table of contents

PRESIDENT’S MESSAGE
Tammy Hughes, Duquesne University 84

RESEARCH FORUM
Selection, Persuasion, and Other Intricacies of Developing Future Faculty in School Psychology
Jean A. Baker, Tara M. Brinkman, Nia Nunn Makepeace, Jacob B. Mathiason, Julia A. Ogg, Andy V. Pham, Elizabeth M. Weiss-DeBoer, & Megan M. Wolvin, Michigan State University, & Michael Furlong, University of California, Santa Barbara 85

PRACTICE FORUM
Pediatric Attention Disorders Diagnostic Screener for Children At-Risk for Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder
Linda A. Reddy & Grace Fumari, Rutgers University, Thomas K. Pedigo, Pediatric & Adolescent Psychology P.C., Savannah, GA, & Vann Scott, Armstrong Atlantic State University 93

Response to Intervention with Kindergarten Children: Hopes and Realities
Amanda Clinton, University of Puerto Rico 99

BOOK REVIEW
Sean D. Cunningham & Daniel Olympia, University of Utah 104

GENERAL
American Psychological Association 2008 Convention: Division 16 Schedule at a Glance
Submitted by Georgette Yetter, Program Chair & Theodore Christ, Co-Chair 108

Division 16 Conversation Series Announcement
Submitted by Linda Reddy, Vice President for Publications and Communications, Rutgers University 110

SASP – THE STUDENT CORNER
Tips for Successfully Navigating the APPIC Process
Cindy Altman, Duquesne University & Shilah Scherweit, SASP President, Oklahoma State University 111

PEOPLE AND PLACES
114

ANNOUNCEMENT
116
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<td>December 1</td>
<td>December 15</td>
<td>January 15</td>
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<td>Spring (2)</td>
<td>February 1</td>
<td>February 15</td>
<td>March 15</td>
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<td>Summer (3)</td>
<td>June 1</td>
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<td>July 15</td>
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Starting to Heal and Move Forward

Tammy Hughes, Duquesne University

It is with great humility that I begin by sharing with you how the Division’s Executive Committee (EC) has started to heal and move forward after the loss of our President, Jean Baker, and her leadership. Jean and I had discussed a mentoring strategy based on what she found most helpful in preparing for the role of President. From that frame we discussed her initiatives for the year and how she thought they could be accomplished. Once we received the news of her passing, I knew that as I stepped into the role I would commit this year to the work that Jean had set out in her initiatives. The Executive Committee rallied behind these objectives, and each of them has given tirelessly toward this success. I owe them a debt of gratitude.

Jean’s initiatives for this year centered on strengthening connections both: 1) within the broader Association, and 2) with the school psychology community. To date the following activities have been undertaken:

**Division – APA Connections:**
- Establishing a new liaison to the MLA Task Force to provide Division input.
- Working with the Child-focused Divisions (37, 43, 53, 54) to make sure that children’s issues are front and center of APA policy and practice considerations - see highlights in this year’s convention programming.
- Working with the Education, Practice, Public Interest and Science Directorates on APA responses to proposed legislation changes (e.g., FERPA, Child and Adolescent Mental Health, Title I).

**Division – School Psychology Community Connections:**
- Working with NASP leadership to identify opportunities for future collaboration.
- Working with School Psychology Leadership Roundtable (SPLR), where leaders from the various constituent organizations (e.g., NASP, Division 16, Trainers, CDSSP, APBB, ABSP, SSSP, ISPA, etc…) come together annually to communicate, combine efforts where possible, and promote positive outcomes for children, families and the systems that serve them.

With Jean’s goals in mind - we are moving forward.

This year APA President Alan Kazdin asked Division Leaders to have more direct contact with members. I have sent emails and left phone messages for over 250 members, and continue to work my way through the list. If you’d like to contact me please send an email to HughesT@duq.edu. I welcome your input.

“With Jean’s goals in mind - we are moving forward.”
Recently, considerable attention within school psychology has been directed toward developing future faculty because of the numbers of available faculty positions and the continuing dearth of candidates to fill them. A 2004 mini-series in School Psychology Quarterly (Akin-Little & Little, 2004) and forums at the 2002 and 2007 Council of Directors of School Psychology Programs mid-winter meetings have highlighted the trend toward doctoral graduates eschewing academia and pursuing practice-related careers in much higher proportions. This trend is not unique to school psychology (Peterson, 2003), but the gathering storm of unfilled faculty positions in our profession is one that continues to warrant our attention and action.

Previous scholarship has highlighted a number of factors associated with developing future faculty. Much of this work is related to identifying factors within graduate training programs that more effectively encourage students to pursue the professoriate. Gelso (2006) identified six characteristics of research-enhancing graduate school environments: (a) faculty model appropriate scientific behavior and attitudes; (b) scientific activity is positively reinforced in the environment, both formally and informally; (c) students are involved in research early in their training and in a minimally threatening way; (d) training emphasized that all research studies are limited and flawed in one way or another; (e) varied approaches to research are taught and valued; and (f) students are shown how science and practice can be wedded. Scholars within school psychology have articulated many of these issues as pertinent in our field.

Specific activities within graduate programs such as funding, mentoring and modeling of research activities and the academic life by faculty (Shapiro & Blom-Hoffman, 2004), and the provision of courses, exchanges, and specialized training related to university life (Kratochwill, Shernoff, & Sanetti, 2004) have been offered as critical program features that encourage students to pursue academic careers. Early and directed involvement in a variety of research activities was frequently cited as a critical feature of graduate training for careers in the academy (Shapiro & Blom-Hoffman, 2004; Stark, Perfect, Simpson, Schnoebelen, & Glenn, 2004). Additionally, issues of selection of graduate students and professional development throughout the graduate program have been offered as means to enhance the pool of potential future researchers (Kratochwill et al., 2004).

In addition to establishing research-enhancing environments, student motivation for a research-oriented career must be cultivated (Gelso, 2006). Within school psychology, the graduate student perspective on a future faculty career has also been noted. Graduate students have identified perceived benefits of an academic career, including the diversity and flexibility of the work, and the intellectual stimulation of the work environment (Nagel, Suldo, Christenson, & Hanson, 2004). They also described disincentives to pursue work within the professoriate. Highest ranked of these were job stress related to the tenure process, publishing, obtaining external funding, and the limited opportunities for direct contact with children and applied work.

However, it appears that future academics and future practitioners may be drawn to different aspects of psychology. In a study of 42 doctoral alumni from Lehigh’s School Psychology program, those electing an academic career valued research-oriented activities, such as encouragement to present work at conferences, as having an influence on their career decisions. In comparison, the practitioner alumni were more influenced by...
“Students anticipating a future academic career were attracted to the flexibility, type, and variety of work experiences that typify an academic career, such as teaching and training students.”

Method

Participants

Participants were 137 doctoral students in school psychology graduate programs. Forty percent were in their final year of coursework prior to internship, 42% were currently on internship, and 17% had finished their coursework and were taking a year to work on their dissertation prior to internship. One respondent was in the first year of employment or postdoctoral work following internship, and another was completing doctoral requirements following internship. No other demographic data were collected on the respondents due to the brevity of the survey.

Procedures

The Executive Committee of the Council of Directors of School Psychology Programs (CDSPP) administered a 10-item, web-based survey to students nearing the completion of their doctoral studies in school psychology programs. An e-mail was sent to the CDSPP listserv of the 94 directors of school psychology programs requesting that they forward an invitation to complete the survey to doctoral students in their graduate programs. A link to the on-line survey was included in the request for participation e-mail. The measure was available through an on-line provider, www.SurveyMonkey.com, which has a limitation of 10-items for no-cost surveys. The survey was available for completion for two months during the spring of 2006.

Measure

The 10-item survey was developed by the Executive Committee of CDSPP. Seven items were designed to measure students’ preferences for practice or research-related careers, and factors that influenced their career decisions. Additionally, student perceptions of their preparedness for their careers and factors that influenced those perceptions were collected. One item asked students to describe the practice and research-related emphases in their training programs. An open-ended question asked students for their ideas regarding what programs could do to encourage more students to pursue careers in academia.

The initial survey was reviewed by the Student Affiliates in School Psychology (SASP) group at Michigan State University. Revisions in content and wording were recommended, and the final survey was approved by the CDSPP Executive Committee.

Data Analyses

Quantitative analyses. The respondents were grouped into one of the three most endorsed career choices: (a) those electing to pursue a practice-oriented career (n = 71); (b) those endorsing some type of academic (n = 19), or research in the private or government sector (n = 4; total n = 23) careers; and (c) those pursuing practice first then moving to an academic position (n = 29). Differences in associations between the survey questions and group membership were evaluated using Cramer’s V. This statistic measures associations between two nominal variables with tables larger than 2 x 2. It uses chi-square and corrects for table size. Cramer’s V ranges from 0 to 1 and can be interpreted similarly to a correlation coefficient. Frequency data are also reported for several survey items.

Qualitative analysis. The open-ended responses to the final survey item were analyzed using a phenomenological approach by the first author who trained the 2nd-7th authors in this method. Phenomenology within the qualitative
tradition seeks to explain the fundamental structure or essence of an experience by examining individuals' reports of their beliefs and actions (Creswell, 1998). We used a cross-case comparison method (Merriam, 1998) for the 105 students who responded to the final survey item. The open-ended responses were initially coded to reveal the most elemental units of description, then cross-case comparisons were made to identify commonly occurring themes. The trustworthiness of the data was insured by having two raters code 27% of the same data. An 84% agreement rate was found, and disagreements were resolved through mutual coding with a third rater.

Results

Quantitative Analyses

There was only one item on the survey for which there were statistically significant differences among the career-orientation groups, Cramer's $V = .261$, $p = .014$. This item asked students to select the practice versus research-orientation of their training programs. For this analysis, two categories were created by collapsing the “practice-oriented” or “equal emphases but oriented towards practice” options and the “equal emphases but oriented towards research” or “research-oriented” options. Of the practice group responding to this item ($n = 66$), 75% endorsed coming from practice-oriented programs and 24% reported coming from research-oriented programs. Of the research group responding ($n = 23$), 57% reported coming from practice-oriented programs and 43% reported coming from research-oriented programs. This was also the pattern for the practice first then research-oriented group ($n = 29$), 59% of whom reported coming from practice-oriented programs and 41% reported coming from research-oriented programs.

One other analysis approached statistical significance. This item asked students for their perceptions of their preparedness for practice-oriented careers, regardless of their career choice. Because no students endorsed either the “very poor” or “poor” response options, these nominal categories were deleted and the analysis run on a 3 (“adequate,” “good,” “very good”) x 3 (career group) table, Cramer's $V = .187$, $p = .071$. The trend suggested a lesser association for the perception of preparedness for careers in practice and a career choice in practice for the research-oriented group (35%) than for the other two groups (65% and 91%, for the practice-oriented and first practice then research-oriented groups, respectively).

Interestingly, the parallel analysis regarding preparedness for research-oriented careers yielded non-significant results, Cramer's $V = .173$, $p = .290$. For this item, no respondents endorsed “very poor” preparation and the data were collapsed into two categories corresponding to the upper two and the remaining lower two categories. Figure 1 displays the frequency distribution of all students’ perception of preparedness for practice versus research careers, regardless of their choice of career.

Another item asked students to select the single most important factor influencing their career decision. The most frequent three responses for the practice-oriented group ($n = 71$), were their interest in the work (27%), their feelings of satisfaction (16%), or making a contribution (11%). For the research-oriented group ($n = 23$), 30% selected interest, 22% selected making a contribution, and 17% the intellectual stimulation afforded by the work. The first practice-then research group was mostly similar to the others in selecting interest as the most nominated factor (24%), followed by satisfaction (14%), and family responsibilities (10%).

Respondents were asked to select factors within their graduate programs that would better have prepared them for careers in research, regardless of their career choice. The frequency of these endorsements by career-choice group is

Figure 1.
Perceptions of preparedness for research and practice careers in percentage of agreement.
reported in Table 1. The striking pattern in these
data is that the practice-oriented group endorsed
every response option with greater frequency
relative to the other two groups. For example, 69% of
the practice-oriented group indicated that more
opportunities to write for publication would better
prepare them for careers in research compared with
23% in the research-oriented group and 9% in the
practice first then research-oriented group. This
pattern of responding across groups held true for all
factors related to preparation for careers in
research. The most heavily endorsed items regarded
opportunities for research (Item 1), work with
mentors (options 4, 5) and encouragement from
faculty members to pursue an academic career
(option 11). Interestingly, the only item that was not
endorsed by any member of the research-oriented
group was the final item regarding discussing joys or
stresses of an academic career with mentors.

Qualitative Analysis
A number of themes emerged from the
qualitative analysis, including research
opportunities, mentoring, orientation of training,
negative perceptions of the career, information
about and training for the career, and faculty
behavior/dual role issues. A description of each of
these six themes is provided below.

Research opportunities. The most dominant
theme in the qualitative analysis was the opportunity
for research within the doctoral program. Students
recommended increasing or diversifying research
experiences, adjusting the timing of research
training, and greater exposure to all aspects of
research, including grant writing and publication.
For example, one student said simply, “provide more
research training;” another suggested “bring students
into research and academia early on.”

Mentoring. Related to the previous theme,
another frequent suggestion involved mentoring.
Many students expressed dissatisfaction with the
quality and number of mentors available from their
faculty. They expressed a desire for programs to
provide “more access to researchers.” However, this
alone does not compose a quality mentoring
relationship. Many students wrote of wanting easier
access to and a closer working relationship with
faculty, including “more individual advising,” “having
frank discussions about academia,” and having their
professors “take a special interest in students who
express interests in academia.”

Orientation and demands of training.
Participants believed that one way to encourage
students to become faculty members is to highlight
the balance between research/academia and
practice, especially in doctoral programs. For
example, participants suggested that programs
should shift their focus to the doctoral program only
because “it encourages students to get their PhD so
they have the option of teaching later.” However,
pressures and stressful experiences within the
doctoral program, such as the dissertation and
comprehensive exams, may sway students not to
pursue careers in research-related fields. Some
participants mentioned that “comprehensive exams
should be replaced,” or “the length and tedium of
dissertations can be a turn-off to research for many
students.”

Other comments involved changing some of the
admission criteria. Illustrative responses included
“maintain high standards in the admission process”
and “limit admission to students with specific
research-oriented goals.” Consistent with
Kratochwill and his colleagues’ (2004)
recommendation, students suggested that
differential attention to the “impact point” of
recruitment and entry may produce more students
whose goals are consistent with a future research-
related career.

Negative perceptions of the career. Another
theme involved perceived problems in the practical
aspects or expectations of the career. Many
participants discussed pay for faculty as a potential
barrier to an academic career. One student reported
that they believed people choose not to obtain
careers in academia because the “pay is not better in
academia.” Another problem students have with
entering a faculty position is that they do not like the
emphasis that is placed on faculty members to
publish. For example, one student stated "the whole
publish or perish is somewhat discouraging and
frustrating”—while another said there needs to be
“less focus on publication.”

Information about and training for the career.
A consistent theme was that students would like
access to additional information about the academic
career. For example, one student indicated that
there should be “more exposure and knowledge of
academia.” Another student recommended that there
was “more exposure to other options in academia.”
In addition to increased knowledge regarding this
career, students also noted that they would like
more information specifically on how to obtain and
be successful in academic positions. For example,
one student said that programs could “provide tips on surviving first few years.” Relatedly, students also recommended providing experience with or training in aspects of the career other than research. They mentioned opportunities to supervise and mentor other students as well as gaining teaching experience as important within their graduate training programs.

**Faculty behavior/dual role issues.** The behavior modeled by faculty was another emergent theme in the qualitative responses. These comments centered on the dual role stress or discordance between an academic career and family life as evidenced by faculty behavior. As one student clearly articulated, “it appears that one must decide to either put their career or their family first and the other will suffer.” Further, many students explicitly identified the need for faculty to model a balance between the demands of an academic career and the demands of personal life. For example, “[faculty] appear to be very unbalanced and unhealthy people” and suggested that programs “provide models who balance academia with home life in a healthy way.” Students also recognized the need for faculty to appear “less stressed out” with their careers. In light of these responses, it seems as if the behavior modeled by faculty has the strong potential to encourage as well as deter some students from pursuing careers in academia.

**Discussion**

The data from our study provide a basis for a detailed discussion of the literature on the development of future faculty in school psychology. Student perceptions of their preparation for research or practice-related careers, and their reflections on the graduate training environments that affect their decisions, are important data to inform current conversations regarding future faculty. Results from this study confirm many previous findings regarding factors affecting a career choice in the academy, but add additional insights that may inform and guide our discussions about developing future faculty.

First, it appears that student perception of the training models endorsed by their programs is consistent with the types of graduates produced by the programs. Specifically, more students interested in research-oriented careers are produced by programs emphasizing a research rather than practice orientation in their training. This finding supports the need for programs to promote “research enhancing environments” that are sensitive to students’ developmental trajectories as researchers, and systematically ensure that supports are available to enhance student opportunity, efficacy, and activity in research (Gelso, 2006; Kratochwill et al., 2004; Shapiro & Blom-Hoffman, 2004; Stark et al., 2004). If the development of students for academic/research positions is an objective of a program, then this ought to be clearly articulated in program recruitment documents and aligned with program evaluation. For example, actual placements of graduates in university faculty positions may be a long-term outcome objective, but the development of students’ research self-efficacy could be assessed as a student makes degree transitions—at the end of research practica, comprehensive examinations, or as part of a program exit survey (Bieschke, 2006; Forester, Kahn, & McInnis, 2004).

However, this finding also raises questions that have been with the field since the Boulder Conference in 1949. A scientist-practitioner model integrates practice and science in all components of training, but evidence that programs can provide equal treatment to both components in the model is lacking (Stricker, 2000). An emphasis within programs to actively promote students’ research development may seem to sway them toward the science end of the continuum. However, Huber (2007) cites data of the “woeful” under-attention to science within school psychology practice. Enhanced attention to research training may provide a corrective to this tension. She suggests that the contemporary movement toward a problem-solving approach to school psychology practice may promote an empiricist orientation in all students that could then be generalized to research more broadly. In our qualitative findings, students expressed a desire for diversified types of research, including more applied projects. Programs may want to encourage students to use data from practicum projects to develop a professional research summary as part of their practicum requirements. Connections can then be made to the habits of mind required for research more generally, and to students’ direct experience of an application of the scientific method. This may be especially pertinent in the seminal second and third years of training when students are developing a sense of efficacy as researchers (Gelso, 2006).
A second notable finding from this study was the perceptions of lack of preparedness for research among students preferring a practice-oriented degree (see Table 1). Whereas previous studies found a stated preference for working with clients as a major contributor to a future career choice as a practitioner (e.g., Stark et al., 2004), the current sample shows evidence of a lack of confidence and perceived preparedness in research skills. This finding may be a reflection of their program’s training model, as more practice-oriented programs may not emphasize these skills, or of students’ self-selection into various types of opportunities as graduate students. However, the most dominant theme in our qualitative results was for programs to provide more, earlier, different, or better quality research training as part of the graduate program.

A few implications may derive from this finding. First, the majority of students entering graduate programs in psychology are attracted to working with clients (Peterson, 2003), and our findings may reflect this practice-orientation.

Table 1
Frequencies of Factors that Students Believed Would Better Prepare Them for Careers in Research in Percentage by Career Orientation Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Question</th>
<th>Practice %</th>
<th>Research %</th>
<th>Practice then Research %</th>
<th>n</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. More opportunities for research</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Different opportunities for research</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. More research coursework</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Observing mentors engaged in research</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Opportunities to work with mentors to develop research-related skills</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Opportunities to write for publication</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Discussions of research-related work within doctoral program</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Opportunities for teaching within graduate program</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Opportunities to supervise students within graduate program</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. More value placed on research within program</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Encouragement from faculty to pursue an academic care</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Opportunities for funding of student research activities within program</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Opportunities to engage with researchers outside of program</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Discussions about balancing career with family</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Discussions with mentors about the nature of academia</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Discussions with mentors about developing an academic career</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Opportunities to talk with mentors about joys or stresses of work</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“If programs seek to develop future faculty, attention needs be paid to student preferences and orientations at the “impact point” of recruitment and selection so that more research-oriented students enroll (Kratochwill et al., 2004).”
Students endorsing a practice-career may differently select or be differentially affected by activities that prepare them for practice (Shapiro & Blum-Hoffman, 2004). Because they seek out practice-related activities, it may lead to an actual or perceived lack of preparedness in the research area. If programs seek to develop future faculty, attention needs be paid to student preferences and orientations at the “impact point” of recruitment and selection so that more research-oriented students enroll (Kratochwill et al., 2004). Interestingly, in this study, the research-oriented students showed a trend toward a lesser association between practice-oriented training and selection of that career, suggesting that these students enter with a distinct research-oriented trajectory. This supports the notion of specialized recruitment for students interested in research careers and is consistent with research showing that, in part, individuals attracted to an academic career are more investigative in their career orientation than practitioners, who have a more social career focus (Bieschke, 2006). Secondly, future faculty members require systematic intentional training, opportunities, and mentoring in their developmental trajectories. Both the quantitative and qualitative data from this study confirm that well-established finding in the literature. Programs may need to consider the adequacy with which they provide a research-enhancing environment for all students, especially early in the graduate program. An emphasis on an empiricist orientation towards practice (Huber, 2007), and helping students see connections to larger research issues, may open up a research career to some students who hadn’t previously considered it.

One notable finding from this study was the identification of a unique group of students that we’ve labeled “practice first then research.” Previous work on student choice has not identified this group, but it may be one that requires specialized strategies if they are to transition to faculty positions. First, unlike the other groups, this group was articulate about perceived family role conflict being the third most influential factor in their career plans. They felt as well prepared for research careers as our “research-oriented” group, but were distinguished by their endorsement of potential family conflicts. This group may benefit from specialized mentoring about resolving dual role issues. For those who enter practice as a first career, programs may want to keep them connected to academic settings through adjunct teaching, practicum supervision, or partnering with faculty or students in applied, field-based research that can be disseminated to professional audiences.

Additionally, these future faculty members may benefit from faculty insight into career choices that may have future appeal to a university employer. These ideas were endorsed by our participants, who identified providing students with additional discussions about academia to “demystify” the job and to provide more information about how to “survive” in an academic position as valuable graduate school activities.

Leaders within school psychology have articulated the idea that students may also have negative perceptions of academia based on the behavior modeled by faculty (Kratochwill, 2004; Rosenfield, 2004). This was evident in our qualitative results where students identified “unhealthy” behavior that signaled “stress,” particularly around dual role issues. Austin (2002) pointed to many factors within graduate school that socialize students to an academic career, including the social-affective climate. The prominence of the call for additional mentoring within our qualitative results reflects this social aspect to career preparation. These results encourage faculty to examine their presentation of self within the graduate training context and to explicitly address issues of stress in discussions with students. Also, the mostly positive findings reported by Akin-Little, Bray, Eckert and Kehele (2004) regarding the experiences of academic women may be especially important to highlight given the preponderance of women in graduate school psychology training programs. Issues of socialization and mentoring are especially critical for students from traditionally underrepresented groups who may have few models within their own programs. Of course, this perspective should provoke current university faculty to examine the accuracy of student perceptions of the lifestyle options they are modeling. There is a need to convey the many opportunities provided by an academic career, but also to honestly examine if current faculty are truly modeling a balanced professional lifestyle that inspires students.

“"There is a need to convey the many opportunities provided by an academic career, but also to honestly examine if current faculty are truly modeling a balanced professional lifestyle that inspires students.”
substantive discussion regarding the adequacy of academic traditions and structures to nurture the next generation of faculty, given the massive changes confronting higher education (see Wuluff & Austin, 2004). Although many of these changes are outside the purview of individual programs, faculty may want to review practices that are oriented towards intentionally socializing the next generation of faculty for contemporary university life (for example, see Preparing Future Faculty National Office, 2006, or University of Washington, 2002).

Limitations. A major limitation of this study has to do with its participants. They were volunteers recruited through the invitation of their faculty. They do not represent a random selection of the possible pool of participants. Their anonymous participation precluded collecting demographic or further program data that might assist in further describing the sample. In addition, the brief survey made it necessary to omit further descriptive data about the participants, so we were unable to determine the representation of the programs in the sample.

Like earlier studies, the results of the current study suggest that students may need more exposure and experience to the kinds of activities and models that are consistent with academia and to consider if they are consistent with their personal career orientation. Additionally, the relevance of selecting students interested in pursuing academic positions was supported. Several new findings in the study included identifying a distinct group of students who state that they choose to practice first before moving to academia and another group of students who preferentially pursue practice-related careers. It appears that these groups may do so, in part, due to a lack of confidence in pursuing academic positions. This may speak to the need for individual programs and faculty to encourage and provide mentorship for their students that specifically addresses the concerns that each student has with pursuing a career in academia. Additionally, as faculty become more cognizant of the issues that discourage their students from pursuing academic careers, they can better find ways to challenge them.

References


Abstract

This paper describes the methodology for screening Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder related symptoms in children using the Pediatric Attention Disorders Diagnostic Screener (PADDS). The PADDS is a new computerized multidimensional assessment approach of attention and executive function disorders for children (6 to 12 years). The PADDS possesses good estimates of reliability and validity. A case example is presented to illustrate the use of the PADDS.

While there are differences between ADHD children and controls, ADHD comprises a heterogeneous group that often includes high rates of comorbid conditions that complicate the assessment and intervention process (Reddy & Hale, 2007). For example, researchers have reported comorbidity estimates of 74% to 79% among children age 4 to 9 years (Wilens et al., 2002). All too often children are misdiagnosed with ADHD when they have other related psychiatric disorders, such as learning disabilities, anxiety, and depression, and/or child/family-focused conditions, such as medical conditions or sensory integration disorder.

In a review of estimates over a 4-year period, Rowland, Leswesne, and Abramowitz (2002) found that prevalence rates for ADHD varied substantially based on presenting symptoms, assessment approaches used, and setting in which the child was evaluated. Furthermore, lack of agreement on what constitutes a core set of symptomology for ADHD children complicates the screening and assessment process (e.g., Brown et al., 2001; Elia, Ambrosini, & Rapoport, 1999). To address this problem, consensus statements regarding ADHD assessment and treatment rendered by The American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP, 2000) and the National Institute of Health (NIH, 1998) have strongly called for the development of new standardized evidence-based assessments that have solid psychometric properties and can be easily adopted in school and primary care settings. This paper briefly describes a new computerized child multidimensional screening approach for children at-risk for ADHD, the Pediatric Attention Disorders Diagnostic Screener (PADDS; Pedigo, Pedigo, & Scott, 2007). A case study is presented to illustrate the application of the PADDS.

Pediatric Attention Disorders Diagnostic Screener

The PADDS is a multidimensional screening approach consisting of a semi-structured diagnostic interview, short form parent and teacher behavior assessments, and a semi-structured interview with the child. The PADDS is designed to be used in a variety of settings, including schools, clinics, and primary care practices. The PADDS is designed to be easily administered and scored, making it a valuable tool for screening children for ADHD at-risk symptoms.
rating scales assessing the DSM-IV-TR (American Psychiatric Association, 2000) diagnostic criteria for ADHD, and three computer-administered measures of Executive Functions, titled the “Target Tests of Executive Functioning.” Results are evaluated and reported via a computer generated nomographic display highlighting the incremental power of combining the diagnostic interview and the target tests. The PADDS is designed for children 6 to 12 and it can be administered by a practitioner or trained assistant in less than 30 minutes.

The PADDS System and Summary Report provides multiple forms of information (i.e., diagnostic interview and computerized tests of executive functioning) that have shown to be reliable and valid for ADHD assessment (Pedigo, Pedigo, & Scott, 2007). The PADDS system composes two reference groups, ADHD and Non-ADHD. Each component is calculated in additive or subtractive manner for and against a diagnosis in consideration of the ADHD base rate of 4%. The computer inputs of each component score are displayed in a real time format via a computer generated nomogram presenting an individual and an overall predictive index of likelihood ratios establishing evidence for or against a diagnosis (see Tables 1-6). Results are also presented in z-score format for comparison to a non-clinical group.

The PADDS first step inputs consist of parent and teachers ratings for ADHD based on criteria set by the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders Fourth Edition-Revised (DSM-IV-R, 2000). Specifically, the criteria are rated using short form scales such as the SNAP III-R and IV (Swanson et al, 1992) and the Vanderbilt Assessment Scale (Wolrich, Feurer, & Hannah, 1998). The scales offer categorical and dimensional input across the 18 core diagnostic items from the DSM-IV-R. Both scales require the endorsement of items consistent with DSM-IV-R criteria and employ a 4-point Likert rating scale of symptom severity ranging from 0 (not at all) to 3 (very often) to assess clinical significance. When the required number of items is endorsed, clinical significance is assigned for scores falling within the top 5% or for an average rating of approximately 2.5. The described behavioral criteria have been found to produce sensitivity and specificity indices of approximate .90 and higher for ADHD and non-clinical reference groups (Zolotor & Mayer, 2004; Green et al., 1999).

The second component of the PADDS is the administration of the Computer Assisted Diagnostic Interview (CADI), a semi-structured interview. The CADI assesses multiple areas of concern as reported by the parent or informant that can assist in ruling out other comorbid disorders or exacerbating conditions for a given child.

The third component of the PADDS is the assessment of children's executive functions. The Target Tests of Executive Functioning include Target Recognition, Target Sequencing, and Target Tracking (see Figures 1–3). The Target Tests were designed to assess diverse aspects of executive functioning and working memory such as planning, attending, organizing, and sustaining effort. Also, the Target Tests are designed to be highly engaging and ecologically valid for task demands as they are colorful and there is much movement within each task (e.g., attending to instruction, assimilating information, and formulating a plan of action).

As shown in Figure 1, Target Recognition presents five large colored squares with smaller squares inside them. Below the squares are five buttons marked “1” thru “5”. All five colored squares flash on and off at one and half second intervals over 153 presentations. The child is taught a strategy to count from left to right and count the number of squares with small squares of the same color. Then they are asked to click on the corresponding number. Target Sequencing presents five colored circles which have a small square appear and disappear in varying sequences across 30 trials (Figure 2). The child is taught to attend only to circles when the square matches it in color and to remember the sequence of color matches. The child is then asked to click on the circles that matched in the same order as they were presented. Finally, Target Tracking presents four colored shapes at the top and bottom of the screen across 20 trials (Figure 3). The shapes will move, one at a time, to another shape at the bottom in differing sequences of two and three step moves, then reset. The child must then click and drag each shape to its position on the lower shapes, in the same order.

The final part of the PADDS is the nomographic display of the individual and cumulative inputs (e.g., Tables 1-6). Data inputs are evaluated stepwise via
the calculation of likelihood ratios applied incrementally; the results produce an overall predictive index that is compared to a conservative ADHD base rate of 4%. The case study provides an illustrative example of the application of this component.

**Psychometric Features**

Clinical testing of the PADDS Target Tests of Executive Functioning consisted of 629 children (264 females and 365 males) age 6 to 12 years ($M = 8.66, SD = 1.71$) split approximately evenly between those diagnosed with ADHD and age matched Non-ADHD/ Typical peers. The ethnic breakdown of the sample consisted of 77% Caucasians, 16% African Americans, and 17% Hispanics. Data were collected in seven states (i.e., Illinois, Georgia, Idaho, New Jersey, Tennessee, California, and Florida) in 10 ADHD assessment centers. Parental informed consent and child assent were obtained.

Based on the PADDS technical manual the scale has good reliability and validity (Pedigo, Pedigo, & Scott, 2007). The internal reliability (alpha) coefficient for the PADDS was .86. PADDS demonstrated good test-retest (for one year intervals) reliability, Phi=.73 and Kappa=.70, and a stability coefficient of .85. In a sample of 122 children, the PADDS demonstrated good convergent validity with the Test of Variables of Attention (TOVA; Greenberg, 1991), $r (122) = .38, p < .001$).

PADDS demonstrates adequate convergent and discriminative validity. In a sample of 38 children, the PADDS Subtests, Brown Attention Deficit Disorder Parent and Teacher Rating Scales (Brown ADD Scale; Brown, 1996), and the Conner’s Continuous Performance Test II (CPT-II; Conners, 1997) were compared on the percentage of diagnostic utility and percentage of agreement. The Target Tests produced an overall hit rate of 94% in comparison to 68% for the CPT-II and 60% for the Brown ADD Scale. A comparison of agreement of diagnostic classification of the PADDs and the Brown ADD Scale and the PADDs and the CPT-II yielded agreement percentages of 66% and 63%, respectively. Overall, diagnostic classification of the PADDs was unrelated to: Full Scale IQ, Verbal IQ, and Visual IQ as measured by the Wechsler Abbreviated Scale of Intelligence (Wechsler, 1999), as well as the visual, verbal memory, attention, and concentration scales on the Children’s Memory Scale (CML, Cohen, 1997) and the Wide Range Assessment of Memory and Learning II (WRAML; Sheslow, & Adams, 2003).

**Case Example**

The case of Danny provides an illustrative example of how the PADDSS can be used to screen children at-risk for ADHD in the schools.

Danny is a 6-year-old Caucasian male in 1st grade, referred by his mother for an evaluation because his “over activity” and disruptiveness has impacted his learning since pre-school. Danny has peer interaction problems and frequently cries or complains when he does not get his way. Danny resides with his adoptive mother and has no siblings. Early developmental and medical histories (birth to 2 years) are unknown.

During the assessment, Danny appeared at times very distracted and became silly answering questions based on only what he wanted to relay (without regard to the specific line of conversation being presented). The content and use of language were age appropriate.

As the testing progressed, Danny’s physical and mental motors began to increase. For example, his actions flowed from wandering around the room, to flopping across the chair, and eventually sliding down to the floor and then up and about again. When he was allowed to move freely and given more structure, he was able to answer some questions effectively and control his behavior for several minutes. However, when this structure was removed he quickly resumed his movement pattern in wandering about the room. Despite his level of activity, Danny was easily redirected when given a verbal instruction or non-verbal prompt, but would eventually wander. Danny did not always provide answers related to questions.

When asked what he liked most about being at home or school, Danny reported he liked “P.E.” and push ups. He reported not liking homework or reading because it made his “head hurt.” He indicated that his cousin helps him with homework. Danny reported that recently some children were teasing him (e.g., “barnacle head”, “loser”) which made him feel angry.

Initially, Danny engaged in tasks readily, although as the testing progressed, he appeared to lose focus and motivation, demonstrating variable levels of energy from fatigue to rapid talking, movement and responses. These difficulties were more evident on cognitively challenging tasks. Danny was often distracted by his surroundings and at times, by his own thought processes. He demonstrated below average to average attention for multi-step instructions. For example, he required repeated instruction for the PADDS subtests that...
asked him to track the sequence of the stimuli presented and to respond in the order observed (first match first, second match second, and last match last). With this repeated instruction, Danny was able to complete the PADDS tests as directed. Danny’s response time was within normal limits and his answers were good with pencil paper tasks. When performing PADDS tasks (tasks that required sustained mental effort), Danny exhibited heightened frustration. During the PADDS administration of attention and concentration tasks, Danny became increasingly fidgety and overactive. Although he understood the task demands, his performance was impeded by his inability to remain focused. Despite repeated redirection, Danny continued to click the mouse excessively during the PADDS administration and his responses were impulsive and random. Although he did not appear purposefully defiant and made every attempt to cooperate, his activity level and inattention impeded his overall performance for this assessment.

Danny was administered the Reynolds Intellectual Assessment Scale (RIAS; Reynolds, 2003). He obtained a Verbal Intelligence Index score of 82 (12th percentile), a Nonverbal Intelligence Index score of 82 (12th percentile) and a Composite Intelligence Index score of 80 (9th percentile). He also obtained a Composite Memory Index of 82 (12th percentile).

The Wechsler Individual Achievement Test-II (WIAT-II; Wechsler, 2001) was administered to assess his academic functioning. Danny performed comparably on tasks that required him to name alphabet letters, identify and generate letter sounds and rhyming words, and match and read a series of printed words (i.e., Word Reading standard score = 94; 34th percentile) and match words with pictures, read sentences and paragraphs and answer questions about what was read (i.e., Reading Comprehension standard score = 86; 18th percentile). Overall, results were commensurate with Danny’s estimated levels of intellectual ability.

The Behavior Assessment System for Children–2 (BASC-2; Reynolds & Kamphaus, 2004), a multi-method, multidimensional system used to evaluate the behavior and social-emotional functioning of children was completed by Danny’s parent and teacher. Results revealed that both his parent and teacher rated Danny as exhibiting significant externalizing behavior problems as measured by the Externalizing Composite and Hyperactivity Scale (i.e., T-scores = 70), inattention as measured by the Attention Problems Scale (T-score = 72), and executive functioning behaviors as measured by the Executive Functioning Content Scale (T-scores = 71). His mother’s ratings indicated elevated scale scores on the Conduct Problems (T-score = 78) and Negative Emotionality (T-score = 72) Scales. His teacher’s ratings revealed elevated scale scores on the Bullying Scale (T-score = 77).

Danny’s mother was administered the PADDS’s CADI. No major medical, psychosocial or psychological issues were noted. Development was described by his mother as typical and current estimates of intelligence show Danny is functioning within the Low Average range of ability. On the Target Tests of Executive Functioning, Danny performed below average to typical age peers. On the Target Recognition Task, Danny identified 109 targets compared to an average identification of 114+ targets for his typical age peers. On Target Sequencing, Danny completed 17 sequences compared to the average 28+ sequences completed by his typical age peers. Finally, Danny completed 5 sequences on the Target Tracking Task compared to 8+ for his typical age peers. A review of 95% confidence intervals showed that Danny’s Target Recognition score of 109 fell within the overlapping 95% confidence intervals between the clinical and non clinical reference groups. Thus, his Target Recognition subtest performance was equally likely to be classified as within either reference group. In contrast, Danny’s Target Sequencing score of 17 and Target Tracking score of 5 both fell within the 95% confidence interval of the well defined ADHD reference group. Results also showed that Danny’s Target Recognition score of 109 produced a moderate likelihood ratio of 3 as opposed to his Target Sequencing score of 17 and Target Tracking score of 5, which produced highly significant ratios of 12 and 18, respectively.

In the case of Danny, the PADDS system also enabled the practitioner to analyze multiple measures (i.e., parent interview, parent and teacher behavior ratings, Target Tests of Executive Functioning) in combination to assess the predictive index for or against an ADHD diagnosis. Tables 1 through 6 display the incremental validity (likelihood ratio values) of adding specific measures (e.g., CADI, parent behavior ratings, teacher behavior ratings, Target Test results etc.) in the diagnostic decision making process.

As shown on Table 1, PADDS includes an ADHD population base rate of 4% (predictive index), reflecting a probability of 4 out of 100 children are likely to have ADHD when no standardized
assessment data is used. In the case of Danny, a review of the CADI data revealed that the DSM-IV criterion for ADHD Combined Type was positive for the PADDSS's parent behavior rating scale, producing a post-test probability of 25% (Table 2). The addition of the DSM-IV teacher behavior rating scale was also positive for ADHD Combined Type, increasing the post-test probability to 74% (Table 3). Although parent and teacher behavior report data offer some clinical utility (Zolotor & Mayer, 2004), parent and teacher report data do not provide important information on the neurocognitive deficits inherent in this population (Reddy & Hale, 2007). As shown on Table 4, the addition of the PADDSS's Target Recognition Task increased the post-test probability to .88. Likewise, the PADDSS's Target Sequencing and Tracking Tasks further increased the post-test probabilities to .90, offer strong diagnostic value to the assessment process (Tables 5 and 6). Results revealed that parent interview (CADI), DSM-IV Parent and Teacher Behavior Rating Scales, and the three Target Tests offered the practitioner predictive utility in deriving an ADHD diagnosis. When evaluating individual children at-risk for ADHD, the PADDSS's assessment approach allows the practitioner to evaluate the incremental and cumulative weight (benefit) of multiple measurement procedures in light of the population base rate. These features are currently not available in other child screening measures.

**Conclusion**

PADDSS, a new computerized child measure offers practitioners an empirically-based assessment to measure children's executive functioning in relation to other standard child assessments. The PADDSS screens children at-risk for ADHD by using a structured interview, estimate of base rates, parent and teacher behavior ratings, and neurocognitive assessment. This measure enables practitioners to evaluate the incrementally and cumulative value of assessment data, allowing examiners to cross validate different data sources. The unique features of the PADDSS are innovative and worthy of further investigation for practice.

**References**


Tables 1 – 6: ADHD Profile

- **Target Recognition** score of 109; LR of 3; 88% probability
- **Target Sequencing** score of 17; LR of 12; 99% probability
- **Target Tracking** score of 5; LR of 18; 99% probability

**Parent behavior ratings** indicating ADHD behaviors; LR of 9; 25% probability

**Teacher behavior ratings** indicating ADHD behaviors; LR of 9; 74% probability

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Please email all submissions for The Commentary Section to michelle.athanasiou@unco.edu
Response to Intervention with Kindergarten Children: Hopes and Realities

Amanda Clinton
University of Puerto Rico

The author and journalist Hodding Carter once wrote, “There are only two lasting bequests we can hope to give our children. One is roots; the other, wings.” Certainly, the development of public education in the United States is grounded in the very idea that giving youngsters the opportunity to learn and grow intellectually results in the betterment of the individual and the benefit of society (Thattai, n.d.), thus granting children their wings. In this vein, response-to-intervention (RTI), or the idea that providing early, intensive, and individualized intervention for children at risk of school failure (Fletcher, Coulter, Reschly, & Vaughn, 2004), addresses one of the goals of educators by helping children obtain the tools they need to succeed. The principle of providing academic support prior to academic failure suggests that even the youngest school-aged children, such as those enrolled in kindergarten, may potentially benefit from RTI. The purpose of the present project was to better understand the implications of a kindergarten-level RTI reading skills intervention, including evaluating the feasibility of implementation and effectiveness of the intervention.

RTI gained attention with the reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) in 2004. The language of IDEA indicated a preference, although not an outright mandate, for reducing the use of the discrepancy model in the assessment and placement of children in special education settings when they experienced school failure. Although the more traditional “refer-test-place” model based on intellectual and achievement testing may be useful in particular cases (Christo & Clinton, 2005), it commonly requires such a significant difference between intellectual ability and academic achievement that children need to fall far behind in school in order to qualify for educational supports such as special education services. Under the RTI model, children who demonstrate academic difficulties would be provided evidence-based interventions as soon as their teacher becomes aware that their learning progress is below grade-level expectations. Response to these evidence-based interventions is monitored on a frequent basis to determine if academic progress is being made and, in cases to the contrary, the intervention is subsequently adjusted to better meet the learning needs of the child. Within an RTI model, special education referral decisions could ultimately be made based upon a child’s response, or lack thereof, to these individualized and intensive interventions rather than an IQ-achievement discrepancy.

In its application, RTI has been defined according to levels or tiers (Gresham, 2004). Universal intervention, or Tier I intervention, refers to the broadest and least-intensive level of service. Tier I interventions are those in which high quality classroom instruction based on an evidence-based curriculum is utilized. Children identified as demonstrating insufficient progress at Tier I, per classroom-wide assessments, may be considered at-risk for academic failure and receive a referral for Tier II intervention. Typically, at the second tier of intervention, intensive instructional services are provided via small-group instruction. Similar to Universal or Tier I intervention, the instructional material and methods of a Tier II intervention are designated and applied based on empirical evidence regarding learning in any particular instructional area, such as reading or math (Daly, Martens, Barnett, Witt & Olsen, 2007; Wanzek & Vaughn, 2007). Children who achieve limited progress at the Tier II intervention level would subsequently be referred to Tier III. The third level of intervention is the most intensive, and typically includes referral for special education services, which are based upon an individualized educational plan.

Precisely because standardized, norm-referenced testing can be unreliable, especially with very young children (Neyens & Aldenkamp, 1996), RTI seems particularly well suited for use by school psychologists working with kindergarten-aged children. Although tests of achievement can be of limited utility for kindergarten-aged students, the academic stakes for the grade level continue to be raised. The major core kindergarten curricula, such as those published by Houghton Mifflin, Open Court, Scott-Foresman, and Harcourt-Trophies emphasize instruction in fundamental literacy and numbers concepts; kindergarten academics are not limited to learning the alphabet and how to recognize one’s own printed name. Instead, kindergarten students must learn basic sight word vocabulary, lower and upper-case letter identification, phonological awareness, and the ability to read highly patterned
books. RTI methods that incorporate curriculum-based assessment and intensive instruction in fundamental academic areas could potentially prevent those kindergarten students who appear to be falling behind academically from continuing to experience failure until they demonstrate a discrepancy between their IQ and achievement test scores.

Given the challenges associated with working with young children whose school day is abbreviated and who may further possess a relatively limited set of academic skills, further exploration of the utility of RTI with a kindergarten sample is important. The present project aimed to develop and assess a kindergarten-level RTI Tier II program with children from ethnically and linguistically diverse backgrounds. The goals of the study were to establish a Tier II academic intervention and determine its effectiveness with a small group of kindergarten children whose academic progress fell below expectations. Additionally, practical considerations – such as time and material resources, as well as developmental level - relevant to the implementation of Tier II interventions at the kindergarten level were addressed.

**Demographics**

The present project was carried out in a public school in a mid-sized city on the west coast of the United States. The school serves preschool and kindergarten-aged children of diverse ethnic backgrounds, with approximately 30% of students possessing African-American heritage, 30% of students from southeast Asian immigrant families, 20% of students hailing from Russian immigrant families, and the remaining 20% of the children from Pacific Island nations, Latin America, and Caucasian backgrounds. The preschool program is funded through Head Start and a state-sponsored educational initiative, and the kindergarten is a community school program open to residents in the immediate catchment area. All students at the school receive free breakfast and lunch.

The present intervention was a Tier II intervention program implemented in small groups. Due to the developmental level of children and the need for as much individualized attention as possible, group size was limited to four children. Each of the participants was referred by his or her classroom teacher due to poor performance on classroom skills assessments conducted at the end of the 2nd quarter. A total of three kindergarten teachers, two of whom referred one student each and one of whom referred two children, referred students for participation. Each of these children demonstrated a significant delay in basic pre-literacy skills (i.e., letter identification, letter-sound correspondence, sight word knowledge), per mid-year progress testing. In each case, teachers had indicated a desire for a special education referral and/or retaining the child to repeat kindergarten. However, the teacher and each child's parents agreed to the Tier II intervention prior to a formal referral. The children were identified in February; the intervention was initiated in March and continued until the conclusion of the school year.

**Participants**

All of the children participating in the intervention were five years of age. Two boys and two girls joined the RTI group. The participants included two children of African American heritage, one child of Samoan heritage, and one child of Mexican heritage. Of the four children, two possessed some degree of bilingualism in that a combination of English and another language was reportedly spoken in the home. In the present case, one child spoke Filipino and English at home while the other used Spanish and English with her parents.

**Intervention**

The kindergarten program at the public school where the present intervention was conducted implemented the Houghton Mifflin (HM) Kindergarten Reading Program (2006), which can be classified as a Tier I intervention. The HM Reading Program is a research-based program that provides teachers the tools necessary to teach kindergarten children literacy basics in a highly structured and scripted manner (Houghton Mifflin, 2006). If the HM program is presented in its intended format, which it was in the present situation, it provides comprehensive instruction through directed lessons based on fundamental reading skills (Houghton Mifflin, 2006).

Once the children referred for the Tier II intervention were selected, the intervention was established. The more intensive, small group Tier II intervention was implemented four days per week using the Houghton Mifflin Pre-K Reading Program (2006). The Pre-K material was selected because it provided review of basic vocabulary and pre-literacy concepts in a structured manner, and supplementary activities, such as sight word recognition, based on district standards for kindergarten children. Due to
the developmental level of children, the intervention sessions were limited to approximately 30 to 40 minutes per meeting. As the children attended kindergarten from 8:30-11:30 a.m. from Monday through Friday, sessions were scheduled during the final 30 minutes of the school day in order to ensure they were present for classroom academic instruction. The professionals implementing sessions included a licensed speech-language pathologist, a credentialed school psychologist, and two school psychology interns completing their final semester of academic coursework. All were familiar with the school setting and the children through their professional obligations at the institution.

Pre-testing and post-testing using Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy (DIBELS; 2003) was completed. Given the age of the children, the three subtests that appeared appropriate for their level included Initial Sound Fluency, Letter Naming Fluency, and Word Use Fluency. Word Use Fluency was subsequently omitted, as the children did not appear to comprehend the instructions and, as such, repeated the stimulus item rather than including it in an invented sentence. Results indicated differing profiles of initial skills between students. For example, one participant possessed solid letter naming knowledge but had limited phonological awareness skills while another demonstrated the reverse profile of a strength in phonological awareness but poor fluency in letter naming.

Upon collection and analysis of pre-test and post-test data for the Tier II intervention, the intervention strategy was refined in conjunction with the professionals designated to administer the RTI sessions to children. Group size and length of meetings remained as planned, while the order of the intervention sessions was determined and the order of academic enrichment activities established. Effectively, each meeting was conducted in a predictable and structured fashion, in an effort to help children learn the pattern of meetings and establish a consistent flow of activities. Activities included tasks designed to address each child’s specific area of weakness and reinforce relative strengths in accordance with state standards.

Tier II intervention sessions based on the Houghton Mifflin PreK curriculum were conducted daily Monday through Thursday. They began with 5 minutes of rhyming games, followed by 5 minutes of big book story-based vocabulary study, 10 minutes of letter identification using manipulatives (such as plastic letters with magnets on the back), 5 minutes of alphabet practice (typically singing the alphabet), 10 minutes of initial sound awareness tasks, and 5 minutes of sight word review using large flash cards. The speech-language pathologist, school psychologist, or school psychology interns varied activities so that children had some independent practice or individualized opportunities for response followed by a whole-group activity. This format was selected in an effort to directly instruct children in their area of academic weakness, as well as to maintain the attention of all participants.

CBM Results

Table 1 shows the results of the DIBELS pre-test and post-test measures for the Tier II intervention. Students 1, 3, and 4 evidenced modest gains in the ability to identify the initial consonant sound of a word, ranging from 2.2 to 4.8 points increase on a 16-item Initial Sound Fluency test. Table 1 also demonstrates results for the Letter Naming Fluency test, on which Students 3 and 4 showed effectively no change, while Student 1 increased rapid letter recognition by 11 letters. Student 2 was absent during the final week of the school year and, therefore, could not be administered the post-test measures.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Initial Sound Fluency</th>
<th>Letter Naming Fluency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pre-test</strong></td>
<td><strong>Post-test</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Student 1</strong></td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Student 2</strong></td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Student 3</strong></td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Student 4</strong></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Program Evaluation Results

The implementation of a Tier II intervention with kindergarten children of low socioeconomic
status and ethnically and linguistically diverse backgrounds presented significant challenges. An anticipated but surprisingly intense challenge related to the developmental level of the children. First, as is common in many districts, the kindergarten children in the present study attended classes 3 ½ hours per day, thus limiting their availability for participation. Because their families were confronted with complicated issues, such as single parenting or processes associated with immigration and acculturation, children were absent on a frequent basis. Furthermore, per the nature of kindergarten instruction, the final hour of the school day was reserved for activities such as art, recess or social learning, like making ice cream. Naturally, the children in the RTI group were highly reluctant to leave their peers when engaged in said diversions. Thus, motivation could be affected or the children’s focus limited.

Of particular difficulty was program design and implementation. Despite the high level of skill and experience of the professionals involved in applying the intervention and the structure of the activities, the children demonstrated significant difficulties participating in the intervention group. Given their short attention spans and their varying strengths and weakness, generating a group-level program - even with as few as four children - was difficult. This was further exacerbated by their limited skill set. That is, even the most basic learning activities (i.e., singing the alphabet song or naming letters) were challenging for them and led to resistance or varying attention.

Time limits presented an additional concern during the kindergarten Tier II intervention. All of the professionals involved worked part-time at the school and, as is frequently the case, carried large assessment and therapy caseloads. Incorporating an intervention session that, occupied an hour per week plus planning time of the 6 to 7 total hours available for testing, meetings, observations, and other related activities, could be burdensome. Time limits also made frequent assessment of academic progress using DIBELS extremely difficult; repeated individualized testing of the participants would have reduced intervention sessions due to the length of time required to test each child. Testing the children on a monthly basis was simply time prohibitive, particularly in light of the other responsibilities assigned to the individuals administering the Tier II program.

Discussion

The present project investigated a Tier II intervention with a kindergarten sample. In addition to the pre- and post-test measurement of pre-reading skills, the current work was an exploratory effort geared toward learning about the realities of small group intervention programs with very young children with very limited skill sets who hail from diverse ethnic and linguistic backgrounds.

In the current project, candidates for an intensive, small-group intervention were selected by their classroom teachers based on significantly below average learning progress for their grade per statewide learning standards. Subsequent to teacher referral, the children were administered a curriculum-based test of phonological awareness and another of letter identification fluency. Next, they received a 12-week intensive intervention four times per week. The intervention sessions incorporated learning instruction in academic areas identified in the state reading standards as well as those included in a research-proven curriculum.

Gains in areas considered predictive of reading development, such as letter identification and phonemic awareness, were modest but positive, demonstrating that young children can make progress in fundamental skills areas with appropriate intervention, even if the program is time-limited, such as the current 12-week project. It is possible that children could make significantly greater progress if the intervention were administered over a longer period of time and for a greater number of minutes at each meeting. However, due to their age and developmental level, extending the intervention session length presents a difficult and largely untenable proposition.

RTI generally indicates continuous assessment in order to make appropriate changes to the intervention. Given the modest results demonstrated by students of the present project, more frequent assessment - followed by program alterations in accordance with the children’s progress, or lack thereof - would be optimal. Theoretically, the frequent assessment would guide intervention adjustments. In the current sample, however, the skills to be taught were so fundamental as to allow little room for shifting instructional directions or strategies. Furthermore, assessment of each child individually would, effectively, cancel an entire week of intervention meetings since time limits did not permit both.
The developmental level, such as attention span and behavioral patterns, of such young children raises the question of whether small group interventions are meaningful for this population, or if individualized intervention is required. Should that be the case, the practicality of Tier II interventions becomes an important issue. In the present project, four highly trained individuals administered the intervention program. Despite significant knowledge of behavior management techniques and understanding of 5-year-old children and their needs, keeping the participants engaged and focused was reported as difficult by all involved. It is possible, however, that the behavioral patterns of the students in the current study were exceptionally immature compared to other children their age and that behaviors may not always interfere to the same degree as in the current intervention.

While results may be promising and indicate potential for further work with RTI for kindergarten children, detailed and honest discussion of the significant challenges involved is critical. The obstacles involved in implementation of RTI at the kindergarten level included time limits, cognitive developmental factors (i.e., attention span, ability to work in a group), school-based distracters, limited opportunities for monitoring due to child attention span and school schedule. Additionally, staff time limitations raise a cost-benefit question that is important for school psychologists and broader school systems to address in light of other possible options.

References


Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS; 2003). Longmont, CO: Sopris West Educational Services.


Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEA) of 2004, 20 U.S.C. 1401 (c)(5)(F).


Please email all submissions for The Commentary Section to michelle.athanasiou@unco.edu
Bruce F. Chorpita’s (2007) recently published treatment manual, *Modular Cognitive-Behavioral Therapy for Childhood Anxiety Disorders*, is a user-friendly, manualized therapy protocol for use with a wide range of childhood anxiety disorders. The manual is empirically derived, offering a scientifically guided foundation for the techniques endorsed. Moreover, the empirical basis for the development of the manual is consistent with contemporary trends in approaches to treatment of psychological disorders in children. The use of evidenced-based treatments has become a widely recognized and essential component of school and child psychology practice. In the 1990’s, Division 12 of the APA, Clinical Psychology, nominated the Task Force on Effective Psychosocial Interventions: A Lifespan Perspective to specifically study empirically supported treatments for childhood disorders (Lonigan & Elbert, 1998). As evidenced-based practice continues to influence the field of psychology, it has become essential to structure therapeutic programs around empirically-based phenomena.

Different treatment orientations offer varied approaches to therapeutic interventions with childhood anxiety disorders. Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT) is empirically supported as a well-established and efficacious treatment for childhood anxiety disorders (Chambless & Ollendick, 2001). The efficacy of CBT in treating childhood anxiety has been demonstrated across repeated clinical trials (Dadds, Spence, Holland, Barrett, & Laurens, 1997; Kendall et al, 1997; Short, Barrett, & Fox, 2001). Additionally, the CBT approach to treating childhood anxiety disorders has demonstrated effective long-term results (Barrett, Duffy, Dadds, & Rapee, 2001).

An empirically guided treatment manual for childhood anxiety disorders is particularly relevant to the field of school psychology. Anxiety disorders with childhood onset are the most prevalent form of psychopathology affecting children, both in clinical and school/community samples (Bernstein, Borchardt, & Perwien, 1996; Costello, & Angold, 1995; Velting, Setzer, & Albano, 2004).

Chorpita’s (2007) treatment manual addresses a variety of common childhood anxiety disorders. The conceptualization and approach to treatment endorsed in the manual targets the processes of anxiety, as opposed to creating specific interventions for the different anxiety disorders of childhood (e.g., PTSD, Social Phobia). The basic structure of the book assists the clinician in treating the core features of all childhood anxiety disorders – namely negative affect, misinterpretation of threat, and behavioral avoidance – through four primary procedures: psychoeducation, self-monitoring, exposure, and maintenance (Chorpita, 2007). Chorpita’s manual emphasizes exposure as the primary therapeutic technique. However, the book is balanced in that it also does not ignore the importance of emphasizing essential therapeutic elements such as the therapeutic relationship and parental psychoeducation.

During treatment, if situations arise that interfere with the clinician’s ability to treat the core features of childhood anxiety or proceed with the exercises in exposure (i.e., when a child is not motivated), Chorpita’s book also offers supplemental modules to troubleshoot and resolve these distractions, to redirect the process back to treating the core features of anxiety. The supplemental modules offered in the manual are titled: Rewards, Cognitive Procedures, Active Ignoring, Social Skills, Time-Out, and Troubleshooting.

The manual begins with information concerning the specific anxiety disorders of childhood. Case studies are presented as well as general descriptions of the anxiety disorders that affect children and adolescents. The manual then proceeds to cover the core features of anxiety: namely negative affectivity, perception of control, life experiences, and anxious thinking. Chorpita then proceeds to a detailed discussion of how to initiate the treatment process, beginning with the diagnostic formulation of anxiety disorders. Several diagnostic characteristics are addressed (e.g., assessment domains, behavior and symptoms, functioning), and also reviewed are the standardized assessment instruments used in the detection of childhood anxiety disorders. In each of the following chapters,
different aspects of treatment plan development and implementation are carefully reviewed.

In Chorpita’s manual, a heavy emphasis is placed on using and mastering the technique of exposure, defined as presenting “the feared object or situation to the child (either in vivo or in vitro) in a way that fosters new learning” (Chorpita, 2007, p. 53). Exposure is central to the treatment of childhood anxiety, and an entire section of the book is dedicated to elucidating the technique. Exposure is a technique ubiquitous to CBT in the treatment of childhood anxiety disorders (Gosch, Flannery-Schroeder, Mauro, & Compton, 2006) and is deeply rooted in behavioral psychology. The technique offers a mechanism by which a learned experience or feared stimulus can be reversed to decrease an individual’s anxiety. In classical learning theory, the technique of exposure posits that the presentation of a learned stimulus (e.g., feared entity) in the absence of an unconditioned stimulus (e.g., feared outcome) eliminates the conditioned response (e.g., childhood fear, or anxiety; Eysenck, 1979; Pavlov, 1927, Watson & Morgan, 1917; Watson & Rayner, 1920). In short, exposure is a way to foster new learning in the child by presenting the feared entity, either in vivo or in vitro to resolve the symptoms of childhood anxiety. Thus, its centrality to therapy involving childhood anxiety is clear.

Modules are a central component of the book, and structure the majority of its content. The modules are created to emphasize flexibility in the treatment approach, so that the program can be tailored to the individual child. The flexibility in how the modules are applied to treatment is in contrast to a step-by-step manualized approach, which requires the clinician to proceed through modules in a rigid, predetermined manner. The use of the modules is simplified through a number of distinctive features. Each module is presented in a standardized format. Once the child and family are familiar with the standardization, the ease with which the families use the modules increases for more effective delivery of services. Each module begins with a description of the objectives in the context of the core four features of anxiety disorders, alerting clinicians to the importance of the module.

The next component of the module addresses the most essential treatment exercises to cover, offering specific recommendations to the clinician when time constraints are a factor. This serves as a particularly useful piece of each module, as families seeking treatment are often offered only a limited number of sessions to work with the clinician. Being able to pinpoint and execute the most important points allows the clinician to offer maximum benefits to the families.

Each module then proceeds with a section on who needs to be present for the session (e.g., parent/child dyad, child only), and covers the materials required for the session. A number of worksheets is included in the treatment manual, which offers a readily accessible library of forms. Each form is specifically tailored to a module, and several material types are offered such as informational handouts for parents, data charts, observational records, and a number of other material aids.

After covering the objectives, materials and persons needed, the module then asks the clinician and whoever may be participating in the session to observe and/or obtain measurements on specific anxiety provoking features of the child’s particular disorder. This is typically derived from a Fear Ladder and therapist construct early in treatment. This section is referred to as the Weekly Rating. The Weekly Rating section often serves as a focal point in which work in the session revolves. The Weekly Rating is handy, in that, progress is easily identified by analyzing the history of Weekly Ratings. Moreover, observing the data from the Weekly Ratings can serve as a motivational instrument for the child and family. In many managed care systems, progress reports are required for justification of the continuation of services, and the built in Weekly Ratings can be effortlessly used in the reports as a concrete measure of progress.

The next part of the module covers a guided Assignment Review, in which homework from previous sessions is discussed. If not completed, suggested actions for the clinician are discussed to troubleshoot why the homework was not done. Setting the Agenda, the next component of each module, instructs the clinician as to the precise protocol for the session. Often the protocol will revolve around meeting with the child first, then the parents. Specifics are also outlined in this section of the module regarding what to include in the session (e.g., prompt parent concerns, activities).

Each module then provides a Procedures section, which consists of more specific step-by-step instructions. The Procedures section clearly makes up the majority of the modules content and offers a number of unique features. The Procedures section includes five subsections. First, the Example subsection provides exact dialogue for the clinician,
and is outfitted within the main instructional points of the Procedures section. The second subsection, Exercise, includes a practice exercise, usually in the form of a worksheet or game supplied in the manual. Third, an In Vivo subsection presents instructions on how to proceed with a naturalistic practice of the skills being taught in the therapeutic process. The fourth subsection consists of a Role Play scenario which crystallizes the materials taught to the child through rehearsal of some skill or interaction. The final subsection in the Procedures section is the Practice Assignment. The Practice Assignment can be for the child or the parent. Each module differs regarding which subsections are included in the Procedures section based on appropriateness to the overarching theme of the module.

After the Procedures section, a Checklist section provides lists a number of check-off points essential to the effectiveness of the module (e.g., child understood that the Fear Ladder is a tool used to measure anxiety). A Don’t Forget section then prompts the clinician to be sure certain elements of the module have taken place (e.g., parents take homework home). The Things to Consider section details special considerations for the clinician and suggests additional procedures to implement, or discusses applying techniques under special circumstances.

To be more effective in treating all childhood anxiety diagnoses, a Diagnostic Issues section covers the application of the module to specific diagnoses, explaining how to specifically tailor the module. A Troubleshooting section is then offered to suggest what to do if things are not working.

Given that direct confrontation with one’s anxiety can, in itself, be quite an anxiety provoking and exhausting task, each module contains a section to balance the tone of the therapeutic session. The End on a Positive section prompts the clinician to conclude the session with a rewarding game or conversation. Following the End on a Positive section, is a Brief the Family section. This section offers tips on how to follow up the session with parents, often offering suggestions on how to maintain the sometimes fragile sense of trust and confidentially the child may have with the therapist, particularly in the case when parents have to be consulted after a session with the child.

Each module concludes with a What’s the Evidence section. This simple, but powerful, section offers specific citations and empirical support for each of the procedures and exercises outlined in the module. The evidence feature offers justification and validation to the clinician for carrying out the tasks of each module and buttresses the empirical foundation of the treatment manual.

Gosch et al. (2006) warn against rigidly applying the principles of a manualized therapy program. Without a sound understanding of the underlying theoretical principles, a clinician is apt to apply the procedures in a manner inconsistent with the principles on which they are based, damaging to the therapeutic process. A central tenet of Chorpita’s (2007) manualized therapy is individualization. Being able to flexibly apply the treatment plan in an individualized way lends to delivering treatment most effectively and efficiently (Gosch et al., 2006). In fact, establishing an individualized treatment plan is a fundamental procedure endorsed in Chorpita’s treatment manual.

One particular area which is not addressed in Chorpita’s therapy manual is how to address children on medication. Studies have documented that parents utilize psychotropic medication in the treatment of childhood anxiety disorders and in conjunction with therapeutic interventions (Chavira, Stein, Bailey, & Stein, 2004). Therefore, a module or chapter dedicated to issues that may arise when working with families who wish to take advantage of the therapeutic benefits of medication would have been helpful.

Chorpita appropriately dedicates a chapter in the treatment manual to offer information on how the clinician can help families with low engagement in the therapeutic process, an obvious hindrance to effective treatment. With any cognitive behavioral program, the client must be actively engaged in treatment and, furthermore, must be in an environment where they are able to rehearse the techniques they learn in therapy (Chorpita, 2007). The chapter on family engagement covers potential sources of low engagement and offers collaborative strategies to facilitate family participation.

The most efficacious strategies for treating childhood anxiety disorders revolve around empirically guided CBT approaches. The essential components of CBT for childhood anxiety disorders are: assessment, psychoeducation, coping skills instruction, exposure, and contingency management (Gosch et al., 2006). By way of individualized, flexible treatment modules, Chorpita’s Modular Cognitive-Behavioral Therapy for Childhood Anxiety Disorders, allows the clinician to navigate through an intervention framework which touches on each of the essential components of CBT for childhood anxiety disorders. At the same time, balance is
derived by guiding the clinician to attend to historically efficacious treatment entities (e.g., positive therapeutic alliance). Given that a clinician is well-versed in the theoretical underpinnings of CBT and possesses the requisite clinical skills, Chorpita’s treatment manual offers a clear and convincing route to successful intervention and treatment of childhood anxiety disorders.

References


Book Review: Modular Cognitive-Behavior Therapy

Just for Fun!

Above, Scott Poland who was presenting in South America and the pilot Zero about to hang glide off the tallest mountain in Rio de Janeiro.

Left, Scott Poland and Zero the pilot soaring over Ipanema Beach in Rio.
American Psychological Association
Convention
Thursday, August 14, 2008 –
Sunday, August 18, 2008
Boston, MA

Division 16 Schedule at a Glance
Georgette Yetter, Ph.D., Program Chair
Theodore Christ, Ph.D., Co-Chair

Thursday, August 14

8:00 - 9:50 AM
Symposium: Strategies to Facilitate Effective Supervision of School Psychologists
Virginia S. Harvey, Ph.D., Chair

10:00 - 10:50 AM
Invited Address: Developmental-Ecological Approach to Prevention to Link Families and Schools
Patrick H. Tolan, Ph.D.

11:00 - 12:50 PM
Symposium [co-sponsored by Divisions 53 and 16]: Best Practices in Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology – The Assessment and Treatment of ADHD
Gregory A. Fabiano, Ph.D., Participant
George J. DuPaul, Ph.D., Participant
Arthur D. Anastasopoulos, Ph.D., Participant
William E. Pelham, Jr., Ph.D., Participant

1:00 - 2:50 PM
Symposium: Outcome-Based Research in Consultee-Centered Consultation – Continuing Nadine Lambert’s Legacy
Jonathan Sandoval, Ph.D., Co-Chair
Steven E. Knotek, Ph.D., Co-Chair

3:00 - 3:50 PM
Poster Session: Professional Issues, Diversity, and International Studies in School Psychology

Friday, August 15

8:00 - 9:50 AM
Symposium: Language Development and IQ Test Performance of English Learners
Samuel O. Ortiz, Ph.D., Chair

10:00 - 10:50 AM
Poster Session: Educational Psychology and Assessment

11:00 - 11:50 AM
Poster Session: Child and Adolescent Behavior Problems, Violence, and Trauma

12:00 - 12:50 PM
Poster Session: Academic Interventions and Consultation

1:00 - 1:50 PM
Poster Session: Ecological and Systems-Level Influences on Children and Adolescents

2:00 - 3:50 PM
Symposium: Universal Screening for Behavioral and Emotional Problems at School
Randy W. Kamphaus, Ph.D., Co-Chair
Christine DiStefano, Ph.D., Co-Chair
Division 16 Convention Schedule at a Glance

**Saturday, August 16**

8:00 AM - 9:50 AM  
Symposium: Ecological Approaches to School Psychological Services – Putting Theory Into Action  
Terry B. Gutkin, Ph.D., Chair

12:00 - 1:50 PM  
Invited Address: Perspectives on Treatment at the Nexus Between Family and School  
Cindy Carlson, Ph.D.

2:00 - 2:50 PM  
Presidential Address:  
Tammy Hughes, Ph.D.

3:00 - 4:50 PM  
Division 16 Annual Business Meeting

5:00 - 5:50 PM  
Division 16 Social Hour

**Sunday, August 17**

8:00 AM - 9:50 AM  
Symposium: Emergent Literacy Issues in Assessment, Intervention, and Outcomes  
Edward S. Shapiro, Ph.D., Chair

10:00 - 11:50 AM  
Symposium: Multisystemic Intervention for ADHD – Innovations in Urban Settings  
Thomas J. Power, Ph.D., Chair

12:00 - 1:50 PM  
Symposium: What Makes a High School Safe From Bullying and Violence?  
Dewey G. Cornell, Ph.D., Chair
Want to Learn more about Response to Intervention and Positive Psychology in the Schools?

Submitted by Linda Reddy, Vice President for Publications and Communications, Rutgers University

The Conversation Series of the Division 16: School Psychology of the American Psychological Association proudly announces the production of two new video series: Response to Intervention and Positive Psychology in the Schools. The Response to Intervention series features four interviews conducted with distinguished researchers and trainers including **Drs. Sylvia Rosenfield, Daniel Reschly, James Ysseldyke and Frank Gresham**. The interviews were conducted by Drs. Steven Little and Rick Short. The Positive Psychology in the Schools series features three interviews conducted with leading researchers and trainers in this field: **Drs. Scott Huebner, Richard Gilman and Michael Furlong**. The interviews were conducted by Drs. Shane Jimerson and Joel Meyers.

For further information please go to the Division 16 website http://www.indiana.edu/~div16/publications_video.html and/or contact the Director of the Conversations Series, Dr. Kristen Varjas at E: kvarjas@gsu.edu or Tel: 404-413-8190.

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- Assessment and Professional Issues with Gresham, Bracken, Fagan and Reschly
- Assessment Issues with Woodcock, Braden, Shinn and Harrison
- Attention Deficit-Hyperactivity Disorder with DuPaul, Dawson, Conners and Swanson
- Behavioral Consultation with Kratochwill
- Consultation with Conoley, Kratochwill, Meyers, Pryzwansky and Rosenfield
- Cross Battery Approach to IQ Assessment with Flanagan
- Curriculum Based Assessment and Measurement with Eckert and Hintze
- Ethics in School Psychology with Bersoff
- Evidence Based Intervention with Kratochwill
- Functional Assessment with Witt and Noell
- IQ Testing: The Past or the Future? The Sattler-Reschly Debate
- Innovative Service Delivery with Shapiro, Kratochwill and Elliott
- Mental Health Consultation with Caplan (Digitally Remastered 1990 Interview)
- Multicultural Issues with Henning-Stout, Vasquez Nuttall, Brown-Cheatham, Lopez and Ingraham
- Psychological & Educational Consultation: A Case Study
  - with Close Conoley, Sheridan, Meyers and Rosenfield
- Psychological & Educational Consultation: Concepts & Processes (Part I)
- Psychological & Educational Consultation: Concepts & Processes (Part II) with Erchul and Gutkin
- Reform & School Psychology with Rosenfield, Batsche, Curris, Talley and Cobb
- Role of Theory in The Science of Treating Children with Hughes
- School Psychology Past, Present and Future: An Interview with Thomas Fagan (Future)
- School Psychology Past, Present and Future: An Interview with Thomas Fagan (History)
- School Violence with Goldstein, Batsche, Furlong, Hughes and Close Conoley
- Social-Emotional Assessment with Martin, Knoff, Reynolds, Naglieri and Hughes
- Tape 3—Psychological Maltreatment, Primary Prevention, & International Issues (Hart),
  - Gender Differences in the Schools (Henning-Stout), Family & School Collaboration (Christensen),
  - Crisis Intervention & Primary Prevention Activities (Sandoval)
- Traumatic Brain Injury: A Case Study
- Traumatic Brain Injury: Interview with Experts (Bigler, Clark, Telzrow, Close Conoley)
Tips for Successfully Navigating the APPIC Process

Cindy Altman, Duquesne University & Shilah Scherweit, SASP President, Oklahoma State University

Greetings, fellow students in school psychology! As many of you are probably aware, the Student Affiliates in School Psychology (SASP) is a national, student-led organization for graduate students pursuing a career in school psychology that operates under the auspices of Division 16 of the American Psychological Association (APA). A primary function of SASP is to support school psychology graduate students throughout all stages of their graduate school careers, up to and including the culminating internship experiences. Students who have been through or are approaching the internship milestone (or perhaps have merely thought about it) are acutely aware of the myriad stresses associated with applying and interviewing for APA-accredited internships in school psychology, and then waiting for Match Day. The agony is intensified by the current shortage of available positions through the APPIC match.

Having just gone through the APPIC process, we have compiled an informal (and occasionally humorous) list of what we learned and found helpful, in the hope that those who apply in the coming years can benefit from our experiences and insights. As a testament to our credibility, both of us successfully obtained APA-accredited internship positions for the 2008-2009 year (C.A. at Boys Town in Omaha, NE and S.S. at Lewisville Independent School District near Dallas, TX).

Getting Started

1) Avoid making the internship application and interview process a competition, especially with those from your training program. Although your fellow students may be vying for internships at some of the same sites as you, the entire process is much less painful when you support one another, rather than constantly attempt to one-up each other. Other applicants understand better than anyone else in your life the stress that internship can create, so it does little good to estrange yourself from them.

2) Do not let the fact that your training program is not APA-accredited deter you from going after an APA-approved internship, especially if your program is in the process of being reviewed. I (C.A.) applied right after my program hosted an APA site visit; had I let the program’s accreditation status stop me, I would never have landed a spot at one of the most awesome internship sites in the country. Applicants from not-yet-accredited programs may have to work harder to “sell” themselves than their counterparts from accredited programs, but I am living proof that it can and does happen. However, we all know the dangers of making generalizations from a single instance!

3) Do not be afraid to apply to sites at which school psychology students are “acceptable,” rather than “preferred.” Again, the outcome is dependent upon your ability to convince interviewers of how well your interests, experiences, and professional goals match the site. Psychologists in sub-fields other than school psychology often neglect to realize the breadth of skills that school psychologists possess, so it is important that you emphasize this in your application materials. On the plane ride to an interview this winter, I (C.A.) sat next to a clinical child psychologist from an Ivy League university. She inquired about my training after seeing something that I was reading, and was genuinely unaware of all that school psychologists are trained to do. She even said something to the effect of, “Wow! It sounds like you can do all of the same things that a clinical child psychologist can!” Let people know this!

4) Utilize all internship resources available to you! Join the APPIC internship listserv, making sure to sign up for the digest version to avoid receiving up to 20 emails per day at times. You may also want to buy the internship book from APA, titled Internships in Psychology: The APAGS Workbook for Writing Successful Applications and Finding the Right Fit (2nd ed.) by Carol Williams-Nickelson, Mitchell J. Prinstein, and W. Gregory Keilin. It is an excellent (and inexpensive) resource for all parts of the internship application process!

“A primary function of SASP is to support school psychology graduate students throughout all stages of their graduate school careers, up to and including the culminating internship experiences.”
5) Talk to students in your program who have gone through the process before you. Every year in my (S.S.) program, we have students talk about their experiences with the other cohorts. This is an invaluable resource for students applying in the next year or two.

6) Take time to think about your individual perspective on the internship year. It will be important to decide what additional training you are looking for, how you may be a good fit for particular programs, and how specific sites may be a good fit for you and your needs. While the programs are interviewing you about your training and goals, you should also be ready to ask about the opportunities you would receive as an intern. If you have thought out what you are looking for in advance, you can avoid wasting time and money applying to sites that may not ultimately be a good fit for you.

Application Preparation

7) Start preparing your materials well in advance of application deadlines and allow yourself more time than you anticipate needing to complete your application. Everything that I (C.A.) remember reading advised this, but with a busy schedule and tendency to procrastinate, it was easy to brush this off. I would suggest beginning to work on your application the summer before you plan to apply so that you are not stressed by the coursework, practica and such that will come during the fall semester. It should also decrease the likelihood that your application materials will suffer because you waited until the bitter end.

8) Pay attention to details! This applies to both the general APPIC application and site-specific materials, where applicable. Failure to adhere to directions may cause a site to toss your application packet aside, or at least decrease your attractiveness as a candidate. Internship is one of those times in graduate school when it is beneficial to nurture OCD-like tendencies to the fullest!

9) Consider asking fellow students to review your application essays and provide honest feedback about how they might be improved. Once your essays are in more “final” form, think about asking a faculty member to read over them, especially if one in your program is thorough and tends to provide constructive comments on students’ written work.

Interviews

10) Practice interview questions aloud to yourself and/or with others. You want to avoid having pre-determined or “canned” responses; practice can help make your delivery on interview day smoother than it might be otherwise. If you practice with a trusted friend or faculty member, these individuals can provide constructive criticism and offer valuable suggestions about how to improve your delivery. Practicing with students who have gone on interviews previously or with faculty who have sat on interview committees may be especially beneficial.

11) Although individual sites vary in the questions that they ask, be prepared to answer questions about your internship goals, why you are a good fit for the program, your dissertation research and training experiences, and your career goals. Review a site’s materials the day before (or morning of, depending on the time of your interview) to familiarize yourself with the site’s offerings and to come up with a few questions you would like to ask of your interviewers. These details can easily become muddied in the months of preparation prior to the interview.

12) Traveling to interviews can be a stressful and expensive experience. You may want to consider starting to put away a little bit of money every year of your graduate program. A student in my (S.S.) program put away money from the babysitting that she did in her free time. When booking travel, consider using travel sites such as Expedia and Travelocity and putting together multi-city flights (or reserving hotels, rental cars, etc. together). I found that I saved the most money if I was able to fly from home to one interview, then to another interview, and then back home again. And…there is no time like now to join frequent flier and car and hotel membership programs! They are free to join...
Tips for Successfully Navigating the APPIC Process

and often include perks such as free upgrades or free nights after a certain number of stays.

13) Expect January to be a hectic month for you. If possible, plan to have a lighter load that semester. If you do have classes, practica, or assistantships at that time, let your professors and supervisors know when you will be gone and/or try to do work ahead of time. Do not worry if you have conflicting interview days. Many sites hold interviews on multiple days and if you contact them directly, they will often try to work with you to schedule an alternative date. Always make sure that you have all site and travel contact information with you in case you need to call a site to let them know of any travel delays. Sites such as www.tripit.com can be a helpful way to keep all of your travel information organized and accessible in one place.

14) If it is not a component of interview day, make every effort to visit prospective sites to see the facilities and resources that you would be using as an intern. Ask questions of those who currently hold internship positions at each site; they are the best and most forthright sources of information about what you can expect your experience to be like.

15) After completing your interviews, jot down any notes that you have immediately. It will be hard at the end of the process to remember everything about that first site you visited. Review your notes and make pro and con lists for each site. This will be helpful when it comes to ranking your sites. Rank early!! Give yourself time to sleep on your decision in case you decide to go back and change anything.

Concluding Thoughts

16) It sounds simple (and maybe obvious), but take time to do things that you enjoy during the whole process. Applying for internships is genuinely exhausting and can feel like a full-time job, but doing things for you can help to restore your energy and help you remain sane throughout, and it is cheaper than the alternative of pursuing therapy!

17) The best, albeit simplest (at least seemingly so), advice that I (C.A.) was given throughout the application and interview process was to just “be myself.” It ultimately hurts both you and prospective internship sites if you are not genuine, misrepresent yourself and your experiences, or try to be someone you are not. This could result in you matching to a site that is not truly a good fit for you, or perhaps not matching at all. Oddly enough, these words of wisdom came from my own soon-to-be training director on interview day!

On behalf of the SASP board, we wish all who are applying for internships during the coming academic year the best of luck! If we can be of any help at all throughout the process, feel free to contact either of us at:

Cindy Altman, SASP Convention Chair
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“Expect January to be a hectic month for you. If possible, plan to have a lighter load that semester.”

“The best, albeit simplest (at least seemingly so), advice that I (C.A.) was given throughout the application and interview process was to just ‘be myself.’”
People and Places

- Tim Hartshorne, Central Michigan University, has been elected to a 4-year term on the Board of Trustees of the Higher Learning Commission. The HLC is the commission of North Central Association of Colleges and Schools which is responsible for higher education institutional accreditation in 19 states.

- The School Psychology Program at Illinois State University recently celebrated its 50th anniversary. Over 30 alumni of the APA Accredited/NASP Approved Ph.D. and NASP Approved Specialist Degree Program joined the current faculty of Gary Cates, Karla Doepke, Kathy Hoff, Steven Landau, Adena Meyers, Mark Swerdlik, Renee Tobin. Current students, former and retired faculty to celebrate 50 years of educating school psychologists at ISU. An oral history of the program was recorded as part of the celebratory dinner, and a silent auction was held to support student travel. Alumni representing all 5 decades of the program and a number of graduates from out of state attended, as did former faculty. ISU has graduated over 600 school psychologists working in a variety of settings including elementary and secondary schools, universities, hospitals, mental health centers, and independent practice.

- Drs. Gary Cates and Renee Tobin of Illinois State University’s School Psychology Program recently have been granted tenure and promoted to Associate Professor.

- The Duquesne University Doctoral Program in School Psychology is pleased to announce it has received accreditation by the American Psychological Association. Program faculty members include Drs. Laura Crothers, Tammy Hughes, Elizabeth McCallum, Kara McGoe, Jeffrey Miller, and Ara Schmitt.

- Dr. Laura Crothers of Duquesne University’s School Psychology Program has been granted tenure and promoted to Associate Professor.

- Robert H. Woody, PhD, JD, (D16 Fellow) continues as Professor of Psychology at the University of Nebraska at Omaha. He also provides training to law enforcement officers under the auspices of the Florida Department of Law Enforcement.

- The School Psychology Program at Northern Illinois University is pleased to announce that Dr. Corey Ray-Subramanian joined our faculty as an assistant professor in the fall of 2007. She is a recent graduate of the School Psychology Program at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. Dr. Ray-Subramanian’s research is focused on the social foundations of academic achievement and on assessment and instructional practices for English language learners.

- Rik Carl D’Amato, Ph.D., has accepted a position as Head of the Department of Psychology at the University of Macau, Macau SAR, China. Dr. D’Amato will begin working in China on August 1.

- The San Diego State University School Psychology Program is pleased to announce the following:

- Dr. Tonika Duren Green has received promotion to Associate Professor with tenure! Dr. Green’s research agenda is on interrupting disproportionate representation of culturally and linguistically diverse (especially African American) students in special education, as well as on the impact of high stakes testing on African American students.

- Dr. Katina Lambros has joined us as a new tenure-track Assistant Professor. She completed her doctoral work at the University of California – Riverside. Her specialization centers on the assessment of and intervention for students with emotional-behavioral disorders. She will also be teaching our applied research sequence.

- After 15 years of directing the program, Dr. Valerie Cook-Morales, is stepping down as director in order to enhance the time she can devote to her federally funded grants and to teaching in the program.
Dr. Colette Ingraham, professor, will be assuming directorship of the program in August. She has also been selected by the San Diego County Association of School Psychologists to receive the Ross Zatlin Mentor Award.

Dr. Carol Robinson-Zañartu has been reappointed as Chair of the Department of Counseling and School Psychology while continuing to contribute to our School Psychology Program in multiple ways.

North Carolina State University and its School Psychology Program are very pleased to announce the hiring of Dr. Scott Stage as an Associate Professor. In Fall, 2008, Scott will join current program faculty members John Begeny, Jeff Braden, Patsy Collins, Bill Erchul, Mary Haskett, and Ann Schulte (program director). In other NC State news, Jeff Braden is serving as Interim Dean of the College of Humanities and Social Sciences during 2008-2009.

The School Psychology Program (PsyD and MS) at St. John’s University (New York) is pleased to announce that Dr. Marlene Sotelo-Dynega has completed her first year as part of the faculty. Marlene completed her specialist level degree from Iona and her Psy.D. at St. John’s University. Marlene comes to us after working as a school psychologist in a very diverse setting, and her research interests include the psychoeducational assessment of culturally and linguistically diverse individuals and the assessment, diagnosis, and intervention of learning disabilities.

Furthermore, we are excited to announce the recent hiring of Dr. Dana Liebling who will begin with us in the fall of 2008. Dana earned her Ph.D. from Hofstra University in 2006, where she conducted research on attitudes toward the mentally ill, factors influencing student perceptions of faculty, the relationship between student employment and scholastic achievement, and women’s anxiety regarding crime and victimization. She is joining us after having worked as a school psychologist in the West Babylon School District, and her current research interests include ethical issues in school psychology, cognitive-behavioral therapy, and factors influencing academic success. We are very pleased to have both Marlene and Dana on-board as training faculty in our recently APA approved program.

Dr. Caroline Wandle is pleased to join the core faculty of the School Psychology Program at the Massachusetts School of Professional Psychology (MSPP) in August. She leaves the position of Program Director of the School Psychology Program at Tufts University that she has served for the past 18 years. Dr. Wandle is very excited to join the new program at MSPP, which is taking its third class this fall, and for the opportunity to face new challenges.

Please send all submissions to
Dr. Ara Schmitt at: schmitta2106@duq.edu
The Encyclopedia of Child Behavior and Development, co-edited by Drs. Sam Goldstein and Jack Naglieri to be published by Springer Science, is seeking author/contributors for the over 3,000 entries. As a repository of current knowledge, the Encyclopedia will serve as an electronic and print resource for students, educators, researchers, professionals and practitioners. Entries will be of varying length. Contributors will be noted as authors in the volume. Interested contributors can learn more about the Encyclopedia and the contribution process at http://refworks.springer.com/ecbd.

We are also seeking Editorial Board members. Editorial Board member responsibility requires the authorship or solicitation of ten or more entries. If you are interested in serving on the Editorial Board, please contact Ms. Joy Jansen, ECBD@samgoldstein.com.

Special Thanks

to Dr. Charles A. Maher, Professor of Psychology, Graduate School of Applied and Professional Psychology, Rutgers University.

Dr. Maher founded Journal of Applied School Psychology (formerly known as Special Services in the Schools) in 1984 and has served as Editor. His editorial vision has made a significant contribution to the field of school psychology. He is retiring from the editorship.

Thank you for your service!

Announcement
Thank you to Scholarship Sponsors

The Academy’s Irwin Hyman and Nadine Lambert Memorial Scholarship effort has been a gratifying success. Through the generosity of corporate sponsors and Academy Fellows the AASP has awarded ten scholarships of $1,000 over the past three years. A sincere “thank you” to all of our sponsors.

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APA Division Services Office
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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.
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