



APA Division 16 School Psychology
Vol. 61, No. 4

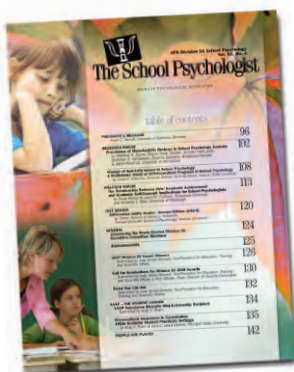
The School Psychologist

AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION

table of contents

| | |
|--|-----|
| PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE | 96 |
| <i>Frank C. Worrell, University of California, Berkeley</i> | |
| RESEARCH FORUM | 102 |
| Prevalence of Meta-Analytic Reviews in School Psychology Journals | |
| <i>by Matthew K. Burns, Maura Doyle Tanabe, Jennifer Hall-Lande, Gretchen R. VanGetson, Deanna Spanjers, Anastasia Hansen, & Jaclyn Roverud, University of Minnesota</i> | |
| Change of Specialty Issues in School Psychology: A Preliminary Study of APA-Accredited Programs in School Psychology | |
| <i>by Linda C. Caterino, Amanda Sullivan & Emily Bacal, Arizona State University</i> | |
| PRACTICE FORUM | 113 |
| The Relationship Between Girls' Academic Achievement and Academic Self-Concept: Implications for School Psychologists | |
| <i>by Cindy Altman & Laura M. Crothers, Duquesne University and Kimberly A. Blair, University of Pittsburgh</i> | |
| TEST REVIEW | 120 |
| Differential Ability Scales - Second Edition (DAS-II) | |
| <i>by Esther Stavrou & Nancy L. Hollander, Ferkauf Graduate School of Psychology, Yeshiva University</i> | |
| GENERAL | 124 |
| Announcing the Newly Elected Division 16 Executive Committee Members | |
| Announcements | 125 |
| 2007 Division 16 Award Winners | 126 |
| <i>Submitted by Judy Oehler-Stinnett, Vice-President for Education, Training and Scientific Affairs</i> | |
| Call for Nominations for Division 16 2008 Awards | 130 |
| <i>Submitted by Judy Oehler-Stinnett, Vice-President for Education, Training and Scientific Affairs & Rich Gilman, Chair, Division 16 Awards Committee</i> | |
| News You Can Use | 132 |
| <i>Submitted by Judy Oehler-Stinnett, Vice-President for Education, Training and Scientific Affairs</i> | |
| SASP - THE STUDENT CORNER | 134 |
| SASP Announces Diversity Mini-Scholarship Recipient | |
| <i>Submitted by Andy V. Pham</i> | |
| Cross-cultural Awareness in Consultation within Graduate Student Practicum Settings | 135 |
| <i>by Andy V. Pham & Sara C. Lewandowski, Michigan State University</i> | |
| PEOPLE AND PLACES | 142 |

The School Psychologist Advertising & Submission Info



Classified Rates

As a courtesy, Division 16 members will not be charged for employment notices or professional announcements (e.g., upcoming meetings, scholarship opportunities, grant opportunities, calls for proposals). All others will be charged 75 cents per word for employment notices and commercial announcements. A minimum order is 50 words and no frequency or agency discounts apply. An invoice will be sent after publication. For information regarding display ads, contact:

Michelle Athanasiou, Ph.D.
Applied Psychology & Counselor Education
Campus Box 131
University of Northern Colorado
Greeley, CO 80639
(970) 351-2356 (w)
(970) 351-2625 (f)
michelle.athanasiou@unco.edu

Requirements

The School Psychologist is published four times (Winter, Spring, Summer, and Fall) a year. Employment notices, announcements, and advertisements (including display ads) are due on the 1st of the month of printing.

Classified ads and display ads should be submitted electronically (via e-mail or disk) and in paper form according to the following guidelines.

Display Ad Rates*

| Ad Size | Rate |
|--------------------------------------|-------|
| Full page (6.625" x 9.25") | \$625 |
| Half page (horizontal 6.625" x 4.5") | \$475 |
| Half page (vertical 3.25" x 9.25") | \$475 |
| Quarter page (3.25" x 4.5") | \$275 |

Multiple Insertion Discounts¹

| | |
|-------------------------------|-------|
| Full page (2-4 insertions) | \$525 |
| Full page (5-8 insertions) | \$475 |
| Half page (2-4 insertions) | \$425 |
| Half page (5-8 insertions) | \$375 |
| Quarter page (2-4 insertions) | \$175 |
| Quarter page (5-8 insertions) | \$125 |

*Display ads with color add \$50 to cost per insertion.
Display ads with pictures add \$50 to cost per insertion.
¹Rate is cost per insertion.

Moving or missing your newsletter? More information about Division 16.

For questions regarding your Division 16 membership including address changes and subscription inquiries for *The School Psychology Quarterly* and *The School Psychologist*, write the Division 16 Administrative Office, Division Services Office, American Psychological Association, 750 First St., N.E., Washington, D.C. 20002-4242, call (202) 336-6013 or send your inquiry via facsimile machine to (202) 336-5919.

For change of address: APA/Division 16 Members need only send one change of address notification to the APA Directory Office at the APA address listed above. Division 16 Student Affiliate Members should send notification to the APA Division Services Office.

Advertising Policy

Advertising and announcements appearing in *The School Psychologist* (TSP) do not necessarily indicate official sanction, promotion, or endorsement on the part of TSP or Division 16 of the American Psychological Association. Division 16 is not responsible for any claims made in an advertisement or announcement. Advertisers may not, without prior consent, incorporate in a subsequent advertisement or promotional piece the fact that a product or service has been advertised in TSP. Division 16 reserves the right to edit all copies and to refuse advertisements and announcements based upon legal, social, professional, and ethical considerations.

All advertising and announcements must be in keeping with the generally scholarly and/or professional nature of TSP. Division 16 retains the right to unilaterally reject or cancel advertising and announcements. Advertising and announcements submitted with the purpose of airing either side of controversial social, political, or professional issues will not be accepted for publication in TSP. Classifieds, display ads, and announcements should be submitted to the Editor.

Author's Instructions and Publication Schedule

The APA Division 16 publishes *The School Psychologist* as a service to the membership. Four issues are published annually. The purpose of TSP is to provide a vehicle for the rapid dissemination of news and recent advances in practice, policy, and research in the field of school psychology. Articles up to approximately 15 double-spaced manuscript pages will be accepted; however, brief articles, approximately 6 to 12 double-spaced manuscript pages, are preferred. Test reviews, book reviews, and comments for The Commentary Section are welcome. All submissions should be double spaced in Times New Roman 12 point font and e-mailed to the Editor. Authors submitting materials to *The School*

Psychologist do so with the understanding that the copyright of published materials shall be assigned exclusively to APA Division 16.

For information about submissions and/or advertising rates please e-mail or write to:

Michelle Athanasiou, Ph.D.
Applied Psychology & Counselor Education
Campus Box 131
University of Northern Colorado
Greeley, CO 80639
(970) 351-2356 (w)
(970) 351-2625 (f)
michelle.athanasiou@unco.edu

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

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

Division 16 Executive Committee

President

Frank C. Worrell, Ph.D.
Cognition and Development
Graduate School of Education
University of California, Berkeley
4511 Tolman Hall
Berkeley, CA 94720-1670
(510) 643-4891 (w)
(510) 642-3555 (f)
frankc@berkeley.edu

President Elect

Jean A. Baker, Ph.D.
434 Erickson Hall
Michigan State University
East Lansing, MI 48824
(517) 353-5047 (w)
(517) 353-6393 (f)
jbaker@msu.edu

Past President

Gary Stoner, Ph.D.
School Psychology Program
School of Education
361 Hills House South
University of Massachusetts, Amherst
Amherst, MA 01003
(413) 545-1527 (w)
(401) 265-8925 (c)
(413) 545-1523 (f)
gstoner@educ.umass.edu

Secretary

Vincent C. Alfonso, Ph.D.
Graduate School of Education
Fordham University
113 West 60th Street
Room 1121A Lowenstein
New York, NY 10023
212-636-6410 (w)
212-636-7826 (f)
alfonso@fordham.edu

Treasurer

Bonnie Nastasi, Ph.D.
School Psychology Program
Walden University
Home address:
1750 St. Charles Ave. #402
New Orleans, LA 70130
(860) 235-8829 (w)
bonnastasi@yahoo.com
bnastasi@waldenu.edu

Vice President of Professional Affairs (VP-PA)

Linda Caterino, Ph.D.
School Psychology Program
Division of Psychology in Education
Tempe, AZ 85287
(480) 965-3384 (w)
(480) 965-0300 (f)
linda.caterino@asu.edu

Vice President of Membership

Lea Theodore, Ph.D.
City University of New York,
Queens College
Graduate Program in School Psychology
65-30 Kissena Blvd.
Flushing, NY 11367
(718) 997-5360 (w)
(718) 997-5428 (f)
Lea.Theodore@qc.cuny.edu

Vice President of Education, Training, & Scientific Affairs (VP-ETSA)

Judy Oehler-Stinnett, Ph.D.
Oklahoma State University
434 Willard Hall
School of Applied Health and
Educational Psychology
Stillwater, OK 74078
(405) 744-9450 (w)
(405) 744-6756 (f)
jos@okstate.edu

Vice President of Publication, Communications, and Convention Affairs (VP-PCCA)

Tammy Hughes, Ph.D.
Duquesne University
Department of Counseling,
Psychology, and Special Education
102C Canevin Hall
Pittsburgh, PA 15282
(412) 396-5191 (w)
(412) 396-1340 (f)
hughes@duq.edu

Vice President of Social and Ethical Responsibility & Ethnic Minority Affairs (VP-SEREMA)

Karen Callan Stoiber, Ph.D.
Department of Educational Psychology
University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee
2400 East Hartford Ave.
Milwaukee, WI 53211
(414) 229-6841 (w)
(414) 229-4939 (f)
kstoiber@uwm.edu

Council Representatives

Cindy Carlson, Ph.D.
University of Texas at Austin
Educational Psychology Department
1 University Station D5800
Austin, TX 78712
(512) 232-4835 (w)
(512) 471-1288 (f)
cindy.carlson@mail.utexas.edu

Randy Kamphaus, Ph.D.
School of Professional Studies
University of Georgia
329 Aderhold Hall
Athens, GA 30602-7143
(706) 542-4253 (w)
(706) 542-4240 (f)
rkamp@arches.uga.edu

Council Representatives (continued)

Deborah Tharinger, Ph.D.
University of Texas at Austin
Educational Psychology Department
SZB 504
Austin, TX 78712
(512) 471-4407 (w)
(512) 471-1288 (f)
dtharinger@mail.utexas.edu

SASP Representative

Amanda Siebecker
114 Teachers College Hall
University of Nebraska-Lincoln
Lincoln, NE 68503
(402) 472-1192
mandasiebecker@yahoo.com

Historian

Thomas K. Fagan, Ph.D.
Department of Psychology
University of Memphis
Memphis, TN 38152
(901) 678-2579 (w)
tom-fagan@mail.psy.memphis.edu

Editor,**School Psychology Quarterly**

Rik D'Amato, Ph.D.
Applied Psychology &
Counselor Education
University of Northern Colorado
Greeley, CO 80639
(970) 351-2208 (w)
(970) 351-2625 (f)
rik.damato@unco.edu

Editor-Elect,**School Psychology Quarterly**

Randy Kamphaus, Ph.D.
School of Professional Studies
University of Georgia
329 Aderhold Hall
Athens, GA 30602-7143
(706) 542-4253 (w)
(706) 542-4240 (f)
rkamp@arches.uga.edu



Frank Worrell

“...I get along well with most people and see myself as a consensus builder...”

Professional Psychology, School Psychology, and Psychological Science: Distinctiveness, Deindividuation, or Separation?

Frank C. Worrell
University of California, Berkeley

This is not a column that I wanted to write, and not because it is my last as President of Division 16. I did not want to write this column for several reasons. First, I am an optimist by nature and this column reflects a less hopeful perspective than I normally espouse. Second, I am not sanguine that I can convey the increasing sense of disquiet that I am experiencing in clear and coherent prose, given the looming deadline to send this column to the editor. Third, I get along well with most people and see myself as a consensus builder, and I know that this column has the potential to alienate individuals whom I respect, admire, and even consider friends. Finally, I use examples that may be construed as self-serving; although they are only used to illustrate points, it is possible that I will be seen as less than an honest broker. Despite all these misgivings, I felt increasingly compelled to share my thoughts on issues that I believe have larger ramifications for the Division and for APA. It is my hope that the column stimulates people's thinking about the issues raised.

The origins of this column stem from a number of events. These events include, among others, conversations with other trainers in school, clinical, and counseling psychology; conversations with members of APA who are scientists but not practitioners; the revision of the Model Licensure Act (MLA), including removal of the exemption for non-doctoral school psychology practitioners to call themselves *psychologists*; the passionate and divergent opinions of many Division 16 members on the proposed MLA revision; my own reflections on the removal of the exemption; interactions with and conversations about the Committee on Accreditation (CoA) over the past decade; and comments communicated to me on the CoA's accreditation summit held in January of this year.

I will try to articulate two related points. First, I think that doctoral school psychology, in what I believe is a misguided quest to be given equal status by other professional psychology groups, is in danger of losing its identity. Second, I am increasingly concerned with the elevation of

practice at the expense of science in professional psychology. This concern is reflected in an increasing failure to strike an appropriate balance between *guild* issues and data in decision-making.

School Psychology and Professional Psychology

From the perspective of APA, school psychology is one of the several specialties of professional psychology, and graduates of professional psychology programs are eligible for licensure as psychologists. Although this process has traditionally applied to clinical, counseling, and school psychology, the current draft of the MLA suggests that licensure will now be required for industrial/organizational and consulting psychologists as well. The MLA does not distinguish among the different types of psychology, and indicates that the term psychologist, means any person licensed as a psychologist under this act and includes a person representing himself or herself to be a psychologist if: 1) that person uses any title or description of services incorporating the words psychology, psychological, or psychologist, 2) if he or she uses any term that implies that he or she possesses expert qualification in any area of psychology, or 3) if that person offers to the public or renders to individuals or to groups of individuals services defined as the practice of psychology in this Act. (American Psychological Association [APA], 2007, p. 3)

According to this definition, the key provisions include licensure and the use of the words, *psychology*, *psychological*, and *psychologist* in one's title. Indeed, that is why the MLA has as its first exemption a clause that allows scientific psychologists pursuing research and teaching permission to call themselves psychologists, a provision that many find galling. The provisions for training psychologists contained in the MLA and manifested in CoA's guidelines and principles are also general.

What, then, distinguishes school psychology

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 96

Professional Psychology, School Psychology, and Psychological Science: Distinctiveness, Deindividuation, or Separation?

from counseling or clinical, and more recently, clinical child and adolescent psychology? Table 1 contains the opening from the archival descriptions of clinical, school, counseling, and clinical child psychology, respectively. These were taken from the web page of APA's Commission for the Recognition of Specialties and Proficiencies in Professional Psychology. An examination of the archival descriptions indicates that there is considerable overlap in the descriptions. All of them are considered general practice and health service specialties, and although the clinical child description does not contain these descriptors, it does indicate that child clinical is clinical psychology with an emphasis on child development, adolescent development, and family systems. School, counseling, and child clinical stress the importance of development, and school and counseling psychology both emphasize educational concerns.

The two descriptions that are the most similar, though, are school psychology and clinical child psychology, with foci on development and children, youth, and families. (I find it particularly interesting that at some point in the not too distant past, a determination was made that Child Clinical and Adolescent Psychology - Division 53 was distinct enough from Clinical Psychology - Division 12, School Psychology - Division 16, and Child and Family Policy and Practice - Division 37 to merit a separate division within APA, but that discussion is for a different time and place.) The archival descriptions clearly indicate what distinguishes school psychology is two descriptors not contained in any other specialties: our concern with the *schooling process* and *learning environments*. It is probably not surprising to anyone in our area that school psychology practice is intimately tied to schools and learning.

Thus, although all professional psychologists are limited in scope of practice by the training they received, the knowledge base that separates school psychologists from other professional psychologists includes a deep understanding of the school as a system, the way in which school systems facilitate or hinder development, and an understanding of the learning process that allows school psychologists to conduct *psychoeducational* evaluations, *instructional* consultation, and curriculum-based measurement, among other specialized tasks. The fact that our students may also learn to do individual, family, and group psychotherapy is

admirable but does not contribute to our uniqueness.

Moreover, in most jurisdictions in the United States, being a licensed psychologist is irrelevant to school-based practice. School psychologists need to understand and be credentialed for *practice IN schools*, something that the MLA and licensure do not address. Why am I making this point? Several people who have worked long and tirelessly in the service of APA and school psychology have said to me in multiple ways that doctoral school psychology is viewed as second-class by other professional psychologists, and especially clinical psychologists, in large part because there are also non-doctoral practitioners who can also call themselves school psychologists.

I suspect that this is a non-issue for many clinical and counseling psychologists. Nonetheless, there is probably some truth in these reports. However, from my perspective, school psychology's response should be, Who cares? After all, there are also reports of perceptions among psychiatrists that clinical psychologists are second-class. As a member of several minority groups, some of which are not held in the highest esteem in the US, I have learned that being second class is as much about how you view yourself as how others view you. I *chose* school psychology because of my interest in schooling. I have knowledge that my colleagues in clinical and counseling do not have as a result of my training. At the APA convention this year, the Division awarded posthumously to Nadine Murphy Lambert the first Lifetime Achievement Award, which is also named in her honor. Consider the contributions made by Nadine Lambert – a *school* psychologist – not just to school psychology, but also to psychology writ large and to APA.

Look at the list of Division 16 award winners over the years in the Senior Scientist (www.indiana.edu/~div16/awards_scientist.html), Lightner Witmer (www.indiana.edu/~div16/awards_witmer.html), Distinguished Service (www.indiana.edu/~div16/awards_bardon.html), and Fellow categories (www.indiana.edu/~div16/awards_fellows.html), and tell me which of these individuals is second-class to their colleagues in clinical and counseling. Reflect on the contributions that our Division of less than 2000 members has made to APA, including proposing and chairing the Task Force on Zero-Tolerance Policies a couple years ago. Think about

“...I have learned that being second class is as much about how you view yourself as how others view you.”

CONTINUED ON PAGE 98

Professional Psychology, School Psychology, and Psychological Science: Distinctiveness, Deindividuation, or Separation?

“I respect and even agree with APA’s decision that professional psychology should be at the doctoral level.”

the esteem that our current and past council representatives are and have been held in. The truth is that I am proud to be a school psychologist and to celebrate our differences from the other specialties. Thus, to answer an implied question in the title, I come down on the side of distinctiveness rather than deindividuation.

The Model Licensure Act

The idea of celebrating our distinctiveness brings me to a topic that has dominated my year as President of Division 16, the MLA. I have not yet convinced myself that I would have consented to run for office if I knew that the MLA was going to be revisited during my time in office, but history seldom offers us a choice. I would like to begin by saying that everyone should read the full MLA. It is thoughtfully crafted and well-written, and to my naive eyes, seems to be doing its best to provide the appropriate frameworks in a society where legal maneuverings are paramount. At the time of this writing in early September, the Division has not yet taken an official position on the Act. Indeed, you should have received a postcard from me soliciting your opinion to help inform the Executive Committee, because we represent you, and you will have seen the final position that the Executive Committee took before you read this column. Of course, the removal of the exemption has generated considerable discussion within the Executive Committee, as it has done in school psychology more broadly, and there are a wide range of views on the Executive Committee about the removal of the exemption.

Given that the Division’s decision - informed by your views - will be already be made by the time this column becomes available, I have decided to share some of my concerns about the removal of the exemption. The exemption is related to the discussion of distinctiveness versus deindividuation mentioned above, and several people have argued that Division 16 has to choose between either (a) professional (i.e., doctoral) psychology or (b) school psychology, meaning non-doctoral psychology.

To me this is a false dichotomy, and I choose both and neither. I respect and even agree with APA’s decision that professional psychology should be at the doctoral level. However, I am also aware that when this decision was made, it was influenced by factors beyond simply serving the public good, even though that may be the most salient reason or the one that is most frequently cited for public consumption. The decision was also intimately

connected with the affluence of American society, the availability of doctoral-level education and the corresponding increase in doctoral-level practitioners in the US, the perceived need to have a comparable degree to medical doctors and psychiatrists, and the natural tendencies for professional organizations to act in the interests of their most influential members much like other groups do. The responses of the American Medical Association and the American Psychiatric Association to the possibility of prescribing psychologists should be instructive to all of us in this regard. These decisions are not just about competence; they are also about self-protection, and psychologists should be the last group to ignore this basic psychological principle. For those who doubt the importance of social context on practice parameters in psychology, I strongly recommend taking a look at the *Handbook of International School Psychology* (Jimerson, Oakland, & Farrell, 2007).

Thus, we come back to the issue of distinctiveness. Consider the fact that the National Association of School Psychologists has 10 times the number of members of Division 16, and more doctoral members than Division 16. If all of us who are trainers take a look at our bookshelves, how much of the *science* and *practice* that is represented thereupon has been supported and often developed by our non-doctoral colleagues? How many of us who are doctoral psychologists would support replacing non-doctoral school psychologists currently serving in the schools with clinical or counseling psychologists who have doctoral degrees but are not certified for school-based practice? Thus, does removing the exemption at this point in time *do good* for children, youth, and families, or does it have the potential to *do harm*? Given the growth in Psy.D. programs in professional psychology, many of which are more similar to school psychology specialist programs than to Ph.D. programs, is the doctoral degree that we are touting as superior the same degree that prompted APA to move to a doctoral standard of practice? Finally, where is the *evidence* indicating that the removal of the exemption will result in more effective services to schools, children, youth, and families, or that having the exemption over the past 25 years has resulted in negative impacts on “public health, safety, and welfare” (APA, 2007, p. 2)?

There are also several things that make the removal of the exemption at this point in time quite ironic. First, in spite of the glut of clinical and

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 98

Professional Psychology, School Psychology, and Psychological Science: Distinctiveness, Deindividuation, or Separation?

counseling psychologists, there is a shortage of school psychologists at both the trainer and practitioner levels that is projected to last for at least a decade. Second, one of the more frequent criticisms that I have heard about NASP's Blueprint III for school psychology practice, which will guide the standards for specialist programs, is that it seems to be much closer to doctoral training than to specialist training. Third, the proposed MLA draft, as did its predecessor, prohibits non-doctoral psychologists from using several terms, including *psychology*, *psychological*, and *psychologist*. Nonetheless, after a brutal and bruising fight in the state of Texas on this issue of labeling, from which many wounds have still not healed, there are now three titles in Texas: Licensed Psychologist, Licensed Specialist in School Psychology, and Licensed Psychological Associate, and the latter two apply to non-doctoral practitioners. Thus, doctoral psychologists were only able to retain one of three terms in the MLA. I do not live in Texas, but given the stories I have heard, I have to wonder if the fight was worth it, and if the legal terms stop parents and others who are not intimately familiar with our jargon from referring to all three groups of practitioners as school psychologists, if they work in the schools.

Psychological Science and the Accreditation of Professional Psychology

On its website, APA is described as "a *scientific* and *professional* organization that represents psychology in the US" (emphases added). The recent flurry of reports on evidenced-based practice and the acknowledgement of the need for much more work in this area speak to the ongoing tensions between these dual missions. A colleague of mine who is a licensed psychologist and much more anal than I am has lamented for the last decade about the lack of validity evidence for scores on the national Examination for Professional Practice in Psychology (EPPP), and he has been trying to find this evidence for years. In Pennsylvania, where I am licensed, the Board of Psychology mandates a three-hour ethics course every two-year renewal cycle, despite the fact that the ethical code has not changed since 2003 and does not change in every two years. To be licensed in California, I have had to take courses on "aging and long term care" and "spousal abuse," and I also need to take a 4-hour ethics course every 2-year cycle.

Although the MLA mentions continuing

education as one method for maintaining competence and scientific and ethical practice and suggests in a couple places that there should be a scientific basis for practice, the act does not ever speak to the need for using data in making decisions about continuing education and increasing regulations. For example, have ethical violations in the state of California and the commonwealth of Pennsylvania decreased since instituting mandatory ethics courses every two years, or have the individuals who have committed ethics violations completed fewer cycles of ethics courses? How do we ensure that practitioners read and *understand* the latest research findings and how do we assess their ability to comprehend a structural equation model, hierarchical linear modeling, a time series design, or a series of single subject case graphs with aim lines? In short, where is the role of science in our model licensure act, which is our primary communication with Boards of Psychology about what is important to APA and *doctoral* psychology?

The MLA also provides a template for the Committee (soon to be Commission) on Accreditation (CoA). I heard several reports coming out of the accreditation summit about the increased importance that licensure of graduates and faculty will play in evaluating programs. However, I was quite surprised at one of the questions that I got in response to the last site visit report here at Berkeley. Question five read as follows:

As far as could be determined from the faculty curriculum vitae submitted, three of the seven core faculty members are professionally licensed. The program is asked to clarify the licensure status of each of the core faculty members, and to clarify how the program is in compliance with Domain C.1e, which indicates that faculty members "have recognized credentials in those areas which are at the core of the program's goals and objectives."

I have to admit to being a little taken aback at the question, not only because licensure is not listed anywhere in our *major* goals and objectives, but also because an informal poll of colleagues at APA this year indicated that there are several programs which have fewer than three licensed faculty. Additionally, I have seen no data suggesting that the number of licensed faculty is related to the quality of student outcomes. I was also annoyed that there were no comments on the number of scientists on the faculty – our program is labeled *scientist-practitioner*, after all, nor on how many of the faculty are credentialed for practice in schools. Why

“I have seen no data suggesting that the number of licensed faculty is related to the quality of student outcomes.”

CONTINUED ON PAGE 100

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 99

Professional Psychology, School Psychology, and Psychological Science: Distinctiveness, Deindividuation, or Separation?

“Two heads have the potential to be better than one only if they bring different perspectives to the table.”

is licensure being privileged over other credentials in the absence of data? Distinctiveness resurfaces: School psychologists are *different*, and we are accountable both to APA and to state credentialing agencies. If our primary accreditation agency refuses to recognize or acknowledge this basic fact, we may have already lost the war.

But let me return to data. I have served on only one CoA site visit team. I have also been on the receiving end of several site visits as a student and a faculty member, and I have read several site visit reports and the responses from the CoA. At CDSPP and NASP and APA conventions, I have had countless conversations with colleagues who have been around far longer than I have been and who have conducted many site visits, and there is considerable consensus that responses from CoA often seem to have no relationship to self-studies or site visitor reports. This is especially alarming for the accrediting arm of a scientific organization. To the best of my knowledge, the data available to CoA are the self-study and the site visitor report. Thus, decisions that ignore those two documents will almost inevitably be spurious, and will also undermine the motivation of site visitors on a number of levels.

I have to admit that I do not want to serve on CoA or on any other committee that measures its work in boxes at this stage in my career, and I have declined consideration for nominations to that body. CoA's workload is certainly extremely heavy and it is my hope that the re-organized Commission, which will be substantially larger, will result in a decreased workload for those who choose to serve professional psychology in that way. However, it is incumbent upon CoA and also upon those of us who deal with CoA on a regular basis to *insist* upon standards of reliability and validity from that body, much as CoA demands it of us. I have to admit that my confidence level is at an all-time low, and I can assure readers of this column that there are many others who feel the same way but who are too concerned about their programs losing accreditation to voice these concerns publicly. This fear also speaks poorly of our process, even if we were not psychologists and scientists.

In 1987-1988, many scientists within APA felt that “their interests were inadequately represented under the current structure of APA” (Dykstra, 1988), and the failure of an attempted reorganization, which was supported by 42.8% of the votes cast, led ultimately to the founding of the American

Psychological Society, now named the Association for Psychological Science. I have not given APS much thought until recently. APA has been the organization that I have devoted much of my professional service to both at the division and the organizational level. I believe that it is and has the potential to continue to be the most important voice in psychology not just in the US, but also in the world. It will not continue to do so if the influence of science and data in decision-making is diminished, and I fear that I am seeing multiple signs of this. I will not address this any further, other than to say it speaks to the word, *separation*, in the title.

Conclusion

By the time you receive this newsletter, it will be well into the final quarter of 2007. I have been honored to serve as Division 16 president this year and have done my best to represent you well, although I am not sure that I have always been successful in those endeavors. I would like to publicly thank all of the members of the EC for their work on behalf of all of us and for making my Presidential year an easier one than it would have been without them. I also commend all of the incoming officers; they are wonderful and competent individuals, and the Division has been and continues to be incredibly well-served.

Finally, I wish to remind you to remember that this is your Division and your organization. School psychology is an important and *unique* voice within APA that needs to be heard, and you help us to do this with your ideas and your apportionment ballots to D16. Never give up your right to convey your opinions to the governance members of Division 16 or APA. Two heads have the potential to be better than one only if they bring different perspectives to the table. Thanks again for the honor and privilege of serving you.

References

- American Psychological Association. (2007). *Model act for state licensure of psychologists: Revised 7/03/2007*. Retrieved August 8, 2007, from <http://forms.apa.org/practice/modelactlicensure>
- Commission for the Recognition of Specialties and Proficiencies in Professional Psychology, American Psychological Association. (2005). *Archival description of clinical child psychology*. Retrieved September 1, 2007, from <http://www.apa.org/crsppp/clipsych.html>
- Commission for the Recognition of Specialties and Proficiencies in Professional Psychology, American Psychological Association. *Archival description of clinical psychology*. Retrieved September 1, 2007, from <http://www.apa.org/crsppp/clipsych.html>
- Commission for the Recognition of Specialties and Proficiencies in Professional Psychology, American

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 100

Professional Psychology, School Psychology, and Psychological Science: Distinctiveness, Deindividuation, or Separation?

Psychological Association. *Archival description of counseling psychology*. Retrieved September 1, 2007, from <http://www.apa.org/crspdp/counseling.html>

Proficiencies in Professional Psychology. American Psychological Association. (2005). *Archival description of school psychology*. Retrieved September 1, 2007, from <http://www.apa.org/crspdp/schpsych.html>
Dykstra, L. (1988, Fall). President's letter. *Psychopharmacology Newsletter*, 21(3), 1-2.
Jimerson, S. R., Oakland, T. D., & Farrell, P. T. (Eds.).

Commission for the Recognition of Specialties and

Table 1

Introductions to the Archival Descriptions of Clinical, Counseling, and School Psychology

Clinical Psychology (Division 12)^a

Clinical Psychology is a general practice and health service provider specialty in professional psychology. Clinical psychologists assess, diagnose, predict, prevent, and treat psychopathology, mental disorders and other individual or group problems to improve behavior adjustment, adaptation, personal effectiveness and satisfaction. What distinguishes Clinical Psychology as a general practice specialty is the breadth of problems addressed and of populations served. Clinical Psychology, in research, education, training and practice, focuses on individual differences, abnormal behavior, and mental disorders and their prevention, and lifestyle enhancement.

School Psychology (Division 16)^b

School Psychology is a general practice and health service provider specialty of professional psychology that is concerned with the science and practice of psychology with children, youth, families; learners of all ages; and the schooling process. The basic education and training of school psychologists prepares them to provide a range of psychological diagnosis, assessment, intervention, prevention, health promotion, and program development and evaluation services with a special focus on the developmental processes of children and youth within the context of schools, families, and other systems.

School psychologists are prepared to intervene at the individual and system level, and develop, implement, and evaluate preventive programs. In these efforts, they conduct ecologically valid assessments and intervene to promote positive learning environments within which children and youth from diverse backgrounds to ensure that all have equal access to effective educational and psychological services that promote healthy development.

Counseling Psychology (Division 17)^c

Counseling psychology is a general practice and health service provider specialty in professional psychology. It focuses on personal and interpersonal functioning across the life span and on emotional, social, vocational, educational, health-related, developmental and organizational concerns. Counseling psychology centers on typical or normal developmental issues as well as atypical or disordered development as it applies to human experience from individual, family, group, systems, and organizational perspectives. Counseling psychologists help people with physical, emotional, and mental disorders improve well-being, alleviate distress and maladjustment, and resolve crises. In addition, practitioners in this professional specialty provide assessment, diagnosis, and treatment of psychopathology.

Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology (Division 53)^d

Clinical Child Psychology is a specialty of professional psychology which brings together the basic tenets of clinical psychology with a thorough background in child, adolescent and family development and developmental psychopathology. Clinical child and adolescent psychologists conduct scientific research and provide psychological services to infants, toddlers, children, and adolescents. The research and practices of Clinical Child Psychology are focused on understanding, preventing, diagnosing, and treating psychological, cognitive, emotional, developmental, behavioral, and family problems of children. Of particular importance to clinical child and adolescent psychologists is a scientific understanding of the basic psychological needs of children and adolescents and how the family and other social contexts influence socio-emotional adjustment, cognitive development, behavioral adaptation, and health status of children and adolescents. There is an essential emphasis on a strong empirical research base recognizing the need for the documentation and further development of evidence-based assessments and treatments in clinical child and adolescent psychology.

^a Retrieved from <http://www.apa.org/crspdp/clipsych.html>

^b Retrieved from <http://www.apa.org/crspdp/schpsych.html>

^c Retrieved from <http://www.apa.org/crspdp/counseling.html>

^d Retrieved from <http://www.apa.org/crspdp/childclinic.html>



Prevalence of Meta-Analytic Reviews in School Psychology Journals

Matthew K. Burns
Maura Doyle Tanabe
Jennifer Hall-Lande
Gretchen R. VanGetson
Deanna Spanjers
Anastasia Hansen
Jaclyn Roverud
University of Minnesota

Educators tend to use research for a variety of reasons including as a foundation from which teaching and learning practices are developed and improved, and to defend current practice (Cochran-Smith, 2004). Advocates of just about any position in education almost universally support their claims by saying "the research says . . ." (Ellis, 2001, p. 19). However, some debate exists over what is and is not educational research (Viadero, 1999) as well as what is and is not quality educational research (White & Smith, 2002). Thus, it is important for school psychologists to effectively identify acceptable research evidence (Keith, 2002). In fact, skilled research consumption is likely the most common research activity among practitioners.

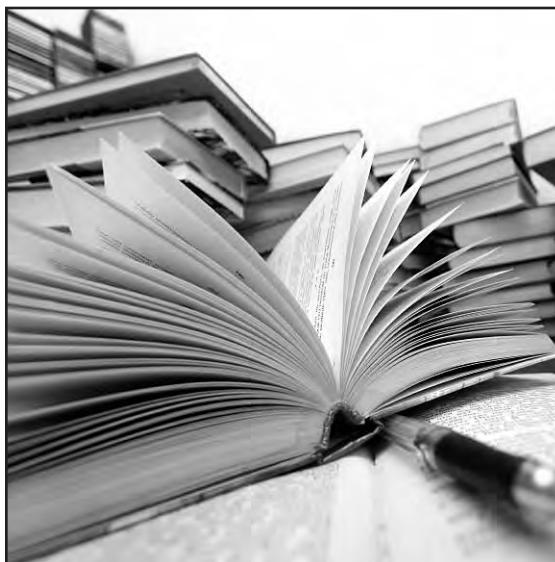
In addition to recognizing quality evidence within a single study, school psychologists should know how to synthesize findings from several studies to identify areas of congruence or inconsistency (Keith, 2002). Findings from a single study, even a well-designed study with solid causal validity, have only limited

generalizability (Ellis, 2001). Thus, there is a growing interest in the landscape of research and in looking for patterns of findings across studies (Hall & Rosenthal, 1995). Research literature is most often synthesized with narrative reviews (Kavale & Forness, 2000), which can be especially valuable when attempting to explain conflicting results

(Rosenthal & DiMatteo, 2001). Moreover, some of the most frequently cited articles in school psychology are narrative reviews of previous research (e.g., Aaron, 1997; Deno, 1985; Stanovich, 1986). However, narrative reviews of research can be susceptible to several errors inherent to the process, such as omitting important studies, misrepresenting conclusions, and treating all evidence within the synthesis as equal (Dunkin, 1996). Narrative reviews of research may also lead to inaccurate or imprecise conclusions (Cooper & Rosenthal, 1980).

In response to potential difficulties associated with narrative reviews, Glass (1976) proposed a meta-analytic approach to synthesizing a body of

research and published several papers about this methodology in the early 1980s (e.g., Kavale & Glass, 1981; 1984; McGaw & Glass, 1980; Smith & Glass, 1980). Meta-analysis is a methodology for systematically examining a body of research through a presumably exhaustive search with well established inclusion/exclusion criteria to examine the effect of variables on the phenomenon of interest



(Glass, 1976). A primary difference between meta-analyses and narrative reviews is that meta-analyses include the reporting of an empirically derived effect size (Cooper, Valentine, & Charlton, 2000) such as Cohen's *d* (1989). Research syntheses that employ the meta-analytic approach are potentially advantageous over narrative reviews for policy

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 102

Prevalence of Meta-Analytic Reviews in School Psychology

decisions because they use quantitative methods for organizing and extracting information, eliminate study selection bias, detect interactions, and attempt to provide more objective general conclusions (Kavale & Forness, 2000).

Meta-analyses could be particularly useful for school psychology given that school psychologists should be competent consumers, synthesizers, and distributors of research that summarize bodies of evidence for groups such as school boards, administrative personnel, or other school psychologists (Keith, 2002). Moreover, meta-analytic studies are seen as better suited to inform educational practice and policy than narrative reviews (Kavale & Forness, 2000) and the prevalence of this methodology has grown remarkably since the early 1980s (Rosenthal & DiMatteo, 2001). However, the prevalence of meta-analyses in school psychology literature is unknown, and an assessment of prevalence within school psychology research could advance the conversation about the role of school psychologists as synthesizers of research within elementary and secondary schools.

The primary goal of this study is to investigate the prevalence of meta-analyses in the school psychology literature. Three questions guided the study and were as follows, (a) does the frequency of meta-analytic articles published in school psychology journals differ from the frequency of review articles published, (b) has the rate of publication of meta-analytic research and narrative reviews within school psychology varied over the last three decades, and (c) how does the frequency of meta-analytic and review articles among school psychology journals compare to the frequency in special education journals?

Method

Procedure

A list of all journals published in the areas of school psychology and special education were compiled. Special education was selected as the comparison group because special education journals are often topically related to school psychology and are regularly cited in the school psychology literature. Journals published by the American Psychological Association and the American Educational Research Association may also exhibit topical and referential overlap with school psychology journals, but both associations publish journals dedicated entirely to reviews of the

literature (e.g., *Psychological Bulletin* and *Review of Educational Research*), which could bias the results given that no such journal exists for school psychology.

The four primary journals in school psychology used for the study were the *Journal of School Psychology*, *Psychology in the Schools*, *School Psychology Quarterly*, and *School Psychology Review*. Given that four journals were examined to represent school psychology, four special education journals from the Council of Exceptional Children (CEC) website were also selected as a representation of special education research journals. The four journals with the highest impact factor scores for 2005, and thus were the most commonly referenced over a two-year period (Thompson, 2006), were selected and included: *Education & Training in Developmental Disorders*, *Exceptional Children*, *Journal of Behavioral Disorders*, and *Journal of Special Education*.

Coding

Data were collected by reviewing the articles published in the aforementioned eight journals between 1985 and 2004. The 1985 beginning date was selected because Glass's seminal work that proposed the meta-analysis methodology was published in 1976 and was followed by additional publications in the early 1980s. Six school psychology doctoral students conducted a hand review in which the paper copy of each issue of the journals was examined and articles were coded. A total of 4,774 articles were reviewed, including 2,192 from CEC, and 2,582 from school psychology journals. Each article was examined and placed into one of three categories: (1) Original Research, (2) Review Article, or (3) Meta-Analysis. Original research was operationally defined as any article that described an individual study (but more than one study could be included in one article), and included method and results sections. Review articles were operationally defined as articles that reviewed research literature and did not contain a methods or results section. Finally, a meta-analysis was any article that was an empirical synthesis of the research literature that included statistical data derived from other studies, most likely an empirically derived effect size. Articles that did not fit the criteria for any of the three categories (e.g., book reviews, test reviews, editorial comments) were excluded from the study.

Data for the study consisted of the percentage of articles in each calendar year of publication

CONTINUED ON PAGE 104

Prevalence of Meta-Analytic Reviews in School Psychology

between 1985 and 2004 that were review articles and meta-analytic studies for each of the two groups. The number of articles that were coded as meta-analyses and narrative reviews within 1 year was divided by the total number of articles published within that year across the journals within each group (school psychology or special education). Percentages were used because the number of issues in one year varied among journals and the number of articles in each issue varied. Thus, there were 20 data points (percentage of articles within each year from 1985 to 2004) for the type of articles (meta-analyses or reviews) and the two groups (school psychology or special education).

Nonparametric analyses were used to address the research questions because the data consisted of percentages and because of the relatively small sample size. Moreover, the final two research questions involved two analyses each, so an adjusted alpha level of .025 was used to establish significance.

Interobserver Agreement

Prior to data collection, six school psychology doctoral students were trained in meta-analytic methodology and in the coding system for the study during two 3-hour sessions. Agreement across observers was assessed by having a second person code 20% of the articles into the three categories. The number of articles that were consistently coded by both raters was divided by the total number of articles and resulted in 100% interobserver

agreement.

Results

The first research question addressed the prevalence of meta-analytic research in school psychology journals. As shown in Table 1, 1.55% of all school psychology articles reviewed between 1985 and 2004 were meta-analyses, as compared to 35.11% that were review articles. A Wilcoxin Signed Ranks test was computed to compare the prevalence of meta-analyses with review articles within school psychology for each calendar year. There were more review articles than meta-analyses in each of the 20 years, which resulted in a significant effect $z (n = 20) 3.92, p < .05$.

The second research question addressed the prevalence of meta-analyses within school psychology journals across the three decades. The mean percentage of review and meta-analytic articles was computed for journals that appeared in the 1980s, 1990s, and 2000s. As shown in Table 2, the percentage of review articles remained somewhat consistent across the three decades, which resulted in nonsignificant effect using a Kruskal-Wallis test $X^2 (2, n = 20) = 1.66, p = .44$. However, the prevalence of meta-analyses within school psychology research more than doubled from decade to decade, which resulted in a significant effect $X^2 (2, n = 20) = 9.02, p < .025$.

The final research question inquired about the

Table 1**Prevalence of Narrative Review and Meta-Analytic Articles in School Psychology and CEC Journals between 1985 and 2004**

| | <i>N</i> | School Psychology | | <i>N</i> | Special Education | | |
|-------------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|----------|-------------------|-----------|---------------------|
| | | Mean % | <i>SD</i> | | Mean % | <i>SD</i> | <i>Mann-Whitney</i> |
| Narrative Reviews | 20 | 35.11 | 06.31 | 20 | 30.12 | 13.78 | 2.54* |
| Meta-Analyses | 20 | 01.55 | 01.22 | 20 | 02.12 | 02.29 | 0.81 |

* $p < .025$ **Table 2****Prevalence of Meta-Analytic and Review Articles in School Psychology Journals across the Three Decades**

| | <i>N</i> | 1980s | | <i>N</i> | 1990s | | <i>N</i> | 2000s | | χ^2 |
|-------------------|----------|--------|-----------|----------|--------|-----------|----------|--------|-----------|----------|
| | | Mean % | <i>SD</i> | | Mean % | <i>SD</i> | | Mean % | <i>SD</i> | |
| Narrative Reviews | 05 | 34.95 | 07.40 | 10 | 36.55 | 05.51 | 05 | 30.40 | 7.20 | 01.66 |
| Meta-Analyses | 05 | 00.61 | 00.67 | 10 | 01.31 | 00.54 | 05 | 2.98 | 01.46 | 9.02* |

* $p < .025$

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 104

Prevalence of Meta-Analytic Reviews in School Psychology

prevalence of meta-analyses and review articles in school psychology journals as compared to CEC journals, the data for which are displayed in Table 1. A Mann-Whitney test found that school psychology journals had a higher percentage of review articles than did special education (CEC) journals $z (n = 40) = 2.54, p < .025$, and the percentage of meta-analytic articles did not lead to a significant effect $z (n = 40) = .81, p = .42$.

Discussion

Research consumption, synthesis, and distribution are important roles for school psychologists in elementary and secondary schools (Keith, 2002), and reformation of practice should be based on a summary of accumulated research rather than on a single study (Ellis, 2001). The current study found that 36.66% of articles published in school psychology journals were either narrative reviews or meta-analyses, which suggested that almost two-thirds of the articles were reports of original research. However, less than 2% of the articles in school psychology journals were meta-analyses and there were 22.7 times as many narrative reviews as meta-analyses.

Research that employs single subject methodology, such as multiple-baselines and reversal studies, are becoming increasingly more prevalent in school psychology as the field continues to further conduct intervention research (Winn, Skinner, Allin, & Hawkins, 2004). However, only one meta-analysis of solely single-subject research was found in a school psychology journal (Maughan, Christiansen, Jenson, Olympia, & Clark, 2005). This lack of prevalence for single-subject meta-analytic research could be due to the lack of accepted methods for conducting these studies and questions about the applicability of this approach to data about individual research participants (Baron & Drennen, 2000). For example, Cohen's d is not an appropriate metric to use because it examines differences between groups rather than within subjects. Thus, different metrics such as a no-assumptions effect size (Busk & Serlin, 1992) and percentage non-overlapping data (PND; Scruggs, Mastropieri, & Casto, 1987) were developed and recommended. Some argue that meta-analyses of single-subject research, and more specifically the empirical metrics used such as PND, do not capture patterns across time, could miss idiosyncrasies in the data, are too significantly affected by atypical baseline data, and may lead to misrepresenting conclusions (Salzberg, Strain, & Baer, 1987; White,

1987). However, an empirical review of PND data found that results were both practically meaningful and consistent with the original research (Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1998), and other meta-analytic researchers have endorsed the PND approach (Kavale, Mathur, Forness, Quinn, & Rutherford, 2000). The Institute for Educational Science recently funded a center to develop and refine methodology for meta-analyses in single-subject research (Shadish, 2007), which will hopefully soon inform the conversation.

There are potentially substantial criticisms of meta-analyses due to threats to the validity of meta-analytic findings including combining studies of different variables (apples and oranges problem), publication biases, and not differentiating quality studies from those that used poor methodology (Matt & Cook, 1994). However, empirical analyses suggest a lack of evidence for these potential threats (Rosenthal, 1979), and search methods and analyses can easily be employed to lessen their influence (Sharpe, 1997). Therefore, it is as important for skilled consumers of meta-analytic research to be able to identify quality methods as it is for consumers of individual studies.

Some limitations in this study should be noted. First, there are many journals relevant to school psychology that were not included in the review including *Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation*, *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment*, and *School Psychology International*. Thus, future researchers may wish to expand the scope of this study to include additional journals. Moreover, there were only four journals selected from all of the available CEC journals in order to equal the number of school psychology journals selected. Perhaps a larger and more diverse sample of CEC journals may have yielded different outcomes. Finally, the current study examined frequency rather than quality. In fact, no measure of research quality was included, which suggests another area of future research because the nature of meta-analytic research could vary across time and disciplines.

Given school psychology's emphasis on data-based decision making (Ysseldyke et al., 2006) and research consumption (Keith, 2002), the meta-analytic procedure for research synthesis seems particularly relevant to the field. Thus, scholars could further consider using the meta-analytic approach, but little is known about the teaching of meta-analytic procedures in graduate training programs or the perceptions of this approach among

CONTINUED ON PAGE 106

Prevalence of Meta-Analytic Reviews in School Psychology

journal editors, editorial boards, and those making tenure decisions. Therefore, although the meta-analytic approach to research synthesis offers great potential in research, policy decisions, and practice (Kavale & Forness, 2000), additional research is needed regarding how well the field would accept this approach before it can be more frequently employed by scholars and consumed by practitioners.

References

- Aaron, P. G. (1997). The impending demise of the discrepancy formula. *Review of Educational Research*, 67, 461-502.
- Baron, A., & Derenne, A. (2000). Quantitative summaries of single-subject studies: What do group comparisons tell us about individual performances? *Behavior Analyst*, 23, 101-106.
- Busk, P. L., & Serlin, R. C. (1992). Meta-analysis for single-case research. In T. R. Kratochwill & J. R. Levin (Eds.), *Single-case research design and analysis: New directions for psychology and education* (pp. 187-212). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Cochran-Smith, M. (2004). Promises and politics: Images of research in the discourse of teaching and teacher education. In J. Worthy, B. Maloch, J. V. Hoffman, D. L. Schallert, & C. M. Fairbanks (Eds.), pp. 28-44. *53rd Yearbook of the National Reading Conference*. Oak Creek, WI: National Reading Conference.
- Cohen, J. (1989). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Cooper, H. M., & Rosenthal, R. (1980). Statistical versus traditional procedures for summarizing research findings. *Psychological Bulletin*, 87, 442-449.
- Cooper, H. M., Valentine, J. C., & Charlton, K. (2000). The methodology of meta-analysis. In R. Gersten, E. P. Schiller, & S. Vaughn (Eds.), *Contemporary special education research: Syntheses of the knowledge base on critical instructional issues* (263-280). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Deno, S. L. (1985). Curriculum-based measurement: The emerging alternative. *Exceptional Children*, 52, 219-232.
- Dunkin, M. J. (1996). Types of errors in synthesizing research in education. *Review of Educational Research*, 66 (2), 87-97.
- Ellis, A. K. (2001). *Research on educational innovations* (3rd ed.). Larchmont, NY: Eye on Education.
- Glass, G. V. (1976). Primary, secondary, and meta-analysis of research. *Educational Researcher*, 5, 3-8.
- Hall, J. A., & Rosenthal, R. (1995). Interpreting and evaluating meta-analysis. *Evaluation & the Health Professions*, 18, 393-407.
- Kavale, K. A., & Forness, S. R. (2000). Policy decisions in special education: The role of meta-analysis. In R. Gersten, E. P. Schiller, & S. Vaughn (Eds.), *Contemporary special education research: Syntheses of knowledge base on critical instructional issues* (pp. 281-326). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Kavale, K. A., & Glass, G. V. (1984). Meta-analysis and policy decision in special education. *Advances in Special Education*, 4, 195-247.
- Kavale, K. A., & Glass, G. V. (1981). Meta-analysis and the integration of research in special education. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 14, 531-538.
- Kavale, K. A., Mathur, S. R., Forness, S. R., Quinn, M. M., & Rutherford, R. B. Jr. (2000). Right reason in the integration of group and single-subject research in behavioral disorders. *Behavioral Disorders*, 25, 142-157.
- Keith, T. Z. (2002). Best practices in applied research. In A. Thomas & J. Grimes (Eds.), *Best practices in school psychology-IV* (pp. 91-102). Bethesda, MD: NASP.
- Matt, G. E., & Cook, T. D. (1994). Threats to the validity of research syntheses. In H. Cooper & L. V. Hedges (Eds.), *Handbook of research synthesis* (pp. 503-520). New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Maughan, D. R., Christiansen, E., Jenson, W. R., Olympia, D., & Clark, E. (2005). Behavioral parent training as a treatment for externalizing behaviors and disruptive behavior disorders: A meta-analysis. *School Psychology Review*, 34, 267-286.
- McGraw, B. & Glass, G. V. (1980). Choice of the metric for effect size in meta-analysis. *American Educational Research Journal*, 17, 325-337.
- Rosenthal, R. (1979). The "File Drawer Problem" and tolerance for null results. *Psychological Bulletin*, 86, 638-641.
- Rosenthal, R. & DiMatteo, M. R. (2001). Meta-analysis: Recent developments in quantitative methods for literature reviews. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52, 59-82.
- Salzberg, C. L., Strain, P. S., & Baer, D. M. (1987). Meta-analysis for single-subject research: When does it clarify, when does it obscure. *Remedial and Special Education*, 8, 43-48.
- Scruggs, T. E., & Mastropieri, M. A. (1998). Summarizing single-subject research: Issues and applications. *Behavior Modification*, 22, 221-242.
- Scruggs, T. E., Mastropieri, M. A., & Casto, G. (1987). The quantitative synthesis of single-subject research: Methodology and validation. *Remediate and Special Education*, 8, 24-33.
- Shadish, W. R. (2007, May). *Meta-analysis of single subject research*. Invited lecture at the Association for Behavior Analysis annual convention, San Diego, CA.
- Sharpe, D. (1997). Of apples and oranges, file drawers and garbage: Why validity issues in meta-analysis will not go away. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 17, 881-901.
- Smith, M. L., & Glass, G. V. (1980). Meta-analysis of research on class size and its relationship to attitudes and instruction. *American Educational Research Journal*, 17, 419-433.
- Stanovich, K. E. (1986). Matthew effects in reading: Some consequences of individual differences in the acquisition of literacy. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 21, 360-406.
- Thomson Corporation. (2006). *2005 Journal citation reports: Social sciences edition*. Stamford, CT: author.
- Viadero, D. (1999). What is (and isn't) research? *Education Week*, 18(41), 33-38. Washington, DC: Editorial Projects in Education.
- White, O. (1987). The quantitative synthesis of single-subject research: Method and validation: Comment. *Remedial and Special Education*, 8, 34-39.
- White, E., & Smith, C. S. (Eds.). (2002). Theme issue on scientific research in education. *Educational Researcher*, 31(8), 3-29.
- Winn, B. D., Skinner, C. H., Allin, J. D., & Hawkins, J. A. (2004). Practicing school consultants can empirically validate interventions: A description and demonstration of the non-concurrent multiple-baseline design. *Journal of Applied School Psychology*, 20, 109-128.
- Ysseldyke, J.E., Burns, M.K., Dawson, M., Kelly, B., Morrison, D., Ortiz, S., Rosenfield, S., & Telzrow, C. (2006). *School psychology: A blueprint for training and practice III*. Bethesda, MD: National Association of School Psychologists.

Authors' Note:

The order of authorship for the fourth, fifth, and sixth authors was determined randomly with all three contributing equally to the paper.

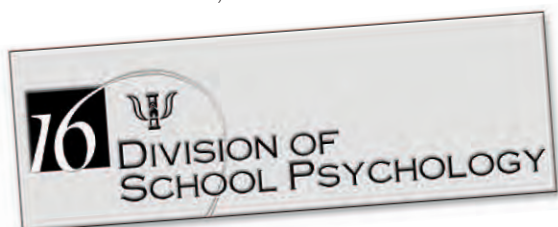
APA DIVISION 16 SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY MEMBERSHIP APPLICATION

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:

LAST NAME FIRST NAME M.

ADDRESS:

CITY STATE ZIP

PHONE

APA MEMBERSHIP NO. (IF APPLICABLE):

Please check status:

- ☐ Member \$45
- ☐ Fellow \$45
- ☐ Professional Associate \$55
- ☐ 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



Change of Specialty Issues in School Psychology: A Preliminary of APA-Accredited Programs in School Psychology

Linda C. Caterino, Amanda Sullivan & Emily Bacal
Arizona State University

“...since the outset of the field of school psychology, there has never been a sufficient number of school psychologists to fill the demand for service.”

Abstract

As the demand for school psychologists increases, the percentage of school-based practitioners with doctoral degrees decreases. The shortage of school psychologists, combined with somewhat limited employment opportunities in other fields of psychology, has led many graduates of non-school psychology programs to seek a change of specialty program in school psychology. In the present study, directors of APA-accredited school psychology training programs were surveyed regarding their change of specialty programs. Respondents indicated that most did not have a designated change of specialty program, and those that did had few applicants. The implications for these results will be discussed.

Introduction

Fagan first commented on the shortage of school psychologists in 1988, and Connolly and Reschly deemed it a “crisis” in 1990 (McIntosh, 2004). However, Fagan (2004), citing a report from the 1954 Thayer Conference, acknowledged that since the outset of the field of school psychology, there has never been a sufficient number of school psychologists to fill the demand for service. Since the passage of PL-142 in 1975, the demand for school psychologists has increased exponentially. According to McIntosh (2004), the shortage of qualified personnel has increased to the point that several state and national organizations have developed task forces to investigate the matter.

Not only has the demand for school psychologists increased over the past 20 years, but the demographics have also changed in such ways that will likely contribute to even greater demand in the future. The average age of school psychologists has been steadily increasing for the past several decades, and as more school psychologists reach retirement, some have voiced concerns about the future of the field (Crespi & Politkos, 2004; Curtis, Hunley, & Chesno Grier, 2004). Both of the two major organizations representing school psychology,

the American Psychological Association (APA) Division 16, and the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) acknowledge the need to recruit more new school psychologists to the field (Tharinger & Palomares, 2004); however, they differ on the amount of training necessary to practice school psychology.

The APA proposes that psychologists should have a doctoral degree for licensure (Archival Definition of School Psychology, n.d.). The Petition for Re-Affirmation of the Specialty of School Psychology (2002) recommends a core curriculum in the basic psychological foundations of psychology (i.e., biological, cognitive-affective, and social bases of behavior), as well as course work in the history and systems of psychological science, ethics, research design and statistics, and psychological measurement. In addition, the Petition states that specialized training in school psychology should encompass coursework in developmental psychopathology, academic achievement, effective instruction, prevention, and family parenting/ processes. The Petition states that the practice of school psychology requires knowledge of assessment, intervention, consultation, supervision, research and inquiry, and special education laws and regulations. The NASP also outlines specific areas of competency required for the practice of school psychology including: interpersonal and collaborative skills; diversity awareness and sensitive service delivery; technological applications; professional, legal, ethical, and social responsibility; the four functional skills of data-based decision making and accountability; systems-based service delivery; enhancing the development of academic and cognitive skills and enhancing the development of wellness, social skills, mental health, and life competencies. However, none of the competencies outlined by these professional organizations specifically translate into the legal qualifications for certification at the state level.

While some (Tharinger & Palomares, 2004) have suggested easing the path for licensed

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 108

Change of Specialty Issues in School Psychology

psychologists who have been trained in programs other than school psychology to practice within the school setting in order to lessen the shortage of school psychologists, there is concern that licensed clinical or counseling psychologists may not have had the education or experience needed to practice in the schools. For example, clinical or counseling psychology graduate programs may not require coursework in special education law, child and adolescent assessment, child and adolescent counseling, knowledge of school systems, educational assessment, or curriculum interventions. Minke and Brown (1996) studied the similarities and differences between school and child clinical psychology training programs. They noted that both professional programs provide training in intellectual and personality assessment, theories of counseling, research methods, biological and social bases of behavior, learning, development history and systems. Nevertheless, significant differences were noted, with school psychology programs providing specialized training in the assessment of academic skills and achievement, measurement, consultation, administration, and special education curriculum, and child clinical programs emphasizing child and adolescent psychopathology, interviewing and community psychology skills.

While the demand for school psychologists grows, changes in managed care and increases in malpractice insurance rates have reduced profitability for some clinical psychologists in private practice. Additionally, the field of clinical psychology has become glutted as more and more students seek doctoral degrees in clinical psychology (Crespi & Politkos, 2004) and compete with master's level counselors for clients. In comparison, the number of school psychology doctoral graduates has been limited. Curtis (2002) reports that there are only about 300-320 graduates of doctoral level school psychology programs each year. The Association of Psychology Post-doctoral and Internship Centers (APPIC; 2007) Match Program provides some idea of the disproportionate representation of psychology program graduates, at least in terms of those students seeking a nationally accredited internship. This year alone, more than 2,500 students sought an APPIC accredited internship, with 1793 (77%) students coming from clinical psychology programs, 328 (14%) from counseling psychology programs, and only 107 (5%) from school psychology programs (APPIC, 2007). Given the limited number of doctorally trained

school psychologists, in combination with the decreasing number of practice opportunities for clinical and counseling psychologists, and the ever-growing shortage of school psychologists in general, many questions have arisen regarding the qualifications of graduates of non-school psychology programs to provide school psychology services within the schools.

NASP and APA agree that those seeking to practice within the schools should conform to state guidelines to obtain credentials (Tharinger & Palomares, 2004). However, the requirements for certification of school psychologists vary widely from state to state. The NASP website (Respecialization Information, n.d.) provides general guidelines concerning individual state certification regulations. The results may not be entirely accurate, as some states have not provided recent updates, but from the information provided, approximately 33 states require a graduate degree in school psychology in order to be certified as a school psychologist, 12 states require a degree in psychology, and the rest indicate that a degree in a related field is acceptable. Few states mandate specific coursework, but some states require that the degree come from a state approved training program. Several states require the Praxis examination while others do not. The Nationally Certified School Psychologist credential is used as part of the certification procedure in 29 states. Interestingly, only one state, Arizona, specifically addresses the issue of retraining in school psychology in its certification requirements.

Unlike State Boards of Psychologist Examiners, where licensed psychologists provide critical leadership role in determining professional qualifications and drafting regulatory statutes, most school psychology certificates are issued by State Departments of Education, where school psychologists are not well represented and decisions are primarily made by members of other professions (e.g., teachers and school administrators). Thus, school psychologists typically do not have a major role in determining entry into their own profession.

“...the requirements for certification of school psychologists vary widely from state to state.”



CONTINUED ON PAGE 110

Change of Specialty Issues in School Psychology

Both NASP and APA provide guidelines on change of specialty. APA adopted its current policy on training for change of specialty in 1976, and last revised it in 1982. This document advises professional training programs to provide individualized programming for individuals who already hold a doctoral degree in another area of psychology who wish to change their specialty. The document states that the training for these individuals "should be linked to relevant APA-approved programs," both university programs and internships. The document further states that, "with respect to subject matter and professional skills, psychologists taking such training must meet all requirements of doctoral training in the new psychological specialty, being given due credit for relevant course work or requirements they have previously satisfied." It cautions that "...merely taking an internship or acquiring experience in a practicum setting is not considered adequate preparation for becoming, for example, a clinical, counseling, or school psychologist when prior training has not been in the relevant area" (APA, n.d.).

NASP uses the term "respecialization." Their document states that "individuals with a graduate degree in a closely related field (e.g., clinical psychology, counseling psychology) may be eligible for the Nationally Certified School Psychologist (NCSP) designation, provided they have completed a respecialization program at a NASP-approved training program" (NASP, n.d.). However, the actual requirements of the "respecialization" programs have not been specifically detailed.

Thus, it is assumed that both APA and NASP retraining programs may be individualized based on each student's needs, but the actual requirements for change of specialty have not been assessed prior to this survey. In this survey only those programs in school psychology accredited by the American Psychological Association were contacted as the initial project was conceived as part of the duties of the senior author, the Vice President of Professional Affairs for Division 16.

Method*Participants*

All the training directors of the 52 School Psychology Training Programs accredited by the American Psychological Association were surveyed. As previously stated, only the APA-accredited

programs were contacted since the survey was initially conceptualized as part of the duties of the APA Division 16 Vice President for Professional Affairs.

Materials

A 26-item survey using both multiple choice and open-ended questions was developed. The questions addressed the availability of a change of specialty program, number and graduate background of interested and actual applicants, application procedures, number of graduates, and program requirements. The Training Directors were asked to consider data from only the last three years. The survey was administered using Survey Monkey (www.surveymonkey.com), a software program which assists researchers in designing, collecting and analyzing survey.

Method

The list of School Psychology Programs accredited by the American Psychological Association was obtained through the APA Accreditation website. The programs were examined and the name of each training director was determined through the program website. All Training Directors were sent the survey via email and asked to participate.

Results

Eighteen training directors responded to the survey, for a response rate of just under 35%. Only 5 of the 18 respondents indicated that they had a retraining program available for graduates from other professional psychology programs. Thirteen respondents indicated that they had received requests for information about retraining in the past three years. Most ($n = 9$) received two or fewer requests while two training directors received 10 or more requests. Four out of five respondents indicated that applicants for their retraining programs participated in the same application process as other students. Of these programs, only four directors indicated that they had accepted any students for retraining in the last 3 years, with three programs admitting one student each, and one program admitting six students. Of these five programs featuring retraining programs, only one student was reported to have completed a retraining program in school psychology in the last three years. The respondents indicated that course requirements depended on the students' previous training and experience and featured individualized curriculum.

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 110

Change of Specialty Issues in School Psychology

However, all of the five programs with retraining programs available indicated that students would be required to take an additional practica, and 80% indicated that the practicum would have to be in a school setting; however, the number of practicum

Table 1*Requirements of Retraining Programs (N = 5)*

| Requirement | <i>n</i> |
|------------------------------|----------|
| Additional coursework | 5 |
| Practica | 5 |
| School setting required | 4 |
| Internship | 5 |
| School setting required | 3 |
| Doctoral Comprehensive Exams | 2 |
| Dissertation | 0 |

hours required varied. All five also indicated that an additional internship would be required, but only three indicated that the internship must be in a school. Two of the five required comprehensive examinations, but none of the programs required a dissertation. See Table 1 for a summary of these results.

Discussion

In recent years, the accreditation and certification processes of school psychology graduate programs conducted by APA and NASP have led to more rigorous control of program coursework and practical experiences. However, the change of specialty process has not been as uniform. In fact, of the 52 APA-accredited programs surveyed, and the 18 programs responding, only 5 indicated that they had a change of specialty program. With the demand for school psychologists increasing, more graduates of other psychology programs may seek employment as school psychologists. Professional training requirements for certification appear to be left to state agencies, with universities providing little structure. While the response rate to this survey was low, it appears the university provisions for post-graduate change of specialty training in school psychology seem to be at a minimum. State agencies may need to be guided by universities and professional organizations in determining appropriate preparation for school

psychologists. A doctoral degree in psychology may lead to licensure as a psychologist, but without additional training in working with school-aged populations and students with disabilities, there may be variability in daily practices between those psychologists who have education and training in school psychology and those who do not. On the other hand, if change of specialty training is not made available to graduates of other professional psychology programs, then an important group of potential school psychology practitioners may be overlooked as shortages in the profession increase.

According to this preliminary survey, few graduate programs have experienced much interest from psychologists seeking a change of specialty. Most programs had no change of specialty students admitted or completing a degree in the past three years. Some training directors expressed the belief that students may find the program requirements daunting, while others contend that students would rather seek state certification than a change of specialty program in school psychology in order to work in the schools. However, since some states require a degree in school psychology or graduation from a school psychology program for certification, the process may be inextricably related. Moreover, state requirements are making reciprocity from other states more difficult. Thus, many licensed psychologists may be barred from working in schools by state laws (Tharinger & Palomares, 2004).

This study was meant to be a preliminary view of the status of change of specialty training in school psychology as conducted by APA - accredited school psychology programs. The primary limitation of this study is, of course, the low response rate. Further research may include submitting a similar study to all graduate programs in school psychology, including NASP-approved and non-accredited programs, in addition to APA- accredited programs.

In summary, the results of this survey seem to suggest that school psychology programs may not be prepared to meet the potentially growing demand for psychologists in the schools. It appears that few individuals interested in a change of specialty choose to go through such programs. Individuals already established in their respective fields may be uninterested in entering an extensive program requiring additional coursework, practica, and internship when other, possibly quicker and cheaper, routes exist, such as state certification. Yet, best practice requires that psychologists and school

CONTINUED ON PAGE 112

Change of Specialty Issues in School Psychology

psychologists complete the appropriate training necessary to practice within the scope of their competence. University training programs should take the lead in determining competencies for school psychologists, how these competencies may be obtained and minimal requirements for school psychology certification, and then work closely with their state regulatory agency to enact these regulations.

References

- American Psychological Association (2002). *Ethical principles of psychologists and code of conduct*. Retrieved June 25, 2007 from <http://www.apa.org/ethics/code.html>
- American Psychological Association (n.d.). *Council Policy Manual: K. Educational Affairs*. Retrieved June 25, 2007 from <http://www.apa.org/about/division/cpmeducational.html#14>
- American Psychological Association (2007). *Accredited Programs in School Psychology*. Retrieved April 1, 2006. from <http://www.apa.org/ed/accreditation/schoolpsy.html>
- Archival Definition of School Psychology (n.d.). Retrieved June 26, 2007 <http://www.apa.org/crsppp/schpsych.html>
- Association of Psychology Post-Doctoral and Internship Centers (2007). *Match statistics*. Retrieved June 24, 2007 from http://www.appic.org/match/5_2_2_match_about_statistics.html
- Crespi, T. D., & Politikos, N. N. (2004). Respecialization as a school psychologist: Education, training, and supervision for school practice. *Psychology in the Schools, 41*, 473-480.
- Curtis, M. (2002). *The changing face of school psychology: Past, present and future*. Retrieved June 15, 2007 from <http://www.indiana.edu/~futures/presentations.html>
- Curtis, M. J., Hunley, S. A., & Chesno Grier, E. C. (2004). The status of school psychology: Implications of a major personnel shortage. *Psychology in the Schools, 41*, 431-442.
- Fagan, T. K. (2004). School psychology's significant discrepancy: Historical perspectives on personnel shortages. *Psychology in the Schools, 41*, 419-430.
- McIntosh, D. E. (2004). Addressing the shortage of school psychologists: Introduction. *Psychology in the Schools, 41*, 411-413.
- Minke, K. M., & Brown, D. T. (1996). Preparing psychologists to work with children: A comparison of curricula in child-clinical and school psychology programs. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice, 27*, 631-634.
- National Association of School Psychologists.(2006). *School Psychology: A blueprint for training and practice III*. Bethesda, MD: Author.
- National Association of School Psychologists. (N.D.). *Respecialization Information*. Retrieved June 24, 2007 from <http://www.nasponline.org/certification/respecialization.aspx>
- Tharinger, D., & Palomares, R. S. (2004). An APA-informed perspective on the shortage of school psychologists. *Psychology in the schools, 41*, 461-472.



The Relationship Between Girls' Academic Achievement and Academic Self-Concept: Implications for School Psychologists

Cindy Altman & Laura M. Crothers, Duquesne University
Kimberly A. Blair, University of Pittsburgh

Although there are many factors that impact what girls, as well as boys, achieve in school, one of the most influential is their academic self-concept; this refers to a child's belief in his/her ability to be successful at academic tasks, whether in specific subject areas or more generally. Recognizing this, researchers in the United States, as well as England, Sweden, Australia, and Germany, have shown an increased interest in recent years in examining the relationship between girls' academic achievement and academic self-concept. To date, the results of studies investigating these phenomena largely indicate that when girls believe they are competent in a particular domain, they perform well, but tend to do less well in subject areas in which they lack such confidence. These findings are reminiscent of Albert Bandura's familiar notion of self-efficacy, which suggests that individuals tend to engage in tasks that they believe they are capable of completing successfully, but exercise greater caution in realms in which success seems less certain (Ormrod, 2004).

Understanding the nature of the relationship between girls' academic achievement and academic self-concept is important for school psychologists, given the impact that their daily practice has on the educational experience of all of the students they serve. Increased knowledge of the relationship between girls' scholarly attainment and self-appraisal will enable school psychologists to pursue roles in curricular development, teacher consultation, local and national advocacy efforts, and the like that should be of particular benefit to the female students in their schools.

In an effort to aid school psychologists in developing a greater understanding of the relationship between girls' academic achievement and academic self-concept, a brief overview of the changes that tend to be evidenced for girls in these domains across the school years is provided. Following this, a short discussion of factors that

appear to influence girls' self-concept of their academic abilities is presented, giving special consideration to those factors related to schooling. To conclude, recommendations are offered to school psychologists regarding ways in which they can best assist girls in developing and maintaining a healthy, realistic sense of competence in their academic abilities, a seemingly essential ingredient for the academic success of female students.

Changes in Achievement and Self-Concept Across Development

A review of recently published literature pertaining to girls' academic self-concept reveals that girls commonly begin school optimistic about what they can achieve. Throughout elementary school, girls generally believe that their competence extends across curricular areas, and most hold a view that their efforts will lead to academic success. As a result, girls tend to work hard at academic tasks (Valeski & Stipek, 2001) and perform at least as well as, and possibly better than boys in all subject areas (e.g., Reis & Callahan, 1996; Sadker & Sadker, 1994). For the most part, girls seem to retain this level of optimism for the duration of their elementary school careers, and achieve at high levels throughout, regardless of the subject area.

Sadly, as girls progress through the school years, they frequently begin to doubt their academic abilities. This shift in girls' viewpoints seems to occur most notably following the transition to middle school, and is evidenced to the greatest extent in subjects such as math and science, the curricular areas in which gender differences in achievement during this stage of

“...as girls progress through the school years, they frequently begin to doubt their academic abilities.”



Girls' Achievement and Self-Concept

“Given that middle school and high school girls may question their competency in math or science, it seems plausible that a smaller number of girls than boys would pursue careers in such fields following graduation.”

development are often most pronounced (e.g., Giota, 2002; Muller, 1998). There are many plausible reasons for this achievement discrepancy, including greater parental and/or teacher encouragement of boys in these domains, boys' tendency to be more self-assured than girls, and curricula more closely linked to the interests of boys than girls.

Although relatively little study has focused upon changes in girls' academic self-concept during the high school years, the research findings that are available largely suggest that throughout high school, girls' beliefs in their ability to succeed academically may continue to decline, as they had following the transition to middle school. While in high school, girls may possess particularly little confidence in their ability to solve problems, which could be associated with a belief that they cannot succeed in math or science, as both domains frequently require problem-solving skills (Chaplain, 2000). For those girls who perceive success in math and science as unattainable, doubts related to their problem-solving abilities may perpetuate such negative views, and potentially lead to a reduction in effort in these areas of the curriculum. Reduced effort and doubts regarding one's skills could, in turn, relate to observed declines in girls' performance in these subjects during high school (e.g., Lips, 2004), despite performance commensurate with previous levels of achievement in other curricular domains. Interestingly, current researchers tend not to report specific numbers of girls for whom this is the case, but rather indicate that a general trend is observed wherein girls' academic performance in math and science declines as they progress through school. Knowledge of more specific data could be instructive, however, in clarifying the percentage of girls who evidence this trend, as well as planning efforts to reverse it.

Given that middle school and high school girls may question their competency in math or science, it seems plausible that a smaller number of girls than boys would pursue careers in such fields following graduation. Echoing this sentiment, England and Li (2006) report that women have been slow to enter “non-traditional” fields, a classification that would include those related to math and science. Even among females who enter math- and science-related careers, doubts regarding their abilities may remain or resurface upon entry to the workforce. Within the workplace, such doubts could manifest in a host of ways, such as a tendency to be silent and/or submissive in interactions with male coworkers, who frequently possess greater confidence (e.g.,

Sadker & Sadker, 1994). In more recent years, Maki, Moore, Grunberg, and Greenberg (2005) obtained similar findings. These authors found that among women who hold managerial positions in male-dominated fields, there is a tendency for their contributions to be minimized or dismissed by their male colleagues.

At this point, one can only imagine how vastly different the above scenario might be if, throughout their schooling, girls continued to believe they were competent and achieved at levels commensurate with their ability in all areas of the curriculum. For this to become a reality, it seems essential that, during their school years, girls develop confidence in their ability to succeed in a variety of domains. Hopefully then, they would carry this belief with them to the workplace and have the potential to achieve greater success in their careers. Because confidence does not serve as the sole influence on girls' achievement in school and in the workforce, it is important to acknowledge that varied additional factors likely play a role in this regard. These supplementary influences may include, for instance, perceived utility of math and science (Watt, 2006), early levels of achievement in these domains (Shapka, Domene, & Keating, 2006), and concerns about one's ability to maintain a balance between work and family obligations when employed in a math or science-related career (Frome, Alfeld, Eccles, & Barber, 2006).

With the diversity of factors that potentially influence girls' achievement, one may wonder why self-confidence is believed to play such a critical role. Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, and Pastorelli (2001) contend that beliefs in one's abilities are primary, as individuals have little incentive to persist or persevere in the face of difficulty unless they believe their actions will result in a successful outcome. These authors do not nullify the impact of other factors, but argue that all other influential variables are essentially guided by the belief that one either has the power to produce or not produce desired effects by one's actions. Given that numerous school-related factors (e.g., teacher perceptions, ability levels) may influence the development and maintenance of girls' beliefs regarding their academic competencies (Herbert & Stipek, 2005), school psychologists may have a place in efforts to reverse the trend currently observed with regard to girls' academic achievement and academic self-concept across development.

Girls' Achievement and Self-Concept

Factors Influencing Girls' Academic Self-Concept

Although it may be interesting and informative in its own right, the information presented above pertaining to the relationship between girls' academic achievement and academic self-concept is essentially descriptive in nature, and is based more upon authors' opinions and observations than a rigorous empirical foundation. Relatively little information is presently available regarding how, or where, to direct efforts at preventing the negative shift in girls' beliefs regarding their academic competencies, or intervening to assist girls who have developed negative views appraise their skills in a healthy, more realistic manner.

In order to structure such prevention and intervention efforts successfully, it is essential to understand factors that are implicated in the changes commonly observed in girls' self-concepts as they progress through school. Although the impact upon girls' beliefs in this regard are complex and numerous and may change somewhat across development, a select number of school-related factors that seem to be of particular salience in undermining girls' confidence, and hence may be prime targets for intervention, are briefly highlighted below.

Before concluding, a select number of factors believed to exert a positive impact upon girls' academic self-concept and academic performance are presented. Inclusion of such information is important, as intervention attempts should build upon the positive, rather than work solely to decrease the impact of those variables that are seemingly problematic. Clearly, the factors described are not the lone ones at work in these respects; a compendium of societal, familial, and individual-level factors likely also exert a role, but lie beyond the scope of the current review, which addresses school-based factors.

Negative Influences

Teacher beliefs. During the school years, teachers' attitudes can potentially have a negative impact on girls' confidence regarding their ability to be successful at academic tasks. This may occur, for instance, if teachers believe that boys are smarter, particularly in curricular areas such as math and science, where boys often outperform girls (Sadker & Sadker, 1994). As a consequence of holding such beliefs, teachers may encourage boys more so than girls in these domains, and communicate to them,

implicitly and/or explicitly, a belief that they can be successful. If girls are not similarly encouraged, they may question their math and science abilities. What is currently unknown is whether the impact of teachers' beliefs upon girls' self-concept to consider is specific to math and science, or if similar findings hold across subject areas.

Teaching practices. Even though it is seldom at their own choosing, it is common practice for teachers to utilize textbooks that depict a greater number of males than females, and require students to read more works written by male than female authors (Reis & Callahan, 1996). This disparity, which girls encounter as early as elementary school, may cause young girls to believe that women and their accomplishments are generally not of high value (Pipher, 1994). Unless efforts to reverse this trend are undertaken, girls are seemingly at risk of developing negative beliefs about their abilities early on, and may carry these beliefs with them throughout the remainder of their schooling.

School transitions. As girls approach adolescence, they tend to become quite self-conscious, which Cole et al. (2001) attribute primarily to insecurities related to the pubertal changes they are undergoing. Although practices in individual schools and districts may vary, it is common for girls, at this vulnerable stage of development, to be forced to transition to a bigger, more impersonal school environment than what they had grown accustomed to in elementary school. Given the proximity of the changes in girls' school environment and pubertal state in time, it may seem natural for pre-adolescent and adolescent females to begin feeling much less self-confident, both academically and in general, than they had previously (Cole et al., 2001). Because puberty does not generally affect boys until several years later (e.g., Lee, 1980), after they have already begun middle school, the transition does not seem to impact them in the same way that it does girls. The scenario may play out differently, however, when dealing with late-maturing boys or early-maturing girls, who may be more emotionally vulnerable than their typically-maturing peers.

Girls' attributions. Girls' explanations (i.e., attributions) for their academic successes and failures play a central role in their academic self-concept, as well as their level of achievement. Pipher (1994) contends that girls, particularly those in middle school, frequently lose confidence in

“...girls are seemingly at risk of developing negative beliefs about their abilities early on, and may carry these beliefs with them throughout the remainder of their schooling.”

Girls' Achievement and Self-Concept

“Mothers appear to have an especially profound impact on girls' beliefs in their competence...”

themselves because of a tendency to attribute academic failure to a lack of ability, and success to either good luck or hard work, a propensity which she believes erodes girls' confidence. In accordance with this viewpoint, girls often believe that their successes result from the effects of external, unstable, and uncontrollable factors rather than a stable, innate ability; thus, they generally do not realize the degree to which their own competence, or their mere conception of their competence, may impact their academic performance. The situation is quite different for adolescent boys, Pipher (1994) claims, who more typically attribute failures to external forces and successes to internal ones, enabling them to remain self-confident when they experience failure.

Positive Influences

Relationships with teachers. Throughout their schooling, the quality of girls' relationships with their teachers may have an impact upon their achievement. In the early grades, girls frequently report having positive relationships with their teachers. The emotional connections that girls build with their teachers tend to increase their motivation and engagement in academic tasks, which generally leads to higher levels of achievement. In contrast, the minority of young girls who view their relationships with teachers in a negative light are typically less motivated and do not perform as well (Valeski & Stipek, 2001).

Teaching practices. Interestingly, Stipek, Givvin, Salmon, and MacGyvers (1998) found that, at least in the upper elementary grades and possibly beyond, when math teachers were reform-minded (as opposed to traditional), girls, as well as boys, had greater confidence in their ability to be successful. This is particularly noteworthy, given that girls seem vulnerable to developing negative views about their mathematical abilities as they progress through school, and that girls' academic performance in this domain may decline throughout their schooling (e.g., Giota, 2002). Reform-minded teachers de-emphasize rote memorization of mathematical formulas and procedures, and seek instead to design instruction in a way that increases students' conceptual understanding of mathematics. In addition, unlike more traditional teachers, those who are reform-minded place little emphasis on social approval and good grades; they also encourage students to seek alternative solutions to problems, and help to elucidate the value of math in

everyday life (Stipek et al., 1998). Unfortunately, perhaps due to the recent emphasis on educational standards and high-stakes testing, reform-minded strategies are not widely practiced in classrooms today, and so neither girls nor boys often have the opportunity to reap related benefits (Stipek et al., 1998).

Parental involvement and expectations.

Although not directly school-related, numerous parent-related variables seem to be pivotal in determining girls' views of their academic abilities. For instance, when the parents of middle school girls hold high expectations for their daughters' success in school, girls frequently feel more confident in their abilities than do their counterparts whose parents demonstrate less faith in them (Bandura et al., 2001). According to Bandura et al. (2001), high parental standards and encouragement help increase girls' academic self-concept while they are in school, and may also influence girls' career choices and aspirations to pursue higher education. Actually, the same holds true for boys who, like girls, advance further in their education and set higher career goals when they have parents that are supportive.

Mothers appear to have an especially profound impact on girls' beliefs in their competence; when girls report having nurturing, intimate relationships with their mothers, they typically feel more confident in their ability to succeed at academic tasks. Conversely, when fathers are highly controlling and punitive with their daughters, they may undermine girls' sense of academic competence (Lackovic-Grgin & Dekovic, 1994). Reis and Callahan (1996) also contend that adolescent girls' mothers could serve as important role models, particularly when they hold careers in domains typically dominated by males.

Role of the School Psychologist

As professionals trained in the prevention, assessment, and intervention of academic and mental health issues experienced by children and adolescents, school psychologists are in an ideal position to effect positive change in the lives of all of the students they serve. The potential role of the school psychologist in improving the educational and emotional experiences of female students across the school years is no different. Through pursuit of the traditional roles of consultant, counselor, and child advocate, school psychologists have the power to initiate change efforts within their

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 116

Girls' Achievement and Self-Concept

schools that are designed to preserve and enhance girls' concepts of their academic abilities, which should result in greater achievement for female students in all curricular areas.

Despite the seeming link between girls' academic self-concept and academic achievement, there is a paucity of research that offers explicit recommendations for how educators and related professionals can help girls develop a sense of competence and maintain the positive view of their abilities that many possess during their elementary school years, but may lose once they transition to middle school. This is likely associated with the relatively limited base of research devoted to uncovering factors implicated in the development of girls' academic self-views. In light of this oversight, the following suggestions outline specific steps that school psychologists can take in their efforts to foster a sense of competence in girls. The recommendations also provide information about how school psychologists can aid individuals, schools, and entire systems in modifying existing classroom practices and school environments in ways designed to ensure that girls remain confident that they are capable of succeeding academically.

Consult with and educate teachers. Through both formal and informal consultation with teachers, school psychologists can work actively to identify and alter beliefs that may be held by teachers and other school personnel that girls are not as "good" as boys at certain subjects. Such an undertaking is particularly important in areas of the curriculum that have traditionally been male-dominated, such as math and science. Unless teachers genuinely believe that girls are capable of success in these domains, they are unlikely to provide encouragement to their female students, and may convey through their words and actions in the classroom the negative perceptions that they hold. Although school psychologists may certainly accomplish the above while working with educators on an individual basis, they can advance a similar agenda through larger-scale efforts, such as in-service training sessions.

During in-service presentations, school psychologists could update middle school teachers on the variety of challenges that adolescent girls encounter today, and provide recommendations of how to tailor instruction so that it best fits girls' unique needs during this developmental period (Wigfield & Eccles, 2002). If they lack the time or feel uncomfortable initiating such efforts themselves, school psychologists could collaborate

with a school or district-level instructional resource teacher to facilitate teachers' education in this area. Along similar lines, school psychologists may advocate that teacher training programs include more instruction in unique aspects of adolescent female development, and the educational implications thereof, than they generally do at present. This would help to ensure that teachers entering the field are equipped with the knowledge and skills to educate their female students more effectively than were their predecessors.

To further challenge negative views that teachers may hold, Ziegler and Heller (2000) recommend confronting the notion that certain subject areas, namely math and science, are not for girls. These authors suggest that this be done as early on in girls' academic careers as possible, perhaps in introductory courses or special programs designed to increase girls' interest in these areas of the curriculum. In a closely related vein, school psychologists could encourage teachers to challenge the stereotype that boys possess greater ability than girls in certain domains. In a German school system, Tiedemann (2000) found that when teachers perceived girls as competent, at least in math, they were more apt to treat them as such; this type of treatment, he believed, had a positive impact on girls' view of their academic potential. Furthermore, teachers could be informed of the importance of holding high standards for girls, and communicating to them a belief that they are capable of being successful. This becomes increasingly important at times of school transition, given how vulnerable girls seem to be at this particular phase of their development (Cohen & Steele, 2002).

Recommend modifications to existing curricula. For school psychologists whose roles permit them to impact curricular decision making, there are numerous recommendations that they can offer in efforts to enhance girls' self-concept of their academic abilities. For instance, school psychologists may suggest that existing curricula be modified so that they fit better with the interests and knowledge base of girls. As an example, among a German sample of youth, Häussler and Hoffmann (2002) focused a unit in a high school physics class on cycling and safety helmets; prior to their work, the same unit was taught using mechanical objects that were unfamiliar to most female students. These authors reported that making curricula more "girl friendly" was a seemingly effective way to enhance girls' self-concept of their ability in physics, but suggest that such practice may have beneficial

“...school psychologists could encourage teachers to challenge the stereotype that boys possess greater ability than girls in certain domains.”

CONTINUED ON PAGE 118

Girls' Achievement and Self-Concept

“...to impact girls on somewhat of a larger scale, school psychologists may provide or initiate school-wide programming designed to enhance the self-concept of all students.”

effects in other subject areas as well.

To foster a sense of competence in girls, school psychologists could also recommend that female students be exposed to a variety of female role models, and have the opportunity to study contributions made by men and women equitably. More balanced exposure would likely benefit male students as well, in that it could aid young boys in developing respect for women and an enhanced appreciation for their myriad contributions.

Aid girls in modifying their attributions. To maximize the likelihood that girls continue to view their abilities in a positive light, school psychologists are advised, in their interactions with female students, to encourage girls to see their successes as a result of their own ability, rather than due to factors outside of their control. As indicated previously, it is relatively common for girls to attribute their academic success to factors external to themselves, which may lead to doubts about their capabilities and feelings of powerless in their efforts to achieve. Similarly, as recommended by Ziegler and Heller (2000), school psychologists would do well to advocate a view of girls' abilities as alterable, rather than fixed. By encouraging girls to view their skills as malleable, it is believed that the feelings of anxiety and helplessness that so many experience will be decreased, and their confidence subsequently increased (Ziegler & Heller, 2000). In addition, it is important for school psychologists to dissuade girls from viewing a single failure as an indicator of lack of ability, as such a mindset can easily be detrimental to girls' self-concept and have an adverse effect on their subsequent achievement. School psychologists can advise teachers to convey similar messages to their female students; by being a proponent of such messages themselves, school psychologists may also influence their colleagues by example.

Somewhat more specifically, school psychologists may accomplish the above through their interactions with girls in both individual and group counseling sessions. In these venues, school psychologists have the opportunity to positively impact girls' self-concept through the use of self-building workbooks, games, and countless other media. If available time or resources do not permit school psychologists to interact with girls via the counseling role, collaboration with guidance counselors or school social workers could facilitate the accomplishment of similar ends. As an alternative, and to impact girls on somewhat of a larger scale, school psychologists may provide or

initiate school-wide programming designed to enhance the self-concept of all students. To be optimally effective, such initiatives should likely be ongoing, rather than one-time occurrences (e.g., school-wide assemblies).

Advise schools to reconsider the timing of the middle school transition. In light of the seeming association between the transition to middle school and a decline in girls' achievement and academic self-concept, some (e.g., Wigfield & Eccles, 2002) have suggested that schools would do well to reconsider the timing of the transition from elementary to middle school. The rationale for advocating such a practice is that if the transition to middle school were made somewhat earlier or later than it is currently, fewer girls would experience significant pubertal changes and the transition simultaneously (Wigfield & Eccles, 2002). If the timing of the transition were changed so that it no longer coincided with the peak of most girls' pubertal development, girls would perhaps be more likely to perceive themselves as competent academically since they would not feel so self-conscious about their changing bodies.

Despite the potential benefits associated with the above recommendation, advising schools to make such a drastic change seems impractical on a number of levels. For instance, parents and school personnel are often hesitant to group children of widely discrepant ages. Because altering the time of the middle school transition would seemingly necessitate a change in the grade levels contained within typical elementary and middle schools, this could be a fundamental concern. An additional impracticality is that girls enter puberty at a variety of ages, so re-timing the middle school transition to the benefit of all girls would be impossible. To facilitate a smooth transition to middle school, it may be more practical for informational sessions for students and parents to be held prior to the start of middle school, or for students have the opportunity to visit the middle school sometime near their completion of the elementary-level grades.

Advocate for a change in school structure. It has also been suggested that girls might continue to perceive their abilities in a positive light if large schools, especially middle and high schools, were restructured into smaller learning communities (Wigfield & Eccles, 2002); this may be another viewpoint that school psychologists could proffer when consulting with school systems. Restructuring schools in this way would likely help to reduce the negative impact that the large, impersonal nature of

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 118

Girls' Achievement and Self-Concept

middle and high schools may have upon adolescent girls' academic self-concept, and simultaneously enable them to feel more connected to their peers and teachers. Given the increased importance that relationships commonly assume in girls' lives at this stage of development, fostering such connectivity seems as though it could enhance girls' growth in a number of domains, even those outside of academics (e.g., social, emotional).

Conclusion

Undoubtedly, there are a great many factors that have an impact upon what girls achieve in school. Across their development, however, a consistent and salient influence seems to be girls' academic self-concept, which essentially reflects their belief in their ability to be successful at academic tasks. To date, although little research has investigated the relationship between academic achievement and academic self-concept, existing findings suggest that girls may view themselves as less competent academically as they progress through school, particularly in math and science; a corresponding decline in achievement is also commonly evidenced in these subject areas. By gaining knowledge of the way in which girls' achievement and self-concept relate in the academic realm and by developing an understanding of the various factors that impact girls' self-concept in academic domains, school psychologists can identify, design, and/or aid in the implementation of strategies that individual teachers, as well as entire school systems, can employ to help foster a sense of academic competence in the girls they educate.

References

- Bandura, A., Barbaranelli, C., Caprara, G. V., & Pastorelli, C. (2001). Self-efficacy beliefs as shapers of children's aspirations and career trajectories. *Child Development, 72*, 187-206.
- Chaplain, R. P. (2000). Beyond exam results? Differences in the social and psychological perceptions of young males and females at school. *Educational Studies, 26*, 177-190.
- Cohen, G. L., & Steele, C. M. (2002). A barrier of mistrust: How negative stereotypes affect cross-race mentoring. In J. Aronson (Ed.), *Improving academic achievement: Impact of psychological factors on education* (pp. 303-327). Amsterdam: Academic Press.
- Cole, D. A., Maxwell, S. E., Martin, J. M., Peeke, L. G., Seroczynski, A. D., Tram, J. M., et al. (2001). The development of multiple domains of child and adolescent self-concept: A cohort sequential longitudinal design. *Child Development, 72*, 1723-1746.
- England, P., & Li, S. (2006). Desegregation stalled: The changing gender composition of college majors, 1971-2002. *Gender and Society, 20*, 657-677.
- Frome, P. M., Alfeld, C. J., Eccles, J. S., & Barber, B. L. (2006). Why don't they want a male-dominated job? An investigation of young women who changed their occupational aspirations. *Educational Research and Evaluation, 12*, 359-372.
- Giota, J. (2002). Adolescents' goal orientations and academic achievement: Long-term relations and gender differences. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research, 46*, 349-371.
- Häussler, P., & Hoffmann, L. (2002). An intervention study to enhance girls' interest, self-concept, and achievement in physics classes. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching, 39*, 870-888.
- Herbert, J., & Stipek, D. (2005). The emergence of gender differences in children's perceptions of their academic competence. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 26*, 276-295.
- Lackovic-Grgin, K., & Dekovic, M. (1994). Pubertal status, interaction with significant others, and self-esteem of adolescent girls. *Adolescence, 29*, 691-700.
- Lee, P. A. (1980). Normal ages of pubertal events among American males and females. *Journal of Adolescent Health Care, 1*, 26-29.
- Lips, H. M. (2004). The gender gap in possible selves: Divergence of academic self-views among high school and university students. *Sex Roles, 50*, 357-371.
- Maki, N., Moore, S., Grunberg, L., & Greenberg, E. (2005). The responses of male and female managers to workplace stress and downsizing. *North American Journal of Psychology, 7*, 295-312.
- Muller, C. (1998). Gender differences in parental involvement and adolescents' mathematics achievement. *Sociology of Education, 71*, 336-356.
- Ormrod, J. E. (2004). Social cognitive theory. In *Human learning* (4th ed., pp. 123-153). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.
- Pipher, M. (1994). Developmental issues - "I'm not waving, I'm drowning." In *Reviving Ophelia: Saving the selves of adolescent girls* (pp. 37-74). New York: Ballantine Books.
- Reis, S. M., & Callahan, C. M. (1996). My boyfriend, my girlfriend, or me: The dilemma of talented teenaged girls. *Journal of Secondary Gifted Education, 7*, 434-446.
- Sadker, M., & Sadker, D. (1994). *Failing at fairness: How America's schools cheat girls*. New York: Macmillan.
- Shapka, J. D., Domene, J. F., & Keating, D. P. (2006). Trajectories of career aspirations through adolescence and young adulthood: Early math achievement as a critical filter. *Educational Research and Evaluation, 12*, 347-358.
- Stipek, D., Givvin, K. B., Salmon, J. M., & MacGyvers, V. L. (1998). Can a teacher intervention improve classroom practices and student motivation in mathematics? *Journal of Experimental Education, 66*, 319-337.
- Tiedemann, J. (2000). Parents' gender stereotypes and teachers' beliefs as predictors of children's concept of their mathematical ability in elementary school. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 92*, 144-151.
- Valeski, T. N., & Stipek, D. J. (2001). Young children's feelings about school. *Child Development, 72*, 1198-1213.
- Watt, H. M. G. (2006). The role of motivation in gendered educational and occupational trajectories related to maths. *Educational Research and Evaluation, 12*, 305-322.
- Wigfield, A., & Eccles, J. S. (2002). Students' motivation during the middle school years. In J. Aronson (Ed.), *Improving academic achievement: Impact of psychological factors on education* (pp. 159-184). Amsterdam: Academic Press.
- Ziegler, A., & Heller, K. A. (2000). Conditions for self-confidence among boys and girls achieving highly in chemistry. *Journal of Secondary Gifted Education, 11*, 144-151.



Differential Ability Scales – Second Edition (DAS-II)

Author: Colin D. Elliott (2007)
Publisher: Harcourt Assessment

Esther Stavrou and Nancy L. Hollander
Ferkauf Graduate School of Psychology
Yeshiva University
Bronx, New York

Description

The Differential Ability Scales - Second Edition (DAS-II; Elliott, 2007) is an individually administered measure of cognitive ability designed for children ages 2:6 through 17:11 years. The DAS-II is a revision of the DAS (Elliott, 1990), whose predecessor was the British Abilities Scales (BAS; Elliott, Murray, & Pearson, 1979). In addition to updated norms, the most recent revision has several useful new features including the availability of Spanish and American Sign Language instructions for the non-verbal subtests. In this edition, working memory and processing speed are given increased emphasis and three new subtests have been added.

According to Elliott (2007), the “DAS-II is not driven by any single theory of human ability. Instead it is built on a collection of subtests that sample a range of abilities thought to be useful in assessing children, particularly children with learning difficulties” (p. 11). As in the DAS, rather than being predicated on any particular theory of intelligence, the author takes a more practical approach of basing the test’s structure based on utility and statistical relationships with criteria of interest. While the DAS-II is not bound to any single theory, it reportedly can be interpreted according to various If using various theoretical perspectives including various neuropsychological processing models and the Cattell-Horn-Carroll (CHC; McGrew, 2005) model.

Elliott cautions against the use of the terms “intelligence” or “IQ.” Instead, four to six core subtests yield a second-order composite score referred to as a General Conceptual Ability (GCA) score. According to Elliott the GCA is not an IQ or global composite. Rather it is based on those

subtests hypothesized to be the best measures of conceptual and reasoning abilities. Some subtests thought to be clinically useful (e.g., Recall of Digits) are not calculated in the GCA due to their low loadings on “g.” Instead, they are included as diagnostic subtests.

The DAS-II is comprised of 20 subtests spread across two overlapping test batteries. The Early Years battery is for children 2:6 through 6:11 while the School-Age battery is for those ages 7 to 17:11. The two batteries are co-normed for children ages 5 through 8:11 so that examiners can choose either battery to accommodate children at extreme levels of ability.

The Early Years battery is divided into two levels. For children 2:6 to 3:6 who take the lower level of the battery, there are four core subtests which combine to form the GCA and two clusters referred to as Verbal and Nonverbal Ability. For children 3:6 to 6:11 there are six core subtests which combine to form the GCA and three clusters; Verbal Ability, Nonverbal Reasoning and Spatial Ability. The School-Age battery also includes six core subtests that contribute to the GCA and the clusters Verbal Ability, Nonverbal Reasoning and Spatial Ability. Depending on the child’s age, 8 to 19 diagnostic subtests are available that can yield three additional clusters (School Readiness, Working Memory and Processing Speed). A Special Nonverbal Composite (SNC), based on subtests with lowered verbal demands, is also available for children who are not proficient in spoken English.

The achievement subtests previously included in the DAS were eliminated in the DAS-II. However, the DAS-II norms are linked with the Wechsler

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 120

Test Review: Differential Ability Scales- Second Edition (DAS-II)

Individual Achievement Test-Second Edition (WIAT-II; Harcourt Assessments, 2000).

The DAS-II is described as unique from other cognitive tests in that it is considered a “profile test” with each subtest and composite being individually interpretable. Each subtest was designed to have a high degree of specificity of content with limited overlap or contamination between subtests. While the utility of profile analysis is controversial, the homogeneity of the subtests does simplify interpretation.

Administration and Scoring

Administration of the DAS-II is relatively easy and quick. Depending on the child's age level, the core DAS-II can be administered in 20 to 40 minutes. To supplement the core battery, examiners have the option of administering as few or as many of the diagnostic subtests as appropriate. The three supplemental diagnostic clusters, Processing Speed, Working Memory and School Readiness, take approximately 9, 12 or 17 minutes, respectively.

The DAS-II offers administrative flexibility with the option of administering some subtests outside the usual age range when appropriate. In addition to the extended age ranges, some subtests can also be administered “out of level” to children of high and low ability. While extended age ranges and out of level testing allow the examiner flexibility, the norms are limited at some ages and as Elliott cautions, users should be cognizant of the lower reliabilities for some of these subtests when making interpretations. Elliott suggests that scores on subtests for which there is limited normative data can be used to measure growth or change.

Rather than using traditional basal-ceiling rules, the DAS-II is based on a tailored item set approach with the objective of devoting most of the testing time to items that are appropriately challenging. The item set approach is not used in the diagnostic subtests which use either basal and ceiling guidelines or fixed starting points.

Directions for administration are in a separate administration and scoring manual. Although having directions on an easel is more convenient, the examiner's verbal instructions and test items are printed in blue, making them easy to identify and read during testing. Elliott stresses the need to assure that directions are understood. Thus, the general directions can be repeated or rephrased if the child does not seem to understand or requests repetition. Many of the subtests include sample

items that provide the opportunity for teaching or elaboration of instructions. With the exception of memory items, most items can be repeated.

Dumont and Wills (2007) point out that those who are using an early printing of the administration manual should note an error in the instructions for the Pattern Construction subtest. Clarified instructions are provided in Dumont and Wills' website.

The scoring guidelines are clear and generally easy to follow. Most subtests are scored as either correct or incorrect and even for the more subjectively scored subtests (i.e. Vocabulary, Verbal Similarities, Word Definitions) there are clear scoring criteria as well as sample responses. The Copying and Recall of Designs subtests are the most subjective and difficult to score. Drawings are scored based on a 0 to 3-point scale and scoring is facilitated by the inclusion of samples and scoring templates.

The DAS-II yields subtest, cluster and composite scores. Subtest ability scores are converted to T-Scores. Standard scores, percentiles, confidence intervals and age equivalents are computed for the cluster and composite scores. Tables with critical values necessary for determining strengths and weaknesses, as well as making discrepancy comparisons at the subtest, cluster and composite levels are also available. A computer scoring program is also included in the kit though hand-scoring is easily accomplished. An Ability-Achievement Analysis Page is included on the School-Age record form to facilitate comparison between DAS-II and WIAT-II scores. This page can also be used for six year-old children who have taken the upper Early Years battery. Ability-Achievement discrepancies can be analyzed either using the simple difference method or the predicted difference method.

The DAS-II materials are interesting and engaging, particularly for young children. For example, in the Early Years Battery the child's attention and involvement is easily engaged by the appealing toys. However, at times, some of these toys become a distraction to the child who may want to continue playing with the items as the examiner moves on to another task.

Norms

The manual includes a careful and detailed description of the standardization sample. The DAS-II was standardized on a national sample of 3,480

“The DAS-II offers administrative flexibility with the option of administering some subtests outside the usual age range when appropriate.”

Test Review: Differential Ability Scales- Second Edition (DAS-II)

children divided into 18 age groups. The sample was selected to correspond to the October, 2002 census data and stratification variables included age, sex, race/ethnicity, parent education level and geographic region. The distribution of participants for each stratification variable is provided by age level, though it would have been helpful to readers to have the data also summarized into group totals. While the attention to detail is impressive, this reviewer found the amount of data provided a bit overwhelming. For example, in trying to determine the total percentage of participants from each racial/ethnic groups, it was necessary to hand calculate the totals across ages.

Both the School-Age and Early Years norms closely approximate the US population. There is a slight over-representation of White participants with low parental education levels (<8 years). This is unusual since is often difficult to recruit participants from low socioeconomic backgrounds, though there is an under-representation of Hispanics with low parental education.

The racial/ethnic group described as "other" fairly approximates the national percentage (.96% of the standardization sample as compared to 1.17% of the U.S. population). This is technically fair and consistent with most cognitive tests, though users of the test with specific cultural groups like Native Americans, should be aware of the low representation of individuals with similar backgrounds.

Reliability

Due to the unique administration procedures of the DAS-II which do not include the typical basal and ceiling rules, traditional internal consistency reliabilities were not calculated for the majority of subtests. Instead, an IRT-based reliability estimation was used for most subtests except Rapid Naming and Speed of Information Processing.

For the Early Years battery, the average internal consistency coefficients were .95 for both the GCA and SNC. The coefficients for the composites ranged from .89 (Non-Verbal Reasoning) to .95 (Spatial Ability). The subtests reliabilities ranged from .79 to .94. For the School-Age battery, the internal consistency coefficients were .96 for both the GCA and SNC. The coefficients for the composites ranged from .89 (Verbal Ability) to .95 (Spatial Ability) with the subtest reliabilities ranging from .74 to .96.

The diagnostic clusters (School Readiness, Working Memory and Processing Speed) had strong

and in some cases stronger reliability than the core clusters, ranging from .89 to .95. Internal consistency data is also provided for twelve smaller clinical samples. In most cases, the reliability coefficients were similar to those in the normative sample, though some lower coefficients were noted in the "reading disordered" group.

Stability data was based on a group of 369 children divided among three broad age bands spanning the two batteries and tested after a mean interval of 23 days. Over the entire sample, test-retest coefficients were lower than desired with only the GCA reaching .90. The stability coefficient for the SNC was .85. Gains of approximately 5 points were noted on both the GCA and SNC. The clusters ranged from .77 (Non-Verbal Reasoning) to .86 (Verbal Ability; Spatial Ability). Test-retest reliability for the subtests ranged from .63 to .91.

Inter-scorer agreement obtained for the normative sample was impressive, ranging from .98 to .99. Additional studies were conducted to examine the four more subjectively scored subtests and inter-rater agreement among the four independent scorers for these four subtests was also strong (Word Definitions .99, Verbal Similarities .99, Copying .95 and Recall of Designs .97).

Both the Early Years and School-Age batteries demonstrated a high degree of subtest specificity. With 42% of the variance found to be reliable and specific there is some support for the use of the DAS-II subtest scores in the analysis of strengths and weaknesses.

Validity

The internal and external procedures used to validate the DAS-II are clearly described in the manual. Confirmatory factor analytic studies provide evidence for the hierarchical factor structure of the DAS-II. As proposed by Elliott, the abilities measured by the DAS-II become more differentiated with age. For young children (2:6 to 3:5), a one factor model may also provide a good alternative to the 2-factor description of the structure of abilities measured. With the addition of selected diagnostic tests, the DAS-II structure also corresponds well to the seven-factor CHC model for school-age children.

Correlations with other cognitive tests such as the DAS, WPPSI-III, WISC-IV and Bayley III that are provided in the manual are high and appropriate. Practitioners may be particularly concerned with how the DAS-II compares with the WISC-IV. The

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 122

Test Review: Differential Ability Scales- Second Edition (DAS-II)

correlation between WISC-IV FSIQ and DAS-II GCA was .84 with the WISC-IV yielding a composite score about three points higher than the DAS-II. The difference in means most likely reflects the more recent norms of the DAS-II and the influence of the Flynn effect. Correlations with achievement tests like the WIAT-II, KTEA-II and WJII-Tests of Achievement are also high (generally in the .80's), indicating good predictive ability. However, in some cases, the correlations between the DAS-II and achievement tests were higher than correlations with other cognitive tests, raising some questions about the overlap between cognitive ability and acquired knowledge. Moderate to high correlations are also reported between the DAS-II and tests of school readiness like the Bracken Basic Concepts Scale and the Ready to Learn.

The performance of various special populations on the DAS-II as compared to matched control samples is well described. The number of special groups studied has been extended from DAS and includes: Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder; Attention Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder with Learning Disorder; Deaf and Hard of Hearing; Expressive Language Disorder; Intellectually Gifted; Mathematics Disorder; Reading Disorder; Reading and Written Expression Disorders; Limited English Proficiency; Mental Retardation; Mixed Receptive-Expressive Language Disorder; and Developmental Risk. The scores of these groups were for the most part consistent with expectations. However, as Elliott concedes, the samples were those of convenience and thus, the sample sizes are small and not necessarily representative. For example, while the non-verbal subtests can be translated into ASL, there are only 35 deaf/hard of hearing children in the sample and most come from the western part of the US. Therefore, these studies need to be independently replicated with larger, more representative samples. In addition to the group means, correlations between the DAS-II and WIAT-II are provided for some of the learning disordered groups.

Items were examined for potential bias by a panel of experts. In addition, statistical analyses of item bias were conducted and predictive bias was examined for African American, Hispanic and White groups. According to the information presented in the manual, the DAS-II tended to over-predict WIAT-II scores for the African American and Hispanic groups. However, since mean scores for the various

ethnic groups are not presented, it is unclear whether the enhancements in the DAS-II reduce mean differences between different groups. In addition, while reliability data is provided for numerous clinical groups, none is available for the various ethnic groups. Data is provided, however, for a small ($n = 48$) sample of children with limited English proficiency. As expected, the GCA for this group was lower than the matched control group, though the SNC was comparable. It should be noted that this relatively young sample (ages 5 to 8:11) came from various language backgrounds and a large percent came from families with low parental education.

Conclusions

The DAS-II incorporates significant improvements to the already well respected DAS. The manual is extremely thorough, detailed and well organized. Overall, the psychometric properties of the DAS-II are excellent and it has a good floor and ceiling. The new subtests (Phonological Processing, Rapid Naming and Recall of Digits Backwards) and the three new diagnostic clusters (School Readiness, Working Memory and Processing Speed) enhance its diagnostic utility. There is particularly strong support for the School Readiness Cluster in predicting school success.

Like the DAS, a strong feature of the DAS-II is its flexibility and efficiency of administration. The extended age ranges, teaching tasks and flexible starting/stopping points, make the DAS-II an excellent choice for assessing younger children or those with attention or behavioral characteristics that may present difficulties with traditional basal/ceiling rules. The ability to repeat or rephrase instructions is an advantage when testing children with language or auditory processing problems. This feature, along with the teaching tasks, also makes it useful test for English Language Learners. One can also administer the test in Spanish while keeping in mind that the test is normed on English speaking children. The Special NonVerbal Composite is also a helpful feature. The availability of instructions in ASL will make this a useful addition to the limited test options for hearing impaired students. Again, with the exception of the small clinical sample of deaf/hard of hearing children, one should keep in mind that the norms are based on children with normal hearing.

The flexibility of administration, the short

CONTINUED ON PAGE 124

Test Review: Differential Ability Scales- Second Edition (DAS-II)

administration time and the engaging tasks make this an excellent choice for testing older pre-school children. However, for children in the 2:6 to 3:6 range, there are only four subtests available. While this provides a good, quick estimate of the child's ability the breadth of content is limited. According to Elliott, "reasoning abilities are not clearly differentiated and are difficult to measure at this age level" (p. 9). While this is a reasonable explanation, the limited number of subtests may pose difficulties when a subtest is spoiled. Pro-rating is permitted but may not be advisable when based on only three of four total subtests. Substitute subtests are available for children ages 5 and up, but there are no acceptable substitutes for core subtests for younger children.

For those considering an alternative to the WISC-IV, the DAS-II yields comparable scores with greater efficiency and appears as effective in picking up learning difficulties. However, the DAS-II shares some of same difficulties as other tests in providing limited guidance in generating educational and psychological interventions.

References

- Dumont, R. & Wills (2007). Errata sheet for Pattern Construction. Retrieved March 14, 2007 from http://alpha.fdu.edu/psychology/errata_sheet_for_pc.htm
- McGrew, K. S. (2005). The Cattell-Horn-Carroll theory of cognitive abilities: Past, present and future. In D.P. Flanagan & P. L. Harrison (Eds.), *Contemporary intellectual assessment: Theories, tests and issues* (2nd ed., p. 136-181). New York: Guilford.
- Elliott, C. D. (2007). *Differential ability scales: Second Edition*. San Antonio, TX: Harcourt Assessment, Inc.
- Elliott, C. D. (1990). *Differential ability scales*. San Antonio, TX: The Psychological Corporation.
- Elliott, C. D., Murray, D. J., & Pearson, L. S. (1979). *British ability scales*. Windsor England: National Foundation for Educational Research.
- Harcourt Assessment. (2005). *Wechsler individual achievement test-Second edition*. San Antonio, TX: Author.

Congratulations to the Newly Elected Division 16 Executive Committee Members!

President-Elect

Dr. Tammy Hughes, Duquesne University

Representative to the APA Council

Dr. Cindy Carlson, University of Texas at Austin

Treasurer

Dr. Tanya Eckert, Syracuse University

Vice President for Convention Affairs

Dr. Shane Jimerson, University of California at Santa Barbara

Vice President for Education, Training and Scientific Affairs

Dr. Elaine Clark, University of Utah

Vice President for Publications and Communications*

Dr. Linda Reddy, Rutgers University

*Division 16 members recently voted to split the Vice President for Publications, Communications, and Convention Affairs into two vice presidencies (VP-Convention Affairs and VP-Publications and Communications). Dr. Linda Reddy has been appointed to serve as the VP for Publications and Communications. A formal election for this position will be held in 2009.

Announcements

SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY PROGRAM, DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY, THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT AUSTIN

Assistant/Associate Professor tenure-track position for Ph.D. license-eligible psychologist beginning Fall, 2008. Applicants from APA-accredited professional psychology programs who have expertise in child neuropsychology and the biological bases of behavior are preferred. Primary departmental affiliation will be in the APA-accredited doctoral-level School Psychology Program consisting of seven faculty with expertise in educational, psychological, and therapeutic assessment, intervention, and consultation; family systems; cognitive-behavioral intervention; research methodology; special education policy and professional school psychology. Responsibilities include an active program of research, undergraduate and graduate-level teaching, and supervision of practica and doctoral research. The appointee will also be expected to teach the required department course in Biological Bases of Behavior. The University of Texas Imaging Research Center will be available to interested faculty for research, and the new Dell Children's Hospital seeks collaboration with UT faculty.

The applicant's vita and copies of publications, graduate transcripts, and three letters of recommendation should be sent to Faculty Search Committee, Department of Educational Psychology, 1 University Station D5800, University of Texas Austin, Austin, TX 78712. Review will begin on November 15, 2007, and continue until the position is filled. UT Austin is an Equal Opportunity/ Affirmative Action Employer.

Additional Information about the School Psychology Program can be found at <http://edpsych.edb.utexas.edu/admissions/school.php>. Questions about this position can be directed to Professors Timothy Keith or Cindy Carlson, 512-471-4407.



TENURE TRACK - FACULTY POSITIONS

Gordon F. Derner Institute of Advanced Psychological Studies Garden City, New York

Adelphi University is an institution of higher education for liberal arts and sciences offering undergraduate and graduate programs with the College of Arts and Sciences, the Honors College, Adult Programs in University College, the Derner Institute, and the Schools of Business, Education, Nursing and Social Work and currently enrolls 8,000 students from 44 states and 60 foreign countries. The Gordon F. Derner Institute of Advanced Psychological Studies was founded in 1951 and became the first university-based professional school of psychology in the nation in 1972. Today the Institute houses an array of programs emphasizing professional practice integrating psychological science and research through its undergraduate psychology program; M.A. programs in General Psychology, School Psychology and Mental Health Counseling; APA accredited Ph.D. program in Clinical Psychology; and Postgraduate programs in Psychotherapy and Psychoanalysis, Child & Adolescent Psychotherapy, and Marriage & Couple Therapy.

SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY PROGRAM DIRECTOR AND TENURE TRACK FACULTY

The School Psychology Program seeks to hire a tenure track faculty who will be Program Director. The successful candidate will have experience teaching and a documented program of scholarship in formulation and delivery of school psychology services to culturally diverse populations; use of assessment for intervention planning and progress monitoring; systems approaches to school psychology service delivery; and/or prevention/public health school psychology. Candidates must identify professionally as a school psychologist, be eligible for licensure as a psychologist and certification as a school psychologist. Position will include assuming a leadership role as the program director. Please attach 2 representative publications and letter of application that addresses teaching and training philosophy.

SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY TENURE TRACK FACULTY

The School Psychology Program seeks to hire a tenure track faculty position with experience teaching and a documented program of scholarship in formulation and delivery of school psychology services to culturally diverse populations; use of assessment for intervention planning and progress monitoring; systems approaches to school psychology service delivery; and/or prevention/public health school psychology. Candidates must identify professionally as a school psychologist, be eligible for licensure as a psychologist and certification as a school psychologist. Please attach 2 representative publications and letter of application that addresses teaching and training philosophy.

Please apply online at: www.adelphi.edu/positions/faculty with letter of application, CV and three references. The availability of these positions is subject to final budget approval. All appointments are subject to final approval by the Board of Trustees. Adelphi University is committed to building a diverse faculty and strongly encourages applications from minority and women candidates.

Adelphi University is an Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity Employer

2007 Division 16 Award Winners

Submitted by Judy Oehler-Stinnett, Ph.D.
Vice-President for Education, Training and Scientific Affairs

I am pleased to announce the winners of the 2007 awards which were presented at the annual APA convention division business meeting. We have amazing people doing outstanding work that benefits our field and the public we serve. Congratulations to the winners and thank you to all who participated in the process, particularly Dr. Patricia Lowe who served this year as the Awards Committee Chair, the committee chairs and members, and to the nominees whose work we also highly value. Please note that the call for the 2008 award nominations is posted in this issue and is on the web page as well. We encourage you to apply and to nominate your deserving colleagues.

Outstanding Dissertation:

The Outstanding Dissertation Award is given for an outstanding dissertation on a topic that has the potential to contribute to school psychology as a discipline and profession. Judgments are based on the theoretical base, methodology, and quality of the work. This year's (for 2006) winner is Kara Giron Wisniewski, Ph.D.

Kara Giron Wisniewski, Ph.D. Duquesne University, advisor Dr. Tammy Hughes

Dr. Kara Giron Wisniewski's dissertation entitled, "Delinquency, Academic Underachievement, and Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder: A Longitudinal Investigation of Developmental Sequencing and Interrelated Risk Factors," involved sophisticated statistical procedures to examine sequential developmental pathways of students' academic and behavioral problems. Dr. Wisniewski's research has contributed to the field of school psychology by identifying a plausible sequence of developmental precursors to delinquency and by showing that school, family, and individual characteristics increase the risk of children moving toward engaging in delinquent behaviors. It is expected that Dr. Wisniewski's research will inspire and inform other researchers in the field dedicated to improving the lives of children.

Lightner Witmer Early Career Scientist Award:

The Lightner Witmer Award recognizes significant early career scholarly works, within the broad professional interest domain of school psychologists, to foster sound theoretical and research activity. It is named for Dr. Lightner Witmer whose early work with school children is considered by many to be the origin of school psychology. This year's winners are Scott Ardoin, Ph.D. and Jessica Blom-Hoffman, Ph.D..

Scott Ardoin, Ph.D., at University of South Carolina

Dr. Ardoin has conducted rigorous and exemplary research on instructional planning and academic interventions. His expertise in applied behavior analysis, functional behavior assessment, brief experimental analysis, and curriculum-based assessment has direct implications for school-based professionals in their desire to assess treatment effects in school settings. Scott's research also has been enormously influential to school systems as they move towards more responsive service delivery models. The quality of his research has been formally honored by some of the most prestigious journals in and outside school psychology. Scott completed his Ph.D. at Syracuse University, and he is now a faculty member at the University of South Carolina. Congratulations are extended to Scott; he clearly exemplifies the energy, commitment, and quality for which the Lightner Witmer Award stands.

Jessica Blom-Hoffman, Ph.D., at Northeastern University

Dr. Blom-Hoffman's outstanding research program focuses on issues related to the promotion of health and academic success of young children. Her scholarship addresses contemporary issues faced by children and their families, which in turn has contributed significantly to the field of school psychology. Numerous suggestions for researchers and practitioners have arisen from her work, which is considered by many to be extremely important as issues such as obesity, behavior disorders, and reading difficulties remain a growing concern in schools. Jessica's research also offers important

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 126

2007 Division 16 Award Winners

(far left): Kara Giron Wisniewski receives the **Outstanding Dissertation Award** from Frank Worrell, Division 16 President.



(left) The **Senior Scientist Award** is given to Jan Hughes, Ph.D. and Sandra Christenson, Ph.D.



(far left) Scott Ardoin, Ph.D. and (left) Jessica Blom-Hoffman, Ph.D. are awarded the **Lightner Witmer Early Career Scientist Award**.



policy implications for mental health professionals and educators as they design intervention and prevention strategies that address these issues. Jessica completed her Ph.D. at Lehigh University and her internship at the Children's Hospital of Philadelphia. She is now a faculty member at Northeastern University. Congratulations are extended to Jessica; she clearly exemplifies the energy, commitment, and quality for which the Lightner Witmer Award stands.

Senior Scientist Award:

The Senior Scientist Award is given to a mature member of the school psychology community in recognition of a career-long significant program of scholarship representing outstanding contributions

to the scientific knowledge base of school psychology. This award represents the Division's highest level of recognition of excellence in science. This year's winners are Jan Hughes, Ph.D. and Sandra Christenson, Ph.D.

Jan Hughes, Ph.D., at Texas A&M

Dr. Jan N. Hughes has mounted a consistent and programmatic effort targeted at understanding the mental health needs of children in schools. One of her important contributions to the literature is her focus on the critical role that psychological theory plays in the development and evaluation of interventions for children's psychosocial problems. She has drawn from diverse perspectives in the effort to improve children's social, emotional and

CONTINUED ON PAGE 128

2007 Division 16 Award Winners

(left) Sandra Christenson, Ph.D. was awarded the **Senior Scientist Award**.

(right) Jack Cummings, Ph.D. receives the **Jack Bardon Distinguished Service Award** from Frank Worrell, Division 16 President.

academic functioning. She demonstrated that among aggressive children, a positive self-concept is a risk factor for conduct problems and that interventions designed for these children must focus on competence rather than self-concept. The evolving domain that integrates developmental psychopathology with prevention science relies heavily on Dr. Hughes' efforts to understand fundamental school-based processes. Her research efforts have helped put the "psychology" in school psychology. Dr. Hughes' work has benefited psychological science, school psychology practice, and, ultimately children and represents an outstanding, sustained, positive influence on the field and science of school psychology.

**Sandra Christenson, Ph.D.,
at University of Minnesota**

Dr. Sandra L. Christenson has the rare gift of simultaneously contributing to the scholarship of psychology and education. Her record of publication has been sustained, substantial and highly influential. An emphasis throughout her work is on the developmental success of children and

strategies that are necessary to maximize their success in schools, families and communities. She has added to our understanding of classroom processes that can assist teachers to effectively support children and finding ways to enhance relationships among teachers, students and parents. Her work has been theoretically grounded and methodologically rigorous. It has informed practice and had critical implications for federal, state, and local policies. She has consistently worked in the context of collaborative groups of her colleagues and students. Dr. Christenson models the same collaboration as she advocates for school practice. Her scholarship has had and will have a lasting impact on school psychologists and educators who overcome obstacles between home and school.

**Jack Bardon Distinguished
Service Award:**

The Jack Bardon Distinguished Service Award recognizes major leadership in the administration of psychological services in the schools, development and implementation of policy leading to psychologically and socially sound training and

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 128

2007 Division 16 Award Winners


practice in school psychology, sustained research contributing to more effective practice in school psychology, the inauguration or development of training programs for new school psychologists, and/or for the systematic nurturance of inservice training for practicing school psychologists. This year's winner is Jack Cummings, Ph.D.

**Jack Cummings, Ph.D., at Indiana University
Bloomington**

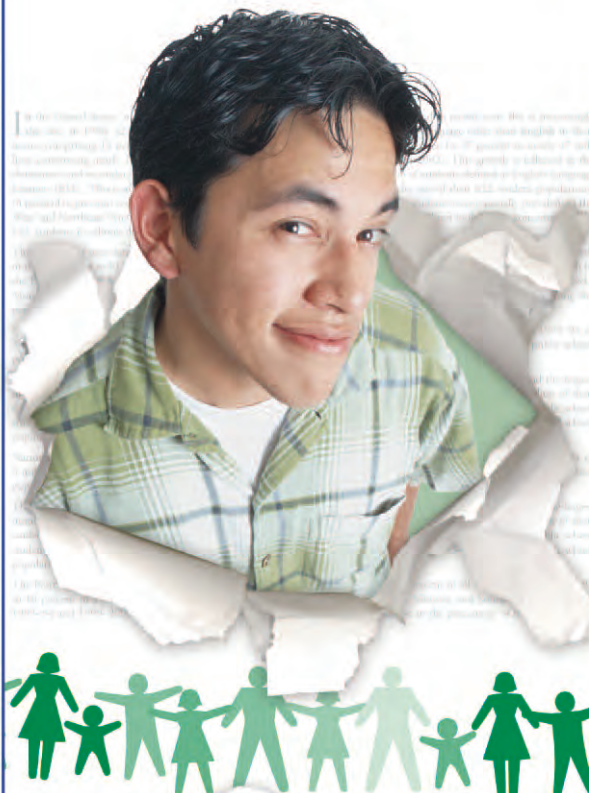
Dr. Cummings has an exemplary record of service to school psychology. His scholarly work focused on population-based services, use of technology in school psychology training, and assessment of children. His long-running service as editor and webmaster for the APA Division 16 website has promoted widespread, up-to-date communication among school psychologists. He also served as President and VP-Education, Training and Scientific Affairs. He serves on the editorial board for the *School Psychology Quarterly* and the *TSP Forum*. His service was exemplified in his leadership in the 2002 Futures Conference in School Psychology. He continues his commitment to the goals of this significant meeting through his service and scholarly work. He has also been an active member of the Society for the Study of School Psychology, the National Association of School Psychologists (serving as an associate editor for the *Communique* and co-chairing the research and rural special interest groups), the Council of Directors of School Psychology Programs (serving as secretary and treasurer), and the Indiana Association of School Psychologists. Through his ongoing dedication to the field of school psychology, his leadership and mentoring skills, and his tireless contributions, Dr. Cummings provides an enduring model of professional service and responsibility.



Jon Sandoval was the honoree at the annual CDSPP dinner.



Break Through the Language Barrier



Communications
IT Group Ability
Giftedness Screening

Riverside Publishing
 A HOUGHTON MIFFLIN COMPANY
www.riversidepublishing.com
 800.323.9540

Call for Nominations for Division 16 2008 Awards

Judy Oehler-Stinnett, Ph.D. VP-ETSA
Rich Gilman, Chair Awards Committee

CALL FOR NOMINATIONS: Lightner Witmer Award

I. Each year the Division of School Psychology presents the Lightner Witmer Award to young professional and academic school psychologists who have demonstrated scholarship which merits special recognition. Continuing scholarship, rather than a thesis or dissertation alone, is the primary consideration in making the award. While a specific scholarly work may be salient in the evaluation of a nominee, it is not likely that a single work will be of such exceptional character that it would be the basis of the award. Similarly, numerous papers, articles, etc., will not by themselves be a sufficient basis for the award. Instead, the Lightner Witmer 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 psychological 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. Nominees must be (a) within seven years of receiving their doctoral degree as of September 1 of the year the award is given; and (b) be a Fellow, Member, Associate, or Student Affiliate of Division 16.

II. **Five sets** of materials should be forwarded on each nominee including a vita, at least three supporting letters, reprints, other evidence of scholarship, and contact information for the nominee, nominator, and letter writers (as indicated on the Division 16 website) so that they may receive results. All nominations and related materials should be submitted by March 15 to the Chair of the Lightner Witmer Award Committee Amanda VanDerHaden, PhD, University of California, Santa Barbara, CCSP Program, 1324 Phelps Hall, Santa Barbara, CA 93106. For questions, please contact Dr. VanDerHeyden at amanda@education.ucsb.edu.

CDs with the complete application including letters of recommendation with the full 5 copies only will be accepted.

CALL FOR NOMINATIONS: Outstanding Dissertation Award

Each year the Division of School Psychology presents an Outstanding Dissertation in School Psychology Award to a school psychology student who has completed a dissertation which merits special recognition and which has the potential to contribute to the science and practice of school psychology. The Outstanding Dissertation Award is to be given for an outstanding dissertation on a topic that has the potential to contribute to school psychology as a discipline and profession. The outstanding dissertation is on a topic that has the potential to impact the science or practice of school psychology, such as research on underrepresented topics and/or populations in the school psychology literature or an original contribution to a traditional area. The research should clearly address and test hypotheses based on important theoretical and empirical questions; the methodology should be sound and sufficient to test the questions posed; and the writing quality addressing these issues as well as implications for practice and future research should be excellent.

Nominees must have successfully completed their dissertation defense by December 31 of the previous calendar year. Nominees must be (a) have been a student member of Division 16 at the time they completed the dissertation; and (b) be a Fellow, Member, Associate, or Student Affiliate of Division 16.

III. Materials to be forwarded on each nominee should include five copies of: the nominee's vita, supporting letters (minimum of two from members of the dissertation committee), the dissertation, and contact information for the nominee, nominator and letter writers so they may receive results (as indicated on the Division 16 website). All nominations and related materials should be submitted by March 15 to the committee chair, Rob Volpe, Ph.D., Dept. of Counseling and Applied Educational Psychology, 203a Lake Hall, 360 Huntington Ave., Northeastern University, Boston, MA 02115-5000. For questions, please contact Dr. Volpe at r.volpe@neu.edu.

CDs with the complete application including letters of recommendation with the full 5 copies only will be accepted.

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 130

Call for nominations for Division 16 2008 Awards**CALL FOR NOMINATIONS:****Senior Scientist in School Psychology Award**

Each year the Division of School Psychology presents a Senior Scientist in School Psychology Award to a mature professional and academic school psychologist who has demonstrated a program of scholarship which merits special recognition. A sustained program of scholarship of exceptional quality throughout one's career is the primary consideration in making the award. The award recipient's program of work should reflect systematic and imaginative use of psychological theory and research in furthering the development of professional practice and/or consistent empirical inquiry that bears on the quality of school psychology training and practice. The program of scholarly work should be of exceptional quality in its contribution to the scientific knowledge base of school psychology training/practice. Nominees must be either 20 years past the granting of their doctoral degree or at least 50 years old by December 31 in the year nominated.

Five sets of material should be forwarded on each nominee, including a vita, supporting letters (minimum of three), five major papers or publications, and contact information for the nominee, nominator and letter writers so they may receive results (as indicated on the Division 16 website). All nominations and related materials should be submitted by March 15 to the committee chair, Thomas Power, Ph.D., Children's Hospital of Philadelphia, Department of Psychology, 34th & Civic Center Blvd., Philadelphia, PA 19104-4399. For questions, please contact Dr. Power at power@email.chop.edu.

CDs with the complete application including letters of recommendation with the full 5 copies only will be accepted.

CALL FOR NOMINATIONS:**Jack Bardon Distinguished Service Award**

The Division 16 of the American Psychological Association presents an annual award in honor of Jack Bardon, whose professional contributions broadly spanned a conceptual framework for the training, role and definition of school psychology and growth of the profession in consultation and organizational issues (Eidle, Hyman & Meyers, 1997). He helped bring the profession to maturity during a major expansion period. The Jack Bardon Distinguished Service Award is given to mature professional and academic school psychologists who have continued this important work through voluntary professional service that goes above and beyond the requirements of the position the



Break Through the Language Barrier

100% nonverbal assessments that best promote equity, cultural fairness, social justice, and bias reduction.



Coming Soon
UNIT Group Abilities Test™ and
Giftedness Screening Scales



Riverside Publishing

A Houghton Mifflin Company

www.riversidepublishing.com

800.323.9540

CONTINUED ON PAGE 141



News You Can Use

Judy Oehler-Stinnett, Ph.D.

APA Division 16

VP-Education, Training and Scientific Affairs

This is my last year as VP-ETSA, and it has been a pleasure to serve and learn about all the important work done on your behalf by your Executive Committee, Council of Representative members (Deborah Tharinger, Cindy Carlson and Randy Kamphaus), those who serve functions throughout APA including volunteers and staff (special thanks to Luis Espinoza, Suzanne Wandersman and Ron Palomares for their patience during my extremely steep learning curve), liaison groups, and other school psychology professional organizations. Through this office, I and your colleagues (Linda Reddy and Vincent Alfonso) have had the privilege of attending meetings of the Board of Educational Affairs and the Board of Scientific Affairs. (Linda Caterino also attends the Consolidated meeting as your liaison to the Board of Professional Affairs). While much has been accomplished, and most information is available through the APA web site (which is being greatly improved!), I would like to provide you with information regarding recent events and highlights. Some of these are ongoing issues, and your participation is encouraged as noted. There are many exciting activities going on throughout APA that are directly related to school-based service delivery and are relevant to school psychology. Division involvement in these activities provides valuable support for our profession, and your membership allows these important activities to continue. Thank you for your support!

Board of Educational Affairs

This important body houses many functions relevant to school psychology. During my tenure, Cindy Carlson served excellently as Chair and Jane Close-Conoley is currently a member. Here are some highlights of work being done in the Education Directorate.

Accreditation Assembly: This is an annual event and programs are encouraged to send representatives. Elaine Clark attended for the Division. The Accreditation Assembly was held in January, with school psychology well represented: Organizational Representatives: Elaine Clark (Division 16), Steve Peverly (CDSPP), Walt Pryzwansky (Synarchy), Steve DeMers (AASPPB) LeAdelle Phelps, Ed Gaughan, and Bill Strein (CoA);

and Program Representatives: Mark Terjesen (St. Johns U), Barbara Schaefer (Penn State U), Anthony Cancelli (Fordham U), and Kathy Bradley-Klug (Univ South Florida). Many topics were covered at the assembly, including influence of the U.S. Department of Education on APA accreditation policy, licensure, and diversity. Valuable information and reports from the Assembly are available at <http://www.apa.org/ed/accreditation/assembly.html>

Assessment of Competency Benchmarks

Work Group: The work of this important group (includes Steve DeMers) is now out for public comment at <http://apaoutside.apa.org/EducCSS/Public/>

If you would like input into Division comments, please send to judy.oehler_stinnett@okstate.edu

These competencies are likely to influence future training, credentialing and practice standards, and it is important that the voice of school psychology be included in their final version.

Center for Psychology in Schools and Education:

This important office has several important projects going on behalf of services in the schools by psychologists. Their web page is <http://www.apa.org/ed/cpse/homepage.html>

There are school psychologists involved in many of their activities.

Coalition for Psychology in the Schools and Education:

The materials presented in 2006 by Gary Stoner, Jeff Braden, and Sam Ortiz are available on the web site. Jane Close-Conoley has attended, and Gary Stoner attended for the division at the last meeting. Their web site is located at <http://www.apa.org/ed/cpse/interdivision.html>

During my tenure, the APA task force (chaired by Cecil Reynolds) Report on Zero Tolerance, which can be found through the document link at <http://www.apa.org/ed/cpse/publications.html>, was approved.

Center for Gifted Education Policy

Activities: This office continues to house the listserv on gifted policy and has hosted a summit for emerging talent.

Applications of Psychological Science to Teaching and Learning Task Force:

Tom Kratochwill is serving on this APA task force. Their efforts focus on bringing important scientific knowledge to our ability to better plan, implement

CONTINUED FROM PAGE <NONE>

News You Can Use

and evaluate education service delivery. Their web site is located at http://www.apa.org/ed/cpse/apstl_homepage.html

They also had several presentations at APA convention.

National Conference on Undergraduate Education in Psychology: Blueprint for the Discipline's Future will be held at the University of Puget Sound in Tacoma, Washington from Sunday, June 22 to Friday, June 27, 2008. This could be important for having information about school psychology accurately included in undergraduate education. <http://apacustomout.apa.org/undergradEducationinPsychApp/Default.aspx>

If your department can support your travel to this conference, please contact judy.oehler_stinnett@okstate.edu

Board of Scientific Affairs:

Committee on Psychological Tests and Assessment:

This committee depends heavily on school psychology representation. Jeff Braden and Sam Ortiz have served, and Frank Worrell is serving 2007-2009. Current issues include qualifications of test users, rights of observers (such as for legal purposes) during psychological examinations, and efforts to pass state laws severely limiting our ability to conduct mental health screenings in the schools.

Joint Committee on Testing Practices: Tom Kubiszyn is a member and co-chair. The public comment period is out for revisions to the Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing at <http://www.apa.org/science/revisions.html> (comments due Oct. 15).

Human Subjects Research: Resources for human subjects' research and ethical authorship are available on the BSA web page. While we did not have a representative in attendance, you should know that useful information regarding research with children developed from the Conference on Minimal Risk in Research can be found at:

Fisher, C. B., Kornetsky, S. Z., & Prentice, E. D. (2007). Determining Risk in Pediatric Research with No Prospect of Direct Benefit: Time for a National Consensus on the Interpretation of Federal Regulations. *American Journal of Bioethics*, 7, 5 - 10. Thanks to Celia Fisher for providing this information.

Appropriate use of High Stakes Testing: Information regarding high stakes testing can be found at <http://www.apa.org/pubinfo/testing.html>

Advanced Training Institutes: The Science Directorate sponsors advanced training institutes to support the science of psychology. You can find information about available training and criteria for applicants at <http://www.apa.org/pubinfo/testing.html>

Other co-sponsored Activities:

Internship Directory: The division helped co-sponsor this publication which provides information on internships in school psychology that are not in the APPIC system. Jim DiPerna



Break Through the Language Barrier

100% nonverbal assessments that best promote equity, cultural fairness, social justice, and bias reduction.



Coming Soon!
UNIT Group Abilities Test™ and
UNIT Giftedness Screening Scales™

Contact Riverside Publishing Customer Service
or your local Assessment Consultant
at 800.323.9540 for more information.

Visit us at www.riversidepublishing.com

 **Riverside Publishing**
A HOUGHTON MIFFLIN COMPANY
www.riversidepublishing.com
800.323.9540



SASP Announces Diversity Mini-Scholarship Recipient

The SASP board would like to congratulate Cyril Pickering for being this year's SASP Diversity Mini-Scholarship recipient! Only one incoming doctoral student is selected to receive this award annually. Cyril completed his undergraduate studies at Bucknell University in Psychology with Honors last May and is currently enrolled in the school psychology program at University of Maryland. Cyril is interested in exploring teaching styles and how they influence academic achievement in students from urban and suburban settings. His ultimate goal is to work at an inner city school district or in administration, so he can make broad policy decisions. We know that Cyril will contribute greatly to his program and to the field of school psychology!

Student presenters at this year's SASP mini-convention along with several national officers of SASP.



(above left to right): Allison Scott, Lisa Roberts, Kimberly Roberts, Amanda Siebecker (SASP president), Cindy Altman (SASP convention chair), Lisa Davidson, Amanda Stinson, and Andy Van Pham (SASP diversity affairs chair).



Cross-cultural Awareness in Consultation within Graduate Student Practicum Settings

Andy V. Pham, M.A.

Sara C. Lewandowski, M.A.

Michigan State University

As part of graduate training, school psychology students are placed in practicum sites where they regularly complete consultation assignments for their coursework. For example, school psychology students may be required to provide behavioral or instructional consultation to classroom teachers. In some cases, when working in a new school, graduate students may function as external consultants who bring fresh and new perspectives to the problem but may also face challenges in working with the school's established values and goals. As fledgling practitioners, school psychology students are often expected to provide consultation services to teachers who may have more field experience than the students. Whether collaborative or expert-driven, consultation between the graduate student as the consultant and the teacher as the consultee can be influenced by numerous cultural and organizational variables. What are the teacher's perceptions of the graduate student? What are the graduate student's perceptions of the teacher during the consultation process? The purpose of this article is to discuss and provide awareness about consultation work between school staff and graduate students. Particularly, this discussion will emphasize the importance of considering cultural factors in consultation by drawing upon previous literature and the authors' personal experiences as graduate students providing consultation services to teachers.

Multicultural vs. Cross-cultural Consultation

Consultation literature provides different models for delivering psychological and educational services within the schools. Exploring the role of culture may help graduate students understand the issues, processes, and interrelationships among consultation members, especially with teachers. In the multicultural school consultation framework, Ingraham (2000) defined culture broadly to include an organized set of thoughts, beliefs, and norms for interaction and communication, which may influence cognitions, behaviors and perceptions.

Culture is also influenced by a combination of race, ethnicity, language, SES, age, educational attainment, sexual orientation, spirituality, and/or level of acculturation (Ingraham, 2000). Ingraham (2000) proposes that consultants need to consider a multicultural consultation approach in which cultural issues are raised, and adjustments in the consultation processes are made to meet the needs and values of the teachers and/or students. For example, a middle-class school psychologist may tailor or adjust the traditional consultation model to fit with the cultural or communication patterns of a teacher.

However, in cross-cultural consultation, which is often considered a subset of multicultural consultation, consultation occurs across different cultures (Ingraham, 2000). For example, a school psychologist who has been trained in current views of response-to-intervention may be consulting with urban school teachers who prefer the traditional testing model of evaluating students for special education. Both parties may have similar language backgrounds, but their economic or educational backgrounds may be different. Because the majority of school psychology students frequently work with teachers who may have different educational backgrounds, belief systems, and cultural values from their own, these situations can also be characterized as cross-cultural relationships. According to this approach, consultation that is matched with the consultee's perspectives can lead to greater acceptance of the consultation process and facilitate movement toward mutually agreeable treatment plans and goals (Ingraham, 2000).

Teachers' Perceptions of Effective Consultation

Research suggests that there is a strong positive relationship between teachers' perceptions of consultants' skills and their willingness to work with those consultants (Knoff, Sullivan, & Liu, 1995). Knoff et al. (1995) conducted a study exploring the relationship between teachers' ratings of consultation effectiveness and variables reflecting

Cross-cultural Consultation

demographic and professional backgrounds and experience (e.g., gender, age, and years of teaching experience). They discovered that teachers who were older (over age 30), who had attained higher academic degrees, and who had more teaching experience rated consultant knowledge, process and application skills as important to effective consultation. This finding suggests that teacher consultees seem to value the consultant's knowledge and education as equally as their own. Therefore, the consultant's knowledge and experience may prove to be significant components of the consultation process, impacting teachers' perceptions of the consultant. However, according to the teachers' responses, the researchers found that the consultant's interpersonal and problem-solving skills were always considered important regardless of age and teaching experience. Hence, teacher consultees consider an effective consultant as someone who is knowledgeable and personable. Of course, one limitation of this study is that consultant perceptions were not measured. Because of this limitation, one could not compare perceptions and explore whether consultees and consultants value the same consultation factors.

Graduate Students as Consultants

Graduate students in school psychology can gain knowledge and experience in consultation by cultivating consultative relationships with staff at practicum sites. Beyond university training, graduate students can look to field-based practicum supervisors for additional support. Shadowing practicum supervisors can help graduate students, entering as external consultants, understand the school's culture (e.g., organization, processes, values, beliefs). A recent survey of school psychologists across the United States reported that while most of their time is spent in assessment or activities related to special education eligibility, an average of 6.6 hours per week are spent in problem solving consultation, and 2.6 hours per week are spent in organizational or systems consultation (Hosp & Reschly, 2002). Although it is likely that graduate students are not in their practicum setting every day, practicum supervisors could be excellent role models for graduate students. School psychologists in training could potentially spend a significant amount of time participating in or observing some form of consultation.

Of course not all practicum sites are created equal. Curtis, Hunley and Grief (2002) found that

field-based supervisors with more graduate-level training in consultation, more field experience, and lower psychologist-to-student ratios in the school district were associated with more time spent in consultation and intervention activities, in-service activities, and individual/group counseling, according to one survey completed by members of the National Association of School Psychologists. Therefore, some practicum students may not be exposed to many consultative experiences due to the nature of the practicum site and their supervisor's training. Furthermore, the results indicated that practitioners' time spent in the field was focused more on assessment activities, rather than consultation and intervention activities, and therefore did not reflect their current graduate training. A more recent survey of 139 school psychology graduate students reported most of their time in practicum was spent conducting assessments, particularly intelligence testing (Tarquin & Truscott, 2006). Authors of the study concluded that graduate students may have limited training in consultation, were supervised by school psychologists in more traditional roles, or were trained with a greater emphasis on consultation compared to their practicum setting activities.

Fagan (2002) expressed concern that school psychology practices remain the same despite the promotion of alternative practices, such as response-to-intervention, prevention, and the use of evidence-based interventions. As graduate programs provide training using the most recent research and cutting-edge methodology, it is certainly possible that graduate students are being trained to practice far differently from their practicum supervisor. Consequently, it may prove difficult for graduate students to rely on their practicum supervisors for guidance.

In effect, there are a variety of possible situations that may occur in the practicum setting: the graduate student's training does not match the practicum setting's philosophy, the school staff may have limited knowledge of recent changes in the field of school psychology, or practice opportunities in the practicum setting do not match activities emphasized in the graduate student's training. In any event, two different cultures must find a way to work together. The culture of the graduate student is framed by problem-solving models, research-based interventions, prevention, three-tiered models, and ecological perspectives. Another culture may be more traditional in thought, with a greater focus on

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 136

Cross-cultural Consultation

intelligence testing, point discrepancies, and remediation.

The discussion now turns to the authors' practicum experiences, providing examples of cross-cultural consultation in their work with elementary teachers in their practicum setting. Hopefully, these examples will encourage graduate students to remain cognizant of their own experiences in order to understand how cultural factors can influence their working relationships in schools.

SL's Experiences

My first true behavioral consultation experience occurred in my second year of graduate school. My practicum was set in a rural school district in Michigan, serving approximately 300 students. I worked closely with a second grade teacher in the administration of the Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS), linking the results to interventions used in the classroom. We conceptualized the problem based on student skill deficiency and a lack of adequate instruction and practice opportunities. From the results of our data collection through DIBELS, interviews, and classroom observations, we identified a small group of children with low reading fluency and chose Repeated Readings (Rathvon, 1999) as the targeted intervention. Although there were many obstacles encountered and the intervention was only implemented for a short period of time, the students made small gains in their oral reading fluency as measured by the DIBELS.

Some of the obstacles I encountered while working with the teacher included her general lack of knowledge about DIBELS or the response-to-intervention process, a lack of clear communication of individual expectations, and perceived resistance from the teacher (due in part to limited familiarity and experience in using DIBELS). It was often difficult to schedule meetings (and keep meeting times) and consistently implement the intervention. As a result, I found myself taking on more of the responsibility, when I thought it would have been more collaborative. I believe the strongest form of resistance from the teacher was due to limited familiarity and experience. Although she was a young teacher who had obtained her master's degree in teaching, our training backgrounds were different. My training provided me with experience in progressive movements such as response-to-intervention and using screening measures as part of

primary prevention - in this case, preventing students from falling further behind in reading skills. Because our graduate training differed, the teacher may not have been familiar enough with DIBELS to work with me during the consultation. To add to my frustration, when I asked her at the end of the consultation whether she would feel comfortable in using DIBELS in the future, she admitted that she did not have a complete understanding of the process to allow her to continue on her own. Though she had learned new methods, the consultation did not leave her feeling like an expert. It seems likely that she had felt this way throughout the entire consultation process and her feelings were never addressed during the consultation. Unfortunately, the consultation purpose was not to train the teacher in using DIBELS, and instead focused on how to link assessment results to instructional change. Because the training gap was not adequately addressed, one might say that the teacher and I were operating as members of two different cultures, dictated by distinctive experiences in graduate school.

Occasionally I would turn to my field-based practicum supervisor for support and suggestions to create a more successful consultation. My supervisor was a school psychologist and also the head of the Instructional Consultation Team (Rosenfield, 1987). She graduated from her educational specialist program within the last 10 years and was regularly involved in professional development activities. However, she had limited knowledge of the DIBELS and the use of a universal screening measure to inform instructional change. Her work in the school was more focused on individual students and providing an instructional match for individual students. Furthermore, the school rarely participated in universal assessments, with the exception of the Michigan Educational Assessment Program (MEAP) or the Iowa Test of Basic Skills. Although my supervisor expressed interest in learning how to use DIBELS, it was difficult for her to support me in my consultation with the teacher because of her limited knowledge in the area.

Although I did not feel I had my supervisor or teacher's support during consultation, I did feel supported by the school's culture, which may account for some success. My practicum site was unique in that the school was in its second year of implementing Rosenfield's (1987) Instructional Consultation (IC) framework. During the second

CONTINUED ON PAGE 138

Cross-cultural Consultation

year, the school principal, the school psychologist, and teachers joined together to form a team of school personnel that acted as consultants to other teachers within the school. The purpose of this relationship was to build community and partnerships with school staff in order to solve student academic and/or behavioral problems. A large component of instructional consultation is the use of curriculum-based assessments to inform intervention choice or instructional change, a process that parallels the framework I used in my consultation with the teacher. In part, one may say that the school's culture was initially supportive enough for administrators to become advocates of using instructional consultation, or that the school's culture changed as a result of instructional consultation, allowing me to feel somewhat supported in my consultative relationship with the teacher. Therefore, the similarity between the school's culture and my culture (i.e., graduate training), may have facilitated greater success in my consultation than would have been possible otherwise, because what I brought to the consultation was not completely foreign to my teacher consultee.

This reflection of my experiences with consultation relates to Ingraham's (2000) work with multicultural and cross-cultural consultation. Particularly relevant to my experience are Ingraham's (2000) eight domains for consultant learning and development in multicultural school consultation. Ingraham (2000) discussed the importance of learning about differing cultures and

how differences can affect the consultative relationship through these eight domains for learning (see Table 1).

For example, one domain highlights the value of communication during consultation, especially in developing and maintaining rapport, understanding the cultural context for consultation, and understanding individual salient differences. Certainly there were salient differences between my graduate school culture and the teacher's culture that were not addressed adequately in a way that bridged the two. Perhaps, to a certain extent, there was a lack of effort by both parties to understand our differing cultures. And yet, there was enough similarity between my culture and the school's culture to provide a supportive foundation for the consultation.

I am left to ponder why the consultation was not a complete success. Should I determine it was poor intervention choice, intervention integrity and implementation, or cultural differences? Perhaps it was a combination of all of the above. I feel as if cultural differences are generally not considered in a consultative relationship unless the cultural differences are related to race, ethnicity, or other typical cultural differences. Practicum students cannot overlook cultural differences due to prior educational training when consulting with other school professionals. Failure to do so could lead to the consultant and consultee operating on parallel roads, never intersecting. More importantly, failure to address cultural differences could lead to poor client outcomes.

Table 1

Ingraham's (2000) Eight Domains for Consultant Learning and Development in Multicultural School Consultation

- 1 Understanding one's own culture
- 2 Understanding the impact(s) of one's own culture on others
- 3 Respecting and valuing other cultures
- 4 Understanding individual differences within cultural groups and the multiple cultural identities prevalent in many individuals
- 5 Cross-cultural communication: Multicultural consultation approaches for developing and maintaining rapport throughout consultation
- 6 Understanding cultural saliency and how to build bridges across salient differences
- 7 Understanding the cultural context for consultation
- 8 Multicultural consultation and interventions appropriate for the consultee and client

Cross-cultural Consultation**AP's Experiences**

My experience engaging in a consultative relationship with a teacher took place at a suburban Michigan elementary school, which served over 500 students from first to fifth grade. When I first stepped into the staff meeting at the beginning of the school year, I noticed immediately that all of the school teachers were female and white. As an Vietnamese-American, the demographics of the teaching staff were salient. According to Ingraham (2000), it is not the cultural identity of an individual but the *cultural saliency* (cultural similarities or differences perceived by consultation members) that is important in determining the cultural variation within a consultative relationship. However, as the school year progressed, my supervisor and several teachers recognized that the school district was not as diverse as other school districts in Michigan, and tried to reconcile this by incorporating opportunities and curricula exposing students and staff to different cultures. This allowed me to see that the school culture was dedicated to enriching students and peers with experiences that may be different from their own.

I was fortunate enough to be part of an Instructional Consultation (IC) team, which was facilitated by my practicum supervisor. This model of consultation was in its second-year of implementation within this school; therefore, team members were still learning about the problem-solving process and the interventions provided in this model. One of my supervisor's goals through using this consultation approach is to decrease the number of annual special education referrals through the use of pre-referral interventions. She believed in collaboration with teachers and changing the student's academic environment order to create an instructional match. As a supervisor, she was an excellent resource, providing me with opportunities to engage in alternative methods of service delivery instead of the traditional assessment. Her views of her role as a school psychologist were progressive, since she was always willing to learn more about instructional consultation and response-to-intervention.

As a case manager, I worked with a second-grade teacher who was concerned about a student, "Maggie," who had problems in the areas of oral reading fluency and reading comprehension. By the start of the contracting stage, where I outlined the goals and philosophy of the consultation model, I discovered that the consultee knew a great deal

about the model since she was part of the team as well. Her participation made it easier for both of us to collaborate, as there were some complexities surrounding the problem-solving process, especially for those who were not familiar with the IC model. Because she and I were both just beginning to learn about this model of consultation, we began the consultation with shared expectations and goals.

After several meetings with this teacher, it was evident that she had more experience working in schools than I had, because she taught elementary school for several years. The philosophy of the IC model recognizes that consultation members can influence student learning by creating a match between the students' needs and the classroom environment. It stems from a consultee-centered approach, in which one of the goals is to enhance teachers' skills in and application of best practices of instructional assessment, strategies, and delivery. Because the IC model is collaborative in nature, it does not rely on the case manager to provide advice or expertise to the consultee in the process. Therefore, by combining our knowledge of the student's strengths and weaknesses, the teacher and I were able to conceptualize the student's presenting problems and to develop interventions that would potentially improve the client's oral reading fluency and comprehension. In addition, the teacher expressed her personal goal of learning about different reading interventions provided in the IC manual.

However, there were a few challenges that arose that could have adversely affected my relationship with the teacher. After describing the model of IC, I initially thought that the teacher had a good understanding of its purpose. One of the other goals of this model was to reduce the number of special education evaluations and referrals by engaging in this pre-referral problem-solving process. During the latter half of the school year, the teacher decided to refer a different second-grade student, "Joey," for special education services, even though there was no pre-referral plan in place to address this student's concerns with writing. The teacher was concerned about the increased demands and expectations for the third grade, and believed that a special education evaluation was warranted. After evaluating this student, it was determined that he was not eligible to receive special education services. The teacher appeared disappointed with the results of the meeting, so I feared this would negatively affect my consultative

Cross-cultural Consultation

relationship with the teacher regarding Maggie. However, this did not appear to be the case. We discussed some of the problems regarding the current special education regulations, and we eventually managed to develop a reading intervention for the teacher to implement with Maggie. Despite her involvement in instructional consultation for Maggie, her referral of Joey for testing suggested that she was still working in a traditional culture where the focus continued to be on testing and placement. Also, because this teacher had numerous experiences in reading interventions and literacy, she seemed more likely to engage in consultation when she believed that she had some knowledge and competence to help (i.e., the case of Maggie's problems with oral reading fluency and reading comprehension). In contrast, because Joey's concerns were related to writing, she may have been more likely to refer him for a special education evaluation, based on her discussions with me that she lacked the knowledge and skills to develop and implement writing interventions through the consultation process.

Conclusion

Though communication and problem-solving skills are essential for effective consultation, awareness and consideration of cultural variables in the process are also important to facilitate understanding of the consultative relationship and process. In addition, the culture of the school, community, or district also creates a context within which the consultation process occurs. The values, expectations, and cultural norms of society can also exert pressures on consultation in ways that can support or challenge problem-solving. We saw how individuals working from two different cultures, specifically different educational training, had some difficulty in working together in a consultative relationship. Both authors are current graduate students trained in using progressive problem-solving models, while their consultees were trained in using traditional discrepancy models. The philosophical differences between these cultures may have drastic implications for serving students in general and special education programs. Different cultures keep different values, expectations, and norms that influence how an individual views a problem. Thus, it is easy to predict that these differences may often contribute to spoken and unspoken conflicts in the consultative relationship.

Graduate students in school psychology are

expected to work in a consultative role through practicum, internship, and post-graduate experiences. Practicum is an excellent opportunity for graduate students to gain experience using consultation and to explore various consultation models. Supervisors are also excellent sources of information, which may be useful in guiding graduate students through the consultation process. However, not all graduate students will feel supported when attempting to utilize consultation skills in their practicum setting, due to a mismatch between their own training and philosophy and their supervisor's training or the practicum setting's culture. Therefore, graduate students must learn to advocate for themselves to successfully integrate their training and skill set in practice when working with individuals from diverse training backgrounds and within school cultures that differ from their own. They should also be aware of the cultural differences in the practicum setting and work to promote successful cross-cultural consultation in schools. As previously mentioned, culture encompasses the values, beliefs, thoughts, and norms of a group of individuals and is largely influenced by race, gender, ethnicity, SES, educational background, age, sexual orientation, spirituality, and/or level of acculturation (Ingraham, 2000). With the increasing diversity of the school population, clearly people from many different cultures will need to work together. Especially within consultation, cultural differences can influence the functioning of the consultative relationship. In other words, individuals entering into a consultative relationship may conceptualize a problem differently based on cultural differences. For example, the traditional view of a school psychologist is to use an achievement-intelligence discrepancy model if a child was having difficulty in class, while a more progressive view would consider an instructional match within the general education setting (Rosenfield, 1987). The traditionalist may view the problem as internal, while the progressive also incorporates factors external to the child. The inability to understand one's own culture as well as other cultures can lead to ineffective communication and hence, ineffective consultation.

The purpose of this article was to discuss consultation between school staff and graduate students in the practicum setting. Additionally, this article was meant to broaden the conceptualization of cross-cultural consultation by incorporating understanding that differences in educational

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 140

Cross-cultural Consultation

attainment and training will impact the consultative relationship. The reflections of our learning experiences as graduate students and as consultants will hopefully influence other graduate students to work towards successful consultation by examining cultural differences impacting the relationship.

References

- Curtis, M. J., Hunley, S. A., & Grier, J. E. (2002). Relationships among the professional practices and demographic characteristics of school psychologists. *School Psychology Review, 31*, 30-42.
- Fagan, T. K. (2002). School psychology: Recent descriptions, continued expansion, and an ongoing paradox. *School Psychology Review, 31*, 5-10.
- Hosp, J. L., & Reschly D. J. (2002). Regional differences in school psychology practice. *School Psychology Review, 31*, 11-29.
- Ingraham, C. (2000). Consultation through a multicultural lens: Multicultural and cross-cultural consultation in schools. *School Psychology Review, 29*(3), 320-343.
- Knoff, H., Sullivan, P., & Liu, D. (1995). Teacher's ratings of effective school psychology consultants: An exploratory factor analysis study. *Journal of School Psychology, 33*(1) 39-57.
- Rathvon, N. (1999). *Effective school interventions: Strategies for enhancing academic achievement and social competence*. Guilford Press.
- Rosenfield, S. A. (1987). *Instructional consultation*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Tarquin, K. M. & Truscott, S. D. (2006). School psychology students' perceptions of their practicum experiences. *Psychology in the Schools, 43*(6), 727-736.

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 131

Call for nominations for Division 16 2008 Awards

person holds and who has demonstrated an exceptional program of service across a career that merits special recognition. A sustained program of service to the profession of school psychology throughout one's career is the primary consideration in making the award.

The recipient of the Jack Bardon award is a distinguished figure within the profession with a history of sustained contributions and accomplishments. They should meet both criteria I and II.

I. Major leadership in the development, delivery or administration of innovative psychological services or development and implementation of policy leading to psychologically and socially sound preservice and/or CPD training and practice in school psychology; and sound evaluation of such training and service delivery models and policies.

II. Sustained professional organization contributions including holding offices and committee memberships in state and national professional organizations such as Division 16 and significant products from those contributions that further the profession of school psychology. Examples include creation of and revisions to policy and practice manuals based on innovative guidance; guiding major policy or legislative initiatives; mentoring of new professionals into organizational

contributions; administering dissemination of professional materials through such publication editing or convention programming; and representing psychology to the public and government through service on boards and commissions. The Jack Bardon Distinguished Service Award is to be given for sustained service to the profession across a number of years and not for service in one office or major task force.

Nominees must be either 20 years past the granting of their doctoral degree or at least 50 years old by December 31 in the year nominated.

Five sets of material should be forwarded on each nominee, including a vita, supporting letters (minimum of three), five major papers of publications, and contact information for the nominee, nominator and letter writers so they may receive results (as indicated on the Division 16 website). All nominations and related materials should be submitted by March 15 to the committee chair, Linda Reddy, Ph.D., Graduate School of Applied & Professional Psychology, 152 Frelinghuysen Rd., Busch Campus, Rutgers State University of New Jersey, Piscataway, NJ 08854. For questions, please contact Dr. Reddy at LReddy@rci.rutgers.edu.

CDs with the complete application including letters of recommendation with the full 5 copies only will be accepted.

People and Places

- **Valerie Cook-Morales**, Professor of School Psychology, San Diego State University, has received a \$1.5 million grant from the U.S. Department of Education, Office of English Language Acquisition to prepare bilingual (Spanish) school psychologists. On-going seminars focus on bilingual education and special education as well as Latino culture(s) and implications for education and psychology. A month-long immersion in Mexico (each summer a different location) includes professional Spanish-language instruction, service learning in the schools, living with a host family, and exploration of the interface of indigenous and colonial cultures. This is the seventh grant that she has received specific to preparation of bilingual school psychologists; thus, the SDSU program has enjoyed continuous funding since 1986. To contact her (including immersion inquiries), email: vcmorale@mail.sdsu.edu
- The School Psychology Program at Texas A & M is pleased to announce that **Jamilia Blake**, Ph.D. (UGA) has joined the faculty

as tenure track assistant professor, and **Anita Sohn McCormick**, Ph.D. (TAMU) has joined the faculty as a clinical assistant professor.

- Dr. **Scott Poland**, long time Director of Psychological Services for Cypress Fairbanks ISD in Houston is now faculty in the Center for Psychological Studies at Nova Southeastern University in Fort Lauderdale and was just named the Campus Safety Coordinator. Scott was previously NASP President and is the current Chair of the National Emergency Assistance Team for NASP and was recently named the Prevention Division Director for the American Association of Suicidology.
- University of California Santa Barbara – The Department of Counseling, Clinical, and School Psychology is pleased to announce the appointments of **Erin Dowdy**, Ph.D. (University of Georgia), **Matthew Quirk**, Ph.D. (University of Georgia), and **Jill Sharkey**, Ph.D. (UC Santa Barbara) to the school psychology specialization faculty.

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 133

News You Can Use

serves as Editor.

Evidence-based interventions Task Force:

Tom Kratochwill and Kim Hoagwood's committee continues this important work, which is primarily sponsored by the Society for the Study of School Psychology and co-sponsored by the Division. The report that revisions have been made in the group design coding manual and the single-case design manual which should be on the web soon and available for your use in coding research and facilitating training in researchers in school psychology. Articles are also being developed. The sub-group of the task force on implementation of EBIs in schools (Forman, Hoagwood, Olin, Saka, Crowe) have interviewed 25 school-based intervention developers and developed a coding scheme to identify the key facilitators and barriers to initial uptake, implementation, and sustainability of these programs in the schools.

Awards:

Please see the Award Winner Notification and the Call for Nominations also in this issue. Thanks to Rich Gilman for agreeing to serve as Awards Committee Chair.

Final word: Please forgive any omissions or errors and see the APA web site for extensive information. Thanks again for allowing me to serve, and congratulations to Elaine Clark in whose capable hands I will be placing this office in December.

You are encouraged to become further involved in the Division by contacting officers and in APA by using governance resources available at <http://www.apa.org/governance/>

I hope you have a wonderful year and see you in Boston!

ATTENTION PROBLEMS HAVE A MAJOR IMPACT ON LEARNING!

Transform your special education students into eager, successful learners!

Over 1000 hours of systematic computerized mental workouts stimulate the areas of the brain that are responsible for the ability to learn - attention, listening skills, self-control, processing speed, working memory, and more. With BrainTrain's research-based, brain-training exercises, your students' minds will perk up and turn on to learning.

Captain's Log[®]
The Complete
Computerized Mental Gym[™]

You need to know if your students have attention deficits...

Even moderate attention problems can make it difficult for students to do well in school. So it is vitally important for school psychologists to know if a student has an attention deficit. Our combined visual and auditory continuous performance test allows you to assess attention and response control in one concise, easy-to-use instrument.

IVA+Plus[™]

Combines visual and auditory testing to help the school psychologist to identify at-risk students.

FREE SOFTWARE! You can use the Captain's Log system at your school FREE for an entire semester! Call 1-800-822-0538 today to find out more!

FREE TESTS! Download two free IVA+Plus tests at www.braintrain.com



BrainTrain
CHANGING THE WAY PEOPLE THINK

NEWSLETTER EDITORIAL STAFF

EDITOR

Michelle S. Athanasiou, Ph.D.
School of Applied Psychology &
Counselor Education
McKee 248, CB131
University of Northern Colorado
Greeley, CO 80639
(970) 351-2356 (w)
(970) 351-2625 (f)
michelle.athanasiou@unco.edu

ASSOCIATE EDITOR

Amanda Clinton, Ph.D.
Departamento de Psicología
Chardon 217
P.O. Box 9266
Universidad de Puerto Rico
Recinto Universitario de
Mayagüez
(787) 832-4040 (w)
(787) 245-9615 (c)
(787) 265-5440 (f)
aclinton@uprm.edu

ADVISORY EDITORS

- Angeleque Akin-Little
Walden University
- Vincent Alfonso, Ph.D.
Fordham University
- Rosemary Flanagan, Ph.D.,
ABPP, Touro College
- Pam Guess, Ph.D.
University of Tennessee
at Chattanooga
- Patrick Grehan, Ph.D.
Adelphi University
- James B. Hale, Ph.D.
Philadelphia College of
Osteopathic Medicine
- Janet Mentore-Lee, Ph.D.
Private Practice
- Amanda Nickerson, Ph.D.
State University of New York
at Albany
- Linda A. Reddy, Ph.D.
Rutgers University

- Carol Robinson-Zañartu, Ph.D.
San Diego State University
- Tracey Scherr, Ph.D.
University of Wisconsin-
Whitewater
- Ara Schmitt, Ph.D.
Duquesne University
- Esther Stavrou, Ph.D.
Yeshiva University
- Tim Ulmer, Ph.D.
Seminole County Public
Schools

EDITORIAL ASSISTANTS

- Jamie Vannice
University of Northern Colorado
- Debbie Witsken
University of Northern Colorado



DIVISION 16 ONLINE

Check out the Division 16 home page at:
www.indiana.edu/~div16/



Please Recycle

PRINTED IN THE U.S.A.

American Psychological Association

Division 16, School Psychology
c/o Division Service
750 First Street N.E.
Washington, D.C. 20002-4242

NON-PROFIT
U.S. POSTAGE
PAID
PERMIT # 6348
WASHINGTON DC