



APA Division 16 School Psychology
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AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION

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The School Psychologist

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PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE

Working Together For A Shared Vision

Elaine Clark
University of Utah



Elaine Clark

“Though none of us will likely have the chance to see the dunes of Cape Horn or the Aurora Australis light the horizon while orbiting the earth, we can all share Laurel’s vision for a better future for all who inhabit the magnificent blue planet she saw.”

I just returned from Division 16’s mid-winter meeting in Deerfield Beach. We decided to meet in Florida this year at the same time as the annual meeting of the Council of Directors of School Psychology Programs (CDSPP). The Division’s Executive Committee (EC) wanted an opportunity to meet with trainers attending CDSPP to discuss critical issues facing school psychology. This includes our relationship with the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP). As many of you know, last December APA’s Board of Directors voted to withdraw their participation in the APA-NASP Inter-Organizational Committee (IOC). To some, this signaled an unwillingness on the part of APA, and Division 16, to work with NASP to resolve our differences. I hope that by now you have read the letter that Ron Palomares sent explaining the rationale for APA’s decision. Basically, the Board of Directors concluded that the IOC had failed in its mission to gain consensus on important issues. From discussions I have had with committee members representing both APA and NASP, this seems to be the case. Despite efforts on both sides, it sounds as if little was resolved and, at times, animosity replaced the best intentions. (Having lived in a host city of the Olympics where scandals surrounded our IOC, the International Organizing Committee, I cannot help but think that dissolving any IOC could be beneficial.) Already there seems to be more optimism about our ability to work through our differences. For these reasons, the EC will not establish another IOC; rather, we will look for an alternate means to resolve conflicts. Discussions are already taking place on ways to reach agreement on our difference of opinion on credentialing. I am hopeful that we will be able to come to some agreement on this, but I do not want to give the impression that this will be easy. Credentialing is an issue that has long divided our two organizations. Gaining consensus will require concessions, and I just hope that we are as willing to make concessions as we are to ask for them.

Certain things I cannot control, but I can assure you that the EC is committed to moving forward on our agenda to address the mental health needs of children. To this end, we will continue to collaborate with NASP and other school psychology organizations. We are also interested in further

collaborations with other child practice divisions of APA. Working with organizations other than our own will provide us with a perspective that is quite different from our own. All of these psychology organizations share a similar challenge; that is, finding ways to provide more services with fewer resources. Division 16 plans to meet this summer with representatives from the child practice divisions to discuss how we can better address the needs of children and families. We will also be participating in similar discussions this spring at NASP. I am especially looking forward to meeting with the organizers and participants of the Futures Conference to determine what role Division 16 can have on the proposed School Psychology Leadership Roundtable.

I have to say, writing about organizational issues seems inconsequential right now not knowing whether by the time you receive this newsletter we may be at war with Iraq or some other nation will have declared war on us. Obviously, these are very difficult and uncertain times. Fortunately, we all share the same vision of a healthier, safer world for children. We cannot afford to be distracted by rhetoric or issues that are of little importance. I hope that in the future we will be able to keep our sights on issues that truly make a difference in the lives of children and families, and appreciate each other’s efforts and the process along the way. I was reminded of this yesterday when I read an email sent by Columbia astronaut, Laurel Clark, to her family and friends, written one day before the shuttle explosion. Not knowing of the ill-fated mission, Laurel wrote about the incredible journey she was on. Though none of us will likely have the chance to see the dunes of Cape Horn or the Aurora Australis light the horizon while orbiting the earth, we can all share Laurel’s vision for a better future for all who inhabit the magnificent blue planet she saw. I trust we will continue to work together to ensure that vision.

APA Division 16: School Psychology 2003 Convention Program

TORONTO, CANADA

Thursday, August 7, 2003

11:00 – 11:50 pm: POSTER SESSION
School Psychology: Developmental, Multicultural, and Professional Issues

12:00 – 1:50 pm: SYMPOSIUM
(co-sponsored by BEA and Division 16)
Psychologists Leave No Child Behind: An Interdivisional Call To Action
Participants: Robert Sternberg, Ph.D., Jane Conoley, Ph.D. (representing Division 16), Mary Brabeck, Ph.D. (representing Division 17), Patricia Alexander, Ph.D. (Division 15)
(Symposium for CPE units)

2:00 – 3:50 pm: SYMPOSIUM
ADHD and Academic Achievement: Promoting Success Through the School Years
(Symposium for CPE units)

2:00 – 3:50 pm: DIVISION 16 EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE MEETING
Chair: Elaine Clark, Ph.D.

Friday, August 8, 2003

8:00 – 9:50 am: SYMPOSIUM
The Division 16 Task Force on Psychopharmacology, Learning, and Behavior
(Symposium for CPE units)

10:00 – 10:50 am: POSTER SESSION
Intervention and Consultation in School Psychology

12:00 – 12:50 pm: PRESIDENTIAL ADDRESS
Speaker: Elaine Clark, Ph.D., President of Division 16

2:00 – 2:50 pm: INVITED ADDRESS
Learning From Research: The Effective Tools of Behavioral Skill Instruction
Speaker: Brian K. Martens, Ph.D., Syracuse University

3:00 – 4:50 pm: SYMPOSIUM
Secondary School Reform and Assessment: Equity and Outcomes for Students with Disabilities

4:00 – 4:50 pm: SYMPOSIUM
Use of Instruction-Based Assessment in Preventing and Treating Learning Disabilities
(Symposium for CPE units)

Saturday, August 9, 2003

8:00 – 9:50 am: SYMPOSIUM
Revised Ethical Principles: Implications for School Psychology
(Symposium for CPE units)

10:00 – 10:50 am: INVITED ADDRESS
Every Program has a Story
Speaker: Sylvia K. Rosenfield, Ph.D., University of Maryland, College Park

11:00 - 11:50 am: POSTER SESSION
School Psychology: Intervention and Research Issues

1:00 - 1:50 pm: SYMPOSIUM
School Psychology Futures Conference: Plans and Beginning Actions

2:00 – 3:50 pm: DIVISION 16 BUSINESS MEETING:
Ceremony for Award Recipients of 2003
Chair: Elaine Clark, Ph.D.

4:00 until... DIVISION 16 SOCIAL HOUR
Sponsored by Riverside Publishing

Sunday, August 10, 2003

9:00 – 10:50 am: SYMPOSIUM
Cognitive and Social Mechanisms in Adolescent Bullying
(Symposium for CPE units)

10:00 – 11:50 am: SYMPOSIUM
Multiple Manifestations of Comorbidity of Anxiety in Children

11:00 – 11:50 am: SYMPOSIUM
Lessons Learned from Implementing the Safe Schools/Healthy Students Initiative

12:00 - 12:50 pm: AWARD SYMPOSIUM
DIVISION 16'S YEAR 2002 AWARD RECIPIENTS DISCUSS RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

Tanya Eckert, Ph.D.: Social Validity and Brief Experimental Analysis: The Contributions of Assessing Students' Preferences and Variations in Execution

Jonathan H. Sandoval, Ph.D.: School Psychology and Educational Reform: Are we at the Table?

Kevin Fenstermacher, Ph.D.: TBA

DIVISION 16 PROGRAM 2003 AP A CONVENTION

Time	Thursday	Friday	Saturday	Sunday
8:00 - 8:50		Symposium: Psychopharmacology	Symposium: Ethics	
9:00 - 9:50				Symposium: Bullying
10:00 - 10:50		Poster Session: Intervention & Consult.	Invited Address: Rosenfield	Symposium: Anxiety
11:00 - 11:50	Poster Session: Dev, Multicul, & Prof.		Poster Session: Intervention & Research	Symposium: Safe Schools
12:00 - 12:50	Symposium: Leave No Child Behind	Presidential Address		Award Symposium:
1:00 - 1:50			Symposium: Futures	
2:00 - 2:50	BC	Invited Address Martens	Business Meeting	
3:00 - 3:50		Symposium: Secondary School Reform		
4:00 - 4:50			Social Hour	
5:00 - 5:50		Symposium: LD 4-5:50		

The Effectiveness of Early Intervention With Young Children "At-Risk": A Decade in Review

Janet Mentore Lee
Westport Public Schools
Vincent C. Alfonso
Fordham University

Since the 1960s, the fields of psychology and education have become increasingly involved in the development and evaluation of early intervention programs for young, "at-risk" children below the age of five (Zigler & Muenchow, 1992). Although the definition of early intervention varies widely, the basic assumption is that early intervention programs facilitate growth in cognitive, academic, adaptive, language, motor, social-emotional, and nutritional domains of development (Guralnick, 1997). These programs also may be implemented to improve parent-child interaction by facilitating parental interactional styles, parent coping strategies, and family well-being. The intensity of these programs can range from "a few minutes of holding and cuddling a day for a few weeks to many hours per week of intensive intervention lasting for a year or more" (White & Casto, 1985, p. 31).

Early intervention programs for "at-risk" children were initially comprised of children who came from economically disadvantaged families. However, within the past decade, there have been shifts in the "at-risk" population, such as the emergence of children prenatally exposed to HIV/AIDS or toxic substances, low birthweight/premature babies, and the increasing number of children being born into economically and socially disadvantaged families (Guralnick, 1997; Levenson & Mellins, 1992; Phelps & Cox, 1993; Phelps & Grabowski, 1992; Pizzo, 1990). Due to this population shift, early intervention programs have been required to serve these children, and researchers have begun to evaluate the efficacy of these programs for improving children's cognitive, educational, social-emotional, and physical development and functioning.

Early intervention programs for prior populations of "at-risk" children have been evaluated for several decades, and their effectiveness has been subject to much debate (Guralnick, 1997), particularly for their many methodological problems,

such as the failure to use control or contrast groups and the overuse of IQ as a measure of efficacy (Bricker, Bailey, & Bruder, 1984; Dunst, 1986; Guralnick, 1988, 1991; Simeonsson, Cooper, & Scheiner, 1982). Accordingly, establishing definitive statements regarding the effectiveness of early intervention have been compromised (Guralnick, 1997). However, early intervention meta-analyses (e.g., Casto & Mastropieri, 1986; Casto & White, 1985; Shonkoff & Hauser-Cram, 1987; White & Casto, 1985) have provided strong empirical evidence supporting the efficacy of early intervention programs. Thus, early intervention research has shifted from addressing whether early intervention with young children is effective, to addressing those conditions under which early interventions are effective (Dunst, Snyder, & Mankinen, 1989; Farran, 1990; Guralnick, 1989; Innocenti & White, 1993; Meisels, 1992). This shift in research focus also has forced a re-conceptualization of early intervention as a complex, multi-dimensional, and dynamic process (Meisels). Consistent with this focus, early intervention researchers are being called upon to address the current needs of the evolving "at-risk" populations by assessing the efficacy of early interventions used with them (Alfonso, Mentore, & Santandreu, 1997; Guralnick, 1997).

Rationale

According to Zigler and Styfco (1994), Head Start is perhaps the most extensively evaluated early intervention social program in American history. With the advent of this nationwide program, several early intervention studies were initiated to evaluate its effectiveness. Despite the evidence of positive long-term effects of early intervention, many researchers during the mid 1970s and 1980s, began to doubt the efficacy of early intervention (Anastasiow, 1986; Dunst & Rheingrover, 1981; Dunst & Snyder, 1986).

Simultaneously, legislators began to question the inconsistent efficacy data given fiscal constraints

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The Effectiveness of Early Intervention With Young Children "At-Risk": A Decade in Review

at the state and federal level (White & Mott, 1987). Consequently, 17 early intervention meta-analyses were conducted to reconcile the conflicting reports (Administration for Children, Youth, and Families, 1983; Arnold, Myette, & Casto, 1986; Casto & Lewis, 1984; Casto & Mastropieri, 1986; Casto & White, 1985; Collins, 1984; Dunst & Rheingrover, 1981; Goldring & Presbrey, 1986; Mastropieri & Scruggs, 1985; Mckey et al., 1985; Ottenbacher, 1982; Ottenbacher, et al., 1986; Ottenbacher & Peterson, 1985a; Ottenbacher & Peterson, 1985b; Simeonsson, et al., 1982; Turley, 1985; White & Casto, 1985).

Several of these meta-analyses (e.g., Casto & White, 1985; Casto & Mastropieri, 1986; White & Casto, 1985) addressed issues such as the short- and long-term efficacy of early intervention, and the influence of important variables, including the age at which the intervention began, amount of parent involvement in the early intervention, training of the early intervention intervenor, and the degree of early intervention structure necessary for effective early intervention. These meta-analyses showed that early intervention had both immediate and positive effects.

The major conclusions drawn from these studies were that more highly structured programs and programs with the more highly trained intervenors were more effective than programs which were less structured and utilized intervenors with limited training (Casto & Mastropieri, 1986; Casto & White, 1985; White & Casto, 1985). The "earlier the better" assumption (e.g., age at which early intervention began), however, only received sparse support in these meta-analyses. Also, no definitive conclusions could be drawn concerning variables of parental involvement and type of early intervention setting, given insufficient information available to assess the influence of those variables (Casto & Mastropieri; Casto & White; White & Casto). These studies have been regarded as first-generation studies because they addressed limited early intervention efficacy questions. Second generation research, by comparison, focused more on specific efficacy questions, such as which interventions work for whom, and under which conditions do they work, and addressed the wide diversity of the current population (Guralnick, 1997).

Second generation research was officially initiated after the 1986 enactment of Public Law (P.L.) 99-457, a federal law mandating states to "plan, develop, and implement a comprehensive,

multidisciplinary, interagency, statewide system of early intervention services" for children under five (Campbell, Bellamy, & Bishop, 1988, p. 25). To date, second generation studies and meta-analyses have focused on evaluating a specific program variable such as program intensity or types of developmental therapy, parenting interventions, or tactile stimulation implemented (Bryant & Ramey, 1987; Eiden & Riefman, 1996; Gibson & Harris, 1988; Harris, 1988; Innocenti & White, 1993; McNaughton, 1994; Olson, Heater, & Becker, 1990; Ottenbacher, et al., 1987; Shonkoff & Hauser-Cram, 1987). Given the significant number of published and unpublished studies on early intervention that have assessed the "at-risk" population since P.L. 99-457, and the question of whether early intervention programs are still effective for this "newer" population, a comprehensive meta-analysis that addresses overall early intervention effectiveness and addresses a wide variety of program variables and outcome measures seemed warranted at this time.

Research Questions

The primary focus of this study was to assess whether early intervention programs for "at-risk" children are effective when compared to control groups. The variables that were chosen for evaluation in this study have been identified as mediating variables by previous narrative "review of reviews" (Marfo & Dinero, 1991; White, Bush, & Casto, 1985) and by previous early intervention meta-analyses (Casto & Mastropieri, 1986; Casto & White, 1985; Innocenti & White, 1993; White & Casto, 1985). The specific variables that were examined in this study were the following: (a) location of program (center-based, home-based, mixed); (b) degree of structure (very structured, somewhat structured, not structured); (c) level of parental involvement (active, minimal, none); (d) age of entry into the program (0-6 months, 6-18 months, 18-16 months, 36-48 months, 48 - 72 months); (e) level of program intensity (low, medium, high); (f) type of primary intervenor in the early intervention program (certified versus non-certified teachers); (g) duration of program (less than 1 month, 1-3 months, 4-6 months, 7-9 months, 10-12 months, greater than 1 year); (h) time of the research study (1986-1988, 1989-1991, 1992-1994, or 1995-1998); and (i) type of "at-risk" population (economically/socially disadvantaged, prenatal exposure to toxic substances or HIV/AIDS, low birthweight/premature).

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The present study also investigated whether early intervention programs are keeping abreast of societal changes. This was assessed by testing the relationship between time and efficacy. It was important to address this relationship because earlier programs and studies may be making changes and improvements over time to accommodate the "newer at-risk" population, which would consequently affect efficacy. Finally, the type of "at-risk" population was important to assess in order to distinguish if there were differential effects of interventions among the different populations.

The measures from which the effect sizes were derived were categorized as either traditional outcomes (e.g., cognitive functioning, academic achievement, language, social-emotional functioning, weight gain, and nutritional status) or non-traditional outcomes (e.g., adaptive behavior, attachment, motivation, social competence, interpersonal relationships with adults, preschool adjustment, peer interactions) (Shonkoff, Hauser-Cram, Krauss, & Upshur, 1988).

Method

Selection of Studies

To be eligible for inclusion in this meta-analysis, a study had to meet the following criteria: (a) involved a sample of children who conform to the definition of "at-risk;" (b) investigated early intervention effectiveness; (c) utilized quantitative measurement in evaluating outcome; and (d) reported sufficient data for direct calculation or estimation of an effect size.

Study Sample

The studies used in this meta-analysis were obtained from the fields of psychology, education, social work, medicine, and nursing. Only studies which have been conducted in the United States (U.S.) were included in this meta-analysis, as this study focused on evaluating studies conducted after the implementation of P.L. 99-457, a federal law relevant only to the U.S. Active attempts were made to retrieve both published and unpublished studies based on suggestions outlined by past researchers (e.g., Cooper, 1985; White, 1994; Wilson, 1992) to avoid publication bias.

Search Strategies

An exhaustive search of the literature on early intervention was conducted via a wide variety of computerized databases in the fields of education, psychology, and medicine. In order to minimize

publication bias, a search of unpublished studies was conducted. Each abstract was retrieved from all "potential" articles. Each abstract was then examined on the basis of the inclusion criteria outlined previously. If the abstract met the inclusion criteria, then the entire study was obtained and fully examined. An "ancestry analysis" (Cooper & Hedges, 1994) also was conducted on all "eligible" references. Formal and informal consultation was conducted in this study by sending a letter to the authors of primary studies requesting more information and asking if they knew of any additional published or unpublished data. A letter also was sent to the directors of major funded projects or programs (e.g., "Early Head Start") asking if they were aware of any published or unpublished data regarding early intervention effectiveness with children "at-risk."

Coding System and Inter rater Agreement

A comprehensive "coding manual" was used to code the characteristics of interest of each study. This "coding manual" was based on the Lewis (1986) meta-analysis of kindergarten prevention programs. This study employed two coders to code all of the studies independently. Interrater agreement was calculated for each of the randomly selected studies. Interrater agreement ranged from .83-.99 (median = .95).

Effect Sizes

According to Durlak (1995), the effect size is the most important variable in treatment effectiveness meta-analyses. This study transformed the statistical findings of the research studies into effect sizes, which are equivalent to a Z score (Light & Pillemer, 1984). An effect size is the mean difference between the treatment and control groups divided by the standard deviation [SD] of the control group ($ES = (X_{\text{treatment group}} - X_{\text{control group}}) / SD_{\text{control group}}$) (Glass, McGaw, & Smith, 1981). In cases where there is a pretest-posttest design, but no control group, the standardized mean difference effect size be the following: $(ES = (X_{\text{posttest}} - X_{\text{pretest}}) / SD_{\text{pretest}})$ (McGaw & Glass, 1980). The effect size assumes that the pretest scores are the best estimate of how these participants would have performed if they did not receive the intervention.

According to Durlak (1995), an effect size of 1.0 signifies that the experimental group changed one SD more than the comparison group. According to Cohen (1988), effect sizes can be of various magnitudes. It is possible to have an effect size below -1.0 or above +1.0. Cohen published general

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guidelines for the interpretation of effect sizes, which are as follows: .20 is "small," .50 is "moderate," and .80 is "high" in magnitude. Although these are helpful guidelines, one needs to consider that effect sizes vary relative to certain fields. Walberg (1984) empirically established an effect size guideline based on 3,000 studies in education; that is, strong effect sizes range from .30 to .80. This study used that criterion, and early intervention programs were concluded to be generally effective only when the average effect size was equal to or greater than .30. An effect of .30 indicates that anyone who participated in the early intervention program would score higher on the outcome measures than 62% (percentile equivalent) of the comparison group who received no intervention.

In addition, because small sample sizes (e.g., $n < 30$) may serve as biases to effect sizes, this study followed Hedges and Olkin's (1985) guideline to adjust the effect size by using weighting procedures. These weighting procedures were used to combine effect sizes from different studies to assign greater weight to those studies whose effects were more reliable (e.g., those based on larger sample sizes).

Homogeneity Tests

According to Durlak (1995), establishing homogeneity should always precede the analysis and interpretation of group means. Therefore, homogeneity tests were initially conducted in order to test the homogeneity of effect sizes combined across all studies (Hedges & Olkin, 1985). The Q -statistic was calculated for all of the groups. Consequently, these studies were subdivided on the basis of one or more variables to identify the subpopulations and yield homogeneity within these newly formed groups (Durlak). Any effect sizes that were more than two SDs beyond the mean of their respective group were deemed outliers and excluded from the study (Durlak). The homogeneity statistics were then re-calculated to yield the new homogeneity statistics.

Results and Discussion

Overall, 86 studies were examined for this meta-analysis. These studies were derived from 65 journal articles, 6 books, 6 dissertations, 1 masters thesis, 1 government grant report, 4 private grant reports, and 3 unpublished studies (contributed by the authors). Of the 86 studies, only 77 were analyzed because 9 were follow-up reports of studies already included in this meta-analysis. The

total sample yielded 319 effect sizes based on 16,888 participants. The analysis that included only high quality studies used 46 studies, 185 effect sizes, and a total of 8,933 participants. The homogeneity tests were conducted prior to the analysis and interpretation of group means using Levene's Test (Conover, Johnson, & Johnson, 1981). Homogeneity tests were conducted on the total sample and individual groups of quality studies (low, medium, and high). The only sample that was found to be homogeneous was in the high quality sample. However, when the time of study variable was used as a covariate for the total sample, it resulted in a homogeneous sample. Based on the results for the homogeneity tests, an ANCOVA was conducted on the total sample, whereas an ANOVA was conducted for the high quality sample. The alpha levels were set at .05. All post hoc analyses were conducted using Scheffé (Glass & Stanley, 1984).

Overall Effectiveness of Early Intervention Programs

The results of this study provide support that early intervention programs are efficacious for at-risk children. The effect sizes for the total sample (.51) and the sample that included only high quality studies (.48) were similar to previous early intervention meta-analyses. The results from this study indicated that studies of "at-risk" children who received early intervention services significantly improved their overall functioning compared to studies of children who did not receive them. A child's overall functioning is best characterized as including developmental constructs such as intelligence, achievement, language, motor development, attachment, social competence, and family relationships. The results from this study and other meta-analyses (e.g., Casto & White, 1985) are based on short-term data and support the immediate benefits of early intervention programs across a variety of "at-risk" children and types of programs. However, there are specific program variables that impact efficacy and they are discussed in the following section.

Training of Primary Intervenor

In the high quality studies sample, the training of the primary intervenor had a significant effect on early intervention efficacy. These results indicate that there was a substantial advantage for early intervention programs that used professional intervenors as compared to programs that used

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paraprofessionals. The importance of professional intervenors who have training in early childhood is apparent.

Type of At-Risk Population

The total studies sample did not indicate any statistically significant difference between the type of "at-risk" population (e.g., children who were economically/socially disadvantaged, low birthweight/premature, and prenatally exposed to toxic substances) and efficacy. However, the high quality studies sample indicated that studies with low birthweight children displayed significantly higher effect sizes than studies with economically/socially disadvantaged children. These studies may have yielded higher effect sizes because of specific characteristics of early intervention programs targeted for these children. For example, all low birthweight/premature infants are automatically considered "at-risk" upon birth and receive early intervention services immediately. The opposite is true for economically disadvantaged children. That is, many children who are economically/socially disadvantaged children may not be identified as "at-risk" until age three and consequently may not receive early intervention services until that age. Thus, low birthweight children may have had an advantage because their needs are addressed much earlier and receive continued intervention until their target goals are met.

Structure of Program

This study revealed that highly structured programs were more effective than unstructured programs. Although the total sample analysis did not reveal any statistically significant differences between level of structure and program efficacy, a consistent decline in effect sizes using less structure was evident. In general, there was a positive relationship between structure and efficacy; as the structure of the program increased, program efficacy increased. These results are consistent with the Casto and White (1985) meta-analysis and are not surprising given the environmental stressors that "at-risk" children experience. For example, many "at-risk" children come from unstructured and chaotic environments. Therefore, when they are provided with an environment that is structured and consistent, they are more likely to thrive (National Educational Goals Panel, 1997). Thus, it seems that some form of structure needs to be implemented in order to maximize the gains of children "at-risk."

Specifically, early intervention researchers contend that it is critical to implement structure in a classroom to maximize growth of these children (C.T. Ramey, Bryant, Campbell, Sparling, & Wasik, 1988).

Variables That Did Not Contribute to Early Intervention Efficacy

Age of Entry

These findings did not reveal any statistically significant differences between the timing of the early intervention and efficacy. These results are not surprising given the results of the Casto and White's (1985) meta-analysis which found conflicting findings for the "earlier the better" assumption. In fact, they state that the advantage of starting intervention as early as possible is not as substantial as originally speculated by researchers (Garland, Swanson, Stone, & Woodruff, 1981).

This study revealed preliminary evidence that the effectiveness of early intervention programs may reach its peak between 18-36 months of age. While past research for the "critical period" hypothesis is weak (Casto & White, 1985), this study lends support to the idea of a possible critical or sensitive period for early intervention efficacy.

Type of Early Intervention Program

The findings indicated that the type of early intervention program (i.e., educational, medical, psychological, mixed) was not a significant contributor to early intervention efficacy. These results are similar to the Smith and Glass (1977) meta-analysis of psychotherapy effectiveness which revealed no differences in effectiveness between the general types of psychotherapies (e.g., behavior therapy versus psychodynamic therapy).

Location of Early Intervention Program

The location of the early intervention program (i.e., home-based, center-based, or mixed) had no effect on early intervention effectiveness. This finding confirms the results of the Casto and Lewis (1984) meta-analysis. The implications of these findings are that all of these types of programs yield similar positive effects.

Level of Parental Involvement

There were no statistically significant differences between programs that included no, minimal, or active levels of parent involvement. Apparently, parents do not seem to be essential to the efficacy of early intervention program. These

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findings confirm results from prior meta-analyses (Casto & Mastropieri, 1986; Casto & White, 1985) and are controversial because they negate many individual research studies which have found that programs that involved parents were more effective than those that did not (Bronfenbrenner, 1974; Comptroller General, 1979; Goodson & Hess, 1975; Hewett, 1977; Weikart, Bond, & McNeil, 1978). However, the results of this study and previous meta-analyses (Casto & Mastropieri; Casto & White) warrant attention as they are based on hundreds of early intervention studies and may be more conclusive than single studies.

Program Intensity

Results indicated that program intensity does not contribute to early intervention efficacy. That is, efficacy is unaffected by the amount of contact hours a child receives in any given day. These results are consistent with the meta-analysis conducted by Innocenti and White (1993). Judging from the incremental increase of intensity and efficacy, there appears to be a positive relationship between intensity and efficacy; however, there were no statistically significant differences between the intensity levels. These results are inconsistent with the "intensity hypothesis" held by many researchers in the field of early intervention (e.g., C.T. Ramey & Ramey, 1998).

However, the important point to emphasize is that C.T. Ramey and Ramey (1998) indicated no studies that directly assessed the relationship between intensity and efficacy. The findings of the present meta-analysis, however, were based on a direct comparison between programs of varying intensities. In addition, there are other individual studies which failed to support the intensity hypothesis (Dusewicz & Higgins, 1971; Kysela, Hillyard, McDonald, & Ahlsten-Taylor, 1981). Thus, it seems that the intensity hypothesis needs to be re-evaluated. The present findings indicate that early intervention programs should be designed with shorter contact hours between the early intervenor and the child; thus, early intervention costs may decrease and funding can be dedicated to serving more children and developing other programs. This will undoubtedly help meet a goal postulated by many researchers, which is to "provide the most effective interventions to the greatest number in need" (Innocenti & White, 1993, p. 46).

Duration of Program

The duration of the early intervention program did not have a significant effect on early intervention efficacy. These results are consistent with past research with the "at-risk" population (Casto & Mastropieri, 1986). However, duration has been found to be an important contributor to early intervention efficacy with the handicapped population (Casto & Mastropieri). This difference may have occurred because of the "permanent" nature of handicapping conditions. That is, early intervention programs for handicapped children need to be longer in duration because the nature and severity of their impairments require more attention.

Time of Study

The time period of study had no significant impact on the effectiveness of early intervention programs. The implications of this finding are twofold. First, no matter which time period a study was conducted, early intervention programs were found to be generally efficacious. Second, earlier studies were no more effective than later studies and vice-versa. It was originally hypothesized that time would have an impact on efficacy and that later studies of early intervention programs would be more efficacious than earlier programs because programs conducted later had more time to improve and appropriately address the needs of this emerging, newer "at-risk" population. However, since this hypothesis was not confirmed, these findings imply that early intervention programs have appropriately addressed the needs of this newer, "at-risk" population consistently throughout the past decade.

Traditional Versus Non-Traditional Outcome Measures

There were no significant differences found between the frequency of traditional versus non-traditional measures utilized in early intervention studies, indicating that researchers are using traditional and non-traditional measures fairly equally. These results are promising, given the fact that there has been a continuous call in the literature (Marfo & Dinero, 1991; Shonkoff et al., 1998; White & Casto, 1985) to not limit program evaluations to traditional measures, but also to include non-traditional measures. These findings indicate that early intervention researchers have recognized the importance of measuring efficacy with broader-based outcome measures including adaptive behavior, attachment, motivation, social

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competence, adult interactions, peer interactions and preschool adjustment. In addition, time was not found to have a significant impact on the use of non-traditional outcome measures. Therefore, the use of non-traditional measures does not seem to increase or decrease as time goes on. These findings indicate that non-traditional outcome measures have been used in early intervention outcome studies since 1986.

Moreover, the use of non-traditional measures versus traditional measures was somewhat equal, with the exception of the years 1995-1998.

Conclusions

This meta-analysis provided a comprehensive review of the effectiveness of early intervention programs with "at-risk" young children. The findings from this study provide more definitive conclusions on the impact of early intervention programs with "at-risk" children and establish that early intervention programs are effective with this newer "at-risk" population and that there are several mediating variables which impact efficacy. Overall, the implications of the meta-analysis are directly relevant to funding decisions. These findings may influence future funding decisions by emphasizing the need for early intervention programs and outlining the most important characteristics of effective early intervention programs. Future early intervention programs can maximize their effectiveness by focusing on the key characteristics of effective programs (e.g., structure, training of primary intervenor) and stop focusing on characteristics that have not been found to be as important and are quite costly (e.g., intensity, duration). In so doing, early intervention costs may decrease and funds can be dedicated to serving more children and developing other programs. In addition, grant funding agencies also will be affected because they will be able to fund more research programs. Finally, the implications of the last part of the study which revealed that non-traditional measures are now being used as frequently as traditional measures is compelling because these results show that early intervention researchers have been responding to the continuous call for the use of more non-traditional measures.

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Examination for Professional Practice in Psychology: Some Implications for the Professional Preparation of School Psychologists

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Many masters shape doctoral programs in school psychology. Department chairs and college deans, professional preparation standards promulgated by the American Psychological Association (APA) and the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP), as well as faculty knowledge and interests, together with community and state resources impact a program's content. Despite having unequal and often less than desired resources, most school psychology doctoral programs are committed to the preparation of students to be eligible to become psychologists.

States within the United States and provinces within Canada license psychologists. Although the process for licensure differs, all states and provinces require aspiring psychologists to take the Examination for Professional Practice in Psychology (EPPP).

The purpose of this article is to shed some light on the EPPP, how it is developed, where it is administered and scored, and how candidates perform. Some implications for school psychology programs and students also are discussed.

EPPP History, Content, and Item Development

The Association of State and Provincial Psychology Boards (ASPPB; <http://www.asppb.org/>) initiated the EPPP in 1964 in an effort to assist jurisdictions within the United States and Canada responsible for licensure and certification of psychologists (e.g., state and provincial boards of psychology) by providing information on candidates' knowledge of current scholarship in psychology (Rosen, 2000). EPPP test specifications were based on two sources: a 1982 study of role delineations and a 1983 job analysis of psychological practice among licensed practitioners representing clinical, counseling, industrial/organizational, and school psychology. A more recent review of the roles, responsibilities, and major dimensions of practice currently guides test specifications. Information provided by the latest review is being updated.

Eight important content areas (and test

weights) guide item selection: research methods (6%), biological basis of behavior (11%), social and multicultural bases of behavior (12%), cognitive-affective bases of behavior (13%), growth and lifespan development (13%), assessment and diagnosis (14%), ethical, legal, and professional issues (15%), and treatment and intervention issues (16%). Candidates are informed of these eight content areas and their weights together with other information that helps them anticipate the nature of the examination (ASPPB, 2001)

ASPPB's 10-member Examination Committee works jointly with the Professional Examination Service, Inc (PES) in developing the EPPP. The Committee initiates, and PES supervises item development workshops in which subject matter experts write and review multiple choice items and validate them for accuracy, relevance, professional level of mastery, contributions to public protection, and freedom from bias. Approved items are entered into the EPPP item bank and then edited to comply with EPPP style guidelines. Approximately 200 items are selected for pre-testing and calibration yearly. The Examination Committee and PES staff review all items on draft EPPPs. The Examination Committee finalizes the 225-item exam, including the 25-pretest items, based on its judgment, item statistics, and content coverage.

EPPP Administration and Research Effort

The EPPP is administered by computer at approximately 300 Prometric locations in the U.S. and Canada and scored by PES, with reports sent to designated jurisdictions. Most jurisdictions have established uniform and equated standards for passing the EPPP. A scaled score equal to or greater than 500 commonly constitutes a passing score.

ASPPB conducts research that examines the EPPP's psychometric properties (e.g., Rosen, 2000), performance of graduates of designated doctoral programs in psychology (ASPPB, 2001), and other issues.

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Who Takes the EPPP?

The EPPP typically is taken by approximately 3500 to 5000 yearly. Most (75%) are female. Almost all candidates completed their degrees, typically (76%) from APA-accredited programs. Ninety-three percent received a doctoral degree, among whom 58% received a Ph.D., and 35% a Psy.D. Candidates typically received degrees in departments of psychology (50%), freestanding professional schools (27%), or colleges of education (13%). Candidates' theoretical orientations generally favor cognitive/behavioral (46%) or psychodynamic (24%) psychology.

Candidates typically take the EPPP either less than one year (29%) or within one to five years (66%) after completing their degree. Most are employed in mental health agencies (22%), hospitals (17%), colleges and universities (14%), and school systems (7%). Candidates typically prepare for the exam with the assistance of commercially (52%) or professionally (13%) sponsored workshops or materials. They report spending 100-199 (29%) to 200 or more (40%) hours preparing for the exam.

How Do School Psychologists Perform?

School psychology candidates have a mean of 543. In contrast, all candidates holding a doctoral degree average 559 and those holding a specialist degree average 512. Graduates from departments of psychology average 564 and those from colleges of education average 554.

Scores from school psychologists display the following rank order, from highest to lowest, on the eight content areas: cognitive and affective bases of behavior; ethics, legal, and professional issues; treatment and intervention; social/multicultural bases of behavior; assessment and diagnosis; growth and lifespan development; research methods; and biological bases of behavior.

Some Implications for School Psychology Programs

The above data suggest graduates of doctoral-level school psychology programs generally obtain a passing score. They perform somewhat lower than, yet near, the mean of doctoral-level graduates. As expected, graduates from specialist-level programs perform lower than those from doctoral-level programs.

The data also suggest strengths and weaknesses in the preparation of doctoral-level school psychologists. The above information

together with my informal review of the various topics within each of the eight content areas suggest school psychology programs generally are weakest in preparing candidates on the following topics: biological bases of behavior (e.g., basic neuroscience, physiological correlates and determinants of behavior and affect, basic psychopharmacology, and relationships between stress and biological and psychological functioning); research methods (e.g., advanced statistics, research design, criteria for critical appraisal and utilization of research, program planning and evaluation); growth and lifespan development (e.g., adult literature, including the geriatric population); assessment and diagnosis (e.g., psychometric theory, methods used in industrial and occupational settings, methods used to evaluate environmental and ecological influences, adult measures, utilization of DSM and other classification systems with adults); social and multicultural bases of behavior (e.g., social cognition, sexual orientation, psychology of gender); cognitive-affective bases of behavior, including basic cognitive science (e.g., sensation and perception); and treatment and intervention (e.g., theories of treatments, human resource management, theories of career development, and quality assurance measurement techniques).

All professional programs in psychology, including those in school psychology, are likely to lack resources needed to fully prepare students for all content assessed by the EPPP. School psychology programs that intend to prepare students for the EPPP must include various courses outside of the program and, for those in colleges of education, outside the department and college. The need for additional courses or supplementary readings that emphasize core psychological science (e.g., sensation and perception), pharmacology and psychopharmacology, and industrial-organizational psychology may be most common. Individual programs are encouraged to compare program coverage with information contained in the Item Writer Handbook for the Examination for Professional Practice in Psychology (Professional Examination Service, 2002) to determine the adequacy of program coverage in light of EPPP content.

Scholarship for the EPPP draws heavily on primary sources. Examples include APA journals, the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual, and well-respected graduate level texts (e.g., on issues

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pertaining to assessment, Anastasi & Urbina, 1997; Sattler, 2001). Programs that use well-respected primary sources serve students well. Sources selected because they are easier to read, shorter, politically correct, or more education oriented do not prepare students as well for the EPPP.

School psychology programs face the never-ending challenge of balancing content from the discipline of psychology and the field of education. Programs that rely more heavily on the discipline of psychology are likely to better prepare students for the EPPP. Furthermore, attempts to better align standards governing the accreditation of doctoral programs with the nature of professional practice (and thus the content of the EPPP) could well serve graduate programs and students.

Implications for Students in School Psychology Programs

Students should plan their academic and professional programs with EPPP requirements in mind. Be guided by information contained in *Information for candidates: Examination for professional practice in psychology* (ASPPB, 2001).

Although most doctoral-level school psychology programs provide considerable foundation knowledge assessed by the EPPP, school psychology students should be alert to a need to take additional courses and engage in independent reading that address the following topics: basic neuroscience, physiology, psychopharmacology, adult development, psychometric theory, methods used in industrial and occupational settings including those used to evaluate environmental and ecological influences, tests and classification systems commonly used with adults, theories of

treatments, human resource management, theories of career development, and quality assurance measurement techniques.

Students also are advised to determine whether journal articles, textbooks, and other scholarship used in their classes are derived from primary sources and written by widely respected scholars in psychology. Efforts by professors that require students to read current journal articles should be supported.

After completing their degree requirements, graduates should continue to read primary sources to remain current as well as to read broadly in psychology to acquire breadth. Remember, too, that those who sit for the EPPP generally report taking commercially or professional sponsored workshops or materials and devoting 100 or more hours preparing for the exam.

Please e-mail all submission for *The Commentary Section* to: LReddy2271@aol.com

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¹ Thomas Oakland is a member of the EPPP Examination Committee.

² Figures presented are approximate, represent the most current sources, and may not reflect prior or future data.

The Effectiveness of Early Intervention With Young Children "At-Risk": A Decade in Review

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Author Note

This study served as Janet Mentore Lee's dissertation. The complete work can be found in Mentore, J. (1999). The effectiveness of early intervention with young children "at risk": A decade in review (Doctoral dissertation, Fordham University, 1999). *Dissertation Abstracts International, 60*, 3573.

In addition, Dr. Mentore Lee received the Outstanding Dissertation Award (Honorable Mention) in August of 2000, from APA's Division 16. Vincent C. Alfonso served as mentor.

The first author recognizes the contributions of Drs. Hennessy and Blumberg who served as dissertation committee members. Their thoughtful comments and support are greatly appreciated.

Report from APA Council of Representatives – February 2003

Cindy Carlson & Steve DeMers

APA Council of Representatives opened with an upbeat report from incoming president Robert Sternberg. Sternberg reported on a number of Presidential Initiatives focusing on the following themes:

- Promoting a unified psychology (science with practice, teaching with research, basic and applied research, the various fields of psychology)
- Expanding practice opportunities (primarily through pursuit of prescription privileges)
- No more savage reviews (providing education and training for constructive review)
- Promoting wisdom, combating hate
- Promoting Success of Children
- Examining APA Governance

Each of these initiatives has a designated Task Force, a set of planned publications, and will be the focus of invited presentations and symposia at the annual convention in Toronto in 2003.

All of the Presidential initiatives are relevant to School Psychology; therefore, the text of Sternberg's address will be distributed to the membership through the Division 16 listserv when it becomes available. Two initiatives are highlighted here. Briefly, the initiative to Promote Wisdom, Combat Hate includes a field-based initiative for schools. The initiative, Promoting Success of Children, addresses the concern that many children have the ability to succeed, but are never given the chance because they do not have the pattern of abilities (i.e., memory and analytic), that correspond to the abilities that are valued and assessed in the education system. Members are encouraged to provide comments and ideas related to these initiatives to APA President Robert Sternberg: Rsternberg@apa.org

Another initiative of the APA President that originated in the 2002 Council is an examination of the current APA governance structure. The momentum for this initiative and the Presidential Task Force on APA Governance is the increasing frustration of Council members with existing governance structures and procedures that limit the optimal utilization of the talents and expertise of Council members. The Task Force provided Council with an Interim Report of recommendations that are being explored. No actual recommendations are being made at this time.

The APA CEO, Norman Anderson, provided Council with an overview of his goals for the organization. Four goals were identified: (a) Increase non-dues revenue; (b) Increase the influence of psychology in the world; (c) Work to ensure that APA and psychology can meet the practice and science needs of American's changing demographics; and (d) Ensure APA is the best place to work. CEO Anderson also announced a recent victory for psychology, related, in part, to the lobbying efforts of the APA Education Directorate. Congress just approved a three-fold increase (\$6 million) for the Graduate Psychology Education (GPE) Program in the Bureau of Health Professions. These funds will support doctoral, internship, and postdoctoral training in professional psychology.

The following agenda items were passed by Council:

- Recognition of Sport Psychology as a Proficiency in Professional Psychology
- Renewed Recognition of Industrial and Organizational Psychology as a Specialty in Professional Psychology
- Recognition of the Assessment and Treatment of Serious Mental Illness as a Proficiency in Professional Psychology
- Approval of a Resolution on the Maltreatment of Children with Disabilities
- Approval of a 1-year Task Force on Urban Psychology and approval to sunset the Committee on Urban Initiatives
- Approval to fund the APA Task Force on Governance
- Approval to fund a Children & Adolescent Task Force on End-of-Life Issues
- Approval to fund a Task Force on Psychology's Agenda on Children and Adolescent Mental Health
- Approval to partially underwrite the production costs of a book on Women of Color Leader Psychologists
- Approval to support grantsmanship efforts to obtain funding for a conference on Psychology, Public Policy, and Communities of Color in the U.S. and throughout the World
- Approval to fund a conference call of the Task Force on the Psychological Effects of Efforts to Prevent Terrorism
- Approval of the 2003 budget

HIPAA, Psychologists, and Schools

Meryl S. Iovce & Ronald S. Palomares
APA Practice Directorate's Policy and Advocacy in the Schools

“APA has provided its members with guidance regarding HIPAA... you can access by visiting www.apa.org/practice.”



www.apa.org/practice

On a recent visit to your physician or dentist, have you noticed that you are being asked to complete some extra forms related to issues of privacy and confidentiality? In the coming months, this kind of request will be commonplace. As a psychologist, you may, or may not, have heard of HIPAA (otherwise known as the Health Information Portability and Accountability Act). It is important that you become aware of HIPAA and its implications for you as a practicing psychologist. HIPAA is enforced through a series of rules promulgated by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. The HIPAA Privacy Rule is the most extensive of these rules, has the greatest impact on psychologists, and has a compliance date of April 14 of this year. The Privacy Rule is intended to protect the privacy of an individual's health records by governing access to and use of "protected health information" (PHI). The parties directly covered by the rule include health care providers, health plans, and health information clearinghouses. Like all psychologists, school psychologists and other psychologists who are employed by schools are health care providers.

In order to determine your obligations under HIPAA, you must first determine if the HIPAA Transaction Rule is triggered. This occurs the moment a school, or you as a health care provider, electronically seek reimbursement for health care services (e.g., school district seeking Medicaid reimbursement by fax, email, or other electronic means of transmitting data), or engage in another covered insurance transaction. Once the Transaction Rule is triggered, you must comply with HIPAA.

There is one exception in the Privacy Rule, however, that is of particular relevance to psychologists practicing in schools, and which may exempt you from having to meet the Privacy Rule's requirements. The Privacy Rule specifically states

that protected health information does not include individually identifiable health information in education records covered by the Family Educational Right and Privacy Act (FERPA). (See 45 C.F.R. Section 164.501, Protected health information (2)(i) and (ii)). Therefore, psychologists practicing in schools would continue to comply with the requirements of FERPA, as it pertains to education records with individually identifiable health information (e.g., psychological reports), and would not have to meet the Privacy Rule requirements.

You may, however, still need to meet the Transaction Rule and other HIPAA requirements. And, in your private practice, you may need to meet the Privacy Rule, too, since the FERPA exception would not apply to your private practice. The exact interplay between HIPAA and FERPA is unclear at this stage in the process. It is certain that issues will arise for which it will be unclear exactly what is required of a psychologist practicing in school.

APA has provided its members with guidance regarding HIPAA, all of which you can access by visiting www.apa.org/practice. APA also has made available a comprehensive resource, "HIPAA for Psychologists," a unique interactive compliance resource designed specifically for practicing psychologists. This online course is available for purchase at www.apapractice.org. For more information on FERPA, visit the Family Compliance Office in the U.S. Department of Education at <http://www.ed.gov/offices/OM/fpco/>. For more information on HIPAA, or to submit a question regarding HIPAA, visit the Office of Civil Rights at the Department of Health and Human Services at www.hhs.gov/ocr/hipaa. You may also contact the APA Practice Directorate with specific questions at practice@apa.org or (202) 336-5886.

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Council completed the agenda on Saturday in an effort to facilitate the departure of Council Representatives before the arrival of the winter storm. Division 16 can be pleased that they were well-represented at the newly formed Caucus of the

Stuck in Snow Psychologists, and that APA is making an exception to their reimbursement policy and will cover these costs.

Preparing, Applying, and Navigating Through Life as a Junior Professor

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The shortage of school psychologists in academic positions has become a subject of increasing attention from training directors and leaders in the field of school psychology. Recently, there has been an average of 50-60 vacancies in academic school psychology positions. This article, written from the perspective of two newly appointed junior faculty members in school psychology, integrates personal reflections with theoretical papers, practical guides, and empirical articles to provide information and advice to graduate students and others interested in pursuing a career in academe.

Life as an academic may conjure up different images such as: the gray-haired wise professor surrounded by books and papers; the frantic assistant professor trying to publish as much as possible while juggling teaching, advising, and service duties; and the laid-back, Birkenstock-wearing professor whose idealism and creativity may someday change the world. With this in mind, what are the characteristics that lead one to pursue a career as a faculty member in school psychology? Upon reflecting on our own experiences, we developed a brief "screening instrument" to aid graduate students in the career decision-making process:

1. When other students suggest celebrating the end of comprehensive exams by throwing away all of their notes, do you think instead about how good it will be to finally have time to organize your notes by subject area?
2. Do you find yourself so limited by having to choose between a teaching, research, or applied assistantship that you ask if there is any way you can do all three?
3. Do the significant others in your life know enough about school psychology to earn honorary degrees?

Answering "yes" to two or more of the following questions may predict success as a faculty member. All joking aside, being a lifelong learner who engages in continuing professional development and a sequential plan of research has been identified as a critical element of an effective

school psychology faculty member (Knoff, Curtis, & Batsche, 1997). These authors also suggest that school psychology faculty need to be: (a) experienced practitioners with at least two years of experience in a school or relevant psychological services setting beyond internship; (b) effective consultants with sound interpersonal, problem-solving, and ethical and professional practice skills; and (c) effective supervisors with positive interpersonal relationship skills, supervisory and management abilities, and professional knowledge.

Faculty members have the exciting and challenging opportunity to engage in a wide variety of professional domains, areas, activities etc. Activities include teaching, supervising, conducting research, serving on department and university committees, and engaging in other types of professional service (e.g., serving on editorial boards of journals, consulting to schools or other agencies). There tends to be flexibility in terms of when and where one works, and there is the freedom to be creative in teaching and research endeavors.

Types of Positions

There are generally three types of academic positions for junior faculty: (a) visiting or adjunct professor; (b) lecturer; and (c) tenure-track position. Visiting or adjunct positions are either part-time or fixed term appointments, usually ranging from one semester to three years. Visiting or adjunct professors typically carry higher teaching loads, have less time and resources to engage in scholarly work, and make lower salaries than individuals in tenure-track positions. Lecturer positions are similar to adjunct or visiting positions in terms of teaching load and resources for research, but these are typically longer-term positions, with contracts ranging from one to five years. Tenure-track positions, which have traditionally been viewed as the most desirable, have the potential to lead to lifetime employment at the university, provided that the tenure review is passed successfully (University of California, Berkeley, Career Center).

There is increasing diversity in the factors that guide decision-making about obtaining faculty

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positions. Trower, Bleak, and Neiman (n. d.) conducted a study of doctoral students and faculty, and found that securing a tenure-track position was perceived as very important for individuals in the arts and sciences, whereas those in professional fields were more positively disposed towards non-tenure-track positions, especially if they perceived themselves as having other opportunities outside of academe. In addition, survey respondents ranked quality of life attributes such as geographic location and balance of work ahead of all other considerations, including salary and institutional prestige.

Preparing for Academic Positions

It is daunting to think of the expertise required to be effective as a faculty member, particularly since these skills are often not taught directly in graduate school. Doctoral students in psychology reported feeling prepared in the content areas of psychology, yet they did not perceive themselves to be adequately prepared for the expectations of academic life, such as independent teaching and navigating the tenure and promotion process (Meyers, Reid, & Quina, 1998). Another duty of a faculty member in which doctoral students receive virtually no training is the supervision of research (Lumsden, Grosslight, Loveland, & Williams, 1988). Nyquist et al. (1999) conducted a qualitative study of aspiring professors in graduate school across a wide variety of disciplines. Common themes that emerged were students' concern over the mixed messages received about priorities of academe (e.g., the priority on research and apparent devaluation of teaching), a perceived lack of support, and a desire for mentoring, including opportunities for self-reflection and systematic feedback.

Recognizing these issues, the Committee on Women in Psychology (CWP) and the APA Commission on Ethnic Minority Recruitment, Retention, and Training in Psychology (CEMRRAT) produced a document entitled *Surviving & Thriving in Academia: A Guide for Women and Ethnic Minorities* (CWP & CEMRRAT, 1998) to serve as a survival guide for women and minorities facing the challenges of entering and succeeding in academic careers. Although developed with the needs of women and minorities in mind, the guide serves as an excellent resource for those desiring to enter academia.

According to *Surviving and Thriving in Academia* (CWP & CEMRRAT, 1998), preparation for

an academic career should begin while in graduate school. Students should obtain a teaching or research assistantship, and if possible, they would obtain both. Gaining experience teaching is imperative, and working with an accomplished researcher provides opportunities to learn about the research process, to present at professional conferences, to publish, and to gain exposure to other important skills, such as grant writing. Building a curriculum vita during graduate school is another important preparatory step. The year of predoctoral internship provides additional opportunities for students to refine their clinical skills, engage in research, and develop other professional skills important for life as an academic, such as supervising the clinical work of less experienced trainees. Pursuing a postdoctoral position to receive further training and experience in clinical and scholarly work may also be helpful in preparing for an academic position.

It is important for individuals interested in academic jobs to identify the type of position and institution that best fit the applicant's strengths and interests. Although there are a variety of institutions for higher education, the doctoral-level research institution and four-year institution represent the two major types of settings for which faculty in school psychology will likely apply. Doctoral-level research institutions typically require teaching, directing student research, serving on departmental and university committees, providing service to the community, and developing a program of research. In contrast, four-year institutions emphasize undergraduate education, and underscore the importance of teaching and advising over research, although many of these schools are increasing expectations for scholarship. Faculty members in these institutions are expected to teach heavier course loads, carry more student advisees, and serve on various committees. Regardless of the institution, issues to consider when reviewing position openings include the focus of the position, workload, existing resources, opportunities for professional development and continuing education, availability of mentoring, and potential release time for research activities (CWP & CEMRRAT, 1998).

Another difference across institutions is the method used for evaluating faculty performance and determining promotion and tenure. There are different models of promotion and tenure, with numerous permutations within these models. Many academic institutions employ a review of faculty

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performance in the areas of teaching, scholarship, and service during the fifth or sixth year. It is typical for decisions about promotion from Assistant to Associate Professor as well as tenure to be made jointly at this time. Once tenure status is attained, faculty experience ongoing job security, barring any significant difficulties with performance. Other institutions provide rolling contracts, which include one-year renewable contracts during the first few years, followed by automatic renewals for 3- to 5-year periods for faculty performing appropriately. Without the opportunity for tenure, these institutions offer less job security.

Applying For Positions

Once a consideration about the desired type of institution has been made, the application process begins. Position announcements can typically be found in professional newsletters (e.g., the APA Monitor), websites, such as the Chronicle for Higher Education's Career Network (<http://chronicle.com/jobs>), and list serves. These announcements typically request various application materials such as a curriculum vita, letters of recommendation, a statement of teaching and research interests, and reprints of publications.

As the application materials represent the hiring institution's first exposure to the applicant and his or her abilities, it is important to take particular care in preparing these materials. Chairs of psychology search committees reported that the fit between a candidate's background and the position requirements was critical in making hiring decisions (Sheehan, McDevitt, & Ross, 1998). Despite this important aspect of the application process, Brems, Lampman, and Johnson (1995), in a review of 148 applications for tenure-track psychology positions, found that many applicants failed to individualize the application for the specific position, and often did not address the letter to the person in charge of the search committee. They also found many applications that included typographical errors, poor grammar, and inclusion of inappropriate personal information, such as hobbies and smoking habits.

After reviewing applications to assess an applicant's teaching and research experience, quality, and potential, search committees typically invite about three applicants to visit the institution for an interview (Sheehan et al., 1998). During the interview, applicants meet with a variety of individuals and groups (CWP & CEMRRAT, 1998),

providing an occasion for the applicant to reveal his or her capabilities and to ask questions about the department and institution. Applicants should find out as much as possible about with whom they will be meeting (e.g., faculty, students, dean) and what to expect. This is an important time for an applicant to assess the match between the needs of the institution and the applicant's own teaching and research goals. It is also a time when the search committee evaluates the applicant's performance and gauges how well he or she gets along with other faculty members. Although there may be ample social opportunities, such as going out to dinner and talking informally with others, it is wise for applicants to remember that these times represent further opportunities for the search committee to evaluate the candidate.

The colloquium is a much-anticipated aspect of the application and interview process. It is very common for institutions to require applicants to give this presentation on their research interests or to lecture to an undergraduate class (CWP & CEMRRAT, 1998). In preparing for this important "job talk," applicants should select a topic relevant to the field about which they are knowledgeable. Applicants may also benefit from practicing the talk in front of friends and colleagues and from obtaining feedback about aspects of the presentation such as clarity, adherence to time limits, and quality of audiovisual materials used. This presentation provides an opportunity for the hiring faculty to observe the applicant's knowledge in the topic area as well as to assess his/her teaching style.

If the interview process is navigated with success and an offer is made, a candidate has one remaining responsibility to execute prior to accepting a position—negotiation. In all likelihood, new graduates who have become accustomed to feeling grateful for annual stipends of \$10,000 will be ill-prepared for this task and should seek mentoring. Candidates should be aware of their opportunity to negotiate several aspects of the position, including salary, equipment, research space, and leave (CWP & CEMRRAT, 1998).

In terms of salary negotiations, candidates should be familiar with typical salary ranges for the particular type of position being considered as well as for the geographical area. An understanding of job responsibilities and how these relate to tenure and promotion criteria is imperative. New faculty, particularly women and minorities, are often asked to serve on various diversity or women's groups, or

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to provide needed services within the surrounding community. However, these activities are often not considered to be an important part of the requirements for promotion and tenure. If not offered up front, candidates at primarily teaching institutions should request decreased service commitments during the first few years in order to have time to develop courses and develop a research agenda. For faculty at doctoral-level research institutions, reductions in teaching loads should be expected in order to facilitate the development of a research program. With regard to leave time, whether it is for sabbaticals, family, or medical leave, candidates should ask how this time off might affect the tenure clock. Additional areas to inquire about include moving expenses, start-up costs (including computer), travel budget, and study materials and supervision for licensure. As mentioned previously, graduate students are typically inexperienced in this type of negotiation and often unaware of the importance of this aspect of the process to their future job success and satisfaction. Therefore, candidates should seek out mentors to guide them in the process (CWP & CEMRRAT, 1998).

Navigating Life in the Position

There are many autobiographical, thought-provoking, and humorous pieces on being a junior faculty member and navigating the tenure path (see De Simone, 2001; Fernald, 1995; Newman, 1999; Wuffle, 1995). Common themes that emerge across these articles are the importance of: (a) learning to function effectively within the political structure of the department and university; (b) seeking support and mentorship from other faculty members; and (c) balancing the teaching, research, and service duties necessary for tenure and promotion.

Institutes of higher learning are known for their politics. Within most departments, there are long histories of conflicts surrounding various issues. Giving advice to assistant professors, Wuffle (1999) stated, "Assistant professor like turtle, what not stuck out can't be chopped off." In other words, it may be in the best interest of new faculty to spend some time listening and learning enough about the issues before jumping in and getting caught in the middle of a heated controversy. Getting too consumed in the politics may prevent assistant professors from focusing on the many other important responsibilities they have.

Rheingold (1994) highlights the importance of establishing collegial relationships while

simultaneously learning to function independently. She recommends that new faculty spend time in the departmental office and demonstrate interest in colleagues' work. While departments vary in terms of the degree of congeniality displayed, new faculty should take it upon themselves to establish positive relationships with colleagues, thus securing their position within the department. Developing relationships with new and established faculty in other departments and collaborating on research with colleagues in the department and from other disciplines is also important. Finally, new faculty should seek out mentors within and outside their own department. Many institutions offer mentoring programs for new faculty during their orientation, and it is a good idea to take advantage of them when they exist.

Just as it is never too early to begin preparation for an academic career while in graduate school, the time to begin preparing for the tenure and promotion review is as soon as the position is accepted. New faculty should try to find out as much as possible about the teaching, scholarship, and service criteria expected for tenure. Although all areas are very important and criteria for each vary across universities, one's publication record is likely to be a major factor in the tenure and promotion decision. Although new faculty members may be more passionate about teaching and making positive changes in the department through volunteering for committees, it is important not to neglect the important task of establishing and maintaining a productive program of research. Preparing a manuscript from the dissertation soon after it is finished and submitting it for publication is a good idea. Organizing one's schedule to make blocks of time for research and writing, planning effectively, and delegating tasks to research assistants are skills that can facilitate productivity.

New faculty should use the materials compiled for the application as a starting point for their dossier, which is a collection of papers containing detailed information about accomplishments in the areas relating to tenure and promotion – typically teaching, scholarship and service. The dossier should include the following: (a) information about courses taught such as syllabi, sample lectures, and student and course evaluations; (b) documents related to research projects, including copies of manuscripts submitted and accepted for publication, correspondence with journal editors regarding the status of submissions, copies of proposals and acceptances for presentations at professional

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meetings, and information about ongoing studies such as IRB proposals and/or acceptance letters; and (c) evidence of service to the department, the university, and the surrounding community. It is important to develop a system for organizing this information during the first semester, as it will accumulate surprisingly quickly. The vita should be kept current; therefore, new faculty should develop the habit of adding to it as new activities or products are completed.

Keeping the department chair informed of ongoing and planned activities in the areas related to tenure is advised, and if not already a policy, new faculty should request annual meetings with the chair to review and evaluate performance during the year (CWP & CEMRRAT, 1998; Rheingold, 1994). Written feedback from these meetings should be requested and filed as a method of documenting accomplishments on an annual basis. Finally, new faculty should continually ask questions to clarify expectations and criteria for promotion and tenure.

Although novels (and tragedies) can be written about the tenure process, new assistant professors should know that they are not alone if they feel overwhelmed, unworthy, and even overcome with panic about the tenure process (Newman, 1999). Common thoughts may include, "What if I am lecturing in front of a group of students and I suddenly forget what I am talking about?" or "Those reviewers were right. My research lacks theoretical grounding, methodological rigor, and importance." Thankfully, those thoughts tend to be few and far between. When they do occur, it is best to acknowledge them, laugh, and cognitively reframe them. It is our hope that this article may stimulate thinking about academe as a possible career choice and may answer some common questions about how to pursue these positions. For those interested in further discussing these issues, we plan to facilitate a conversation hour in the Division 16 Hospitality Suite at the 2003 APA Convention in Toronto. Please join us!

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Student Affiliates of School Psychology (SASP)

How Can SASP Address the Shortage in School Psychology?

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Children's Resource Group

One of the main concerns at the Future's Conference is related to the shortage of school psychologists. In order to meet the increasing educational and mental health needs of schools and families, school psychology must use available resources wisely. This means addressing what we do, continuing with what we do well, and determining how we can do better with what we have. To do this, we must conceptualize solutions to problems creatively. We must be able to shift our perspective, and work collaboratively with others in order to deliver effective service. Additionally, we must think in a synergistic fashion when using the resources that are available.

Currently, a resource that is available is our professional organization. As with any organization, the whole purpose for uniting together is to offer one another professional support. We do this in a number of ways, and design our organization so that it can meet our needs. As SASP continues to gain momentum, we must explore ways this student organization can address the present needs of school psychology. Specifically, how can our organization address the shortage in school psychology? How can we use our organizational resources in a synergistic fashion? True, one may never have considered a student organization for the purpose of addressing the shortage problem, but to reiterate a previous point, we must creatively consider available resources. While I intend to discuss my own ideas in this article, I do hope my ideas serve as a springboard for discussion among local chapters so that SASP members may brainstorm solutions that address the present concerns of our profession.

A function of SASP is to provide students with opportunities for networking with other students

and professionals. SASP members may network with one another at their respective universities. They may also develop a relationship among community schools and agencies. Furthermore, SASP members may network with students and professors from other universities at a national level. Networking serves a two-fold purpose: it fosters the establishment of relationships among outside professionals, peers, and school psychologists, and it allows for students to learn about professional opportunities that exist outside their immediate program.

By establishing connections with others, SASP members create relationships that can serve them in a variety of ways. Such relationships may aid them in a collaborative fashion when serving clients. This means working with other skilled professionals in the delivery of services, rather than trying to do it all ourselves. Another benefit is that professional relationships can inform SASP members as to where they are most needed. They can become aware of the variety of settings that employ school psychologists such as administration, academia, and public policy. SASP members also can be informed of the geographic areas that are recruiting more school psychologists, as well of areas where there is a surplus. Hence, through networking, we can accomplish not only the sharing of service delivery, but we can also encourage the distribution of students into a variety of positions and geographical areas.

Another way SASP can address the shortage is to encourage more research and presentation about effective service delivery. When a school psychologist is effective, the amount of time spent treating a client can decrease. In some cases, service delivery can be short-term, and if a school

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Student Affiliates in School Psychology (SASP)

psychologist is ineffective, then service delivery becomes long-term. Therefore, it is important for a school psychologist to implement what works and to be able to show that it works. Students who are actively involved in their professional organizations have access to current research and theory that compliments the training they receive in their respective programs. As a future professional who bridges research to practice, a SASP member has the potential for decreasing the amount of time needed for service delivery.

A third way SASP can address the shortage is by professionally supporting one another. SASP members are the next generation, and we are the ones who have received current training. Unfortunately, not every work environment adheres to best practices when delivering services. While it is certainly ideal for a SASP member to foster positive change in the work environment by becoming the new "stone" that causes a ripple effect within a stagnant pool, the challenge can certainly be discouraging. By receiving support from one's professional organization, SASP members can offer one another insight and encouragement.

To accomplish these goals, SASP provides a variety of venues for networking and disseminating information: conventions, chapter activities, and newsletters. SASP has even utilized electronic forums such as the listserv and web site. Quite often, students from other universities have met one another through a networking medium, and have collaborated on research projects and presentations. Former SASP members who are now professional school psychologists continue their dialogue with one another. Some members have been offered positions in areas that are seeking school psychologists. This year SASP has established stronger ties with APAGS and other organizations such as the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) and ISPA (International School Psychology Association). It is my hope that SASP, as an organization, not only continues to grow in its ability to meet the ever-growing needs of its membership, but also strengthens its ties with other

school psychology organizations. By doing so, SASP members will have even greater access to opportunities that address the concerns in our field.

Taking Attendance: SASP Chapter Information Needed

Bryony Orwick
University of Kentucky

SASP would like to update its local chapter database. We are requesting that ALL chapters officially affiliated with SASP provide their current information to Bryony Orwick, Membership Committee Chair. Email her DIRECTLY at bnorwi0@uky.edu. Thank you!

Please provide the following information:

- University Name & Program/website address
- Student Contact/Liaison mailing address, work phone number, email address (This is especially important!)
- Faculty Sponsor mailing address, work phone number, email address
- Program Training Director mailing address, work phone number, email address
- Any other relevant or interesting information that you would like to share with SASP officers regarding your student organization - upcoming events, accomplishments, etc.

We will post your program's URL and contact information on our website. Also, if you do not have a SASP chapter at your school and are interested in starting one, please visit the SASP website at www.saspweb.org or email the Membership Chair at bnorwi0@uky.edu.

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

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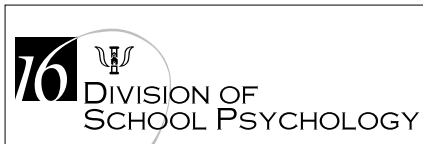
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APA DIVISION 16 SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY



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The objectives of the Division of School Psychology are:

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People & Places

Compiled by Angeleque Akin-Little
State University of New York at Albany

Tom Kubiszyn, Ph.D. was recently appointed to the **APA Committee on Psychological Tests and Assessments (CPTA)** for a 3-year term (2003-2005). He was also selected by the **Board of Scientific Affairs** to serve on the **Board of Professional Affairs** slate.

The **APA Committee for International Affairs in Psychology** has selected **Dr. Thomas Oakland**, Professor of Educational Psychology at the University of Florida, as the recipient of the **2003 Award for Distinguished Contributions to the International Advancement of Psychology**.

Ed Gaughan, Ph.D. reports that **Ms. Anita Saunders**, doctoral candidate at the **University of Nebraska-Lincoln**, has joined the faculty of the Division of School Psychology at **Alfred University**.

Also, **Nancy Evangelista, Ph.D.**, Assistant Professor of School Psychology at **Alfred University**, has assumed the presidency of the New York Association of School Psychologists (NYASP). Dr. Evangelista has just completed 2-years as President-Elect.

Study and Research Opportunities for Graduate Students Abound in International School Psychology

Tracey G. Scherr
University of Northern Colorado

I never imagined anything would top studying developmental psychology at Piaget's archives in Geneva, Switzerland. That was before I presented a paper at the International School Psychology Association's (ISPA) annual colloquium in Nyborg, Denmark this past summer. I'd like to share highlights of my two trips to Europe to encourage you to consider contributing to and benefiting from the exciting international school psychology movement.

First, let's fly to Switzerland. Actually, I had intended to go to Dakar, Senegal, initially, but I noticed an ad in the *Communique* in the spring of 2001 for a summer program through New York University that invited students to study applied psychology and education in West Africa, while visiting related sites. Although I had never been outside of the U.S., except to Canada a couple of times, I found the prospect of such an adventure exciting. Thus, I wrote an essay and completed some relatively painless forms to apply. To my

delight, I was accepted. Unfortunately, due to some vaguely identified administrative problems, the university informed me that the trip was cancelled shortly after I enrolled. I was devastated until they offered me the consolation prize of spending three weeks in Geneva and, of course, I accepted the offer.

I capitalized on the opportunity and explored the historic Jewish district of Krakow, Poland, as well as several Nazi concentration camps before classes began in Geneva. This profound experience broadened my comprehension of man's inhumanity to man, and of the related effects of such tragic experiences on individual human development and on the collective unconscious. It was incredible to return to the classroom immediately following to make some intellectual sense of what I had seen and felt. Professionally, I feel much better prepared to handle issues related to lifespan development, death, self-actualization, prejudice, and terrorism. Personally, I dug deeper into my spirituality. I was at

Study and Research Opportunities for Graduate Students Abroad in International School Psychology

a peak life experience.

I did study while in Europe, too. After Poland, I met about a dozen other students in Geneva. We had classes and fieldtrips Monday through Thursday, so most of us were able to travel on weekends. We enjoyed a few group meals and cultural events as well. Homework consisted of readings and journal entries, which were manageable and allowed us time to explore our amazing surroundings. We often unwound together with a bottle of wine at our dormitory after we had spent late afternoons exploring the beautiful city of Geneva following a day of classes. Also of note, I met a fellow school psychology student in the cohort, with whom I became fast friends. We keep in touch to this day.

I won't lie. The financial price tag was substantial between airfare, my side trips, tuition, and room and board. If you plan ahead, though, you can make arrangements with your university's financial aid office because the programs NYU offers provide graduate credits. You may be able to meet some degree requirements while having the time of your life. It's hard to put a price tag on that. Consider the program in Senegal, too. I believe it has been reinstated (visit www.nyu.edu).

After the positive experience I had in 2001, I hardly hesitated before joining ISPA at the 2002 NASP convention in Chicago. By that spring, I had submitted a presentation proposal to the organization's annual colloquium and it was accepted. So, I gave a presentation to my peers and superiors in Nyborg, Denmark in July. Thankfully, the official language of the meeting was English! I had presented posters nationally before, but never a paper, much less at an international conference. It was a highlight of my relatively short career, and I am sure I will continue to consider it one of my fondest memories.

Prior to my stop in Denmark, I visited Norway. My maternal ancestors emigrated from there. I stayed with very kind distant relatives, who were quite knowledgeable regarding local history, and visited the homestead where my great, great grandparents once lived. Norway is by far the most beautiful place I have ever seen with its steep, lush green mountains crowned by clouds and adorned with glacial waterfalls. Its deep, dark fjords were incredible too.

Not only was presenting at the colloquium an honor, but meeting students and school psychologists from other countries was enlightening. Our brief interactions taught me so much. Observing

Israelis and Palestinians working together at a pre-conference crisis workshop on behalf of children was amazing and uplifting. When students and professors from the Republic of Georgia asked for guest lecturers and textbooks, and talked about how school psychologists work for approximately \$15 per month, if they get paid, I was prompted to put things in perspective. We are quite fortunate to have access to the many tools we do in the United States as professionals preparing to enter this challenging field. At the same time, many other countries can teach us a great deal about successful intervention models they have implemented, among other lessons they have learned.

Again, the trip across the Atlantic was fairly costly financially, but less expensive than the previous summer's. If you plan ahead and investigate, you may be able to secure some funding via travel grants offered by your department, graduate student association, university, or community. ISPA offers some financial assistance as well, but understandably it appears to be reserved for those in the most desperate need. This year's colloquium will be held in July in Hangzhou, China (visit www.ispaweb.org).

In sum, my experiences in Europe in the summers of 2001 and 2002 taught me many academic and life lessons. My understanding of the importance of an international perspective of school psychology is a strength that I will bring to the field. I strongly believe that we must learn from other countries in order to implement best practices. We should share our knowledge and resources as well. We are facing an increasingly diverse world with a more global focus. In order to participate effectively, we must mirror the change we want to see happen.

ANNOUNCEMENTS**Summer Institute to Provide Research Update for Trainers of School Psychologists**

The federal government has a number of initiatives that encourage school practitioners to use research-supported assessment and instruction. The purpose of this 2-day institute is to provide trainers of school psychologists and other educational professionals in speech and language therapy, special education, and general education with information on recent research relevant to assessment and instructional intervention. This research is also relevant to the anticipated changes in the reauthorization of IDEA, which may result in an expanded role for school psychology in early intervention to prevent learning and behavior problems and in problem-solving consultation for academic learning.

Topics to be covered include

- The Learning Triangle (Learner's Individual Differences, Pedagogy, and Curriculum)
- Importance of Timing in Teaching Fluent Reading and Writing
- Four Alternatives to IQ-Achievement Discrepancy (Providing supplementary specialized instruction for all low achievers; Monitoring response to intervention; Linking process assessment with intervention; and Comprehensive assessment with research-supported differential diagnosis)
- The Three-Tier Model (early identification and intervention; progress monitoring and assessing and modifying curriculum; and specialized instruction based on comprehensive assessment)
- What Pre-service Educational Professionals Need to Know about the Brain (e.g., Its Responsiveness to Instruction), Reading and Writing Instruction, and Curriculum
- Instructional Design Principles
- Recent research-supported Curriculum-Based Measurement, Criterion-Referenced, and Norm-Referenced Tools for Multi-Modal Assessment
- Fluency Training and Assessment
- Use of Research-Supported Reading and Writing Lessons in Curriculum-Based Assessment

Instructors, all of whom have extensive teaching and psychological assessment experience, will be:

- Dr. Jan Hasbrouck, Associate Professor of Special Education/At-Risk/Bilingual Education & School Psychology, Texas A & M University—College Station, and Executive Director Washington Statewide Reading Initiative
- Dr. Donna Smith, National Educational Measurement Consultant, The Psychological Corporation and Project Director for the WIAT-II
- Dr. Virginia Berninger, Professor of Educational Psychology, Director of Multidisciplinary Learning Disability Center, and Co-Director of the Brain, Education, and Technology Center, University of Washington, and Co-Chair of Academic Intervention subgroup in APA School Psychology Task Force on Empirically Supported Interventions.

The Institute will be held in Seattle, Washington at the University of Washington on August 28 and 29, just before most universities begin classes. It is a unique opportunity to update your research knowledge at a time when you can incorporate it in your teaching in the 2003-2004 academic year and in a setting in which you can also learn from other trainers. Opportunities for participants to interact with other trainers are planned during the day and in a special evening event on August 28. Trainers of school psychologists are encouraged to invite colleagues who train pre-service professionals in general education (curriculum and instruction), special education, and speech and language pathology to participate with them, in keeping with the Institute's Theme, Creating Partnerships across Disciplines Serving Children with Learning Differences and Learning Disabilities. Further information about the Institute can be obtained from Dr. Mona Kunselman at mkunselman@ese.washington.edu or monamk@u.washington.edu.

Early Childhood Assessment Conference

Fordham University's School Consultation and Early Childhood Centers & Los Niños Services Present - Essentials of Early Childhood Assessment: Practical Strategies for Conducting Early Intervention Evaluations. The conference will take place on Friday May 30, 2003 from 8:30 am to 4:30 pm at Fordham University's Law School located at 140 62nd Street in New York City. Experienced presenters will review all the major aspects of how to conduct evaluations effectively in the Early Intervention (EI) program. Videotape case vignettes will be interwoven throughout the presentations to illustrate a range of practical early childhood and evaluation issues. By attending this conference you will learn the essential aspects of the EI system, diagnostic issues, evaluation strategies, working with parents, and how to write effective reports that pass the quality assurance standards of EI. The focus will be on performing the highest quality evaluations, and using the evaluation as the first step in aligning with parents and strengthening families through the Early Intervention Program. This event is co-sponsored by co-sponsored by The New York Association of Early Childhood and Infant Psychologists and The New York Association of School Psychologists. For further information please see www.losninosservices.com or www.fordham.edu.



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