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School Psychology Is Up For Review

Cecil R. Reynolds, Texas A & M University

Summer is upon us and often our thoughts turn to lighter issues and less stressful concerns than seem to consume us during the academic year. This will not however be the case for the Division 16 Executive Committee and likely not for many of our members. Since my last message, the Division EC held a 3-day meeting jointly with the other child-focused divisions of APA. Plans are now to continue this joint meeting format for the time being as a means of fostering child mental health issues within APA as well as through the independent means of each Division. This joint meeting, the next scheduled for Alexandria, VA, February 11-13 of 2005, is also designed to promote cooperation and discussion of issues that at times might place our various divisions at odds and to seek resolutions that are in the best interests of children. One of the key aspects of influencing APA policy and the allocation of APA’s significant resources, is through the placement of individuals on various APA Boards and Committees. APA functions largely through the direction of its Boards and Committees, under the watchful eye and approval of the APA Council of Representatives, and it is in these Boards (e.g., Board of Scientific Affairs, Board of Professional Affairs, Board of Educational Affairs) and Committees (e.g., Committee on Psychological Testing and Assessment, Committee on Accreditation, Committee for the Advancement of Professional Practice) and through the support of the assigned APA professional staff that much of the work of APA is accomplished. The child divisions now work closely to ensure appropriate nomination and election of individuals to these Boards and Committees that have child interests at heart. Through such joint efforts, we can keep the mental health interests of children staunchly before the APA bureaucracy. We also address important issues that face the professions related to child mental health. For example, Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology, now approved as a Boarded specialty by ABPP, is coming forward to CRSPPP for formal recognition as a designated area of professional specialty practice in psychology. The support of the other child-related divisions is necessary to see such a designation occur.

At the same time, School Psychology is up for review and must apply for reauthorization of its existing specialty designation. This is a time when we must exercise great care, since the definition of the profession and its characterization as a specialty are thrown open and are subject to change. It has been and remains up to Division 16 to take the leadership role in preparing the application for continuing designation, but it also requires the coordination of the interests of many, some of which at times conflict. In the case of school psychology, coordination with NASP is also seen as desirable, and discussions have been held with the NASP President on initiating this process.

In the last review and application for continuing status as a specialty area of professional practice, under the leadership of Jan Hughes, School Psychology was able to make much progress in its recognition as a health care profession. Our efforts this time around are to be headed by Deborah Tharinger, who has assembled a strong committee to pursue the interests of School Psychology during this process.

Our profession and the children we serve face many other issues—some that never seem to go away (e.g., the doctoral/nondoctoral issue in practice), but others that are more unique to our times. As I write this message, competing versions of the Re-authorization of IDEA have been passed by the U.S. House and the Senate. Wrangling over membership to the conference committee that will attempt to iron out the differences and create legislation acceptable to both components of the Federal legislature is now underway. However this debate turns out, it will have a significant effect on school psychology as a professional discipline. The No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) is just now beginning to impact school psychologists, and the potential for this act to change the schools is substantial and as yet unrealized. But, it will change how we do business in the schools, we just as yet do not understand how.

These and many other issues are monitored by the Division 16 EC with the hope of having input through APA into the legislative and related trends that affect the lives of children. There continues to be a shortage of practicing school psychologists nationwide, as well as a shortage of trainers of school psychologists. In the more than 50 workshops I have conducted in the public schools and at school psychology association meetings over the last 18 months, I do not recall the last time I was not asked about where to find more, well trained school psychologists. At the same time, as you have seen in the last issue of TSP, there are continuing concerns about how we train and evaluate our

CONTINUED ON PAGE 85
students and determine who should be put forward in the end as school psychologists.

The development and application of zero-tolerance policies in schools is another matter that greatly affects the mental health of children in the schools and one that is of continuing concern to the Division. Policies that suspend children for drawing a picture (of a gun) in an art class, writing a disturbing (to the adults) story in response to an assignment in a creative writing class, or, as I read in today’s paper, for bringing to school and possessing a prescribed (for her) decongestant have obvious flaws in their fundamental implementation, and psychology appears not to have been consulted on how best to implement what can be policies that empower children and protect them. We will be asking the APA Council of Representatives to work with us on developing policies for the intelligent implementation of zero-tolerance policies to allow them to work as intended.

Our country is at war, and the parents of many children are absent overseas and in clear danger. Their children are in our schools, and we have a special obligation to serve them and to promote their mental health, particularly in this time of great stress upon these children. Schools near military complexes typically have access to special programs and training to deal with these issues. However, many of the parents now at war are reservists from all parts of our country and their children do not have the support systems nearby of a military base or school psychologists employed by the DOD or with special expertise in this domain. It is a challenge to us to locate and provide support as needed for these children and not leave them solely to their own devices. Please also share resources and expertise in this area with your colleagues through TSP and the various school psychology listservs that are now in use.

A perusal of the Table of Contents of this and the last several issues of TSP will bring to fore a smattering of other issues that affect children and are of concern to school psychology, issues that are extremely diverse in topic but with a unifying theme: they all are about issues affecting the mental health of children. For example, in this issue you will see papers related to violence prevention, assessing culturally diverse gifted children, and the so-called Response to Intervention model of diagnosis of learning disabilities, including the AASP’s official response to proposed legislative models of diagnosis of LD. The Division’s APA program is also listed, along with summaries of the programs of other child divisions. You will see here as well a myriad of the issues facing children and the profession, from issues of specificity of daily practice, such as should we interpret subtest scores on intelligence tests, to broader, more sweeping issues such as delineating the role of doctoral school psychology. All of these and more are issues before the Division EC, but more than that, are issues before the profession.

I have come to believe, for reasons I will elucidate in the near future, that school learning or, perhaps better phrased as successful schooling, is the single most salient variable in children’s mental health development. It is also related to many traditional health outcomes over the course of a lifetime. Learning is a public health issue that has gone unrecognized as such, and I will soon be asking the Division 16 EC to take up this issue with the assistance of other APA Divisions and APA Council.

I have always heard that it is an ancient curse, “May you live in interesting times.” We do live in interesting times, no doubt, but I prefer to see them as a challenge. While the Division EC works hard attending the various APA Board and Committee meetings, preparing our own documents related to the profession and its practice, and speaking directly to the membership of the Division, even as bright and diverse a group as the EC cannot master all of the challenges nor possess the expertise to do so. Every day, each member of the profession has some opportunity to express opinions or to act in a way that affects individual children or child-related issues. Yet, we too may feel we do not have the requisite knowledge or skills to comment or to act. Nevertheless, we should be involved and take the responsibility to speak on behalf of children and their mental health needs in whatever context we have these opportunities. Remember why it was ultimately that you decided to be a school psychologist. When in doubt about a position or an action to take or support, let me suggest a guiding question that I recommend to our EC and to APA staff when difficult decisions are to be made: Is it good for the children? If it is good for the children, do it, support it, and you will sleep well knowing too that you have done what is best for your profession.

I look forward to seeing you in Hawaii. Please do plan to attend the official functions of the Division as well as the substantive, scientific sessions, and consider becoming more involved in the professional activities of the Division.
Response to Response to Intervention Legislation: The Future for School Psychologists

Guy M. McBride, Burke County Public Schools, NC
Ron Dumont, Fairleigh Dickinson University
John O. Willis, Rivier College

Abstract
Congress is in the process of reauthorizing the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act and appears almost certain to eliminate or make optional the use of IQ tests and discrepancy formulae for identification of specific learning disabilities in favor of Response to Intervention and the Problem Solving Model, which are already being used in school districts in at least 10 states. This dramatic shift in the practice of school psychology will require school psychologists, ready or not, to master new skills, new approaches, and new roles for the parts of their jobs involving learning disabilities assessments. This article attempts to analyze some of the anticipated changes and possible implications for school psychologists.

The Future for School Psychologists
“Lead, follow, or get out of the way.” This anonymous aphorism, quoted by many, including President Reagan, seems to apply to school psychologists in the 21st century. As of May, 2004, both houses of Congress had passed bills (HR 1350 and S 1248) to reauthorize the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), referring them to a Conference committee. Although the bills had significant differences, with respect to Specific Learning Disabilities (SLD) they both offered identical amendments to the current (1997) law. Briefly, both houses of Congress proposed that the states be prohibited from requiring that Individualized Education Program (IEP) teams find a severe discrepancy between ability and achievement in order to identify a student as having a Specific Learning Disability; and both bills proposed that “a local educational agency may use a process which determines if a child responds to scientific, research-based intervention” as an alternative marker for the “true” child with SLD.

The Past
Multidisciplinary teams, in an attempt to decide about a child’s eligibility for special education services, have utilized information provided by school psychologists, learning specialists, and/or independent evaluators who have been assiduously administering and comparing IQ (WISC, WAIS, DAS, KAIT, Slosson, ad nauseum) and achievement tests (WIAT, Woodcock-Johnson, PIAT, K-TEA, etc.) since 1977. The main problem in using IQ test results to calculate severe discrepancy is that the underlying assumption (i.e., IQ tests accurately predict achievement and establish a child’s potential) is a myth. IQ test scores have never predicted academic achievement very well. Most commonly used IQ tests only account for 25% to 35% of the variance, which means that 65% to 75% of what we call achievement is affected by something other than IQ (whatever “IQ” might be). [See, for example, Hammill & McNutt (1981).] When we use IQ scores to predict specific aptitudes, such as performance on a phonics test, the amount of variance accounted for drops to about 10% There is nothing good or bad about those facts intrinsically. It is only when we use IQ as a marker to differentiate between children who do or do not have SLD that the whole thing starts to look a bit absurd. We have constantly and consistently talked metaphorically about how a child with SLD is characterized by having a weakness in a sea of strengths. There has never ever been any research to suggest that children who have a strength in a sea of weaknesses (or who are simply drowning in a sea of weaknesses with no life preserver at all) needed help less, or even that they would have profited less from the same directed instruction that the typical child with a SLD receives (or ought to receive).

In fact, many researchers have provided evidence and opinions suggesting that IQ scores and discrepancy measures do not distinguish one disabled reader from another (e.g., Aaron, 1997; Fletcher, Francis, Rourke, Shaywitz, & Shaywitz, 1992; Mather & Healey, 1990; Fletcher et al., 1994; Stanovich, 1991, 1993).
Response to Response to Intervention Legislation: The Future for School Psychologists

Although the main problem with using IQ tests is that they do not predict achievement scores very well, that is not the only problem. Scores from different IQ tests are not interchangeable, nor are scores from different achievement tests. Different tests given to the same child will yield different scores, not necessarily because they are inherently flawed, but because they all measure differing aspects of the same child, and because they have different psychometric characteristics (e.g., Bracken, 1988, Floyd, Clark & Shadish, 2004). What that means is that a savvy evaluator can tip the scales for or against a child’s probability of being eligible for special education if he or she has some basic information about a child’s strengths and weaknesses. In short, whether a child does or does not qualify could depend to no small degree on the cleverness and versatility of the examiner in playing the “refer-test-place” game.

Perhaps to prevent the exercise of such cleverness and versatility, some school districts require their evaluators to administer the same battery of tests to every child, regardless of the child’s suspected and known disabilities and other issues. Such rules, of course, not only violate the evaluation procedures outlined in §300.532 of the 1999 Regulations, they also further diminish the usefulness of evaluations.

Yet another problem with the use of total IQ scores is that the IQ scores are often depressed by the same cognitive weaknesses that depress the child’s achievement. If, for example, a child has a severe weakness in learning, retaining, and retrieving oral vocabulary, that weakness will be reflected in depressed scores on tests of reading comprehension and written expression. However, the same weakness will also depress verbal intelligence measures, which are large components of most total intelligence scores. This “Mark Penalty” (Willis & Dumont, 2002, pp. 131-2) may seem to eliminate a mathematical discrepancy between measures of achievement and ability for some children even when there is a genuine disparity between ability and achievement. [See Dumont, Willis, & McBride, 2001, for a more in-depth discussion of the severe discrepancy clause.]

It is impossible to predict how fast change will occur. The Council for Exceptional Children (2002, 2003), Learning Disabilities Association, and maybe one or two other groups are urging restraint. All 10 major stake holders at the LD Roundtable sponsored by Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services (OSERS) agreed that the ability-achievement discrepancy was invalid. The American Psychological Association (not invited to the LD Roundtable in 2002) did not endorse RTI or the Problem-Solving Model (PSM), saying “Current legislative proposals to reauthorize IDEA do not require states to take into account the discrepancy between achievement and intellectual ability in determining whether a child has a specific learning disability. Whether or not this criterion is retained (pending the development of a more valid and reliable alternative assessment), it is critical to conduct a comprehensive evaluation of a child’s cognitive strengths and deficits” (American Psychological Association, 2003). However, the National Association of School Psychologists has said unequivocally that the scientifically unsupported discrepancy requirement should be abolished. Both organizations call for the continuance of cognitive testing; yet neither group, within the context of the respective statements, provided research-based data supporting their contention that knowing a child’s cognitive abilities could positively influence that student’s academic outcomes.

Although it might make sense to give people time to develop some nationwide training materials, RTI could easily be on us before anybody is ready. Some districts have implemented non-categorical procedures (e.g., Heartland, Iowa for 100% of its special education children, Horry County, South Carolina, for selected categories), in part to correct the problems reliance on a discrepancy formula has caused. That implementation required rules replacement. Students are called various things, but no specific label is given [e.g., “Entitled Child with an Entitlement to Special Education” (Heartland AEA, 2002b, p. 7-2)]. If Congress passes what it is proposing, the category “SLD” will be about the same as the “Entitled Child.” Students who now have mild EMD, SLD, mild BED, Language Impairment, and ADHD (without hyperactivity) would be identified under the SLD umbrella instead of the Entitled Child with a Disability umbrella. So it really does not matter much what you call it. Low achievement is (or ought to be) part of the picture, although it is not mentioned explicitly in the proposed changes to the statute. The other part that the school absolutely must document will be resistance to instruction using research-based, scientific interventions within the context of a problem-solving model. The problem-solving model is also not explicitly mentioned in the federal legislation, but when Congress talks about a
process, that is the process to which they are referring. We will be very surprised if both low achievement and resistance to intervention are not explicitly referenced in the OSERS regulations.

The PSM is a self-correcting model that typically uses a 4-level process. The first level involves the parents and teacher; the second the parents, teacher, and other school staff; the third level involves all of the above plus school psychologists and/or other qualified professionals; and the fourth level is when the child is referred, parent rights are given, consent is obtained for additional testing, if needed, and the team decides whether more interventions need to be tried or whether the child can be deemed eligible for special education based upon current documentation. These decisions are data driven, as typically extensive, normed and criterion-referenced testing is done throughout the process. Although IQ tests may be administered, experience in Heartland, Iowa, and Horry County, South Carolina, suggests that the teams will be requesting them infrequently – no surprise when you consider that very few IEP goals are ever developed based on strengths and weaknesses revealed by an individualized intellectual assessment.

Documenting resistance to intervention is going to require lots and lots of assessment and record keeping, particularly at Level 3 of the 4-level process, which might (or might not) become part of school psychologists’ roles. The bottom line is that nobody knows what is going to happen to school psychologists when (not if) RTI goes national. The National Association of School Psychologists is advocating for school psychologists to assume leadership roles on the teams, and that is both reasonable and supported by what is happening in most of the model sites. However, even if school psychologist positions increase in number as a result of these changes (and that is not guaranteed), there is also no guarantee that they will be filled by the same people now filling more traditional roles. In some school systems, learning disabilities assessment is only one part of a school psychologist’s many-faceted responsibilities, but in others, school administrators have sought to contain costs by restricting school psychologists to mandated activities only. In those systems particularly, RTI and the PSM could pose a real challenge to psychologists seeking to justify their positions. In a preventive model, the assessments, observations, consultations, and interventions are, for the most part, being done with regular education children not yet suspected of having disabilities. Under current funding laws, schools may be prohibited from using state special education funds to pay for those services – and so the question, “What funds will be used to pay school psychologists to lead the intervention teams?” has not yet been answered.

As if RTI were not enough to cope with, the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB) has revolutionized special education (Wright, Wright, & Heath, 2003). NCLB calls for a reduction in the artificial barriers between special education and regular education, advocates for a de-emphasis on process and paperwork, and calls for a major system change. Most people do not realize that schools have never, ever actually been accountable for children with disabilities learning anything. Schools have to give parents their rights, develop an IEP, and teach to the IEP, but if the child does not learn a single thing listed on the IEP, the law has always explicitly said it “does not require that any agency, teacher, or other person be held accountable if a child does not achieve the growth projected in the annual goals and benchmarks or objectives” (34 CFR 300.350). The challenge from the President’s Commission on Excellence (2002) and from NCLB is to change the focus from process-based accountability to results-based educational accountability. It is hard not to feel nostalgic for the good old days when giving it the old college try was enough -- now people actually want to see something for their money.

Questions and some Tentative Answers

In real and concrete terms, how will Levels 1 and 2 differ from what we have been doing in the past? Can Levels 1 and 2 succeed if the parents are not willing or able to be involved?

The PSM calls for extensive documentation, but schools and individuals will vary in their enthusiasm and capacity for that effort. We will have to see whether and how vigorously such documentation will be enforced. The amount of change will depend in various schools upon what teachers were doing in the past. Teachers have always had conferences to apprise parents of their child’s progress. In some school systems, for example, board policies require teachers to warn parents that their child might not be promoted as early as January. This model adds a burden for the teacher to try to problem-solve with the parent -- and adds a requirement that the problem-solving be documented. Obviously, if the parent does not come in, problem-solving cannot be as effective. But the model assumes up to 80% of
student problems will be resolved at this step. If parents refuse to become involved, the assistance team cannot refuse to serve the child at Levels 2 and 3. It is expected, however, that parent refusal will not be accepted without extensive documentation of the team’s efforts to gain their involvement.

How long does a team wait before moving from step to step? Will there be an inflexible sequential time line for response to the intervention? Would 1, 2, 4, 8, or 16 weeks be reasonable? How much discretion will be permitted to local teams?

Success in this area is heavily dependent upon local probes being normed. You cannot have a data-driven response to intervention system if you do not have comparative data for fall, winter, and spring for the instruments being used. Using district norms, the team decides at the first meeting what would be an acceptable level of performance, and the next meeting time is set before the meeting is adjourned. Parents have the right at any point to initiate a referral, which would trigger state timelines. Parental participation will help to guarantee the integrity of the process. Teams will be accumulating much more data during the Level 3 process than currently is the case, using a RIOT format (Review, Interview, Observe, Test) across the ICEL Domains (Instruction, Curriculum, Environment, Learner), supplemented with classroom observations and CBM probes (Heartland AEA, 2002a, p. 54). The goal here is not to get the lowest achievement test score or the highest IQ score as under the present system, but to document a convergence of data showing whether the child is making adequate progress. Graphing of the results will also be essential, because a determination of need will be based not only on absolutes (e.g., the child is at the 10th percentile) but on whether trend lines show that child as making acceptable progress toward his goal. Our understanding is that the team will consider those data plus the intensity of service being provided to maintain progress. If a student is being maintained at above, say, the 10th percentile, and the trend line is showing promising growth, the team could still consider entitlement if the level of intervention is, in the team’s collective judgment, equivalent to specialized instruction (special education). The 4-level system is not structured to be inflexibly sequential. There are many reasons why a child might be automatically elevated to Level 3 (bypassing 1 and 2). Such reasons include:

- Parents request an evaluation;
- The child has previously been referred to Level 2;
- The child is below the 10th percentile on end-of-grade tests;
- The student does not meet grade-level standards in more than one area;
- Student is potentially harmful to self or others;
- Student appears unable to participate in any academic activities;
- Behavior consistently interferes with learning of self or others in the classroom;
- Behavior significantly disrupts the classroom’s functioning;
- Student moves in from another district or area with interventions or services having been provided in the past;
- Student has had significant trauma or mental health concerns or issues.

How will teams determine whether proposed interventions are “empirically based”? Will there be lists of prescribed interventions? Will teams be forbidden from applying common-sense solutions? Will it be legal to conduct research to test new methods that cannot, by definition, be empirically based until the research is completed?

These questions appear to remain totally unanswered for the time being.

What will be the fate of independent Educational Evaluations (IEEs)? Will schools still be required to consider the results of IEEs? Will there be a bull market for IEEs? Under what, if any, circumstances, will parents be able to demand IEEs at district expense?

We will probably need to wait for the final version of the statute, and even longer for the final regulations to definitively answer these questions. For those states and school districts that experience earlier and greater involvement of parents, there may be fewer requests for IEEs. The PSM may also provide more data to demonstrate that a district’s evaluation has been adequate.

If the school has already attempted research-based, appropriate interventions, and those have failed, what next? Have we already tried our best? How will evaluating the student at the upper levels provide useful information that will lead to interventions different from those already tried?

The real advantage to this system is earlier intervention. In the current system, the student is referred, but does not qualify, and the teacher says, “Well, I tried to help him. They let him fall between the cracks.” The PSM process insures that appropriate assessments focused on a child’s actual problems are conducted as early as kindergarten.
“Earlier intervention means fewer children would fall between the cracks and that children should have a much better prospect for success than in our current wait-to-fail model.”

with specific interventions for remediation being made and, hopefully, implemented. Earlier intervention means fewer children would fall between the cracks and that children should have a much better prospect for success than in our current wait-to-fail model.

We estimate that approximately 6% of all students identified as SLD for whom interventions are tried will prove resistant. Those are the children who would move to Level 4 and consideration of entitlement. If all assessment questions have not already been answered in the course of problem-solving using curriculum based measurement and applying RIOT and ICEL techniques, then, as needed, team members will participate in planning a full and individual evaluation and completing any necessary additional assessments. Horry County, however, reported a 94% reduction in time spent on additional assessments when the problem-solving model was introduced (Barbour & Schwanz, 2002).

Advantages of RTI at Level 4 (entitlement) should be obvious. Under the current model, often all that the special education teacher has for hard data is scores from the Woodcock Johnson Tests of Achievement, 3rd Edition, or other nationally normed, standardized test battery (not very helpful in targeting specific areas of weakness in more than global terms unless the evaluator has made special efforts), and regular classroom teacher input. With the data accumulated during Level 3, the IEP will almost write itself. The teacher will know what works a little and what works not at all. Personal communications (2003) with Ben Barbour in Horry County suggest that teachers have found this level of specificity very helpful in providing interventions that actually teach the child what we want her or him to know more quickly.

How, and by whom, are the Level 1 and 2 interventions monitored and evaluated? If a parent and a teacher get together to say, “Mildred has a problem, let’s try something new,” who monitors the intervention? Will we end up with a “been there – done that” mentality, with no empirical evidence or accountability?

There will need to be new record-keeping and follow-up mechanisms so that the PSM does not just open up a new set of cracks through which children can fall. Level 1 is informal, but includes some documentation. Extensive documentation is required even at Level 2. The team at Level 3 is charged with reviewing all of that documentation and may, at its discretion, return the child to an earlier level for more extensive remediation. The principal is key in any school. Principals will be charged with enforcing integrity of intervention.

Is there some level of achievement (we have mentioned certain percentiles) at which one would assume that a child is suffering? Will federal regulations specify some level of achievement below which schools will automatically be required to intervene? Will there be some level of achievement above which the school will be allowed to declare there is no problem?

Historically, Congress and OSERS have avoided specifying numerical cut-offs and formulae, but the courts and OCR have reacted with some hostility to local and state rules that appeared to deny services to otherwise eligible children. Being at grade level will no longer be defined as being average. In North Carolina, being at grade level was defined as being at the 38th percentile or above. Renorming has dropped that cutoff point considerably. If we defined “grade level” as 50th percentile, the goal of NCLB of having every child reading at grade level would be ludicrous. It may be ludicrous anyway, but we do not lower the bar just because more children are getting under it.

What will become of “gifted SLD” children? If I don’t use an IQ test to measure a child’s actual ability level, how can I identify a “gifted LD child” who is achieving on grade level but well below what we might expect, given his or her intelligence?

RTI and the PSM can be expected to identify children, especially those with low scores on IQ tests, who would not have been identified before. However, children with high IQ scores and average achievement might no longer be eligible for special education identification and services. Advocates for “gifted SLD” children can be expected to be as unhappy as advocates for “slow learners” have been in the past.

Will the entire process, starting at Level 1, be considered “special education”? If not, will there be restrictions on the involvement of personnel whose salaries are paid partly or totally by designated special education funds?

This is a potentially complicated question that may not be entirely resolved by the legislation or even the new regulations. We may need to reply on later interpretations by OSEPS, courts, and other authorities.

Useful Links Related to RTI and PSM

As a resource for those thoroughly scared or upset by all these proposed changes, we offer the following incomplete list of useful links related to
Response to Response to Intervention Legislation: The Future for School Psychologists

RTI and PSM. Some of these are "political" or "legal" documents, but we have always been a profession dominated by laws written by politicians. What they are thinking is important.

http://www.nasponline.org/information/pospaper_rwi.html (NASP article on rights without labels)
http://www.nasponline.org/futures/psmbiblio.html (NASP links)
http://tasponline.org/home.htm (Scroll down to Pasternack's Powerpoint -- it is the document that opponents to RTI and the PSM find necessary to rebut)
http://dibels.uoregon.edu/ (The best of the best CBM.)
http://www.interventioncentral.org/ (Jim Wright's Intervention Central with information on CBM)
http://education.umn.edu/C/MREA/CBM/cbmMOD1.html (CBM Progress Measures -- Stan Deno)
http://www.fsd.org/ (The Illinois version, called Flex)
http://www.nssed.k12.il.us/progser/services/flexible.service.htm (More Flex)
http://www.nasponline.org/futures/horrycounty.html (Description of Horry County's model)
http://www.mpls.k12.mn.us/services/speeded/resources/psm/Comparison_PSM_state.pdf (Brief description of the Minneapolis model, sometimes referenced in PSM discussions)
http://www.nasponline.org/publications/cq308minneapolis.html (NASP article on Minneapolis process)
http://www.nasponline.org/advocacy/idreferehtes.html (NASP Position Statement and other links; scroll down to the LD link)
http://www.geocities.com/vshr1350/DEFINITIONS.html#ec602 (Both bills on reauthorization)
ftp://ftp.pattan.k12.pa.us/pattan/OSEP/CY2002-4Qu/Baumtrog01.pdf (OSEP says that they have never required the states to impose an IQ testing requirement for LD.)
http://www.edexcellence.net/library/special_ed/ (Links to the Fordham papers. Number 12, Rethinking Learning Disabilities, is a seminal document.)
http://www.lexialearning.com/library/news2/issue_final_031120.pdf (*Waiting to Fail* a variation on a common theme)
http://www.air.org/ldsummit/ (These executive summaries followed the Fordham series. You can get the gist of what the researchers reported in the Researchers' Consensus Statement (see above), but two articles, one on processing, the other on discrepancy, are worth reviewing.)
http://marketplace.psychcorp.com/PsychCorp/Images/pdf/wisciv/definingtherole.pdf (An interesting article by Dr. Holdnack (20 pages) providing rationales for continuing to give cognitive tests)
http://www.aea1.k12.ia.us/spedmanual/manual.html (Manual (228 pages), from the Keystone AEA. Keystone has published its material on the Internet addressing entitlement decisions in some depth)
http://www.ldonline.org/id_indepth/legal_legislative/idea_reauthorization.html (LDA has several articles on RTI, the PSM, and its potential impact on LD children.)
http://www.ldonline.org/article.php?max=20&id=661&loc=41 (There are a number of PowerPoint files, including Pasternack's that may be worth your time.)
http://www.fcrr.org/staffpresentations/joe/NA/Special%20Ed%20Directors--LDNA.ppt (This explores the potential relationship between Reading First and the PSM.)
http://www.cecdr.org/testimony/February25/Reschly.pdf (Discussed disparate impact and cites the PSM as a means for reducing disproportionality; excellent reference)

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

References

http://www.nasponline.org/futures/horrycounty.html
Public policy developed to meet children’s needs may result in adverse and unintended consequences for its would-be benefactors. Federal “No Child Left Behind” (NCLB) policy and legislation (Pub. L. No. 107-110) emphasize school accountability and testing as a means of improving the education of all children. “High stakes testing” bears significant consequences for those children who may fail statewide assessment measures. This article applies relevant psychological knowledge to NCLB and addresses the serious implications of high stakes testing with regard to children’s educational needs. Utilizing statewide assessment information from California, New York, and Texas, questions about the appropriateness, functionality, and value of the current system are raised and recommendations for change provided.

Psychometric Properties

A fundamental assumption of educational testing holds that tests administered to children in schools should be psychometrically sound (American Educational Research Association, American Psychological Association, & National Council on Measurement in Education, 1999). Tests should be evaluated in terms of reliability and validity to ensure that they yield consistent results and measure what they purport to measure. In fact, NCLB specifies that assessments must be valid, reliable, and consistent with technical standards (www.nochildleftbehind.gov). To date, the Texas Education Agency (TEA) has published no information whatsoever about the psychometric properties of the statewide test, the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS). Making educational decisions based on the results of a test that has no published psychometric data fails to adhere to the Standards for Education and Psychological Testing (American Educational Research Association et al.). Therefore, it is possible that a child could be retained based on the results of a test that may be invalid and perhaps unreliable as well. Given the lack of information provided by TEA, one can only hope that the TAKS has sound psychometric properties. However, until such information is available, consumers (e.g., parents, teachers, administrators, and the public) should be aware that the reliability and validity of the TAKS remain an open question. Although California and New York have released psychometric data for their statewide assessment instruments, these states are afflicted with other assessment-related concerns addressed below.

Standard Setting

California, New York, and Texas utilize the bookmark method for determining cutoff scores on statewide assessment tests. The bookmark method is a systematic approach to determining the point at which a student has answered a sufficient number of questions to achieve a minimal standard (Buckendahl, Smith, Impara, & Plake, 2002). Although widely used, the bookmark method is one of many standard-setting techniques that lack validity. More than 2 decades ago, Glass (1978) published a stern critique of standard setting on criterion-referenced tests that is worth revisiting in this new age of accountability. Assessing the methods used to set standards and the theoretical assumptions underlying such methods, Glass concluded that “setting performance standards on tests and exercises by known methods is a waste of time or worse” (p. 259). One of the faulty assumptions underlying the process is the notion that mastery or competence can be defined by a single point or cutoff.

Alternatively, competence should be conceptualized as a continuum that ranges from extreme incompetence to maximum competence. Rather than viewing mastery as a dichotomous concept, Glass (1978) advocates a dimensional construct. The logical extension of this view is moving from a cut score to measures of change or progress. Although this method is already in place for special education students in Texas taking the State Developed Alternative Assessment (SDAA) (http://www.tea.state.tx.us/) instead of the TAKS, measures of change in the positive direction could be applied to the entire population as a means of assessing progress, the impact of instruction, and accountability. Rather than retaining a child based on a failed test score, educators could measure the
progress that a child makes in each content area by comparing 1 year’s test performance in each subject to the next year’s scores.

Second Language Learners

Although children who have recently immigrated to the United States are initially exempt from TAKS testing, the push to assess these children reflects a fundamental misunderstanding of language development and inappropriate expectations for second language learners. For example, the work of Cummins (as cited in Paredes Scribner, 2002) demonstrated that children learning English acquire basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) over a 2-year period, with variations across age groups. A child’s overt ability to communicate in routine, context-specific situations often gives the false impression that fluency has been acquired. However, second language learners who communicate at the BICS level have yet to acquire the prerequisite language skills needed for performance on tests of academic achievement.

Cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) requires the ability to use language that is abstract, devoid of context, and spontaneous. Development of CALP takes significantly more time than BICS, as long as 5 to 7 years under optimal conditions (as cited in Paredes Scribner, 2002). Yet, Texas requires second language learners to take the TAKS in English after 3 years of American schooling. Under such conditions, both school and student failure are all but guaranteed. For example, only 58% of Limited English Proficient students passed the 2003 TAKS Grade 3 Reading. Were those students held to the Panel Recommendation cut-off score that will be imposed in 2 years, only 33% of them would have passed. Given more time to acquire English as a second language, we can assume that a significantly higher percentage would have passed the TAKS. California provides accommodations (e.g., using a bilingual dictionary, having extra time, and having their teachers translate the test directions) to English learners who have been in California public schools for less than 12 months (http://star.cde.ca.gov). Although these accommodations are consistent with those offered by ESL teachers, they fail short of addressing the underlying problem of measuring children of Limited English Proficiency against the standards developed for proficient English speakers.

Where Will the Children Go?

One of the consequences of high stakes testing as a means of measuring the success of schools is the migration of students from unsuccessful schools. NCLB provides parents the option of transferring their children from failing schools to better ones. When schools fail to make Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP), parents should be granted transfers to schools of their choice. Alternatively, schools that fail to make AYP can provide supplemental services such as tutoring, small-group instruction in areas that require remediation, etc.

This provision of NCLB has proven to be highly effective, and one of the consequences of high stakes testing is the migration of students from unsuccessful schools.

problematic. The New York Times reported last year that 8,000 students in New York City transferred under the NCLB provision this year (City's Schools, 2003). This mass migration resulted in flooding schools that were already overcrowded. New York City honored all 8,000 requests, but school officials noted that approximately 300,000 children were eligible for transfer requests. The New York Times also reported that in Chicago, 19,000 students requested transfers, yet only 1,100 were able to receive them. As schools face increasingly serious budgetary crises, one wonders how supplemental services will be funded for low performing schools and what additional funds will be provided to the good schools that will now face an increasing drain on their resources.

Many questions regarding the ultimate impact of NCLB policies remain unanswered. Of particular concern are the potential ways in which NCLB might differentially affect empowered and disempowered families. For example, are those children fleeing the failing schools doing so because their parents are committed to educational success, advocate for their children's needs, and are aware of their children's rights? What will happen to the failing schools? Will they be emptied of such children and if so, who will be left behind and what will become of them?

Another consequence of test failure is retention. In Texas, many children who do not pass the TAKS reading test at the 3rd grade level after the third try, followed by assistance over the summer before the third administration, are retained. A grade placement committee can overrule the decision after considering additional assessment data, but the practical effect of this safeguard has yet to be seen. Minority and special education students who are retained may be at a significantly higher risk for dropout (Ysseldyke, 2002). Based on the most current TAKS data, these students have little chance of success as standards for passing increase in the years to come. For example, 58% of African American 3rd grade students passed the reading portion of the TAKS in the Spring of 2003, but only 36% of African American students would have passed if the State Board of Education's recommended cutoff score were in place (effective in 2005). These figures are similar for Hispanic, economically disadvantaged, and bilingual students. Given the projected failure rates, school administrators are likely to be faced with the prospect of large numbers of retained third graders, and they may anticipate higher dropout rates in the future.

Who is Accountable?

Federal NCLB legislation requires that schools make Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) and allows each state to set its own standards for AYP. Texas has established standards that are initially very low, but they gradually increase to a 100% pass rate requirement on the TAKS by the year 2014. For the current year, Texas schools that have a passing rate of 46.8% on the 3rd grade reading TAKS are considered to be making AYP. Although this standard will increase over time, the implications for the current standard is that children are faced with a test that for many is difficult to pass, yet schools are held to very low standards for success. This, in effect, is a case of blaming the victim. Students face the consequence of retention when they fail, whereas schools are regarded as adequate when fewer than 50% of their students pass.

Similarly, California's compliance with NCLB will require the phase-in of tougher standards over time so that all students must perform at or above the proficient level by the year 2014. Current California standards are set at a very low level. For example, Phase I of the state's AYP requirements for 2003 stated that at least 12% of students (statewide and subgroups) must perform at the proficient level or better for English-Language Arts (http://ayp.cde.ca.gov/). Although AYP was achieved, the data from 2003 suggest that this will become increasingly difficult to accomplish as expectations rise. At the third grade level in 2003, the percentage of students who scored below the proficient level in English Language Arts was 78% for economically disadvantaged students, 78% for African American students, and 81% for Hispanic or Latino students. These numbers stress the importance of shifting the emphasis from measurement to intervention. They also stress the need to implement education policy that meets the needs of all children not only in name, but in practice.

Closing the Achievement Gap

Why does the need for education policy that promises to serve all children resonate so clearly today? America's schools are unequal, and the quality of our children's education varies considerably. The economic gap between the haves and have-nots should not exist in the classroom, and NCLB aims to eliminate that gap. Based on the premise that "demographics are not destiny," NCLB argues that we should not be able to predict academic achievement based on ethnic/racial status, income, etc. This is a worthy goal, yet questions remain regarding NCLB's ability to eliminate that
Which Children Will Be Left Behind?

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 94

gap, given the widespread challenges of inadequate funding, inappropriate assessment methods, and drastic consequences for failure. The adage, “One cannot fatten a cow by weighing it” underscores concerns that the emphasis on assessment does little to improve the education of American children. Therefore, the following recommendations are provided:

1. Reallocate resources. Education dollars should be spent on early intervention (pre-K), particularly for those populations who have historically performed poorly (e.g., minorities, low SES) so that their chances of doing well in school from the outset are enhanced (Abbott-Shim, Lambert, & McCarty, 2003).

2. Replace cut-off standards with measures of change or progress. Schools can and should be held accountable if students are not making adequate progress, but measurement of learning and instructional progress will be much more relevant and helpful.

3. Recognize second language learner needs. The current system reflects an ignorance of second language development. Children who are learning English should not be expected to have CALP skills until they have had sufficient time to develop English proficiency. We should deemphasize assessment of second language learners and develop empirically proven programs that promote acquisition of English skills.

4. Address failure with realistic remediation. For those students who do not make progress, provide research-based remedial programs. Rather than blaming the victims, remedial programs will help students make progress. Such programs must be available to all students who need them and must be adequately funded.

5. At this time NCLB remains an under-funded mandate. There is not enough money to accommodate all the children who would wish to transfer from under performing schools or to provide support for those who remain. The practical result is that very large numbers of children will be stranded with few if any viable alternatives. Unless this program is fully funded, countless children will be left behind due to a cynical rationing system that blames victims and uses inadequate psychometric evaluation as its rationale.

6. As psychologists, we are well aware that professional recommendations should be based upon multiple and independent sources of data. At this time, parents are being given recommendations based upon a single source of dubious merit. All school psychologists involved in the process are urged to accurately inform parents, who have choices regarding grade placement of their children, regarding the potential limitations of these test findings as a matter of informed consent.

7. In a similar vein, the recommendation above applies equally to parents of children who pass. These parents may reasonably assume that if their child passes the statewide assessment and receives good grades, he or she can be expected to go to college. Such a conclusion would be highly misleading in the absence of additional sources of data such as national achievement testing. School psychologists should counsel parents regarding the need for additional sources of data in their decision-making.

References


California Department of Education. Available at http://ayp.cde.ca.gov/


Texas Education Agency. Available at www.tea.state.tx.us

The American Academy of School Psychology (AASP) is committed to the development and maintenance of school psychology practice at the highest level. Fellows of the AASP are all holders of the Diplomate in School Psychology that is awarded by the American Board of Professional Psychology (ABPP). The AASP represents a group of broadly trained and experienced school psychologists who are dedicated to the application of the science and profession of psychology to issues related to the protection and promotion of children and youth. One aspect of school psychology practice is the provision of comprehensive psychological and psychoeducational evaluations for students with suspected exceptional educational needs.

The AASP is concerned with certain language in H.B. 1350 and S.B. 1248 that appears to allow an alternative “response-to-intervention” model for determining whether a child has a specific learning disability (LD). The language suggests that a local educational agency may use a process that determines if the child responds to scientific, research-based intervention. Fellows of the AASP caution that this alternative should not be interpreted by federal regulators, state guidance document writers, and/or local practitioners to mean that a comprehensive evaluation need not be conducted for any student suspected of having a specific learning disability.

AASP Survey

Recently, AASP Fellows were surveyed about the proposed IDEA changes for the evaluation of individuals with suspected learning disabilities. Five statements were posited to ascertain levels of agreement or disagreement about whether the new IDEA law should contain a standard procedure for diagnosing LD; whether the response-to-intervention model should be used as a sole criterion to diagnose LD; whether practitioners should include other alternatives to diagnosing LD; and whether the new law should require comprehensive evaluations in suspected LD cases. Survey items were scaled on a 4-point Likert scale (1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = disagree, 4 = strongly disagree). There was a 51% response rate. Results of the survey are found in Table 1. Responses to two of the questions are particularly noteworthy: Fellows of the AASP strongly agreed that any proposed criteria for diagnosing LD should require a comprehensive evaluation of the child. Further, the AASP Fellows contended that using a response-to-intervention model as a sole criterion for diagnosing LD would not be an improvement in practice.

Need for Comprehensive Evaluation

As professional psychologists, AASP Fellows believe that a comprehensive evaluation, which includes psychometrically sound, norm-referenced measures of cognitive ability and academic achievement, is an important part of an LD diagnosis. A comprehensive evaluation includes objective, valid, and reliable measures of both ability and disability to provide documentation of any limitations in cognitive processing that may be required for legal protections and/or the provision of special services or accommodations.

A comprehensive evaluation includes multiple sources of information, including standardized, norm-referenced tests; interviews; observations;

### Table 1

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
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<th>SD</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The new law needs to contain a standard procedure and criteria for diagnosing LD</td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>1.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Using the response-to-intervention model as a sole criterion to diagnose LD would be an improvement in practice.</td>
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<td>.8</td>
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<td>3. The new law should retain the alternative response-to-intervention criteria but include other alternatives for diagnosing LD.</td>
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<td>1.0</td>
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<td>4. The new law should not contain the response-to-intervention criteria, and instead define different procedures for diagnosing LD.</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>1.1</td>
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<td>5. The proposed criteria for diagnosing LD should require a “comprehensive evaluation” of the child.</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>.4</td>
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Key: 1 = strongly agree; 2 = agree; 3 = disagree; 4 = strongly disagree.
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American Academy of School Psychology
Statement on Comprehensive Evaluation for Learning Disabilities

curriculum-based assessments; and informed clinical judgment. A student's response to scientific, research-based interventions can be a part of a comprehensive evaluation, but a response-to-intervention process should not be viewed as a sole criterion for diagnosing LD. The core procedure of a comprehensive evaluation of LD is an objective, norm-referenced assessment of the presence and severity of any strengths and weaknesses among the cognitive processes related to learning in the academic area. These cognitive processes include (but are not limited to): knowledge, storage and retrieval, phonological awareness, reasoning, working memory, executive functioning, and processing speed.

Final Regulations, Guidelines, and Procedures Can Be Influenced

Although the requirement for a comprehensive evaluation is clearly outlined in both the House and Senate bills, AASP Fellows are concerned that the need for a comprehensive assessment may be eclipsed by any forthcoming procedural guidance suggesting a response-to-intervention model as an alternative. We believe that a sole reliance on the response-to-intervention model will hinder the effective application of a comprehensive, scientifically sound approach to identifying individuals with disabilities.

The final federal regulations, state guidelines, and school district procedures will have the greatest impact on the identification, assessment, eligibility, and provision of services for students with LD. School psychologists should act to influence these regulations, guidelines, and procedures with a strong statement reinforcing the necessity for a comprehensive evaluation for LD. Fellows of the AASP believe that it is important that the need for a comprehensive evaluation not be diminished in any attempt to redesign the process for determining LD eligibility. We urge school psychologists to become active at the federal, state, and district policy-making level to influence the forthcoming regulations, guidelines, and provisions for services for students with LD.

February 21, 2004

American Academy of School Psychology Ad Hoc Committee on Comprehensive Evaluation for Learning Disabilities - Fredrick A. Schrank, PhD, ABPP, Olympia, WA; Irna L. Wolf, PhD, ABPP Scottsdale, AZ; Rosemary Flanagan, PhD, ABPP, Rockville Centre, NY; Cecil R. Reynolds, PhD, ABPN, ABPP, College Station, TX; Linda C. Caterino, Ph.D, ABPP, Phoenix, AZ; Irwin A. Hyman, EdD, ABPP, Philadelphia, PA; Jeffrey A. Miller, PhD, ABPP, Pittsburgh, PA; Mark E. Swerdlik, PhD, NCSP, ABPP, Normal, IL; Ronald A. Davis, PhD, ABPP, Phoenix, AZ

Note. This statement does not represent an official position of Division 16.
Prescription Privileges Law for Psychologists Passes in Louisiana

APA Practice Directorate Staff

On May 6, 2004, Louisiana became the second state in the country to gain a law authorizing properly trained psychologists to prescribe certain medications for the treatment of mental health disorders when Governor Kathleen Blanco signed into law HB 1426. The President of the Louisiana Senate Donald Hines, MD, a family physician, and the Speaker of the House Joe Salter introduced this bill in their respective chambers.

The new legislation requires the psychologist, termed by the law as a “medical psychologist,” to work collaboratively with the patient’s physician when prescribing medication and limits the prescriptive authority to medications for nervous and mental health disorders only. The title “medical psychologist” is a term specifically used in the Louisiana law and refers to psychologists who have completed a post-doctoral master’s degree in clinical psychopharmacology; have passed a national examination in psychopharmacology approved by the Louisiana State Board of Examiners of Psychologists and hold a current certificate of responsibility from the board.

In signing the bill, Gov. Blanco issued a statement noting several reasons for her decision to approve it. She flagged the shortage of mental health care providers in the state and said she hoped HB 1426 encourages psychologists to extend care to underserved populations. The governor remarked that many physicians currently work in consultation with ‘medical psychologists’ and “(these physicians) tell me they are comfortable prescribing in consultation with medical psychologists.” Governor Blanco also noted the bill’s “very tight controls” and indicated that she had promises from the bill’s sponsors that they would move quickly on legislation needed to address any unintended problems resulting from the law.

“We’re very pleased with the outcome that psychology achieved in Louisiana,” said APA Executive Director for Professional Practice Russ Newman, PhD, JD, who noted that the bill also had strong backing from the large consumer group, Louisiana Families for Access to Comprehensive Treatment. In addition to improving access to care, authorizing appropriately trained psychologists to prescribe also has implications for reducing health care costs. “We know from experience and research findings,” says Newman, “that the ability of a single professional to provide combined treatments can provide quality care at a reduced cost when compared with the provision of psychotherapy and medication by separate professionals.”

The Louisiana law builds on the March 2002 victory in New Mexico when then-Governor Gary Johnson signed a bill granting prescriptive authority to psychologists who meet certain educational and training requirements. Recent years have witnessed increasing state-level support and activity related to prescriptive authority legislation for psychologists. In 1996, legislation was introduced in three states. By 2003, the number tripled to nine states. Six state legislatures held committee hearings on prescriptive authority bills for psychologists in 2003, the largest number thus far in one year. Meanwhile, thirty-two (32) state psychological associations have established task forces to pursue prescriptive authority - 20 more states than in 1996. To date, a total of 19 states and territories have introduced prescription privileges legislation.

Some proponents observe such progress in the context of professional psychology’s development. “Prescriptive authority for psychologists is an important evolution in the growth of our profession,” said Newman. For questions regarding prescription privileges and psychology, please contact Rochelle Jennings in the APA Practice Directorate at (202) 336-5886 or rjennings@apa.org.
Assessing Culturally Diverse Potentially Gifted Students with Nonverbal Measures of Intelligence

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Abstract
Students from culturally diverse, lower socioeconomic backgrounds were assessed using three nonverbal measures of intelligence. The sample was composed of elementary students in grades 2 through 6. The scores on the Culture-Fair Intelligence Test, the Naglieri Nonverbal Abilities Test, and the Raven Standard Progressive Matrices were analyzed for their usefulness in assessing for potential giftedness. Results of the assessments are discussed.

Introduction
Recent research has shown the continued need for increased efforts toward identifying and serving gifted students from culturally diverse and disadvantaged group (Davis and Rimm, 1989; Ford, 1994; Frasier, 1987). Students “with outstanding ability from these backgrounds” have been largely overlooked (Gallagher & Gallagher, 1994, p. 409); educational efforts have focused on culturally diverse students with learning difficulties, rather than on directing attention and services to identifying culturally diverse and underrepresented gifted students.

To increase the representation of culturally diverse students in gifted programs, nonverbal tests of intelligence have been recommended for screening potentially gifted children from these groups (Baska, 1986; Mills, Ablard, & Brody, 1993; Matthews, 1988). These assessments offer “culturally reduced” measures, or tests that are less dependent on “specific language symbols” (Johnsen & Corn, 2001, p. 13). Research indicates that various groups, such as the culturally diverse, have non-traditional approaches toward problem solving and that if these strategies for problem solving differ from those of the dominant population, then intelligence test results for culturally different groups may be lower, especially if questions are designed to measure the style of the dominant group (Gallagher & Gallagher, 1994).

Other factors contribute to the recommended use of nonverbal assessments with culturally diverse students. These tests have been suggested due the purported lack of cultural bias in identifying potentially gifted students by intelligence (Gagne, 1985; Gardner, 1993). Some features of these nonverbal tests may also increase the test performance of culturally diverse groups, such as the incorporation of preliminary practice items, use of novel problems to avoid recall of previously mastered information, use of abstract content rather than reading passages, untimed testing conditions, and use of test items that require problem solving or reasoning rather than factual knowledge (Johnsen & Corn, 2001).

In an effort to increase the identification of culturally diverse, potentially gifted students, Stephens, Kiger, Karnes, and Whorton (1999) administered the Culture-Fair Intelligence Test (CFIT; Cattell & Cattell, 1965), Standard Progressive Matrices (SPM; Raven, Court, & Raven, 1996), and the Naglieri Nonverbal Abilities Test (NNAT; Naglieri, 1996) to intact classes of 189 African American (91%) and Caucasian (8%) rural elementary school students in grades 3 through 8, all of whom received free or reduced lunches. Results of this study indicated that the SPM identified the most students scoring at the 80th percentile or higher (n = 15). Ten students were identified at the 90th percentile on the SPM, rendering it the instrument that identified the most students in this study. A total of 39 scores on the three tests were at the 80th percentile or higher; these scores were...
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from 26 students.
Lewis (2001) reported a replication of the Stephens et al. (1999) study. Two-hundred seventy grade 3-8 students representing Hispanic (99 students), Caucasian (160 students), and Other (11 students), none of whom had been identified previously for gifted programming, were administered the SPM, CFIT, and NNAT (Lewis & Michelson Grippin, 2000). Of the 89 students scoring at or above the 80th percentile, the majority were identified on either the SPM (66%) or the CFIT (66%). Of these 89 students, 25.8% were Hispanic (n = 23) and 68.5% were Caucasian (n = 61). Lewis and Michelson Grippin (2000) found that the CFIT identified more Hispanic students than the SPM or NNAT, but the SPM identified more Caucasian students.

The purpose of the current study was to identify potentially gifted students using three nonverbal measures of intelligence with culturally diverse, economically disadvantaged students. This study adds to the research base by showing how screening intact classes of culturally diverse students using nonverbal measures of intelligence is a useful method of identifying students for gifted programming.

Method
Participants included all students enrolled in grades 2 through 6 in a suburban elementary school (N = 218). The school, located in a southern state, had a culturally diverse, somewhat transient population, including African-American (46%), Asian-American (primarily Vietnamese) (34%), Caucasian (18%), and Hispanic (1.6%) students. Ninety-eight percent of students received free or reduced lunches. Of the 218 students assessed, three Vietnamese students had been identified for gifted programming prior to this study; no other students had been identified for gifted services. Two-hundred eighteen students were included, however, because of absences, complete data for all students are not available.

Researchers administered the SPM (Raven et al., 1996), CFIT (Cattell & Cattell, 1965), and NNAT (Naglieri, 1996) to intact classes. The SPM is designed for students ages 6 through adult and consists of 60 questions divided into five Sets (A, B, C, D, and E), each containing 12 items that become progressively more difficult. The SPM is an untimed nonverbal assessment that measures higher-level thinking skills. Administration of the SPM takes approximately 20 to 45 minutes. Internal consistency investigations report split-half reliability estimates or KR 20 estimates ranging from .6 to .98, with a median estimate of .90 (Raven & Summers, 1986; Robinson et al., 1990). For the purpose of this investigation, raw scores were converted to z-scores.

Developed to measure fluid intelligence, the CFIT (Cattell & Cattell, 1965) is purportedly influenced by biological factors rather than crystallized intelligence, which is developed through cultural factors (Nenty, 1986). Research on the CFIT, which may be administered to groups or individuals, (Kidd, 1962) indicates that the CFIT is independent of cultural bias (Nenty, 1986). Two levels are available: Scale 1 (ages 4 through 8; eight subtests),
which measures general mental capacity for g, and Scale 2 (ages 8 through 13; four subtests. Both include perceptual tasks. Administration times vary from 12.5 minutes (Scale 2) to 22 minutes (Scale 1). Standardized on over 4,000 boys and girls from various U.S. regions, both CFIT scales have been validated for construct, concurrent, and predictive validity. Consistency reliability, based on split-half and internal consistency formulas, is .91 for Scale 1, and .87 for Scale 2.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CFIT</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>60.00</td>
<td>156.00</td>
<td>108.53</td>
<td>17.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NNAT</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>50.00</td>
<td>135.00</td>
<td>93.91</td>
<td>16.23</td>
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</table>

All tests were administered to intact classes of students by grade level in their regular classroom. Tests were administered over a 2-week period by trained administrators. No student was administered more than one test per day, and students who missed assessments due to absences were given the opportunity to make-up the missed assessment. Because group assessments had been previously established as standard procedure for nominating students for gifted programs, no parental consent was obtained at this stage.

Results and Discussion

Descriptive statistics for the CFIT, the SPM, and NNAT are reported in Table 1. Although the total number of students tested on at least one measure was 218, fewer than 218 students are listed in Table 1 due to absences for some tests. To identify a pool of high-scoring students, the scores were categorized into 5-point ranges beginning at the 80th percentile (see Table 2). One-hundred nine students scored above the 80th percentile on at least one measure. As seen in this table, the SPM and CFIT identified a larger number of students than did the NNAT. These findings are similar to those found in Stephens et al. (1999), but they are somewhat different than findings from the work of Lewis (2001), whose study of Hispanic and Caucasian students found more Hispanic students scoring in this range on the CFIT, but more Caucasian children scoring at or above the 80th percentile on the SPM.

Analyses of the results of nonverbal assessments of students from lower socioeconomic backgrounds can yield helpful information for psychometrists, school psychologists, teachers of the gifted, and potentially gifted students seeking to identify a pool of students for further assessment for gifted programs. In the state in which these tests were administered, students identified for gifted services must have a score of 120 or higher on an individually-administered intelligence test. Screening through the use of nonverbal measures assists in identifying students who may then be considered for additional referral measures. Additional research using nonverbal measures with intact classes of students is recommended, because time for administration of the measures is more efficiently used than if each student was individually assessed on all three measures. Although this investigation revealed that this population of students might be best identified for gifted programs through the use of the CFIT and SPM, these findings may not be generalizable or applicable to other groups of students of different ethnic backgrounds, SES, or locales.

Individual nonverbal assessments, such as the Leiter-R (Roid & Miller, 1997) or the Universal Nonverbal Intelligence Test (UNIT) (Bracken & McCallum, 1997) are also recommended following a...
screening process that utilizes nonverbal group measures. However, as some districts may have differing screening and identification procedures, this sequence of group to individual nonverbal assessments must also be considered within the contexts of school district guidelines for identification of students for gifted programs. Other district policies and state regulations, such as minimum grade point averages, achievement test scores, and teacher checklists of gifted behavior, may serve to limit the inclusion of students identified on both group and individual nonverbal assessments. These criteria may serve as gatekeepers to students who do not perform well in school settings. Nonverbal measures of intelligence may provide these underrepresented and under identified students the opportunity to be recognized for such programs.

The limitations of this study are the ethnicity and socioeconomics of this population, as the findings for the present study may not be generalizable to all groups of students. Other populations with different cultural backgrounds and socioeconomics may perform differently on the group assessments utilized in this study.

Future research efforts may involve screening students in schools with similar ethnic and socioeconomic representation using the three group nonverbal measures in this study. Furthermore, it is recommended that additional research be undertaken to examine the correlation between group assessments using the CFIT (Cattell & Cattell, 1965), SPM (Raven et al., 1996), and the NNAT (Naglieri, 1996), and the individual nonverbal assessments using both the UNIT (Bracken & McCallum, 1997) and Leiter-R (Roid & Miller, 1997). Continued research is needed to determine new approaches to identifying culturally diverse and economically challenged students from gifted programs.

References
Johnson, S. K., & Corn, A. L. (2001). Screening Assessment for Gifted Elementary and Middle School Students (2nd ed.). Austin, TX: PRO-ED.
Exposure to violence in the family and/or community can have detrimental effects on children, especially young children. What children observe during this early period of life shapes how they react in other situations or conflicts. When children observe violence, they are more likely to respond to others aggressively. Therefore, early violence prevention programs targeting the role models in children’s lives (e.g., parents, caregivers, and teachers) make sense. This article presents a summary of recent research regarding violence exposure and child development outcomes, reviews violence prevention programs directed toward young children, and suggestions for school psychologists regarding violence prevention programs.

Guerra, Huesmann, and Spindler (2003) looked at the effects of witnessing community violence on aggressive cognitions and behavior in a sample of over 4,000 children living in urban neighborhoods. Their longitudinal study examined children’s aggressive cognitions and consequent aggressive behavior. These researchers found that children’s aggressive behavior tends to be consistent across grades and years. Children’s aggressive fantasies and normative beliefs about aggression tend to be relatively constant, with a tendency toward increasing with age. These findings point to the importance of focusing preventive interventions prior to or during the elementary school years, thereby targeting children’s emerging cognitive structures.

Others, such as Levendosky, Huths-Bocks, Shapiro, and Semel (2003), have looked at the impact of domestic violence on preschoolers’ functioning. Levendosky et al. (2003) found that domestic violence is directly related to maternal parenting effectiveness and child–mother attachment. These findings suggest that early relationship difficulties may be indicative of further problems as children develop. Their study suggests that the negative impact of exposure to violence begins early; further, interventions that build on the relationship between children and their mothers, as well as other nonviolent individuals in their lives, set a positive foundation for later development.

Kittmann, Gaylord, Holt, and Kenny (2003) also explored the psychosocial outcomes of children exposed to domestic violence. Their meta-analysis of 118 studies revealed that children exposed to interparental violence exhibit negative affect and cognitions in response to hypothetical or simulated conflict. These children are also likely to report that they would intervene or show aggression in response to conflict. The researchers concluded that programs are needed to teach parents and those working with young children how to model adaptive social problem-solving skills to help children deal with anger and resolve conflicts in a positive manner.

In conjunction with the Kittmann et al. (2003) study, research by Edelson (1999) provided evidence regarding specific child development outcomes related to children’s witnessing of adult domestic violence. Edelson (1999), using the Child Behavior Checklist, discovered that these children exhibit aggressive and antisocial behavior as well as fearful and inhibited behaviors. Indeed, children who witness such violence show more anxiety, depression, trauma symptoms, and temperament problems compared to those who do not have such experiences.

In sum, there is a wealth of research showing that young children’s exposure to violence has a significant, harmful impact and contributes to the learning of aggression. Berkowitz (2003) highlights the point that exposure to violence can have devastating effects on children’s developmental outcomes and is associated with profound functional, psychological, and psychiatric disorders. Due to these outcomes, Berkowitz stresses the need for the development of early intervention strategies. In fact, Berkowitz (2003) found that there are very few early childhood violence prevention programs that utilize a developmental framework. Further, early intervention programs need to include parents, because they may be the most salient individuals for preventing poor outcomes for children.

In addition, Berkowitz wrote that early intervention programs need to supply parents with developmentally-framed psychoeducational information regarding children’s response to trauma.
and stress; parents not only need strategies for helping children cope, but also techniques for improving parenting skills. Osofsky (1995) also stressed the need for parent and teacher education regarding the negative effects of violence exposure on children. She recommended that parents and professional early childhood staff be apprised of various forms of violence exposure and ways to address the negative child development outcomes. Finally, she stressed the importance of parents and teachers learning conflict resolution strategies and modeling the use of alternative problem solving approaches when parenting or teaching young children.

There are a number of recently developed programs which target violence prevention and those who parent or teach young children. Some of those include the following:

1. The Adults and Children Together (ACT) Against Violence Training Program was developed in collaboration with the American Psychological Association (APA) and the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAECY) (DaSilva, Stern, & Anderson, 2000). The ACT Training program focuses on the adults in young children’s (i.e., birth through age 8) lives to help them learn positive ways to serve as role models and assist children in dealing with anger and resolving conflicts. This program disseminates research-based knowledge in four areas (i.e., anger management, discipline, social problem solving skills, and media violence) to parents and others who work with families with young children. A review of the violence prevention literature reveals that few programs exist aimed at providing adults in young children’s lives with information on the negative effects of violence exposure in conjunction with methods of prevention.

2. Childreach was created in 1995 (Goodwin, Pacey, & Grace, 2003) at the request of the early childhood education community in Cincinnati. The impetus was the observed increase in young children exhibiting severe, aggressive behavior. Childreach is an early identification, short-term intervention program for children under the age of six and is designed to address aggression as well as other behavioral issues. The service delivery model begins with a referral from the child care center director or parent and moves through a series of steps designed to shape services around children’s needs. This program includes consultation to staff and parents, intervention for a specific child and family, staff training, parent training, and referral liaison services. Since beginning in 1995, Childreach has served over 500 children; a pre-test/post-test shows that children’s behavior tends to improve in all areas with the exception of dependence. Further, preschool teachers and child care staff report high levels of satisfaction with the Childreach program. Overall, the data presented demonstrates that Childreach is an effective secondary prevention program for decreasing aggressive behavior in preschoolers.

3. The Incredible Years is a research-based curriculum for reducing young children’s aggression and behavior problems and increasing their social and emotional competence at home and at school (Taylor, Schmidt, Pepler, & Hodgins, 1998). There are separate programs for parents, teachers, childcare providers, and for children ages three through eight. In the parent training component, there is an emphasis on nonviolent discipline strategies and teaching children problem solving skills, anger management and social skills. For teachers, there is training on the importance of praise, help in decreasing inappropriate behavior in the classroom and strategies to promote children’s social and emotional competence in school. For children, there is training in areas such as empathy, learning rules, problem solving, anger management, making friends, and success in school. In randomized studies, The Incredible Years’ parent, teacher, and child programs are effective in reducing aggressive behaviors in children, with reductions sustained in 2- and 3-year follow-ups.

4. The RETHINK Parenting and Anger Management program is a research-based, preventive educational program for parent educators and other professionals. The RETHINK Program provides materials for teaching parents how to manage their anger and teach anger management to their children. Fetsch, Schultz, and Wahler (1999) evaluated the RETHINK program with 75 parents using a one-group pre-test/post-test design. These parent participants received a 6-week series of skill-enhancing work. The preliminary evaluation finds that RETHINK reduces family conflict, domestic physical and verbal aggression, and results in positive changes in parenting and anger management skills. The ACT Training Program, Childreach, The Incredible Years, and the RETHINK Parenting and
Anger Management program all direct efforts at adults parenting, caregiving, and/or teaching young children. Each has potential to make a difference in terms of violence prevention. Targeting the adults in young children’s lives is critical. Straus and Field (2003) found, in a nationally representative sample of 991 parents, that 90% of parents of 2 year olds report using one or more forms of psychological aggression during the previous 12 months, and 98% report this use by the time the child is 5. From the ages of 6 to 17, the rates of aggression continue in the 90% range. The rates of psychological aggression are lower, with 10-20% for toddlers and 50% for teenagers. Straus and Field (2003), as well as many other researchers, noted that psychological aggression is associated with high rates of delinquency and psychological problems in children. Indeed, Gershoff (2002) found that when parents use physical discipline, parents are communicating to their child that aggression is normative, acceptable, and effective. When children see aggression modeled, they learn that aggression is a successful way to get others to behave and will likely imitate that aggression in different social situations.

Children do not need direct exposure to aggression and violence to learn aggressive behavior. Huesmann, Moise-Titus, Podolski, and Eron (2003) followed up children who were involved in the 1977 longitudinal study of 557 children. Their study sought to investigate the long-term relationship between viewing media violence in childhood and young adult aggressive behavior. These researchers concluded that males and females are at an increased risk for developing aggressive and violent behavior when exposed to high levels of media violence in early childhood. Anderson, Berkowitz, Donnerstein, Huesmann, J. Johnson, and Linz (2003) concurred regarding the long-term consequences of exposure to media violence. Indeed, they believe that media violence produces long-term effects, including, for instance, the acquisition of lasting aggressive scripts and aggression supporting beliefs about social behavior.

School psychologists can be key individuals in violence prevention efforts. With their system-wide perspective, ties to the education community, and liaisons with parents, school psychologists are in positions to develop, deliver, and implement violence prevention activities. The concerns about Columbine and other school tragedies only underscore the need for comprehensive violence prevention efforts. Indeed, one of the most effective approaches is targeting those parenting or teaching young children. Young children do indeed learn what they are exposed to. School psychologists are in the position of providing programs to parents and early childhood educators informing them of the significance of their actions and behavior regarding early violence prevention.

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References
Abstract

In recent years there has been much discussion about the perceived shortage of qualified individuals to fill available school psychology academic positions. The purpose of this article is to discuss, based on both the personal experiences of the authors and their colleagues as well as the professional literature, recommendations for both applicants interviewing for faculty positions and members of college or university search committees seeking to hire them. It is hoped that these recommendations will be helpful to both constituencies, and in particular that these suggestions will benefit those individuals seeking employment in academic settings.

In recent years there has been much discussion about the perceived shortage of qualified individuals to fill available faculty positions in school psychology (e.g., Davis, McIntosh, Phelps, & Kehle, 2004; Little & Akin-Little, 2004). Many reasons for the shortage of academic school psychologists have been cited, including faculty member retirements, creation of new faculty positions, the awarding of fewer doctoral degrees in psychology in general, and because there are considerably fewer graduates of doctoral programs in school psychology than other areas of applied psychology such as clinical, counseling, and industrial/organizational psychology (Demaray, Carlson, & Hodgson, 2003; Little & Akin-Little, 2004). During the 1999-2000 academic year, for example, Tingstrom (2000) identified at least 54 openings in school psychology graduate programs in the U.S. Moreover, results from a national survey of school psychology program directors revealed that 55 programs out of a sample of 126 (43.6%) reported having at least one job opening during the previous 2 years (Demaray et al., 2003). Given that a substantial number of school psychology faculty members in the U.S. are expected to retire in the near future (Reschly, 2000), the number of available faculty positions in school psychology is likely to continue to be substantial for the next several years.

Recent graduates of doctoral programs in psychology, whether from school psychology programs or other psychological subfields, have a variety of publications they may review for guidance in applying and interviewing for academic positions (e.g., Darley, Zanna, & Roediger, 2004; Rheingold, 1994; Sternberg, 2004). Although extremely useful, these publications were not written specifically for aspiring academics in school psychology. Further, although many of these publications contain advice for those pursuing careers in academia, few if any provide recommendations or advice for search committees of hiring institutions (i.e., colleges and universities).

The purpose of this article is to briefly discuss recommendations for both applicants interviewing for school psychology academic positions and members of college or university search committees seeking to hire them. Although there is some information on this topic available in the professional literature, most of it currently reflects personal and collective experience rather than empirical data. As such, although we occasionally utilize and reference other sources to support our conclusions, most of our recommendations for both interviewees and search committees are based on our own experiences, that of our academic colleagues, and on advice given to us over the years by faculty members and mentors. It is our hope that the following list of recommendations will prove useful to both interviewees and search committees.

We begin with recommendations for applicants interviewing for academic positions.
Recommendations for Applicants

If you have received an invitation to interview for a faculty position, you can be confident that your credentials are deemed acceptable and that you are a legitimate candidate for the job. Your goals for the interview should be to present yourself as a good colleague with potential for excellence in teaching and independence in scholarship. The following recommendations are designed to help you through this process.

Think carefully about the kind of job you want. Some academic positions emphasize research, while others emphasize teaching. A clear understanding of the different expectations at research-oriented vs. teaching-oriented programs is critical. Prior to interviewing, you should be clear in your own mind as to how much time and effort you want to expend on each of these activities. For example, if you don't enjoy teaching or supervising students, a masters/certification program is unlikely to be a good match. Likewise, if you have little interest in writing grants or publishing refereed journal articles, a faculty position in a doctoral program at a major research university would be a poor match. Taking time to seriously consider what type of faculty position best suits your career aspirations cannot be overvalued.

Learn about the program before you interview. Each school psychology program has a different mission. It is important that you take some time to learn about the program(s) you are considering. This information should be utilized throughout the interview to illustrate your “fit” with the program, the department, and the institution. For example, it is often desirable to be viewed as an individual who will reach out across programs in collaborative pursuits. Keep in mind that frequently the entire department will vote on whom to make an offer. If the search committee believes that you are not only qualified for a position in their program and department but also that you are the type of individual who will thrive in both, you are more likely to receive an offer.

Never interview for a job if you have no intention of accepting it if offered. Do not use interviews merely as opportunities for practice. If you have no intention of taking a particular job under any circumstances, interviewing for it is unethical, a waste of both your and the search committee's time, and deprives other candidates of an opportunity to obtain a position they may dearly want.

Talk candidly with advisors, current professors, and friends to solicit their views. Both before and after interviewing, it is useful to get as many opinions as possible about faculty positions from current professors, advisors, friends, and colleagues. While you do not always need to take their words to heart, gathering information about programs and potential colleagues can provide useful insights. If possible, contact individuals who previously were faculty members at the institution(s) in which you are interviewing and ask them why...
they left. Such information can be very enlightening.

Be sincere about who you are, what you believe, and what you are willing to do. You may be tempted to try to present yourself in a way that makes you “fit” the wants and needs of the program(s) to which you are applying to a degree that is insincere. Don’t. If you do, you (and the institution) will regret it, and probably sooner rather than later. Be straightforward about who you are, what you believe, and why you believe it. If the institution you are interviewing at does not agree with or support your views, you are probably better off somewhere else.

Realize you are never off stage. During your interview visit, it is often customary for the interviewee and members of the search committee to go out for breakfast, lunch, and/or dinner. Think you’re off stage? Think again – you are being watched at all times. As such, be cognizant of proper etiquette and ensure your behavior is appropriate at all times.

Do not overestimate flattery. Members of search committees may sometimes flatter you by telling you how wonderful you are. Show your appreciation, but don’t take it too seriously. They may well be making similar or identical statements to other interviewees. It is in an institution’s best interest to keep as many candidates interested in them as possible during a faculty search; that way, in case someone turns them down they can always offer the position to someone else. That said, know how to take a compliment.

Do not underestimate the importance of the colloquium. The performance of your colloquium is critical and one of the most important determinants of whether or not an offer will be forthcoming. Members of the search committee and other faculty members will be carefully observing your colloquium to evaluate your research potential, your style and manner of presenting information, and the degree to which your presentation is clear, coherent, and well-organized. An excellent presentation does not guarantee an offer, but a poor performance seriously jeopardizes one’s chances (Iacono, 1981). If this is an area of weakness for you, practice your presentation repeatedly, especially in the presence of others who can provide you with constructive feedback. Keep in mind that the manner in which you answer questions is an important component of the colloquium. The more open minded you are to suggestions, the better you will be perceived. It is fine not to know the answer to every question, although you should, of course, be able to answer most questions. Also, clearly state the limitations to your study or shortcomings in your data. Above all, don’t get defensive.

Assume there will be technological problems during your colloquium. If your colloquium requires any kind of technology (e.g., an LCD projector, laptop computer, overhead projector, etc.), make your needs clear in advance of your arrival for the interview. Plan for problems. The authors have been amazed at how often technological difficulties appear during colloquium presentations. If you plan on using an LCD projector, always have overheads available as a back-up in case problems with the projector or computer occur. Also, consider burning your talk and vita onto a disk or store them on a memory stick. You can never be over-prepared, and having these backups ready reflects well on you.

Exhibit a friendly, collegial demeanor. It is useful to remember that one of the main criteria search committees and other members of the faculty will be looking for is the degree to which you could be someone they would like to work with and see every day. Even the most brilliant scholar or teacher will not be welcome if he/she comes across as aloof or unfriendly. Demonstrating that you have a sense of humor is always a plus, but make sure any attempts you make at humor are appropriate; an interview situation is not the time to make remarks that may be perceived as cutting or “politically incorrect”. Your goal is to ingratiate yourself with potential colleagues, not alienate them.

Ask many of the same questions to multiple individuals. The purpose of this is to observe the degree of consistency of responses across multiple individuals. If everyone is saying basically the same things in response to your questions, that is a good sign. If they are not or are contradicting each other, that is a red flag. If this occurs, point out the contradictory or inconsistent statements and ask for clarification.

Ask about the relative “weight” given to research, teaching, and service in making tenure decisions. Each institution typically awards tenure based upon one’s performance in the areas of research, teaching, and service (defined as service to the profession and service – such as serving on various committees – to the university). Service is typically third on the list, but the relative value and “weight” given to research and teaching can vary enormously depending on the institution. Ask about this and make sure responses are consistent across individuals; if they are not, acknowledge the
Interviewing for Academic Positions in School Psychology: Recommendations for Applicants and Search Committees

Inconsistent responses and ask for clarification. It is critical that you ask about the requirements for advancement (tenure) from faculty, deans, and (if possible) upper level administrators. At the time of your eventual tenure review, each of these individuals is likely to have a say in your tenure decision, and it behooves the faculty member to know what each expects.

Make sure you have the opportunity to talk, in private, with both current students and tenure-track assistant professors. Current graduate students and assistant professors are most likely to give you the “real deal” at an institution. Students can give you a sense of the climate of the program in a way that faculty cannot, and other assistant professors “are likely to give you the best idea of the expectations of the department and the reception you would receive if you accepted the job” (Iacono, 1981, p. 222).

Do not underestimate the importance of location. Remember that you will not only be working in a particular location but will be living there as well. Use internet and other sources to compare cost of living indices across locations of programs in which you are interviewing. When interviewing, do not be shy about asking people about access to recreational areas, what they do for fun, etc. If you are a parent or plan to be, you will of course want to know about the quality of public schools in the area. If it looks like you will want private schooling for your children, this cost will need to be factored in when making your decision.

Realize there is no ideal job. Each job has its own unique pros and cons, but even the best of jobs have cons associated with them. If you don’t perceive any cons at an institution in which you are interviewing, you are not looking hard enough. Ask faculty to discuss not only what they like, but also what they don’t like, about their position and the department and institution in which they are employed. If faculty members identify problems or things they dislike about the program or department, ask them how the faculty or institution is attempting to solve these problems.

Realize that rejection is inevitable and should not be taken personally. You will likely get rejected by at least some institutions and often not know the precise reason(s) why this occurred. As noted by Iacono (1981): “Rejection letters are inevitable, remarkably uninformative, and sometimes insincere” (p. 224). Additionally, although rejection is never pleasant, try not to take it personally; often the reason you will not receive an offer has less to do with your competency than with a search committee’s belief that you simply weren’t as good a match as someone else for a particular job.

Know what you want and get everything in writing. You will never have a better time to negotiate for things you want or need (e.g., summer salary; laboratory space; conference money) than when you receive an offer, so be clear in your mind as to what you want – and what you can live without. Also, ensure that you get everything that was agreed to in your negotiation in writing. You will want to do this not out of a suspicion that your hiring institution will try to swindle you, but because college and university budgets fluctuate and memories of promises made may fade over time.

Recommendations for Search Committees

Although not as extensive as the recommendations for interviewees, below we offer some recommendations for search committees. Many (if not most) search committee members do all or several of these things already. It has been our experience as well as that of our colleagues, however, that this is not always the case. As such, we offer the following pieces of advice:

Create a warm, welcoming environment for interviewees. When an individual is being interviewed for a faculty position, the subjective “feel” and “climate” of a program and department, as well as the degree to which candidates are made to feel valued and welcome, is very important. Given the high number of school psychology faculty positions currently available (Demaray et al., 2003), search committees cannot afford to “turn off” interviewees, who are well aware of the favorable job market.

Be well organized. The interview day or days is stressful enough for applicants without making it worse by poor organization on the part of the search committee. Ensure that the interviewee has adequate time to meet with people, and that time for breaks (bathroom or otherwise) are scheduled. Also, give the applicant several minutes of “free time” prior to his or her colloquium to ensure that there is sufficient time to set up all necessary equipment and materials.

Be straightforward. Although sometimes difficult, search committee members are encouraged to be as straightforward with interviewees as possible, and to ensure that their words match their actions. Suggesting that a job offer will be made, when the likelihood of that event is still in limbo, is not recommended. Similarly, search committees...
The academic job search can be a highly stressful, labor intensive, and often exhausting experience both for those being interviewed and for those doing the interviewing. Both applicants and search committees want the best match they can get for their unique wants and needs. The recommendations listed above are just some ideas we hope can be helpful to aspiring academics and to search committees. For more information on this topic, the reader is encouraged to review other books and articles cited in this article, particularly Iacono (1981), Rheingold (1994), and Darley, Zanna, & Roediger (2004).

Conclusions

The academic job search can be a highly stressful, labor intensive, and often exhausting experience both for those being interviewed and for those doing the interviewing. Both applicants and search committees want the best match they can get for their unique wants and needs. The recommendations listed above are just some ideas we hope can be helpful to aspiring academics and to search committees. For more information on this topic, the reader is encouraged to review other books and articles cited in this article, particularly Iacono (1981), Rheingold (1994), and Darley, Zanna, & Roediger (2004).

Authors’ Note

The authors would like to extend their appreciation to Chip Panahon for his helpful suggestions regarding this article.

Please e-mail all submissions for The Commentary Section to: LReddy2271@aol.com
11th Annual Institute for Psychology in the Schools: “Assessing Learning Disabilities in the Post-IDEA Reauthorization Era”

Those attending this year’s Institute, an APA pre-convention activity scheduled for the morning of Tuesday, July 27, 2004, will learn about the new focus the Federal government is taking on assessing children for learning disabilities (LD). Although it will still be a while before the formal regulations are released and their impact on the practice in school settings felt, it is clear that the process of identifying an LD student will change. Scheduled from 9 am to 1 pm at the Hilton Hawaiian Village Beach Resort and Spa, the Institute will bring together a host of nationally renown speakers who will present on the status of the reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Act (IDEA) presently on Capitol Hill and the impact these regulations will have on school psychology. In addition to the update on IDEA, the Institute presentations will focus on the role of intelligence testing and assessing learning disabilities, as well as the influences of cultural diversity with this at-risk population. The speakers for the Institute include

Drs. Randy Kamphaus (Univ. Georgia), Tom Kubiszyn (Univ. Houston), Linda Siegel (Univ. British Columbia) and Lois Yamauchi (Univ. Hawai`i). Registration fees for the Institute are $40 for APA members and $25 for SASP members. (These fees will increase to $60/$45 respectively after July 1st.) Registration includes refreshments and a box lunch, as well as 3.5 CE credits for psychologists. For information on how to register, please see the web page at: www.apa.org/practice/opas_reg.html or contact the Office of Policy and Advocacy in the Schools by email (pracschool@apa.org) or phone (800-374-2721 ext. 5858).
WEDNESDAY, JULY 28, 2004
8:00 AM - 9:50 AM
Symposium: Psychologists Consulting to School Psychologists – Enhancing Capacities and Facilitating Change
Hawaii Convention Center
Meeting Room 307B
Chair: Rona M. Novick, PhD
10:00 AM - 10:50 AM
Poster Session: Consultation, Collaboration, and the Field of School Psychology
Hawaii Convention Center
Kamehameha Exhibit Hall
11:00 AM - 11:50 AM
Invited Address:
[Stephen J. Bagnato, Ed.D.]
Hawaii Convention Center
Meeting Room 301B
12:00 PM - 1:50 PM
Symposium: Consultation Model Used to Train and Conduct Bilingual Assessment
Hawaii Convention Center
Meeting Room 304A
Chair: Bradley O. Hudson, Psy.D.
THURSDAY, JULY 29, 2004
8:00 AM - 9:50 AM
Symposium: Interventions for Comorbid Anxiety and Depression in Adolescent Girls
Hawaii Convention Center
Meeting Room 305B
Chair: Thomas J. Huberty, Ph.D.
9:00 AM - 9:50 AM
Poster Session: Measurement and Assessment Procedures
Hawaii Convention Center
Kamehameha Exhibit Hall
10:00 AM - 10:50 AM
Poster Session: Behavioral Health and Interventions
Hawaii Convention Center
Kamehameha Exhibit Hall
11:00 AM - 11:50 AM
Invited Address:
[Alan Kaufman, Ph.D.]
Hawaii Convention Center
Meeting Room 316C
2:00 PM - 2:50 PM
Presidential Address:
[Cecil Reynolds, Ph.D.]
Hilton Hawaiian Village Beach Resort and Spa
South Pacific Ballroom IV
3:00 PM - 4:50 PM
Executive Committee Meeting: [Executive Committee Meeting]
Hilton Hawaiian Village Beach Resort and Spa
Rainbow Suite III
5:00 PM - 6:50 PM
Social Hour: [Social Hour]
Hilton Hawaiian Village Beach Resort and Spa
Honolulu Suites II and III
FRIDAY, JULY 30, 2004
8:00 AM - 9:50 AM
Symposium: RTI for LD Eligibility Determination—Does Science Support Policy?
Hawaii Convention Center
Meeting Room 321B
Chair: Michael L. Vanderwood, Ph.D.
9:00 AM - 9:50 AM
Poster Session: Health and Well-Being Studies and Interventions
Hawaii Convention Center
Kamehameha Exhibit Hall
12:00 PM - 1:50 PM
Symposium: Evidence-Supported Parent and Family Intervention in School Psychology
Hawaii Convention Center
Meeting Room 307A
Chair: Cindy I. Carlson, Ph.D.
2:00 PM - 3:50 PM
Business Meeting:
[Hilton Hawaiian Village Beach Resort and Spa
Honolulu Suite III
SUNDAY, AUGUST 1, 2004
8:00 AM - 9:50 AM
Symposium: Instruction-Based Assessment (IBA)—Rethinking Identification and Prevention of Learning Disability
Hawaii Convention Center
Meeting Room 322A
Chair: Stephen T. Peverly, Ph.D.
CONTINUED ON PAGE 113
11:00 AM - 12:50 PM
Symposium: Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual Youth—
Integrating Research, Theory, Policy, and
Practice
Hawaii Convention Center
Meeting Room 303B
Chair: Jon S. Lasser, Ph.D.

DIVISION 16 HOSPITALITY SUITE
SCHEDULE - Hilton Hawaiian Village

SUITE SPONSORS:
AGS, Psychological Corporation, PAR, Riverside,
Society of School Psychology,
American Academy of School Psychology,
American Board of School Psychology,
and Division 16

WEDNESDAY, JULY 28
11 am - 1 pm: Women’s Committee
Contact: Dr. Karen Stoiber

THURSDAY, JULY 29
9 am - 12 pm: American Board of School
Psychology/ American Academy of School
Psychology
Contact: Dr. Ron Davis
12 pm - 2 pm: APA-NASP Task Force on Evidence-Based
Practices
Contact: Dr. Karen Stoiber
2 pm - 3 pm: Division 16 Presidential address
Suite closed
3 pm - 4 pm: OPEN
4 pm - 5 pm:
Student Affiliates in School Psychology
Officer Meeting
Contact: Convention Chair, Jenny Sears
5 pm - 7 pm: Division 16 Social Hour
Location: Hilton Hawaiian Village, Honolulu
Suites II & III

FRIDAY, JULY 30
8 am - 12 pm:
Student Affiliates in School Psychology
Convention
Contact: Convention Chair, Jenny Sears
12 pm - 2 pm: School Psychology Quarterly Meeting -
Contact: Dr. Rik D’Amato
2 pm - 3 pm: OPEN
3 pm - 4 pm: School Psychology Synarchy
Contact: Dr. Walt Pryzwansky
4 pm - 5 pm: Society for the Study of School
Psychology Planning Meeting
Contact: Dr. Shane Jimerson
5 pm- 7pm: Society for the Study of School Psychology/
SPRCC meeting
Contact: Dr. Shane Jimerson

SATURDAY, JULY 31
10 - 11:30: Division 16 Presidential meeting
with students
Contact: Dr. Cecil Reynolds
2 pm - 4 pm: Division Business meeting
Suite closed

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Steven C. Guy, PhD, Peter K. Isquith, PhD, and Gerard A. Gioia, PhD

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The BRIEF-SR has demonstrated reliability, validity, and clinical utility as an ecologically valid assessment of executive functions across a range of conditions. It is designed to be completed by older children and adolescents (ages 11-18 years) with a 5th-grade or higher reading ability, including individuals with attentional disorders, language disorders, traumatic brain injuries, lead exposure, learning disabilities, high-functioning autism spectrum disorders, and other developmental, neurological, psychiatric, and medical conditions.

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- The clinical scales form two broader indexes—the Behavioral Regulation Index (BRI) and the Metacognition Index (MI)—and yield an overall summary score, the Global Executive Composite (GEC).
- The BRIEF-SR also includes two validity scales: Inconsistency and Negativity.
- The BRIEF-SR scales demonstrate appropriate reliability: internal consistency is high for the GEC ($\alpha = .96$) and moderate to high for the clinical scales ($\alpha = .72-.96$).
- Temporal stability for the BRIEF-SR is strong ($r = .89$) for the GEC over a period of approximately 5 weeks, and there is strong interrater agreement for the GEC with parent ratings on the BRIEF ($r = .56$). Teacher ratings on the BRIEF correlate modestly with adolescent ratings on the BRIEF-SR (GEC, $r = .25$) but are well within expectations.
- Examination of BRIEF-SR profiles in a variety of clinical groups provides evidence of validity based on clinical utility: BRIEF-SR ratings for groups of adolescents with ADHD-I, ADHD-C, insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus, autism spectrum disorders, and anxiety and depressive disorders showed different patterns of scale elevations for each group compared to matched control groups. Correlations between adolescent and parent ratings for the clinical groups were strong, suggesting good agreement much of the time.

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APA DIVISION 53: CLINICAL CHILD AND ADOLESCENT PSYCHOLOGY

2004 CONVENTION PROGRAM

WEDNESDAY, JULY 28, 2004
9:00 AM - 10:00 AM
Poster Session: Assessment & Treatment of Childhood Disorders

10:00 AM - 12:00 PM
Symposium: Using Partnerships to Design, Implement, & Evaluate Aggression Prevention Programs

12:00 PM - 2:00 PM
Symposium: Treatment of Childhood OCD & Trichotillomania

THURSDAY, JULY 29, 2004
8:00 AM - 9:00 AM
Conversation: Research, Funding & Career Trends for the Next Generation of Child-Focused Researchers & Practitioners

9:00 AM - 10:00 AM
Poster Session: Externalizing Disorders in Children

10:00 AM - 12:00 PM
Symposium: Intensive Treatments for Child & Adolescent Anxiety

FRIDAY, JULY 30, 2004
8:00 AM - 9:00 AM
Invited Address: Distinguished Research Contribution Award

9:00 AM - 10:00 AM
Poster Session: Internalizing Disorders in Children

12:00 PM - 2:00 PM
Symposium: Empirically Supported Interventions for Ethnic Minority Children & Adolescents

SATURDAY, JULY 31, 2004
8:00 AM - 10:00 AM
Symposium: Role of Culture in Culturally Based Child & Adolescent Interventions

12:00 PM - 2:00 PM
Symposium: Preschool Children at Risk for ADHD-Approaches to Diagnosis & Treatment

3:00 PM - 4:00 PM
Presidential Address

4:00 PM - 5:00 PM
Business Meeting

SUNDAY, AUGUST 1, 2004
8:00 AM - 9:00 AM
Invited Address: Evidence-Based Decision Making in Practice: Hawaii’s Identification, Organization, Integration & Dissemination of Evidence-Based Strategies in a Statewide System for Youth

9:00 AM - 10:00 AM
Invited Address: Career Research Contributions Award

10:00 AM - 12:00 PM
Symposium: Health Service Delivery for Children Living in Poverty

APA DIVISION 37: CHILD, YOUTH AND FAMILY SERVICES

2004 CONVENTION PROGRAM

WEDNESDAY, JULY 28, 2004
A.M. Symposium: Clinical Needs of Minority & Immigrant Youth
Poster Session

P.M. Invited Address
Poster Session

THURSDAY, JULY 29, 2004
Paper Session: Improving Community Response to Child Victims
Paper Session: Resilience for Underserved Youth

*No times specified

FRIDAY, JULY 30, 2004
A.M. Symposium: Delivery of Mental Health Services for Youth who are Deaf/Hard of Hearing and their Families
Poster Session

Division Presidential Address - Luis Vargas

SATURDAY, JULY 31, 2004
A.M. Symposium: Trauma Assessment and Intervention with Culturally Diverse Women and Children

P.M. Section Presidential Address - Thomas Lyon

SUNDAY, AUGUST 1, 2004
A.M. Symposium: The Application of an Empirically Supported Treatment, Parent-Child Interaction Therapy with Diverse Groups
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New! Clinical Assessment of Behavior™ (CAB™)
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The CAB offers a balanced theoretical framework of both competence-based qualities and problem-based concerns for the CAB scales and clusters, making it useful for evaluating adaptive strengths and clinical risks in children and adolescents. The CAB assesses behaviors that reflect current societal concerns and issues about youth and their behavior (e.g., bullying, aggression). It includes the Parent Extended Rating Form (CAB-PX), Parent Rating Form (CAB-P), and the Teacher Rating Form (CAB-T), thus providing a multisource, multicontext assessment of children’s and adolescents’ behaviors.

Based on scale and cluster internal consistency (α) coefficients in the .88 and higher range across the three CAB Rating Forms, examiners can expect to use the CAB-PX, CAB-P, and CAB-T Rating Forms with confidence to assist in making important diagnostic or intervention decisions for individual children and adolescents. Scale and cluster reliabilities also were consistently high across age level, gender, and race/ethnicity. Test-retest reliability coefficients across the three CAB forms ranged from .77-.95 with a mean test-retest interval of 17.6-19.3 days. Interrater reliabilities indicate a high level of agreement between parents and teachers (.44-.56) and even higher agreement between pairs of parent raters (.70-.90). Finally, the CAB scales and clusters demonstrate good evidence of validity based on test content, factor analytic studies, convergent and discriminant evidence, and concurrent validity studies across various clinical groups, including conduct/disruptive behavioral disorders, cognitive dysfunction, and ADD/ADHD.

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The CAB Scoring Program (CAB™-SP) calculates raw scores, T scores, and percentiles for all scales and clusters. After paper-and-pencil administration, the parents’ and/or teachers’ responses are entered manually using the CAB-SP. The software offers easy and rapid data entry for CAB items, calculation of all scores, and generation of a complete Score Report and profile for each of the three CAB Rating Forms.

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APA DIVISION 54: PEDIATRIC PSYCHOLOGY
2004 CONVENTION PROGRAM

WEDNESDAY, JULY 28, 2004
9:00 AM - 10:00 AM
Invited Address: Robert Noll
10:00 AM - 12:00 PM
Symposium: Adolescent Health—It’s a Family Affair (Bruzese & Quittner)
12:00 PM - 1:00 PM
Conversation Session: Pediatric Pain Rounds to Improve Education and Patient Care (Walco)
1:00 PM - 2:00 PM
Paper Session: Psychosocial profiles of children with abdominal pain (Danda)
2:00 PM - 6:00 PM
Council of rep meeting I
6:00 PM - 7:00 PM
APA alumni night social hour

THURSDAY, JULY 28, 2004
9:00 AM - 10:00 AM
Invited Address: Robert Butler
10:00 AM - 11:00 AM
APA Pres. Candidates Forum
11:00 AM - 12:00 PM
Paper Session: Well-being in maternal caregivers of HIV+ or chronically ill children (Moskowitz)
12:00 PM - 1:00 PM
Opening Session
2:00 PM - 5:00 PM
Executive Committee Meeting
5:30 PM
Luau tickets required JPP Board

FRIDAY, JULY 30, 2004
8:00 AM - 9:00 AM
Presidential Address/Awards
9:00 AM - 10:00 AM
Business Meeting
10:00 AM - 11:00 AM
Plenary Sessions/awards
11:00 AM - 12:00 PM
President Programming
12:00 PM - 2:00 PM
Poster Session
2:00 PM - 6:00 PM
Council of rep meeting II
6:00 PM - 8:00 PM
Social/Internships on Parade

SATURDAY, JULY 31, 2004
8:00 AM - 10:00 AM
Symposium: Pre-teens and Adolescents: The new youthful face of HIV/AIDS (Koenig)
10:00 AM - 11:00 AM
Plenary Sessions/awards
11:00 AM - 12:00 PM
President Programming
12:00 PM - 1:00 PM
Paper Session: Innovative assessment methods for pediatric psychology research and practice (Mitchell)
1:00 PM - 2:00 PM
APA President Address
4:00 PM - 7:00 PM
APA/APF Awards

SUNDAY, AUGUST 1, 2004
8:00 AM - 9:00 AM
Student Discussion: Meredith Lutz
9:00 AM - 10:00 AM
Panel Discussion: Issues in pediatric consultation and liaison services (Mullins)
11:00 AM - 12:00 PM
Tobacco risk factors for adolescents with and without cancer (Tye)
1:00 PM - 2:00 PM
Closing Session
People & Places

Angeleque Akin-Little, University of the Pacific

- Dr. Steven G. Little, director of the school psychology program and chair of the educational and school psychology department at the University of the Pacific has been granted tenure and promotion to full professor. Congratulations, Steve.

- The School Psychology Program at the University of South Carolina (USC) announces the appointment of a new faculty member, Amy Anderson. Amy completed her Ph.D. at the University of Minnesota and will join the USC School Program in the Fall of 2004. Her research interests involve student engagement with school and learning, dropout, and progress monitoring in reading.

- Duquesne University announces the hiring of Dr. Laura Crothers from Slippery Rock University where she has been an assistant professor since 2001. Her research is in the area of bullying prevention and consultation. Laura has also served as a practicing school psychologist in a number of school districts in Pennsylvania and New Jersey. She earned her Ed.D. from Indiana University of Pennsylvania.

- Alan W. Brue, Ph.D., NCSP has been named Director of Professional Standards for the National Association of School Psychologists.

- Dr. Gary Cates, formerly of the school psychology program at Eastern Illinois University, will be joining the faculty of the School Psychology Program at Illinois State University (ISU) in the fall. ISU has both an APA accredited Ph.D. program and a Specialist in School Psychology degree program.

- Dr. Jeff Miller with the Duquesne University School Psychology Program was granted tenure and promotion to associate professor. Congratulations, Jeff.

- Dr. David Miller will be joining the faculty at the University at Albany, State University of New York in the fall of 2004.

- Robert W. Elliott, Ph.D., ABPN, ABPP, was elected President-elect of the National Academy of Neuropsychology and currently serves as the Program Chair for Division 40 (Clinical Neuropsychology) of APA.

- Dr. Paul Mooney, graduate of the University of Nebraska-Lincoln, and Dr. Kristin Gansle, graduate of the University of California, Riverside, just finished their first year as faculty at the Louisiana State University Department of Curriculum & Instruction (College of Education), program in special education.

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