. Though girls are as capable as boys in provoking and being provoked in terms of aggressive behaviors, relational aggression is the most prominent form of aggression found in females (Richardson, 2005). Relational aggression differs from physical aggression (e.g. hitting, punching, or pushing) in that it "involves the hostile manipulation of relationships and use of threats to control or dominate others" (Herrenkohl, McMorris, Catalano, & Abbott, 2007). A relationally aggressive youth will try to inflict harm on another through the use of words or unfriendly, nonphysical behaviors (Merrell et al., 2006). One possible explanation for females engaging in more relational aggress-ion than overt or physical aggression is that girls are socialized to abstain from outwardly expressing their emotions and refrain from engaging in confrontation and conflict (Putallaz et al., 2007). This research is mainly based on white middle class females, so it is unclear if it generalizes to ethnic minority females. Even so, research has found that African American females also show a greater tendency towards relational aggression and victimization over physical aggression (Putallaz et al.).

Risk and Protective Factors Impacting the Educational Experience

There is no consistent definition of a child's "educational experience" in the aggression literature. However, research examining the impact of aggression on school success generally includes grades, peer relationships, and office referrals as part of the educational experience. Therefore, for the purposes of this review, a child's educational experience is defined by their academic performance, classroom environment, and peer relations.

Academics are an important aspect of a child's educational experience because such performance can impact their future. Though extensive research has been conducted to examine the characteristics and factors that influence ones academic performance, there has been little research focused on the impact that aggression may have on a student's academics (Loveland, Lounsbury, Welsh, & Buboltz, 2007). The studies that have been conducted show noteworthy outcomes for youth rated aggressive by teachers and peers. Aggression has been linked to poor academic outcomes, including dropping out of school (French & Conrad, 2001) and higher levels of truancy compared to their nonaggressive peers (Lahey et al., 1999 and Farmer et al., 2003). Loveland et al. found that there is a negative correlation between aggressive youth and their grade point average (GPA), showing that the more aggressive a student was rated the more likely they were to have a low GPA. This puts children at-risk for poor long-term academic outcomes (e.g., students with low GPAs are less likely to enroll in higher education). The correlation between aggression and GPA further suggests that a person with a low GPA may be at a greater risk for aggressive tendencies.

Examining classroom environment is important to help understand differences in the relationships that relationally aggressive youth have with their teachers. The available research on student-teacher relationships and relational aggression suggests that teachers may not witness relationally aggressive behaviors or that they view relational aggression as a common characteristic of young females. Findings suggest that teachers and school administrators have a general attitude that interpersonal aggression, or meanness, is developmentally appropriate for middle school girls (Jeffrey et al., 2001). This may explain why some teachers do not feel that it is necessary to address relational aggression within their classrooms or the school (Yoon, Barton, & Taiariol, 2004). It is important that teachers understand the impact that relational aggression has on children involved in this behavior, particularly those who are both the instigators and the victims (i.e., bully-victims). Teachers have the potential to contribute to the protective factors that reduce the likelihood of some children engaging in aggressive behavior.

Research conducted by Ladd and Burgess (2001) determined that a positive student-teacher relationship can serve as a protective factor for children who are identified as either aggressive or at-risk for

behavioral problems. Further research has found that this protective factor is particularly salient for ethnic minority children (Meehan, Hughes, & Cavell, 2003). Unfortunately, researchers have often found that African American children, compared to their Caucasian peers, were less likely to be given some form of support in schools (Ladd & Burgess, 2001). The research available indicating that African American children tend to have less supportive student-teacher relationships has implications for how these students will fare in school. Moreover, a poor student-teacher relationship is a risk factor that can impact how the student views his or her educational experience.

In addition to the student-teacher relationship, peer relationships also play an important role in the educational experience. Peer relationships and friendships and the impact they have on children has been examined extensively in the literature. Research has indicated that girls who are rated as aggressive are at a greater risk for poor peer relationships. One study found that having positive peer relationships (e.g., peer acceptance, friendships) is an overall protective factor for youth (Criss, Pettit, Bates, Dodge, & Lapp, 2002). Interestingly, there is a paradox within the literature about aggressive children and their peer relation-ships. Research on the sociometric status of aggressive youth shows that these individuals tend to have social skill deficits and are more likely to be rejected by their peers (Rubin, Bukowski, & Parker, 1998). Yet other studies have found that youth with the most

aggressive behaviors tend to have large peer groups and associate with peers who are similar to themselves (Snyder, Horsch, & Childs, 1997). One possible explanation for this paradox is that there are both popular and unpopular aggressive youth (Farmer et al., 2003). An aggressive child who is viewed as rejected tends to be a member of a relatively small group composed of other low status peers. A non-rejected aggressive student tends to be a core member of deviant peer groups. This is consistent with the findings that physically aggressive girls tend to be members of peer groups that are largely composed of other physically aggressive and unpopular girls (Farmer et al., 2003).

Physically aggressive girls differ in the types of friendships they engage in compared to females who are relationally aggressive. A study by Grotpeter and Crick (1996) found a difference in the way that relationally aggressive females and physically aggressive females engage in peer relations within their circle of friends. The friendships of relationally aggressive children were found to have relatively high levels of intimacy, with more exclusivity and jealousy, and relational aggression was found to stay primarily within the bounds of friendship. This was in contrast to physically aggressive youth, whose friend-ships consisted of other overtly aggressive children and who collaboratively engaged in aggressive acts towards children who were not in their circle.

Throughout the literature, there is a noticeable link between aggression and friendship. It appears that aggressive youth

tend to be involved in friendships with other youths who are also rated as aggressive. Those aggressive youths may have friendships outside of their aggressive circle of friends, but that is dependent on if they are viewed as popular or unpopular with their peers. Popular aggressive youth are rated high in social prominence and social skills even though their peers do not like them; whereas, unpopular aggressive youths have a lower level of social prominence and social skills as rated by their peers (Farmer et al., 2003). However, both popular and unpopular aggressive youth tend to stay with peers who have a similar level of peer-perceived popularity. This suggests that peer relationships can serve as a risk factor rather than a protective factor. If aggressive youths are consistently engaged with other aggressive youths, this provides a schema that suggests aggression is an appropriate relationship tool for social interactions. Thus, some girls may be at risk for more aggressive behavior because they are being influence by peers who are aggressive or even more aggressive than they are.

Implications for Practitioners

Understanding the impact of relational aggression and potential risk and protective factors for youth involved in relational aggression is beneficial for school practitioners. School psychologists can help teachers and school administrators alleviate the maladjustment of aggressive females and promote awareness of relational aggression. There are few programs specifically targeting

relational aggression in youth (e.g., peer mediation programs and aggression replacement training) and there are some school-wide interventions that have been demonstrated to reduce relational aggression (e.g., Olweus' Anti-Bullying Program; see Crothers et. al., 2007 for a review). Additionally, there are prevention and intervention strategies that can be implemented as schools determine the need for a more targeted program. One of most important steps that school psychologists can take is to educate teachers and administrators on the signs of relational aggression and its effects on perpetrators and the victims (Yoon et al., 2004).

Based on the previous research examining the effects that teachers have on aggressive youth, if teachers can provide a supportive environment through encouragement, respect, and assistance while still insisting respect from the student, this can help aggressive youth in the classroom. It would also be beneficial to implement social skills groups that would help children to manage their feelings and establish positive relationships with their peers (Merrell et al., 2006). However, given that there is little known about the effects of relational aggression on students and how to best address relational aggression in schools, the effectiveness and social validity of such strategies is largely unevaluated. Therefore, there is a salient need for more focused research on relationally aggressive youth, the risk and protective factors that influence their lives, and further development of intervention strategies that can help these youth be successful in schools.

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RESEARCH REVIEW

Some Contemporary Issues and Key Findings about Bullying

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Abstract. Bullying has deleterious effects on children and school climates throughout the world. Because of this, it has become a major focus of both psychological and educational research. With an abundance of scholarship available, the purpose of this work is to highlight some contemporary issues and key findings about bullying. It is hoped that the information presented herein will be valuable for school psychologists and other educational professionals who are actively trying to understand, prevent, and intervene with bullying at their local school contexts.

In recent years, bullying has become a major focus of concern and research, both in academia as well as main-stream society. Innumerable studies have been conducted in an effort to understand and curb this complex phenomenon, with limited success. More work is still needed, and new scholarship in this area is occurring on an ongoing basis. Given this, the purpose of this paper is to provide a general overview of some contemporary issues related to bullying, for the purpose of identifying future directions for scholarship and implications for practice. Specifically, issues regarding (a) understanding and defining bullying, (b) new developments in cyberbullying, (c) the psychosocial repercussions of bullying, (d) effects on all involved parties, and (e) characteristics of bullies and victims will be reviewed and discussed herein.

Understanding and Defining Bullying

Given that the construct of bullying is so widely researched, it is interesting to note that no one definition of bullying has been accepted, although several permeations on similar ideas are approaching a thorough definition. For example, Nansel et al. (2001) asserted that bullying is aggressive behavior or intentional "harm doing" by one person or

a group, generally carried out repeatedly, over time, and involving a power differential. Similarly, Stephenson and Smith (1989) were among the first to contend that bullying is a type of social interaction wherein a more dominant individual demonstrates aggressive behavior(s) intending to and actually inflicting distress upon a less dominant individual. The aggressive actions can take the form of direct physical and/or verbal assault, or they may be indirect and more covert. Patchin and Hinduja (2006) suggest there may be a developmental component to the bullying process. The authors describe the first stages of bullying as similar to harassment, where unprovoked aggressive acts are directed at a particular individual or group. Furthermore, they depict later stages of bullying more closely resemble physical or psychological violence directed by an individual (or group of individuals) at a person who is not able to defend him/herself.

Under the broad umbrella of bullying, research has emerged proposing two forms of peer bullying: *overt* and *relational* victimization (Storch, Zelman, Sweeny, Danner, & Dove, 2002). Initially, overt bullying (obvious and possibly physical) was considered the only type; however, more recently, relational aggression has been considered a form of bullying. Cullerton-Sen and Crick (2005, p. 148) operationally defined relational victimization as "the experience of being directly or indirectly excluded or socially manipulated by individuals who intentionally use their relationship with the victim as the vehicle for harming (e.g., being ignored or excluded

from play groups by friends or peers; being told 'I don't like you, you're not my friend anymore')." Moreover, Crick and Grotpeter (1995) defined relational aggression as harming others through purposeful manipulation and damage of their peer relationships. While both males and females partake in physical and relational aggression, research suggests that relational aggression occurs more frequently in girls than boys (Crick, 1996; Crick & Grotpeter; Grotpeter & Crick, 1996). Despite the research that has been conducted with regards to bullying, the problem remains difficult to define and understand. Because the methods and dynamics in bullying relationships are continuously evolving, research is ongoing and bullying remains a top concern for many school psychologists. One recent example of a trend in bullying and relational aggression, termed cyber-bullying, has gained a great deal of attention in the media as well as research literature.

New Developments with Bullying and Technology: Cyberbullying

With the increasing technological nature of society, bullying is also becoming more technologically driven. Bullies are now utilizing technology as "additional mediums over which they can manifest their malice" (Patchin & Hinduja, 2006, p. 150). Because cyber-bullying is a relatively new trend, there is burgeoning research attempting to define, assess, and understand the nuances

of this particular form of aggression. For example, a survey of 269 secondary students in Turkey was conducted to understand students' experience of and coping strategies for dealing with cyberbullying (Aricak, Siyahhan, Uzunhasanoglu, Saribeyoglu, Ciplak, Yilmaz, et al., 2008). The authors developed a 21-item instrument, called the *Questionnaire of Cyberbullying,* to measure students' engagement in and exposure to harassing behaviors online, reasons for using technological devices such as computers and cell phones, and types of bullying experienced. The results of this study indicated that more boys than girls were cyber-bullies, cyber-victims, and cyber-bully-victims. Additionally, 35.7% of the students displayed bully behaviors, 23.8% of the students displayed bully-victim behaviors, and only 5.9% of the students reported that they were pure victims. In response to cyberbullying, 25% of the students reported telling their peers and parents about the incident, and 30.6% of the students reported utilizing proactive solutions such as blocking the harasser.

In an effort to understand the nature and prevalence of cyber-bullying, DeHue, Bolman, and Vollnik (2008) surveyed 1,211 early adolescents and their parents. The two surveys were developed based on the literature and questions from existing surveys. The researchers collected data regarding background characteristics of the adolescents, their knowledge of computers, and the prevalence and methods used in bullying or being bullied. In addition, the surveys assessed the situation or place where the bullying occurred, reactions of the victim, whether anyone had tried to intervene, the anonymity of the bully, and sex of the victim. Similar to other studies (Aricak et al., 2008), these findings indicated that about 16% of students had engaged in bullying via the internet and text messaging, and about 23% of students reported to be victims. The authors concluded that cyber-bullying seems to be a relatively anonymous and individualistic activity that primarily occurs at home. Most frequently, however, findings indicated that bullying consisted of name-calling and gossiping. Additionally, adolescents reported reacting to bullying by ignoring it, pretending to ignore it, or retaliating. Finally, parents reported being unaware of harassments and underestimated the extent of their child's bullying behaviors.

Furthermore, Smith and colleagues (2008) sought to determine the differential impact of the internet versus other forms of media technology, such as text messaging, on levels of cyber-bullying. To measure this, the researchers used a questionnaire, partly based on Olweus' Bully/Victim questionnaire, in two survey sessions and focus groups. For the first survey group, a definition of bullying was provided, followed by a statement about cyberbullying as including seven types of media technology: text messaging, pictures/video clips, phone calls, email, chat rooms, instant messaging, and websites. Another two items were included regarding whether the participant had experienced bullying of any kind, and specifically cyberbullying, within

the last two months. Multiple-choice questions regarding each of the seven media types were presented in regards to how frequently they had been bullied or had bullied others using that medium. Following, the focus groups and a second survey were used to get a more in depth idea about how harmful the students perceived bullying—and specifically cyber-bullying—to be. The results of the study indicated that one or a few students perpetuated the majority of cyber-bullying that occurred and that incidents typically lasted about a week (but sometimes much longer). Additionally, being a cyber-victim, but not a cyber-bully, correlated with internet use. Focus group participants recommended blocking, avoiding messages, and telling someone as effective methods to ameliorate the situation; however, most cyber-victims did not report the incidents. The often anonymous nature of cyber-bullying, and other difficulties associated with reporting different types of bullying, can amplify the harmful effects of bullying as outlined below.

Negative Outcomes Associated with Bullying

Bullying has many deleterious effects for both bullies and victims. Barker et al. (2008) examined the trajectories of bullying and victimization in early to mid-adolescence, in an effort to understand the links between victimization and self-harm. The sample consisted of 3,932 adolescents between 13-16 years-old, who reported levels of bullying, victimization, delinquency and self-harm. Participants were involved in the Edinburgh Study of Youth Transitions and Crime in Scotland. Measures of bullying and victimization were developed based on the Scottish and English Crime Surveys, and consisted of five items asking students whether they had bullied someone by hitting or spitting, "slagging" or name calling, threatening, ignoring or excluding, or recruiting someone else to bully. Students also rated the frequency with which they engage in these behaviors, and a composite score was used to determine levels of bullying. Similarly, four questions assessed the extent of victimization by asking whether the student had been bullied by being attacked, "slagged" or called names, threatened, ignored or excluded. A composite score, based on the frequency with which students experienced these situations, was then used to determine level of victimization. The results indicated that, over time, victimization increased the likelihood of involvement in bullying to a greater extent than bullying increased the likelihood of victimization. Additionally, the bullies and bully/victims were highest in mid-adolescent delinquency. In particular, girls who were high on the bullying and victimization scales were at highest risk for mid-adolescent self-harm.

Based on the loosely supported link between being bullied and suicidal ideation, Herba et al. (2008) designed a study that examined whether parental psychopathology and feelings of rejection exacerbate suicide

vulnerability in victims of bullying. The authors looked at both pure victims and bully-victims. Data was taken from a larger study entitled Tracking Adolescents' Individual Lives Scale (TRAILS), which follows cohorts of preadolescents every two or three years until at least 21 years-old. Participants included 1,526 Dutch children recruited from both rural and urban areas in northern Netherlands. To determine bully and/or victim status, children were presented with a list of their classmates and indicated which individuals had bullied them and which children they had bullied. No definition of bullying was provided to the children. The results of this study demonstrated that parental internalizing disorders and feelings of rejection at home moderated (increased) the association between victimization and suicidal ideation, specifically within pure victims. Additionally, the authors noted that bully-victims did not report higher levels of suicidal ideation compared to uninvolved children, and there were no overall sex differences in suicidal ideation.

In addition to psychological and social repercussions, it seems that bullying and victimization are also associated with poorer health and somatic complaints. For example, Gobina and colleagues (2008) analyzed data from a cross-sectional survey of approx-imately 9,000 eleven to fifteen-year-olds in Latvia and Lithuania. The authors sought to determine the prevalence of bullying and its association with health complaints, self-rated level of health, and life satisfaction. Bullying experience was measured by the following

two questions taken from the questionnaire used in the Health Behaviour Study among School-aged Children: (1) "How often have you been bullied at school in the past couple of months?" and (2) "How often have you taken part in bullying another student(s)?" Respondents were then classified as (a) neither bullies nor victims, (b) pure victims, (c) pure bullies, and (d) bullies/victims. Following, they were asked to rate their general health (i.e., excellent, good, fair, poor) and frequency of health complaints (e.g., headaches) in the last six months. Finally, life satisfaction was measured using the ten steps of Cantril's ladder, which asks students to indicate at what step of the ladder they would place their current lives. For students involved in bullying behavior, the largest proportion consisted of pure victims.

Generally, the authors concluded that having experience with bullying as either a victim, bully, or victim/bully is associated with a higher likelihood of poorer subjective health, frequent health complaints, and lower life satisfaction. Consistent with other research, the most vulnerable appeared to be bully/victims. School psychologists should make efforts to be aware of students who experience and engage in bullying behaviors, especially those who remain involved for long periods of time. Although it sounds simple, identifying individuals involved in bullying can prove quite challenging, as there is no one group who are consistently victims. For this reason, it is important to examine the prevalence at which bullying occurs across different groups.

Youth's Involvement in Bullying

Bullying is a phenomenon experienced in many different age groups and countries around the world. Wong and colleagues (2008) conducted a survey of 7,025 Chinese children in primary school. The authors held ten focus groups including students, teachers, and administrators in order to create a culturally appropriate questionnaire. This questionnaire included nine subsections: (1) feelings toward a harmonious school; (2) definition of bullying behavior; (3) acceptance of bullying behavior; (4) frequency of bullying and immediate reactions; (5) frequency of and reasons for bullying others; (6) frequency of being bullied and immediate reactions; (7) teacher and parent reactions upon report; (8) children's contact with violent values; and (9) their relationships with teachers, parents, siblings and peers. Finally, researchers assessed participants' demographics, including sex, age, and place of birth. The researchers found that 24% of respondents had physically bullied another child. Fifty-six percent of children also reported that when they observed school bullying, they immediately reported it to teachers, while another 20% tried to intervene in bullying directly. Factors associated with bullying included coming from an adverse psychosocial background and having more exposure to violence via association with deviant peers and exposures to the mass media.

Furthermore, Bradshaw, Sawyer, and O'Brennan (2007) conducted a study involving perceived prevalence and frequency of bulling from the perspectives of both students and teachers. The results indicated that over 49% of students reported being bullied at school at least once during the past month, and approximately 30% of students admitted that they had bullied others. Interestingly, school staff seem to contribute to the problem of bullying, as over 13% of staff felt that bullying was a normal developmental experience. School personnel who agreed with this statement were also likely to think that they would make bullying situations worse if they were to intervene. This may be part of the problem; both students and staff may have little faith in the ability of a teacher to ameliorate a bullying situation. Similar to previous studies, the results also indicated that both middle school students and staff reported the highest incidence rates of bullying, compared to high school or elementary students and staff (Bradshaw, Sawyer, & O'Brennan). This is corroborated by other authors: research by Olweus and others demonstrated that the prevalence of frequent involvement in bullying appears to increase in late elementary school, peak during middle school, and decline in high school (Olweus, 1993). Additional research is needed to determine whether this is a true developmental progression or a function of school personnel perceiving bullying as a normative developmental experience.

In addition to pre-school and school-age students, it appears that bullying occurs among adults—particularly in the workplace.

In an effort to determine the best way to identify individuals who are victims of workplace bullying, Notlaers and colleagues (2006) conducted a study to address the construct and predictive validity of the *Negative Acts Questionnaire,* by comparing latent class analyses and operational criteria. To do this, the authors used a latent cluster approach to model workplace bullying. The present study aimed to analyze the validity of the six clusters identified, as opposed to dichotomized bullied or non-bullied groups. The 6,175 respondents were employed in 18 various Belgian organizations. Participants responded to the *Negative Acts Questionnaire* and a widely used and validated Dutch questionnaire assessing symptoms of work stress. Analyses identified three distinct groups of potential targets, which differed in terms of frequency and nature of reported bullying. Among these groups, when people were more frequently exposed to several bullying behaviors, more stress and strain was reported. Bullying occurs at a very high prevalence among a variety of ages, cultures, and other populations. Logically, because of this high occurrence, it seems relevant to investigate who does the bullying, why, and what can be done about it.

Characteristics of Bullies and Victims

Dowdney (1993) outlined several typologies of bullies and their victims. Those listed include the well-known groups of bullies, victims, and bully-victims, but also several groups that have been the focus of less research. *Popular bullies* is one such group. Dowdney asserts that this group of children has received less attention because they do not cause as many difficulties for adults in authority. Popular bullies are often found in younger age groups, where aggression is more common, and their bullying does not provoke dislike or rejection from other children. Popular bullies appear to assert their power in an appealing manner, and often in a leadership capacity. There are mixed theories about whether these children go on to become unpopular teens or they are able to adapt their leadership skills to prosocial outlets. Secondly, bully-gangs, or peer groups that challenge adult values and value aggression and dominance, are often disliked by the majority of students but derive shared values and support from within their own group (Dowdney). These children are less likely to have empathy for victims, and use aggression as a means to get what they want or punish others. Peripheral bullies include anxious or isolated children who associate themselves with bullies in an effort to gain social acceptance (Dowdney). Although not as serious in itself, these children partake in the process of devaluing peers and create the context for further bullying.

There is some evidence of a biological link to bulling and victimization. In order to better understand the influence of genetic and environmental factors on bullies, victims, and bully-victims, Ball and colleagues (2008) collected mother and teacher reports of bullying and victimization among a cohort of

Table 1. *Implications for Practice: Addressing Bullying at School*

1. Bullying is a significant issue that has many deleterious effects on:

    a. Overall school climate
    b. Bullies, victims, bully-victims, and bystanders

2. Assessment and intervention efforts must go beyond bullies and victims; bystanders also have a major role in perpetuating or escalating violence

3. School psychologists must work to educate teachers and students about the issue; it is not a normative developmental experience, and teachers and bystanders can help.

4. Advances in technology provide new platforms from which aggressive acts can be launched; prosocial and anti-bullying campaigns must consider the multitude of media accessible to children and adolescents.

1,116 families with ten-year-old twins. Participants were part of the Environmental Risk Longitudinal Twin Study, drawn from a larger list of twins born in England and Wales. The researchers asked mothers whether another child had bullied either twin since they were five years old, and mothers responded never, yes, or frequently. Bullying was assessed using the *Child Behavior Checklist* (Achenbach, 2000) with both mothers and teachers. As with typical twin study methodology, the concordance of a particular trait within pairs of monozygotic and dizygotic twins is used to evaluate the relative influence of genetic and environmental factors on the trait. In this study, 12% percent of children were severely bullied, 13% were frequent bullies, and 2.5% were frequent bully-victims. Genetic factors accounted for 73% of the variation in victimization and 61% of the variation in bullying. The remaining variance was explained by environmental factors not shared between the twins. Finally, there was evidence of some genetic influence on both victimization and bullying. The results of this study indicate that both genetic endowments and surrounding environments influence categorization as bullies, victims, and bully-victims.

Conclusion and Future Directions

Recently, there has been extensive media coverage of high-profile school vio-

lence and bullying incidents. Undoubtedly, the public is beginning to understand the pervasive detrimental effects of bullying; however, much information about the causes, nuances, and prevention/intervention efforts remains to be researched and publicly disseminated. A burgeoning of research grew out of the 1990s and early 2000s. However, as is evident from this literature review, more work needs to be done, particularly in the areas of assessment and intervention efforts.

In order to provide the best services to the students they work with, school psychologists and other professionals must remain aware of the current research trends in this important area. As is evident from this review, bullying, harassment, and victimization permeate many schools and other organizations around the world. Especially given the new mediums by which bullies can reach their victims, bullying may be harder to detect than ever before. Further complicating the problem, victims are often reluctant to step forward for fear of further isolation and retribution. In light of the most recent bullying research, practitioners are implored to be proactive in their efforts. A table is provided outlining some key implications for practiced gleaned from this review of some recent literature. As outlined therein, prevention, early intervention, and outreach are of key importance.

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RESEARCH REVIEW

Developmental Factors Contributing to Maladaptive Behavior and ADHD in Adolescence

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Abstract. Self-regulation, peer relationships, and aggression are three of many developmental components that have been implicated in the maladaptive behavior of youth in adolescence. These three factors are also implicated in youth with ADHD, who experience many deleterious outcomes similar to youth with general maladaptive behavior. Given this, the purpose of this work is to briefly review these three components of development and discuss implications for practitioners working with such youth in school settings.

Adolescence is a period of biological, psychological, and social change. It is a passageway from childhood into adulthood. The metamorphous that takes place is influenced by many biological and environmental factors that are interacting within context. Many positive developmental expressions can occur during adolescence, launching young people onto a positive developmental trajectory as they enter adulthood. However, it is also a time of great concern for many young people who suffer from adverse conditions that may lead to deleterious outcomes. Indeed, a long history of research on adverse factors leading to harmful outcomes has been well documented (Berger et al., 2007).

Research findings generally suggest that certain individuals get entangled in deleterious development as a result of individual differences transacting with unfortunate contextual circumstances. Thus, a dynamic systems approach that considers the developmental risk factors contributing to maladaptive behavior will generally underlie the findings reviewed herein. Given this, the purpose of this work is to briefly review three key components contributing to maldaptive behavior during adolescence—self-regulation, peer relationships, and aggression— as well as the contributing factors to Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD). Although such factors may seem to be presented in isolation, it is important to be

cognizant of the complex contexts in which they are likely to develop. Furthermore, implications for the prevention of such deleterious behaviors and the promotion of more positive developmental outcomes will then be discussed, with a focus on how to effectively intervene with youth diagnosed with ADHD.

Self-Regulation

Berger and colleagues (2007) argue that poor self-regulation is a key element associated with risky and maladaptive behaviors in adolescence. Self-regulation is a complex concept with many implications, but it can be generally characterized as a continually developing capability that is influenced by genetic predisposition and environmental contextual factors. Such a capability is multi-functional in that it monitors and modulates cognition, emotion, and behavior as an adaptation to cognitive and specific social demands (Berger et al.). Self-regulation begins in early infancy as egocentric and then develops more sensitivity to social input. The ability to self-regulate continues to develop throughout young adulthood (Steinberg, 2008). Research findings generally reveal that a significantly underdeveloped ability to self-regulate is connected with increasingly risky behavior during adolescence, which can last until early adulthood. Some have connected such increases in maladaptive behaviors in adolescence and their waning in adulthood as

evidence of changes in the self-regulation, as evidenced by structural, functional, and neurological studies (Steinberg).

Peer Relationships

Beyond self-regulation, another important component of adolescent development is peer relationships. Having friends is generally associated with better well-being across the life span, but such well-being is dependent on the quality of the friendships (Hartup & Stevens, 1997). Although peer relationships begin very early in development, they become more salient and influential during adolescence. Harris (1995) even suggested that peer influence shapes an individual's personality and facilitates transmission of culture more than parental influence. This seems plausible given that peer interaction linearly increases from childhood to adolescence, while interaction with adult companions declines during the same period. Friendship is a dynamic process that changes from rudimentary interactions in early childhood to more reciprocal, committed and intimate at late adolescence. With more sophisticated language development and more social experiences, adolescents seek peers that are more similar to them and evaluate peer companionship based on more intricate criteria (Hartup & Stevens). Such peer selection can have both negative and positive outcomes on adolescents, as longitudinal research has consistently indicated that antisocial and deviant peers have

significant influences on youth's maladaptive behavior and developmental trajectories in early adulthood.

Aggression

Although adolescents generally increase their social interaction with their peers, not all relationships are necessarily positive. For instance, one relatively consistent trait associated with peer differentiation and rejection is aggression (Steinberg, 2008). Aggression is more prevalent in younger children and declines with age; but for some children, it persists and leads to greater peer rejection in adolescence. For boys, chronic aggression persists more stably and is associated with poorer academic performance, greater peer rejection, delinquent acts, and non-violent offending than hyperactivity or defiance (Broidey et al., 2003). Furthermore, a pattern begins to emerge between early chronic aggression and poor adolescent peer relationships, leading to peer exclusion and future delinquency. This begs an important question about the origin and nature of this common relation. Further investigation into predispositions toward chronic aggression in early childhood could support early interventions to mediate such a trajectory. As, Berger and colleagues suggested (2007), some children may have an underdeveloped self-regulating cognitive and neural mechanisms, perpetuating them toward greater likelihood of poor peer outcomes and higher

aggression levels during adolescence. Thus, there appears to be a transactional relations between these three key developmental components discussed herein.

The maladaptive development of self-regulation, peer relationships, and aggression throughout childhood can lead to more severe and more frequent maladaptive and risky behavior in adolescence. Furthermore, the development of these three components has also been implicated in youth with Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD). Given the increasing prevalence of ADHD diagnoses among youth, resulting in an increased need for school psychologists and educational professionals to understand the nature of and be prepared to intervene with youth with such symptoms, the remainder of this work will highlight the nature of this disorder and implications for practitioners.

ADHD

ADHD is a neurodevelopmental disorder characterized by detrimental levels of inattention, hyperactivity, and impulsivity (American Psychiatric Association, 2000). This disorder is prevalent in 3-7% of school-aged children. In addition to the core symptoms of inattention, hyperactivity, and impulsivity, ADHD is also significantly linked with peripheral symptoms such as poor social skills and poor academic performance (Barkley, 2006). Furthermore, ADHD is not a heterogeneous disorder. Currently, there are three subtypes: primarily inattentive type (PI),

primarily hyperactive-impulsive type (HI), and a combined type (CT). In addition to the core and peripheral symptoms, up to 70% of those diagnosed with ADHD have an accompanied comorbid disorders (e.g., oppositional defiant disorder, conduct disorder, depression, and anxiety; MTA Cooperative Group, 1999). Despite the abundance of research conducted regarding ADHD, there is no identified etiology; but several pathways have been implicated that involve predominately genetic and environmental factors. Furthermore, ADHD has been recognized to persist well into adolescence and even into adulthood (Barkley).

Research has indicated that adolescents with ADHD engage in more risky behaviors than their peers (Barkley, 2006). Some of these behaviors include cigarette smoking (Tercyak, Lerman, & Audrain, 2002), risky driving (Reimer et al., 2005), general deviancy (Marshal, Molina, & Pelham, 2003), risky sexual behavior (Flory et al., 2006), risky decision-making (Drechsler, Rizzo, & Steinhausen, 2008), and other aggressive behaviors (Richards, Drechsler, & Raosen, 2002). Moreover, chronic physical aggression was found to be stable for 7% of participants in one study (Broidy et al., 2003). Because ADHD is prevalent in 3-7% of school- age children and is accompanied by externalized and internalized comorbidity, there could be a link between the stability of chronic aggression, antisocialism, and ADHD. Similar to other youth with aggression problems, adolescents with ADHD are even more likely to exper-

ience peer rejection. Furthermore, also similar to aforementioned youth, at least four decades of research has consistently documented social and academic skills deficit among children and adolescents with ADHD. Findings suggest that they also experience sever impairment in their peer relationships, having fewer friends and less quality friendships (Barkley). However, because ADHD is not a homogenous disorder, some affected children (i.e., those with PI-type symptoms) have been documented to have better social skills and more quality friendships than others (i.e., those with CT-type symptoms). ,However, these youth also tend to suffer from more internalized disorders, such as depression and anxiety, that may inhibit their drive to make friends (Nigg, 2007).

Beyond being hampered socially and having underdeveloped self-regulation typified by poor behavioral inhibition, externalized impulsivity, and internalized anxiety and depression, youth with ADHD also tend to congregate with deviant peers (Marshal et al., 2003). Specifically, "Several decades of research, mostly with boys, show that children with ADHD have psychosocial functioning deficits that place them at higher risk for failure in conventional social circles, which could cause them to gravitate toward nonconventional peer groups" (p. 294). This is a negative peer dynamic in which 'birds of feather flock together.' Ultimately, the developmental trajectories of youth with ADHD is shaped by similar social and developmental difficulties as youth with maladaptive behavior problems, and thus

these youth tend to view themselves similar and have similar values when choosing peers —often resulting in groups of peers exhibiting antisocial behavior. Indeed, "Peers are thought to supply the adolescent with the attitudes, motivations, and rationalizations to support antisocial behavior as well as providing opportunities to engage in specific delinquent acts (Patterson, DeBarshe, & Ramsey, 1989, p. 331)." Considering this, there is a salient need for prevention and intervention efforts to help reroute such youth's maladaptive development and promote more positive development in the future.

Implications for Practice

As described herein, for some youth adolescence is a period of increased maldaptive behavior and sensation seeking, resulting in adverse outcomes. Furthermore, teenagers with ADHD are at an even greater risk than their peers for deleterious outcomes. A dynamic model of neurodevelopmental and environmental context factors are implicated in the tendency of ADHD peers to attract one another further enhancing the opportunities to engage in risky and antisocial behavior. Although the state of knowledge of such dynamic interaction is still far from clear, there are important implications for treatment and future research.

There are currently three types of evidence-based treatments for intervening with youth with ADHD (MTA Cooperative Group, 1999). These treatments include medications (mostly stimulants), psychosocial therapy, and the combination of the two. As aforementioned, ADHD is linked to diverse symptoms. Most treatment studies are evaluated for their efficacy on core symptoms of inattention, hyperactivity, and impulsivity. For these symptoms, the most effective mode of treatment is medications. Research suggests that medications generally ameliorate core symptoms of ADHD for 70% of persons with ADHD (Barkley, 2006). Furthermore, some youth also respond to non-stimulant medication, indicating that medication, overall, may be effective for 90% of persons with ADHD. The MTA study on ADHD (1999), however, which is the largest longitudinal study on treatment efficacy ever conducted, revealed that the combination of psychosocial treatment and medication treatment was best for those with extreme comorbidity. Psychosocial treatments were significantly effective for those with the PI-type and those with internalizing comorbidity (Barkley).

What is yet known, however, is if such treatments are equally effective in ameliorating peripheral symptoms of ADHD, such as poor social skills and academic performance. These as well as other comorbidities, such as low self-esteem, are not well targeted by these medications and most psychosocial treatments used to intervene with ADHD. For instance, the 36-month follow up to the original MTA study (1999) revealed that the aforementioned evidence-based treatments were ineffective in addressing peripheral symptoms as outlined

by parent, teacher, and academic reports (MTA Cooperative Group, 2007). Furthermore, whatever gains stimulant medications had on core symptoms, dissipated by the third year. Specifically, study reviewers documented that treatment efficacy began to decline after 24 months. This is an unfortunate outcome and calls for more investigation for better treatment that will be long lasting, safe, and addresses both core and peripheral symptoms. Considering this, practitioners should be carefully communicate both the possible benefits and risks of such treatments to families. Moreover, they should recommend other interventions that target the peripheral symptoms that plague such youth—seeking to enhance their self- and peer-relationships.

School psychologists and other educational professionals can coordinate and assist in th prevention-intervention process by identifying and implementing evidenced-based treatments and using high-integrity progress monitoring for youth who are either experiencing maladaptive behavior problems or are diagnosed with ADHD. The training and expertise of school psychologists makes them ideal for facilitating interventions that involve the students, teachers, and parents. Furthermore, schools are an ideal place to identify and progress-monitor such youth because of the proximity of service providers and the accessibility of the child of interest. Given the interrelation between self-regulation, peer relationships, aggression, and academic performance, it is expected that prevention and intervention efforts in these

areas will have pivotal effects on how youth perform in school. Thus, interventions efforts for such youth may have long-lasting effects —above and beyond just improving behavior.

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LESSONS FROM THE FIELD

Implementation of a Service Learning Requirement at Loyola University Chicago: Lessons Learned

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The school psychology program at Loyola University Chicago (LUC) has, as part of its mission, a commitment to social justice. However, it seems as though social justice is difficult to define within the field of school psychology (Lombardo & Shriberg, 2009; Shriberg, Bonner, Sarr, Walker, Hyland, & Chester, 2008). It is often easier to provide examples of social injustice than to describe what social justice looks like. Although LUC's school psychology program has a focus on social justice, prior to this year, students in the program did not engage in field experiences designed to promote awareness of social justice, such as volunteerism. A service learning requirement exists, but the required hours are spent administering curriculum-based measurements (CBMs), shadowing school psychologists, and visiting schools. While these activities provide students with exposure to schools and to the field of school psychology, they do not seem to promote an awareness of social justice issues. In addition, these hours are simply logged as part of a portfolio assessment, and a short reflection paper is required. There is no structured avenue for ongoing discussion or reflection.

As part of my specialty practicum, I piloted a community service requirement for first–year students in the school psychology program. The 100 required hours of service learning were re-divided so that community service hours would comprise between 25 and 50 hours. The remaining 50 were comprised of administering CBMs and other activities within schools. Prior to beginning this project, I administered surveys to students in the program to determine what types of activities (e.g., mentoring, crisis counseling) and characteristics of social service agencies (e.g., distance from home, availability of parking) they preferred. The results of these surveys were used to develop a list of agencies in the area that would be a good fit for Loyola graduate students, and these agencies were contacted to establish rapport. The contact

information for these agencies was provided to the first-year students, but they were also allowed to seek approval to complete their hours at a location of their choosing.

After the students completed their community service hours, a survey was administered to obtain feedback regarding their experiences. The survey consisted of sixteen closed-ended questions evaluating issues related to the clarity of their understanding of social justice issues and their attitudes regarding the community service experiences they chose. In addition, there was one open-ended question asking for suggestions for improvement. Based on their responses, the following lessons were learned:

1. Some students chose agencies based on convenience—they were already volunteering there, or the agency was close to their home or to public transportation. Since many of the students live either in middle-class neighborhoods, the city, or suburbs, the population served by the agencies in those areas may not be rep-resentative of those most in need of assistance. Descriptive data analysis (one-way analysis of variance) revealed that students who had challenged themselves to work with a population that was outside of their "comfort zone" reported higher levels of satisfaction with the experience.

2. Students were informed of the community service requirement at the student orientation in August, and had until the end of March to complete the required 100 service learning hours and reflection paper. One student commented that if students had been given more time, they might have been less likely to make choices based on convenience. A few students commented that they had begun volunteering early in the school year and saw a benefit in spreading the hours over the course of a year.

3. Although there was a brief reflection paper required at the time of completion of the service learning hours, this paper was not specific to the community service hours, and students did not have the opportunity to discuss their community service experiences as they relate to the topic of social justice. Some ongoing reflection in the form of journaling or in-class discussion would have been helpful.

4. If the school psychology program values social justice advocacy, it would be beneficial to incorporate the community service requirement into a course on social justice. This course might present topics such as models of social justice, characteristics of advocates, ethics in the field of school psychology, and ways to foster home-school-community partnerships.

Overall, students reported that they enjoyed their service experiences and believed they will be beneficial to them as a school psychologist. The feedback from the students also appears to support what the literature suggests—that community service should be integrated with a semester- or year-long course that utilizes self-reflection as a tool to increase multicultural competency (e.g. Burnett, Hamel, & Long, 2004; Burnett, Long, & Horne, 2005). The current goal is to develop such a course here at LUC within the next few years. The course will include instruction regarding models of social justice and social justice advocacy skills, as well as a service learning component.

In the meantime, beginning this summer, several changes will be implemented: (a) Incoming students will be asked to read several articles on social justice over the summer, and faculty members will incorporate at least one of these articles into their courses. (b) Students will only be able to count towards the requirement service hours completed at specific agencies; these agencies will be chosen during the summer based on feedback from this year's cohort and likelihood that the agency provides services to a population that might be outside of students' comfort zones. (c) Ongoing opportunities for reflection (in the form of journaling and discussion) will be provided during classes. A third-year doctoral student will facilitate discussions that relate the students' service experiences to social justice and to one of the primary topics covered in each course (e.g., legal issues or data-based decision-making). It is hoped that these changes will result in increased awareness of social justice issues and multicultural counseling competency in our students.

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PERSPECTIVES

Student Engagement:
What it is and Why it's Important

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Student engagement is a construct that resonates with most stakeholders in the education arena. It is a primary variable in understanding dropout, particularly as a gradual process operating in a student's life and influencing that final decision to withdraw (Finn, 1989; Jimerson, Renshaw, Stewart, Hart, & O'Malley, 2009). It is also highly correlated with both health comp-romising (e.g., substance abuse, depression, suicidality, aggression) and health promoting (e.g., exercise, nutrition, safe sex activities; Carter, McGee, Taylor, & Williams, 2007) behaviors.

In comparison to such static pre-dictors of deleterious outcomes as socio-economic status (SES), student en-gagement is believed to be a malleable characteristic and therefore a more appro-priate focus for interventions (Sinclair, Christenson, Lehr, Anderson, 2003). In addition, studies have demonstrated that it may even protect students from the risk associated with those static, status variables (e.g., SES, ethnicity; Finn & Rock, 1997; Ladd & Dinella, 2009).

Indicators and Facilitators
of Student Engagement

While most educators agree that student engagement is a vital predictor of important outcomes, there has been confusion in the field as to exactly what student engagement *is*. Several recent reviews have focused on defining this construct, setting the stage for future scholarship (e.g., Appleton, Christenson, & Furlong, 2008; Fredricks, Blumenfeld, & Paris, 2004; Jimerson, Campos, & Greif, 2003). This new definition includes three major characteristics or indicators of student engagement: affective, behavioral, and cognitive. Affective engage-ment encompasses a student's feelings about school, learning, teachers, or peers (Jimerson et al., 2003). Behavioral engagement includes

observable action or per-formance and is investigated through a student's positive conduct, effort, and participation (Fredricks et al., 2004). Finally, cognitive engagement refers to the cognitive processing a student brings to academic tasks as well as the amount and type of strategies a student utilizes (Walker, Greene, & Mansell, 2006).

In addition to these indicators, several variables act as facilitators of student engagement. Appleton and colleagues (2008) emphasize the distinction between indicators and facilitators, stating that indicators "… convey a student's degree or level of connection with school and learning", while facilitators are "… factors that influence the strength of the connection" (p. 382). While outside the scope of this article, in general, facilitators are either personal (e.g., goal orientations, attributions, self-efficacy andr competence) or contextual (e.g., classroom environment, parent and peer relationships).

Implications for School Psychologists

Student engagement is indicated in crucial academic and developmental out-comes. Incorporating the comprehensive framework of engagement (i.e., indicators and facilitators) into assessment, consultation, behavior management, and counseling provides an opportunity for us to see and work with the "whole child". Several measures currently being used in the research domain are being validated (e.g., *Student Engagement Instrument* [SEI], Appleton, Christenson, Kim,

& Reschly, 2006; *Student Engagement Questionnaire* [SEQ], Lam & Jimerson, 2008). The *SEQ* is a self-report measure being used in an ongoing international study of engagement that assesses both indicators and facilitators. Providing a comprehensive understanding of a student's levels of engagement in this way may allow school psychologists to focus interventions more effectively.

Conclusion

While student engagement is felt to be an acceptable focus of intervention for most educators, it is still a relatively young area of study. More recent definitions include both indicators and facilitators of engagement. Embracing this dual-focus, expanded framework when assessing, intervening with, and promoting student engagement will allow school psychologists to develop a more complete picture of students and thereby provide more effective and efficient services.

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CHAPTER SPOTLIGHT

SASP at Kent State University

Kate B. Florig
Kent State University

The Kent State University (KSU) School Psychology Program has been preparing professionals for over 45 years; it houses Ohio's only APA accredited and NASP approved doctoral program, and it prepares about 15 specialist-level practitioners annually. During the 1995-96 academic year, the faculty and students recognized the need to form a SASP chapter, with goals of providing leadership opportunities for students and fostering greater professional growth within the program and the community it serves.

The Executive Board of the KSU SASP chapter is elected each spring by returning students, and the first year cohort nominates and elects their representatives each fall. Positions elected to the Executive Board include a Chair, Vice Chair, Secretary, Social/Mentorship Chair, Doctoral Representative and Treasurer. In addition, SASP members also nominate individuals to represent the chapter in the KSU Graduate Student Senate and to serve as a national, state, and regional liaison. The Executive Committee meets once a month to discuss program and chapter business.

Students applying to the program are introduced to SASP through the initial interview process; furthermore, they are introduced to a mentor upon their acceptance of the admission offer to KSU. Mentors are appointed for all incoming students and are responsible for keeping in contact with their mentee and providing a sympathetic ear during the rigors of the first year. The KSU SASP Executive Board also plans a summer pizza party to orient new students to the program and introduce them to their mentors.

The KSU SASP Executive Board is responsible for planning several program functions throughout the year, including fall, winter, and spring socials. In recent years, outings have included hay rides, a night of bowling, and a wine tasting. Family and friends of students, along with faculty, are invited to join in the festivities and get to know each other outside of the classroom. These outings help to build camaraderie within all levels of the program and provide a

low-pressure situation in which to bond and relieve the stress that comes with an intensive graduate program.

Often, SASP is able to pay for a portion of the outings as well as the summer pizza party and refreshments during prospective student interviews through fundraising efforts. These efforts are typically coordinated by the first year cohort's representatives to the executive board. Several bake-sales are held each year, clothing sporting the KSU School Psychology logo has been sold, and most recently, students have paid for silent timers for use in assessments. Another option that is being explored for spring is the sale of KSU School Psychology tote bags to both current students and program alumni.

In the last several years, the KSU SASP chapter has focused on a goal of becoming more involved in the local community by promoting the program's mission: "Wellness Enhancement." For example, each September the chapter raises money as part of the Susan G. Komen *Race for a Cure*. Additionally, in 2007, the chapter participated in several volunteer activities, including Project Grad with Akron City Schools (an outreach program seeking to provide families with information about their child's schooling) and various activities at Berea Children's Home (a local residential treatment facility). Members of the chapter have also participated in an annual depression screening day sponsored by the KSU Department of Psychology, and they have volunteered at KidsLink Neurobehavioral Center--a community-based, interdisciplinary private practice that serves children and adolescents with autism spectrum disorders, developmental disabilities, and internalizing disorders (e.g., depression and anxiety).

A major focus of the SASP chapter within the KSU School Psychology Program is educating others about the field of school psychology. This focus manifests itself through *School Psychology Awareness Week* activities that typically include panels for informing undergraduate students about the graduate program and for informing current graduate students about their second-year practicum and internship opportunities. This year, the KSU chapter's Executive Board hopes to expand these panels to include other regional universities and therefore broaden the scope of the Kent State University School Psychology Program.

Kate B. Florig, M.Ed., is a doctoral student and the local SASP Chapter Secretary in the School Psychology Program at Kent State University.

2009 SASP Mini-Convention

Friday, August 7th, 5:30 – 9:00pm

The Division 16 Suite,
Fairmount Royal York Hotel

The Student Affiliates in School Psychology (SASP) is pleased to announce the 2009 SASP Mini-Convention, held during the 117th annual APA Convention. Mini-Convention activities this year include a keynote panel presentation from school psychology professionals, student paper and poster presentations, and a great networking opportunity!

Schedule of Events

5:30 – 5:45pm	Mini-Convention Welcome
5:45 – 6:15 pm	Student Poster Session #1
6:15 – 7:15pm	Keynote: Panel of Professionals
7:15 – 7:30pm	Networking Break ☺
7:30 – 8:00pm	Student Poster Session #2
8:00 – 8:45pm	Student Paper Presentation
8:45 – 9:00pm	Closing Remarks

**All SASP members, graduate students, faculty members, and practitioners with an interest in school psychology are invited to attend.
We hope to see you there!**

Become a SASP Member!
(It's free *and* beneficial.)

To become a member of SASP please complete this form and mail it to the address listed below. Members are also eligible for travel expenses to APA, scholarship awards, and other financial rewards by taking part in activities designed to promote SASP. SASP membership is FREE to all school psychology students. In addition, please consider joining the SASP listserv. This listserv will provide you with access to our newsletter, information on how to apply for various awards and travel grants, and other resources important to students in our field. SASP encourages members to also join APA's Division 16 (School Psychology). Information regarding this will be included in your welcome packet.

SASP Membership Committee
Attn: Kaitlyn Stewart
380 Ellwood Beach Dr #7
Goleta, CA 93117

STUDENT AFFILIATE IN SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY (SASP)
MEMBERSHIP APPLICATION

Renewal: Please circle   **yes   or   no**

NAME: _____

MAILING ADDRESS: _____

                                   _____

EMAIL ADDRESS: _____

UNIVERSITY AFFILIATION: _____

STUDENT STATUS :   _____
                                   (i.e., year in program and part- or full-time)

FACULTY SPONSOR   _____

Would you like to be added to the SASP Listserv ?   **yes   or   no**

Please indicate committees in which you may have interest:
___Communications
___Membership
___Diversity Affairs
___Nominations/Elections

Science. Practice. Policy.

Division 16 is an exciting division with many activities and services to benefit you. Members:

- ❖ Engage in the national and international conversation on school psychology. Division 16 is active in advocating for the interests of school psychologists on issues both within the broader field of psychology as well as with constituent school psychology organizations.
- ❖ Receive cutting edge publications such as *School Psychology Quarterly* the Division's APA journal and the high quality peer-reviewed newsletter *The School Psychologist*.
- ❖ Network with colleagues and leaders in the field who share your interest in School Psychology.
- ❖ Contribute to the Science *for* Policy and Practice in School Psychology during Division 16 programming at the APA annual convention via round table discussions, symposia, poster sessions, workshops, and the superlative Division 16 Hospitality Suite and Social Hour.
- ❖ Join the Division 16 listserv to keep up to date with current trends, professional opportunities and the on-going dialogue on School Psychology Matters.
- ❖ Recognize outstanding achievements. Division 16 honors Students (e.g., Paul Henkin travel awards, minority scholarships, AGS outstanding scholarship awards) Early Career Scholars (e.g., Lightner Witmer Award), and substantial contributors to the field (e.g., Fellow, Senior Scientist, Jack Bardon Distinguished Service Award, Lifetime Achievement Award).
- ❖ Become involved in Division 16 governance. There are many opportunities to join committees and run for executive office in the Division.
- ❖ Visit our web site for more information: http://www.indiana.edu/~div16/index.html

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APA Membership Number *(if applicable)*:_____

Please check status:
____Member $45
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____Fellow $45
____Professional Affiliate $55
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____Life Status, no fee *(Division 16 members, 65 years of age or older and have been a member of APA for at least 25 years)*
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____Student Affiliate $30 *(Complete Below)*
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Faculty Endorsement   Institution   Expected Yr. of Graduation

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Links to Grant Opportunities

http://www.apa.org/apags/members/schawrds.html

http://www.apa.org/apf/scholarships.html

http://www.apa.org/pi/wpo/financialaiddirectory.pdf

http://www.apa.org/science/dissinfo.html

http://www.apa.org/science/travinfo.html

http://www.ed.gov/programs/iegpsddrap/index.html

http://www.aera.net/grantsprogram/

http://www.nasponline.org/students/student_ scholarships. aspxs

Award for Distinguished Graduate Student in Professional Psychology

The Board of Professional Affairs (BPA) and the American Psychological Association of Graduate Students (APAGS) awards the APA/APAGS Award for Distinguished Graduate Student in Professional Psychology, a $1000 award and travel expenses to and from the APA Annual Convention, to a graduate student who has demon-strated outstanding practice and application of psychology. This award is administered by the staff liaison for the Board of Professional Affairs, thus all correspondence, arrangements and notifications about this award will come from the Board of Professional Affairs, not APAGS.

A qualified candidate must demonstrate exemplary performance in working with an underserved population in an applied setting OR have developed an innovative method for delivering health services to an underserved population. Eligible candidates are encouraged to apply from all psychology sub-specialties (e.g. clinical, counseling, organization, school, health, etc.) and can be self-nominated or nominated by a member of the American Psychological Association (APA). All self-nominations must be endorsed by a member of APA (i.e. faculty, supervisor) who serves the function of a nominator.

Required Materials: (a) 1000-word or less summ-ary of work with an underserved population. That must include: a description of the student's work with an underserved population, an explanation of why said population is underserved, the status of the underserved population and number served, the nature of psychological services/work done, and its impact on addressing the needs of the identified population; and (b) a curriculum vitae and a letter of support from a member of APA, and in the instance of a self-nomination, verification that the endorser will serve the role and complete the functions of a nominator.

Upon receipt of the award, the nominator/ endorser will be expected to prepare the text for the award citation, attend the APA Convention, serve as chair of the winners award address, introduce the award recipient, and prepare the written introduction for any publication wishing to publicize the award.

For deadlines and application materials, please contact Ayo Bello at *abello@apa.org.*

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School Psychology

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