



The School Psychologist

AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION

Aspects of Teacher Training and Their Effect on Teacher Collaboration Skills and Consultation Preferences

Christina Pissalidis
Temple University

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Abstract

This study investigated the effects of collaborative learning-based teacher training courses on consultation and collaboration. Education courses offered through the Teacher Certification Program at Temple University were redesigned to reflect collaborative teaching and learning pedagogy as part of the Collaborative for Excellence in Teacher Preparation (CETP) program. The 187 participants in this study were identified by the number of revised CETP courses they had taken. Students enrolled in CETP courses had opportunities to work in groups with other students and to witness their instructors model interpersonal, communication, and problem-solving skills necessary to work collaboratively. In contrast, students enrolled in traditional courses received instruction mainly through lecture format and had limited opportunities to witness and apply collaborative strategies. Data on four variables were collected: (a) performance during team teaching experiences; (b) acquisition of collaboration skills; (c) preference for consultation style; and (d) anticipated usefulness of the collaborative process. Discriminant analysis indicated the five variables investigated in this study predicted CETP membership with a maximum accuracy of 63.3%, which was not significant. The strongest effects were found between consultation preferences and CETP membership where CETP was positively correlated with preference toward collaborative approach of consultation while non-CETP membership was correlated with preference for a clinical approach to consultation. Measures of collaboration during team teaching, and self and team ratings of collaboration skills

correlated positively with CETP membership although the correlations were not significant. Perceived usefulness of the collaborative process was negatively, yet not significantly correlated with CETP membership.

Introduction

Collaboration has become a significant part of a regular education teacher's role (e.g., Friend & Cook, 1990; Villa, Thousand, Nevin, & Malgeri, 1996; Walther-Thomas, Bryant, & Land, 1996). Rather than try to meet the academic, behavioral, social, and emotional needs of an increasingly diverse student population alone, teachers can receive some support by collaborating with other teachers and consulting with other school professionals. Research indicates that school-based consultation and collaboration facilitate the development of successful intervention strategies for students with disabilities in regular education settings (e.g., Bradley, 1994; Gutkin, 1996; Sheridan, Welch, & Orme, 1996; Thousand & Villa, 1989; West & Idol, 1987).

Not only is collaboration supported by research, but it is required by law. The latest amendment to IDEA, by Public Law 105-17 in 1997, reformed educational ecology and the manner in which school services are delivered. The legislation mandates that educators work collaboratively with a wide range of professionals in an effort to develop and implement services specified in an IEP. The manner in which services are delivered has changed from a traditional approach of unilateral decision-making to a collaborative problem-solving process.

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The School Psychologist is published four times per year by the Division of School Psychology (Div. 16) of the American Psychological Association. Subscriptions are free to members of the Division. For information about subscription rates, submission of articles or advertising write: Vincent C. Alfonso, Ph.D., Fordham University, Graduate School of Education, 113 West 60th St., New York, NY 10023.

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PUBLICATION SCHEDULE

Issue Month/No.	Closing Date for Submission of Materials	Printing Date	Mailing Date*
Winter (1)	December 1	December 15	January 15
Spring (2)	February 1	February 15	March 15
Summer (3)	June 1	June 15	July 15
Fall (4)	September 1	September 15	October 15

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

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PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE

Does the Internship Make the School Psychologist?

Steven G. Little
The University at Albany, SUNY

We all tend to look forward to the summer months as a time when we can relax, enjoy the outdoors, and have some fun. This is especially true for those of us who work in universities and schools where we have a few months off from the regular grind. Unfortunately, the issues that we have been grappling with over the winter and spring do not go away just because the temperature is a little warmer and the days are a little longer. I would like to use my column in this edition to continue to share with you my perspectives on some of the issues that have been discussed in earlier columns. I would also like to keep you updated on the activities for the convention in Chicago in August and in my personal life.

In my last column I provided my response to the NASP credentialing and training standards adopted in 2000. Specifically, I reviewed four basic assumptions that NASP President Charlie Deupree stated "serve as a foundation upon which ... NASP standards documents are built" and then offered my comments on each. In addition, I asked for feedback from the Division 16 membership regarding the assumptions and my comments. I did not receive a tremendous number of responses, but those I did receive were thoughtful, professional, and very helpful. They were also predominantly supportive of my positions. Thank you very much for those who took the time to write me an email or a letter. I appreciate your effort and assure you that your thoughts and suggestions will be shared and discussed with the entire executive committee. If you haven't had a chance to respond I am still very interested in hearing your comments. If you do not have your copy of the spring edition it can be found at <http://www.indiana.edu/~div16/psychologist.htm>.

The first assumption laid out by NASP was that "School psychology is a distinct profession that integrates knowledge and skill sets from the fields of both psychology and education." I disagreed with this statement and indicated my belief that school psychology is a specialty of psychology. NASP has reversed its position on this issue, and in a May 22 letter to Dr. Sandra Shullman, Chair of the APA Board of Professional Affairs, stated that NASP "considers school psychology to be a definable specialty within psychology."

Unfortunately, our differences with NASP do not end there. The training of doctoral school psychologists is based on high standards set by the American Psychological Association (APA). Program reviews and site visits made by doctoral school psychologists guarantee that all APA-accredited school psychology programs maintain these standards. In addition to being eligible for an independent, private practice license, graduates of an APA-accredited school psychology program should be eligible for credentialing/licensing to work in schools. NASP's standards, however, may exclude such graduates from obtaining a credential/license to work in schools. NASP President Charlie Deupree states in his most recent "President's Message" in the NASP Communiqué (June, 2002; vol. 30, #8, p. 2,): "Our [NASP] training and practice standards are recognized by virtually every state as the standard by which they certify/license school psychologists." He goes on to state that "[c]ontrary to some statements made recently, NASP does not certify school psychologists through a state agency nor do we deny access of appropriately trained school psychologists to the school systems across the country." This issue is not (and never was) whether NASP certifies school psychologists through a state agency - all would agree that NASP does not. However, by its own admission and articulated in Mr. Deupree's president's column, NASP standards are used by the states "as the standard by which they certify/license school psychologists." That the NASP standards are used by states in this way is precisely the reason why APA is concerned with their content. The NASP standards do not recognize graduates of APA-accredited programs as being eligible for credentialing. Rather, only if someone has graduated from an APA-accredited program and also has met NASP's internship standards, then is that person eligible for credentialing under NASP standards, and by extension, under that state's regulations. As a result, NASP is indeed attempting to determine who is eligible for certification/licensure as a school psychologist, and in doing so is denying access of some appropriately trained school psychologists to the school systems across the country.

Mr. Deupree goes on to state that "NASP will not compromise these standards just to get more



Steve G. Little

“Are we acting in the best interests of children by denying a school psychologist with this type of internship the opportunity for certification to work in the schools?”

CONTINUED FROM THE COVER

Aspects of Teacher Training and Their Effect on Teacher Collaboration Skills and Consultation Preferences

Among the many obstacles preventing educators from using a collaborative problem-solving approach is lack of teacher training in collaboration and consultation. Few teacher education programs exist around the nation that prepare teachers to work collaboratively (Pugach, 1992; Sindelar & Kilgore, 1995; Villa et al., 1996). Since there are few pre-service teacher education programs that provide direct training in collaboration, it becomes necessary to investigate whether other components of teacher education programs can indirectly foster collaboration and increase the use of consultative services.

Anecdotal evidence and expert opinion support the notion that teachers teach the way they are taught (e.g., Carter, 1997; Simmons, 1995). What then would be the consequences, in terms of collaboration and consultation skills, if a collaborative teaching model was used to train pre-service teachers? Will teacher training in collaborative pedagogy affect their understanding of collaborative problem-solving processes and attitudes toward consultation? There is evidence to suggest that exposure to collaborative methodology supports collaboration among educators and support services personnel. Burrón, James, and Ambrosios' (1993) study compared two science classes in a pre-service teacher education program. One course was taught using a cooperative learning technique while the other followed a traditional lecture method. A comparison was made between the two classes in terms of student collaboration skills, among other variables. Data indicated significant gains in collaboration skills only in the cooperative learning group.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether exposure to collaborative pedagogy was related to pre-service teacher: (a) performance while team teaching; (b) development of collaboration skills; (c) preferences toward consultation styles; and (d) anticipated usefulness of collaboration services.

The Collaborative for Excellence in Teacher Preparation (CETP) program supports improvements in pre-service teacher preparation programs by encouraging the application of collaborative and constructivist practices in teaching and learning. The CETP, funded by the National Science Foundation (NSF), focuses its reform efforts on improving courses in math and science. The Philadelphia CETP was established in 1994 with the overall purpose of

developing, implementing, and evaluating a new model of science and mathematics K-12 teacher preparation. A central feature of the Philadelphia CETP is the development and implementation of teaching methods that present math and science as dynamic systems of connected ideas that are constructed through collaboration and exploration.

Participants enrolled in revised CETP courses had opportunities to work in groups and to witness their instructors model interpersonal, communication, and problem-solving skills necessary for successful collaboration. In contrast, participants who were enrolled in traditional courses received instruction mainly through lecture format. Although strategies for implementing collaborative learning in classrooms were discussed in the lecture courses, students had limited opportunities to witness examples of collaborative teaching and apply to learned strategies.

It was hypothesized that pre-service teachers who have witnessed and applied concepts of collaborative learning (CETP group) would demonstrate (a) higher levels of performance while team teaching (b) higher levels of collaboration skills, (c) a stronger preference for collaborative consultation approach, and (d) higher anticipated usefulness for the process of collaboration than their counterparts who only discussed collaborative pedagogy without modeling or direct application (non-CETP group).

**Review of Related Literature
Collaborative Learning**

Essential to collaborative pedagogy is the notion that acquisition of knowledge cannot be achieved through a simple process of transmission, but rather through a process of reaching consensus among members of a community (Bruffee, 1981). Knowledge is not what is transmitted to students, but the meaning derived by students through conversations that enable them to resolve areas of cognitive dissonance. Learning is the internalization of boundary conversations. It results from a process of validation and replacement. As Bruffee (1993) defines it, learning is a process of reacculturation, a process of negotiating the language and ideas of two knowledge communities.

Teachers are members of a knowledge community and have the responsibility of reacculturating students by engaging them in boundary conversations. Through conversation and the establishment of common property, students gain membership to the knowledge community. A teacher's job is to design tasks that will allow a group of students to

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expand their boundaries. Through consensus and group collaboration, students learn to complement each other's strengths allowing them to benefit from their individual differences.

Classroom practices. There are five stages of collaborative learning: engagement, exploration, transformation, presentation, and reflection (e.g., Bruffee, 1993; Reid, Forrester, & Cook, 1989; Weiner, 1992). In the first stage, engagement, the teacher reviews background information that is relevant to the topic and introduces an activity that has real-life relevance. Open-ended questions are asked to peak student curiosity and a purpose is established to focus student actions. During the exploration stage, students are divided into smaller groups of five or six as they begin to ask questions and share initial opinions about the activity. Students engage in brainstorming in order to develop a plan that will help them accomplish the task.

The third stage, transformation, occurs when students reshape their ideas and resolve controversies that have developed during discussion. Ultimately, students establish a consensus within their groups. At this stage, students engage in what Bruffee calls boundary conversations that enable them to become "reacculturated." In addition to reshaping knowledge constructs, students have an opportunity to develop interpersonal and communication skills as they interact with their peers. It is in these two stages that students establish interdependence.

In the fourth stage, presentation, the large group is reconvened and each group shares its findings and conclusions with the entire class. The student who was designated as the recorder during small group discussion presents the information. The teacher oversees the discussion and asks questions and guides student reflection to help them synthesize the information. The entire class works to establish a consensus that reflects the beliefs of either local knowledge communities or larger communities of professionals. During the final stage, reflection, students have the opportunity to investigate their thoughts, think about the activity and the group process, and summarize what they learned. In many cases, students note their reflections in journals that can be used later by the teacher to evaluate student learning.

Consultation

Mental health consultation was developed for use in clinical settings (Brown, Pryzwansky, & Schulte, 1998). The traditional mode considered mis-

behavior to result from underlying psychiatric conflict disqualifying the school environment as a viable arena for intervention. When educational theorists began to provide alternative explanations for misbehavior, conceptualizing it as a function of faulty learning or an inappropriate school environment, the provision of school and learning-based interventions became a viable solution.

Professionals began to apply the principles of mental health consultation to school settings, but discrepancies began to develop between the theory of mental health consultation and its application in schools. First, in most situations, school consultants are not required to be external (Brown et al., 1998). The use of internal mental health professionals became more compatible with the new educational philosophy than was the use of external consultants.

The second distinction between traditional versus school-based mental health consultation pertains to the views on service delivery (Brown et al., 1998). Explicit to Caplan's (1970) concept of mental health consultation is the understanding that services are not rendered directly by the consultant to the client. The consultation relationship involves interaction between two professionals to serve a third party indirectly. Researchers and practitioners in school-based mental health consultation, however, view the provision of direct services as a necessary aspect of the consultation process (Conoley & Wright, 1993; Meyers, 1973; Meyers, Brent, Faherty, & Modafferi, 1993; Parsons & Meyers, 1984). Excluding the consultant from data collection and intervention imposes unnecessary limits on the consultation relationship. Direct service delivery, with the understanding that it involves frequent collaboration between the consultant and the consultee, is a way to help teachers acquire skills and knowledge and should therefore be considered a consultative process.

Just as school-based consultation modified definition and practice of mental health consultation, collaborative consultation further broadens the practices of school-based consultation. The concept of collaborative consultation, first developed by Idol, Paolucci-Whitcomb, and Nevin, (1986), is defined as an interactive process that enables people with diverse expertise to generate creative solutions to mutually defined problems (p. 1). The overall goal in collaborative consultation is to develop comprehensive and effective intervention programs for all students with special needs.

Similar to Caplan's mental health consultation and Meyer's school-based consultation models, col-

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laborative consultation involves a consultant and a mediator, or a consultee, who work to modify the behavior of the target, or the client. Unlike Caplan and Meyers' models, the consultant is not required to be an expert in the field of mental health.

Consultants and mediators can be general education teachers, special education teachers, psychologists, administrators, or parents, etc. The role of the consultant and consultee in the Idol et al. (1986) model are interchangeable depending on the nature of the student's problem and the skills of the collaborators.

To prevent confusion that may arise from the many similarities shared between the two concepts, a distinction will be made between collaboration and consultation. For the purposes of this study, the term consultation will refer to Meyers' (1973) school-based consultation model and Caplan and Caplan's (1993) mental health collaboration model. That is to say, consultation is defined as a voluntary relationship involving a consultee who seeks the help of a consultant, a mental health expert internal to the school, in order to develop more effective responses for dealing with a current client and future clients with similar difficulties. The consultant shares in the responsibility of the outcomes and has the option of providing direct services to students while collaborating with the consultee. The term collaboration, on the other hand, will refer to the Idol et al. (1986) collaborative consultation model. Collaboration will be defined as the interaction between two professionals, a consultant and a consultee, who work together to improve the educational programs. Neither professional is required to be a mental health expert. The role of the consultant and the consultee are interchangeable. The type of collaborative consultation that will most often be referred to is team teaching, also known as collaborative teaching. Team teaching describes the process where two or more teachers are directly involved in the creation and implementation of lesson plans (Walther-Thomas et al., 1996).

Method*Participants*

Students. All 187 participants in this study were undergraduate students in the Temple University Teacher Certification Program who were enrolled in the Elementary Education Mathematics and Science Practicum during the Fall 1998 and Spring 1999 semesters. The practicum course is one of the last in the sequence of courses for the certification program and is typically followed by student-teaching experi-

ence in the following semester.

The age of the participants ranged from 21 to 57, with a median of 23 and a mean of 24. One hundred and fifty-five (83%) of the participants were females and 32 (17%) were males. Grade point average ranged from 2.43 to 3.98, with a median of 3.10 and a mean of 3.13. Ninety-seven (52%) students identified themselves as being Caucasian, 56 (30%) as African American, 15 (8%) as Asian, 1 (1%) as Native American, 6 (3%) as Hispanic, and 12 (6%) as other. No significant differences were found between students who were enrolled in the practicum in the Fall and the Spring semesters in terms of gender, race, and GPA characteristics.

Cooperating teachers. Twenty-seven cooperating teachers from six Philadelphia elementary schools participated in this study, 3 males and 24 females. Of the 27 teachers, 4 were novices (3 years of teaching experience), 12 were experienced (4-15 years of teaching experience), and 11 were veteran teachers (16+ years of teaching experience). Nineteen (70.3%) of the teachers taught fourth grade, 6 (22.2%) taught fifth grade, 1 (3.7%) taught third grade, and 1 (3.7%) taught first grade.

The cooperating teachers participated in a two-week Summer Training Institute from July 20 through July 31, 1998. Each teacher was compensated \$2000 for his/her participation. The Institute provided an opportunity for participants including Temple University professors of math and science content and methods courses, Temple University practicum coordinators who would supervise the practicum, school teachers who would work with practicum students, and representatives from the CETP to exchange ideas about collaborative and constructivist theories of learning and to create a common vision. Participants of the Summer Training Institute refined the Cooperating Teacher Observation Form to reflect collaborative theories.

Instrumentation

Cooperating Teacher Observation Form (CTOF) Development. The Cooperating Teacher Observation Form (CTOF) was completed by cooperating teachers to measure levels of performance when practicum students team-taught their lessons. A CTOF was completed for each lesson that was presented by the practicum students. Cooperating teachers rated practicum students' level of progress in meeting each of the eight goals. Ratings are based on a five-point Likert scale where 1 indicates "No Evidence of Preparation" and 5 indicates "Excellent

ACT Against Violence

Building upon decades of research on child development, aggression, and violence, the American Psychological Association (APA) and the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) have launched the ACT—Adults and Children Together—Against Violence project. This initiative addresses violence prevention in the critical years of early childhood, ages 0 to 8, by focusing on the most influential adults in children's lives—parents, teachers, and caregivers. The ACT project carries out its mission through its two core initiatives: the ACT Mass Media Campaign and the ACT Training Program.

ACT Against Violence Mass Media Campaign

A nationwide effort developed in collaboration with the Advertising Council and Flashpoint Advertising, Inc., the media campaign includes: (a) PSAs for TV and radio; (b) print ads for newspapers and magazines; (c) posters and billboards; (d) a toll-free number – 1-877-ACT-WISE to receive a brochure; and (e) a web site – <http://www.ActAgainstViolence.org>.

ACT Against Violence Training Program

The ACT Against Violence Training Program aims to make early violence prevention a central part of a community's efforts to prevent violence. It has two models:

- A. Initially, it was designed as a community program implemented by a local organization working closely with APA and NAEYC staff to offer training to community leaders. The purpose is to prepare local groups of professionals who work with families and/or children to disseminate the ACT program message and materials to adults in their communities – coworkers, other professionals, and families. ACT community training programs are implemented in Northern California, Morris County, NJ, and Kansas City, KS.
- B. To meet increasing demands for training, the ACT National Training Program was developed and launched in 2001. In this model, professionals from different parts of the country are trained to create community initiatives and implement the

program through local organizations and communities. The National Training Program consists of a 2 1/2-day workshop that provides instruction on how to implement and evaluate the ACT training program, how to work with diverse groups of adults, how to disseminate information on child development, how to select intervention programs, and how to design an action plan. Additionally, it offers workshop modules addressing core violence prevention skills—problem solving, anger management, discipline, and media literacy. Aside from their responsibility to implement the ACT Training Program, they are expected to train professionals to further disseminate the ACT project. The first National Training Program workshop was held in October 2001, and a second workshop is slated for September 26-28, 2002.

ACT National Training Program Fall workshop

The APA Public Interest Initiatives Office is inviting qualified psychologists to submit an application for the second workshop of the ACT National Training Program. Participants are trained to create or help create initiatives to disseminate the ACT program message and materials to adults in their communities. They are expected to take an active role in conducting workshops and implementing training programs, and/or making presentations to professionals, parents or other family members in their communities.

The tentative date for the 2-day workshop is September 26, 27, 28. The workshop and materials – ACT Training manual, ACT Implementation Handbook, ACT Resource Materials Booklet – are free and travel expenses are covered by a grant from the MetLife Foundation. The ACT Training program is approved for continuing education units.

Who should apply?

Psychologists who:

- Have experience in public speaking, conducting training and workshops;
- Have experience in consulting with family and child service providers, schools, public health agencies;
- Work for local government agencies, community-based organizations;
- Are interested in community action, community mobilization;
- Have interest and experience in violence prevention.

For more information and to get the application form, please contact Julia Silva at the APA Public Interest Initiatives Office at 202-336-5817 or jsilva@apa.org.

Completed forms should be received by July 15th; selection of participants will be announced by August 5th.

APA encourages qualified psychologists to submit an application for the ACT National Training workshop this fall. Please see the recruitment announcement in this newsletter for more details, or send an e-mail to publicinterest@apa.org.

2002 APA Convention Program Division 16: School Psychology

August 22-25, 2002 Chicago, Illinois

Division 16 President: Steven G. Little
Division 16 Vice President for Convention Affairs: David E. McIntosh
Convention Co-Chairs: John M. Hintze & Karen A. Akin-Little



Thursday, August 22

8:00-9:50

Symposium: "Social Competence Intervention Program - Empowering Children With Nonverbal Learning Disabilities"

Chair: Margaret E. Semrud Clikeman
Participants: Moana G. Kruschwitz & Laura A. Guli
Discussant: Phyllis Anne Teeter-Ellison

10:00-10:50

Poster Session: "School Psychology: Developmental, Multicultural, & Professional Issues"

Chairs: John M. Hintze & Karen A. Akin-Little

2:00-3:50

**Executive Committee Meeting
Chair: Steven G. Little**

Friday, August 23

8:00-9:50

Symposium: "The School Psychology Futures Conference"

Chairs: Rick Jay Short & Patti L. Harrison
Participants: Rick Jay Short, Jack A. Cummings, Margaret M. Dawson, & Patti L. Harrison
Discussant: Susan Gorin

8:00-9:50

Symposium: "A Person Oriented Approach to Understanding Children in Schools"

Chair: Randy W. Kamphaus
Participants: Christine DiStefano, Anne P. Winsor, Jenny L. VanOverbeke, Arthur M. Home, Ellen W. Rowe, Susan J. Parault, & Charlotte Kennedy
Discussant: A. Michele Lease

10:00-10:50

Poster Session: "School Psychology: Assessment & Research Issues"

Chairs: John M. Hintze & Karen A. Akin-Little

11:00-11:50

**Presidential Address:
"Overscheduling of America's Youth:
School Psychology's Response"**

Presenter: Steven G. Little
Chair: Jack A. Cummings

12:00-12:50

**Invited Address:
"Functional Behavioral Assessment:
Overzealous Adoption of an
Underdeveloped Technology"**

Presenter: Frank M. Gresham
Chairs: John M. Hintze & Karen A. Akin-Little

1:00-2:50

**Symposium:
"Building School-Community Partnerships to
Promote Children's Health"**

Chairs: Thomas J. Power & Edward S. Shapiro
Participants: Jessica Blom-Hoffman, Angela Clarke, Julie Dwyer, Patricia Manz, Thomas J. Power, Bonnie K. Nastasi, Jean J. Schensul, Edward S. Shapiro, & George J. DuPaul
Discussant: Heather Ringeisen

2:00-3:50

**Business Meeting:
Ceremony for Award Recipients of 2002**

Chair: Steven G. Little

4:00-5:50

Social Hour

Chairs: Melissa A. Bray, Tammy Hughes, John M. Hintze, & Karen A. Akin-Little

Saturday, August 23

9:00-9:50

**Poster Session:
"Consultation & Intervention Issues"**

Chairs: John M. Hintze & Karen A. Akin-Little

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2002 APA CONVENTION PROGRAM DIVISION 16: SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY**10:00-10:50**
SASP Committee Meeting**1:00-2:50**
Award Winner's Symposium:
Division 16's Year 2001 Award Recipients
Discuss Research & Practice

Chair: John M. Hintze
 Presenters: Jack Naglieri (Senior Scientist Award), Roy Martin (Jack Bardon Service Award), & Aleta Ann Gilbertson-Schulte (Outstanding Dissertation Award)

1:00-2:50
Symposium:
"Meeting The Psychological Needs of
Students Who Are Deaf or Hard-of-Hearing"

Chair: Robin E. Perkins-Dock
 Participants: Robin E. Perkins-Dock & Kirstin A Young
 Discussant: Robert Q. Pollard, Jr.

Sunday, August 25**9:00-10:50**
Symposium:
"Assessment of Diverse Populations With
New Intelligence Tests"

Chair: Achilles N. Bardos
 Participants: Jack A. Naglieri & Achilles N. Bardos
 Discussant: Anthony Paolitto

9:00-10:50
Symposium:
"Qualitative Methods in Intervention
Research: Contributions to Evidence-Based
Interventions"

Chairs: Bonnie K. Nastasi & Stephen L. Schensul
 Participants: David Fetterman, Jean J. Schensul, Mittie T. Quinn, Joel Myers, & Karen Stoiber
 Discussant: Denise DeZolt

11:00-11:50
Invited Address:
"Keeping Kids in School: Efficacy of Check
and Connect for Dropout Prevention of High-
Risk Students"

Presenter: Sandra L. Christenson
 Chairs: John M. Hintze & Karen A. Akin-Little

12:00-12:50
Symposium:
"Stress and Burnout Among Teachers:
The Issue of Context"

Chair: Pamela A. Fenning
 Participants: Nancy T. Kenyeri, Glenda Smith, & Patricia E. Weidner

SINCERE APPRECIATION IS EXTENDED TO THE 2002 APA CONVENTION
(DIVISION 16) PROGRAM REVIEWERS:

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Lisa-Marie Angelo, Lehigh University

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2002 APA Convention Program

Tentative Schedule Division 16 Hospitality Suite Schedule Chicago, Illinois



Suite Sponsors: AGS, Psychological Corporation, PAR, Riverside, Society of School Psychology, American Academy of School Psychology, American Board of School Psychology, and Division 16.

Location: Hyatt Regency McCormick Place Hotel
2233 S. Martin Luther King Dr.
Suite: TBA

Wednesday August 21

5:30 pm - 7:30 pm
Women in School Psychology
Contact: Dr. Ann Teeter

Thursday August 22

8 am - 3 pm
Drs. Tom Kratochwill & Karen Stoiber: Task Force on Empirically Supported Treatments

3 pm - 5 pm TBA

5 pm - 6 pm
Dr. Frank Worrell: Getting School and Counseling Psychologists at the K-12 Education Reform Table

Friday August 23

8 am - 12 pm
American Board of School Psychology/American Academy of School Psychology
Contact: Dr. Rosemary Flanagan

12 pm - 3 pm
Student Affiliates in School Psychology Mini Convention
Contact: Convention Chair, Denise Charles

3 pm - 4 pm
Dr. Walt Pryzwansky: School Psychology Synarchy

4 pm - 5:50 pm
Division 16 Social Hour
Location: Hyatt Regency McCormick Place Hotel, 2nd floor Regency Ballroom A
Suite Closed

6 pm - 7 pm
Student Affiliates in School Psychology Research Awards

7 pm - 9 pm
Student Affiliates in School Psychology Business Meeting

Saturday August 24

8 am - 12 pm
Suite Closed: Conversation Series work group

12 pm - 1 pm
Dr. Angeleque Akin-Little: Women and Tenure

1 pm - 7 pm
Society for the Study of School Psychology

7 pm - 8 pm
The School Psychologist: Editor, Dr. Vincent C. Alfonso and Associate Editor, Dr. Linda Reddy. All are welcome!

Sunday August 25

8 am - 9 am TBA

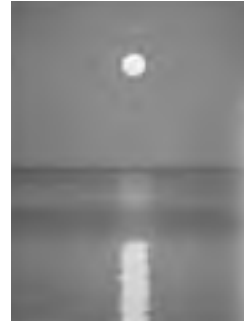
9 am - 10:30 am
Dr. Robyn Hess: School Completion

10:30 am - 12 pm
Dr. Robyn Hess: CEMA

2002 Student Poster Winners

Division 16

Sponsored by the American Guidance Service



Richard J. Cowan

University of Nebraska-Lincoln

"Enhancing Generalization by Targeting Naturalistic Settings
for Social Skills Interventions"

Faculty Sponsor: Susan M. Sheridan, Ph.D.

Michelle A. Meskin

St. John's University

"Rediscovering Single-Case Methodology:
Expanding the Role of School Psychologists"

Faculty Sponsor: Mark D. Terjesen, Ph.D.

Renee Shaver

The University of Memphis

"Children with Mild Mental Retardation: Characteristics of Performance
on Measures of CHC Broad Cognitive Abilities"

Faculty Sponsor: Randy G. Floyd, Ph.D.

9TH ANNUAL
Institute for Psychology in the Schools



Expanding Opportunities for Psychologists:
Increasing Children's Access
to Psychological Services

Wednesday, August 21, 2002, 12 - 5
Hilton Chicago and Towers, 2nd Floor Chicago, IL

Opening Address

Robert J. Sternberg, PhD, PACE Center, Yale University, APA President-elect

Keynote Address

Karen Callan Stoiber, PhD, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee

School Entry Issues

Mary Walsh, PhD, Boston College

Legal and Ethical Issues for Psychologists in Schools

Susan Jacob, PhD, Central Michigan University

How to Implement School-based Psychological Programs

Peter Sheras, PhD and Dewey G. Cornell, PhD, UVA Youth Violence Project

Nancy Lever, PhD and Jennifer Axelrod Lowie, PhD, University of Maryland
School Mental Health Program, Baltimore Public Schools

Mary E. Courtney, PhD and Lori Evans, PhD, NYU School Partnership

Closing Session

Ronald S. Palomares, PhD, Policy and Advocacy in the Schools, APA

*This program will be submitted for review to provide 4 CE credits for psychologists.
Lunch will be provided.*

Register now

On the web at http://www.apa.org/practice/opas_inst.html

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Before July 31, 2002 - \$65 (\$50 for students)

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CDSPP/D16/TSP APA Convention Dinner

Friday, August 23

7:00 9:30 - Dinner & Program

Guest of Honor: Tom Fagan

The Berghoff

17 West Adams St.

Chicago, IL

The annual CDSPP/Division 16/TSP dinner in conjunction with the APA Convention will be held at The Berghoff Restaurant in Chicago on Friday, August 23, 2002.

This year the guest of honor will be Tom Fagan.

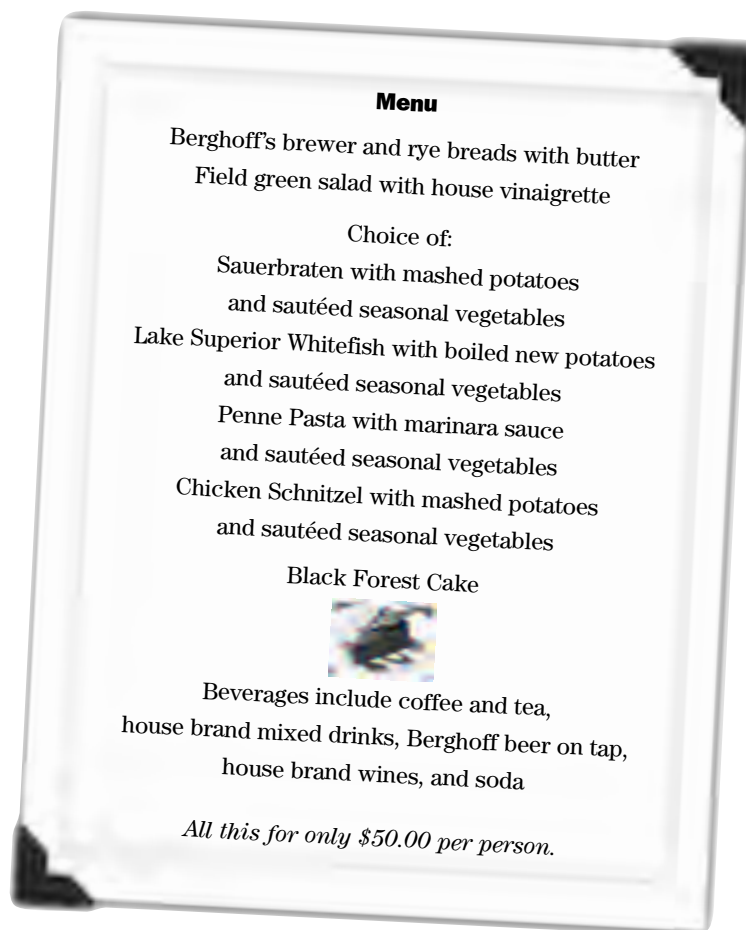
Plan on joining your fellow school psychologists for what should be a fabulous night with great food in an atmosphere that you are sure to remember. You can view the meeting room and facilities at www.berghoff.com.

An open bar (beer, wine, mixed drinks, soda) will be available from 7:00 to 9:00.

Bring your family and friends.

We are going to have a great time!!!!

Dan Reschly will serve as MC.



Reservation CDSPP/D16/TSP APA Convention Dinner
(Return no later than August 16) Amount (\$50.00 per person)

Name(s): _____

Name(s): _____

Name(s): _____

Name(s): _____

TOTAL _____

Return with check (\$50.00 per person) payable to CDSPP to:
 Steven G. Little, Ph.D.
 School Psychology Program
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 Albany, NY 12222



Why Should You Belong to APA?

Philip G. Zimbardo
President of APA

One of the first things that newly-elected APA Presidents do is get briefed by staff on the structure, function and activities of APA's organization and its members. When I first became President I knew about as much about APA as the typical member – I subscribed to the journals, I read parts of the Monitor, gave talks at conventions, and I knew that there was a large organization "somewhere" doing things in support of Psychology. Unlike most APA presidents, I was a total outsider to APA governance, never having had anything to do with its Council of Representatives, task forces or many committees. I paid my dues, used APA when I needed to, but never worked in its trenches. I won the election based solely on the credits I had earned as an academic-scientist.

Now that I am well into my Presidency, I can say it has been an eye opener for me to discover the range, number and extent of projects, task forces, actions and initiatives meant to further our discipline, advocate for psychological science, and apply psychological knowledge in the service of society. I also had no idea of the large staff infrastructure at APA that serves as our eyes, ears, hands, and feet in making sure that psychology gets funded and represented at federal and local levels, in making sure that the very best of science, application and practice come to the attention of policy makers and implementers, and in fostering psychology's collaborations with other scientific disciplines.

I realize I may sound like a cult convert, but I want to share with my colleagues in Division 16 a few of the things that I've learned that APA does for its scientists and scientist-practitioners. I hope it will help dispel the myth that "APA does nothing for scientists or academics," or "my dues go only to support Practice." The more I have learned, the more I have been motivated to contribute time, energy and talents to further these important efforts (as I will outline at the end of this note). If you want to know the whole gamut of things the Science Directorate does, please check out its web page -- www.apa.org/science.

Here are a few highlights in just three areas – advocacy, training, and what I will call "burning issues." These activities underscore what APA does "behind the scenes" in service to us all.

Advocacy: You probably all know that APA has a large presence on Capitol Hill through its activism for mental health parity and prescription privileges.

But did you know that APA has an equally vocal presence for science matters? APA staffers monitor what is happening on the Hill and in Federal Agencies relevant to researchers (NSF and NIH – including institutes NIMH, NICHD, NCI, NINDS, NIDA, NIAAA, NIA; and VA, NASA, DOE, DoD, and FDA to name a few – a lot of alphabet soup, but rich in funds that we want to tap into). They work in many ways to advocate for behavioral science funding, and for report language in federal bills in support of behavioral science research – by proposing legislative language, by testifying before congressional committees, and by visiting with congressional members and their staff. Much of this work is done in coalitions, and APA's staffers take leading roles. Just for starters, PPO-Science's Karen Studwell chairs the Friends of The NICHD (a coalition that advocates for the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development), PPO-Science's Director Geoff Mumford is the treasurer of the Coalition for National Science Funding, PPO-Science's Heather Kelly is the treasurer of the Defense Research Coalition, and PPO-Science's Pat Kobor is co-chair for the Coalition for the Advancement of Health through Behavioral and Social Sciences Research. In addition to "lobbying" efforts, APA staff continually monitor and respond to doings in the federal research and regulation arena. Whenever there are requests for comment on proposed regulations or changes to the research landscape, staff request input from relevant experts and draft a comment or letter from APA. In the last year APA has made comments on a wide variety of proposed legislative and regulative issues from education, animal research, medical records privacy, data sharing, to standards for IRB accreditation. For each of these issues, members have been asked for their input – to make comments on written documents, to come to Washington to help put on congressional events, such as briefings or research exhibits, or to let APA take them to talk directly to their congressional representatives on the Hill about specific legislative issues. You can find out about these by subscribing to a monthly e-newsletter that will keep you up to date – its called SPIN. Look at it via <http://www.apa.org/ppo/issues/spinhome.html> or sign up by sending an email to ppo@apa.org

APA also advocates in a different way – there is regular APA representation at major meetings of other societies and organizations (e.g., Society for

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Why Should You Belong to APA?

Neuroscience, American Association for the Advancement of Science, National Academies of Science, etc.), where larger science initiatives and issues are discussed. In these venues APA presents information on such issues as ethics, research regulation and IRBs, or gives comments to National Research Council committees on their scope and work plans. APA has an important place at the science table – I attend a bi-annual conference of the presidents of over 60 scientific societies, where psychology is the only social/behavioral science represented, and have been able to show these physicists, biologists, and others of the many ways in which psychology is relevant to issues of national defense, terrorism, and more. APA staff also attends regular meetings with other science groups and with policy makers (for example the Office of Science and Technology Policy – the White House's advisory arm) to discuss current science opportunities and issues, and consult with federal agencies on applications of behavioral research to their concerns.

Training: APA's most visible student activities occur through its graduate student association, APAGS – but did you know that the Science Directorate sponsors the "Science Student Council" – a group of 10 students who engage other science graduate students in convention programming, an extensive web presence, an email network, a grant program and more? The Science Directorate is also involved in some direct training activities. One activity is for more established researchers – the Science Directorate's "Advanced Training Institutes," first held in 1999, offer week-long, hands-on courses on cutting-edge methodologies such as fMRI techniques or longitudinal modeling. Another activity is directed toward advanced graduate students and young faculty, the Academic Career Workshop. This workshop, which delves into the nitty gritty of finding, getting and keeping an academic research position, has been offered for several years at convention and at smaller scientific meetings. APA offers many more opportunities for learning – from teaching tips for faculty, to a week course on psychology in general for outstanding science undergraduates, to the Exploring Behavior Week outreach to high school students. I will add that each of these activities is something in which you or your students could participate. I am planning to have APA develop the standard text for H.S. psychology courses, to collaborate with APS in promoting psychology science at H.S. science fairs, and to develop new web sites for training H.S. and College teachers in being more effective in their teaching.

"Burning Issues" Activities: You may know about APA's standard governance groups – the Board of Scientific Affairs (BSA) consists of 9 outstanding scientists (current Chair is Harry Reis, Div 8 Executive Officer), and its three standing Committees, CPTA (Committee on Psychological Tests and Assessments), CARE (Committee on Animal Research & Ethics) and COSA (Committee on Scientific Awards). But you may not know that BSA regularly supports the establishment of working groups or task forces that address timely issues. Recent ones are a working group on Internet research, a task force on testing on the Internet, and a working group on the implications of the genetic revolution for psychological research and knowledge, and an ad hoc group to address current issues in research regulation, especially IRB activities. Each of these groups, comprised of experts in the topics, has been called together to survey the issues and make recommendations about what to do next. For example, the research on the Internet group (chaired by Robert Kraut) is looking at technical, ethical, and other implications of using the internet as a tool for collecting data, as a means of assistance to researchers who are or intend to use this tool. The IRB group is planning to develop informational materials to facilitate IRB-researcher-administration interaction.

I could continue this list of things the science directorate and APA do for social psychologists and social psychology – I have not even mentioned their regular activities that support the field such as research based awards, student grants, conference awards, and more, that demonstrate that APA respects and supports its scientific foundation. But there is a more important point that I would like to address. This is the perception that APA does nothing and what you can do about it. When I mentioned this perception to Science Directorate staff (headed by Dr. Kurt Salzinger), they said it was something they constantly worry about – and wondered how much their regular efforts – substantial communications such as, Psychological Science Agenda, the bi-monthly newsletter; listserv notes; and the Science sections in the monthly Monitor – get read or noticed by colleagues. Only you can answer that one – but I want to remind you that the marvelous activities APA does in support of science are only possible when members (that is YOU!) are generous with their time, effort, and attention. In each of their activities, the Science Directorate draws on member expertise, ideas, and enthusiasm. So when you read a call for comments on your Division listserv, or

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Universal School Psychology Proposed for All Irish School Children

Janet Kilian

Queens College, City University of New York

School Psychology in the Republic of Ireland is at an exciting crossroad as plans are in progress to offer access to psychological services to all school-aged children through the national Department of Education and Science (DES). On a recent trip to southern Ireland I had the opportunity to discuss this plan on February 18, 2002 with two psychologists, Dr. Trevor James and Dr. Mike Timms, who are involved with the planning committee for the new National Educational Psychological Service (NEPS). Dr. James gave a brief background, explaining that concerns exist for the consistent access and delivery of psychological services to children. Previously, most primary school-aged students received no services while older students received services inconsistently by a few government psychologists, or privately at the discretion of their parents. Dr. James estimated that one third of the Irish population has health insurance and among those insured only 1 of the 2 health plans covers mental health needs.

Current awareness of the need for universal access has been fueled by various sources inclusive of the national goal of graduating 90% of children from senior cycle education by the year 2000, which means completing the U.S. equivalent of high school (Brief Description of the Irish Education System, 1996, p. 12). A relatively new agency, the Education Welfare Agency, now follows up to ensure school attendance which makes accountability for student progress and attendance easier to track. Another thrust in planning educational policy has been a discussion about how to identify and meet the needs of students with disabilities. Dr. James stated that parents, along with educators, have been raising these issues and in fact, a number of recent court cases have been won by parents of autistic youngsters whose educational development has not been adequately addressed. The Education Act of 1998 gave impetus to the Report of the Planning Group (1998) that called for the establishment of the NEPS. Although NEPS generally is lauded as a great step forward, Dr. James raised the concern that he does not support the notion that funds follow the individual and he also worries about the labeling of youngsters particularly in Ireland's many small country schools which may service 30 to 40 children in total.

Dr. Timms discussed the need to build into current policy ways to safeguard service delivery for children's needs if the "Celtic Tiger" or booming Irish economy slows. Both psychologists agreed to the importance of using psychologists systemically to support the strong Irish tradition of family, which identifies parents as the primary educators of their children. They envision a home/school collaboration in which psychologists promote whole school resources such as programs to involve parents in helping students with their homework or anti-bullying programs.

To fully appreciate the implementation of universal school psychological services for Irish children an understanding of the Irish school system is needed. Almost all schools in Ireland are private and receive state funding. Many schools are denominational, religious, while others are parent led. The government encourages the adaptation of the nationally identified curriculum to the character of particular regions or schools, and the power to make these decisions is given over to local authorities. Aside from larger schools in a few cities most of the schools are local and house small numbers of students. Education is divided into three levels: primary, ages 6 through 12; junior cycle, ages 13 through 15; and senior cycle, ages 16 through 18 years (Brief Description of the Irish Education System, 1996). A few government-run schools exist that service students with disabilities and two other initiatives reach out to youth at-risk. The Youthreach program addresses dropout students providing two years of education/training and work experience/placement for young people who leave school without any formal educational qualification. Also, vocational educational centers provide instructional hours on literacy and numeracy instruction to "travelers" (migrants) "to help travelers develop to their full potential, to break the cycle of illiteracy and social deprivation in which they are trapped, and enable them to become self-reliant and self-supporting members of society" (Brief Description of the Irish Education System, 1996, p. 18)

Aside from focusing on bringing disadvantaged or disenfranchised children up to level, current initiatives in Irish education state that: "The needs of

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Universal School Psychology Proposed for All Irish School Children

children with disabilities will receive special attention. The objective will be to ensure that provision for such children is sufficiently flexible to meet their special needs, ranging from mainstream provision to special provision, or a combination of both, as based on sensitive and professional assessment of their needs" (Brief Description of the Irish Education System, 1996, pp. 31-32). The Education Act of 1998 (p. 6) defines disability as follows: (a) loss of bodily or mental functions or part of person's body; (b) presence of chronic disease or illness; (c) malfunction, malformation or disfigurement of a part of person's body; (d) a condition which results in a person learning differently; or (e) a condition which affects a person's thought processes, perception of reality, emotions or judgment which results in disturbed behavior. The support services identified to be offered to individuals with disabilities include: (a) assessment; (b) psychological services; (c) counseling and guidance services; (d) technical aide and equipment; (e) provision for students' learning through sign or Irish sign language; (f) speech therapy services; (g) provision for education to students with special needs other than in schools; and (h) transportation services (Education Act of 1998, p. 8). The Education Act (1998) highlights certain areas related to students with disabilities such as the annual allocation of additional monies to recognized schools with high levels of educationally disadvantaged students, the importance of parents' rights in choosing the school for their disabled child, and the ensuring that students with disabilities have access to appropriate guidance to assist them in educational and career choices (pp.10-15).

In considering the formulation of NEPS, the Report of Planning Group (1998) reviews prior recommendations for educational psychological services for children. The Report of the Special Education Review Committee (SERC; 1993) recommended an "expanded School Psychological Service, staffed by psychologists with appropriate qualifications, under the Commissioner of the Department of Education" (NEPS, Report of Planning Group, 1998, p. 12). The Report on the National Education Convention (1994) emphasized student populations in need of psychological services as those with learning difficulties, problem behavior, students at-risk of leaving school with limited qualifications and travelers (NEPS, Report of Planning Group, 1998, p. 12). The White Paper on Education (1995) stated that a psychological service for both primary and post-primary schools would be developed (NEPS, Report of Planning Group, 1998, p. 12).

The Department of Education and Science (2000) in view of the need for a more comprehensive national support service for children with special needs listed seven guiding principles. The principles include: (a) entitlement or the right of special needs pupils to quality educational services appropriate to their abilities and needs; (b) early identification of needs including comprehensive assessment; (c) inclusion with special needs youngsters sharing in a complete educational experience with their non-disabled peers; (d) review process where the student's progress is tracked and reviewed at regular intervals; (e) updated policy which relies upon current relevant research and is based on best practice at home and abroad; (f) integrated services making use of a continuum of service based upon a continuum of needs; and (g) right of appeal which addresses differences of opinion between professionals and parents/guardians (Special Needs Education, Internet, February 13, 2002).

Specific behaviors of concern were identified by teachers and parents including low achievement, poor attendance, aggression or bullying, substance misuse, disruptive behavior, withdrawal and isolation, and attempted suicides. To address these behaviors the planning group advises the inclusion of psychologists who can contribute "to systemic interventions in the schools as a whole, although there may be instances of an urgent nature where individual intervention with a student or students is required" (NEPS, Report of Planning Group, 1998, p. 28).

A definition of the overriding aims for educational psychologists is proposed. "The Planning Group recommends that the main objective of a National Educational Psychological Service should be to support individual students, support others in helping students and in preventing problems for individuals, and to seek to effect change in educational, family and related environments so as to bring benefits to particular students and to students generally" (NEPS, Report of Planning Group, 1998, pp. 41-42). Further objectives for psychologists to achieve include designing and implementing a range of interventions to assist the school and teachers to manage and respond to a variety of behaviors, and supporting staff in developing prevention programs and strategies and in establishing appropriate links with other agencies and with parents. Also, psychologists are charged with making placement recommendations to special schools or classes or for specialized provisions as these relate to special education needs while recognizing and referring to the

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Universal School Psychology Proposed for All Irish School Children

health sector when appropriate (NEPS, Report of Planning Group, 1998, pp. 46-50).

In terms of organizational structure and staffing, the recommendation is for an independent educational psychological service responsible to the national Minister of Education. Psychologists are to be organized into local teams under a supervising psychologist. The teams are to correspond regionally to the local health boards (NEPS, Report of Planning Group, 1998, pp. 56-65). The roles of school psychologists are to include 65% casework and 35% support and development work (NEPS Report of Planning Group, 1998, p. 74). Casework is defined as: (a) assessment; (b) reports, recommendations, and giving feedback; (c) referral to other agencies and liaison to agencies; (d) follow-up work; (e) case conferences; (f) finding and evaluating special education resources, and (g) counseling and therapeutic interventions. Support and development work involves systematic change for appropriate development and prevention in relation to learning and behavior of groups of students, work with teachers and parents on discipline, and learning and behavior support strategies, contributions to the enhancement of teachers' skills in identifying and meeting student needs, research, and career development support (NEPS, Report of Planning Group, 1998, pp. 72-74). The Planning Group cautions "a balance between casework and support and development work is necessary. A narrow focus on casework alone limits the availability of the psychologist to a very small number of students. In casework itself, a narrow focus on the assessment aspect limits the usefulness of the intervention for students, parents, and teachers. There is a need for recommendations, follow through, for advice on provision for the students, and for support for parents and teachers" (NEPS, Report of Planning Group, 1998, p. 74). The recommendation is to add "permanent whole time posts under prevailing civil service conditions" (NEPS, Report of Planning Group, 1998, p. 87) which will be phased in by 2004 totaling 200 school psychology positions. Currently 69 school psychologists are reportedly employed under civil service (NEPS, Report of Planning Group, 1998, p. 82).

The planning group discusses the qualifications of the proposed school psychologists for NEPS. NEPS "... should ensure that all its psychologists are fully competent to advise and support schools and teachers in identifying and meeting the needs of the relatively large group of students in need of remedial teaching" (NEPS, Report of Planning Group, 1998, p. 31). In deciding upon the specifics of psychologists'

training the planning group looked to other European countries as a guide. The report on Psychologists in the Educational System in Europe (1997) states "There is no general requirement reported for the registration/licensing of psychologists working in education services in Europe although there is a trend towards this" (NEPS, Report of Planning Group, 1998, p. 91). In nine European countries educational psychologists are licensed on a statutory basis although some countries still use teachers in the capacity of educational psychologists while other countries require educational psychologists to have first worked as teachers (NEPS, Report of Planning Group, 1998, p. 91). In Ireland, "... in practice, most of the psychologists working in the education sector in this country have both teaching qualifications and experience," while they may or may not have specific training in psychology (NEPS, Report of Planning Group, 1998, p. 92). However, the Psychological Society of Ireland (PSI) maintains a strict policy on the training and certification of school psychologists. PSI "has a policy that all psychologists recruited for work in an educational psychological service should have a postgraduate qualification in educational psychology, or in another relevant area of specialization. The PSI does not consider that a teaching qualification and experience should be a required qualification" (NEPS, Report of Planning Group, 1993, p. 92). The PSI operates its own system of registration for psychologists and is working toward achieving statutory registration for school psychologists (NEPS, Report of Planning Group, 1998, p. 92). Taking into account controversy over training, conflicting views, the practical concerns for grand-fathering in already working psychologists with diverse training backgrounds, and the imminent need for 131 new school psychologists, the planning group recommends the following minimal qualifications for NEPS posts: (a) an honors degree in psychology, and (b) 2 to 3 years of supervised post-graduate professional experience as a psychologist in the area of education or another relevant specialization, or in special circumstances, a teaching qualification and 2-3 years of teaching or related experience, subject to particular requirements for supervision and training being met while the psychologist is in service (NEPS, Report of Planning Group, 1998, p. 93).

Funding is addressed by the planning group and recommendations made to finance the induction of the new educational psychologists, administrative and secretarial support, office accommodations, furnishings, equipment, tests and materials needed by

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 94

Universal School Psychology Proposed for All Irish School Children

psychologists, and a director for the new independent agency (NEPS, Report of Planning Group, 1998, pp. 103-105). The planning group recognizes other funding needs such as part-time staff, the training and in-career development of psychologists and incidental expenses, and relegates decisions as to funding for these to the newly established NEPS (NEPS, Report of Planning Group, 1998, p. 104).

In summary, the NEPS, Report of Planning Group (1998), states:

That a full and comprehensive National Educational Psychological Service be developed in the Educational sector, coordinated with psychological services in the Health sector, including those psychological services provided by voluntary bodies, to ensure adequate provision of an educational psychological service for students who need this provision in all educational settings. ... (and) that psychologists in the National Educational Psychological Service should work collaboratively with parents and teachers, relate to the whole school, be well integrated in the Educational system as a whole and coordinate their provision with other psychological and related services in the Health sector. (p. 106-108).

Certain operational principles recommended by the planning group include having the needs of students as the paramount concern, taking account of the totality of the student's life experiences to the extent possible, facilitating a continuity of approach to meeting student needs, being accessed readily, delivering quality service which is efficient and professional, in partnership with the major interests concerned, and cooperating in establishing functional links and coordination with relevant educational and health services at local, regional and national levels to maximize the effectiveness of the overall provision of psychological services for children and youth (NEPS, Report of Planning Group, 1998, pp. 106-109). Finally, the planning group highlights the importance of establishing a separate agency titled the National Educational Psychological Service that functions autonomously to provide specifically for the delivery of educational psychological services. This agency shall have its own appointed minister to head up NEPS and report directly to the Minister for Education and Science. The National Educational Psychological Service "should be ... operationally separate from other divisions and sections of the Department, dedicated to the development and provision of an educational psychological service ..." (NEPS, Report of Planning Group, 1998, p. 108).

The development of the NEPS is a comprehen-

sive undertaking that identifies the need for educational, specifically school psychological services.

The goal is to provide universal access to psychological service to all school-aged children. The entire project is laudable. Two particular features framed by the planning group are of specific relevance to the subspecialty of school/educational psychology. First is the implementation of a separate, freestanding government agency for Educational Psychology along with the other agencies under the auspices of the National Ministry for Education. This delineation not only gives value and autonomy to the field of school psychology, but differentiates the substance and meaning of the subspecialty to both psychology in general, and the field of education. The second feature emphasized by the planning group is the need for a broad view of school psychology. The planning group makes a point to emphasize a whole school approach that offers access to school psychological services to all school-aged children. The support and development work discussed, is an excellent example of how school psychological expertise and services can be offered to entire school populations, thus implementing proactive programs to such concerns as underachievement and aggressive or violent behavior patterns. In the United States, the limiting of school psychologists' interventions to assessment and casework has been a myopic focus which has deprived large populations of students of the assistance of school psychological services to augment their healthy development. Also, because of a narrow focus in role delineation to identified special needs students and casework/assessment, school psychology has lacked the power base in mainstream education to assist in the planning and development for the needs of the whole child in today's world, with the specific stressors children currently experience.

In discussing the NEPS with Dr. James and Dr. Timms, I raised a concern having to do with appropriate training and levels of training for school psychologists. Apparently that concern was not only raised by the PSI, but also, included in NEPS, Report of Planning Group (1998) in a statement of Reservation by Noreen Breen, a psychologist on the planning committee who is the Chief Educational Psychologist for the City of Dublin's Vocational Educational Committee. Dr. Breen's (NEPS, Report of Planning Group, 1998,) reservation states:

The Psychological Society of Ireland's Guidelines for Employment and Professional Psychologists in the Health Service (1998) states that candidates employed in the Health services will possess a

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BOOK REVIEW

Essentials of TAT and Other Storytelling Techniques

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Description and Opening Remarks

E*ssentials of TAT and Other Storytelling Techniques Assessment* (Teglasi, 2001) published by Wiley fills a void in the assessment literature and is a welcome addition. The interpretation of narrative assessments, similar to other projective assessment methods, has typically been linked to psychodynamic theory. This in turn, may render the method less desirable for individuals who do not subscribe to that theoretical orientation. Perhaps more importantly, this book serves as a suitable text for school psychology trainers wishing to teach narrative assessment, as most personality assessment books written with school psychologists in mind do not give adequate attention to projective assessment (e.g., Kamphaus & Frick, 1996; Merrill, 1999; Sattler, 2002). Most would agree that this situation exists at least in part because of the critiques of projective assessment (e.g., Lilienfeld, Wood, & Garb, 2001) that focus upon the limited empirical validity of these methods, although surveys of school psychologists indicate that these measures remain in use (Kennedy, Faust, Willis, & Piotrowski, 1994).

Also of importance are the more recently available narrative assessment instruments that were developed specifically for youth and are scorable (Costantino, Malgady, & Rogler, 1988; McArthur & Roberts, 1982). One of these measures, the TEMAS (Costantino et al., 1988) has been shown to demonstrate empirical validity (Costantino, Malgady, Colon-Malgady, & Bailey, 1992; Costantino, Malgady, Rogler, & Tsui, 1988) in public school and clinical samples. The Roberts Apperception Test for Children (McArthur & Roberts, 1982) has been the subject of numerous doctoral dissertations; however, validity data are difficult to interpret, as authors have indicated that the test norms may not be representative of the general population.

Summary of Content

Chapter one reviews the historical and theoretical underpinnings of narrative assessment, providing a context for the book, yet pointing out that com-

mon approaches to narrative assessment have limitations. This is important, as the theoretical orientation of the author is neither clearly psychodynamic nor cognitive-behavioral. Teglasi relies upon schema theory to provide a theoretical foundation, and in so doing, offers a perspective that will serve practitioners and researchers of either major orientation. Schema theory is based on the notion that the interpretation of new experiences is guided by existing mental structures. A link between the projective hypothesis (Frank, 1948), which is based on the notions that one reveals oneself through idiosyncratic responses to stimuli, and schema theory (e.g., Taylor & Crocker, 1981) is posited, suggesting that schemas involve a distinction between two types of knowledge that organize experience: social schemas and personal schemas. Recent research articles in the field (McClelland, Koestner, & Weinberger, 1989; Spangler, 1992) also contribute to the author's thinking. These articles indicate that narrative measures assess different aspects of given variables as compared to questionnaire measures, suggesting there is a place for narrative assessment alongside questionnaire-based assessment, as such practice will increase the breadth and depth of the information obtained.

Chapter two focuses on the administration of the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT; Murray, 1943), and provides a critique of the narrative assessment in general. Despite the seeming unstructured nature of the task, Teglasi rightly points out the need for standardized administration procedures, which is important for individual evaluations and research purposes. Guidelines for stimulus card selection and administration procedures are carefully outlined. The research reviewed represents long-standing concerns and critiques of the TAT. Among the critiques mentioned are the comments of Murstein (1963) and Zubin, Eron, and Schumer, (1965), which critically examined and appraised the TAT. Of particular importance are some concerns that are inherent in the stimulus cards (e.g., the apparent stimulus pull for negative affect), yet the method can provide valuable information in the hands of a skilled practitioner. Properties of the stimulus cards in regard to

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the content of the picture stimuli and their specific characteristics are discussed in light of research and commentary in the field. This is placed within an easy to understand context highlighting the importance of these variables for the data yielded as well as its eventual interpretation.

Chapter three provides an overview of interpretation procedures. Three properties of the story form should be considered when making interpretations. The first is the underlying message or "moral" of the story, which is known as an import (Arnold, 1962). This is followed by the abstract content, which reflects affect and social judgment in regard to what is screened out and not verbalized by the respondent. Lastly, there is the structural organization, or formal properties of the narrative; these variables generally reflect task compliance and adherence to directions in regard to whether all the requested story elements are provided. An important discussion of imports follows, both in regard to the process of story generation and its content. Such a distinction makes the point that the thinking process of the respondent carries implications for the development of schemas, which then guide the interpretation of subsequent experience. These may be more important than the expressed content, which may or may not reflect significant concerns in the respondent's experience. It is duly noted that expressed content may merely reflect the content of the stimulus card. Schemas, on the other hand, reflect the idiosyncratic manner in which one views the world and reacts to events. This latter information separates projective from objective assessment, and therein lies its value.

Chapters four through eight discuss assessment of particular aspects of functioning using the TAT. Included are chapters on the assessment of cognition, emotion, object relations, self-regulation, and motivation. An extensive discussion is provided of the possible meaning of different behaviors that reflect noncompliance with task demands and the interpretive considerations that such situations require. Descriptions and examples of the concepts are contained within each chapter, along with charts that organize the operational definitions according to the concepts to which they pertain. These detailed charts function as coding sheets, as there is space provided to indicate which stories reflect particular aspects of the concepts. These in turn are tallied across stories provided by the respondent, and permit one to develop a report of the respon-

dent's psychological functioning based on aggregated data.

Further examination of the parameters included in the assessment of cognition reveals that several domains are considered: (a) perceptual integration, which is the accuracy with which the information in the pictured situation is explained and conceptualized; (b) the balance between concrete and abstract thinking, as well as detailed information about abstraction skills; (c) the integrity of information processing, which includes attentional processes; (d) the extent of planfulness and monitoring on the part of the respondent; (e) the coherence of the story provided; (f) the integrity of the agreement between inner and outer experience; (g) the balance between the relationship of story characters to each character's individuality; (h) the integration of cognition and experience, which may permit one to interpret new events through existing schemas; and (i) the production and flow of ideas. Thus, if one thoroughly follows the coding system outlined, information will be provided on thought processes, affect, interpersonal relations, management of one's affect and behavior and that which drives an individual's behavior in the first place. The coding of stories for emotion include considering: (a) the source of the affect; (b) the manner of coping with emotions whether these be positive or negative as well as long-term or short-term; (c) emotional maturity in terms of complexity and coherence, the clarity and specificity in describing the emotion, the coordination of emotion in regard to the appropriateness for the depicted scene as well as how it relates to the emotions of the other characters in the story; and (d) the level of emotion portrayed in regard to organization and moral development.

Coding of stories for object relations, or interpersonal relationships includes: (a) whether the respondent's stories reflect an age-appropriate stage in the development of object relations; (b) the extent to which the story reflects appropriate boundaries and empathy; and (c) the extent to which the story reflects the diversity of perspectives and attributes across individuals in regard to feeling, behaviors, and relating. The assessment of motivation and self-regulation includes: (a) goal setting and their pursuit; (b) the level of motivation and how realistic it is for the characters portrayed in the story; (c) self-monitoring in regard to the maintaining of focus on task and censoring verbalizations; and (d) self-management along a continuum ranging

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from being reactive to planful and able to work toward a long-term goal.

The remaining chapters of the book discuss other narrative assessments in a descriptive manner: the Children's Apperception Test (Bellak & Bellak, 1965), the TEMAS (Costantino et al., 1988), and the Roberts Apperception Test for Children (McArthur & Roberts, 1982). The final chapter shows how the data obtained might be integrated into a comprehensive case report. This is explained in sufficient detail so as to be an aid to graduate students. Among the teaching tools incorporated in this book are numerous clinical case studies illustrating the application of the system and numerous "attention boxes" which offer caveats regarding the limitations of the system.

Concluding Remarks

The coding system that Teglasi offers for the TAT merits consideration. The level of detail provides a comprehensive manner in which to conceptualize assessment using the TAT. The psychometric base supporting this system is growing. One study indicates that rater-reliability is approximately .80 (Blankman & Teglasi, in press), which is acceptable. Another study documents the inverse relationship between indices of self-regulation and negative emotionality (Bassan-Diamond, Teglasi, & Schmitt, 1995). Of particular importance to school psychologists is a study indicating the relationship between cognitive dimensions and children carrying the special education classification of emotional disability (McGrew & Teglasi, 1990). Lastly, the utility of this coding system has been documented in a treatment study (Teglasi & Rothman, 2001). Each of these studies is suggestive of potential treatment validity. Further research might be directed toward generating a knowledge base that will foster usage of the system in routine school psychological assessment practice.

A detailed discussion of the limitations of this approach is offered, and is supported by tables comparing it and contrasting it with objective assessment. Limited research data in support of the system are presented. This in part reflects the field, which is more clinically advanced than empirically advanced. Thus, this book is a representation of the clinical skills of an experienced, academically oriented practitioner, who has relied on theory and research in the careful development of her ideas. The level of detail and clear operational definitions of the constructs incorporated in this system, however, should facilitate research efforts. Although it is important to

determine the relationships between the constructs espoused in this system and other empirical criteria, it must be remembered that the approach presented by Teglasi reflects a way of thinking about narratives. This approach is likely to be useful to both clinical and school psychologists of varying theoretical orientations. The availability of this book should raise the level of practice for those choosing to use narrative measures.

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The Commentary Section

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

Volume 56, Number 2 (Spring, 2002): "Children with Selective Mutism: Seen but Not Heard" by Kristin M. Drewes and Angeleque Akin-Little.

The article "Children With Selective Mutism: Seen But Not Heard" by Drewes and Akin-Little presents an opportunity to discuss the current data about selective mutism and attempt to make sense of the often conflicting and confusing information in the literature. This article echoes some of the common themes in recent publications that more research on selective mutism is urgently needed and that treatment outcomes are most favorable when parents, teachers, and psychologists all collaborate and have a common understanding of this disorder.

Despite controversy in the past, one area that has gained clarity in recent years is the etiology of selective mutism. It is very encouraging that Drewes and Akin-Little state that the most supportive evidence exists for the correlation between selective mutism and anxiety disorders, particularly social anxiety. Since the authors cited this evidence, it is perplexing and troubling that the editors chose to highlight a quote that referred to the outdated and unsubstantiated theory of abuse as the cause of selective mutism. Since several case reviews (which involved larger numbers of cases) have shown that most selectively mute children have not been abused, it is extremely harmful to selectively mute children and their families to perpetuate the abuse theory. Not only does the fear of being falsely accused prevent some parents from seeking professional help for their children, but countless hours and dollars are being spent in therapy that seeks to uncover past traumas instead of focusing treatment on teaching the child to cope with anxiety in order to be able to communicate in school and other settings.

While it is true that historically the notion of abuse or trauma has been proposed as an etiology, no evidence has ever been put forth to support this theory. Apparently the assumption has been made in the past that children who are withdrawn and have difficulty with social interaction must have been mis-

treated, although no such assumption is made with adults who are socially inhibited. During the 1980s and 1990s therapists who work with selectively mute children noted the similarity between their behavior and that of socially anxious individuals, and several important concepts emerged; besides the studies by Black, Uhde, and Dummit which were cited in this article, readers are also referred to the writings of Dow et al., who state that "there has been a shift in the etiological views on selective mutism, deemphasizing (sic) psychodynamic factors and instead focusing on biologically mediated temperamental and anxiety components. In addition, an excellent review article by Anstendig argues for the classification of selective mutism as an anxiety disorder in the DSM. Incidentally, Anstendig also gives a more accurate explanation for the change in terminology in the DSM-IV, from elective to selective mutism, stating, "The change in terminology represents the de-emphasizing of oppositionality in the selectively mute child.

Drewes and Akin-Little also state, "there still exists an ongoing debate regarding whether selective mutism is rooted in anxiety or oppositional behavior among children." Having cited a great deal of evidence that selective mutism is rooted in anxiety, one would anticipate that these authors would defend that position. Yet in many ways, they are inconsistent, particularly in their repeated reference to selectively mute children "refusing to speak." This phrase implies a willfulness to mutism, and teachers and therapists who view it in this manner invariably engage in power struggles with selectively mute children. If one accepts the theory of inhibition and/or social anxiety, then it is not difficult to understand that children will resist attempts to force them to speak, an action that these children believe themselves incapable of performing and which causes them great physical distress and discomfort. In order to illustrate these physical reactions, a collaborative study with Dr. Jerome Kagan and Dr. Elisa Shipon Blum of the Selective Mutism Group, is currently being planned, to measure physiologic parameters such as heart rate of selectively mute children. The study will test the theory that these children have

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highly reactive sympathetic nervous systems that cause them to experience fearful and physically distressing sensations when expected to speak, from which they unconsciously seek avoidance by withdrawing. This unconscious reaction is very different from willful opposition or defiance, and teachers and therapists should control their own reactions of anger and frustration in order to help children move beyond mutism.

Another example of reluctance to accept selective mutism as an anxiety disorder is the lengthy inclusion of the Hawthorn method in the treatment section of the article. Given the likelihood that the Hawthorn method will increase a child's anxiety, and the absence of any instruction for the child to cope with anxiety, the claim of 85% success rate seems dubious. It remains to be clarified on what basis the Hawthorn Center makes this claim, and by what criteria they define their success. Even if 85% of the children can be coerced to speak (presumably because the fear of remaining captive in an office outweighs the fear of speaking at some point), it is certainly unlikely that the child's speech would generalize to other settings without other interventions. Since other behavioral treatments are effective in helping a child to initiate speech, one would question why such a punitive experience should be utilized at all.

With the lengthy discussion of the Hawthorn method, the authors seem to endorse it and make the unsubstantiated claim that it is gaining acceptance, when in fact most clinicians with extensive expertise in this area do not favor it because of its punitive and coercive nature. This method is conspicuously absent from the treatment recommendations of Dow et al., although their article does include the statement that "punitive measures...have a tendency to increase a child's anxiety and thus would not be recommended. These authors instead favor anxiety reduction, and give excellent examples of school-based multidisciplinary interventions.

Other critics of the Hawthorn method include Kehle, who states "Escape-avoidance techniques have obvious disadvantages in that they are intrusive and probably unethical. Kehle's contribution to the field of selective mutism, as described in this article, is the use of video self-modeling to facilitate initiation of speech; small case studies have shown a high degree of success with this method, although it would be helpful to test the use of this treatment on larger numbers of children. Technical difficulty of editing videotape can be a barrier to the effective

use of this method.

Notably absent from the Drewes and Akin-Little article is any reference to the work of Kratochwill, which should be especially helpful to school psychologists. Like Dow et al., Kratochwill also recommends the inclusion of parents in assessment and treatment, and gives details on specific school-based interventions based on sound behavioral therapy.

Additionally, Dr. Shipon Blum has authored a book entitled "The Ideal Classroom Setting for the Selectively Mute Child," which is an invaluable reference for teachers and school psychologists.

With the relatively sparse information in the literature, it is not surprising that many clinical and school psychologists are seeking treatment advice for selective mutism. The Selective Mutism Group-Childhood Anxiety Network (SMG/CAN) fields hundreds of such requests, and will continue to promote knowledge and research of this disorder. In addition to the research study mentioned above, a genetic study will soon begin in collaboration with Dr. Murray Stein. In addition, several members of the SMG/CAN Professional Advisory Board are currently conducting studies on various cognitive-behavioral therapy protocols for the treatment of selective mutism.

But until more controlled studies can be completed and published, selectively mute children deserve well-planned treatment interventions based on current published data as well as the clinical experience of those who have successfully treated hundreds of children.

Respectfully,

Christine Stanley, Executive Assistant, SMG/CAN
Chair, Professional Education Committee

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The Commentary Section

Volume 55, Number 4 (Fall, 2001): *"Beyond the academic rhetoric of 'g': Intelligence testing guidelines for practitioners"* by **James B. Hale and Catherine A. Fiorello.**

I am writing in response to the article, "Beyond the Academic Rhetoric of 'g': Intelligence Testing Guidelines for Practitioners" (Hale & Fiorello, 2001). As a recently trained school psychologist, I have often questioned the utility of intelligence testing. However, I have come to the conclusion that intellectual assessment is a necessary component of almost any comprehensive evaluation. If used properly, I believe that intelligence tests can be wonderful diagnostic tools. However, as Hale and Fiorello (2001) acknowledged the results from standardized intelligence tests must be used in conjunction with other diagnostic tools, interviews, and systematic observations to gain a holistic picture of the child and to ensure ecological validity. Intelligence test results should never be interpreted in isolation. Although I believe that intelligence tests are valid and reliable, they do not give us the total clinical picture. They leave out several facets of "intelligence." As Hale and Fiorello noted, we must recognize that most popular intelligence tests do not adequately measure executive functioning and memory, and most are contaminated by crystallized subtests, which are part ability and part achievement. Despite these limitations, examination of individual patterns of performance can provide us with a great deal of information about how the child processes and learns information. This requires careful examination of subtest input, processing, and output demands, careful observation of the child's testing behaviors, and additional information gathered from multiple sources.

I believe that the intellectual tools are not the problem. The problem is that the multimodal/multi-method assessments described by Hale and Fiorello (2001) are rarely conducted in school settings. The truth of the matter is that few practitioners are using these tools to assess cognitive or neuropsychological processes. In the school setting where I practice, we have to conduct nearly one hundred re-evaluations each year. As one might expect, time constraints require us to quickly administer an intellectual test and an achievement measure. These re-evaluations are conducted solely for classification purposes, not to make meaningful recommendations. Even when conducting initial evaluations, intellectual tools are seldom supplemented by other critical information, and general recommendations are

offered rather than specific ones designed to meet individual needs. Most of the time we use intellectual measures to assess "g" or Full Scale IQ and then determine if a child has an "ability"-achievement discrepancy, even though Hale and Fiorello's data clearly show that interpreting the Full Scale IQ is inappropriate for children who have significant factor score differences (which is most of the children we see!). Maybe global scores make the results more tangible, but examining patterns of performance helps us understand the cognitive and psychosocial complexities of the individual children we serve.

As is the case with most pupil services personnel, we are overburdened with paperwork and timelines. Instead of focusing on paperwork, our real efforts should be focused on using our tools and skills to examine individual strengths and needs for intervention purposes. Instead of criticizing the tools, we must voice our concerns about our role and function as school psychologists. We must advocate for the resources necessary to provide the types of assessments that will benefit students, rather than the cookie cutter, quickie evaluations that are conducted solely to meet special education requirements. Perhaps we should criticize the institutions that provide limited financial resources for our schools or the legislators who write special education law. Additionally, perhaps we should also take an honest look at our role in the system. We should challenge ourselves to become more involved in pre-referral interventions, provide more comprehensive evaluations, and work with others to assist us in meeting the needs of children. As Hale and Fiorello (2001) noted, what we learn in graduate school we tend to be put aside in practice, because we allow this to happen. When we advocate for ourselves, we advocate for the children we hope to serve.

In sum, I believe that the intelligence test results are extremely useful in practice, and that careful examination of individual patterns of performance is necessary to develop individualized interventions designed to meet the unique needs of each child. To advance our field, the change has to come from us; using the best standardized measures available to us or interpreting them simplistically, will not benefit us or the children we serve.

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Aspects of Teacher Training and Their Effect on Teacher Collaboration Skills and Consultation Preferences

Preparation and Implementation."

Reliability and validity. Reliability of the CTOF was established by calculating the internal consistency for the total scale. Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the 21-item scale was .96 indicating high reliability. Due to the nature of this study, test-retest reliability coefficients were not calculated.

Content validity was established through expert opinion. Expert educators who participated in the Summer Training Institute met to develop the items for the CTOF. Subsequent meetings were held until the final version of the scale was approved by cooperating teachers, supervising teachers, and course professors.

Construct validity for the CTOF was determined through factor analysis. Factor loadings of .3 were considered as acceptable as supported by Tabachnick and Fidell (1983). A factor analysis was calculated forcing three factors that resulted in the elimination of item 21 and the relocation of item 2 to factor one. Generally the first 10 items of the CTOF, which related to planning strategies, loaded on factor one with a coefficient alpha of .93. Most items from the Procedure section of the CTOF loaded on factor two with a coefficient alpha of .90. The remaining three items that pertained to classroom management loaded on factor three, with a coefficient alpha of .85.

Working In Teams (WIT)

Development. The Working In Teams (WIT) scale was developed to measure acquisition of collaboration skills. Items on the scale were adapted from a study by West and Cannon (1988).

West and Cannon conducted a study involving a 100-member interdisciplinary panel of experts whose research, training, and practices related to educational consultation and collaboration. The researchers extracted competencies identified in the literature as essential to the process of collaboration and consultation. Each panel member then rated each competency in terms of its relevance to the construct. After two rounds of statistical validation and factor analysis, a total of 47 competencies were categorized into seven categories.

This study focuses on three of those categories: Personal Characteristics, Interactive Communication, and Collaborative Problem-Solving. The first seven items that were rated highest in each of the following three categories were selected for the WIT: (a) Collaborative Problem Solving; (b) Personal Characteristics; and (c) Interactive Communication. Two items, one from the Personal Characteristics

category and the other from the Interactive Communication category, were discarded despite their high agreement ratings, because it was decided that practicum students would not be able to assess the two skills due to their current professional maturation level. The Personal Characteristics category included a total of only six items since a total of seven competencies were originally identified and one was discarded.

The WIT comprised 22 items. The first 20 items were adapted from West and Cannon's (1988) study as described above. Item 21 asked practicum students to indicate their preference for consultation styles given a choice between a collaborative and a clinical style as defined by Brown et al. (1998). Item 22 asked participants to rate the usefulness of the collaborative process on a scale of 1 to 5 where 1 indicates "Very Useful" and 5 indicates "Not Useful."

Reliability and validity. Reliability for the WIT when used as a self-rating and as a team rating instrument was established by calculating internal consistency for the 20-item scale. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .97 for the self-scale and .96 for the team scale indicating high reliability. No differences existed in the reliability coefficient between Fall 1998 and Spring 1999 students.

Content validity was initially established by basing items on the results of the experts who participated in West and Cannon's (1988) study. Further validation was established through expert opinion. The five judges were licensed in psychology and/or social work and had extensive training and experience in the areas of collaboration and consultation. Mean ratings of expert agreement on each item ranged from 2.20 to 4.00 with a total mean of 3.52.

Construct validity was calculated for the WIT when used as a self-rating and as a team rating through factor analysis. Factor structure revealed that all items loaded highly (ranging from .82 to .67 on the self-rating and from .86 to .76 on the team rating) on one factor. Reliability was calculated indicating an alpha of .96 for the self-rating measure and an alpha of .97 for the team rating measure.

A second factor analysis was calculated using a three-factor structure in order to compare the structures with those in West and Cannon's (1988) study. Most items on factor one were categorized as Personal Characteristics in West and Cannon's study.

Consultation Preference Scale (CPS)

Description. A five-item scale measuring teacher preference for consultation styles was distributed to measure practicum students' preference

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Aspects of Teacher Training and Their Effect on Teacher Collaboration Skills and Consultation Preferences

for consultation styles. All items that describe collaborative and clinical consultation styles were selected from the Consultation Preferences Scale (Babcock & Pryzwansky, 1983). Items were presented exactly as they appeared on the original scale and were presented in the form of semantic differentials asking practicum students to indicate the extent to which the statement on the left or the right came closest to their preference.

Procedure

The first week of each semester, all practicum students who were enrolled in the Elementary Education Mathematics and Science Practicum were assigned to fourth and fifth grade classrooms in one of six elementary school in the Philadelphia School District. Groups were heterogeneous, containing a mixture of students who had been exposed to revised CETP courses and students who had not.

Teams of four or five practicum students worked as a team to develop and present lessons in math and science. Two series of four lessons, one series devoted to mathematics and the other to science, were prepared by each team member. Each student had the opportunity to lead one lesson that he or she developed while teammates assisted in the implementation of the lesson.

A CTOF was completed by cooperating teachers for lessons that were presented by the practicum students. In most cases, two CTOFs were completed for each student. Some cooperating teachers completed four observation forms per student while others completed only one. At the end of each semester, all practicum students were asked to complete a WIT scale and a CPS. The scales were distributed and collected by the supervising teachers. In completing the WIT, each student was asked to rate him/herself and each of his/her teammates. Students were assured that information provided would not affect their grades. To assure confidentiality, each practicum student was assigned a code to replace the need to use names as identifiers.

Results

Primary Analyses

A discriminant analysis was calculated to investigate the combined effect of the predictors and the degree of accuracy with which they predicted CETP group membership. Predictors used in the discriminant analysis were total scores on the CTOF, a measure of effectiveness while working collaboratively; the WIT, a self-reported and team measure of

acquired collaboration skills, CPS, a measure of consultation preferences, and Item 22 of the WIT, a measure for anticipated usefulness of collaboration.

Of the original 187 cases, a maximum of 74 cases were missing data on at least one variable. Missing data were randomly scattered among groups and were predominantly missing on one predictor, the CTOF. Mean substitution was used to compensate for the missing data.

No significant differences were found between CETP and non-CETP students based on the five measures of collaboration and consultation used in this study. The significance level of .32 indicates that the combined effects of all five predictors, when mean substitution is used to accommodate for the missing data, can predict group membership with only 57.8% accuracy.

Due to the large number of missing cases, a second analysis was calculated using all of the five predictors but excluding cases where data from any one variable were missing. Table 1 presents comparisons of predictability levels for CETP membership when mean substitution was used to compensate for the missing data and when data were eliminated from the analysis completely.

Table 1.
Predictability of CETP and non-CETP Group Membership When Mean Substitution Was and Was Not Used for Missing Cases

Group	Mean Substitution			No Mean Substitution		
	n	non-CETP (%)	CETP (%)	n	non-CETP (%)	CETP (%)
non-CETP	107	68 (63.6)	39 (36.4)	42	25 (59.5)	17 (40.5)
CETP	80	40 (50)	40 (50)	36	12 (33.3)	24 (66.7)

The results presented in Table 1 indicate that although the sample size decreased to 78, predictability of CETP membership increased from 57.8% to 62.8%. Despite the increased accuracy in predicting CETP membership when cases with missing data were eliminated, the significance level remained at .32 due to the smaller sample size. The ability to predict CETP membership accurately when cases with missing data were eliminated increased to 66.7% from 50.0% when mean substitution was used.

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Aspects of Teacher Training and Their Effect on Teacher Collaboration Skills and Consultation Preferences**Secondary Analyses**

Secondary analyses were computed to investigate the relationship between CETP membership and each of the predictors separately. Hypothesis 1 stated that CETP students would demonstrate higher levels of performance while team teaching than non-CETP students. The CTOF was used to measure teaching performance during team teaching. A mean score was obtained for each student since students had as many as four separate CTOF scores. Data

Table 2
Correlations Between CTOF Item Scores and CETP Membership

<i>CTOF Item Number</i>	<i>Correlation</i>	<i>CTOF Item Number</i>	<i>Correlation</i>
1	.10	12	.06
2	-.03	13	.13
3	.02	14	.17
4	-.02	15	.10
5	.07	16	.01
6	-.01	17	.05
7	.00	18	-.01
8	-.06	19	.04
9	.06	20	.08
10	-.02	21	.04
11	.02		

* $p < .05$.

Table 3
Correlations Between Item Scores on the WIT When Used as a Self and a Team Rating with CETP Membership

<i>WIT Item Number</i>	<i>Self-Rating Correlation</i>	<i>Team Rating Correlation</i>
1	.15*	-.06
2	.08	-.07
3	.13	-.05
4	.06	-.02
5	.05	-.07
6	.11	.03
7	.11	.01
8	.09	-.05
9	-.03	-.06
10	-.08	.08
11	-.06	-.09
12	-.03	-.05
13	-.01	-.09
14	-.01	-.02
15	.10	-.04
16	.04	-.06
17	.08	-.04
18	.04	-.05
19	.05	-.01
20	.02	-.06

* $p < .05$.

from 74 cases were missing; therefore scores were calculated based on a total of 113 cases. Pearson correlation coefficients were computed to analyze patterns that existed between CETP membership and performance during team teaching. Results are presented in Table 2.

None of the items on the CTOF correlated significantly with the number of CETP membership. The strongest correlations were found on items that pertained to instructional procedures used such as encouraging critical thinking, providing students with opportunities to explore a given concept, and

conducting a discussion to help students understand the concept. Items that were negatively correlated pertained mainly to ancillary operations such as management of materials, awareness of benchmarks, and teacher organization (see Table 2).

Hypothesis 2 stated that CETP students would demonstrate higher levels of collaborative skills than non-CETP students. The WIT scale was used to measure collaboration. Both self and team ratings were obtained from practicum students. Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated to analyze the relationship between CETP membership and collaboration. Data were missing from 10 self-rating scales and 4 team-rating scales; therefore, a total of 177 self-rating scores and 183 team scores were used for calculations. Results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3 indicates that Item 1 on the WIT self-rating, "Recognize that adjustments to the plan are to be expected," correlated positively with CETP membership and was the only item whose correlation was statistically significant ($p < .05$). Twenty percent of the items on the self-rating score of the WIT correlated negatively with the CETP. A predominant number of those items, four out of nine, were items that loaded highly on the Personal Characteristics factor. Conversely, 90% of items from the team score correlated negatively with CETP membership.

Although the negative correlations were not of sufficient magnitude to be significant, a clear trend was noted: students tended to rate themselves higher than rating their team members on collaboration skills. Total mean scores for WIT self-rating were calculated as 4.56 while total mean score for WIT team rating was 4.38. The trend was consistent for CETP and non-CETP self and team ratings. The tendency to rate themselves higher than their teammates may explain why self-rating scores on the WIT correlated more positively with CETP than team ratings.

Hypothesis 3 stated that CETP students would report stronger preferences for a collaborative approach to consultation than non-CETP students. The CPS and Item 21 on the WIT, which pertained to consultation preferences, were used as indicators of consultation preferences. Since items in the CPS were presented in semantic differentials with the statement describing collaborative model alternating between left and right, items were recoded so that the same value on the five-point Likert scale would indicate preference for a collaborative model. The scale scores on the CPS and Item 21 were combined and converted to z scores. Data were missing from 16 cases. Calculations were based on a total of 171

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President's Message**Does the Internship Make the School Psychologist?**

psychologists in the field." APA never suggested that NASP do so. Rather, APA's standards for training are higher than those of NASP, requiring the doctoral degree that requires more training and experience than that found in a NASP approved specialist training program. Further, APA supports NASP's promulgation of standards for the training and credentialing of specialist-level school psychologists and agrees that such standards should not be compromised. But APA, with the federal privilege granted by the U.S. Department of Education to set training standards for all doctoral training programs in psychology (including school psychology), has the right to promulgate standards for the training and credentialing of doctoral-level school psychologists, and these standards should not be discounted by NASP.

How could a graduate of an APA-accredited school psychology program be denied certification to work in the schools you may ask? This is very simple. When a graduate from an APA-accredited school psychology program, which includes an internship (either APA-accredited or not), applies for certification/licensure to work in a school, he/she may very well be denied because the state agency, following NASP Standards and Guidelines, say the school psychologist does not meet the NASP-defined internship requirements. Doctoral training programs in school psychology tend to require a great deal of practicum hours prior to internship. A total of 1,000 to 2,000 hours of practicum experience, the majority of which is in the schools, is not uncommon. Students who have received extensive exposure to public schools, understand school culture, and recognize the unique factors associated with practicing in schools may sometimes choose to complete their internship in a non-school setting. This setting is always consistent with the program's mission and goals, and is usually in an environment where the focus of services is on children and there is a need to deal with education issues, such as a children's hospital. In addition, the decision to allow a student to serve an internship in a certain setting is dependent upon approval by the program director and internship training director of the school psychology program. NASP's credentialing and training standards state that 600 hours of internship must be completed in a school setting. They further define a school setting as one in which the "primary goal is the education of students." This excludes many APA-accredited internship sites where, although they may have an on-site school, their primary goal is not the education of students. Are we acting in the best interests of children by denying a school psycholo-

gist with this type of internship the opportunity for certification to work in the schools? I don't think so. Again, I would like to know what others think of this issue.

I also want to encourage everyone to attend the annual convention in Chicago. Convention Chair John Hintze and co-chair Angeleque Akin-Little have organized an excellent program. In addition, APA is unveiling a new format for the convention this year. First of all, the convention will no longer span 2 work weeks. The official start of the convention is on Thursday August 22 and it ends on Sunday August 25. This should make it easier for people to attend the entire convention. APA has also changed the scheduling of events so that there will be fewer conflicts within areas of interest. Division 16 has been grouped with other child practice divisions and the schedule has formulated to attempt to avoid conflicts between events that may be of interest to members of these divisions. There are a few events that I especially encourage people to attend. First is the Division 16 business meeting. It is scheduled from 2:00 to 3:50 on Friday August 23 and will be immediately followed by the social hour. Following the social hour there will be the annual CDSPP/Division 16/TSP dinner. This year we are honoring Tom Fagan, and the dinner will be at the Berghoff, a Chicago landmark. A reservation form is included in this issue and all are invited to attend. I also encourage everyone to attend the two invited addresses. Frank Gresham will present a paper entitled "Functional Behavioral Assessment: Overzealous Adoption of an Underdeveloped Technology" on Friday, August 23rd from 12:00 to 12:50, and Sandy Christenson will present on "Keeping Kids in School: Efficacy of Check and Connect for Dropout Prevention of High-Risk Students" on Sunday August 25th from 11:00 to 11:50. In addition, the 9th annual pre-convention Institute for Psychology in the Schools is scheduled for Wednesday, August 21st from noon to 5. Information on this institute can be found elsewhere in this edition and at www.apa.org/practice/opas_inst.html. I hope to see you all in Chicago.

Finally, I have some personal information I would like to share. You may have noticed that my affiliation at the top of this column has changed. In early July I will have moved to Albany, New York where I will be assuming the position of Director of Programs in School Psychology at the University at Albany, SUNY. I am very excited about working in a well-established APA-accredited program in school

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cases.

The mean z score for total CPS was higher for CETP when compared to non-CETP students indicating that non-CETP group preferences were more strongly correlated with a clinical approach to consultation, while CETP group preferences were more strongly related to a collaborative approach. Although between group differences were not of sufficient magnitude to be significant ($F = .84, p .36$) a clear trend in preferences was evident between the two groups. Data are presented in Table 4.

Hypothesis 4 stated that CETP students would

Table 4
Comparison of Mean Z-Scores on CPS and CETP Membership

	Mean Z-Score	Standard Deviation
non-CETP	-.03	.63
CETP	.06	.63
Total	.01	.63

report higher usefulness of the collaborative process than non-CETP students. Data for this predictor were obtained from Item 22 on the WIT. Data from 13 cases were missing; therefore calculations were based on a total of 174 cases. Pearson correlation coefficients were computed to analyze the patterns that existed between CETP membership and anticipated usefulness of the collaborative process. Results of this analysis are presented in Table 5.

Table 5 indicates that when practicum students

Table 5
Percentage of non-CETP and CETP Members That Rated Collaboration with Other Professionals as Useful at Each Level

Likert Scale Level	non-CETP	CETP
1 (not useful)	1	1
2	1	2
3	7	4
4	14	16
5 (very useful)	77	51

***p<.05.**

were asked how useful it would be for them to collaborate with other educational specialists, 77% of non-CETP students indicated "Very Useful" compared to 51% of CETP students. Anticipated useful-

ness of the collaborative process is therefore negatively correlated with CETP membership although the effects were not statistically significant. There was little to no difference between CETP and non-CETP groups on the remaining levels of the Likert Scale, indicating a consistency in student ratings.

In summary, the use of the five predictors outlined in this study can be used to predict CETP membership with a maximum accuracy of 63.3%. The strongest effects were found between consultation preferences and CETP membership where CETP was positively correlated with preference toward collaborative approach of consultation while non-CETP membership was correlated with preference for a clinical approach to consultation. Measures of collaboration during team teaching, and self and team-rated collaboration skills correlated positively with CETP membership, although the correlations were not significant. Anticipated usefulness of the collaborative process was negatively, yet not significantly correlated with CETP membership.

Discussion

Results indicated that the level of teaching performance, collaboration skills, consultation preferences, and anticipated usefulness of collaboration among CETP members were not different from the performance of non-CETP members. Methodological, structural, and instrumentation factors were considered to have influenced the strength and direction of results. The first variable pertained to limited exposure to collaborative pedagogy. Limited exposure to collaborative learning practices was a factor considered to have had major influence on the strength of findings relating to collaboration skills. A limited number of students had prolonged exposure to collaborative pedagogy. Of the 87 CETP students who participated in this study, 69 had taken only one CETP course. Only 11 students had taken two or more CETP courses. Given that the present study occurred during the early stages of the CETP grant's development, students with prolonged exposure were nonexistent and therefore sample size was limited.

The implementation of collaborative learning methodology puts a considerable amount of responsibility on students and teachers. Increasing demands on self-directive learning, student work load, and the need to be highly organized may lead some students to feel anxious and develop negative feelings about the collaborative learning process, as indicated by Wilhelm (1997). Given that collaborative learning makes more intensive demands on pre-ser-

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vice teachers in their role as students and teachers, and the limited exposure students had to collaborative training, it is reasonable to assume that pre-service teachers may have felt overwhelmed by the demands of a collaborative teaching style.

The second variable concerns teachers' sense of control in a collaborative learning classroom. Payne and Manning (1987) indicated that beginning teachers' performance was associated with teachers' perception of being in control. Teachers who were rated highly were described as having a sense of adequacy that stemmed from the belief that they had control over classroom activities and behaviors. Teacher performance, therefore, is related to teachers' perception of sense of control and adequacy.

The nature of collaborative learning challenges beginning teachers' need for control. An essential principle of collaborative learning theory is that students should take charge of their own learning. Teachers are required to relinquish control and allow students to assume responsibility by managing group processes, establishing consensus, and accommodating new ideas. Research on teaching performance provides a possible explanation for why teaching performance was not an adequate predictor of CETP membership. The lowered sense of control that is experienced in a collaborative classroom may have affected practicum students' sense of adequacy and in turn may have made teaching performance between CETP and non-CETP groups indistinguishable.

Another factor that contributes to the results is related to the large number, 40%, of cases that were missing data. When analyses were calculated using mean substitution to compensate for the missing data, overall predictability decreased, indicating that mean substitution underestimated the effects. Although the total number of cases decreased to 79, predictability increased almost 6 percentage points, up to 63.3%. If data were obtained for all participants to increase the sample size, it is possible that there would be an even greater increase in predictability.

A fourth factor that contributed to the results relates to instrumentation. Comparisons between CETP and non-CETP groups were made using data from an overall measure of teaching performance. The CTOF was intended to measure teacher performance during team teaching. It may be possible to discriminate between CETP and non-CETP members after gathering additional and more specific information.

Given the unexpected outcomes that resulted in team and self-rating on the WIT, it becomes neces-

sary to consider alternative methods of data collection. In Burron's et al. (1993) study, data on collaboration skills were measured through observation. Observations were conducted in 4 and 7-minute intervals for 12 weeks. Data were collected on two groups: one that was directly exposed to collaborative learning, and a second that learned about collaborative learning through lecture only. At the end of the 12-week semester, results indicated significant gains in collaboration skills between the two groups of students. Gathering data on observable behaviors demonstrated by each student may have allowed more direct comparison of collaborative behaviors to be made and may have, therefore, detected differences between CETP and non-CETP groups.

Lastly, data on mediating variables related to consultation preferences were not collected. Numerous studies have investigated the relationship between teacher variables and preference of service delivery. Factors that have been found to associate with preference of consultation services or ratings of consultation usefulness include: teachers' past experience with consultation (Carlyon, 1994), degree of control teachers feel they have over resolving a student's problem (Gutkin & Ajchenbaum, 1984), and teachers' self-efficacy (DeForest & Hughes, 1992).

Further data collection on the variables noted above paired with extended exposure to collaborative learning, can lead to a better understanding of the effect on teacher preferences, and may result in stronger distinctions between CETP and non-CETP group preferences.

Conclusion

Despite the nonsignificant findings, the basic contentions of the study, which postulated that exposure to and direct participation in collaborative learning techniques can improve skills in collaboration and consultation, are still considered to be true. Lack of significant findings are considered to be a result of three factors summarized in this section: (a) limited exposure; (b) lack of cross validating data on certain variables; and (c) insufficient data in mediating variables.

Given recent legislative actions and the educational philosophy that currently prevails, demands are being placed on teachers to educate students with an increasingly wide range of disabilities. Working collaboratively with school psychologists in particular as well as with other educators is essential to the delivery of educational services. As a result, training programs need to offer opportunities

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for future educators to develop high levels of competence in working collaboratively with educational staff. Pre-service teachers need opportunities to integrate theories and practice of collaborative learning pedagogy. It is through continued application of collaborative strategies and discussion of consultation and collaboration processes that pre-service teachers will expand their understanding of collaborative problem-solving and apply it not only to their classroom students, but to their interactions with other educational professionals.

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The Commentary Section**When IQ Does Not Measure Ability:****A Reply to Braden**

In response to Dr. Braden's arguments regarding racial/ethnic IQ differences, we acknowledge his points are well-founded, and suggest that they are fairly consistent with ours. In our article "Beyond the Academic Rhetoric of g: Intelligence Testing Guidelines for Practitioners," we argue that "The Bell Curve" (Herrnstein & Murray, 1994) data fail to support hypotheses regarding racial/ethnic IQ differences because the ASVAB/AFQT is largely a measure of achievement and crystallized abilities (Roberts et al., 2000). We do not make this claim for other instruments, especially "real" intelligence tests. However, as Dr. Braden's commentary suggests, it is interesting to note that there appear to be few racial differences on the Das-Naglieri Cognitive Assessment System, an instrument designed to emphasize cognitive processing over content, and minimize test unfairness (Naglieri, 1999; Wasserman & Becker, 2000).

Our main point about racial/ethnic IQ differences is that crystallized abilities are composed of both ability and achievement variance, and individual score interpretation should be cautious as a result. If fluid/nonverbal abilities are significantly better than crystallized/verbal abilities, then one possible interpretation (among many) is limited experience and education. As crystallized abilities are intimately related to prior experience, educational opportunity, language skills, and left hemisphere brain processes (Hale, Fiorello, Kavanagh, Hoepfner, & Gaither, 2001), we must administer crystallized measures, but interpret them with caution.

Our studies of children with learning disabilities (see Hale et al., 2001) confirmed by examination of the Wechsler standardization data (Hale, Fiorello, McGrath, & Ryan, 2001), support the use of global IQ for children with flat factor and subtest profiles. If a child consistently scores two standard deviations below the intelligence test norm, and has comparable adaptive behavior deficits, we would agree that the child is functioning in the mental retardation range. It is unlikely that the child's deficits could be attributed to limited educational opportunities or experience. This could be part of the reason for the low performance, but the data would provide convincing evidence that the child has very low intellectual and adaptive skills. However, when significant score differences exist, we argue that the global IQ score should not be interpreted. It is up to the clinician to determine why the significant differ-

ences exist, with one explanation being limited experience and education.

An example will highlight our point. Hale recently saw a child who was raised in a Central American country, but who had very limited prior educational opportunity, and certainly different socio-cultural experiences than is typical in this country. Although his primary language was English, he had a WISC-III ($M = 100$, $SD = 15$) Verbal IQ in the low 60s, a Performance IQ in the high 70s, and a Full Scale IQ in the 60s. His Processing Speed Index was in the low average range. His Vineland Adaptive Behavior Composite was in the low 70s. However, his DAS Matrices subtest score was in the 80s (converted from T-score to SS) and his TOMAL Word Selective Reminding and Memory for Stories subtest scores were also in the 80s (converted from ss to SS). The teacher reported that he had significant academic weaknesses, but knew a great deal about baseball, computers, and VCR's, having fixed her broken classroom VCR in approximately 20 minutes. Regardless, the multidisciplinary team wanted to classify the child as having mental retardation, yet Hale felt the data argued against this conclusion. Using his Performance IQ as an "ability" measure, he met learning disability discrepancy criteria, and a speech and language evaluation revealed significant deficits in receptive and expressive language. In addition to remediation in all academic areas and speech therapy, we recommended adaptive behavior instruction as well. This child has significant deficits that require intensive intervention, but is this child mentally retarded? The data suggest he is functioning globally in the mild range of mental retardation, and his overall cognitive ability is likely below average, but he is unlikely to be "mentally retarded" for the rest of his life, providing we can remediate his weaknesses and provide him with a truly individualized education. This is a case when Full Scale IQ does not accurately measure this child's ability.

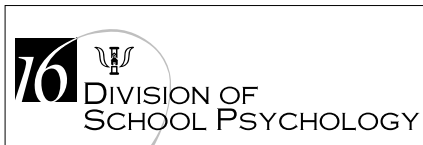
We thank Dr. Braden for his comments and, as he suggested, we feel his points add to, rather than detract, from ours.

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APA DIVISION 16 SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY



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School Psychology as a Separate Profession: An Unsupportable Direction

Rick Jay Short
University of Missouri-Columbia

APA and NASP representatives met for the biannual APA/NASP IOC meeting in Washington, DC on May 3rd and 4th, 2002. During that meeting, the IOC discussed at considerable length the different visions of NASP and APA concerning the nature of school psychology. A recurring theme that has emerged in IOC, as in many school psychology governance meetings I have attended, is whether school psychology is a member of the American professional psychology community or a separate, unique discipline. In a previous column, I labeled these positions as the "School Psychology as a Separate Profession" culture and the "School Psychology as Part of Professional Psychology" culture (Short, 2000). I noted that each of the positions holds distinct assumptions, world views, and goals, and that central differences between the cultures lie in their ideas of professional identity, autonomy, and focus. Because the entry-level debate in school psychology appears intractable, I now believe that the dialectic between these perspectives has largely replaced the entry-level debate in school psychology. That is, if school psychology is a separate discipline from professional psychology, then the characteristics of the profession (including entry level) may be determined independently from the larger professional psychology.

School Psychology: Separate Profession or Specialty in Professional Psychology?

NASP recently has asserted that school psychology is a separate profession from professional psychology (Deupree letter to Johnson, 2001) that has exclusive control of the practice of school psychology and the title "school psychologist" in all settings (NASP Standards for the Credentialing of School Psychologists, 2000). Further, the NASP standards contend that only practitioners trained in programs that conform to NASP standards (but not including APA-accredited school psychology programs) meet criteria for a school psychologist. Deupree's position was moderated (though apparently not rescinded) in an Executive Summary that was published in the most recent issue of the

Communiqué, which states "NASP considers school psychology to be a definable specialty within psychology that is separate and distinct from other specialties (e.g., clinical, counseling, industrial/organizational) and requires unique graduate preparation and professional skills" (p. 40). This statement appears to reverse NASP's previous position (as stated in the Deupree letter) in affirming school psychology as a specialty of the profession of psychology. However, the statement advances only the separateness of school psychology from professional psychology and contains no reference to skills, competencies, and knowledge that are common to all professional psychologists and that represent the identity of the profession. Though no supporting data are presented, NASP's standards promote the view that school-based practice is so different from general psychological practice that overlap between them is almost nil.

In contrast, APA views school psychology as a specialty within American professional psychology, sharing significant commonalities with other specialties in terms of skills, knowledge, and competencies. Although there obviously are unique characteristics of schools (as also is the case in hospitals, prisons, etc.) that must be addressed by practitioners within the setting, the characteristics of the setting do not exclusively define the specialty. The position of the APA is clear. Practice in professional psychology is general, and the license to practice psychology is generic; that is, professional psychologists are licensed to practice psychology, typically without identification of specialty. APA standards certainly recognize (as do NASP's) that credentialed practitioners have limitations on scope of practice, types of services provided, etc. However, these restrictions on practice are determined by competency, which in turn is the responsibility of the state licensing board and licensed practitioner to determine. Accordingly, licensed psychologists—regardless of their specialty—are broadly prepared both to provide psychological services wherever they apply and to acknowledge and respect the limits of their competency.

The APA Model Licensure Act (1987) states

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Student Affiliates of School Psychology (SASP)

SASP Update and News

Using Your School Psychology Background to Enhance Your Internship Application to an APA-Approved Site: Yes, The Rumors are True, It Can Be Done!

David Shriberg
President, SASP

Gena Ehrhardt
President-Elect, SASP

Almost from the first day of our graduate studies, we were told to be prepared. Throughout our graduate careers we would be enhancing our depth and breadth of experience. Yes, getting into a doctoral program shows that we must be accomplished people capable of gaining knowledge through courses, field placements, and research projects - but even with all this, there was the "i-word," (internship) awaiting us. Even more ominously, the process for applying for internship was known to drive previously competent and accomplished students into fits of anxiety and terror, negating their years and years of good work.

While there is every reason to take the internship process seriously, there is absolutely no reason to be scared. If you have made it to the point in your graduate career where you are ready to apply for internship, there is every reason to believe that, with a little planning and strategy, your internship search will be a successful one. The most recent internship data indicate that 85% of students who registered for the internship match during the 2001-02 application period were successfully matched on match day, with 83% of this group matched to one of their top three choices. The APPIC web site (www.appic.org) provides an excellent summary of recent internship data.

We both have just finished successful applications for internship sites for the 2002-03 academic year. What follows are some of our personal observations about how to be a successful internship applicant.

• **Start with a swagger**

There is a fine line between confidence and arrogance. David attended some interviews where his fellow applicants made the sites feel as if they were doing the sites a big favor by granting an interview, and we cannot imagine that this is a good strategy. By the same token, we have also known school psychology students who have bought into the myth that they somehow are less competent than their counseling and clinical psychology counterparts. Your essays and mannerisms should reflect that you belong—there is no need to be defensive about your background. If you have come this far in a doctoral program, you likely are a very competent and accomplished person, so do not be afraid to let this show by being confident.

• **Be proud of your school psychology background**

While this is very unfortunate, we know that there are sites that are unfamiliar with the training of school psychology students. However, we believe that there are many more sites that either already have positive feelings about school psychology or could be influenced to see your school psychology background as a strength. Of course, the pertinence of your school psychology background to the internship site will inevitably vary depending on the site itself, but there are many ways that a school psychology background (particularly for students who also have a good counseling background) can accurately be portrayed as a very positive selling point for non school-based sites. For example, if you have an extensive background in schools, you very likely

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Student Affiliates in School Psychology (SASP)

have experience working with professionals from a variety of disciplines (e.g., teachers, nurses, special educators, speech/language pathologists, etc.). This gives you an advantage over applicants who have primarily worked with other psychologists, particularly when you are applying to multidisciplinary sites. Another advantage school psychologists have is that the very nature of our job requires us to think on our feet and be flexible. A school psychologist might plan on seeing student A, but then a crisis happens with student B that takes precedence. This flexibility and ability to think on our feet gives us an advantage over students who have primarily worked in settings with defined client contact hours. A school psychologist also needs to have solid leadership skills while being a team player—skills valued by almost any internship site. Moreover, if you are applying to a site that consults with schools, you can offer the advantage of being able to translate your internship site goals into language that can be effective in schools—a skill very few non-school psychology students have.

These are but a few of the advantages of being a school psychology applicant. Obviously, the advantages you choose to highlight will depend on your particular background and experience, but do not be afraid to present your school psychology background as a strength when appropriate! If you see it as a strength and can speak to this convincingly, it can be a great advantage.

- **Use SASP as a resource to find out about sites**

Wondering if a site that you have applied to is friendly to school psychology graduate students? Wondering what sites other school psychology graduate students are applying to, and how they are incorporating their school psychology background into their applications? The SASP listserv (go to <http://www.saspweb.org/eforum.html> to learn how to join) is a great mechanism for connecting with graduate students across the country. A primary goal

for SASP during the 2002-03 academic year is to develop a network connecting recent successful internship applicants with students in the process of applying to internship. Please join our group—we find that the more energy students put into connecting with other students, the more comprehensive and accurate information they obtain. According to data provided by APPIC (Association of Psychology Postdoctoral and Internship Centers) Match Coordinator Dr. Greg Keilin (featured guest at the September 2001 SASP online chat), school psychology students make up approximately 5% of the internship applicant pool—the better we support one another the better the outcome for all of us!

- **Don't rule too many sites out too quickly**

The APPIC web site (www.appic.org) is an outstanding research tool that should be anyone's first stop for information about the internship process. Another excellent resource is APAGS's internship manual (to order this manual or to register for APAGS 2002 internship workshop at the upcoming APA conference, go to www.apa.org/apags), as well as an article written by two former leaders of SASP, Matt Turner and Rebecca Mandal, which is available online at www.saspweb.org/internship.html. These sources all provide excellent overviews of the internship process, and can put you on the right path in your journey. A word of caution though; do not assume anything about a site unless you hear it from them directly. For example, an internship site may be listed online as not accepting school psychology internship applicants. We have found that this is not necessarily an absolute—the sites we checked out seemed more interested in finding the best fits for their program than the degree that applicants were pursuing. Obviously, it would be foolish to apply only to sites that discourage school psychology applicants, but if the site uses the generic APPIC form, why not apply to that site if it coincides with your professional goals? What do you have to

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

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(no picture available)

Student Affiliates in School Psychology (SASP)**SASP Membership Application**

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lose? Call the training director and inquire about the site's level of receptiveness toward your application. This gives your name recognition among other applicants, and you will feel more confident knowing that your application will be considered. We have known several school psychology students who have been pleasantly surprised when they obtained interviews at sites that they at first thought were out of bounds.

There are multiple ways in which a school psychology graduate student can find success in obtaining an APA-approved internship. Does prejudice against school psychology graduate students continue to persist? Almost certainly. Should you let this be a barrier to seeking the internship sites you desire? Definitely not! School psychology students bring many positive attributes to an internship site (e.g., creativity, an ability to work with persons from many disciplines, an ability to work within teams, exposure to a wide range of clinical issues, etc.), and it is your job to highlight those positive attributes most germane to your own background, and position these as selling points for your application. Do you need to state over and over again that you are a school psychology student? Of course not, but do not sell yourself short either. While some prejudice may persist, we have found that there are many internship supervisors who are open to viewing your background as a strength if you lay the groundwork for this interpretation.

Good luck on your search and contact us any-

time (Dave Shriberg- dshriberg@yahoo.com, Gena Ehrhardt- hardt13@juno.com) with any questions or ideas!

Plan to Attend!

The annual SASP Convention will be held during the 110th Annual APA Convention August 22nd to August 25th in Chicago, Illinois. This year's convention will be addressing professional development issues related to internship, grant writing, and cultural diversity. Convention activities this year will include a formal address by our keynote speaker, presentations, and a reception.

For more information, please contact the SASP Convention Chair:

Denise Charles

dmc6848@hotmail.com

Look for it!

Coinciding with SASP's goal to help develop school psychology research-practitioners, SASP is beginning a student-oriented conversation series with professionals in school psychology and related fields. For the inaugural conversation, SASP Communication Chair, Alex Beaujean, will interview the eminent University of California at Berkeley professor and psychologist, Arthur R. Jensen. Their questions and answers will be published in the summer edition of SASP News, available in July 2002. For more information on how you can receive SASP

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Student Affiliates in School Psychology (SASP)

News, please contact your university's school psychology student leader, or go to the SASP web site <http://www.saspweb.org>.

SASP would like to congratulate the new officers for 2002-2003.

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Indiana State University

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University of Kentucky

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Northeastern University

Samuel Y. Song **Diversity Affairs Chair**
University of Nebraska-Lincoln

Rachelle Renee Whittaker **Communications Chair**
Indiana State University

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Universal School Psychology Proposed for All Irish School Children

post-graduate Professional qualification. This applies to educational as well as clinical and counseling psychologists. These guidelines also draw a distinction between a trainee psychologist and a psychologist with a recognized post-graduate professional training employed at basic grade. If we proceed as stated in the report we will have different entry requirements for psychologists employed in the proposed National Educational Psychological Service and psychologists employed in the Health Services. ... From my own experience as a teacher and a psychologist in special education, and as a psychologist working in a school-based service, I know that the work of psychologist in schools is wide ranging and demanding. Teachers are seeking input and collaboration on educational, social, emotional and behavioral issues both at individual student and at school level. If the proposed service is to gain the confidence of teachers in the schools it needs to recruit experienced and skilled psychologists who are required to have a post-graduate professional qual-

ification similar to that required in the Health Services. (pp. 113-114).

As Dr. Breen indicates, if school psychologists are to be well received by the educational community they serve, the psychologists need to be well and appropriately trained and on level with psychologists in other subspecialties who service other populations such as the health sector.

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Why Should You Belong to APA?

read about a new important issue for which APA might be active, know that your input, your response and your opinion are not only important, they are the heart of what APA is all about. I want to assure you that there are eager ears waiting to hear from you – mine, Bob Sternberg's (APA's president-elect who will carry on the scientific tradition), and the staff of the Science Directorate.

Finally, let me mention a few things that I will be focusing on during my presidential tenure, in addition to helping develop a H.S. text and Psychology Science Fairs. I am working with the heads of APS to find areas in which our organizations can meaningfully collaborate for the benefit of psychological science. I am advancing an initiative to develop a compendium of all research psychologists have done that demonstrates a significant dif-

ference in improving some aspect of our lives, individually or collectively. Data are coming in from this survey (to which I would like each of you to contribute, see <http://research.apa.org/survey/compendium/>). When collated and organized by a task force of our experts, this compendium will be invaluable for creating a more positive image of psychology to Congress, the media, and to the public.

I hope this quick overview has been of some value to you and encourages you to continue your APA membership, join if you are not, and promote APA to your students. One last word, the Chicago Convention (Aug 22-25) will be the best ever, in part because I am working closely with the Board of Convention Affairs to have many new, amazing features, fabulous events, special guests with fun and good times, and rock and roll for all.

School Psychology as a Separate Profession: An Unsupportable Direction

that the licensed practice of psychology is competency-based rather than specialty-based, and the intent of the Act clearly is not to limit licensed psychologists from practice based on setting, including the schools. The APA archival definition of the specialty of school psychology (1997) promotes the application of licensed professional psychology with the school psychology specialty in any setting that serves our clients and that is within our competencies. It would be difficult for us to defend the perspective that whereas we, as licensed psychologists with a school psychology specialty, are competent to practice in any setting, other licensed psychologists cannot practice in schools, regardless of their competencies. Indeed, many of us in Division 16 have fought for parity with other specialties for many years, a large part of which has been the right to practice in any setting where we have competence. Also, psychologists from other specialties have always practiced in the schools and often have applied for and received certification as school psychologists, and doctoral school psychologists have endorsed the letter and intent of the model licensure act in allowing competence-based practice by licensed psychologists in any setting. We have fought hard for many years to shed any perception of us as second-class citizens in the professional psychology community, with setting-based limits on our practice that other professional psychologists do not have. The same principle applies to other specialties.

A notable exception in the Model Licensure Act to the requirement of licensure for professional practice is school practice. According to the APA Model Licensure Act, non-licensed practitioners may identify themselves as school psychologists and engage in the practice of psychology—again, within their competence, as long as they are credentialed by the department of education in the state in which they practice, and as long as they limit their practice to the schools. The credential typically awarded to school practitioners is the education certificate, which is different from the psychologist license. It is not the intent of the model licensure law to restrict licensed practitioners from practicing in the schools; rather, the intent is to allow non-licensed persons also to practice in the schools within the limits of state department of education certification requirements. The Model Licensure Act clearly eschews establishing or acknowledging any unique specialty that is foreign to mainstream professional psychology or disenfranchising the important services that non-licensed school psychologists provide. Rather, the Model Licensure Act appears to seek to provide

standards for the general practice of professional psychology while recognizing the place of non-licensed, appropriately-credentialed school psychologists in school-based practice.

Approval and Accreditation, Education, and Psychology

The debate concerning school psychology as a separate discipline also has considerable implications for accreditation of school psychology training programs. Frequent references appear in conversation and in the literature concerning APA accreditation and NASP accreditation of school psychology programs, with the two credentials seen as being equal and sometimes competing. As I understand federal regulations, these statements are erroneous. Permission to accredit professional education and training programs is granted by the U.S. Department of Education. Department of Education authority to accredit is granted to one, and only one, agency for each profession. In psychology, that agency is the Committee on Accreditation (CoA) of the American Psychological Association. In education, authority is held by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE).

NASP is a constituent of NCATE, and NASP's program accreditation mechanism (as opposed to program approval) lies solely within NCATE, which only accredits the education profession, and then only at the college of education level. NCATE's province, granted by the same governmental agency that gives the APA CoA responsibility for credentialing professional psychology programs, is solely education. NASP's program approval procedure, which apparently is related to yet separate from NCATE, holds formal regulatory authority in neither psychology nor education. Neither NCATE nor NASP has authority over accreditation of training in professional psychology, and neither can legally accredit any program in professional psychology. Because NASP has allied itself with NCATE, its program accreditation through NCATE actually represents accreditation in education and not psychology. Unless school psychology is recognized by the U.S. Department of Education as a separate profession from psychology, it has no authority to accredit its programs.

This distinction is important within the context of NASP's assertion that only graduates of NASP-approved school psychology training programs should be considered school psychologists. Despite APA's sole authority to accredit professional psychology (including school psychology) training pro-

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President's Message**Does the Internship Make the School Psychologist?**

psychology and with a group of excellent new colleagues. I have mixed emotions about leaving Hofstra as I began my academic career here back in

1987, but this is a positive step forward in my career. Hopefully this will be my last move before retirement! Take care and have a great summer.

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School Psychology as a Separate Profession: An Unsupportable Direction

grams, NASP asserts additional stipulations—in addition to APA accreditation—on school psychology program approval. To meet NASP's standards, students must either have graduated from a NASP-approved school psychology program or its equivalent, or may have graduated from an APA-accredited program as long as NASP's internship standards also are met. NASP grants its approval (not accreditation) to APA-accredited programs, as long as they also demonstrate that their interns have served half of the internship in the schools. Thus, APA-accredited programs in school psychology (the highest, and indeed only, accreditation in professional psychology) gain NASP's approval only after meeting additional requirements.

As noted above, APA-accredited preparation in school psychology, by definition, encompasses all competencies needed to practice fully within the schools. However, APA-accredited preparation in school psychology, by its archival definition, trains professional psychologists who are equal to any other specialty, regardless of setting. Given that APA-accredited preparation in school psychology exceeds NASP requirements, additional requirements seem inappropriate and possibly counterproductive in relation to quality services to children and their families.

Final Points

It seems apparent that efforts have occurred to reframe differences between American professional psychology and non-licensed, school-based practice as qualitative: that school psychology is unique from professional psychology, yet is still psychology. This position lends validity to efforts to secure separate credentialing, accreditation, and identity from professional psychology, and is attractive even to many doctoral school psychologists because it emphasizes commonalities (of which there are many) between licensed and non-licensed school psychologists. The position also allows us to move away from (yet not resolving) the intractable issue of entry level into the

profession.

Despite its political attractiveness to non-licensed school psychologists and their advocates, the strategy is unacceptable for a couple of reasons. First, it is conceptually untenable. Although NASP offers no formal definition of school psychology in its standards, comparison of the competencies listed in those standards with the APA archival definition of school psychology and the definition of professional psychology in the APA Model Licensure Act shows substantial overlap in skills, competencies, and knowledge. By definition, school psychology is an integral component of American professional psychology. Second, despite considerable rhetoric concerning the uniqueness of school psychology in relation to professional psychology, minimal empirical support exists for such uniqueness and little objective examination of differences is available. Third, splitting of school psychology from professional psychology tacitly, yet necessarily, reconceptualizes school psychology as a profession in education, rather than psychology. Accreditation of non-doctoral school psychology programs occurs only through NCATE, which is commissioned to accredit only education disciplines within colleges of education. Credentialing in school psychology is almost universally (and appropriately) managed by state departments of education, which are charged with certification of educational professionals for school-based practice. Unless school psychology has defensibly redefined itself to be a separate education profession, it must remain integrated into the profession of psychology despite real differences among its constituents.

People & Places

**Compiled by Angeleque Akin-Little
Hofstra University**

The School Psychology Program at **Illinois State University** is pleased to announce that **Renee Tobin**, a graduate of **Texas A & M University**, will be joining its faculty in the fall.

The University of South Carolina's School Psychology Program will have two new faculty members in Fall 2002: **Scott Ardoin** from **Syracuse University** and **Jill Seibert** from **University of Wisconsin-Madison**.

Scott Huebner has assumed program director responsibilities for the School Psychology Program at **The University of South Carolina**.

Jeff Miller with the **Duquesne University** School Psychology Program was awarded the **2002 Duquesne University Creative Teaching Award** for his psychological testing course. Congratulations Jeff!

Duquesne University's School Psychology Program also announces that **Chris Arra** will be joining the faculty. He is the fifth faculty member in the program and his area of research is academic intervention planning.

Carol S. Lidz has joined the private practice of **Freidman Associates** in Bala Cynwyd, PA, where she will be specializing in psychoeducational assessment of students with learning disorders.

Lea A. Theodore from the **University of Connecticut** will be joining **Hofstra University's** faculty in fall 2002.

Vincent C. Alfonso, editor of *TSP*, announces the publication of **The Achievement Test Desk Reference: Comprehensive Assessment and Learning Disabilities** by **Dawn P. Flanagan, Samuel O. Ortiz, Vincent C. Alfonso, and Jennifer T. Mascolo**.

Linda Reddy, associate editor of *TSP*, announces that she has recently been promoted to tenured associate professor at **Fairleigh Dickinson University**.

Pamela P. Abraham has been promoted to Associate Professor at **Immaculata College**.

Dan Tingstrom, director of the School Psychology Program at **The University of Southern Mississippi (USM)** reports that **Ted Christ**, who will be receiving his Ph.D. in August from the University of Massachusetts, will be joining the faculty in August 2002. Dan reports that Ted brings particular expertise and interests in CBA/CBM, an area that USM has had to some extent in the program, but one that could use some "beefing up." According to

Dan, "we believe Ted is just the guy to do (that)! We also hope to turn him onto some crawfish just as soon as possible!"

Bill Pfohl reports involvement with training 20 school psychologists from Bavaria in safe schools and crisis management. This was part of a collaboration with the **International Association of School Psychologists (ISPA)**, **NASP NEAT** team, and a Bavarian (Germany) School Psychologists' group. Bernhard Meissner was the local host for the March training, which was held in Dilligan, Germany.

Alfred University's Psy.D. program is happy to announce that it has received its initial seven-year APA accreditation. Congratulations to Alfred!

Ellen Faherty, Psy.D., **Director of the Lea R. Powell Institute for Children and Families** (part of the School Psychology Division at Alfred University) has announced the awarding of an **EvenStart Program Grant of \$800,000** in partnership with a local LEA. This grant program articulates well with the "full service schools" model of our **Personnel Preparation Grant** and the "collaborative processes" focus of our **Leadership Grant**.

The Division of School Psychology in partnership with the Criminal Justice Program at **Alfred University** has been awarded **\$350,000** from the U.S. Department of Justice to study and design programs for prevention and intervention of domestic violence in rural areas, with a particular focus on effects on children.

Ed Gaughan has been elected to CoA and has received the Annual Alumni Award from the School Psychology Program at **Temple University**. Congratulations Ed!

Steven Hardy-Braz was recently honored by the **South East Regional Institute on Deafness (SERID)** as the South Eastern Regional Institute on Deafness' Outstanding Educator of the Year. This award is selected by nomination from all of the US states in the SE area and was for his work in being a school psychologist specializing in delivering school based psychological services to deaf students. **SERID** highlighted Steven's work in mental health issues and advocating for the needs of deaf students who have been sexually abused. Congratulations Steven!

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ANNOUNCEMENTS

2002 APA CONVENTION PROGRAM DIVISION 16: SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY



SEE THE ALL NEW 2002
CONVENTION SCHEDULE
STARTING ON PAGE 84

August 22-25, 2002

Chicago, Illinois

From Division 16 President: Steven G. Little

“ I want to encourage everyone to attend the annual convention in Chicago. ...it’s an excellent program. APA is unveiling a new format for the convention this year. First of all, the convention will no longer span two work weeks to make it easier for people to attend the entire convention and APA has also changed the scheduling of events so that there will be fewer conflicts within areas of interest. ”

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