



APA Division 16 School Psychology
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The School Psychologist

AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION

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photos from the
**Annual
Convention**
in Washington, DC

(Left) Linda Reddy and Dave Woodrich
(Middle) Congressman Baird
(Right) Thomas Kratochwill, Cecil
Reynolds and Cindy Carlson





1

Photos from the Annual Convention in Washington, DC – August 2005

1. Thank you AGS!

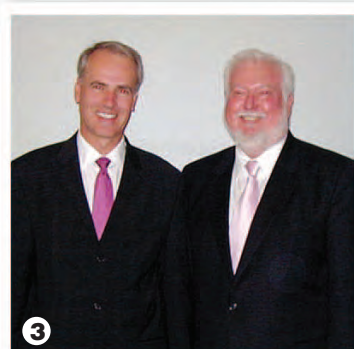
Three students were each given \$500 scholarship awards from AGS.

(Left to right) Verena Getahun from AGS, Amanda Siebecker, Michelle Birkett, Lisa Henderson Sowers, and Kristi Yanta from AGS

2. Linda Caterino, Catherine Fiorello, Congressman Baird, and Linda Reddy



2



3



4



5



6



7

3. Randy Kamphaus and Cecil Reynolds after the Division 16 Presidential Address at APA. Cecil Reynolds served for two consecutive terms as President of Division 16 (first in Division 16 history). Thank you Cecil!

4. CDSPP Honors Jane Conoley. Susan Sheridan talks about Jane Conoley as her mentor.

5. Deborah Tharinger hugs Jane Conoley after giving her touching speech.

6. Susan Gorin and Norma Hart

7. Remembering Irwin Hyman 2005 Symposium at the American Psychological Association L-R: Alex Tabori, Frank Farley (Symposium Chair), Rachael Hyman and Susan Hyman, Catherine Fiorello, Joseph Rosenfeld, Tom Fagan, Lenore Walker. Absent but in the symposium was Paul McDermott.

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RESEARCH FORUM

Productivity and Collaboration of Authors in School Psychology Journals, 1991-2003

Kim S. Davis, Dinorah Zanger, Aimée Gerrard-Morris, Gabrielle Roberts, and Daniel H. Robinson, University of Texas

In examining productivity in school psychology journals from 1987-1995, Little (1997) used a points system to determine the most productive authors. This system awards more points for higher authorship placement and fewer co-authors. Because school psychology research is becoming more collaborative (Roberts, Gerrard-Morris, Zanger, Davis, & Robinson, 2004), in the present study, we defined productivity simply by number of articles authored in four American journals of school psychology (School Psychology Review, School Psychology Quarterly, Journal of School Psychology, Psychology in the Schools) from 1991-2003. For the top 20 most productive authors, we collected additional information that might reveal an author's likelihood to collaborate and include graduate student co-authors. Thomas Kratochwill of the University of Wisconsin authored the most articles. The University of Connecticut, and Lehigh and Vanderbilt Universities each had two authors in the top 20. Finally, most of the top 20 authors collaborated and routinely published with graduate students.

Eight years ago, Little (1997) published the first study that examined individuals' contributions to the school psychology literature (1987-1995). Individual productivity in terms of publications in specific journals has become a popular topic in recent years in similar fields (e.g., educational psychology, Hsieh et al., 2004; Smith et al. 1998; 2003). Although there may be many reasons for such interest in this topic, it appears that some believe productivity is one measure of success in academia. Smith et al. (2003) noted that:

"While productivity studies are sometimes criticized as little more than academic horse races, such studies are useful because they are indicative of the extent to which programs (and, in particular, the individual faculty members who make up these programs) are contributing to the advancement of knowledge within a given discipline. Productivity studies provide tangible

proof of institutional and individual performance and are benchmarks that can be used by departments to demonstrate their worth, and individuals their contributions, to their respective fields. It is not uncommon to find programs and institutions touting their high rankings in recent productivity studies on their websites, and in news releases and promotional literature (p. 423)."

Carper and Williams (2004) suggested that productivity provides a measure of knowledge generated. They recently examined productivity of school psychology faculty by graduate programs from 1995 to 1999. In terms of calculating productivity, Carper and Williams (2004), Little (1997), and Smith et al. (1998, 2003) all used a points system (Howard, Cole, & Maxwell, 1987). In a follow-up to the Smith et al. studies, Hsieh et al. (2004) proposed an alternate way of examining an individual faculty member's contributions. They noted that, in the field of educational psychology, research was becoming increasingly collaborative, as indicated by an increasing trend in the average number of authors per article (Evans, Hsieh, & Robinson, in press; Hsieh et al., 2004; Robinson, McKay, Katayama, & Fan, 1998). Thus, using a formula whereby having higher authorship placement and fewer co-authors means higher productivity may not best capture the changing landscape of the nature of publishing in journals. Rather than use this formula, Hsieh et al. simply counted the number of articles each person had authored in four educational psychology journals to determine the most productive authors. Then, for these top authors, they computed the average number of authors per article, number of single-authored articles, number of articles published in other peer-reviewed journals, and the number of co-authors who were graduate students at the time the work was completed. Hsieh et al. suggested that this additional information would be helpful for potential graduate students or junior colleagues who are



"...it appears that some believe productivity is one measure of success in academia."

Productivity and Collaboration of Authors in School Psychology Journals, 1991-2003

“Our purpose was to identify the 20 most productive individuals in the field of school psychology based simply on the total number of articles each author published...”

interested in collaborating on future publications.

Because there is evidence that, like educational psychology, school psychology research is also becoming increasingly collaborative (Roberts, Gerrard-Morris, Zanger, Davis, & Robinson, 2005), our goal in the present study was to identify the top authors in school psychology journals in terms of productivity and then examine their potential for collaboration. Little (1997) focused on author productivity in terms of where authors received their graduate training as a way to measure the quality of graduate school education in school psychology. This information may not be the most useful for potential graduate students because the faculty make-up of graduate programs can change considerably over time. Take, for example, Mississippi State University. Only a few years ago it boasted having two of the most productive school psychology faculty members in terms of publishing in school psychology journals – Chris Skinner and Stuart Watson. As of 2005, however, both of these individuals had moved on to other universities (Skinner to the University of Tennessee and Watson to Miami University of Ohio). In the present study, we thought that the quality of a graduate program might be better observed by examining the productivity of its current faculty than that of its graduates who may have graduated over 20 years ago.

We remind readers who are potential graduate students that this information should by no means be considered a litmus test for choosing a program or mentor. There may be excellent graduate programs that have productive faculty, but not one of the most active authors. Potential graduate students may wish to consider many things when choosing a program or mentor besides program faculty productivity in school psychology journals.

Our purpose was to identify the 20 most productive individuals in the field of school psychology based simply on the total number of articles each author published in the four American school psychology journals from 1991-2003. Little (1997) used six journals: the *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment (JPA)*, the *Journal of School Psychology (JSP)*, *Psychology in the Schools (PS)*, *School Psychology International (SPI)*, *School Psychology Quarterly (SPQ)*, and *School Psychology Review (SPR)* as being representative of the school psychology literature. We chose to use only four of these journals. The *JPA* only publishes assessment articles, and thus represents only a small fraction of school

psychology content. *SPI* is not an American journal and thus represents a different audience than the four remaining journals. We found further support for including only these journals by Carper and Williams (2004), who found that school psychology faculty members published most frequently in these four journals. *SPI*, by comparison, had the lowest number of publications by U.S. school psychology faculty members. A few other studies (Robinson, Skinner, & Brown, 1998; Skinner, Robinson, Brown, & Cates, 1999) did not include *PS* because at the time it charged authors to publish articles. However, we chose to include it because *PS* stopped charging authors in 1996 and because it now has a wide circulation.

A secondary purpose of the present study was to provide a more in-depth look at the most productive individuals in school psychology in terms of potential for collaboration, similar to Hsieh et al. (2004). Thus, we also collected additional information, including number of first authored articles, average number of authors per publication, number of graduate student co-authors per publication, total number of published journal articles in non-school psychology journals, current university affiliation, graduating university, and year of doctoral degree. Our rationale here was that this additional information may be useful for graduate school applicants in determining which institutions have the most productive faculty, and whether faculty are likely to collaborate with graduate students and/or other faculty.

Method

We analyzed authorship for the four journals (*JSP*, *PS*, *SPO*, & *SPR*) published from 1991-2003. Similar to Little (1997), we did not count editorials, introductions to issues, or book and test reviews. For each article in each issue of each year of the four journals, all authors' names were recorded in one database, which was then sorted by last name to determine authors with the most articles. Journals were retrieved as hard copies both from the University of Texas library as well as online. After identifying the top 20 authors, we collected and computed additional information for these individuals including average number of authors per article, number of first-authored articles, and number single-authored articles. Finally, we emailed each of the 20 authors and requested their vitae to check the accuracy of our data and to determine the number of their publications in other journals from 1991-2003, 2005 university affiliation, graduating

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Productivity and Collaboration of Authors in School Psychology Journals, 1991-2003

university, year they received their doctoral degree, and by a second e-mail, number of graduate student co-authors on their articles published in the school psychology journals from 1991-2003. We also later asked authors to provide their orientation (behavioral/cognitive behavioral, eclectic, ecological, humanistic-interpersonal, psychodynamic, or other), and reasons for why they choose to collaborate. The reader should note that these orientations were self-reported.

Results and Discussion

Table 1 displays the 20 most published authors from 1991-2003 in the four school psychology journals. Thomas Kratochwill of the University of Wisconsin had the most publications in the four journals (35). The top author in the four school psychology journals from 1991-2003 was similar in number to the top person in five educational psychology journals from 1991-2002 – Richard E. Mayer with 37 articles (Hsieh et al., 2004). Also similar to the Hsieh et al. study, the greatest separation of persons on the list in terms of number of articles occurred between the first- and second-ranked persons.

All but one of the persons (95%) averaged over

two authors per article, supporting the notion that school psychology research is collaborative in nature, especially among the most productive authors. In educational psychology, 20 of the top 24 (83%) averaged over 2 authors per article. Four (Skinner, Kehle, Bray, & Fuchs) averaged over 3.5 authors per article (20%). Using the points system, these persons would certainly rank lower compared to authors with fewer co-authors. None of the top 24 educational psychology authors averaged over 3.5 authors per article.

With regard to authorship placement, 10 of the top 20 (50%) were first author on at least half of their articles. It would appear that the top producers in school psychology journals are less likely to be first authors than those in educational psychology journals, where 19 of the top 24 persons (79%) first-authored at least half their articles (Hsieh et al., 2004). In that sense, perhaps the most productive school psychology faculty are playing more of a supportive role than educational psychology faculty. The number of sole-authored articles was also very low for the top 20 persons, similar to educational psychology.

In examining the authors' reasons for collaborating, it became clear that supporting and

“All but one of the persons (95%) averaged over two authors per article, supporting the notion that school psychology research is collaborative in nature, . . .”

Table 1
The Top 20 Persons Who Authored the Most Articles in School Psychology Journals from 1991-2003.

No.	Author	PhD Year	2005 University	Graduating University	1st Author Articles	Single Author Articles	Authors per	Other Article	Rank in Little (1997)	Graduate Student Co-Authors	Orientation
35	Kratochwill, Thomas R.	1973	Wisconsin	Wisconsin	15	3	2.63	22	22	28	Behavioral
28	Skinner, Christopher H.	1989	Tennessee	Lehigh	11	1	3.54	53	nr	45	Behavioral
26	Elliott, Stephen N.	1980	Vanderbilt	Arizona State	8	2	2.58	18	6	19	Behavioral
24	Kehle, Thomas J.	1972	Connecticut	Kentucky	6	1	3.63	22	nr	15	Behavioral
24	Sheridan, Susan M.	1989	Nebraska	Wisconsin	12	4	2.83	21	38	23	Behavioral/ Ecological
23	Gresham, Frank M.	1979	Louisiana State Univ	South Carolina	18	5	2.39	52	2	18	Behavioral
22	Shapiro, Edward S.	1978	Lehigh	Pittsburgh	6	4	2.55	17	5	10	Behavioral
20	DuPaul, George J.	1985	Lehigh	Rhode Island	10	2	2.6	47	48	16	Behavioral
20	Hughes, Jan	1976	Texas A&M	Texas	10	4	2.4	17	30	16	Transactional systems theory
18	Bray, Melissa A.	1997	Connecticut	Connecticut	5	0	3.83	14	nr	17	Behavioral
18	Gutkin, Terry B.	1975	San Francisco State	Texas	7	6	2.17	14	27	11	Ecological
18	Merrell, Kenneth W.	1988	Oregon	Oregon	10	3	2.67	39	13	19	Behavioral/ Ecological
16	Eckert, Tanya L.	1996	Syracuse	Lehigh	6	0	2.81	13	nr	11	Behavioral
16	Huebner, E. Scott	1983	South Carolina	Indiana	10	6	1.75	39	1	8	Ecological
16	McDermott, Paul A.	1975	Penn	Temple	4	2	3.06	31	nr	13	Empiricist
15	Fuchs, Lynn S.	1981	Vanderbilt	Minnesota	8	0	3.53	130	40	11	Eclectic
15	Glutting, Joseph J.	1985	Delaware	Penn	6	0	3.47	20	nr	4	Empiricist
15	Keith, Timothy Z.	1982	Texas	Duke	12	6	2.8	16	11	13	Empiricist
15	Phelps, LeAdelle	1977	Buffalo	Utah	12	5	2.13	16	9	15	Behavioral
15	Watson, T. Steuart	1991	Miami University	Nebraska	6	0	3.33	32	nr	19	Behavioral

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Productivity and Collaboration of Authors in School Psychology Journals, 1991-2003

“In examining the authors’ reasons for collaborating, it became clear that supporting and mentoring graduate students was a key reason.”

mentoring graduate students was a key reason. Seven of the authors specifically mentioned collaborating with graduate students was a way to train them to contribute to the literature. Other reasons included learning from others and making a stronger product as a result of collaboration. Finally, Chris Skinner noted that to conduct good applied intervention research, often several people are needed to frequently (e.g., daily Monday through Friday) commute to schools, implement the intervention procedures and obtain inter-observer agreement and treatment integrity data over the course of many weeks.

Just over half (11 out of 20, 55%) of the authors published more articles in other journals outside the four school psychology journals, compared with 20 out of 24 (83%) educational psychology authors. Lynn Fuchs, for example, published 15 articles in the school psychology journals but 130 more articles in other journals. Fuchs’ area is special education, whereas the other 19 authors’ area is school psychology.

With regard to graduate student co-authors, Skinner, Merrell, and Watson had the most with 45. Only three persons out of the 20 (15%) averaged more than one graduate student co-author per article, similar to the three out of 24 (12.5%) in educational psychology (Hsieh et al., 2004). Perhaps this number will increase in the future as both fields continue to become more collaborative.

Twelve of the top 20 (60%) received their Ph.D. over 20 years ago. However, two authors received their doctoral degrees relatively recently, in the last 10 years, with Tanya Eckert and Melissa Bray receiving theirs in 1996 and 1997, respectively. This pattern is similar to the top persons in educational psychology, with 17 of the top 24 (71%) receiving their Ph.D. over 20 years ago and two authors receiving theirs less than 10 years ago (Hsieh et al., 2004). Of the top 20 authors, six (30%) were women (Sheridan, Hughes, Bray, Eckert, Fuchs, & Phelps). In educational psychology, seven (29%) of the top 24 were women. We expect this proportion to increase as more females become school psychology faculty (Skinner et al., 1999).

In terms of using this information to rate programs, three universities, Vanderbilt (Fuchs & Elliott), Lehigh (Shapiro & DuPaul), and Connecticut (Kehle & Bray) each have two of the top 20 authors. In educational psychology, two universities each had more than one author in the top 24, Maryland and

Michigan. However, being at a top-ranked school psychology program is not always a necessary condition to work with productive faculty who collaborate with graduate students. In fact, six of the top 20 authors are not currently (as of 2005) at APA-accredited school psychology programs (SFSU, Penn, Vanderbilt, Delaware, Buffalo).

With regard to the authors’ orientation, 13 of the 20 referred to themselves as behavioral and/or cognitive-behavioral, whereas four mentioned ecological (Sheridan and Merrell mentioned both). It appears that most of the leading researchers in school psychology are behavioral, with no indication that other orientations will dominate in the near future, as evidenced by the fact that the two “rising stars,” Eckert and Bray, are also behavioral.

Conclusions

Studies of this nature have been criticized for their tendency to be interpreted as competitions within their fields. However, given the results of this study and others (Roberts et al., 2005), we may conclude that the field of school psychology is becoming less competitive in nature and rather more collaborative. The high number of graduate student co-authors, the low number of sole-authored articles, and the high average number of authors per article complement these collaborative efforts. Moreover, the present study may serve to aid potential and current graduate students who desire to contribute to the field by authoring articles in these journals by helping them to select institutions based on their prospects for collaboration with productive researchers.

Additionally, these results demonstrate the changing nature of the field of school psychology. With two of the top 20 authors receiving their degrees less than 10 years ago (and both are female which is quite interesting in itself), and with the high number of graduate student co-authors, it is clear that there are opportunities for school psychologists who are earlier in their career path to contribute. Additionally, many of the top 20 authors published a considerable amount of their work outside school psychology journals. Sheridan and D’Amato (2004) recently noted that the optimistic future of school psychology rests on the collaboration and cooperation of “all major players (p. 8),” including professional organizations, practitioners, and researchers. Based on the results of this study, such collaboration and cooperation is already in progress.

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Productivity and Collaboration of Authors in School Psychology Journals, 1991-2003

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PRACTICE FORUM

DSM-IV-TR Learning Disorder Not Otherwise Specified: Implications and Applications in School Psychology

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“LDNOS can be used when reviewing diagnostic categories for students who are achieving at or near grade level, but who have deficits, for example, in the areas of executive functioning, organization and planning, auditory processing, and/or visual processing deficits.”

In this article, we discuss the application of the diagnostic category Learning Disability Not Otherwise Specified (LDNOS) (*American Psychiatric Association, Diagnostic and Statistical Manual, Text Revision, [DSM-IV-TR, 2000]*) to cases in which there are several below-average scores on cognitive measures that do not rise to the threshold of a Specific Learning Disorder (SLD). We refer here mainly to cases in which there often is not a substantial discrepancy (*DSM-IV-TR, 2000*, p. 49, italics in original) between ability and achievement (e.g., more than 2 standard deviations), but in which there may be a “...smaller discrepancy...especially in cases where an individual’s performance on an IQ test may have been compromised by an associated disorder in cognitive processing...” (p. 49). LDNOS can be used when reviewing diagnostic categories for students who are achieving at or near grade level, but who have deficits, for example, in the areas of executive functioning, organization and planning, auditory processing, and/or visual processing deficits. In these cases, a SLD might not be present, but other cognitive deficits are identified clinically on assessment, with the additional possibility of either co-varying or secondary diagnoses that might include a combination of ADHD, anxiety and depression, or oppositional defiant behavior.

Our interest in LDNOS derives from our teaching, practice, and collegial consultation during which we often discuss cases in which students have subtle, but very relevant mild-moderate (usually) cognitive processing, executive, and organizational deficits that are affecting learning and require some type of classroom accommodation, but do not rise to the SLD criteria. We have not found any articles that address the LDNOS category as it pertains to use of *DSM-IV-TR* (2000) when conducting evaluations in educational and private practice settings. First, we discuss the application of the intent of LDNOS as a way of identifying the exceptional learning needs of students whose pattern of academic profiles do not

conform easily to a discrepancy model or reflect normal variability across a range of skills, but who might still qualify as having a learning disability when presented for child study, especially now that the reauthorization of IDEA (IDEIA, 2004) has eliminated the requirement of a severe discrepancy between ability and achievement when diagnosing a learning disability. While school psychologists do not typically use *DSM-IV-TR* (2000) for classification purposes, they are often observed to describe attention, processing, and/or executive function deficits in reports. Thus, school psychologists may use the language of LDNOS descriptively when articulating a rationale for special educational classification associated with processing deficits and when developing recommendations. Therefore, school psychologists may consider a student learning disabled in the absence of a severe discrepancy based upon the presence of processing deficits. In such cases, drawing attention to the *DSM-IV-TR* (2000) classification of LDNOS might further support the reasoning behind the psychologist’s formulation. We focus on the spirit of the LDNOS category, noting that its presence in *DSM-IV-TR* (2000) was intended to assist clinicians in the identification of atypical Learning Disorder presentations, including situations where the intelligence test itself is affected by a cognitive processing disorder. We acknowledge limitations associated with the LDNOS category. *DSM-IV-TR* (2000) notes that although some cognitive processing measures provide an additional opportunity to isolate particular skills that affect performance on intelligence or achievement tests, these tests might not sample comprehensively members of all potential test-taking groups when compared, for example, to well standardized intelligence and achievement measures. The psychologist needs to be mindful of these considerations when integrating results into the overall evaluation (American Psychological Association, 1999). Second, we discuss the value of

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using a neuropsychologically informed assessment of cognitive tests and measures (Feifer & DeFina, 2000; Feifer & DeFina, 2002; Feifer & DeFina, 2005; Hale & Fiorello, 2004) for which Hale, Naglieri, Kaufman, and Kavale (2004) also advocated when assessing processing deficits. This is the type of assessment model that we use in our practices. We are both trained formally in school psychology and clinical neuropsychology. We are not employed as district school psychologists, although one of us (B.D.) has worked previously for 20 years in a special education setting. Our practices interface with public and private schools, and we fully appreciate and respect the evolving discussion, pro and con, about the role of neuropsychology in school psychology practice (e.g., Crespi & Cooke, 2003; Pelletier, Hiemenz, & Shapiro, 2004; Hiralall & Lazar, 2002). Third, we present a brief clinical illustration to demonstrate the applicability of the LDNOS category.

LDNOS as a Diagnostic Category

Reading Disorders, Mathematics Disorders, and Disorders of Written Expression are the three primary categories of Learning Disorder identified in *DSM-IV-TR* (2000, pp. 49-56). *DSM-IV-TR* (2000) also acknowledges that there may be additional circumstances that warrant the identification of a Learning Disorder, and invites clinicians to consider the Not Otherwise Specified (NOS) in such cases. "Because of the diversity of clinical presentations, it is impossible for the diagnostic nomenclature to cover every possible situation. For this reason, each diagnostic class has at least one Not Otherwise Specified (NOS) category and some classes have several NOS categories" (p. 4). One of the four permissible situations in which the NOS diagnosis may be used (in this case, LDNOS) is when "...the symptomatic picture does not meet the criteria for any of the specific disorders. This would occur either when the symptoms are below the diagnostic threshold for one of the specific disorders or when there is an atypical or mixed presentation" (p. 4). Decisions to use the LDNOS category might be considered as follows (p. 56): "This category is for disorders of learning that do not meet criteria for any specific Learning Disorder. This category might include problems in all three areas (reading, mathematics, written expression) that together significantly interfere with academic achievement even though performance on tests measuring each

individual skill is not substantially below that expected given the person's chronological age, measured intelligence, and age-appropriate education." Further discussion of the LDNOS category (*DSM-IV-TR*, 2000, p. 50) states: "There may be underlying abnormalities in cognitive processing (e.g., deficits in visual perception, linguistic processes, attention, memory or a combination of these)... *that often precede or are associated with Learning Disorders*" (italics added). In reality, academic skills (e.g., spelling, reading, arithmetic, writing) are the byproduct of neuropsychological processes (e.g., visual scanning, working memory, spatial representation, visualization, auditory-visual synthesis, organization-retrieval, fine-motor dexterity), creating a somewhat arbitrary distinction between the skill as a concept (i.e., reading) and the underlying neuropsychological processes from which that skill is derived. In cases in which there is no specific Learning Disorder, but several sub-threshold achievement scores in the context of cognitive processing deficits, the LDNOS category might be used because of the presumed bearing of cognitive deficits on the lowering of academic achievement. In cases in which there is a SLD, but also several below average cognitive processing scores, we suggest that the LDNOS might still be warranted because of the disordered quality of processing skills. We recognize that processing skills are not learned skills in the same way that reading, arithmetic, and written expression are learned skills, but we also appreciate that reading, arithmetic, and written expression skills are in fact constructs that identify core achievement areas whose foundations are cognitive processing skills. *DSM-IV-TR* (2000) notes that standardized tests for the aforementioned processing deficits may not have the psychometric strength of other psycho-educational measures. As such, we feel that the clinician who uses these measures would need to exercise good judgment when selecting tests and integrating results into the assessment battery.

Neuropsychological Testing and LDNOS

How do cognitive processing deficits that do not meet the *DSM-IV-TR* (2000) diagnostic criteria for a Reading Disorder, Mathematics Disorder and/or Disorder of Written Expression impact the student and the school experience? If we conceptualize education as directed toward understanding and mastering a required and sequentially presented

"This category is for disorders of learning that do not meet criteria for any specific Learning Disorder. This category might include problems in all three areas (reading, mathematics, written expression) that together significantly interfere with academic achievement..."



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“Learning is a process that can be disrupted at several points.”

knowledge base, we must consider the skills and functions that underlie academic achievement in addition to the widely accepted academic skills necessary for success in school. The traditional model of assessing ability/achievement discrepancies for identification of learning disorders presents important information in this respect. While there has been recent discussion of the efficacy of a discrepancy model of identification of learning disorders compared to a cognitive processing model (Crespi & Cooke, 2003; Hale, Naglieri, Kaufman, & Kavale, 2004) we understand the importance of both types of assessment and consider a way of using LDNOS to broaden diagnostic scope and accuracy. Indeed, there are instances in which severe discrepancies between ability/achievement and deficits in cognitive processing are present (e.g., cognitive processing speed, memory, attention and concentration, visual processing and auditory processing) in which case the diagnoses of SLD and LDNOS might both be warranted. For example, a seventh grade student might be referred because of complaints about slow reading. On interview, the psychologist also notes general problems with organization, flexible thinking, and attention span. The student seems bright, but is slow to complete work, does well on rote memory tests, but has difficulty thinking conceptually. The evaluation finds high average intelligence, but a specific reading disorder. Deficits are also observed in executive functioning, auditory processing (but not central auditory processing disorder), attention (but not ADHD), and retrieval of verbal information that impact reading, but are sufficiently distinct to be considered separately as LDNOS because of the prominent impact that these deficits have on other areas of the student's academic performance.

The neuropsychological evaluation provides a format for evaluating these domains and their associated cognitive skills. Understanding how a student identifies, integrates, and works with information is a critical element of the assessment. Effective cognitive processing indicates that students are sequencing and remembering incoming information, integrating incoming information, comparing it to information stored in memory, assessing possible consequences, and initiating action at a rapid rate. Information moves from initial sensory processing to levels of higher synthesis that lead to comprehension. At the level of executive functioning, there are demands for strategies that lead to the effective application of knowledge, including organization, planning, self-monitoring,

and understanding of how to use (or not use) information in a particular context. Barkley (2001) conceptualized executive functions in part as “the internalization of sensory motor action, self-speech, and emotional motivation (p. 5).” It is complexity of that type that reflects the processing and integration that is an integral part of the learning process and, in fact, of human development. Thus, assessment of executive deficits is important because it provides information about higher level cognitive processing that mediates the more specific skills, such as speech (e.g. generating spoken language/speech fluency and prosody and using synonyms to facilitate communication versus less conceptual-based language usage), and written expression (generating language for written expression and/or fine motor aspects of writing). If initial processing is inefficient, then the processes of integration and retrieval will be affected as well.

Learning is a process that can be disrupted at several points. One main goal of the assessment process is to try to identify where in the process the breakdown(s) occur. For example, does a student not remember information? Or, can he or she not retrieve it or did he or she not attend and encode the information in the first place? While one result of this processing problem may be a discrepancy between ability and achievement, there are also instances where this is not the case; that is, there is no severe discrepancy, but there are obvious differences across skill levels which affect the overall test performance and factor into the student's school performance. An accurate diagnosis and thoughtful intervention strategy depends on developing an understanding of the point(s) in the learning process at which the problem occurs. It is important to identify the cognitive areas that affect a given performance deficit, and both quantify and qualify the nature and degree of deficit to fully appreciate its foundational basis. Take, for example, Feifer and DeFina's (2002, p. 15) listing of neurodevelopmental constructs that may impact written language, including attention, spatial production, sequential production, and memory. Poor attention could impact written language by poor planning, uneven memory flow or lack of persistence, to cite a few. Poor memory can be reflected, for example, in weak word retrieval, poor spelling or poor recall of grammar rules.

Thus, approaching the evaluation with an eye toward understanding the mechanisms that could influence a particular deficit area would appear to be a sensible strategy for conducting a school

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psychological assessment. In cases, for example, where the student complains of difficulty doing higher-level arithmetic, and when there are depressed scores on measures of numerical calculations and numerical word problems, but no severe discrepancy between overall ability and specific achievement measures, the psychologist might selectively administer supplemental measures that assess spatial relations, math fluency, attention, and executive functioning to see if and how scores in these domains could be related to the student's subjective experience. Should there be a deficit in one or more of these areas, the LDNOS category might be considered when attempting to integrate test scores, teacher input, parent input, and the student's complaint.

Another diagnostic entity that would seem to be a candidate for the LDNOS category is the syndrome that Rourke (1989) has described as "Nonverbal Learning Disabilities (NLD)." NLD is considered a developmental disability rather than a specific learning disability, and is not a separate diagnostic category in *DSM-IV-TR* (2000). It is by definition a syndrome affecting many areas of development including psychomotor awkwardness, tactile and visual attention and perception, cognitive flexibility and novel problem solving, executive function and organization, social perception and social skills (Rourke, 1989). The social skills of students with a NLD can be understood as being impaired secondarily in response to more primary deficits in visual-spatial perception and reduced cognitive flexibility. Social skill deficits interfere with accurate perception of nonverbal social signals and compromise a student's ability to be integrated into a peer group. Students with NLD characteristics are therefore at risk for becoming isolated due to an inability to manage the school social environment. Social skills are learned behaviors. Students with deficits in this area may require counseling and peer support groups (Tanguay, 2002). LDNOS can be considered diagnostically when responding to the neurocognitive profile of a youngster with NLD, even if there is a concurrent Math Disorder (not unusual with the NLD profile).

In the following brief case example, we discuss the application of LDNOS.

Case Illustration

Background. The client, a 17-year-old, 10th grade male, was referred for an evaluation because of declining grades, slow reading speed, and

concentration problems. Difficulty with simultaneous note taking and listening was reported. Mild pregnancy and birth complications were also noted. Kindergarten was delayed because readiness skills were slow to develop. There was a possible maternal history of dyslexia (mother's self-report, not formally diagnosed), mild stuttering at ages 3-4 that remitted spontaneously, and a history of prior evaluations in early elementary school for reading disorder and central auditory disorder. Both evaluations indicated problems, but neither diagnosed a disability. Recently, one of the client's teachers noticed that the client tended to lose focus in class. He was able to complete only 50% of the reading comprehension items within the time limit on a standardized pre-college admissions test. The client was aware of his difficulties and self-initiated a request for testing through his guidance counselor independent of teacher referral.

Assessment Findings. Selected findings from the administration are presented in an abbreviated format to highlight information that was used to support the LDNOS diagnosis. His Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale -Third Edition (WAIS III; Wechsler, 1997) Verbal IQ was High Average (117/87%tile), Performance IQ was Average (106/66%tile), and Full Scale IQ was High Average (113/81%tile). Verbal Comprehension Index (VCI) was Superior (120/91%tile), Perceptual Organization (POI) was High Average (111/77%tile), and Working Memory (WMI) was Average (108/70%tile), suggesting a very intelligent young man with strong reasoning and solid verbal working memory skills. His WAIS III Processing Speed Index (PSI), on the other hand, was below average (79/8%tile). PSI results were supported by findings from the Visual Matching Test from the Woodcock-Johnson III Test of Cognitive Ability (WJ3-C; Mather & Woodcock, 2001), where performance was also slow and low average (87/19%tile), and the Digits Vigilance Test (Lewis, 1995), a cancellation task, where time to completion was well below average.

Academic achievement scores from the Woodcock-Johnson III Tests of Achievement (WJ3-A; Mather & Woodcock, 2001) were variable and indicative of problems with auditory decoding as well as visual processing speed. We will focus on a review of his reading skills, as this is the area where most concern was noted. In the area of reading, Word Attack (96/40%tile) was average, but 24 points below the WAIS III VCI, suggesting a significant difference between verbal reasoning and decoding.

"Students with NLD characteristics are therefore at risk for becoming isolated due to an inability to manage the school social environment."

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Letter-Word Identification was above average (115/85%tile). Thus, difficulty with auditory phonemic coding was suggested by the relative deficit on Word Attack compared to word identification. Passage comprehension (106/66%tile) was average. Timed reading comprehension on the Nelson-Denny-Reading Test (Brown, Fishco, & Hanna, 1993) was grade level with standard time, but he was a slow reader and an additional 40% time was required to complete the whole test (18.9 grade level with extra time). Performances on measures of word naming speed (WJ3-C Rapid Picture Naming, 77/6%tile) and reading speed (WJ3- A Reading Fluency, 83/13%tile; Stroop Color and Word Test, Word T Score = 36 (Golden, 1978) supported the hypothesis that reading rate was affected by relative deficits in the areas of visual processing speed and phonemic decoding. Thus, while there was sufficient variability across reading skills to argue for a conservative approach to the diagnosis of a reading disorder, there were clear indications of reading issues that were evidenced mainly on processing speed measures of reading fluency and rapid naming.

The relationship between reading and auditory processing is well established (Hale & Fiorello, 2004). Indeed, these are the two areas that were identified early in the client's school history as warranting extra attention and assessment. Evidence for auditory processing problems is presented. The client had a lower than expected performance when the task involved auditory closure (WJ3-C Incomplete Words 99/47%tile) compared to integrating sounds when words were presented as a whole (WJ3-C Sound Blending 114/83%tile). Performance on the Halstead Reitan Speech-sound Perception Test (Reitan & Wolfson, 1993) was low average. Performance on the Paced Auditory Serial Addition Test (Gronwall, n.d.) of rapid numerical sequencing and auditory processing was below average when a lengthy series of numbers was presented at 2.4-second and 2.0-second intervals. Scores on the SCAN-A measure of auditory processing (Keith, 1994) were between the 1-6%tiles on subtests of Filtered Words, Auditory Figure-Ground, Competing Words, and Competing Sentences. A problem in the area of auditory processing can also affect the learning of basic sound-symbol connections, which in turn can make it harder to quickly sound out new words and add extra stress to the reading process. The client also had difficulty shifting set cognitively on the

Wisconsin Card Sorting test (Errors = 19%tile) (WCST; Heaton, Chelune, Talley, Kay, & Curtiss, 1993), and on the California Verbal Learning Test-Second Edition (CVLT II, Delis, Kramer, Kaplan, & Ober, 2000) when shifting his learning set from a repeated trials task (Trials 1-5, 1.0 standard deviation above the mean) to a new verbal material (List B, - 1.5 standard deviation below the mean), which might translate to his having difficulty developing and using compensatory strategies for weaker areas. He rated himself as having problems with shifting set on the Behavior Rating Inventory of Executive Functioning (BRIEF; Guy, Isquith, & Gioia, 2004).

In summary, findings indicated a very bright young man with variable reading skills, and notable problems with visual and auditory processing, shifting set, and cognitive flexibility. Rather than diagnose a Reading Disorder, the LDNOS diagnosis was used to capture the variability in his reading skills, and the manner in which an underlying auditory processing problem could have been affecting his reading efficiency in conjunction with slower visual processing speed. Among the recommendations was a referral for a Central Auditory Processing Evaluation.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the diagnostic category LDNOS has relevance for students who present with academic difficulties that do not meet an ability-achievement discrepancy threshold and do not reflect a normal range of skill variability. Instead, this group of students has non-traditional learning disabilities characterized by deficits in cognitive processing. The reauthorization of IDEA has removed the severe ability-achievement discrepancy as a requirement for a learning disability diagnosis. With this change, students who fit the LDNOS profile through either a private or school-based assessment, might be easier to classify as learning disabled by multidisciplinary team and considered for special educational services.

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PRACTICE FORUM

A Prevention Model for Children at Risk for Learning Disabilities

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“Students with learning disabilities who have internalized repeated exposure to frustration can experience diminished confidence in the efficacy of their own academic, cognitive, and occupational efforts, even if they do not merit psychiatric diagnoses.”

Dominant approaches to the evaluation of learning disabilities emphasize alternative responses to manifest problems students encounter acquiring basic literacy or mathematics skills.

Broadly defined, these approaches can be characterized as curriculum based, neuropsychological, or actuarially based models for evaluating, diagnosing, and recommending interventions for students who have presented to school professionals with histories of academic failure. We propose that an alternative, developmental model can focus on prevention of learning disabilities, rather than intervention, through surveillance for early developmental markers associated with learning disabilities and early intervention using empirically supported primary and secondary prevention approaches.

Preventive services before students experience school failure have been described as a public health priority by a consensus panel of the National Institutes of Health [NIH] (2000). In fact, the NIH consensus report, Emergent Literacy Workshop: Current Status and Research Directions, asserts that “diagnosis at kindergarten or first grade is too late” (p.6). Once children begin to lag behind peers in reading fluency they can lose opportunities to practice reading connected discourse as they spend increased time learning foundation skills such as phonetic decoding. Further, children who initially struggle to read passages lose access to the language experiences and content information available in print (Torgesen, 2000).

The importance of early intervention to mitigate risk for learning disabilities is illustrated by the potentially pervasive effects on development. While certainly students with learning disabilities, representing a heterogeneous population, are likely to experience diverse developmental outcomes, the



consequences of learning disabilities can frequently persist across the lifespan (National Research Center on Learning Disabilities [NRCLD], 2002), and extend beyond academic skill acquisition to more complex developmental tasks. Consequently, children thus have an increased lifetime risk for a broad range of psychiatric disorders (Esser,

Schmidt & Woerner, 1990). Students with learning disabilities who have internalized repeated exposure to frustration can experience diminished confidence in the efficacy of their own academic, cognitive, and occupational efforts, even if they do not merit psychiatric diagnoses (Cummings, Maddux & Casey, 2000). As members of the adult workforce, those with learning disabilities are more likely to experience unemployment, or underemployment, and to earn less than non-disabled adults (Cummings, et al., 2000).

Developmental Pathways for Learning Disabilities

During early childhood, the term “vulnerability” aptly describes risk for learning disabilities. Screening for developmental risk factors can identify vulnerability for learning disabilities, but is neither sensitive nor specific enough for learning disability diagnosis (Jenkins & O'Connor, 2002; O'Connor & Jenkins, 1999; Schatschneider & Torgenson, 2004).

Familial risk factors include having one or more first-order relatives with learning or related cognitive disabilities such as ADHD or Autistic Spectrum Disorders, whether or not the disorders were formally diagnosed (Faraone & Biederman, 1993; Olsen, Wise, Connors, Rack, & Fulker, 1989; Plomin & Walker, 2003; Williams, Oliver, Allard, & Sears, 2003). Low birth-weight is the overarching prenatal risk factor associated with vulnerability for learning disabilities, and predisposes children to delays in visuo-spatial and language skills (Breslau, Johnson & Lucia 2001; Kanzawa, Shimizu, Kamada,

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Tanabe & Itoigawa, 1997; Ross, Lipper & Auld, 1996; Stanton-Chapman, Chapman & Scott, 2001) and impaired attention (McGrath, et al, 2005; Pisecco, Baker, Silva, Brooke, 2001).

While difficult to diagnose during early childhood, (Blackman & Westervelt, 1991), the diagnosis of ADHD is commonly associated with learning disabilities. ADHD has a high rate of comorbidity with learning disabilities with as many as 66% and 27% of children with ADHD experiencing either written language or reading disabilities, respectively (Mayes, Calhoun, & Crowell, 2000). Mayes and her colleagues, along with others (e.g., Marshall & Hynd, 1997), propose that ADHD and learning disabilities represent "overlapping spectrum disorders."

The importance of oral language development in identification of children vulnerable for learning disabilities is emphasized by the preponderance of reading and written language disorders among those diagnosed with learning disabilities (Gonzales & Nelson, 2003). Reading and written language represent the culmination of a developmental process beginning early in a child's development, with the emergence of oral language (Lyon, 2004) and delayed onset of speech, limited vocabulary, and/or limited grammatical complexity in early childhood presage later reading and writing delays, even for children who do not merit formal diagnoses of speech and language impairment during their preschool years (Larney, 2002; Rescorla 2002; Scarborough & Dobrich, 1990 Lyon, 2004; Lindquist, 1982; Nichols, Rupley, Rickelman & Algozzine, 2004; Scarborough, 1990; Torgesen, 2000; Torgesen & Wagner, 1994; Wolf, Bowers & Biddle, 2000).

Developmentally Appropriate Screening

Developmental screening approaches ideally combine parental report with structured, standardized tasks presented to children, and employ standardized measures (AAP, 2001). We propose that demographic screening consist of the "Four Questions", which are included in Table 1, along with domains of language development that can comprise the focus of direct assessment.

Are There Effective, Practical Preventive Services for Vulnerable Children?

Justice and Kaderavek (2004) propose using combinations of direct intervention by professionals and indirect interventions that are collaboratively planned by professionals and parents to occur in naturalistic settings, thus increasing the time devoted to intervention as well the ecological validity of interventions.

Indirect Interventions: Parent Education and Consultation

Improving Parental Language Models. Parents facilitate children's language growth when they imbue communication with positive affective tone, and provide affirmation for children's communicative intent, and by modeling rich, complex use of language (Dodici, Draper & Peterson, 2003). Parent behaviors that improve

Table 1
Sample Screening Questions and Tasks, Risk Factors Assessed

The Four Questions: Parent Demographic Interview Questions	Risk Factor
Was your child's birth weight less than 5 pounds or 2500 grams?	Low Birth Weight
Does your child have a mother, father, sister, or brother with a Learning Disability, ADHD, or an Autistic Spectrum Disorder, even if it was not formally diagnosed?	Heritability of Cognitive Disorders
Does your child have a diagnosis of ADHD?	Comorbidity of LD with ADHD
Was your child combining words into short sentences or phrases by the time s/he was 2 years old?	Delayed Speech
Parent Reading Observations Interview Questions	
Does your child "read" signs like "Coke" or "McDonalds"?	Orthographic Skill/ Environmental Print Print Knowledge
Does your child recognize parts of a book such as the cover, title, and end?	
Does your child point to words or letters he or she knows when reading a book?	
Does your child recognize or write the letters of his or her name or other words?	
Sample Tasks Administered to Children	Risk Factor
Rhyme Detection	Phonemic Awareness
Segmenting Words into Phonemes	
Blending Phonemes to Form Words	
Letter Naming	Orthographic Skill
Letter-Sound Correspondence	Alphabetic Principle
Rapid Categorical Naming	Rapid Access to Vocabulary

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language development are teachable skills and professional-parent consultation can improve parents' length of utterances, responsiveness to children's communication, contingent use of praise for children's communication, use of language expansion, modeling of language pragmatics such as attentive listening and turn-taking in conversation, and understanding of the differences between children's and adults' language development. Systematic intervention through parent-professional partnership can increase children's spontaneity of language, length of utterances, and variety of language forms, while decreasing yelling and oppositional behavior (Hancock, Kaiser & Delaney, 2002).

Improving Children's Creative and Narrative Play. Interventions designed to improve the complexity and maturity of vulnerable children's play also confer benefit in terms of their vocabulary development, length of utterances, and language complexity and diversity, as well as the expectation that language results in positive reinforcement. Target behaviors for consultation include teaching caretakers to provide ideas for roles and narratives, unobtrusively moderate play through modeling, prompting, and providing feedback, and aide in recall and discussion of play experiences when play is over (Craig-Unkefer & Kaiser, 2002). Parent-child word games can also play an important role in facilitating language development (Hornby & Jensen-Proctor, 1984), including old games such as "I spy," or "20 Questions."

Improving Orthographic and Phonemic Skills through Shared Reading. Shared reading provides children with models of reading, exposure to the phonological system of language, and information about how books and print are organized to convey information. Shared reading confers the additional benefit of increased opportunities to practice listening and speaking with an adult model (Woude & Barton, 2003). Unfortunately, several studies that assessed the frequency of shared reading in homes reveal that a minority of parents read to their children, perhaps as few as one in four. Hypothesized obstacles to shared reading include role strain experienced by parents who cope with financial stressors. This has a disproportional effect on shared reading in families who are at risk due to poverty, limited parental education, or membership in ethnic or language minorities (Celano, et al., 1998; Huebner, 2000; Klass,

et al., 2003; Washington, 2001).

Collaborative interventions that teach parents to enhance shared-reading experiences can increase both the frequency of shared reading and the quality of shared reading. Demonstrations of effective interventions based upon parent education have been as brief as three one-hour sessions (Hockenberger, Goldstein & Haas, 1999). The common elements of effective intervention across studies include increasing frequency and duration of shared reading, and teaching parents to intentionally and reflectively use specific questions and prompts, focusing children's attention on orthographic and phonemic information conveyed by literature including book-level, paragraph-level, word-level, and alphabetic information (Celano, et al, 1998; 2002; Hokenberger, et al, 1999; Huebner, 2000; Justice, Weber, Ezell & Bakerman, 2002). Recommended practices in teaching shared reading to parents include use of books with strong rhyming patterns and repetition of sounds, celebration of reading through activities linked to books (Allor & McCathren, 2003), and building on families' existing communication and literacy patterns and strengths (Justice & Kaderavek, 2003).

Direct Interventions Provided by Professionals

Direct interventions, particularly phonemic awareness training, typically result in gains for groups of children, while individual children experience widely disparate outcomes (Gonzales & Nelson, 2003), possibly reflecting differences in severity of deficits, with children having the most severe impairments experiencing the smallest gains from prevention programs (Torgesen, 2000). Although the elements required for successful preventive services are not well understood, Torgesen (2000) advises that preschool prevention provide instruction that is explicitly related to literacy as opposed to language development more generally. Because acquisition of phonemic and orthographic skills appear to represent mutually dependent processes (Castles & Coltheart, 2004; Christensen, 1997; Korkman & Peltoma, 1993), typical interventions focus on explicit instruction in phonemic skills, including rhyming, segmenting, and blending sounds; letter recognition; and letter-sound correspondences, mirroring Torgesen's recommendation. Evaluations of preventive interventions, in diverse settings with varied levels of staff training, lasting from 9 weeks to 1 year, indicate that intervention is associated with

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improvements in precursor language skills as well as later improvement in reading and spelling outcomes as much as 2 years following intervention when compared to control groups (e.g., Allor & McCathren, 2004; Hus, 2001; Korkman & Peltoma 1993; Rvachew, Nowak & Cloutier, 2004; Schneider, Ennemoser, Roth & Kuspert, 1999; Vadasy, Jenkins & Pool, 2000).

Discussion

Basic academic skills, especially reading and written language, represent the culmination of a continuous process of development. This process is mediated by a number of factors that can predispose children to learning disabilities including genetic liability for learning disabilities, low birth weight, and delayed development of early language skills. As members of both school and greater communities, school psychologists are poised to intervene on multiple levels to introduce prevention practices to reduce the incidence of learning disabilities and to mitigate their adverse impact. Prevention efforts can include influencing public opinion to improve shared reading, creative play, and parental language models. On a systems level, facilitating development of prevention programs including surveillance for language delays, language intervention for children who have language delays, even if these delays are sub-clinical, and providing phonemic awareness training in early childhood, can help address the needs of children known to have risk factors for learning disabilities. As health service providers specializing in cognitive development, school psychologists can work directly with parents and other caretakers to influence language development.

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COMMENTARY
SECTION

This section functions similar to that of the American Psychologist and presents members' thoughts and critiques of articles published in TSP or other journals, current events, or discussions sent on the various school psychology listservs. It is our hope that this section will serve as a platform for thoughtful scholarly debate and discussion. Below is a critique of The Application of Neuropsychology in the Schools Should Not be Called School Neuropsychology: A Rejoinder to Crespi and Cooke by Shelley L.F. Pelletier, Jennifer R. Hiemenz, and Marla B. Shapiro Volume 57, Number 1 (Winter 2004).

The Future of Neuropsychology: Read Your Horoscope Lately?

A Response to S. Pelletier, J. Hiemenz, and M. Shapiro's Rejoinder to Crespi and Cooke

Susan Downs Parrish, Private Practice in Scottsdale, Arizona



“To suggest that observation of a child playing with a stick in a sand box is a reasonable substitute for the administration of a battery of tests backed by many years of hard science is to thrust the field of psychology back to the days before Binet.”

Being right in step with the polarized state of affairs in our country, if not the world, I have extreme views of the future of neuropsychology. Perhaps, I have spent too many hours in the company of patients with Bipolar Disorder. My two visions of the future are on opposite ends of the spectrum. One vision could be described as a dream and the other as a nightmare. I do not see a middle road. Whether I am skipping along in the dream or frozen in my tracks by the specter of the nightmare varies from day to day, which brings me to my point. I recently read “The Application of Neuropsychology in the Schools Should Not be Called School Neuropsychology: A Rejoinder to Crespi and Cooke” that appeared in *The School Psychologist*, The Commentary Section, Winter 2004. The authors were S. Pelletier, J. Hiemenz, and M. Shapiro. Let's just say that my feet remained firmly planted as I read the paper. My heart may have skipped a beat or two, but my feet were definitely not dancing.

Stick in the Sandbox

Perusal of the Pelletier et al. article revealed some attention-grabbing headings, such as “Neuropsychological Tests: The Stick in the Sandbox,” on page 18. A detailed examination of the paragraph, prompted a head-nodding-in-agreement action until reaching the last two sentences, which were as follows:

There are numerous assessment tools and batteries used by neuropsychologists in an evaluation, but none that are quite specific to the practice of neuropsychology, regardless of the label on the box. With a thorough understanding of the developmental acquisition of neuropsychological functions, one could even

use a stick in a sandbox as part of a neuropsychological evaluation.

The Halstead-Reitan Neuropsychological Test Batteries (HRB) are specific to the practice of neuropsychology because R. Reitan (1964) did the work necessary to establish a connection between the measures in the battery and documented brain impairment. He worked with neurosurgeons, neuropathologists, and neurologists to refine his battery of tests and to establish patterns associated with various etiologies. His dedicated refinement of tools (i.e., the HRB batteries) paid off in the capacity to make differential diagnoses with regard to neurological conditions. His aspirations went well beyond creating a test to sort people into one of two categories, normal or brain-injured. In his mind, a higher standard was required. To suggest that observation of a child playing with a stick in a sand box is a reasonable substitute for the administration of a battery of tests backed by many years of hard science is to thrust the field of psychology back to the days before Binet. Surely, a retro move is not what Pelletier et al. had in mind.

Limited Usefulness of Neuropsychological Reports

A second eye-catching statement in Pelletier et al. appears on page 19, under the heading “Limited Usefulness of Neuropsychological Reports.” These authors maintain that, “Whereas the field of clinical neuropsychology first emerged as a ‘pin the tail on the lesion’ specialty prior to the advent of modern neuroimaging, the current practice of pediatric neuropsychology focuses less on localization, and more on prescriptive recommendations regarding learning, educational, and behavioral interventions.”

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Added to this disdain for lesion detection is a statement about “the limited usefulness of many neuropsychological reports within the school setting.”

Where to begin? This view of the relevance of lesion detection reveals a profound misunderstanding of the work of Ralph M. Reitan. In 1967, Reitan wrote a paper about the psychological assessment of deficits associated with brain lesions in subjects with average and below average intelligence. He cited a case in which a woman suffered a dissecting aneurysm of the left internal carotid artery. Angiography demonstrated complete occlusion of the artery. A substantial portion of the blood supply to the brain must have been cut off. The woman was tested and found to have a Verbal IQ of 52 and a Performance IQ of 80. Three months later when she was re-tested, she had a Verbal IQ of 105 and a Performance IQ of 110. The angiogram still showed complete occlusion of the artery. Anyone who has evaluated subjects with mild head trauma knows that neurological test results are sometimes very misleading as to neuropsychological impairment. Ideally, a diagnosis and treatment plan is based on access to all test results.

E. Russell (1998) presented a scholarly overview of the methodological basis of the HRB, the product of Reitan's early work. Understanding the “developmental acquisition of neuropsychological functions” provides information about a group of people; it does not address the functioning of the individual. Such knowledge is a place to begin, but it does not replace a methodology that has been scientifically validated with individuals with documented brain impairment.

Lesion detection has to do with the practice of good science (Reitan & Wolfson, 1985). One danger in science is to attribute cause and effect to an incidental occurrence or statistical association (correlation). A way to avoid this pitfall in neuropsychology is to predict one variable from another variable, i.e., to be able to predict behavior based on lesion location and lesion location based on behavior. This is science at its best and this capability is the cornerstone of differential diagnosis (Reitan, 1967a).

A thorough understanding of neuropsychological functioning works hand in hand with good methodology. How can one evaluate a child if he or she does not use tests shown to relate

to brain functions? Being able to recognize the particular pattern associated with different conditions is critical to differential diagnosis. (More will be written about differential diagnosis in the discussion of Crespi and Cooke's paper.) Knowledge that allows one to identify the nature and location of a lesion promotes the ability to distinguish one data pattern from another. In a school setting, the nature and location of the impairment is important because such knowledge facilitates an understanding of the behaviors that can be expected.

Schools have the responsibility of educating children with impairment in brain functions. The school is a perfect environment for developing educational programs that address different patterns of impairment. How can schools make progress with regard to treatment if they do not have meaningful, empirically validated test data? Knowing into which category a child fits—brain-injured or normal—is of little practical value to a treatment team. If a neuropsychologist cannot offer something more practical than placement into a general category, school personnel will see little value in what he or she offers. When a teacher is faced with a difficult child, mere categorization is not enough.

Although Pelletier et al.'s disdain for lesion detection bowled me over and almost put me 6 feet under, there is a point upon which we agree.¹ Too many neuropsychological reports are of limited usefulness in schools. Because the HRB has been researched as a whole battery, the data can be integrated in a way that is not possible when an evaluator settles for cognitive domain testing. Unfortunately, too many neuropsychological evaluations rely on this type of testing (Hom, 2003a). Cognitive domain testing relies on norms, in which case there is no empirical link between an individual's test performance and his or her brain functions. Measures based on an interindividual inferential model (level of performance measures) may be useful in regard to comparing subjects, but such measures provide little in the way of information about an individual subject's brain (Reitan & Wolfson, 1994).

To illustrate the limitations of domain testing, consider the domain of IQ as measured by the Wechsler IQ tests. Anyone who uses the Wechsler, a level of performance measure, knows that a low IQ score can be the result of a variety of conditions, only one of which is impairment in brain functions.

“Schools have the responsibility of educating children with impairment in brain functions.”

¹ Actually, Pelletier et al. made many good points in their article; the two objectionable statements are not worthy of the intelligence and scholarly effort that shines through most of the paper.

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The Future of Neuropsychology: Read Your Horoscope Lately?

Genetic variables, educational disadvantages, emotional conditions, normal aging, and other factors including impairment in brain functions can lead to a low IQ. Level of performance measures are necessary components in a comprehensive neuropsychological evaluation, but domain testing will never provide a sufficient basis for differential diagnosis.

Test Results and Plans to Educate

Reitan and Wolfson (1993, 2004) have addressed the subject of cognitive training in relation to neuropsychological functioning. They have constructed a model of cognitive functioning around which test data from any source can be organized. They also developed a rehabilitation



“Pelletier et al. represent school psychologists who do not want to be forced to become neuropsychologists in order to be employed.”

methodology, Reitan Evaluation of Hemispheric Abilities and Brain Improvement Training (REHABIT). The concepts in REHABIT are applicable to the school setting. The REHABIT methodology provides a bridge between test results and curriculum. This bridge can be used by a school psychologist or neuropsychologist in working with teachers or rehabilitation specialists. In fact, a school psychologist could become familiar with the Reitan-Wolfson model of cognitive functioning or the concepts in REHABIT and use this knowledge to direct a neuropsychologist toward writing a useful report.

On to Crespi and Cooke

The introductory first line in the Crespi and Cooke (2003) article is: “What constitutes appropriate education and training for the school psychologist interested in practicing as a neuropsychologist?” This question is the bugle blast that precedes a charge into battle. Being framed as a question rather than as a statement mutes it only slightly. The first line of any paper sets the tone for what is to follow. The question is audacious. It implies that with relatively little extra training, a school psychologist will be able to join the ranks of clinical neuropsychologists.

Toward the end of their paper, Crespi and

Cooke discussed the “newly emerging fledgling board, the American Board of School-Neuropsychology (ABSNP), an organization that offers certification to doctoral and non-doctoral practitioners.” Crespi and Cooke’s vision has the potential for widening the territory of the school psychologist who gathers some additional training, and narrowing the options of the neuropsychologist who has no training in school psychology. Such dually trained school psychologists would edge in front of school psychologists who do not have expertise in neuropsychology, thus, the alarm sounded by Pelletier et al.

There is an obvious answer to Crespi and Cooke’s question about what constitutes appropriate training for school psychologists who want to practice as neuropsychologists—become trained as a neuropsychologist, which is the general response of Pelletier et al. Of course, Crespi and Cooke are asking a rhetorical question. They have an agenda with regard to future options for individuals trained as school psychologists. The agenda did not escape Pelletier et al. Pelletier et al.

represent school psychologists who do not want to be forced to become neuropsychologists in order to be employed. The first line in their paper was restrained, and they respectfully acknowledged that there were “many important questions” raised by Crespi and Cooke. The second line in Pelletier et al. quotes Crespi and Cooke’s introductory question. The idea of school psychologists achieving validation as neuropsychologists with relatively little additional training is not something that they favor, to put it mildly. Although they write with respect and restraint, their passion sometimes gets the better of their scholarship (e.g., the stick-in-the-sand-box and the pin-the-tail-on-the-lesion statements).

The authors of the rejoinder to the Crespi and Cooke paper reflect diversity; Pelletier works as a school psychologist, Hiemenz as a pediatric neuropsychologist, and Shapiro as a private practitioner. Hiemenz and Shapiro also have ties to universities. These authors acknowledge the importance of some training in neuropsychology, but question the wisdom of endorsing a variety of programs that promise to produce a neuropsychologist in a limited time frame. They refer to the 1997 Houston Conference as setting standards with regard to the training of neuropsychologists. Unfortunately, the controversy over the legitimacy of this conference has faded, and

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the standard promoted by the few in attendance is being cited as a universally accepted standard, which is not accurate. (For a review of the controversy, see Reitan, Hom, Van De Voorde, Stanczak, and Wolfson, 2004.)

Crespi and Cooke and Pelletier et al. present two sides of the issue of establishing expertise in psychology. Crespi and Cooke represent a wave of ambitious professionals who are positioning themselves to take advantage of well-identified needs in relation to diagnosis and treatment. They present two complex cases in which there is a mixture of symptoms. In each case, diagnosis would be difficult; and therefore, treatment would be unclear. They present a compelling argument for the application of neuropsychology in the school setting or any setting in which a differential diagnosis must be made. The question is whether there is any setting in which a differential diagnosis is not required. J. Hom (2003b) expressed an opinion that is precisely on point:

“(T)he neuropsychologist must use a methodology that has been scientifically-validated on brain-impaired individuals, and can distinguish various brain conditions from each other as well as from normal variation. The methodology must be able to determine whether any dysfunction found is, in fact, the result of neurological conditions as opposed to non-neurological, psychological, or even factitious disorders.” (p. 827)

Hom’s target audience is forensic neuropsychologists, but his statements about scientifically-based methodology are not limited to the forensic setting; they apply to the field of neuropsychology as a whole. This brings me back to my two visions of the future of neuropsychology.

My dream vision is that the ranks of neuropsychologists using scientifically-based methodology will grow in all settings where differential diagnoses are required, freeing time and energy for treating patients, students, defendants, etc. The climate among experts will be collegial rather than adversarial. We will compete with each other in the same way that we compete when we play a game of chess or tennis. The purpose of competition will be to hone our skills and sharpen our wits. We will teach one another and our clientele will benefit. There will be a growing demand for a variety of services related to evaluations and treatment. Employment opportunities will increase, and professionals will be

able to gravitate to areas of interest.

Neuropsychology will be seen as a hard science, and in the forensic arena, we will not be easily manipulated by attorneys who pit us against one another in accordance with their agendas.

My nightmare vision is that neuropsychologists will be so focused on bickering about what constitutes acceptable credentials that we will neglect the work that goes into using a methodology that has been scientifically validated. Instead, we will rely on loosely related measures held together by theory rather than empirically established relationships. We will settle for the soft-science of opinion bolstered by the appearance of scientific rigor. As we dabble in the data of opinion and speculation, we will soar toward the realm of the astrologers and psychics. To avoid the appearance of kinship with the occult, we will try to align ourselves with the likes of engineers by analyzing our data using sophisticated statistics.

We may try to hide behind a veil of numbers, but others will see through it, and we will have little credibility. Engineers can devise impressive, complex algorithms, but in the end, they have to contend with the laws of nature. If their designs are not in harmony with natural law, the plane remains on the tarmac or the bridge collapses. Highfalutin formulas will not save the day. Psychologists are not held accountable by the unrelenting forces of nature. We can create reality by consensus, but the price for this slight of hand is to be sucked toward the palm readers. We have to be more disciplined than an engineer because we can get away with soft-science as long as there are enough of us who agree to go along in order to get along.

There are a variety of ways to become trained in the field of neuropsychology. Setting certain standards is required, but there is more than one way to gain the knowledge and experience necessary to be a qualified neuropsychologist. If we fail to follow the path of good science, we will more or less gradually reduce our employment opportunities, and we will become more competitive and less collegial.

Those who think my dream vision is impractical are wrong. I have lived this dream in a forensic setting, which is by definition adversarial. A defense attorney in a case in which the death penalty was being considered hired me. The prosecution hired their expert, a well-known neuropsychologist in Phoenix, Arizona. I administered the HRB and so did the other expert.

“We have to be more disciplined than an engineer because we can get away with soft-science as long as there are enough of us who agree to go along in order to get along.”

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“The purpose of this paper is to catch the attention of a few people who believe that an accurate diagnosis is fundamental to the practice of neuropsychology, and to remind them that methodology matters and that an empirically validated methodology is superior to a methodology that has not been or cannot be validated.”

We arrived at the same conclusion because we were looking at the same data even though they were gathered independently. We both concluded that the defendant was moderately impaired. What a rare powerful moment it was when we testified, one after the other. The attorneys were a little taken aback, and the judge was skeptical. After all, agreement by opposing experts does not happen every day. When all was said and done, the data prevailed, the attorneys agreed, and the death penalty was taken off the table.

In time, we will learn whether neuropsychology evolves into something as indispensable as engineering or whether it will remain firmly rooted in various schools of thought. Some school psychologists think it is worthwhile to study neuropsychology. By and large, school psychologists are on the front lines with regard to service. Neuropsychology has a great deal to offer, but school psychologists are afforded no special protections if they apply principles of neuropsychology to children in school. Regardless of the credentials they acquire, if they fail to follow empirically-validated methodology, they will find themselves cloaked in pseudoscience. If they settle for the appearance of science they will not be isolated, but they may find that they need a course in the meaning of astrological signs when they find themselves at a gathering of their extended professional family.

Epilogue

Two friends, one an engineer and one a neuropsychologist who is a Fielding Institute graduate and member of the Reitan Society, read this paper at my request and offered their opinions. The engineer reminded me of my purpose—to influence the few. As a clinical neuropsychologist, I am content to focus on the individual. My mother instilled in me that it is better to light one candle than curse the darkness. This allows me to live with the fact that I can make only a small difference in the world.

The purpose of this paper is to catch the attention of a few people who believe that an accurate diagnosis is fundamental to the practice of neuropsychology, and to remind them that methodology matters and that an empirically validated methodology is superior to a methodology that has not been or cannot be validated. If this paper influences a few people, it will have far reaching positive effects, and that is good enough for me.

My neuropsychologist friend suggested that I

might have given too much weight to the nightmare vision of neuropsychology. That is not my intent. Incorrect diagnoses, generic reports, or reports that just list problem areas with no integration of the parts into a whole are not harmless. Most of us in the field have experience with the suffering that accompanies inaccurate diagnoses.

The field of neuropsychology offers opportunities of all kinds. In private practice, one can carve out a small niche or have more ambitious aspirations that require a bigger organization. The underlying theme of my message is that there can be abundance in the field of neuropsychology, if we live up to the potential inherent in the discipline. Whether someone has a background in school psychology, clinical psychology, developmental psychology, etc., is not important. There is always room for practitioners who have adequate training and follow good methodology. As a matter of fact, such experts only enhance the field and increase the demand. In this case, it is reasonable to say: the more the merrier.

Please e-mail commentaries for this article to: Reddy@FDU.edu

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THE COMMENTARY SECTION

Below is a critique in response to several TSP commentaries from the 2005 Winter Issue (e.g., *Changing Procedures for Identifying Learning Disabilities: The Danger of Perpetuating Old Ideas* by J. Fletcher & D. Reschly, *Comprehensive Evaluation of Learning Disabilities: A Response to Intervention Perspective* by F. Gresham et al., *Changing Procedures for Identifying Learning Disabilities: The Danger of Poorly Supported Ideas* by K. Kavale et al.) and papers from the 2004 Winter Issue (i.e., *Specific Learning Disability Classification in the New Individual with Disabilities Education Act: The Danger of Good Ideas* by J. Hale et al.) and 2001 Fall Issue (i.e., *Re-examining the Rorschach Test in School Psychology Practice* by J. Yalof & P. Abraham).

DEJA VU ALL OVER AGAIN: The Current Controversy Over the Identification of Learning Disability

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The recently passed House and Senate bills reauthorizing the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEA) stated there need not be a discrepancy between ability and achievement for a learning disability (LD) to be established, but that LD may be determined by the child's response to intervention (RTI). Much confusion about how to define and measure RTI resulted, and heated debates were sparked in which traditional norm-referenced assessment is being challenged by those who promote curriculum-based measurement (CBM). The current controversy, problems of identifying LD, the demise of the discrepancy model and the failure of the government to provide adequate funding for its "No Child Left Behind" policy are discussed.

When I was working as a school psychologist some 50 years ago and received a referral from a teacher about a child who was having trouble learning, the very first thing I did was to visit the teacher to inquire about the problem. I wanted to know what the child was having trouble with. I wanted to know what the teacher had tried that did not work and most importantly, I wanted to know what had been done that had worked.

At that time I had never heard of Response to Intervention (RTI) and I certainly would not have predicted that there were going to be initials to describe what has always been good practice, as a "new" procedure. I was assessing the child to identify strengths and weaknesses. I was consulting with the teacher about what works for that child

and about what does not work for that child, and together we were going to develop an intervention to help the child progress to the next point in his or her academic development. But now, RTI has taken on a whole new meaning as it has become part of a controversy; a controversy about how we are going to identify learning disabilities. Further, it has become the center of a debate in which those who advocate curriculum based measurement are challenging the traditional psychoeducational assessment process and the question of neuropsychological assessment has entered into the debate as well (Fletcher & Reschly, 2005).

As the number of children classified as Learning Disabled has reached an alarmingly unprecedented high percentage of all children in Special Education, it seems an appropriate time to examine why there continue to be so many problems associated with knowing who the children are that we are going to call learning disabled. Although psychologists and educators had not achieved a consensus definition of what constituted a learning disability, until recently, the discrepancy between ability and achievement was the guiding principle in the identification of children with learning disabilities. We now find that the method is being challenged: first, because it has not proven to be effective; and second, because of the many psychometric methodological flaws accompanying the procedure (e.g., Aaron, 2002; Kavale, Kaufman, Naglieri, & Hale, 2005).

Psychologists and educators have not been able to agree on what a true discrepancy is, to say

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“Now that the Discrepancy-Achievement Model seems on the verge of being abandoned, at least in the minds of many psychologists, but not actually in the schools, I find myself smiling.”

nothing of the failure of many to account for simple statistical adjustments like regression to the mean, for example. Further, different states may have different definitions and guidelines for determining the discrepancy. It is not inconceivable, therefore, for a child to be labeled as learning disabled (LD) in New York and emotionally disabled (ED) in Pennsylvania; or to be labeled emotionally disabled (ED) in Nebraska and Mentally Retarded (MR) in California. The inadequacies of the Discrepancy Model have been well documented (Christensen, 1992; Detterman & Thompson, 1997).

Now that the Discrepancy-Achievement Model seems on the verge of being abandoned, at least in the minds of many psychologists, but not actually in the schools, I find myself smiling. I am smiling because none of this is really new and despite all the attention the controversy is receiving, it is likely that the problem will remain unresolved if we continue on the present course. And that is why I borrow from Yogi Berra and propose that it is “deja vu all over again.”

For those of you not familiar with the details of this controversy it would be helpful to become acquainted with a rather long glossary of terms. The number of acronyms, CBM, SLD, RTI, IDEA, et al. are overwhelming and one needs a guide in order to understand the issues. To start with, Curriculum-Based Measurement (CBM) focuses on evaluating student progress by directly assessing academic skills rather than by the use of norm-referenced testing. In contrast, traditional norm-based methods of evaluation focus on the standardized assessment of core cognitive skills that relate to learning and include evaluations of academic skills, discrete functions like memory, visual motor integration and coordination as well as social and emotional development. Neuropsychologists direct their attention to the biological bases of the learning problem. Response to Intervention (RTI) addresses the teaching method that works. SLD refers to a Specific Learning Disability and IDEA is an acronym for the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act.

The essence of what the House and Senate stated in reauthorizing bills of IDEA is that a local educational agency shall not be required to demonstrate a severe discrepancy between achievement and intellectual ability in order to determine if that child has a specific learning disability (SLD). In its stead, SLD may be determined by the child's response to scientific, research based intervention. There is nothing in the new legislature that recommends eliminating a

comprehensive evaluation, nor was there ever anything in previous versions of IDEA that required standardized testing for special education placement. Further, there is nothing in the present version that mandates an RTI model (Gresham et al., 2005). The result is that psychologists and educators are left with a very muddled understanding of how to implement the revised bills. There is not only confusion in establishing the methods for evaluating the child's response to intervention, but it is not clear about how to delineate what constitutes scientifically research based intervention. What is clear, however, is that the coals for heated debates between traditional norm referenced assessment and curriculum based methods which focus on direct assessment of teachable skills, were put in place. We are now witnessing a scramble for which camp will take center stage.

Regretfully, in trying to delineate the best procedures for identifying the child with a learning disability, psychologists and educators have failed to deal with basic misconceptions, both in the methodologies and the goals of the assessment process. Instead of addressing these critical issues, we find polarizing camps investing much time and energy to support what they imply are opposing points of view, when, in fact, each position has much to offer.

The difference between what I had been doing as a young school psychologist in the 1960's and what is taking place now is that good school psychology practice is being replaced with a new face to quantifiable data. CBM enthusiasts defy scores like IQ and GE (grade equivalents) derived from norm-referenced tests, yet, they are busy at work developing new ways to quantify their methods for evaluating the Response To Intervention (Feifer & Sudano, 2005). No matter what your point of view, in both cases we find ourselves dealing with numbers at the expense of looking at the whole child. We treat numbers as if they reflect true and accurate measures of attributes of the child, whether we are talking about the child's general ability, grade level in arithmetic, skill in reading, capacity for memory, etc. We do this even though we know there are errors in our measurement. We know that we are dealing only with probabilities and that we will inevitably overlook some children who really are disabled and need help, and we will identify some who do not. In the end, good practice requires that we do not bypass looking at the whole child. Two children may obtain the same low score on a reading test, for

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example, and may have completely different skills and needs. What we know for sure is that the child is experiencing problems in learning, and that is where the psychologist's job begins. To do this job, the psychologist needs to understand fully all aspects of what needs to be done to get the child from where he or she is at the present time to the next level of functioning. To accomplish this, the psychologist may need to draw from many different approaches.

An effective psychoeducational evaluation is one in which assessment is conceptualized as a comprehensive process whereby data from classroom observations, work samples, interviews with teachers and parents and psychometric instruments are integrated. Recommendations avoid labels, are written in language easily understood by parents and teachers and are directed at helping the child with his or her problem at school (Zach & Hazel, 2005). The goal of assessment is not to end up with a label and that is the second problem that is not being addressed in the present controversy. Labeling implies that all children who share the same label more or less require the same intervention. Levine (1994) should be applauded for his strenuous efforts to focus on where the child's problem is, rather than engaging in the arduous task of finding the label under which the child can be classified. The hours spent in labeling the child and the hours spent in finding the cause for the problem, often obscures what is significant. Where is the breakdown? How can we minimize the impact of the weakness and how can we enhance the strengths?

We proceed as if, once we have the label, we have solved the problem, when in fact nothing has taken place to help the child. When a child is identified by his or her teacher as having trouble learning, we should focus on how to go about helping the child with the problem. It really does not matter whether you advocate RTI, CBM or neurological and traditional assessments. You are still left with the problem. We spend so much time on the first phase of labeling that there is little time left for phase two, focusing on teaching the child. When the Individualized Educational Plan (IEP), was introduced in 1975, the goal was to meet each child's needs (Sattler, 2001). Unfortunately, too many of these children were being treated with a "one-size fits all" approach which failed to recognize the vast array of individual differences in the learning disabled population (Detterman & Thompson, 1997).

Not only has the labeling of children frequently occupied too much of the evaluation process, similar misgivings have been expressed about searching for etiology (Levine, 2001). With a growing trend toward identifying the neurological underpinnings of a learning problem, many hours may be spent in finding the cause of the problem at the expense of addressing and implementing the recommendations for education (Hale, Naglieri, Kaufman & Kavale, 2004). Having received my early training in neuropsychology with Ward Halstead at the University of Chicago, I am a strong supporter of the biological determinants of behavior. It may therefore seem a disloyalty to propose that the "why" is not always the most productive way to proceed in helping a child to learn. Yalof and Abraham (2001) presented a way to look at personality test data in terms of neurological processes, particularly as they relate to school failure, but there were many shortcomings in their method (Zach & Hazel, 2003). First, many school psychologists do not receive in-depth training in neuropsychology and second, the language of neuropsychology is not really appropriate for the schools. Is it not more meaningful for the teacher to know that the child has problems with spatial organization, for example, than to know that the child has right hemisphere deficits? Further, when dealing with child neuropsychology, we frequently make assumptions about the brain-behavior relationship. We tend to equate the failure of a skill to develop in the child with the loss of a skill in the adult as a result of trauma. For these reasons, the time spent on etiology and labeling may better be spent on the education of the child.

More debates and more workshops on what method to use are not what are needed. The official position of the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) on assessment clearly states that no single approach to assessment should be used and that school psychologists should consider all scientifically based approaches recognizing the uniqueness of each student and the referral question (Kavale et al., 2005).

There are those who view traditional evaluations as deterrents in formulating plans for teaching children with learning problems (Gresham, et.al., 2005). But to hitch one's wagon to RTI as a substitute is a mistake, because response to intervention is an essential part of a comprehensive psychoeducational evaluation. Psychologists, regardless of method, know how to conduct evaluations which can successfully describe the

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“The problem which no one seems to address is that, despite the lip service about teaching all children and leaving no child behind, Education has never enjoyed the kind of financial support it requires to accomplish the vast task it faces.”

child and further, to know what is needed to help the child become a more successful learner (Schrack et al., 2005). Where we and the schools fail is at the next step. The breakdown occurs because we are lacking the means for implementing the recommendations, to say nothing of the time needed to have conducted a thorough evaluation to begin with. In more affluent communities where schools are in a better position to provide more individual services and where parents are better able to supplement the school's efforts with private assessments and private remedial services, the child has a better chance for success.

Clearly, much of this problem can be related to funding. In the very many articles being written about the current upheaval surrounding the identification of learning disability, and in the numerous workshops being held, little has been said about the failure of the government to provide adequate funds to support their recommendations. Yet, it is this very shortcoming that is at the bottom of the extreme frustration the schools are experiencing. It is this very shortcoming which is providing a major impetus for psychologists to come up with new ways to assess children in the quickest, most expedient and inexpensive manner. Governments, local, state and federal, are eloquent in stating the need to help all children learn, but not so eloquent when it comes to funding.

At the School Psychology Futures Conference, held in 2002 at the University of Indiana, school psychologists had no difficulty understanding the problems in our schools and no difficulty in suggesting the direction, the needs and the goals for the future. Once again, it seemed like a revisiting of many past conferences in which psychologists had outlined their role in the education of our children. All American children deserve to experience some level of success in learning during their school years. The problem which no one seems to address is that, despite the lip service about teaching all children and leaving no child behind, Education has never enjoyed the kind of financial support it requires to accomplish the vast task it faces. Until it does, there is little hope for achieving the goals we have set for ourselves and the goals that are so eloquently spoken by our politicians. It may mean that we need to introduce new ways to assess children in the schools, but it is important to understand that this, in itself, will never do the job without the kind of funding needed to do it successfully.

There is no school or government agency I

know which does not promote the principle that the goal of education is to meet the needs of all children. But it turns out that we meet those needs only if the child fits into the system. If the child does not, then he must be labeled in order to receive the appropriate pedagogy he requires. In effect, we place the onus of responsibility squarely on the child's shoulders. We say there is something wrong with him or her and we can help him or her only if we can give him or her a label. We do not accept that he or she may respond better to a different teaching method, and that does not necessarily mean the child has a disability. Eliminating the label might be something to consider. Currently, many children may be given a label even though they may not meet the stated criteria, because it is the only way the child can receive special help. It is not clear what our government agencies and our schools mean when they say they meet the needs of all children. What is clear is that to accomplish this lofty goal requires significant funding. It should be noted that the State of Connecticut presently has filed a law suit against the Federal Government's position on "No Child Left Behind".

Our problem is not with our understanding of how to assess and teach children. Our efforts need to be directed toward governments in helping them appreciate that the goal of meeting the needs of all children is a serious one. It is not one which can be solved by rhetoric. Leave No Child Behind requires time, effort and money. It requires funding, not only directly for the schools, but for subsidizing the training of superior teachers. This is a powerfully huge and urgent task, the scope and enormity of which has long gone unrecognized.

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Footnote

1. The reauthorization bill is now known as: The Individual with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEIA).

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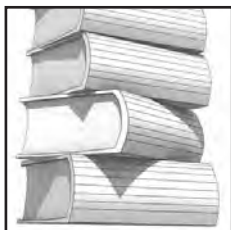
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EXECUTIVE
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Principles for Evaluation and Eligibility Determination for Specific Learning Disabilities: A Report of the Ad Hoc Committee of Division 16



“Our overriding goal was to create a position statement for the Division that was scientifically-based and informed by diverse points of view.”

These “principles” were produced at the request of the Executive Committee (EC) of Division 16 emanating from the need to respond to proposed IDEA implementation regulations. At the 2005 midwinter meeting the EC asked us to form a committee to create a Division 16 position statement that included Frank C. Worrell of the University of California –Berkeley, Randy Kamphaus of the University of Georgia (chair), and Pat Harrison from the University of Alabama. The committee was formed in response to the pleas of several members that the Division take a stand on learning disability assessment and diagnostic implementation guidelines that promise to impact school psychology practice.

We began our work by compiling comments from Division 16 members and conducting a review of the relevant literature. Our overriding goal was to create a position statement for the Division that was scientifically-based and informed by diverse points of view. We reasoned that if our stance was logically consistent with prior programmatic research that it would serve the membership well as a touchstone for a longer period of time. Our process began with a first draft prepared by Randy Kamphaus and revised by Drs. Harrison and Worrell. The revised document produced by our committee was then emailed to the EC for comment. Our timeline was tight for feedback, which made the responsiveness of the EC impressive.

We simultaneously revised the draft and obtained advice from the APA Office of Policy and Advocacy in the Schools led by Ron Palomares. After a conference call and some email exchange we settled on the notion that the document needed to be brief and focused in order for it to have a chance of becoming influential in the public comment venues planned to begin on June 17 in Nashville. We also decided to create a document that could be used for oral presentations by our members who planned to attend the public sessions and an accompanying written document that could be included in the public record. The document included here is the one created for the written record.

We received many thoughtful and insightful comments from EC members that triggered a

substantial round of revisions. The EC comments were insightful thanks to the diverse expertise present within this body including neuropsychology, cultural diversity, school and non-school based practice, and parental perspectives among many other areas of expertise. We, for example, took a stand against the routine use of a discrepancy model based on the convincing body of reading disability research showing problems with this practice. Such a stand is likely to engender opposing comment, which we used to clarify our intent during the revision process. We improved the prose, added codicils as suggested by various commentators, and strengthened the reference list. Our reference list is brief but we hope well chosen. In order to not overwhelm readers we chose references that were emblematic of a respected point of view or research program. The references by Stanovich and Stuebing assemble the wealth of findings in the reading disability research into coherent implications for diagnosis. We also tried to site the most influential researchers in LD assessment and diagnosis including the Shaywitzes, Fletcher, Velletino, etc. We attempted to represent the best thinking in measurement science in our document by including the Test Standards and the well-reasoned and widely cited measurement principles offered long ago by Lori Shepard. In other words, our reference list, like our principles, is focused as opposed to comprehensive.

We responded to EC comments with another draft, which triggered further comments and suggestions. These views were incorporated into a third draft that was approved by the EC on June 15, 2005.

We appreciate the hard work and responsiveness of all involved in the preparation of this work and also wish to compliment the members of the EC and the APA Office of Policy and Advocacy in the Schools for the insight, honesty, and respect that they displayed throughout this brief but intense process, and to Cecil Reynolds for his critical leadership role. Please contact us with any comments or concerns.

Randy Kamphaus
Frank C. Worrell
Pat Harrison

Principles for Evaluation and Eligibility Determination for Specific Learning Disabilities Scientific Guidance from the Division of School Psychology American Psychological Association (15 June, 2005)



As professional psychologists who conduct research and provide evaluation and intervention services for children with educational and mental health problems, we offer the following guidance regarding the practices utilized to evaluate and determine eligibility for children with learning disabilities. We choose to focus on the issues of identification and eligibility at this time. Simultaneously, we remain fully cognizant of the fact that identification, prevention, and intervention are interrelated issues that need to be addressed simultaneously in the development of implementation regulations. Our framework for providing this guidance is distinctly scientific to ensure that our recommendations are well supported by prior research and principles of measurement science and, therefore, will promote the most effective services possible for children.

We have six specific principles for creation of eligibility and determination requirements for children with suspected learning disabilities. We conclude by providing a reference list of relevant scientific citations in support of our principles.

1. Evaluation and eligibility determination requirements for children with learning disabilities should meet the Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing. These standards were developed jointly by the American Educational Research Association, American Psychological Association, and National Council on Measurement in Education

(AERA, APA, NCME, 1999), a group of associations of primarily doctoral level professionals with over 200,000 members providing scientific leadership in education, mental health, and related issues that affect schoolchildren. These standards emanate from important scientific and statistical principles related to assessment of human behavior and capabilities, and serve to inform professionals and the public that assessment practices must meet minimum standards for reliability and validity. In addition, adherence to these standards also ensures that newly developed assessment methods are of adequate reliability and validity for widespread use with children.

2. A learning disability represents a level of functional impairment in academic achievement that is significantly below average when compared to that of other students (Gordon, Lewandowski, & Keiser, 1999). Scientific findings spanning the last two decades clearly indicate that a learning disability should no longer be defined as relatively lower achievement in comparison to a child's other achievements or cognitive abilities (Siegel, 1990; Stanovich, 2005; Stuebing, Fletcher, LeDoux, Lyon, Shaywitz, & Shaywitz, 2002). While a consensus does not exist regarding the degree of functional impairment necessary to warrant identification of a learning disability, the goal of achieving a consensus should remain. We are also fully aware

Principles for Evaluation and Eligibility Determination for Specific Learning Disabilities Scientific Guidance from the Division of School Psychology American Psychological Association (15 June, 2005)

that the requirement for functional impairment may exclude some children currently deemed eligible to receive special education or related services. Due to this eventuality, we wish to reiterate the need for instruction to be adapted as appropriate to meet all children's individual learning needs, regardless of whether or not they are identified as a member of a special population such as learning disability.

3. Evaluation, identification, and eligibility regulations adopted by governmental or other bodies should result in accurate and consistent definition of the construct of learning disabilities. With accurate and consistent identification of the construct, scientific progress allows for the discovery of new etiologies and effective prevention and intervention efforts. Indeed, "In a research context, a conscientious effort to make a valid categorization is essential, if knowledge is to be advanced" (Shepard, 1989, p. 547). Furthermore, regardless of the debates about the proper definition of a learning disability, a commonality among virtually all definitions is that the condition, whether caused or exacerbated by environmental factors, is characterized by enduring academic deficits that are attributed to the child or adult and are not eliminated with mild interventions such as a change of classroom (Shepard, 1989). The science of learning disabilities has progressed but not satisfactorily so, due in part to a lack of progress regarding development of a consensus regarding construct identification and the related process of definition of research samples (Stanovich, 2005).

4. In determining whether a child has a learning disability, a comprehensive psychological and educational evaluation should be conducted in order to rule out alternative causes for functional impairments in academic achievement (Dombrowski, Kamphaus, & Reynolds, 2004; Shepard, 1989). Indeed, "If LD is an inexplicable inability to learn, an effective assessment strategy is to start with the evidence of inadequate learning and test for other explanations for the problem" (Shepard, 1989, p. 559). Prior to determination that a child has a learning disability, for example, mental retardation and emotional and behavior disorders known to adversely affect academic performance in school

should be ruled out as causal factors for poor achievement. In the case of mental retardation, for example, where pervasive deficits in intellectual abilities and adaptive behavior are present, the diagnosis of a learning disability would be inappropriate.

5. Governmental Regulations should support the establishment and strengthening of prevention and intervention services for children that are designed to mitigate the development of functional impairment in academic achievement. Scientific evidence has demonstrated that early intervention for children with reading deficits, for example, has resulted in improved reading performance for many children, although not all (Swanson, 1999; Vellutino, Scanlon, Sipay, Small, Pratt, & Chen, 1996). Research has further shown that learning disabilities diagnosis is more accurate in school districts that deliver comprehensive early intervention and prevention services (Shepard, Smith, & Vojir, 1983).
6. The Institute for Education Sciences should sponsor more scientific research dedicated to the systematic investigation of learning and social/emotional disabilities and their relationship to schooling. While considerable research is available for reading disabilities there are many fewer studies of mathematical disabilities and the effects of behavioral and emotional problems on academic achievement. In particular, well controlled longitudinal studies of the effectiveness of various prevention and intervention programs and diagnostic practices are needed to guide future policy development.

In summary, we think that these six recommendations provide a foundation for improving the academic achievement of children with learning disabilities, and their ability to meet No Child Left Behind and related academic achievement standards.

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Historical Moment In School Psychology: 60th Anniversary of the Founding of Division 16, APA

Thomas Fagan, Division 16, Historian, University of Memphis

“Membership in the division was small, probably less than 50 persons and limited to practicing psychologists working in or to school settings. Dues were only one dollar and there was no division assessment at the time.”

The following item was posted on various school psychology listservs just before Labor Day, 2005.

During its annual convention in Cleveland, Ohio on September 12, 1944, the APA approved a plan of reorganization that would merge the former APA with the American Association of Applied Psychologists (AAAP) and some other groups. The merger created the reorganized American Psychological Association with 19 Divisions, including Division 16, Division of School Psychologists. Temporary officers were appointed including Warren Coxe as temporary Chairman and Wilda Rosebrook as temporary Secretary-Treasurer.

During the transition year 1945-1946 the Division struggled to gather identity and membership. An effort to combine Divisions to total no more than 10 was unsuccessful. It included a recommendation that Division 16 merge with either the Division of Clinical or the Division of Educational Psychology, a move that would have returned practicing school psychologists to their nearly invisible status in the former AAAP. The movement was spearheaded by Edgar Doll (1889-1968) of Vineland Social Maturity Scale fame who, after working at Vineland and the Devereux schools, served as a consultant to the Bellingham Washington schools from 1953 until his death in 1968. At its annual convention held at Northwestern University (Evanston, IL) September 6-8, 1945, the APA gave official approval to its reorganization. Division 16 had indeed survived its first, albeit temporary, year as the first national-level organization for school psychologists.

Its first appointed officers were Morris Krugman (1898-1993) as President and Ethell Cornell (1892-1963) as Secretary-Treasurer. Krugman was chief psychologist for the Bureau of Child Guidance in the New York City schools, and Cornell was psychologist with the New York State Department of Education. Membership in the Division was small, probably less than 50 persons and limited to

practicing psychologists working in or to school settings. Dues were only one dollar and there was no Division assessment at the time. The Division's budget was less than \$200 and until 1950 the Division survived while running deficits. Governance in those early years was much simpler: an executive committee of president, secretary/treasurer, president-elect, past-president, and three at-large members; standing committees included the executive committee, program, membership, nominations and elections. Its first by-laws were not approved until the 1946 convention by the 20 members present at the Division 16 business meeting. To my knowledge, there was no newsletter until 1947 when membership had climbed to 72, a small number in comparison to other Divisions.

On this Labor Day, as you relax and enjoy friends and family, and gear up for the coming school year, take a moment to reflect on the fact that the three days after Labor Day will represent the 60th Anniversary of the original 19 Divisions of APA, including that for school psychologists. And now you know a little more of the story...

Obituary Listings 2005

Tom Fagan, Historian

As a member of the advisory board that recommends who, among recently deceased psychologists, should be recognized by an article in the American Psychologist, I receive listings of such persons several times during the year. The following names have appeared in the 2005 listings and were identified as members of Division 16. The listings only included name, date of degree, and division memberships. The date of death was not provided, but it is fair to assume it was sometime in 2004 or early 2005. As available, I have added information to the list based on personal information and recent and early APA Membership Directory information.

DEMING, JOHN ALBERT, DOB 9/28/21; PhD 1956 in Educ. Psy. from Ohio State U.; BS 1948, MS 1949 Kent State U.; ABPP in school psychology; Director of Student Services for Palm Beach County (FL) Board of Public Instruction 1956 until retirement in 1984; APA member since 1954.

HYMAN, IRWIN ABRAHAM, DOB 3/22/35, died 2/7/05; EdD 1964 in School Psychology, from Rutgers U.; ABPP in clinical and school psychology; On the Temple U. faculty for school psychology since 1968. ABPP in clinical psychology; Commemorative articles to appear in *American Psychologist* and in the Division 16 newsletter, *The School Psychologist*. APA member since 1964.

KETCHAM, WARREN ANDREW, DOB 6/28/09; PhD 1951 in Educ. Psy. from U. Michigan; BA 1942 MA 1947 U. Michigan; taught and worked as school psychologist in Michigan districts; On the U. Michigan educational psychology faculty 1953-1977 (including work as coordinator of psychological services to its university school), then Emeritus Professor and in private practice. APA member since 1952.

RAUTMAN, ARTHUR LOUIS, DOB 2/7/10; PhD 1938 from U. Wisconsin; BS 1934, MPh 1935 U. Wisconsin; ABPP in clinical; Worked in clinics and schools in Wisconsin and Iowa, then on faculty at Carleton College, U. Florida, and U. New Mexico; Retired in 1972; APA member since 1942.

SMITH, THOMAS WOOD, DOB 12/3/15; EdD 1956, U. Southern California; AB 1938, MA 1948 from USC. Director of Research & Pupil Services for Covina Valley Unified School District 1955-1977, then in private practice; APA member since 1951.

STOKES, ELIZABETH HENDON, DOB 6/5/22, died 12/11/04; EdD 1960 in Counseling & Guidance from North Texas State College; BS 1942, MA 1947 from Sam Houston State Teachers College, EdS Peabody College 1956; Served as social worker and teacher in Texas schools then on the faculty at Northwestern State College (LA) and then at Austin Peay State U. (Clarksville, TN) from 1960 until retiring in 1987. APA member since 1957.

YOUTZ, ADELLA CLARK, DOB 9/17/08; PhD 1937 from Yale U.; AB 1930 Oberlin College, MA 1933 U. Minnesota; On the faculty at Teachers College-Columbia U. (1946-1962) and then at Kean College of New Jersey 1962-1990 (then Emeritus Professor); Last address was in Lehanon, New Hampshire. APA member since 1934.



A Study of the Contributions of Lightner Witmer Award Recipients 1973-2003*

Thomas K. Fagan, Division 16 Historian, and Natasha Reeves, University of Memphis

Among the factors considered in evaluating the progress of a professional association is the manner in which it rewards not only its leadership and membership but also those making special contributions to the profession in general. Such progress usually occurs after an association has achieved a level of recognition and stability in the field. Founded in 1945, the professional development of the Division of School Psychology (hereafter referred to as the Division or Division 16) was considerable. During the period 1960-1972, the Division established standards for training, made numerous state-level connections, and had raised its credibility within the American Psychological Association (APA) by achieving participation in the American Board of Examiners in Professional Psychology (ABEPP, now ABSP), and in APA accreditation of professional psychology programs. Membership growth was substantial and the Division continued to be the primary national level entity in school psychology within the APA, despite the founding of the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) in 1969 (Fagan, 1996a). The time was right for the Division to grant national-level, annual awards.

Like other associations, the Division's recognitions were made by granting plaques and/or cash awards for specific contributions, usually on an annual basis, and carrying the name of a distinguished former member of the field, the association, or the type of contribution. The Division established and granted its first national award, the Distinguished Service Award, in 1970. In 1994 it was renamed the Jack Bardon Distinguished Service Award following Bardon's death in 1993. Discussion of the award and the recipients appear in Fagan (1996a).

The Lightner Witmer Award was the second national-level award established by the Division and was named for one of school psychology's earliest and most distinguished contributors. It was intended to recognize, on an annual basis, outstanding early contributions to the field of school psychology, not necessarily to the Division. Lightner Witmer (1867-1956) was arguably the first school and clinical psychologist in the United States and made numerous contributions to both fields (McReynolds, 1987, 1997). Witmer was well into his

retirement by the time of the school Division's founding, and was deceased at the time the naming of the award was considered. The award recognizes that Witmer shares an esteemed place in the history of school psychological services (Fagan, 1996b, Fagan & Wise, 2000).

Background of the Witmer Award

According to Hagin, (1972), Bartell (Bart) Cardon and Mary Alice White outlined proposals recommending the creation of the Witmer award during the presidential term of Rosa Hagin (1971-1972). It was formally considered by the Division leadership during the 1972 APA convention in Hawaii in a proposal presented by 1972-1973 Division President James Magary (Dyer, 1973). The Lightner Witmer Award was established in 1972 to recognize the contributions of an early career scholar in school psychology. A Division newsletter account of its founding stated:

Division 16 will present a periodic award recognizing the production of significant scholarly works within the broad professional interest domain of the school psychologist.

The award has as its primary purpose the encouragement and fostering of sound theoretical and experimental activity within the school psychology community. The assumption is made that it is most productive to reward such scholarly activity early in the professional development of psychologists.

A scholarly work must meet the following criteria to be considered for the award:

- 1) The author, or senior author in the case of multiple authorship, of the work must be a Fellow, Member, Associate, or Student Affiliate of Division 16.
- 2) The work may be, but not necessarily, a thesis or dissertation.
- 3) The contribution must be that of an individual who is not more than 35 years of age and/or has received the doctorate within five years of the deadline date for submission. The requirement applies to the senior author in the case of multiple authorship.
- 4) The work is to have been completed within 18 months of the deadline for submission.

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are to be submitted no later than the first day of January in any given year.

The recipient will receive an appropriately worded certificate and attendant recognition and publicity. No cash award will be made.

For further information contact Dr. Bart Cardon, Graduate School of Education, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA. (The Lightner Witmer Award, 1972, pp. 6-7)

Bartell Cardon was the Division Secretary. The award was first granted to James Ysseldyke during the 1973 APA Annual Convention in Montreal. A 1971 graduate of the Ph.D. program in school psychology at the University of Illinois, Ysseldyke was at the time of the award an Assistant Professor at Pennsylvania State University. The award recognized his "research findings in the field of diagnostic prescriptive teaching" (McClain, 1973, p. 1). The brief newsletter account includes a small photo of Ysseldyke receiving the award from Cardon and Magary at the LeChateau Champlain Hotel.

In contrast to the original criteria, the Divisions' Policy and Procedures Manual for the Lightner Witmer Award Committee now states:

To be eligible for nomination, a person must be within seven years of receiving their educational specialist or doctoral degree as of September 1 of the year the award is given and must also be a Fellow, Member, Associate, or Student Affiliate of Division 16 of the American Psychological Association. A person does not need to have a doctoral degree to be eligible. In addition, a person may be self-nominated or be nominated by someone else. (See Enclosure 2 of Division 16 By-Laws at www.indiana.edu/~div16)

In addition to removing the age limit of 35, these criteria are substantially different from the original. These include the number of years since receiving the degree, the removal of the doctoral degree requirement, and as described below, the expectation of continuing scholarship rather than a single scholarly work. Whereas a dissertation might be sufficient evidence in the early years, it is worth noting that none of the Division's Outstanding Dissertation Award recipients (originating in 1993) has received the Witmer Award. In addition, current recipients are asked to prepare an address to be presented at the APA annual convention, submit a manuscript based on that address to the Division newsletter, and serve on a committee to select subsequent award winners. Persons may be nominated by anyone including the candidate, and nomination materials include a vita, 3-5 letters of

support, reprints, and other evidence of scholarship. The changes appear to have been made in 1980 (Jackson, 1980). According to the Division's by-laws, the award is coordinated by The Lightner Witmer Award Committee, a standing committee within the responsibility of the Executive Committee's Vice Present for Education, Training and Scientific Affairs. The Policy and Procedures Manual for the Lightner Witmer Award Committee states that the award

... will be given for scholarly activity and contributions that have significantly nourished school psychology as a discipline and profession. This will include systematic and imaginative use of psychological theory and research in furthering the development of professional practice, or unusual scientific contributions and seminal studies of important research questions that bear on the quality of school psychology training and/or practice. In addition, there should be exceptional potential and promise to contribute knowledge and professional insights that are of uncommon and extraordinary quality. (See Enclosure 2 of Division 16 By-Laws at www.indiana.edu/~div16)

Although intended to be an annual award, there have been years in which none was granted (1975, 1996, 2001); and in several years there have been two recipients (1981, 1987, 1988, 1989, 1990, 1999, 2003). The multiple awards may reflect the growth of doctoral programs and doctoral representation in school psychology over the past 30 years, and subsequent research productivity of the graduates.

No cash award is included, but the recipient receives a certificate from the Division and publicity through its newsletter. However, according to Beeman Phillips, during his editorship of the *Journal of School Psychology* (1972-1980) and his tenure chairing the Witmer Award Committee, he "tightened up the criteria, standardized the procedures, ... and convinced the *Journal of School Psychology* Board of Directors to offer a \$100 award to the recipient each year." This was discontinued when Phillips left the editorship (Phillips, 1984), but the current manual indicates that the Division may want to consider a cash award.

Decisions in many years must have been difficult. For example, in 1980 Cecil Reynolds was chosen from among six nominees (Harper, 1980), all of whom had significant early career contributions, and distinguished careers thereafter. However, only one of those other five was later chosen for the

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A Study of the Contributions of Lightner Witmer Award Recipients 1973-2003*

Table 1
Division of
School Psychology
Lightner Witmer Award
Recipients 1973-2003

1973	James Ysseldyke
1974	Ellen C. Bien
1975	NO AWARD
1976	Judith L. Alpert
1977	Thomas R. Kratochwill
1978	Emanuel J. Mason
1979	Raymond S. Dean
1980	Cecil R. Reynolds
1981	Terry B. Gutkin & Frederic J. Medway
1982	Frank Gresham
1983	George W. Hynd
1984	Stephen Elliott
1985	Cathy F. Telzrow
1986	Joe Witt
1987	Jack Kramer & Edward Shapiro
1988	Maribeth Gettinger & Timothy Keith
1989	Janet Graden & Howard Knoff
1990	Brian Martens & Kevin Stark
1991	William Erchul
1992	Sandra Christenson
1993	Susan Sheridan
1994	Gregg Macmann
1995	Christopher Skinner
1996	NO AWARD
1997	Dawn Flanagan
1998	T. Steuart Watson
1999	John Hintze & Cynthia Riccio
2000	George Noell
2001	NO AWARD
2002	Tanya Eckert
2003	Melissa Bray & Shane Jimerson

Witmer Award. The recipients from 1973-2003 appear in Table 1. Readers will easily recognize most of the persons listed. Of historical interest, 24 of the 35 recipients from 1973-2003 were male (69%) and 11 female (31%). The female representation seems to have increased in recent years, following a distinct upward pattern of female representation in the profession. In 14 of the first 15 years in which

the award was granted, the ratio of males to females was 13:3. In the subsequent 14 of 16 years in which the award was granted the ratio was 11:8. Although persons holding nondoctoral degrees are eligible for the award, to our knowledge there have been no nondoctoral recipients.

Purposes and Significance of the Study

We initiated this study around the time of the 30th anniversary of the first granting of the Witmer Award. It was a convenient time to survey recipients in order to provide information on their historical record, and to recognize the array and extent of their contributions. The intent of this study was to gather information on the contributions of the recipients and their personal reflections on the award and their careers. We were also interested in the extent to which persons rewarded for their early contributions continued to make significant contributions beyond the award. Thus, we describe the extent of the recipients' collective contributions over the 30 year history of the award. In only a few instances are the specific contributions of recipients mentioned by name. We believe the results speak for themselves and we have not attempted to compare one recipient with another; nor to suggest that the Witmer recipients have contributed more than their colleagues who have not received the award. Although comparative analyses are intentionally avoided, the

information clarifies the importance of the Witmer Award and makes a case for the ongoing contributions of recipients and the success of the selection process.

Procedures of Data Collection

In fall 2003, a list of Witmer Award recipients was developed (Table 1) and each was contacted either by electronic or regular mail and asked to provide a comprehensive career vita and to indicate a willingness to later complete a brief questionnaire. The process of contacting recipients and gathering the information included at least three follow-up attempts, and was continued until February, 2005. Two recipients were unable to be located, one failed to submit information, and 32 of the 35 recipients (91%) provided the requested information. A summary sheet for each recipient was developed for the categories of publications, awards received, offices held, presentations, and grants including federal, university and other grants. Each category included all relevant items in the vita for which specific information was provided (e.g., publication date, grant amount). In some instances a recipient's vita entries were not specific and he/she was omitted from that category. We attempted to be as inclusive as possible and no attempt was made to evaluate the entries. Thus the publications category includes all items listed as books, chapters, journal and newsletters articles, and special reports. Grants could include federal, state, local government and academic institution awards. Presentations could include international, national, state and regional, local and university contributions. Awards could include national, state, local, and institutional recognitions as well as Who's Who listings, and recognition certificates. Offices could include international, national, state, or local offices but not committee chair or member activities. Contributions were tallied separately for the time period up to the year of receiving the award, and for contributions following, including the year of the award. Following the data collection and analysis from the recipients' vitas, a brief questionnaire was sent to all who had responded. The questionnaire requested more personal information and several of the item responses are summarized in Table 5. During the final phase of preparing the manuscript, all participants were contacted by email and asked to comment on their being personally identified in Table 4 and the possibility of their being identified with the specific contributions they considered most significant or of which they were most proud. The concerns of some who responded led us to create Table 4 without specifying each recipient's numbers and averages. Only a few participants were concerned about having their most significant

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A Study of the Contributions of Lightner Witmer Award Recipients 1973-2003*

contributions identified and they have been omitted from mention in the text.

Results

Table 2 indicates the overall contributions of Witmer Award recipients across the study period 1973-2003. The aggregate numbers in each category are impressive. Of particular interest are the more than 3,000 publications and presentations, and the more than 62 million dollars in grants. The number of awards includes the fact that 24 of the 35 (69%) recipients are listed as APA Fellows on the Division's website. We believe that more than 24 have received Fellow status but are no longer on the website, perhaps because they are no longer APA members. Many Witmer recipients have contributed to the publication of commercial products, including scales of ability, achievement, social skills, and neuropsychology. Although comparative data are lacking, we believe that even the bottom range score for publications (N=13) would compare favorably with the publishing records of American psychologists in general. Despite the fact that totals may be influenced by the contributions of the earlier recipients, the range scores indicate activity in all areas for all 32 respondents. To reduce somewhat that impact we removed the data for the most recent recipients (since 1998). Presenting data for the 26 respondents who were recipients up to 1998 (Table 3) reveals the impact of career longevity and the magnitude of contributions under both analyses. Table 4 indicates the average yearly publication rate for the same participating recipients (1973-1998) before they received the Witmer Award and after, including the year of the award. Following receipt of the award, on average the number of publications per year more than doubled for these recipients (from 3.78 to 7.81). The overall career total (pre-and post-award) of more than 6 publications per year is

very impressive. We have included a table emphasizing publication rates because publications are a commonly used benchmark for career progress, especially in academic settings, which is the setting of almost every recipient (See Table 5). The range of publications on average per year before the award was 1.14 to 11.67, while after the award it was 0.93 to 15.54 per year. Only two recipients had a lower average per year publication rate following the award.

Another analysis of the publication data revealed that for three recipient groups (1973-1982, 1983-1992, and 1993-1998) the average per year publication rates, before the award, following the award, and for career total did not differ significantly. The groups' averages (pre/post/total) were 4.11/4.97/8.03 (N=9), 3.52/6.17/5.13 (N=12), and 4.48/11.76/8.28 (N=4), respectively. Each group published at a higher rate following receipt of the award, supporting the purpose of the award to recognize early scholarship and promote continued contributions.

The Witmer recipients have also made significant service contributions. Although all have held some state or national association positions, only two (Alpert and Reynolds) have served as Division 16 president, one as secretary (Christenson), one as treasurer (Alpert), and one (Knoff) as NASP president. Many have served in other Division positions. It is noteworthy that six of the 13 (46%) Senior Scientist Award recipients (the award originated in 1993) are former Witmer Award recipients (Kratochwill, Gutkin, Reynolds, Hynd, Gresham, and Keith), and one a Distinguished Service Award recipient (Alpert). The validity of the selection process is further noted in those who have served as school psychology editors for the Division and NASP journals: 3 out of 4 (75%) of the editors of *School Psychology Quarterly*

Table 2.**Overall Contributions of Lightner Witmer Award Recipients 1973-2003***

Category	N	Total	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Publications	31	3,575	13 – 373	115.32	98.39
Awards	32	424	1 – 111	13.25	19.46
Offices Held	16	58	1 – 11	3.63	2.70
Presentations	30	3,245	9 – 420	108.17	98.00
Grant Totals	25	62,592,568	6,969 – 13,148,799	2,503,702.70	3,660,424.39
Federal Grants	14	45,675,742	199,999 – 13,075,450	3,262,553.00	3,987,420.75
University Grants	17	1,748,560.71	500 – 1,256,000	102,856.51	299,668.94
Other Grants	22	15,108,265.29	17,564 – 5,093,856	686,739.33	1,249,369.98

*Based on the responses of 32 of the 35 award recipients

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A Study of the Contributions of Lightner Witmer Award Recipients 1973-2003***Table 3.**
Overall Contributions of Lightner Witmer Award Recipients 1973-1998*

Category	N	Total	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Publications	25	3,374	13 - 373	134.96	100.02
Awards	26	405	2 - 111	15.58	20.93
Offices Held	14	56	1 - 11	4.00	2.69
Presentations	24	3,043	12 - 420	126.79	100.88
Grant Totals	20	61,635,575.20	6,969 - 13,148,799	3,081,778.80	3,893,590.00
Federal Grants	14	45,675,742	199,999 - 13,075,450	3,262,553	3,987,420.75
University Grants	14	1,625,305	500 - 1,256,000	116,093.21	329,994.33
Other Grants	18	14,274,528.20	17,564 - 5,093,856	793,029.34	1,362,472.98

*Based on the responses of 26 of the 35 Award Recipients

(Kratochwill, Witt, Gutkin), 4 out of 8 (50%) of the *School Psychology Review* (Hynd, Elliott, Shapiro, Sheridan). Many have served in other capacities on school psychology journal editorial boards.

Table 5 provides a summary of some of the responses to the brief questionnaire sent to all Witmer Award recipients. Of the 31 respondents, all but one was in an academic position at the time of the award and also in 2003. Only one full-time practitioner has received the award (Telzrow) and she went on to pursue an academic career several years later. Although many practitioners pursue research, these results reinforce the notion that academic positions more often encourage and reward research efforts, and that academic environments may be more likely to produce research results that draw the attention of the award committee and/or those submitting nominations. The data are more skewed in the direction of academics than the background data for the Division's leadership and its general membership. One might also attribute the results, in part, to the makeup of the committee which includes previous

Witmer Award recipients. Nevertheless, the data indicate that Witmer Award recipients not only enter academic positions early in their careers but remain in them throughout their careers. Table 5 also indicates that at the time of the survey, behavioral, cognitive, and ecological orientations were most often mentioned in regard to recipient's assessment and intervention orientations.

Questionnaire responses also provide examples of what recipients considered the career contribution of which he/she is most proud or considered most significant. For example, Jim Ysseldyke cited his assessment text with John Salvia and his work on the two editions of *Blueprint for Training and Practice*; Ray Dean cited the Dean-Woodcock Neuropsychology Battery; Brian Martens cited his appointment to the Board of Directors of the Society for the Experimental Analysis of Behavior; Judith Alpert and William Erchul cited their work in consultation; Sandra Christenson cited her work on systems-developmental perspectives on children's learning and development; Susan Sheridan cited her editorship of *School Psychology Review*

Table 4
Publication Averages of Witmer Award Recipients 1973-1998

Average Publications Per Year Before Award					
N	Total Years	Total Publications	Range	Ave. Per Year	Standard Deviation
25	181	684	4 - 77	3.78	15.90
Average Publications Per Year After Award (up to 2003)					
N	Total Years	Total Publications	Range	Ave. Per Year	Standard Deviation
25	432	3,374	13 - 373	7.81	100.02
Average Publications Per Year For Career (up to 2003)					
N	Total Years	Total Publications	Range	Ave. Per Year	Standard Deviation
25	613	4058	57 - 392	6.62	96.67

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A Study of the Contributions of Lightner Witmer Award Recipients 1973-2003***Table 5.**
Personal Questionnaire Results

Year & Name	Position at Award	Position Now	Assessment Orientation	Intervention Orientation
1973 James Ysseldyke	Trainer	Trainer	Data-Driven Decision Making	Data-Driven Decision Making
1974 Judith Alpert	Trainer	Trainer	Psychodynamic	Psychodynamic
1975 Thomas Kratochwill	Trainer/Practicing in Public Schools	Trainer	Cognitive Behavioral/Ecological	Cognitive Behavioral/Ecological
1978 Emanuel Mason	Trainer	Trainer	Social-Cognitive side of Cognitive-Developmental	Organizational, Social-Cognitive
1979 Raymond Dean	Trainer	Trainer	Neuropsychological	Cognitive Behavioral
1980 Cecil Reynolds	Trainer	Trainer	Science-based and actuarial	Science-based and actuarial
1981 Terry Gutkin	Trainer	Trainer	Ecological	Ecological
1981 Frederic Medway	Trainer	Trainer	Ecological	Systematic
1982 Frank Gresham	Trainer	Trainer	Behavioral	Behavioral
1983 George Hynd	Trainer	Trainer	Neuropsychological	Behavioral
1984 Stephen Elliott	Trainer	Trainer	Social-Behavioral	Social-Behavioral
1985 Cathy Telzrow	Practicing in Public Schools	Trainer	Bio-Behavioral incorporating ecological, biological, & developmental	Behavioral
1986 Joseph Witt	Trainer	Trainer	Empirical	Empirical
1987 Edward Shapiro	Trainer	Trainer	Behavioral, Curriculum-based, & Ecological	Behavioral, Cognitive-Behavioral, & Ecological
1988 Timothy Keith	Trainer	Trainer	Eclectic	Eclectic/School Learning
1988 Maribeth Gettinger	Trainer	Trainer	Collaborative, Team-based, Problem-Solving Approach	Collaborative, Team-based, Problem-Solving Approach
1989 Janet Graden	Trainer	Trainer	Ecological/Behavioral	Ecological/Behavioral
1989 Howard Knoff	Trainer	Working at State Dept. of Education	Behavioral/Ecological/Social Learning Theory-oriented	Behavioral/Ecological/Social Learning Theory-oriented
1990 Brian Martens	Trainer	Trainer	Empirical/Behavioral	Behavioral
1990 Kevin Stark	Trainer	Trainer	Behavioral	Cognitive Behavioral
1991 William Erchul	Trainer	Trainer	Eco-behavioral	Eco-behavioral
1992 Sandra Christenson	Trainer	Trainer	Systems-Developmental Theory	Systems-Developmental & Cognitive Behavioral Theories
1993 Susan Sheridan	Trainer	Trainer	Behavioral	Ecological-Behavioral
1995 Christopher Skinner	Trainer	Trainer	Behavioral	Behavioral
1997 Dawn Flanagan	Trainer	Trainer	Cognitive-Behavioral	Cognitive-Behavioral
1998 T. Stuart Watson	Trainer	Trainer	Behavioral	Behavioral
1999 Cynthia Riccio	Trainer	Trainer	Neuropsychological	Cognitive Behavioral
1999 John Hintze	Trainer	Trainer	Ecological	Pragmatic
2000 George Noell	Trainer	Trainer	Behavioral	Behavioral
2002 Tanya Eckert	Trainer	Trainer	Behavioral & Curriculum-Based	Cognitive-Behavioral
2003 Melissa Bray	Trainer	Trainer	Behavioral	Cognitive Behavioral
2003 Shane Jimerson	Trainer	Trainer	Transactional-Ecological Development	Transactional-Ecological Development

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A Study of the Contributions of Lightner Witmer Award Recipients 1973-2003*

and recognition as School Psychologist of the Year from the Utah Association of School Psychologists; Dawn Flanagan cited her work on the CHC Cross-Battery Assessment and Interpretation; Cecil Reynolds cited his work on the BASC; and Terry Gutkin his editorship of School Psychology Quarterly and the Division's Senior Scientist Award. Many cited among their most outstanding contributions the students with whom they worked and graduated over their careers, including Ed' Shapiro's mentoring of three Witmer Award recipients.

Discussion

The amount and complexity of information gathered on the Witmer recipients are difficult to summarize. Nevertheless, the results speak for themselves in terms of the overall strength of the contributions throughout the history of the Witmer Award. The almost complete lack of practitioner participation in the award is noticeable, although not surprising given the criteria and supports provided by academic settings. Perhaps serving as America's first school psychologist, even if not by title, Witmer was an academician with outstanding early career accomplishments. However, he spent considerable time not only training practitioners but also in the delivery of services. The Division might reconsider the criteria for the Witmer award in order to encourage greater practitioner participation, or consider having two annual Witmer Awards recognizing an outstanding academic and an outstanding practitioner, or a separate practitioner award not titled after Witmer.

The authors are also struck by the limited exposure the recipients get to the Division's general membership. Although the recipient may be asked to make a presentation at the next APA convention

and submit a manuscript to the Division newsletter based on that presentation, more recognition could be granted at the time of receiving the award. Most Division members will not be present to hear the convention address and its publication in the newsletter will be more than a year after the award was received. Often the event is mentioned very briefly in the newsletter following the annual convention Division business meeting at which the award was granted. In recent years little has been mentioned beyond a small convention photo and caption. A larger photo with a description of the person's background and contributions would serve to enhance the significance of the award. The announcement and perhaps the subsequent address could also be submitted to the NASP Communique and to the recipient's state association and employment setting.

Given the gender ratio of students entering the field in the recent past and probable future, we can anticipate that women will continue to be well represented among award recipients. It also seems likely that persons holding the doctoral degree will continue to be the award recipients and that nondoctoral recipients will be unlikely nominees. The age data in Table 6 reveal that on average recipients have been 34 years of age with little variation across each decade. The youngest recipient was 28yrs. and 6 mos., and the oldest was 46 years. The youngest group appears to have been in the first decade (1973-1982) and the three youngest recipients ever chosen were in the first six years. The most frequent ages of recipients were 34 and 35 (7 at each age), representing 44% of the participants. The age data support the wisdom of removing the 35 year age limit in the original Witmer Award criteria. Had the age limit been maintained, six of the 32 (19%) participating recipients would not

Table 6.
Age at Time of Receiving the Witmer Award (Years and Months)

N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
32	28-06	46-00	34-06	3-08
Ages of 1973 – 1982 Award Recipients				
N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
9	28-06	35-00	31-11	4-04
Ages of 1983 – 1992 Award Recipients				
N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
13	30-10	46-00	35-05	4-08
Ages of 1993 – 2003 Award Recipients				
N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
10	33-01	39-03	35-09	3-03

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A Study of the Contributions of Lightner Witmer Award Recipients 1973-2003*

have qualified.

Overall, there is no doubt that the legacy of the Lightner Witmer Award is one of consistently selecting persons whom have made early contributions to the field, and gone on to provide important contributions throughout their careers. To the extent we can characterize the typical Lightner Witmer Award recipient over the period 1973-2003, the person was male, in his mid-thirties, had a doctoral degree, held an academic position at the time of the award and thereafter, and had a continuing record of scholarship well beyond receipt of the award, including publications, association offices, additional awards, presentations and publications, and grant sponsored research. We expect this characterization to continue over the next 30 years with the exception that most recipients will be female.

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*The authors express their appreciation to Shane Jimerson and Cathy Telzrow for their reviews of the manuscript.

Awards Announcements

2005 Senior Scientist Award – Dr. Nadine Lambert

Nadine Lambert's contributions to the science of school psychology are numerous and diverse. While most widely recognized for her distinguished contributions to research on the applications of psychological measurement to the assessment of children and to the study of life histories of children with attention deficit disorder, her interests and influence have extended to nearly all aspects of developmental psychopathology as related to those in learning environments. For more than four decades, she has published well-executed research on a variety of topics related to assessment and the assessment process, consultee-centered consultation, and to the identification of and outcomes for children having difficulty learning and adjusting to school. Her work drove the adoption of learner-centered principles of practice by the American Psychological Association some ten years ago. Her pioneering research on children with educational handicaps and mental retardation has led to the development of a highly useful series of tests and measures widely used by school psychologists. Her writings on the practice of school psychology and the school psychologist as a scientist-practitioner have led her to be considered a giant in the field. Although influential at the national and international level in the discipline, it has been noted in the *American Psychologist* that, "In many ways, the history of school psychology in California reflects Nadine Lambert's professional and scientific career." She possesses a rare combination of intelligence, clarity of thought, flexibility, and creativity. Her work has indelibly benefited psychological science and school psychology practice in particular and represents an outstanding, sustained, positive influence on the underlying science of school psychology. She also was the recipient of the 1980 Jack Bardon Distinguished Service Award and served as the Chair of APA's Board of Professional Affairs.

2005 Jack Bardon Distinguished Service Award – Drs. Thomas Kratochwill and Cindy Carlson

Thomas Kratochwill has an exemplary record of service to school psychology. His extensive work has focused on assessment, consultation and therapeutic interventions for children, and his texts on child psychotherapy represent the work of one of the few school psychologists providing professional resources in this important practice area. His current work centers on a systematic approach to establishing protocols for empirically-supported interventions, an excellent example of Tom's long-standing efforts to bring research to practice in a scientific yet practical form. He has augmented his research program with service activities at the state and national levels. He has been actively involved in Wisconsin's Early and Ongoing Collaboration and Assistance Program. He has been President of the Society for the Study of School Psychology which supports the work of school psychology researchers adding to the evidence base of practice, and is Chair of the Evidence-Based Interventions Task Force of Division 16, which liaisons with other child divisions in documenting best practice work with children. He also is actively involved in directing his nationally renowned training program at the University of Wisconsin-Madison and has mentored several prominent persons into the field. Tom's major contributions to the administration of psychological services to children, policies leading to sound practice in school psychology, research contributing to more effective practice, and development of a training program exhibit a special talent for nourishing and serving the profession in a way few others have achieved. Of special note, Tom is the first in School Psychology history to receive the Lightner Witmer (1977), Senior Scientist (1995), and Jack Bardon Service Awards. Also with Karen Stoiber, he was the recipient of the 2001 and 2003 Division 16 Fellows Article of the Year Award in *School Psychology Quarterly*.

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Award Announcements

Cindy Carlson has a long and distinguished record of contributing to the service aspects of school psychology. Her work focusing on family-school relationships has brought critical family issues to the forefront of our profession. She has published numerous studies, as well as developed innovative course work, in the field of family practice and intervention. Always making time for students, she has recently won the Outstanding Graduate Advisor Award at the University of Texas – Austin. She has also continually served the school psychology community through involvement in professional organization work, such as the Evidence-Based Intervention Task Force that has articulated practice based on the science of psychology. She has also provided significant inservice training in order to share her extensive knowledge and been instrumental in development and implementation of policy related to school psychology. She has served in various capacities of Division 16 of APA, including President, and currently serves as Chair of the APA Board of Educational Affairs, an important role within the larger APA. She also is the President Elect for Division 43 (Family Psychology). She has represented school psychology in APA's Coalition for Psychology in Schools and Education and in Committee on Accreditation activities. She was the recipient of the 1994 Division 16 Fellows Article of the Year Award for *School Psychology Quarterly*. Her ability to advocate for what is important with the skills of a polished diplomat is truly remarkable. Her exemplary service record truly establishes her as an ambassador of school psychology.

2005 Lightner Witmer Award – Dr. James DiPerna

James DiPerna's research program, including numerous professional publications, focuses on the prevention of school difficulty through the identification and measurement of skills contributing to students' academic competence. This systematic endeavor has led him to develop the *Academic Competence Evaluation Scales (ACES)* with his mentor, Dr. Steve Elliott, and coauthor the *Academic Intervention Monitoring System Guidebook*. Through the ACES, academic enablers, or nonacademic skills such as motivation and interpersonal skills that contribute to academic success, can be assessed and targeted for intervention. He completed his Ph.D. at the University of Wisconsin-Madison and is now continuing his work at the Penn State University.



Dr. Nadine Lambert receives the **2005 Senior Scientist Award** from Cecil Reynolds, Division 16 President (2004-2005)



Drs. Thomas Kratochwill and Cindy Carlson receive the **2005 Jack Bardon Distinguished Service Award** from Cecil Reynolds.



Dr. James DiPerna receives the **2005 Lightner Witmer Award** from Cecil Reynolds.

2004 Outstanding Dissertation Award – Dr. Elisa Steele Shernoff

Elisa Steele Shernoff's dissertation, entitled *Transporting an Evidence-based Classroom Management Program for Preschoolers with Disruptive Behavior Problems to a School: An Analysis of Implementation, Outcomes, and Contextual Variables*, involved the implementation and evaluation of the Incredible Years Classroom Management Program (originally developed by Carolyn Webster-Stratton) in a classroom setting. She completed her Ph.D. at the University of Wisconsin-Madison with her academic advisor, Thomas Kratochwill.

American Psychological Foundation

PROPOSAL GUIDELINES FOR THE Elizabeth Munsterberg Koppitz Fellowship Fund

Supporting Graduate Studies in Areas Involving the Psychology of the Child

Background:

The Elizabeth Munsterberg Koppitz Fellowship Fund was established to support graduate studies in "child psychology" of promising students. The Fund is administered by the Board of Trustees of the American Psychological Foundation (APF) for "the advancement of knowledge and learning in the field of child psychology." Up to three students will be awarded the Koppitz Fellowship in 2006.

Goals:

- Nurturance of excellent scholars in the broad area of the psychology of the child (e.g., developmental, child-clinical, pediatric, school psychology, educational psychology, and developmental psychopathology).
- Support for scholarly work that contributes to the advancement of knowledge and learning in the psychology of the child.

Amount:

\$20,000 stipend plus travel funds to attend the APA pre-conference workshop for Elizabeth Munsterberg Koppitz Graduate Fellows at the APA Convention, and other relevant conferences (e.g., SRCD), as funds allow. The home institution of the selected Koppitz Graduate Fellows must provide a tuition waiver. Institutions may nominate only one applicant in any one year (nominees from separate departments or programs within the same university will not be accepted). Support will be from September 1 to August 31 each year. Results and/or progress of the research should be presented the following year for the committee's review for possible presentation at the Koppitz pre-convention workshop.

Runner-up applicants will be awarded travel stipends to attend the APA pre-conference workshop at the APA Convention and other conferences in child psychology as funds allow. Travel stipends may not be used for any other purpose.

Timeline:

- Submit electronic application and recommendation letters to APF by November 15, 2005. All materials should be sent to foundation@apa.org.
- Awards announced on or after February 15, 2006.

Eligibility:

- Graduate students who have academically progressed through the qualifying exams, typically after the 3rd or 4th year of doctoral study.
- Consideration will be given to psychological research that breaks new ground or creates significant new understandings that facilitate the development and/or functioning of children and youth.

Proposal Content: (three to five single-spaced pages, font size: 12).

Overview

Describe the problem or research area and discuss briefly what will be accomplished during the fellowship, including conference attendance/presentations. (Please note that after attendance at the APA pre-convention workshop, remaining funds may be used to attend additional presentations/conferences.)

Research Program (up to three pages)

- Provide abstract of research program and potential impact.
- Describe how the proposal fits with the author's current or future research program.
- Briefly discuss prior research in the field and plans for future development of the research program.
- Discuss the potential impact of the research and the research program.

Activities/Timeline (one page)

- In no more than one page, list the activities and timeline for accomplishing the activities associated with the research.
- Describe specifically the applicant's activities and responsibilities.

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 172

American Psychological Foundation Proposal Guidelines for the Elizabeth Munsterberg Koppitz Fellowship Fund Supporting Graduate Studies in Areas Involving the Psychology of the Child

Please Note: Due to page restrictions, please do not include a separate reference listing. Please cite references in-text only.

Procedures:

- Submit a 3- to 5-page application electronically to APF (foundation@apa.org) by **November 15, 2005**.
- Send an electronic copy of current vita with the proposal.
- The two recommendation letters, from the (1) graduate advisor and (2) department chair or Director of Graduate Studies, must be received by **November 15**, speaking in support of the candidate, the significance of the proposed research, and a guarantee of the tuition waiver. Letters should be sent by the recommender directly to APF (foundation@apa.org) in an electronic format and on university letterhead. (**Please note: One nominee per institution** will be accepted each year. Students should check with their dean of graduate studies or their provost of research before applying.)
- Mail a copy of the IRB Approval for the proposed research directly to APF at the time of submission. (APF will accept applications without IRB only if accompanied by a letter from the IRB, which notes the date at which consideration and final decision is anticipated.)
- List specific conferences for which funding is sought, including rationale for attendance if not APA.
- Awards will be announced on or after **February 15, 2006**.
- A final report is due in the APF Office one year after completion of the fellowship. Include copies of any publications/manuscripts intended for publication that resulted from the Koppitz Fellowship.
- Direct questions to APF, 202/336-5843, or to foundation@apa.org.

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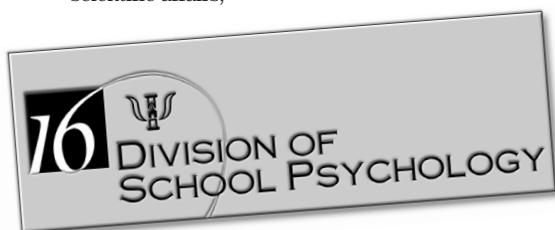
APA DIVISION 16 SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY MEMBERSHIP APPLICATION

Objectives

The ultimate goal of all Division activity is the enhancement of the status of children, youth, and adults as learners and productive citizens in schools, families, and communities.

The objectives of the Division of School Psychology are:

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



MEMBERSHIP APPLICATION

Please print or type:

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APA MEMBERSHIP NO. (IF APPLICABLE):

Please check status:

- ☐ Member \$45
☐ Fellow \$45
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☐ Student Affiliate \$30 (Complete Below)

FACULTY ENDORSEMENT

INSTITUTION EXPECTED YR. OF GRADUATION

Please complete and mail this application with your check payable to APA Division 16 to:

Attn: Division 16 Membership
APA Division Services Office
750 First Street, NE
Washington, DC 20002-4242



APA EXPERT SUMMIT ON IMMIGRATION

“Global Realities: Intersections and Transitions” February 2, 2006

Through his "focus on family" platform, APA President-Elect Dr. Gerry Koocher plans to spotlight three areas that span all of psychology's constituencies, one of which is: Diversity in Psychology: "Our society is becoming diverse in ways that couldn't have been imagined 20 years ago," says Koocher, noting that not only are minority populations growing, but so are transracial marriages and international adoptions. "Psychology has the potential to help to move America in greater acceptance of multiculturalism."

Registration: available beginning 9/1/05 at

www.Reisman-White.com

Earlybird Rate: \$135 (before 12/15/05),

Regular and On-Site Rate: \$150 (on or after 12/15/05)

Confirmed Plenary Speakers:

Dr. Mary Pipher: Clinical psychologist and an adjunct clinical professor at the University of Nebraska; NY Times bestselling author of *Reviving Ophelia* and *In the Middle of Everywhere* in which she “unites refugees, people who have fled some of the most repressive regimes in the world, with all of us...”

Dr. Donald J. Hernandez: Professor in the Department of Sociology at the University at Albany (SUNY); had overall responsibility for the National Research Council report titled *From Generation to Generation: The Health and Well-Being of Children in Immigrant Families and Children of Immigrants: Health, Adjustment, and Public Assistance*

Dr. Carola Suarez-Orozco: Co-Director of

Immigration Studies at NYU and co-author of *Children of Immigration and Transformations: Migration, Family Life, and Achievement Motivation Among Latino Adolescents*. She is also a co-editor of the award-winning six volume series entitled *Interdisciplinary Perspectives on the New Immigration*.

A call for Conference Poster presentations is forthcoming through participating Divisions (*Div 12 Section VI, Divisions 12, 16, 17, 29, 35, 37, 39, 42, 43, 45, 48, 51, 52, 53, 54*). Check your newsletters for more information.

Location: St. Anthony- A Wyndham Historic Hotel, 300 East Travis, San Antonio, TX, 78202 (210) 227-4392 **Room Rate:** \$139.00 (single/double) before January 9, 2006

Co-Sponsors: The American Orthopsychiatric Association; SRCD (Society for Research on Child Development); CEMRRAT-2 (Commission on Ethnic Minority Recruitment, Retention and Training), Division 45- Society for the Psychological Study of Ethnic Minority Issues, Division 35 - Society for the Psychology of Women, Texas Psychological Association

Summit Co-Chairs: Toy Caldwell-Colbert, PhD – President of Div 45 and Cynthia de las Fuentes, PhD - President of Div 35

Continuing Education: *Society of Counseling Psychology (Division 17)* is approved by the American Psychological Association to offer continuing education for psychologists. *Society of Counseling Psychology (Division 17)* maintains responsibility for the program.



APA EXPERT SUMMIT ON IMMIGRATION

“Talking Points”

Goals

This year (2005) the American Psychological Association passed a resolution on Immigrant Children, Youth, and Families; the APA Expert Summit on Immigration has several goals that enhance the ongoing objectives of all of the participating divisions including those in the resolution, specifically:

- Disseminating state-of-the-art clinical and scientific knowledge concerning the adaptation, development, education, health, and mental health, as well as the social impact and contributions, of immigrant and refugee populations;
- Promoting and facilitating psychologists' acquisition of competencies, including relevant cultural knowledge, attitude, and skills in providing services to and conducting research on immigrant and refugee populations;
- Advocating and promoting efforts to increase the availability of and access to educational, health, mental health, and social services for immigrant and refugee populations; and
- Promoting and supporting public policies that recognize and provide for the psychosocial needs of immigrant and refugee populations.

Rationale

- The largest proportion of the population of the US is composed of people whose ancestors immigrated to this country from other lands;
- Making up 11.1% of the current population (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2000), between 1990 and 2000, the foreign-born population in the US

increased by 57% from 19.8 million to 31.1 million, compared to an increase of 9.3% of the native born population;

- Between 1990 and 2000, over half of the foreign-born population came from Latin America, while Asian and European foreign-born immigrants accounted for 26.4% and 15.8%, respectively (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2000);
- 16.8% of all foreign-born residents in the United States are now at or below the poverty level, as compared to 11.2% of the domestic population (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2000);
- Service workers from Asia and Haiti (Andersen, 1997; Amott & Matthaei, 1991) and migrant farm workers from Latin America (Olivera, Effland, & Hamm, 1993) face additional burdens due to labor exploitation;
- Foreign immigration has evoked a “backlash” of negative perceptions and feelings in the native population that find expression in executive and legislative initiatives that limit immigrants' civil rights and access to public benefits such as education and health care and other human services for children, youth, and families (Board on Children and Families, 1995; Degler, 1970; Goldenberg, 1996);
- The experience of immigration has acute and chronic implications for the psychological and social well-being of individuals and families (Beiser, 1988; Westermeyer, Williams, and Nguyen, 1991) which are especially intense for children, people of color, people of the impoverished socioeconomic classes (Fix &

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 176

APA Expert Summit on Immigration "Talking Points"

- Passel, 1994), as well as women (Yee, 1997; Yee, Huang, & Lew, date), lesbian, gay, and bisexual persons (Espin, 1997; Patterson, 1995), and individuals with disabilities;
- Mental health-related issues, particularly stress associated with migration trauma, acculturation, language, SES, access to health care and education, religion, as well as encounters with both individual and institutional bias, are faced consistently by foreign-born residents of this country (Kraut, 1994; Portes & Rumbaut, 1996);
 - Differential degrees of acculturation within immigrant families can negatively affect family communication and even evoke conflict, particularly between parents and their adolescent offspring (Pedersen, Draguns, Lonner, and Trimble, 1996; Ponterotto, Casas, Suzuki, and Alexander, 1995); and
 - Mental health, and social services are underutilized by foreign-born resident populations (Beiser, 1988), especially refugees (Beiser, 1988), migrant workers, and undocumented immigrants (Wilk, 1986), and such services are unavailable in many locations.

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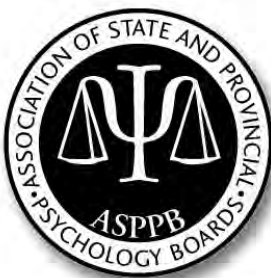
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Congratulations

TO THE FOLLOWING NEW APA FELLOWS:

.....

**Marla Brassard, Edward Daly III,
Edward Gaughan, and Rick Short**



**Association of State and Provincial
Psychology Boards**

P.O. Box 241245

Montgomery, AL 36124-1245

CONTACT: Amy Hilson,

Associate Executive Director, 334-832-4580

DeMers Named ASPPB Executive Officer

Washington, DC – The Association of State and Provincial Psychology Boards (ASPPB) is proud to announce the appointment of Stephen T. DeMers, Ed.D. as Executive Officer. DeMers has served as Professor and Director of the School Psychology Program at the University of Kentucky since 1983. DeMers served as ASPPB's President in 1995-1996, and was instrumental in the association's work on professional mobility. He has worked part-time as Director of Professional Affairs since 1998. He will assume the chief staff position with ASPPB on a part-time basis beginning on September 1, 2005, and he will assume the position full-time by the end of the year when his teaching responsibilities end.

Formed in 1961, ASPPB is the alliance of state, provincial, and territorial agencies responsible for the licensure and certification of psychologists throughout the United States and Canada. ASPPB's mission is to serve member boards by promoting excellence in regulation and advancing public protection. The association created and maintains the Examination for Professional Practice in Psychology (EPPP) and offers the Certificate in Professional Qualification (CPQ), which facilitates licensure mobility for psychologists and is recognized in numerous jurisdictions in the U.S. and Canada. The association is headquartered in Montgomery, Alabama.

In making the announcement, ASPPB President Kim R. Jonason, Ph.D. said, "The Board of our association could not be more delighted with the appointment of Dr. DeMers. He has been a stalwart supporter of the association and its mission for many years. I think Steve's combination of passion and knowledge is perfect for this position. He is the right person to lead the association into our next stage of development."

DeMers said, "I am absolutely committed to ASPPB's mission. I am honored to accept this opportunity to serve ASPPB, its member jurisdictions, and the profession of psychology in this new role. The adoption of the ASPPB strategic plan and my appointment coincide to mark a new era for me and ASPPB. My primary job as staff leader will be support the elected leadership and to facilitate our implementation of the ASPPB's new strategic plan. I want to use the plan to bring new levels of service excellence, transparency, and accountability to our activities."

For more information about ASPPB see our website at www.asppb.org.

People & Places

- The Society for the Study of School Psychology (SSSP) is pleased to announce the *Journal of School Psychology* Article of the Year Award for articles published in Volume 42, 2004. The award was presented to **George J. DuPaul, Robert J. Volpe, Asha K. Jitendra, J. Gary Lutz, Kristi S. Lorah**, and Rosemary Gruber of Lehigh University for their article, "Elementary school students with AD/HD: Predictors of academic achievement," which appeared in 2004, Volume 42, Issue 4, pages 285-301. The Article of the Year Award is selected following nominations by SSSP members and review by a jury of editorial board members of the *Journal of School Psychology*.

- **Vinny Alfonso** is now the Associate Dean of Academic Affairs in the Graduate School of Education at Fordham University.

- **James B. Hale** has accepted an Associate Professor of Psychology faculty position in the School Psychology Program at Philadelphia College of Osteopathic Medicine, and also serves as Associate Director of Clinical Training.

- The **Council of Directors of School Psychology Programs** (CDSPP) announces its annual mid-winter meeting. It will be held (as usual) in **DeerField Beach Florida, January 27-28, 2006**. More information is available at the CDSPP website: www.education.ucsb.edu/cdspp. The CDSPP board for 2005-2006 includes Dan Tingstrom (Chair), Antoinette Miranda, Beth Doll, Jean Baker, Stephen Peverly, and Mike Furlong.

- The **University of California, Santa Barbara**, Counseling, Clinical, & School Psychology (CCSP) Program is very pleased to announce that **Jane Conoley** will become the Dean of the Gevirtz Graduate School of Education in January 2006. In addition, **Amanda VanDerHeyden** joined the CCSP faculty in July 2005 after working for the Vail School District the previous two years.

- The School Psychology Program at **Duquesne University** is pleased to announce that **Dr. Jennifer Chiriboga** and **Dr. Kara McGoey** joined the faculty in Fall, 2005. Jennifer earned her Ph.D. from Ball State University and her research interest is in child health in the schools. Kara earned her Ph.D. from **Lehigh** and comes to **Duquesne** from **Kent State University**. Kara's research interest is in early childhood intervention. Their research and teaching specialties complement the work of the existing faculty (Laura Crothers, Tammy Hughes, Anita Lalumere, and Jeff Miller).

- **Assistant Professor, School Psychology. The Department of Psychology at Southern Illinois University Edwardsville** is seeking applicants for a tenure-track position at the Assistant Professor level to begin August 2006. Applicants should have a Ph.D. in School Psychology, with preference given to those individuals who graduated from an APA or NASP approved program and who have work experience as a school psychologist in the public/private school setting. All applicants should have a strong commitment to teaching and research. Responsibilities will include: teaching undergraduate and graduate level courses; supervising student research/thesis projects; advising students; conducting research; and serving on departmental, school, and university committees. Salary is commensurate with qualifications and experience. The Psychology Department is one of the largest in the University and features high quality undergraduate, masters, and specialist degree programs. Clinical child and school psychology graduate students are trained together at the masters degree level, with those interested in school psychology continuing their education in the specialist degree program. The graduate program, which is approved by NASP, has an ecological perspective, emphasizes prevention and early intervention, stresses data-based decision making using both formal and informal methods, highlights the consultative and problem solving model, and offers extensive practica experiences. The University has 13,000 students and is located 20 minutes from downtown **St. Louis, Missouri**. Send letter of application; vita; statements of teaching and research; three letters of recommendation; and reprints/preprints to Emily J. Krohn, Ph.D., Chair, School Psychology Search Committee, Department of Psychology, Southern Illinois University Edwardsville, Edwardsville, Illinois 62026-1121. For further information, contact Emily J. Krohn, Ph.D. at (618) 650-3646; e-mail at ekrohn@siue.edu; or visit our website at www.siue.edu/PSYCHOLOGY. **File review will begin on November 15, 2005, however applications will be accepted until the position is filled.** Southern Illinois University Edwardsville is an Equal Opportunity/Affirmative Action Employer. Minorities are encouraged to apply.

Please send all submissions to:
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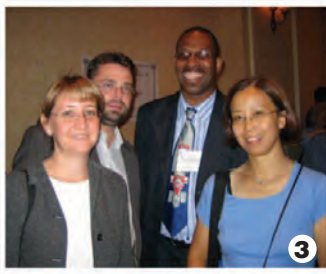
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