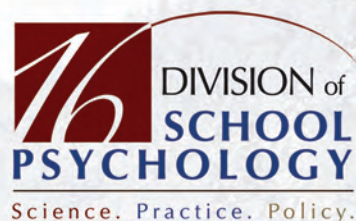




APA Division 16 School Psychology
Vol. 67, No. 1 | Winter 2013

The School Psychologist

AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION



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The School Psychologist Advertising & Submission Info

Moving or missing your newsletter? More information about Division 16

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

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

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

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Requirements

The *School Psychologist* is published three times (Winter, Spring, and Fall). The three regular issues are electronic. Employment notices, announcements, and advertisements (including display ads) are due on the 1st of November (Winter issue), March (Spring issue), and July (Fall issue). Display ads should be submitted in a high-resolution PDF format.

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

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¹Rate is cost per insertion.

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Author's Instructions and Publication Schedule

The APA Division 16 publishes *The School Psychologist* as a service to the membership. Three electronic issues and one hard copy Year in Review archival issue are published annually. The purpose of TSP is to provide a vehicle for the rapid dissemination of news and recent advances in practice, policy, and research in the field of school psychology. Articles up to approximately 15 double-spaced manuscript pages will be accepted; however, brief articles, approximately 6 to 12 double-spaced manuscript pages,

are preferred. Test reviews, book reviews, and comments for The Commentary Section are welcome. All submissions should be double spaced in Times New Roman 12 point font and e-mailed to the Editor. Authors submitting materials to *The School Psychologist* do so with the understanding that the copyright of published materials shall be assigned exclusively to APA Division 16.

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

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PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE

Looking Backwards and Moving Forwards: Advancing Science, Practice, and Policy

Shane R. Jimerson
University of California, Santa Barbara



Shane R. Jimerson

It has been an honor and a pleasure to serve as Division 16 President during 2012. Throughout 2012 our Division continued its priorities to advance “Science, Practice, and Policy” relevant to school psychology. As this article will be published in January and Dr. Vincent C. Alfonso will be taking over as Division 16 President, I will provide some reflections on the past year (2012) and also highlight some ongoing activities and opportunities for Division 16 members and leadership. I encourage each of you reading this article to become more involved with Division 16, as your involvement is essential to facilitate the success of Division 16 and school



**“Unless someone like you cares
a whole awful lot,
Nothing is going to get better.
It’s not.**

**~ Dr. Seuss,
The Lorax**

psychology.

Throughout the year, there have been many topics that the Division 16 Executive Committee members have navigated with great deft. Our collective efforts throughout 2012 continued to advance the objectives of our Division: 1) to promote the development and dissemination of knowledge that enhances the life experiences of children, families, and school personnel; 2) to facilitate school psychology practices that result in effective services to youth, families, and school professionals; 3) to facilitate regional, national, and international communications regarding contemporary

issues within school psychology; and 4) to advocate within APA and elsewhere for services, policy, and research concerned with children, families, schools, school personnel, and the schooling process. The activities of the Division Vice Presidents, Council Representatives, along with Division participation on APA committees, Working Group chairs and members are essential to accomplishing our Division’s objectives. Indeed, these individuals “care a whole awful lot” and I am confident that their efforts help to make things better for many children, families, and psychologists. As 2012 President, I am grateful to each of the individuals who contributed to these shared objectives.

As I have communicated with school psychology faculty, professionals, and students across the country and throughout the world, it is clear that there is much that has been done, and there are many important topics that remain to be addressed by school psychologists to promote further student success. Herein, I highlight some of the important activities

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that Division 16 has been attending to during 2012, and note some opportunities for 2013.

The Future of Division 16 - Early Career Colleagues and Students

Early career colleagues and school psychology graduate students are the future of the profession. Indeed, the future vitality of the Division is dependent upon their aspirations, activities, talents, and active involvement. Throughout the past year, Division 16 leaders have been actively encouraging and involving early career colleagues to participate in Division 16 committees, workgroups, and elected positions. In addition, Division 16 leaders have also been actively engaging the Student Affiliates of School Psychology (SASP), to promote further involvement among faculty and students across the country. The new Division 16 website includes a specific tab in the menu bar for Students (<http://www.apadivisions.org/division-16>). There are many opportunities for early career colleagues and students to become further involved with SASP and Division 16, please send Dr. Vincent C. Alfonso an e-mail (alfonso@fordham.edu) if you would like to be involved.

Increasing Membership – Free First Year Membership to New Members

Dr. Jessica Hoffman (Division 16 Vice President of Membership) and the

Division 16 Executive Committee have developed and implemented new plans to further promote and increase Division 16 membership. Based on analyses of previous piloting of free first year membership to new members, Division 16 will now offer the free first year to all new members during the upcoming 5 years, with annual reviews to examine the renewal rates. Additional outreach during conventions and via current Division members aims to increase the number of Division 16 members during the next three years. Importantly, between August 2012 and today, (10/28/12), 275 new student members had already taken advantage of this new initiative! Through their membership, we anticipate that they will learn more about the many activities and contributions of Division 16 and decide to renew their membership. Updates via the Announce Only emails from Division 16 should help to inform new and continuing members of the many contributions of the Division.

Window to the World – Activities of the Division 16 Technology Committee

During 2012, Dr. David Shriberg contributed important leadership as the Chair of the Division 16 Technology Committee, a critical component of our ongoing efforts to communicate with members and others regarding the important work and opportunities for

further involvement among Division 16 members. Throughout 2012, all Division 16 members received announcements highlighting recent Division activities, accomplishments, and resources. Recent postings on the website include important documents developed by the Globalization of School Psychology Working Group. If you are interested in contributing to the Division 16 Technology Committee or if you have particular insights related to the use of technology that you believe would further enhance Division 16, please e-mail Dr. Shriberg (dshribe@luc.edu). I know that Dr. Alfonso will continue to highlight the importance of communications with and among Division 16 members and leaders, thus, I expect that the Division 16 Technology Committee will continue to provide many important contributions during the upcoming year.

Continuing Contributions - Division 16 Working Groups

The activities of each of the Division 16 working groups were featured in several venues during 2012, including the President's symposium session at the American Psychological Association convention in Orlando, and also at the National Association of School Psychologists conference in Philadelphia. Each of the working groups has continued to develop documents that will provide important contributions to advance

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science, practice, and policy relevant to school psychology across the country and throughout the world. Members interested in contributing are encouraged to communicate with the working group Chairs (contact information below and available on the Division 16 Web site).

Globalization of School Psychology

Working Group. The goal of the globalization working group is to define transnational/ multicultural issues in School Psychology. The first task undertaken by the group is developing a bibliographic data base on basic thematic areas of school psychology science and practice, including assessment, prevention, crisis intervention, consultation, evidence-based interventions, poverty, and transnational/multicultural school psychology. Coordinators have been identified for each topic area and are in the process of forming subgroups to identify relevant readings and create a database that reflects work on an international scale. Subsequent steps include synthesizing and disseminating the transnational database. The long-term intent is to develop an international network of researchers, facilitated by collaboration across organizations that represent school psychology domestically and internationally. Documents are developed by this workgroup are presently available online. For those interested in

contributing further, please contact; Chair: Dr. Sissy Hatzichristou, University of Athens, Greece (hatzichr@psych.uoa.gr)

Social Justice and Child Rights

Working Group. The goal of the social justice and child rights group is to facilitate professional development of school psychologists in the promotion of social justice and child rights. The initial task is to review and consider adopting the existing Child Rights for School Psychologists curriculum developed by the International School Psychology Curriculum Group, a partnership of International School Psychology Association [ISPA], Child Rights Education for Professionals [CRED-PRO], and School Psychology Program at Tulane University. In addition, the working group plans to develop two additional modules related to promoting social justice and accountability for child rights and social justice. Subsequent steps include dissemination and piloting of the full curriculum. The long-term intent of the group is to build an international community around social justice and child rights, facilitated by collaboration across school psychology organizations. During 2012, the members of this work group successfully developed an online portal to facilitate access to the training modules online. For those interested in contributing further, please contact; Chair: Dr. Stuart Hart, University

of Victoria, British Columbia (snhart@gmail.com)

Translation of Science to Practice and Policy Working Group.

The goal of the translation working group is to enhance the translation of research to practice and practice to research within the specialty of school psychology, to promote Division 16 as a resource for evidence-based practice for school psychologists, and to enhance research-based psychological practices in the context of schools. To this end, the working group will engage in research to review existing literature, identify ongoing efforts by other professional groups, survey school psychologists about the challenges in implementing evidence-based practices, and examine the nature of preservice training relevant to promoting translation of research. The anticipated outcomes of this work are generation of implications for professional development and of resources for implementing research-based practice. This work group has prepared a manuscript that is under review for publication and has also recently initiated a survey to collect additional information to facilitate further understanding of this topic among school psychologists. For those interested in contributing further, please contact; Co-Chairs: Sylvia Rosenfield, University of Maryland (srosenf@umd.edu); Susan

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Forman, Rutgers University (sgforman@rci.rutgers.edu).

High Quality Sessions - Division 16 Proceedings at APA in Orlando

As a result of the outstanding leadership of Dr. Jim DiPerna (VP for Convention and Public Relations) and the Division 16 Convention Chair, Dr. Scott Methe and many members who served as reviewers, there were many high quality sessions for the 2012 APA convention held in Orlando, Florida. Those attending the APA convention during the past five years will recognize that the Division 16 programming has continued to expand, including numerous cross-division collaborative sessions, as well as symposium sessions and keynote presentations, in addition to hundreds of poster presentations that emphasize important considerations relevant to advancing science, practice, and policy related to school psychology. Dr. Shannon Suldo (Suldo@coedu.usf.edu) will be the Division 16 Convention Chair for the upcoming 2013 APA convention July 31-August 4, in Honolulu, Hawaii. The active involvement of so many Division 16 members who participate and present each year at the APA convention is critical to ensuring high quality sessions that advance the science, practice, and policy relevant to school psychology.

Maintaining the Infrastructure - Division 16 Bylaws Revised

Attending to the Division 16 infrastructure is certainly essential to the ongoing operations of the Division. Following the important activities of the Division 16 Executive Committee members, the proposed revisions to the Division 16 Bylaws were sent out to all Division 16 members for review and voting, resulting in a favorable outcome with the proposed revisions being accepted by the members. You can access the Division 16 Bylaws on the website (<http://www.apadivisions.org/division-16/leadership/executive-committee/manual/index.aspx>).

Inviting and Using Member Input - The Division 16 Member Survey

Dr. Jim DiPerna (Division 16 Vice President of Convention Affairs and Public Relations) has provided important leadership in developing and distributing the survey and gathered these important data from Division 16 members in early 2012. Throughout the year, the Division leaders have been carefully considering this recent feedback from Division 16 members and identifying opportunities to further enhance the Division's activities and communications as well as to inform further strategic planning. For instance, during the APA convention, it was possible to highlight several of the themes

identified by members. Additional input revealed the importance of continued communication to highlight the activities and contributions of Division 16 leaders, committees, and work groups. The input from members is invaluable to inform the development of new initiatives and informing optimal programming for the Division 16 proceedings during the upcoming APA convention. You can anticipate further information and updates related to the member survey, both in *The School Psychologist* and on the Division 16 website.

Advancing Science, Practice, and Policy – School Psychology Quarterly

Dr. Randy Kamphaus, provided important leadership during the past 5 years and has now completed his tenure as Editor of the *School Psychology Quarterly* journal. As highlighted during the APA convention, the Division is grateful for the tremendous efforts and contributions of Dr. Kamphaus, the Associate Editors, and each of the members of the Editorial Board. The Division also owes a debt of gratitude to Dr. Linda Reddy (Vice-President for Publications and Communications), who has contributed generously to advancing the *School Psychology Quarterly* journal.

The central aim of *School Psychology Quarterly* is to publish scholarship that advances science, practice, and/or policy

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relevant to school psychology. Dr. Shane Jimerson is now the Editor of *School Psychology Quarterly* and joined by an incredibly talented and committed group of Editorial Board Members, Associate Editors (Dr. Scott Ardoyn, Dr. Wendy Reinke, & Dr. Chris Riley-Tillman), and Senior Editor of International Science (Dr. Thomas Oakland). The emphasis on featuring high quality scholarship and recognizing the globalization of school psychology will continue, as there are numerous international members of the editorial board, in addition to the new post of Senior Editor of International Science.

School Psychology Quarterly publishes empirical studies pertaining to the psychology of education and services for children in school settings, encompassing a full range of methodologies and orientations, including educational, cognitive, social, cognitive behavioral, preventive, cross-cultural, and developmental perspectives. Focusing primarily on children, youth, and the adults who serve them, School Psychology Quarterly publishes international research advancing science, practice, and policy pertaining to the education of populations across the life span.

SPQ is part of Thomson Reuters' (formerly ISI) Web of Science and has an impact factor of 1.452, ranking 18th out of 51 journals in "Psychology—Education" category. It is published by the APA and

is the official journal of APA Division 16 (School Psychology). All articles published in *SPQ* are included in PsycINFO® and PsycARTICLES®, the most comprehensive and widely used psychological databases in the world; *SPQ* is also indexed in MEDLINE and other major databases reaching researchers and practitioners alike. Through print and electronic access, articles published in *SPQ* are available to a global audience of over 3,500 institutions and 60 million potential readers.

The Editorial Board is committed to providing high quality and timely reviews. During 2012, over 100 articles were submitted for review to School Psychology Quarterly, and on average there were only 20 days between the date of submission and the date the decision letter was sent to the author(s). Additional information about the journal, guidance for authors, and links to the electronic submissions webpage are available at <http://www.apa.org/pubs/journals/spq/>. Manuscripts should be submitted electronically through the journal's Manuscript Submission Portal (<http://www.editorialmanager.com/spq/>).

Investing for the Future – Division 16 Finance Committee Activities

Dr. Catherine Fiorello (Division 16 Treasurer) and members of the Division 16 Finance Committee have made substantial efforts during the past year to examine responsible investment options to generate

income from the Division resources. The Division 16 Executive Committee recently reviewed recommendations from the Division 16 Finance Committee, and Dr. Fiorello is presently pursuing the development of an investment portfolio that will yield revenue to fund future Division 16 initiatives. These investments will be carefully monitored to inform future decisions of the Division 16 Executive Committee.

Representing School Psychology – Active Involvement in APA Governance

An ongoing activity of Division 16 is the important representation of school psychology within APA governance. We are grateful for the numerous talented and capable Division 16 members both representing school psychology and contributing importantly to contemporary APA governance. In addition to the numerous Division 16 Vice Presidents and members of the Executive Committee (<http://www.apadivisions.org/division-16/leadership/executive-committee/>), who regularly attend important committee and association meetings to represent school psychology, there are also many other elected and appointed Division 16 members providing important representation and contributing leadership throughout APA. These colleagues include Dr. Beth Doll and Dr. Frank

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C. Worrell who serve as APA Council Representatives. Dr. Frank C. Worrell also serves on the APA Board of Educational Affairs, along with Dr. Tammy Hughes. Other members who serve in various capacities include: Dr. Elaine Clark who serves on the APA Board of Professional Affairs, Dr. Bonnie Nastasi who serves on the Committee on International Relations in Psychology, Dr. Samuel O. Ortiz who serves on the Committee on Psychological Tests and Assessment, Dr. Linda Reddy who recently served on the Committee on Division/APA Relations, Dr. Michael Tansy who serves as the APA Division 16 Federal Advocacy Coordinator APA Division 16 Liaison to APA Board of Professional Affairs, Dr. Robert Woody who represents Division 42 on the Council of Representatives, Dr. Frances Boulon-Diaz who represents Puerto Rico on the Council of Representatives, and Dr. Shirley Vickery who represents South Carolina on the Council of Representatives (apologies to any individual whom I have not acknowledged in the brief summary above, please do let me know if I accidentally omitted your current service). Members of Division 16 also provide important contributions and leadership serving on the Interdivisional Task Force on Child and Adolescent Mental Health, Interdivisional Task Force for Children with SED and Their Families, the Joint Committee revising the Standards for

Educational and Psychological Testing, the Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation, as well as the Committee on Children, Youth, and Families, Committee on Women in Psychology. And of course, Donald Bersoff is the 2013 President of APA! During the winter of 2012, additional elections will take place, with several members of Division 16 on the slates for additional representation within APA. The ongoing involvement of Division 16 members is essential for the future vitality of the Division. Considering the relative size of Division 16, this representation reflects a purposeful commitment and contribution to representation within APA governance. Collectively, these efforts provide an important voice representing school psychology within the largest psychological association in the world.

The Company We Keep – Thank You to the Division 16 Executive Committee

I am truly fortunate to have had the opportunity to work collaboratively with so many talented individuals who shared a common commitment as members of the Division 16 Executive Committee. As this is my final President's Column, I would like to take a moment to publically express my gratitude to: Dr. Vincent C. Alfonso (President-Elect), Dr. James DiPerna (Vice-President for Convention

Affairs & Public Relations), Dr. Beth Doll (Council Representative), Dr. Catherine Fiorello (Treasurer), Dr. Jessica Hoffman (Vice-President for Membership), Dr. Stacy Overstreet (Vice-President for Education, Training, & Scientific Affairs), Dr. Linda Reddy, Vice-President for Publications and Communications), Dr. Karen Callan Stoiber (Past-President), Dr. Susan M. Swearer (Secretary), Dr. Amanda Clinton (Vice President for Professional Affairs), Dr. Amanda VanDerHeyden (Vice-President for Social, Ethical, and Ethnic Minority Affairs), and Dr. Frank C. Worrell (Council Representative). Indeed, it was a pleasure to collaborate with each of you to advance science, practice, and policy relevant to school psychology.

Maintaining Collaborations and Communications with Allied Organizations

Throughout 2012, Division 16 continued to collaborate within APA, and with its Divisions, as well as with allied state, national, and international organizations (including the National Association of School Psychologists, Council of Directors of School Psychology Programs, Trainers of School Psychologists, School Psychology Leadership Roundtable, Society for the Study of School Psychology, International School Psychology Association, American Board of Professional

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Psychology, American Board of School Psychology, Association of State and Provincial Psychology Boards, and other child-focused coalitions), as such collaboration is essential to achieving our missions. Indeed, close inspection of the contemporary leadership within the various organizations reflects considerable overlap, resulting in unprecedented communication, cooperation, and collaboration. We continue to communicate and collaborate with all allied organizations to advance, further, and enhance school psychology across the country and around the world.

**Be the Change You Wish to See -
Encouraging Division 16 Members to
Be Involved**

As you can see in the above description of some of Division 16 activities during 2012, there are many important efforts in which Division 16 colleagues participate and continue to be actively engaged in. Throughout the year, amidst the many activities that I have been collaborating on, I continued to learn a great deal about school psychology, APA, and further opportunities for school psychologists. I encourage all Division 16 members to consider whether there are important topics and activities that you believe warrant further consideration by the Division, or if there are current areas

of emphasis that you believe you could contribute leadership. As noted by the Lorax, *Unless someone like you cares a whole awful lot, Nothing is going to get better. It's not.* ~ Dr. Seuss. If you are inspired to contribute further to the future of Division 16 and school psychology, please communicate with me (Jimerson@education.ucsb.edu) or other Division 16 Executive Committee members, as we welcome your further involvement in efforts to advance science, practice, and policy relevant to school psychology.

JACK BARDON AWARD WINNER

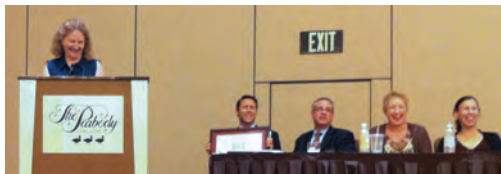
The Worth of Service in School Psychology

Beth Doll
University of Nebraska Lincoln



Face it. There is a little bit of social activist in every school psychologist. If we were searching for wealth or prestige or fame, there are better professions to pursue. Our profession – the school psychologist – is a vocation representing a lifelong and enduring commitment to socially, emotionally, and psychologically healthy youth. We invest our professional and our personal lives into this task and, in this sense service is integral to the identity of every school psychologist. It is who we are and what we do. That is why it was a remarkable honor to be recognized with the Jack

Below: Beth Doll, Shane Jimerson, Vinny Alfonso, Karen Callan-Stoiber and Jessica Hoffman.



Bardon Distinguished Service award from Division 16 – it is recognition by a community of service champions.

School psychologists work to strengthen the psychological well-being of children and youth. We develop behavior plans that increase children's behavioral success at school or home; we teach social emotional learning competencies; we help children regulate their disruptive emotions and interrupt maladaptive self-talk. We foster peer and caretaking social environments that promote children's sense of life-satisfaction and accomplishment. Over the past three decades, we have made tremendous progress in identifying the school psychological services that work (they bring about lasting and important changes for children), defining the most effective ways to provide these services (with manualized interventions and evidence-based databases), and assessing the needs of children and the impact of our services in meeting those needs. We have redefined school psychological services to be

Certificate Text:

Dr. Beth Doll exemplifies the spirit of the Jack Bardon Award with regard to both her leadership in the development of innovative school psychological services and sustained contributions to major professional organizations. Her line of research includes population-based mental health services in schools and building resilient classrooms to facilitate child wellbeing. Dr. Doll has communicated and advanced the purposes of the APA Division of School Psychology through her extraordinary service and leadership on numerous



President Shane Jimerson (left) and Stacey Overstreet (right) present Beth Doll with the Jack Bardon award.

committees and elected positions. These include: Council Representative to the American Psychological Association, President of Division 16, Chair of the Council of Directors of School Psychology, Chair of Division 16 Fellows Award Committee, Chair of APA's Committee on Children, Youth, and Families, Vice-President for Social and Ethical Responsibility and Ethnic Minority Affairs for Division 16, and Liaison from Division 16 to the Board for the Advancement of Psychology in the Public Interest of the APA.

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increasingly rigorous and effective.

Nevertheless, it is easy for the work that we do to be misrepresented as simplistic ‘feel good’ actions whose impact fades once the children’s momentary enjoyment lapses. This occurs when we allow our occupational reputation to be marred by three pervasive fallacies that distort our communities’ understanding of school mental health services and dishearten school mental health professionals. The purpose of this paper is to expose these myths, sketch out viable responses, and explain why debunking these myths will be important for valuing the service that we contribute to our communities.

Myth 1 – Anybody can do it.

I confronted this myth two weeks ago, when a geosciences professor explained to me that he was careful to incorporate psychology into every course that he taught. He went on to describe how he taught with an eye towards multiple intelligences, carefully consulting a popular psychology book that he had purchased at Barnes & Noble. “I am a strong advocate for psychology,” he said, smiling benevolently at me. In truth, what he was advocating was a form of pseudo-psychology that sounds convincing and feels good, but had been stripped of the science and rigor of evidence-based practices. There is danger in our profession being miscast as a set of

values or beliefs without acknowledging the strong empirical and theory-driven knowledge base that shapes our practice. It becomes even more dangerous if we come to believe the myth – and come to believe that anyone can do what we do. So, in response to the first myth, a caution: In daily conversations in the community and with ourselves, we must reinforce the science and skills that comprise the profession of school psychology. Use these words often: “science,” “skill,” and “profession.” Point out how we use evidence to sort through the cacophony of solutions to identify those most likely to have meaningful impact on children’s lives.

Myth 2 – These kinds of

problems are inevitable. School psychologists spend a good deal of time with children who are struggling mightily to overcome the deleterious effects of socio-psychological risk: poverty, violence, neglect, discord, et cetera. In the proverbial terms of prevention, we often stand at the bottom trying to catch the children who are falling off of a cliff, and trying to repair the damage when they crash into the ground. When the stream of damaged children does not diminish, and when we are unsuccessful in repairing the damage for too many children, it is too easy to believe the popular press – that we have failed to live up to our responsibility for the psychological wellness of all

children, regardless of the history and life experiences that they bring into the school. The response to this myth: it is important to remind our communities (and ourselves) that they share a responsibility for building the fence along the top of the cliff. We need to be strident in insisting that social and psychological risk is not inevitable. Instead, and in many respects, these are manufactured disturbances that are challenging our children and the ultimate prevention lies in social policy and community actions.

Myth 3 – Does it really matter?

I have lived on the prairies of the Great Plains for almost three decades now, and I’m accustomed to seeing almost a hundred miles in any direction when driving along our rural roads. I can see a thunderstorm coming for at least an hour before it arrives, and I can watch it moving away from me and into the next counties. Now, when I have occasion to drive along a country road near the East Coast, I find it very disturbing to be hemmed in by trees on all sides. Away from the prairie, I can’t always see where I’ve been and where I’m going. Working with children’s mental health is a lot like driving along those tree-lined country roads. Unless careful records are kept, it is difficult to see the differences between children’s lives today and the lives that children had twenty or thirty years ago. And it is just as difficult to see into the future. What

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will it matter, twenty years from now, if a child's second grade behavior plan is successful? The dilemma is that much of our work requires that we aim long – to shift children's trajectory so that things are better long into their futures – and we cannot always see those futures. To protect ourselves from the inevitable discouragement, we must do two things: We must keep careful records that track the impact of school mental health services; and we need to attend to and celebrate the small successes that ripple out from our services. I have several of my own mementos in my office: a letter from the grateful parent of a child with learning disabilities on the occasion of his high school graduation; a victorious painting

of a happy girl on a playground from a first grader who learned to play; some statues that were gifts from successful graduate students on the day that they were hooded. These aren't just mementos; they are the proof that something we did mattered.

Once, when I was about to purchase a particularly unflattering dress, my husband stopped me by explaining "Beige is not a color; it's a lifestyle." Service is a lot like that – it's a lifestyle and not simply a collection of a few generous actions sprinkled across a lifetime. I treasure school psychology's commitment to advocacy and I am committed to ensuring that our profession's service lifestyle remains 'flattering.' Ultimately, our own

professional efficacy must be protected so that we can continue to research the best school mental health practices, demonstrate the impact that we have on children's success, secure the commitment of our communities to work alongside us in protecting our children and youth.

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SENIOR SCIENTIST AWARD WINNER

Contextual Validity: Knowing What Works is Necessary, but not Sufficient

Christopher H. Skinner
The University of Tennessee



In the past, when I have been asked, invited, enticed, and/or cajoled into writing a paper or book chapter, it has usually been on a specific topic. Having the opportunity to write “anything I want” is a rather scary proposition, especially for readers. I would certainly understand if you stop reading now as I am not sure I have much new to say on this topic.

I have been trained by applied intervention researchers including Ed Shapiro, Ed Lentz, Bud Mace, Kirby Brown, Bob Suppa, Tim Turco, and Don Campbell. When I say applied research, I know I mean something very different than others. Regardless, I would like to thank those mentioned above for teaching me their version of applied intervention research as I have found it rewarding to compare and evaluate learning and behavior change procedures as I simultaneously a) train my graduate students in collaborative problem-solving, b) learn from public school teachers, c) improve students functioning, and d) learn from my graduate students. As an

applied researcher, my behaviors have been shaped by many people, the most important being the children I have worked with, either directly or indirectly. To paraphrase B.F. Skinner, when I find students not behaving “as they should,” I have learned a great deal.

While at Lehigh, I was introduced to *The Juniper Garden’s Project* and their outstanding *Classwide Peer-Tutoring* (CWPT) programs. I learned more than I’ll ever realize from studying this program. When developing CWPT, Greenwood and associates attempted to create programs that would (a) not create extra work for the classroom teacher, (b) benefit all students in the class, (c) use existing materials and resources, (d) enhance rather than replace current instruction, and (e) be carried out within existing instructional time (Delquadri, Greenwood, Whorton, Carta & Hall, 1986). These are the types of characteristics I want to describe in this paper as I attempt to provide some useful approaches to working with educators while conducting applied research.

Certificate Text:

Dr. Christopher Skinner has sustained a highly impressive record of programmatic research that has advanced the science and practice of school-based intervention for academic difficulties. Dr. Skinner and his students have conducted over 100 behavior change studies that examine effective interventions that ameliorate reading, mathematics, writing, and behavior problems. His efforts to merge strong methodological design with practicality and feasibility for school personnel are especially unique and serve as a model for the field. Dr. Skinner has made equally impressive contributions to theories, such as those addressing students’ academic choice behaviors. Given his prolific record of scholarship, it is no surprise that Dr. Skinner was recently cited as one of the most productive school psychology researchers over the past 15 years.



Stacey Overstreet (left) and President Shane Jimerson (right) present Chris Skinner with the Senior Scientist award

Below: Chris Skinner, Shane Jimerson, Vinny Alfonso, Karen Callan-Stoiber and Jessica Hoffman.



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Contextual Validity: Knowing What Works is Necessary, but not Sufficient**We need Three Validities**

I took a course from Don Campbell and learned about internal and external validity (Campbell & Stanely, 1966). With this paper, I focus on a third type of validity that I refer to as contextual validity. From a practitioner's perspective, evidence of internal validity gives the consumer (e.g., reader, listener, teacher) confidence that a particular strategy, procedure, or intervention caused behavior change in the study being described. Evidence of external validity suggests that the procedure may be effective across a variety of factors including settings, students, teachers, target behaviors, and contexts. While both are necessary, from a teacher's perspective neither are sufficient. If we expect teachers to apply the strategies, procedures, or interventions that we validate, we should also provide evidence that enhances their confidence that they can apply these procedures in their contexts or adapt them for application in their contexts (Blondin, Skinner, Parkhurst, Wood, & Snyder, 2012; Foster & Skinner, 2011; Skinner & Skinner, 2007).

When I started to think seriously about this construct, I came across many different terms designed to describe easily applied interventions including sustainable, efficient, effectiveness, acceptable, usable, feasible, transportable,

ecologically valid, and socially valid (Detrich, Keyworth, & States, 2007; Drake, Latimer, Leff, McHugo, & Burns, 2004; Shriver & Watson, 2005). I settled on context validity for several reasons. First, when I was trying to figure out what the word "context" meant, I re-read Ringeisen, Henderson, and Hoagwood's (2003) article on how context influences applied research. Also, when working with students with disabilities, professionals are encouraged and required to consider idiosyncratic factors when developing interventions and learning procedures. When discussing whether a teacher could apply a particular intervention, I did not want to focus on within-teacher variables (e.g., attitude, training). Far too many uninformed people already blame too many teachers for too many problems. However, there are numerous context-specific factors that may influence a teacher's ability to apply a learning or behavior change procedure or strategy. Thus, I wanted to focus my attention on characteristics of the procedures, not the teacher.

The reason I use the term validity is all learning and behavior- change researchers should consider these characteristics of their interventions, strategies, or procedures. As almost all applied intervention researchers who I admire already address issues related to internal and external validity, I thought

the term "context validity" would allow those inclined to address this third critical issue with the same breadth. Furthermore, I hope this term would encourage all of us in our efforts to control for threats to contextual validity. Our current focus on identifying and publishing what works is of little use to educators if they cannot implement what works.

Threats to Contextual Validity

When I got thinking about contextual validity, I found that it was easier to describe threats to contextual validity than it was to quantify and control for them. Thus, I will describe some broad (but not exhaustive) categories of threats to context validity. I have no doubt that I will leave some/many out and that others would parse them differently. The fact that I cannot identify all threats to contextual validity puts me in good company. Dr. Campbell told our class that he and others (Dr. Cook, I believe) had once parsed threats to internal validity so finely that they came up with over 100.

Threats to contextual validity are relative, unstable, difficult to quantify, and are not consistent across or within contexts. As I discuss the first threat, perceptions, I will try to bring these characteristics to light. Furthermore, as I describe these threats, I provide some experiential examples, which I hope will

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allow me to write this paper in more of an accessible conversational tone. Finally, threats to contextual validity are relative and are influenced by problem severity, degree and speed of change caused by the intervention, and the relative effectiveness and relative contextual validity of alternative procedures (Witt, Elliot, & Martens, 1985).

1. Perceptual Threats to Contextual Validity

I am aware of how perceptions affect a teacher's ability to apply interventions. I once delivered a workshop on group-oriented reinforcement programs to about 100 practicing educators, mostly support personnel. When I was finished, a practicing school psychologist raised his hand and indicated that while he agreed with me, he was having trouble getting other educators to consider applying these procedures because they had been taught that rewards ruin children. Now the final .5 hour of this workshop includes some advice on how to address these issues. Often applying different procedures (change) requires support from others including children, parents, administrators, educators, and peers. Whether perceptions are based on empirical support, popular press, philosophy, or faith, these perceptions matter.

Perceptions regarding learning and behavior change strategies are relative,

unstable, difficult to quantify, and are not consistent across or within contexts. Perception is relative. For example, while many educators are not in favor of applying punishment (e.g., remove access to recess) their opinions may change depending upon the behaviors being punished (fighting, versus making a spelling error) or characteristics of the child (Ray, Watson, & Skinner, 1995; Witt et al., 1985). Because so many variables influence perception, perception is unstable. For example, evidence suggests that if the same intervention is described using different terms, perceptions of the intervention will differ (Witt, Moe, Gutkin, & Andrews, 1984).

Interventions are clearly more acceptable in some contexts than others. For example, if a student has a history of misbehavior, developing a program where the teacher rewards the student for improved behavior can damage the social fabric of the classroom as peers who have been behaving well observe this student being reinforced. Alternatively, if you alter the context and use a home note program where the parents provide the reward at home, this problem may be resolved (Skinner, Skinner, & Burton, 2009). Finally, it is very difficult to measure and quantify perceptions. Although various researchers have developed measures designed to assess treatment acceptability, it is extremely difficult to apply one

measure across interventions.

2. Skills, Training, and Resources needed to Install and Maintain

This area has received much attention from researchers, policy makers, and those who train professionals. Put simply, interventions that require much specialized training, skills, or resources may be less contextually valid than interventions that are equally effective but require fewer specialized skills and fewer resources. In some instances, when interventions are not applied with integrity, applied intervention researchers may be better served by focusing their attention on altering their interventions, as opposed to focusing on the teachers. Everyone has strengths and weaknesses related to skills or abilities. Contextual validity concerns related to installing something are different from maintaining or sustaining. For example, training to do something is related to skill development, but one's ability to apply and maintain those learned behaviors is influenced by their perceptions, motivation, and the time, effort, and reinforcement for engaging in the new behavior relative to the time, effort, and reinforcement for engaging in competing behaviors.

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Contextual Validity: Knowing What Works is Necessary, but not Sufficient**3. Complexity Threats to Contextual Validity**

Resource-efficient procedures that require few specialized skills may not be contextually valid if the procedures have multiple components and involve multiple decisions that may require evaluation and interpretation. I remember feeling overwhelmed as I tried to decide every 10 min if each student in my class had followed each of a set of five rules and to what degree they followed these rules. This complex task could be made easier by reducing the number of times these judgments are made, the number of categories of behavior, and numerous other variables. Similarly, attempts at running a token economy or similar system that appears easy may appear easy, but many will find that such procedures are very complex.

One mistake made by people who develop complex interventions is they fail to consider that teachers already have so much to do, additional complex tasks (e.g., running a token economy is like setting up a small business) may not be feasible. Repeatedly, when my students and I have worked with teachers to discuss and select interventions, the teachers enthusiastically suggest and support applying numerous interventions simultaneously, as opposed to selecting one. A typical comment might be “let’s do all three!” Most teachers I have worked with are so serious about

helping struggling students that they will overcommit and attempt to apply complex, multi-component interventions. Most teachers’ eyes are bigger than their stomachs. Consequently, when they attempt to apply these multi-component, multi-step interventions, they may find themselves overwhelmed given all their other responsibilities. This issue can be seen as an adopt versus sustain problem. Most teachers will agree to and attempt to apply very complex interventions, but may find they have difficulty sustaining them. Consequently, during problem solving consultation, I train my students that one of their tasks may be to reel teachers in so that they do not overcommit.

4. Required Precision

Interventions that require high degrees of precision to be effective may not be contextually valid. Sometimes precision and complexity are correlated, but not always. Consider the class clown whose inappropriate behavior is maintained by attention. Extinction is a very simple intervention that is difficult to apply 100% of the time. Even great teachers who try their hardest are likely to occasionally chuckle at the class clown’s antics (Skinner et al., 2002). Occasionally failing to ignore the class clown may result in thinning the schedule of reinforcement, which can maintain behavior. Consequently, extinction,

a simple procedure that may require precise application, is often combined with reinforcement and applied using differential reinforcement of incompatible behaviors, other behaviors, or lower rates of the target behavior. There are several reasons why I like this example. First, by acknowledging the difficulty with applying extinction in context, as opposed to blaming teachers for being poor ignorers, we encourage researchers to focus on adapting procedures to fit the context. Second, this process of adapting or altering procedures to fit context is evolutionary and can result in entirely new strategies and procedures (Skinner, McCleary, Poncy, Cates, & Skolits, in press). Third, while there has been much focus on getting teachers to apply interventions with integrity, this example shifts the focus and suggests that perhaps we should consider developing and adopting interventions that are effective even when not applied with perfect integrity. Classrooms are vibrant, complex, unpredictable, and unstable (learning = change, not stability) that often do not lend themselves to precise work.

5. Consistent and Compatible with Law, Ethics, Standards, Policies, and Trends

These concerns seem obvious when we discuss laws, professional ethics, and school policies. Also, we must remain

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vigilant and guard against rules of thumb, current trends, or mass assumptions. For example, we have just finished working with two teachers to develop and apply sight-word reading strategies. Although these teachers work over 40 miles from one another and do not know one another, each expressed frustration that the broad based acceptance of phonemic-based instruction made it difficult for them to try alternative approaches. My students and I had similar experiences as we tried to develop automatic responding to basic math facts. Even teachers who thought this was a good idea were concerned that others would find fault with their “drill and kill” approach.

6. Negative Side Effects

Most often when I think of negative side effects, I have focused on the child who received the intervention or treatment. For example, punishment may teach the child to avoid school altogether. Additionally, when teaching strategies and procedures, we have to concern ourselves with multiple-treatment interference. For example, teaching counting procedure for solving addition problems may enhance accuracy, while also making it difficult to develop automaticity (Ysseldyke, Thill, Pohl, & Bolt, 2005).

It is beyond the scope of this paper to describe all of the possible negative side effects, but I urge researchers

to consider contextual side effects. Providing reinforcement to a child for not misbehaving may be effective, but it can have a detrimental effect on peers who are not rewarded for “behaving as they’re supposed to.” Establishing one set of contingencies and applying them exactly the same to each student (independent group-oriented contingencies) may encourage those students with well developed skills to complete tasks but prove ineffective in encouraging those with weaker skills who must expend much more time and energy to meet criterion for receiving reinforcement (Friman & Poling, 1995; Skinner & McCleary, 2010). Yet, in many instances, when teachers make exceptions to treating everyone the same, people (parents, classmates, administrators) consider it unfair (Skinner, Williams, & Neddenriep, 2004).

The human body is complex; consequently, applying procedures designed to treat something may have difficult-to-anticipate negative and positive side effects. Classrooms are complex social settings and applying new procedures (change) may have unanticipated positive and negative side effects. While medical trials emphasize the assessment of such side effects, educational researchers have placed less emphasis on measuring and understanding these effects. It is critical that we work with teachers to attempt to identify

and mitigate negative side effects and strengthen positive side effects as we develop our remedial and intervention procedures.

7. Temporal Threats to Context Validity

Teacher time is at a premium. Interventions that require more teacher time generally have less contextual validity (Witt et al., 1985). However, it is not merely the amount of time that matters, schedules also matter. For example, on my internship I got a referral and wanted to pull a group of high school teachers together to determine if any of them had any insights regarding a particular student’s problems. All were willing to devote the time to this group problem-solving effort, but finding a time when they could all meet, even for 10 minutes, was impossible. We could not meet after school because the majority of them either had second jobs or after school assignments (e.g., coaching and clubs). As an aside, we eventually got most of them together and two other teachers also were experiencing similar problems which they successfully remedied using two different procedures. Thus, the teachers left the room with two proven and efficient strategies and the total time spent on the process was less than 5 minutes. Of course, additional time

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was spent as the teachers chatted about other professional and personal stuff, which made me realize how little time teachers get to spend together.

For several reasons, additional student time required for a strategy, procedure, or intervention may be an even bigger concern. Like teachers, students have very busy schedules and finding the extra time for remedial activities is challenging. I have written about my concerns with re-allocating time from recess (where social skills are learned), physical education (obesity), art, and music (Skinner, 2008; Skinner, 2010). Additionally, more effective classroom management procedures, in particular transition procedures, can free up more time for learning, particularly in elementary classrooms (Fudge et al., 2008). Regardless, a recent conversation with an earlier adopter of response to intervention (RtI) caused me serious concerns regarding our process of re-allocating time to apply remedial procedures. He indicated that his district started with reading and after a few years of getting their model in place at all their schools, they added math. They found a group of students who would move back and forth across RtI remedial service, typically 30 minutes per day, four days per week. When reading was improved, they needed additional service and time for math; after math improved they found the

students once again needed remedial help with reading.

8. Adaptability

Because interventions must be applied in context, the ability to adapt them is critical to installation and maintenance. One of my former students, Dr. Gary L. Cates, has discussed with me the importance of tweaking. Interventions that are easily adjusted or altered to fit different contexts (e.g., those with fewer resources), but still retain their effectiveness, have much more contextual validity. Additionally, when conducting problem-solving consultation or remediation, the process of tweaking often allows educators to have significant input into intervention development, which almost always improves our interventions. Furthermore, as discussed earlier, tweaking is evolutionary, causing very specific procedures to evolve into new strategies and procedures as they are re-applied in slightly different forms to fit different contexts (Skinner et al, in press).

9. Interactions

Again borrowing from Campbell and Stanley (1966), I will conclude with interaction effects. Earlier I gave an example of a simple intervention whose context validity was questionable because it had to be implemented with high

precision. The opposite is also true; an intervention may be very complex but still have strong context validity when high levels of precision are not necessary. For example, we ran numerous applied studies evaluating a classroom management procedure, The Color Wheel System, which was developed by Drs. Gina Scale, Deb Dendas, and Edward Lentz (Skinner, Scala, Dendas, & Lentz, 2007). Although we conducted numerous studies that provided evidence for the procedure's contextual validity, we became very frustrated when a review informed us that he/she did not believe the procedure worked when it was not implemented with high levels of integrity. Yet, our research showed it did. While many have worked on procedures designed to enhance integrity, I would encourage more focus on developing and validating interventions that work well even when they are not applied with integrity.

Concluding Comments Regarding Applied Intervention Research

I have made many mistakes as I have conducted applied intervention research. These mistakes have reinforced the idea that how you do something is as important as what you do. Teachers are smart, busy people and they do not need you to make them any smarter or any busier. Most teachers really enjoy theories, but when

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you are there to help address a presenting problem, it may not be the best time to provide tangential information on nuanced intricacies of theories.

I have now worked at three major land grant universities, and we university folks have to stop soiling our sand box. Many educators are reluctant to work with folks from the university because in the past their approach was - “hi my name is Dr. _____ and I am here to tell what is wrong or what you are doing wrong and how to fix it.” Much of our applied research (my students and I) involves partnering with educators from the very beginning, letting them identify the problems or target behaviors. While this reactive, unplanned, applied research has limitations, it does have a place and has forced me to focus on contextually valid interventions (Skinner et al., in press).

We have reviewed the literature in school psychology; we have found few studies evaluating interventions (Bliss, Skinner, Hautau, & Carroll, 2008) and few papers authored by practitioners (Carroll, Skinner, McCleary, Hautau von Mizner, & Bliss, 2009). Most of the professional educators we have partnered with have indicated that they do not care if they are co-authors of studies. Yet, in most instances, the publication of their articles really excites them. I strongly recommend that you make practitioners partners in all aspects of your research and share the

credit. I have always found that I have less trouble coming up with ideas when you work directly with people charged with changing behavior (i.e., teachers).

If we want practitioners to apply empirically validate our strategies, procedures, and interventions, we must develop, implement, and evaluate contextually valid interventions. However, the process of establishing an intervention’s contextual validity is a lot like establishing its external validity. It requires replication studies. Thus, I want to commend some for their efforts to disseminate (e.g., publish) applied intervention replication studies and encourage others interested in this type of research to consider actually making efforts to publish such work.

Not What Works, but What Works Best

We are very concerned with establishing *WHAT WORKS*. Assuming an educator can apply two different, empirically-validated interventions and have equivalent levels of contextual validity; to select which intervention to apply to educators will need to know what works best. Some have used effect size and similar calculations to make cross-study comparisons of treatments to determine what works best. These studies disturb me for numerous reasons—the

biggest being that other variables are not held constant across studies. Thus, my final plea will be for more researchers to focus on conducting comparative effectiveness studies that allow educators to determine what works best. These studies will require that educators measure both the amount of learning and the amount of time spent learning (Skinner, 2008; Skinner, 2010; Skinner, Belfiore, & Watson, 1995/2002).

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Authors Notes

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LIGHTNER WITMER AWARD WINNER

Borrowing from Related Fields to Advance Intervention Implementation in Education

Lisa M. Hagermoser Sanetti
University of Connecticut



Borrowing from Related
Fields to Advance Intervention
Implementation in Education

**I not only use all the brains
I have, but all that I can
borrow.**

– Woodrow Wilson

At this point in time, it is fairly widely accepted that evidence-based interventions (EBIs) should be prioritized for implementation in schools (American Psychological Association, 2005; Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 2004, No Child Left Behind Act of 2001). Yet, these EBIs aren't likely to have their intended effect unless they are implemented as planned. Research results consistently indicate that we can't assume EBIs will be implemented as planned without systematic, on-going support (Gresham, 1989; Sanetti & Kratochwill, 2009). Unfortunately, we have largely assumed adequate levels of intervention

implementation, and as a result, the field of education is considerably farther behind in our sophistication with regard to our understanding of how to efficiently and effectively support EBI implementation than other service-oriented fields (e.g., medicine, health psychology) (Sanetti & Kratochwill, 2009). The purpose of this paper is to highlight how we can advance our understanding of intervention implementation in education by considering behavior change theory and research from related fields. To this end, I (a) review advances related to implementation processes in education based on behavioral theory; (b) discuss the Health Action Process Approach (Schwarzer, 1992), an empirically supported theory of adult behavior change from health psychology; and (c) provide an example of how this "borrowed" theory may provide additional advances in understanding implementation processes in education.

Certificate Text:

Dr. Lisa Sanetti's outstanding research program focuses on treatment integrity of intervention implementation, including the assessment of treatment integrity as well as strategies to promote treatment integrity among educators. Given the impact that consultation can have on changing teacher behavior, a critical arena has been the development of strategies to support the implementation of interventions by teacher consultees. She approaches this set of issues from multiple perspectives, combining a practitioner's sensitivity to the difficulties and a researcher's perspective on quality methodology. The quality of her work has been recognized by prestigious organizations, institutions, and funding sources.



President Shane Jimerson (left) and Stacey Overstreet (right) present Lisa Hagermoser Sanetti with the Lightner Witmer award

Below: Lisa Hagermoser Sanetti, Shane Jimerson, Vinny Alfonso, Karen Callan-Stoiber and Jessica Hoffman.



Borrowing from Related Fields to Advance Intervention Implementation in Education

Behavioral Theory

Two of the most widely researched and cited strategies for supporting intervention implementation are performance feedback and direct training with on-going support (Sanetti & Kratochwill, 2009). Generally, performance feedback is any information that is provided to an implementer about the quantity or quality of their intervention behavior that provides information about how well they are doing (Noell, 2011). Typically, researchers have provided implementers with graphed intervention plan adherence data on a regular (i.e., daily, weekly) or response-dependent (i.e., only when implementation decreased below an acceptable level) basis (Noell & Gansle, in press). Research results consistently have demonstrated performance feedback as an effective strategy to increase teachers' intervention implementation (Noell, 2011); a recent meta-analysis further supports the effectiveness of this approach (Solomon, Klein, & Politylo, 2012). Direct training, which includes modeling, behavioral rehearsal, and performance feedback can lead to an intervention being implemented with a high level of treatment integrity (Sterling-Turner, Watson, & Moore, 2002), however on-going support (e.g., coaching), is typically necessary to maintain intervention implementation (Joyce & Showers, 2002).

Given their basis in behavioral theory, it is to be expected that evaluations of both of these strategies focus on observable intervention behaviors and social validity (e.g., acceptability of intervention). Skill proficiency, however, is only one of the many interventionist-level factors that are hypothesized to influence intervention implementation (Sanetti & Kratochwill, 2009). All of the other interventionist-level factors are cognitive in nature (see Table 1). This suggests that theories of behavior change that include a wider range of behavior determinants may be useful in developing strategies to promote intervention implementation.

Health Action Process Approach (HAPA)

The HAPA is an empirically supported theory of adult behavior change developed in the health psychology field (Schwarzer, 1992). There is extensive empirical support for the HAPA across a wide variety of health-related behaviors (e.g., breast cancer screening, exercise, diet modification; see Schwarzer et al., 2008 for a review). The HAPA is unique in that it predicts not only one's intention to change their behavior (motivational stage), but also one's ability to initiate and maintain the new behavior across time (volitional stage). According to the HAPA (see top of Figure 1), in the motivational phase, one's intention to change their behavior is

directly influenced by one's (a) perception of a problem, or the belief that there is a problem to be addressed; (b) outcome expectations, or the belief that behavior change will have positive outcomes; and (c) action self-efficacy, or the confidence in their ability to perform the new behaviors. Once someone has an intention to change their behavior, the volitional phase begins. The HAPA posits that (a) action planning, or detailed logistical planning of behavior change (e.g., when, where, how long); and (b) coping planning, identifying likely barriers to behavior change and strategies to address those barriers, are critical to bridging the gap between behavioral intention and implementation. Once the new behavior is demonstrated, the HAPA posits that (a) maintenance self-efficacy, or confidence in one's ability to continue the behavior across time; and (b) recovery self-efficacy, or confidence in one's ability to re-start the behavior after a lapse, are critical to sustaining behavior change.

Translation of the HAPA to Education

The considerable empirical support for the HAPA, combined with the fact that it addresses the interventionist-level factors believed to influence intervention implementation (see Table 1), led to the development of Planning Realistic Intervention Implementation and Maintenance by Educators (PRIME;

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Borrowing from Related Fields to Advance Intervention Implementation in Education**Table 1.**
Interventionist-level factors hypothesized to influence intervention implementation across HAPA and PRIME models

Interventionist-level factor	Components of HAPA and PRIME				
	Perception of a Problem	Outcome Expectations	Self-Efficacy	Action & Coping Planning	Direct Training ^a
Perceived Need for the Intervention	X				
Motivation to Implement the Intervention	X				
Perceived Effectiveness of the Intervention		X			
Willingness to Try the Intervention	X	X			
Perceptions of Role Compatibility	X	X	X		
Perceptions of Relative Advantage		X			
Self-Efficacy			X		
Shared Decision Making				X	
Perceptions of the Intervention Recipient	X	X	X		
Skill Proficiency					X

Note: HAPA= Health Action Process Approach, PRIME= Planning Realistic Intervention Implementation and Maintenance by Educators

^a Direct training is not explicitly addressed in HAPA, but is included in PRIME.

see www.primeimplementation.com for more information). PRIME is a simple, feasible system of supports for adapting interventions to fit the implementation context, planning logistics of implementation, and identifying and addressing barriers to implementation. Through this Institute of Education Sciences-funded grant project, we have (a)

translated the HAPA model to education, (b) developed educator-friendly materials and a psychometrically sound measure to implement PRIME, and (c) conducted initial evaluations of PRIME components (see Sanetti, Kratochwill, & Long, in press for more detailed description); a second round of evaluations is on-going. In translating the HAPA to develop PRIME,

we integrated the HAPA factors within a problem-solving process aligned with best practices in designing and implementing interventions (see bottom of Figure 1; Upah, 2008).

More specifically, in the PRIME model, once an EBI is selected, the educator completes Implementation Planning, which is a structured process for (a) identifying all of the intervention steps (facilitates clarity on behavioral expectations), (b) making minor

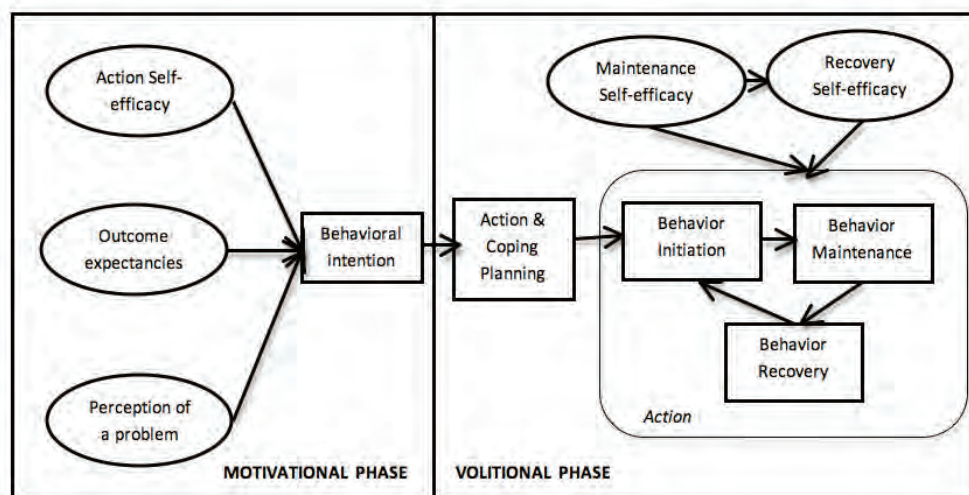
adaptations to intervention steps to better align with the implementation context (facilitates buy-in and controlled, documented adaptation of the intervention), (c) answering logistical questions regarding implementation of each intervention step (i.e., when, how often, for how long, where, resources

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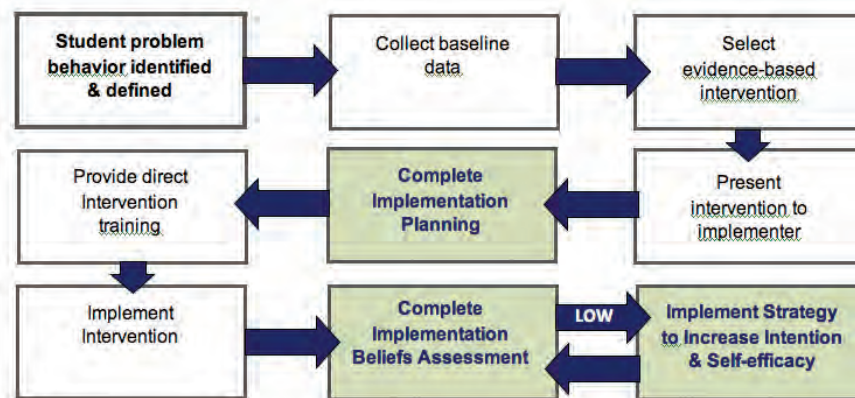
Borrowing from Related Fields to Advance Intervention Implementation in Education

Figure 1.
The Health Action Process Approach and PRIME Models

Health Action Process Approach Model



PRIME Model



needed), (d) identifying up to four potential barriers to implementation and (e) developing strategies to maintain implementation when faced with each barrier. In initial evaluations, teachers' adherence levels increased and were sustained at two-month follow up after completing implementation planning collaboratively with a consultant (Sanetti et al., in press). Evaluations of a computer-based protocol that can be independently completed by implementers are underway. After implementation planning, direct training is provided (facilitating intervention skill development). With a complete understanding of the requirements of intervention implementation, implementers complete an Implementation Beliefs Assessment (scale?) (Sanetti, Long, Neugebauer, & Kratochwill, 2012), which provides data on their behavioral intentions and sustainability self-efficacy. For those whose scores on the IBA indicate a need for further support, a host of empirically supported strategies (e.g., participant modeling), detailed in "strategy guides," are available for consultants or coaches to use.

Certainly, the HAPA is only one of many potential theories or adult behavior change that could be adapted for use in the education context. Considerably more research is needed, much of which is on-going, to further support

the components of PRIME. However, the PRIME model and initial empirical support provides a valuable example of how theories and research in related fields can facilitate a more comprehensive approach to addressing the numerous interventionist-level factors that may influence implementation. Paying attention to and selectively borrowing from implementation science as a field as well as implementation advances in related human services fields may be the most efficient method for rapidly advancing the sophistication with which educators actively address, rather than assume, implementation processes in the field of education.

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OUTSTANDING DISSERTATION AWARD WINNER

The Need for Consideration of Functional Assessment Data to Inform Tier Two Decisions

Stephen P. Kilgus
East Carolina University



The Need for Consideration of Functional Assessment Data to Inform Tier Two Decisions

Within common multi-tiered frameworks of behavioral service delivery (e.g., positive behavior interventions and supports), the purpose of Tier 2 targeted supports is to provide increased structure and feedback to students for whom universal systems and practices are insufficient in preventing problem behavior (Filter, McKenna, Benedict, & Horner, 2007). Tier 2 behavioral supports are likely to be appropriate for students displaying behavior that is disruptive to their own or others' learning (Anderson & Borgmeier, 2010). They are not likely to effectively address dangerous or intense behavior, which will normally require application of individualized Tier 3 supports capable of quickly minimizing harm. The strength of a Tier 2 intervention is predicated upon

its effectiveness, as well as its possession of multiple critical features related to its adoption, sustainability, and fidelity of implementation. Various authors have proposed lists of these features (e.g., Anderson & Borgmeier, 2009; Hawken, Adolphson, MacLeod, & Schumann, 2009; McIntosh, Campbell, Carter, & Dickey, 2009), each of which may be placed into one of three broad feature categories.

First, it is desirable that Tier 2 interventions be *general*, in that they should be a standardized protocol, suitable for simultaneous use across multiple students and settings without need for much adaptation (Campbell & Anderson, 2011; Hawken et al., 2009; March & Horner, 2002; McIntosh et al., 2009). Second, sustainable Tier 2 supports should be *efficient*. Efficiency may be considered a multi-faceted concept. For instance, an efficient Tier 2 intervention is cost effective, in that its implementation requires relatively minimal resources available to educators

Certificate Text:

Dr. Kilgus' dissertation entitled "Diagnostic Accuracy of Direct Behavior Rating as a Screener of Elementary School Students", reports the results of an investigation of the diagnostic accuracy and concurrent validity of the Direct Behavior Rating Single Item Scale (DBR-SIS) as a universal behavior screening instrument. The work conducted by Dr. Kilgus involved the integration of an applied study with advanced quantitative methodology. He recruited classroom teachers and then used receiver operating characteristic curve (ROC) curve analyses to identify cut scores on each DBR scales as well as the use of multiple DBR-SIS to improve accuracy. His findings have important implications for the advancement of behavior screening measures used to identify at-risk students in schools. Dr. Kilgus completed his work in School Psychology at the University of Connecticut with his academic advisor, Dr. Sandra M. Chafouleas.

at no or low cost (Anderson & Borgmeier, 2010). It is also minimally disruptive to the instructional ecology, requiring little advanced assessment, teacher training, and interventionist time and effort (Filter et al., 2007; McIntosh et al., 2009).

Finally, a sustainable Tier 2 intervention should also be an *effective* means by which to decrease disruptive non-dangerous behavior, and increase prosocial behavior and academic engagement (Sugai & Horner, 2006). Research supports the effectiveness of several comprehensive Tier 2 supports,

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including check-in/check-out (CICO; Campbell & Anderson, 2008; Fairbanks, Sugai, Guardino, & Lathrop, 2007; Hawken, MacLeod, & Rawlings, 2007; Hawken & Horner, 2003; McIntosh et al., 2009; March & Horner, 2002), and First Step to Success (Golly, Sprague, Walker, Beard, & Gorham, 2000; Walker, Golly, McLane, & Kimmich, 2005). As it is common for schools to only adopt one or two standardized Tier 2 interventions (Sanetti & Simonsen, 2011), it is necessary that these strategies be effective for a diverse sample of students unresponsive to universal supports. For example, a system of one or two Tier 2 supports (e.g., CICO and social skills instruction) should support students of various ages and backgrounds evidencing a range of problematic behaviors across numerous settings. With that said, it is acknowledged that Tier 2 interventions will not be successful for all students, including those displaying highly problematic behavior. Recognition of this inevitably establishes the need for schools to adopt systems that support the creation of individualized behavior support plans at Tier 3. In contrast, Tier 2 supports should be successful for students displaying non-intense problem behavior, regardless of the function of that behavior. That is, it could be argued that it is unacceptable for the effectiveness of a school's collective system of Tier 2 supports to be moderated by the function of behavior. If a school

has adopted two Tier 2 interventions, it is required that together both interventions address behavior maintained by each of the four common functions. Additional information regarding this requirement is presented below.

Function as a Moderator

A fundamental tenet of behaviorism is that all behavior is functional, and is therefore maintained by the consequences that follow it, including access to attention (from peers and adults), access to tangibles and activities, escape from aversive stimuli, and sensory stimulation. It is hypothesized that each behavior a student displays is an attempt to access one or more of these consequences. As such, manipulating how and when these consequences are provided may provide a means to decrease problem behavior and increase appropriate replacement behavior. Such approaches, which have been broadly referred to as function-based interventions, have repeatedly shown to be superior to non-function-based alternatives (Filter & Horner, 2009), wherein no attention is paid to whether the manipulated contingencies were those that maintained problem behavior and suppressed appropriate behavior. Although research indicative of the superiority of function-based interventions is plentiful at Tier 3, less empirical evidence has been collected at

Tier 2. Yet, a recent line of studies has documented the influence of function on Tier 2 intervention effectiveness. For example, March and Horner (2002) found that although CICO was effective for 80.0% and 62.5% of students whose behavior was maintained by adult and peer attention, respectively, yet it was effective for only 27.3% of students with behavior maintained by escape from academic demands. Through multivariate analysis, McIntosh et al. (2009) identified a statistically significant interaction between function and CICO. Although application of the intervention resulted in statistically significant improvements in prosocial behavior, problem behavior, and office discipline referrals for students displaying attention-maintained behavior, no such improvements were noted for students with escape-maintained behavior.

Similar findings have been documented across several other investigations, thus supporting the moderating influence of function on the effectiveness of multiple Tier 2 interventions (Campbell & Anderson, 2011; Carter & Horner, 2007, 2009; Hawken, O'Neill, & MacLeod, 2011; Lane, Capizzi, Fisher, & Parks Ennis, 2012). Although results have varied, a relatively consistent finding pertains to the limited influence of these interventions on escape-maintained behavior. Recognition of this limitation has resulted in a series of studies, which

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have indicated that both CICO and First Step to Success effectively remediated escape-maintained behavior when supplemented by functionally relevant strategies (Campbell & Anderson, 2008; Carter & Horner, 2007, 2009; Fairbanks et al., 2007; March & Horner, 2002).

Function-based Interventions

At first glance, results of these studies appear to support the foundation of the three-tier model, with Tier 2 interventions being insufficient for some students, thus requiring schools to implement individualized and intensive Tier 3 function-based supports to support them. Yet, the reader is cautioned against such a simplistic interpretation. As is commonly known, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act's (2004) requires schools to provide each student with a disability an education in the least restrictive environment (LRE). It could reasonably be argued that this requirement extends to all operations within a multi-tiered framework. Specifically, it is desirable that all students, regardless of disability status, should receive the least intensive and restrictive, yet still effective supports. When appropriate, it is preferable to provide at-risk students with Tier 2 supports, as Tier 3 supports (whether provided through general or special education services) are likely

to be more restrictive, costly, and time-consuming. If data suggest a Tier 2 intervention is ineffective, educators should first document that the intervention was relevant to the function of the student's behavior. If the intervention was not functionally relevant, it could be argued that the educators have not made a sufficient attempt to provide the student with appropriate supports in the LRE. A defensible course of action would therefore be to attempt an alternative Tier 2 intervention prior to consideration of Tier 3 supports. An even more defensible approach would have been to assess the function of the student's problem behavior in advance of intervention implementation, and to use this information in assigning the student to functionally relevant Tier 2 supports. Such assessment procedures are necessary to fulfill the promise of multi-tiered frameworks as service delivery models supporting the rapid application of evidence-based interventions matched to student needs.

In sum, although it is considered acceptable for a school's system of Tier 2 interventions to not necessarily support students displaying highly intense behaviors, it is considered unacceptable for this system to not support students displaying non-intense behaviors because said behaviors are maintained by certain functions. Rather than being referred for more intensive and restrictive supports,

this latter group of students should be provided with interventions relevant to the function of their problem behavior at Tier 2. Unfortunately, the ability to do so is limited by the absence of research regarding (a) efficient and technically adequate functional assessment procedures, and (b) Tier 2 interventions relevant to escape-maintained behavior.

Implications for Practitioners

Overall, it is clear functional assessment data is needed to support Tier 2 practices (Hawken et al., 2007, 2011). Yet, the direct methods and procedures that comprise fully scaled functional behavior assessments tend to be costly in terms of required time and effort. As such, it is recommended that educators support Tier 2 through the use of more indirect and efficient functional assessment methods that require less behavioral expertise, including rating scales, checklists, and interviews (Hawken et al., 2008, 2011). Several of such methods have been examined within the literature, including the Motivation Assessment Scale (MAS; Durand & Crimmins, 1988), Functional Assessment Checklist: Teachers and Staff (FACTS; March et al., 2000), and Functional Analysis Screening Tool (FAST; Iwata & DeLeon, 1995). Unfortunately, the evidence supporting these methods is largely disappointing (McIntosh, Borgmeier, et al., 2008; Zaja,

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Moore, van Ingen, & Rojahn, 2011). Yet, the FACTS tool has a history of use at Tier 2 and is supported by the strongest psychometric evidence of the available options (McIntosh, Borgmeier, et al., 2008). Its use may therefore be considered defensible when informing low stakes decisions, such as Tier 2 intervention assignment. Future research is necessary to further investigate FACTS technical adequacy, and to support development of alternative functional assessment methods that may offer increased technical adequacy and efficiency.

It is also recommended that practitioners be prepared to supplement standardized Tier 2 supports (e.g., CICO), as necessary, for students demonstrating escape-maintained behavior. Specifically, practitioners should consider incorporating one or more efficient evidence-based and functionally relevant strategies known to either reduce the likelihood of escape-maintained problem behavior (e.g., curriculum revision, task modification) or increase the likelihood of future appropriate replacement behavior (e.g., break cards, momentary breaks; Lane et al., 2012; McIntosh, Brown, & Borgmeier, 2008; McIntosh et al., 2009). (Please see Geiger et al. (2010) for additional information regarding escape-maintained interventions.) Future research is necessary to examine whether such interventions may be

formally incorporated into standardized Tier 2 protocols, thus eliminating the need for the idiosyncratic provision of supplementary function-based supports (Fairbanks et al., 2007), and enhancing the overall efficiency and generality of Tier 2 procedures.

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FUTURES CONFERENCE

The 2012 School Psychology Futures Conference: Accomplishments and Next Steps

Susan Jamruz-Smith, Patti L. Harrison, and Jack A. Cummings

The major national and international school psychology organizations hosted the 2012 School Psychology Futures Conference during the fall of 2012. The conference was designed to provide an opportunity for school psychologists to plan their future roles in better supporting children, families, and schools. The 2012 conference, titled “School Psychology: Creating Our Future(s),” encompassed three broad themes: Leadership, Critical Skills, and Advocacy by School Psychologists. The online conference facilitated local, national, and international connections, with the goal of developing long lasting collaborations for implementing strategies for the future. By encouraging groups and individuals worldwide to examine the unique aspects of their local contexts, the distributed nature of the conference was designed to promote networking and sustainable action plans.

The mission of the 2012 School Psychology Futures Conference was to

join school psychologists together to ensure children’s future academic success and mental health through the promotion of leadership, critical skills, and advocacy by school psychologists. Assuming the future of school psychology will be defined by how school psychologists collaborate at all levels, the conference engaged school psychologists at the local, regional, national and international levels to ponder issues and next steps. The Futures Conference was organized to encourage wide-spread grassroots participation, rather than a stand-alone, face-to-face meeting in which a small group of representatives got together to debate and plan the future.

Futures Conference Webinars

The 2012 School Psychology Futures Conference included a series of presentations and panel presentations across several weeks. Live webinars on October 8, October 26, and November 10, 2012 created opportunities for worldwide

participation and collaboration, including attendance by groups of participants at distributed sites and by individual participants through their own laptops, desktops, or mobile devices. All webinars are archived for later viewing by individuals and groups.

Preregistration

We asked individuals and group host sites to pre-register in advance if they were going to attend either live or archived sessions for the three conference webinars. For groups, we asked them to estimate the number of people who would attend at their group host sites. Table 1 summarizes conference pre-registration.

Live Webinar Attendance

See Table 1 for numbers of individual participants and groups that viewed the live conference webinars. In Table 1, the group sites are identified by whether they were hosted by a university program or at a practitioner setting. The

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session scheduled for Monday October 8 attracted the most individual and group participation, while the Saturday, November 10 session drew significantly fewer.

Archived Webinars

All webinar sessions are archived for viewing by groups or individuals, and many already have used the archived

webinars. If you were not able to view the live sessions, we encourage you to take advantage of the archived webinars at the Futures Conference website (www.indiana.edu/~futures). Each session is 90 minutes in length and includes keynote, featured, and panel presentations. Presentations available in archived conference webinars are listed in Table 2.

We hope the conference webinars

will serve as a stimulus for collaborative endeavors aimed at planning for the future of school psychology. The archived webinars may be used by individuals from their home or work computers, as well as groups. For example, groups of school psychology practitioners in school districts, students and faculty in graduate programs, joint practitioner and graduate program groups, intern cohorts in school districts, state or local school psychology associations, etc., will benefit from viewing the archived webinars and holding problem-solving sessions to analyze issues in their settings and plan the future of school psychology within the local context.

To facilitate your efforts in planning for school psychology's future, we have collected multiple resources at the Futures Conference website, including background readings, webinar presentation slides, weblinks, and the Futures Conference Action Planning Handbooks.

Action Planning: Next Steps

We can't stop after attending the webinars...to build the future of school psychology, we need to work together to develop a plan! To support this work, the Futures Planning Committee defined the Futures Development Model (see Figure 1) using common components within systems change. The model encapsulates a series of problem-solving stages that guide

Table 1:
Pre-Registrations and Live Attendance for the 2012 School Psychology Futures Conference Webinars

Type of Attendance	Pre-Registrations for Live Attendance At Webinars	Live and Archived Webinars
Individuals	580	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leadership Theme, October 8, 2012: 181 • Critical Skills Theme, October 26, 2012: 111 • Advocacy Theme, November 10, 2012: 66
Group Sites	140	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leadership Theme, October 8, 2012: 56 (43 University, 13 Practitioner) • Critical Skills Theme, October 26, 2012: 46 (34 University, 12 Practitioner) • Advocacy Theme, November 10, 2012: 15 (9 University, 6 Practitioner)
Estimated Group Attendees at Pre-Registration	3,753	Actual live attendance at group sites was not tracked
Total Estimated Attendees for Pre-Registration	4,333	

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The Need for Consideration of Functional Assessment Data to Inform Tier Two Decisions**Table 2: Archived Webinars for the 2012 School Psychology Futures Conference Webinars****Leadership by School Psychologists**

Keynote Speaker:	Robert Horner, Professor of Special Education at the University of Oregon Title: Leadership by School Psychologists: Three Influential Themes
Featured Speaker:	Jane Close Conoley, Dean and Professor of Counseling, Clinical and School Psychology, Gevirtz Graduate School of Education, University of California-Santa Barbara Title: The Process and Content of Leadership for School-based Psychology
Panel Presenters:	Rhonda Armistead, Lead School Psychologist, Charlotte- Mecklenburg Schools, North Carolina Title: Parent Clinics: Appointments that Make a Difference Brenda Kabler, Coordinator of Psychological Services, Upper Darby School District, Pennsylvania Title: Seize the Opportunity to Become an Educational Leader Thomas Knight, School Psychologist, McKeesport Area School District, Pennsylvania Title: Building an RTII Process from the Ground Up

Critical Skills of School Psychologists

Keynote Speaker:	Roger P. Weissberg, NoVo Foundation Endowed Chair in Social and Emotional Learning and LAS Distinguished Professor of Psychology & Education, University of Illinois at Chicago; President and CEO of the Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL) Title: Academic, Social and Emotional Learning: A Vision for Education
Featured Speaker:	Beth Doll, Professor, School Psychology Program, University of Nebraska-Lincoln Title: Making Schools Where Children Thrive
Panel Presenters:	Jürg Forster, Director of School Psychology Services of Zurich, Switzerland Title: Involving Parents Clifford V. Hatt, Administrative Coordinator, Psychological Services, Virginia Beach City Public Schools, Virginia Title: Implementing Social/Emotional Learning Strategies in a School-based Mental Health Program Misty Lay, School Psychologist, Bullitt County Public Schools, Kentucky Title: Building Capacity to Promote Student Success through Consultation and Collaboration

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Table 2: Archived Webinars for the 2012 School Psychology Futures Conference Webinars (continued)

Advocacy by School Psychologists

Keynote Speaker:

John E. Lochman, Professor and Doddridge Saxon Chairholder in Clinical Psychology,
Psychology Department, The University of Alabama
Title: ***Advocacy by School Psychologists: A Focus on Evidence-based Practices***

Featured Speakers:

Howard Adelman, Professor of Psychology and Co-Director of the School Mental Health Project and
National Center for Mental Health in Schools, University of California-Los Angeles and Linda Taylor, Co-Director of the
School Mental Health Project and National Center for Mental Health in Schools, University of California-Los Angeles
Title: ***Four Systemic Concerns that will Shape the Futures of School Psychology***

Panel Presenters:

Elizabeth A'Vant, School Psychologist, Providence Public School District, Rhode Island
Title: ***Initiating School Climate Improvement in an Urban District***

Katie Ecklund, Assistant Professor, School Psychology Program, University of Arizona
Title: ***What Happened to My Test Kit?***
One School Psychologist's Experience in Utilizing 10 Domains of Practice

John Kelly, School Psychologist, Commack School District, New York
Title: ***Advocating for the Inclusion of Students with Special Needs in Inter-scholastic Sports***

participants through a process of action planning and is implemented through the completion of the Action Planning Handbooks. There is a handbook for each of the three conference themes. The action planning activities and worksheets in the handbooks supplement the online conference webinars to support and promote sustainable change.

Groups and individuals viewing either the lived or archived sessions are encouraged to use the Futures' Action Planning Handbooks to create futures for children, families and schools. Main

activities in the handbook are:

1. **Reflect Critically about the Theme's Description.** Review and revise the conference theme's (leadership, critical skills, and advocacy) description for your context.
2. **Identify Strengths, Challenges, Opportunities, and Resources.** In this stage, you will assess variables in your context that can support (or create barriers) to designing the future of school psychology. Strengths may help to support and promote advocacy, leadership, or critical skills while

challenges may act as barriers to your efforts. Resources and opportunities may provide tools and strategies to achieve your goals. The main objective in identifying resources and opportunities is to avoid reinventing the wheel – programs and interventions needed to reach your goals may already exist and be proven effective.

3. **Define your Action Plan.** Steps are included in the Handbook for brainstorming evidence-based action plans, defining strategies, major activities, indicators of progress, and

Figure 1. School Psychology Futures Development Model



specific outcomes.

4. **Implement and Evaluate your Action Plan.** All participants are invited to engage in the systematic process through the completion of an Action Planning Handbook. Action Planning Handbooks for the Leadership, Critical Skills, and Advocacy conference themes are available online at www.indiana.edu/~futures

Futures Development Teams

A significant next step in planning the follow-up to the Futures Conference is the creation of national and international Futures Development Teams. The purpose of the Futures Development Team will be to lead the on-going effort

for change in our profession, including dissemination of information to relevant constituents. There will be three Futures Development Teams: Leadership, Critical Skills, and Advocacy. Each Futures Development Team will consist of at least one representative from each major national and international

school psychology organization. The teams will be charged with creating action plans for the profession of school psychology and responsible for monitoring implementation. If you are interested in participating on a national or international Futures Development Team, contact the futures conference committee members listed at the end of the article.

Conclusion

The 2012 School Psychology Futures Conference has provided an opportunity to examine progress, current impacts, and major needs related to services for children, families, and schools and update school psychology's directions for the future. Services by many school

psychologists are being redefined in varying ways and because of different reasons, and our field needs continued and systematic analysis to guide our professionals. A very positive aspect of the 2012 Future's Conference is the effective cooperation and collaboration between our school psychology organizations to identify a shared vision for our field. The futures conference webinars provide a foundation for continued discussion and planning. Action planning, described above, will promote updated strategies to develop a working agenda for the future.

2012 FUTURES CONFERENCE SPONSORS AND PLANNING COMMITTEE REPRESENTATIVES:

American Academy of School Psychology: Judith Kaufman/ American Board of School Psychology: Barbara Fischetti/ Council of Directors of School Psychology Programs: Cyndi Riccio/ Division of School Psychology (Division 16): American Psychological Association: Karen Stoiber; Student Representative: Kaleigh Bantum/ International School Psychology Association: Bill Pfohl/ National Association of School Psychologists: Amy Smith; Student Representative: Susan Jarmuz-Smith/ Society for the Study of School Psychology: Sylvia Rosenfield/ Trainers of School Psychologists: Samuel Song/ Planning Committee Co-Chairs: Jack Cummings and Patti Harrison

OBITUARY

Remembering Maynard C. Reynolds, 1922-2012*

James Ysseldyke, University of Minnesota

Tom Fagan, University of Memphis

On October 16, 2012 special education and school psychology lost a pioneer, an esteemed colleague and friend. Maynard Clinton Reynolds was born on February 16, 1922 into a homesteading family in Doyan, North Dakota and grew up in the northern Minnesota cities of Bemidji, Thief River Falls, and Moorhead. His parents were Robert and Rachel (Pray) Reynolds.

Maynard progressed from his youthful renown as a well-known drummer in a dance band heard regularly over an NBC affiliate radio station in Fargo, to a national and international reputation in education and school psychology.

Education: Maynard Reynolds completed in three years his B.S. degree and certification in secondary social



Spring Hill Symposium (June, 1980) planning committee for the School Psychology Inservice Training Network of the University of Minnesota, L-R: Joel Meyers, Jim Ysseldyke, Maynard Reynolds, Maureen Koenen, and Rich Weinberg.



studies from Moorhead State College (1942, then Moorhead State Teachers College) and went into the Army Air Force during World War II, stationed in the South Pacific until 1945 (Hallquist, 1997). He completed his M.A. from the University of Minnesota (UMN, 1947), and taught at the University of Northern Iowa before completing his Ph.D. in educational psychology at the UMN (1950). For a year following his PhD, he taught at California State University at Long Beach, and then returned to UMN where he taught from 1951 until his retirement in 1989. During his tenure with UMN he served as Director of the Psycho-educational Clinic, Chairman of the Department of Special Education, and taught in that department and the Department of Psycho-educational Studies (later named Educational Psychology). In his early years at UMN he worked with many renowned psychologists including John E. Anderson, Florence Goodenough, Dale Harris, Paul Meehl, and Donald Patterson (Chambers, 1994; Hallquist, 1997). Maynard was instrumental in establishing the UMN

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Department of Special Education and then its school psychology program in the late 1950s (Hallquist, 1997).

Dr. Reynolds served as co-investigator at the National School Psychology Inservice Training Network at the UMN in the early 1980s, was one of the planners of the Spring Hill Symposium on the Future of Psychology in the Schools, and was on the task force that produced the first two editions of *School Psychology: A Blueprint for Training and Practice*.

Contributions: Reynolds is probably best known in school psychology and special education circles for his work in the early 1970s at the UMN's Leadership Training Institute in Special Education. It was there that he did important work on domain-referenced testing and criterion-referenced testing that preceded work on curriculum-based measurement and curriculum-based assessment. Reynolds was strongly committed to advancing the education of students with disabilities and wrote about the attitudinal and measurement changes that needed to be achieved. His contributions were instrumental in passage of the 1975 Education for All Handicapped Children Act (now IDEA). In *Domain-Referenced Testing in Special Education* (Hively & Reynolds, 1975), he supported the notion that children have a right to an appropriate education and it is the educator's obligation to deliver such. He contended

that our measurement technologies ought to make a difference in the lives of students, not simple predictions about their lives, and that the measurement technologies ought always to be linked to appropriate instructional outcomes for all students (Reynolds & Birch, 1977).

Reynolds was a proponent of "mainstreaming," now in educational settings typically called inclusion. His ideas preceded the 1975 federal legislation (P.L. 94-142) that required placement in the least restrictive environment and his conceptualization of a Cascade Model, influenced additional models on service delivery (Goodman, 2007; Reynolds, 1962). In a taped interview following his retirement, Reynolds recalled that for too long persons were considered disabled and belonged in some special place. "It always seemed to me that that was too simple a way of looking at it and it didn't adequately recognize the varieties of arrangements that could be made on the administrative or organizational side to deal with human differences" (Chambers, 1994, p. 14). He was well ahead of others in recognizing that the mild disability categories and the fine distinctions between them were not adequately relevant to effective education.

He was a pioneer in promoting far greater integration of students with disabilities and in insisting that we could obtain better results with greater

implementation of the knowledge base on effective instruction. According to his obituary (2012),

A notable achievement occurred 55 years ago when the Minnesota Legislature did something only one other state had previously come close to doing. It decreed that 'every school district shall provide special instruction and services for handicapped children of school age who are residents of such district.' In effect, special education was born in Minnesota... The Minnesota Legislature met in odd-numbered years and major issues were studied and bills crafted by small, select panels of legislators between sessions - hence, 'interim study commissions.' Commission members were free to organize their work as they saw fit. They were accountable to the full Legislature, and expected to convert their findings into bills introduced in both the House and Senate the next session. The possibility that many developmentally disabled children might be educated and become full participants in society was ripe for interim commission treatment in 1955. Warehousing the handicapped in state hospitals was increasingly seen as inhumane, costly and, with modern therapies, unnecessary.

His work with parent groups in the early 1950s and his research on 'mainstreaming led to his work with

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Senator Elmer Andersen's interim commission in 1955 (Chambers, 1994). Reynolds and Andersen connected and developed a plan of action. According to Reynolds' obituary (2012), former Governor Al Quie who also served on the special education panel, recalled that:

We became enmeshed in the issue of what could be done and should be done with people who are handicapped. We didn't let ourselves get diverted by all the details about where we will get the money, how does this fit into the public school system, what about the private schools or the state schools and all that. We visited kids. We went to the state schools, the private schools, the public schools in Minneapolis that were already working on this. We went to the homes, where the parent and the handicapped child were. At that time, you often would not see those kids. Those who were mentally handicapped were hidden. Parents hadn't learned how they could be presentable among other people... There was spiritual growth on that commission. What we came to understand is, there is infinite worth in every individual. That understanding turned the eight commission members into zealots for educating in their own school districts all children deemed 'educable' by the standards of the State Board of Education. Their spirit was infectious. It was rare that an

interim commission's entire package of recommendations was enacted intact in one session, but that's what happened with special education in 1957 (Obituary, 2012).

A brief video of Maynard discussing the commission's work is available at, <http://www.mnddc.org/past/videoclips/Maynard-Reynolds.html>, and information is also available in Chambers (1994) and Hallquist (1997).

Associations and Recognitions:

Maynard served as President of the International Council for Exceptional Children (1965-1966) and in 1971 received that organization's John Edward Wallace Wallin Lifetime Achievement Award (Wallin was a significant historical figure in special education earlier in the 20th century). He also received the Mildred Thomson Award from the American Association on Mental Deficiency (Hewitt & Martin, 2007). He wrote or edited or co-edited 40 books and authored over 150 articles, bringing to a national and international audience his expertise in those areas of special education (Obituary, 2012). By the time of NASP's founding, Reynolds had completed half his career at the University of Minnesota. Although never a NASP member, he was a long-time member of the American Psychological Association (associate member in 1949; member in 1958, and fellow in 1962). In APA directories he listed his areas

of specialization as educational and school psychology, learning difficulties, giftedness, educational measurement and evaluation, special education, teacher selection and training. His specializations reflect the breadth of his interests and the development of special education and school psychological services during his career. Maynard was also a member of the National Education Association and the Association for the Gifted. In addition he was certified and licensed as a psychologist in the State of Minnesota.

Perspective: After retiring from the University of Minnesota in 1989, he worked part time with Temple University in Philadelphia writing materials, setting up conferences and managing inner-city projects in the area of special education. He occupied an endowed chair at California State University in Los Angeles in 1990-91 and he spent two years at the University of San Diego (Obituary, 2012). His renown is reflected in the many citations of his work, including several in the three editions of the Encyclopedia of Special Education (Reynolds & Fletcher-Janzen, 2007).

According to his obituary (2012), Reynolds derived deep pleasure from working with dedicated graduate students and teachers who had given their lives to working with atypical students. "It is easy to imagine at this very moment how many thousands of people in this country

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and abroad are deeply grateful for the life of Maynard Reynolds, who has enabled those formerly languishing in the shadows of society to blossom forth to their fullest potential and live out their lives in dignity.” Maynard had a wisdom and perspective that was conveyed to students. His broad smile conveyed a sense of warmth and acceptance to those who knew him.

Dr. Reynolds’ career spanned perhaps the most significant period in the history of special education and school psychology. He was born into a society where special educational classrooms and school psychologists were few in number and geographic location. At the time he earned his doctoral degree there were less than a half million school-age children receiving special education and American schools employed less than 1,000 school psychologists of varied preparations and titles. His contributions encouraged the expansion of special education and the range of service models in and outside of school settings. That expansion is very closely related to the growth of school psychological services in the past 50 years. Similar to other pioneers in special education and school psychology during the mid-20th century, he was educated and credentialed in related areas and brought these fields to joint fruition in meaningful ways.

Maynard married Donna Lou Gleason on August 28, 1948 and is survived by

his wife and their children, Judy (Neil Suneson), Kathy, and John Reynolds (Helenbeth); along with devoted grandchildren, Ryan Suneson (Jessica Neufeld), Peter Suneson, Jill Reynolds and David Reynolds. He was a kind and caring human being and will be missed. Memorials in Maynard’s name may be directed to the University of Minnesota Foundation, College of Education and Human Development.

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RESEARCH FORUM

Perceptions of Gender Inequity in Salary and Negotiation Practices of School Psychology Faculty and Practitioners

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Shortages of school psychology faculty trainers and practitioners have been documented since the Thayer Conference in 1954 (Little, Akin-Little, & Tingstrom, 2004). One contributing feature to this dilemma is the aging of

position in school psychology, including the misperception that faculty salaries are lower than that of practitioners (Reschly & Wilson, 1995), perceived difficulty in achieving a work-life balance, and lack of confidence in researching and writing

the profession, seen in increasing age trends in both practitioners and faculty (Reschly & Wilson, 1995). Additionally, Little et al. (2004) discuss possible reasons for the reluctance to pursue an academic

skills. The latter concern appears to be particularly salient for women, who have, in previous research, reported the experience of not as much mentoring as men received in these activities (Wilson & Reschly, 1995). Also present may be a disinclination to either pursue or remain in a practitioner role as a school psychologist. Reschly (2000) points out that because there has been no systematic study of attrition, “the number of school psychologists who leave public school positions for other settings or for professional careers in other fields or who discontinue employment temporarily or permanently,” it is difficult to understand whether such a problem may contribute to the aforementioned shortages (p. 511).

Adding to the complexity of shortages in school psychology, men and women may have different trajectories and demographic expectations in their career

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paths in school psychology. Although men have historically exceeded the number of women in the field (Reschly, 2000), demographic shifts within the last thirty years have occurred. Women now comprise the majority of practitioners (74%) and academics (51.8%) in the field of school psychology (Curtis, Lopez, Batsche, & Smith, 2006). Despite their majority, however, numerous studies have documented that men receive higher salary packages than do women, regardless of employment setting (Akin-Little, Bray, Eckert, & Kehle, 2004; Crothers, Schmitt, Hughes, Theodore, & Lipinski, 2009; Crothers et al., 2009; Crothers et al., 2010; Curtis, Hunley, & Grier, 2002; Levinson, Rafoth, & Sanders, 1994; Reschly, 2000; Wilson & Reschly, 1995).

In a previous study (Crothers, Schmitt, Hughes, Theodore, & Lipinski, 2009), qualitative data were gathered in order to provide current information of the employment characteristics and conditions of U.S. university school psychology trainers with regard to potential differences between males and females. Individuals responded to qualitative prompts regarding their: 1) preparations for negotiating for salary and promotion, 2) perceptions of likelihood to engage in future negotiation, 3) perceived impact of gender upon salary and promotion negotiation and, 4) general impressions

of negotiation and their negotiation outcomes. This study was then replicated with school psychology practitioners to compare the findings from the sample of school psychology university trainers with that of school psychologists. Because of space constraints, data from the first two research questions were discussed in the first article in this series. This article will focus upon the data obtained from the second two research questions. The purpose of the present study, therefore, was to determine if common themes of responses were present within items and between samples and to explore if these themes may be used to understand gender disparity with respect to salary and to identify themes regarding gender differences in perceptions of the salary and promotion negotiation process.

For the sample of university trainers, all graduate school psychology programs in the U.S. listed in *Best Practices in School Psychology* (5th edition; Thomas & Grimes, 2008) were identified and all associated full-time faculty were considered potential participants. Through the website of each school psychology program, the e-mail address of each potential participant was obtained. Of the 1026 identified trainers, 353 acted on an e-mail recruiting participation in this study (34% response rate). The responses of each respondent were reviewed to verify full time employment as a school

psychology faculty trainer and data from 306 participants were appropriate for analysis (31% overall response rate). Table 1 includes the demographic characteristics of the full-time, school psychology faculty trainers.

Prospective school psychology faculty participants received an e-mail solicitation inviting the individual to access a web address linked to *SurveyMonkey*. Three reminder e-mails were also sent to the American Psychological Association Division 16 listserv. Upon completion of the online survey, data from each participant were transmitted to an encrypted and secure, online database. If desired, each participant could provide contact information to be entered into a drawing for a \$50, \$75, or \$100 *Barnes and Noble* gift card. These data were transmitted to a separate online database to further ensure anonymity.

Participants for the sample of school psychology practitioners were drawn from the membership of the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP). Prior to the solicitation of participants to contribute to this study, NASP Institutional Review Board approval was received and a list of names and contact information for 1,000 randomly selected practitioners were obtained. Of the 1,000 practitioners who were identified, 63 were eliminated because they were not presently practicing.

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Table 1
Demographic Characteristics of the Survey Respondents

	Faculty Trainers		Practitioners	
	Female N (%)	Male N (%)	Female N (%)	Male N (%)
Gender	191 (62.4)	115 (37.6)	148 (72.5)	56 (27.5)
Ethnicity				
African-American	7 (3.7)	4 (3.5)	6 (4.1)	-
Asian-American	3 (1.6)	3 (2.6)	1 (<1)	-
Caucasian/Non-Hispanic	170 (89)	104 (90.4)	133 (89.9)	53 (94.6)
Hispanic	6 (3.1)	1 (< 1)	6 (4.1)	3 (5.4)
Self-Reported Multi-Racial	4 (2.1)	2 (1.7)	1 (<1)	-
Other	1 (<1)	1 (<1)	-	-
Highest Earned Degree				
Doctorate	189 (99)	115 (100)	30 (20.3)	21 (37.5)
Educational Specialist	1 (< 1)	-	75 (50.7)	20 (35.7)
Masters plus credits	-	-	33 (22.3)	14 (25.0)
Masters	-	-	7 (4.7)	1 (1.8)
Missing	1 (< 1)	-	3 (2.0)	-
Credentials				
Licensed Psychologist	97 (50.8)	62 (53.9)	32 (21.6)	19 (33.9)
Credentialed to practice school psychology	120 (62.8)	83 (72.2)	(100)	(100)
National Certified School Psychologist	82 (42.9)	50 (43.5)	92 (62.2)	29 (51.8)
Years in Position				
0 – 5 years	84 (44)	43 (37.4)	48 (32.4)	8 (14.3)
6 – 10 years	49 (25.7)	19 (16.5)	51 (34.5)	10 (17.9)
11 – 15 years	31 (16.2)	12 (10.4)	19 (12.8)	13 (23.2)
16 – 20 years	12 (6.3)	10 (8.7)	12 (8.1)	5 (8.9)
21 – 25 years	7 (3.7)	7 (6.1)	12 (8.1)	7 (12.5)
Over 25 years	7 (3.7)	24 (20.9)	6 (4.1)	13 (23.2)
Missing	1 (< 1)	-	-	-

Note. Due to missing data, totals may not equal 100%.

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One hundred twenty-eight responded to the first postcard request and 76 responded to the second postcard request soliciting their participation for the study (22% response rate). See Table 1 for a demographic description of the practitioner sample.

Prospective school psychology practitioner participants received a postcard in the mail inviting each to complete a survey regarding the salary and negotiation practices of currently employed school psychologists. The postcard briefly explained the purpose of the study and included a web address that directed the participant to the survey which was posted on *SurveyMonkey*. After three weeks, a reminder postcard solicitation was mailed to maximize response rate. Participants completed the online survey and the data were transmitted to an encrypted and secure, online database accessible only by the researchers. After completing the survey, each participant could choose to enter a drawing for a \$50, \$75, or \$100 *Barnes and Noble* gift card. If the participant chose to enter the drawing and provide his or her contact information, these data were also transmitted to an encrypted and secure database to ensure anonymity.

The school psychology faculty trainer survey used in the present study was also used in Crothers et al. (2009, 2010) to examine the salary and negotiation

practices of school psychology faculty. The practitioner survey was modified from the original instrument to speak to their employment as a practicing school psychologist. Other questions on both surveys were designed to assess issues such as job satisfaction and job negotiation procedures, outcomes, and perceptions of the experience. The number, content, and order of survey items were identical between the trainer and practitioner surveys. As differences in responses by gender were anticipated (e.g., Akin-Little et al., 2004, Crothers et al., 2010), participants were provided text boxes to supply elaborative details. The survey was reviewed for content pertinence, word specificity, and readability (Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level = 12.4) by six school psychology university trainers.

As reported in Crothers et al. (2010), male faculty were found to earn higher salaries than female faculty, even when controlling for the effects of years employed in the position. Similarly, when the effects of years in position were statistically controlled, male school psychologists continued to earn significantly more than their female peers. Additional analyses revealed that contract length and educational attainment did not explain this disparity. Based on this and previous research (Akin-Little et al., 2004; Levinson et al., 1994; Reschly, 2000;

Wilson & Reschly, 1995), we hypothesized that school psychologists would find negotiation skills an essential tool for navigating employment conditions and outcomes, and gave participants the opportunity, through open-ended prompts on the survey, to provide elaborative responses to questionnaire items.

In the sample of university faculty, most men and women faculty felt positively regarding the salary negotiation process and the majority was able to increase their salary. Interestingly, taken as a whole, there were no negative reports of penalty for initiating or participating in salary negotiations by male practitioners or academics or female practitioners. However, for a minority of faculty women engaged in the negotiation process, their gender was perceived to have a negative effect. Fifteen percent of faculty women reported ongoing negative sentiments, such as reporting repeat references to the salary request as “inappropriate,” accompanied by reminders that colleagues “won’t like you,” and admonishments that they had “singled [themselves] out.” As reported in Crothers et al. (2009), comments included, “I felt undervalued because I was told initially that it [my salary] was not negotiable. Had I not had the knowledge that new faculty had been hired at the salary I was requesting, I would have been shut out of any negotiation. I had to really push hard;” “I

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would really have to say [I feel] ‘neutral’ [about my salary negotiations] (neither positive nor negative). I was only able to negotiate a \$500 salary increase. I had hoped for about \$2,000 more...;” and “[I felt] positive that my compensation package was increased, but dissatisfied with the extent to which it was increased” (Crothers et al., 2009, p. 59).

Overall, gender did not impact participation in the negotiation process for practitioners or trainers. Most men and women faculty expressed positive feelings about the salary negotiation process, and 90% or more of the faculty and practitioner respondents did not believe they were penalized for engaging in such negotiations. Although male practitioners and academics reported no penalty for negotiating, a small group of women expressed that gender had a negative impact on the negotiation process, and they suffered negative outcomes. For example, female school psychology practitioners indicated, “Yes, [my gender had a negative impact on the negotiation process] in that I feel my status as a young woman was significantly diminished in comparison to my more seasoned, male colleague,” “I think that my negotiation attempt appeared as unseemly for a woman,” and “The male colleague who was given the leadership position didn’t come close to me in experience, credentials or even popularity among our

staff.” In the Crothers et al. (2009) study, female faculty were more likely to believe that they were penalized for negotiation attempts, reporting clear, consistent and negative treatment by colleagues and administrators regardless of employment setting.

In essence, what these female faculty members described as experiencing was relational aggression in the workplace. Relational aggression is a form of bullying that is distinguished by the manipulation of social relationships and includes ostracizing, gossiping, and diminishing another individual’s status. For instance, comments included, “The Provost was my enemy after I tried unsuccessfully to negotiate. He singled me out for unfair treatment” (Crothers et al., 2009, p. 60) and “The dean repeatedly made comments about my attempts to negotiate when I was first hired” (Crothers et al., 2009, p. 60). One female faculty noted that she “received [a] poor evaluation by [my] supervisor” (Crothers et al., 2009, p. 60) when she attempted to negotiate an increase in salary. Significantly, female school psychology faculty reported receiving negative comments regarding engaging in the negotiation process, with statements indicating that this type of behavior is inappropriate, selfish, and disrespectful of other faculty.

In the sample of school psychology practitioners, no gender differences were

found in the role of gender in perceived penalization in the sample of school psychology practitioners, with 100% of the male school psychologists and 86.7% of the female school psychologists reporting that their gender did not impact their promotion negotiation outcomes. However, a few women did report their gender negatively affected their promotion negotiations. For instance, one female practitioner commented, “I applied for the lead psychologist position. The only other applicant was a male with a clinical Psy.D., less experience in public schools, not a member of NASP or an NCSP, didn’t have an administrator certificate (I hold a principal certificate in addition to my School Psych credentials and an M.S. in Special Ed). When I protested when he got the job that I was better qualified I was cut out of opportunities to supervise interns and contribute to our staff with presentations etc. I fondly refer to myself as ‘Dr Pariah.’”

Likewise, the majority of the faculty participants in the Crothers et al. (2009) study did not indicate receiving any penalties for promotion negotiation (females = 95.7%; males = 96.9%) and gender differences were not found. It is plausible that this is the result of university and/or union decrees regarding promotion. However, of the participants who did indicate that they negotiated for promotion, they reported that they

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were admonished for their behavior. Comments included, “The associate dean was scolding and seemed ‘put out’ by having to speak with me. She indicated that I was asking for more than other faculty members made, which may be true, but I also was aware of what new hire professors made and was asking for that salary. I [was] initially told a negotiation was not possible but I pushed forward anyway. My negotiation when I was hired was more favorable and met with appropriate professional behavior from the dean” (Crothers et al., 2009, p. 61), and another female faculty reported that she was “scolded, [and] told I was unprofessional” (Crothers et al., 2009, p. 61).

In the current investigation, the penalties that the female negotiators reported to suffer, in addition to salary disparity in favor of males, were characterized by victimization associated with relational aggression. The responses of women, both practitioners and trainers, who reported to receive negative treatment for engaging in salary negotiations suggest that they were targets of relational aggression. In some cases, female respondents referenced an unsupportive work culture for women where they were perceived to be distracted by personal responsibilities. In other instances, female negotiators reported to be labeled as “callous” or

“selfish.” Women complained of being admonished by supervisors for making salary requests. In such situations, supervisors communicated to the female negotiators that their requests were inappropriate and/or their colleagues would not like them as a result of engaging in such behaviors. For example, one respondent indicated, “I believe that it was seen as unseemly for a woman to be complaining about salary” (Crothers et al., 2009, p. 61). Another practitioner commented, “I think I could have pushed for more money but I was too self-conscious to do so” (Crothers et al., 2009, p. 61).

The impact of relational aggression on the worker and organization can be profound. With respect to the consequences of relational aggression upon employees, relational aggression has been linked to increased emotional dysregulation, increased depressive affect, lower self-esteem, increased physical complaints, greater alcohol use, distress in friendships and decrease in friendship quality (Hickman, 2006). Relational aggression also has effects upon the workplace, including distressed supervisor relationships, decreased job satisfaction, increased job stress, less adaptive responses to problems, and increased organizational aggression (Crothers, Lipinski, & Minutolo, 2009; Hickman, 2006). The findings of the

current study suggest that the women practitioners and trainers who perceive the salary negotiation process and outcomes as negative are often victims of relational aggression. Thus, they may be more likely to suffer further interpersonal consequences in the workplace.

In the Crothers et al. (2009) study, 64% of respondents indicated that gender did not impact the outcome of the negotiation process. However, of the 36% who did perceive that gender was a factor in negotiations, the majority were female professors who experienced recurring negative interactions with other faculty and administration, significant salary differentials (an \$8,000 range), and inequitable allocation of resources. Comments included

“I believe I was offered a lower salary to start with and even after negotiations, it was still lower than [sic] male counterparts in my department” (Crothers et al., 2009, p. 59) and “I was told years after working in the department that the then chair did not negotiate as strongly with the dean for women who had a husband since he felt that they were not the family ‘breadwinner’” (Crothers et al., 2009, p. 59).

Moreover, the purpose of this study was to examine and compare the practices, perceptions, and outcomes of the salary negotiation process among school psychology trainers and

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practitioners with special consideration of the impact of gender on the negotiation process. For most practitioners and academics, gender did not impact negotiation outcomes. However, for those who perceived a bias, female faculty were more likely to believe that they were penalized for negotiation attempts, reporting clear, consistent and negative treatment by colleagues and administrators regardless of employment setting.

When examining the qualitative themes for women who reported that they were penalized for engaging in salary negotiations, practitioners and faculty alike reported being targets of relational aggression. For practitioners, the threat of relational aggression was enough to dissuade both men and women from considering negotiations. Practitioner comments included “it is not worth the effort” and “...not worth the stress and poor treatment.” For female practitioners and faculty who perceived gender bias, the elaborative responses shared a common theme of extensive victimization by supervisors via relational aggression, most often accompanied by no salary increase. The ability to manage real or perceived relational aggression in the workplace may prove to be as important as developing negotiation skills. The noxious work environment that male and

female respondents described as the result of relational aggression in response to bargaining attempts may prove to be more damaging to their quality of life than lower levels of pay.

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PRACTICE FORUM

Ethical Issues Regarding the Use of Restraint and Seclusion in Schools

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Given the passage of recent federal legislation, such as the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (2006) and No Child Left Behind Act (2002), students with significant disabilities, emotional or behavioral problems, and mental health disorders have increased in numbers in mainstream classrooms (McLeskey, Landers, Hoppey, Williamson, 2011; McLeskey, Landers, Williamson, Hoppey, 2010). Students with significant disabilities or disorders often have a history of serious psychiatric and behavioral problems that require varying levels of academic, behavioral, and psychological supports (Koppelman, 2004). With this trend, the restraint and seclusion procedures once restricted to psychiatric institutions have moved with these students from these medical settings into public schools with much controversy (Ryan & Peterson, 2004).

There are different forms of restraint and seclusion that are used with

individuals who pose a danger to self or others. Ambulatory or physical restraint is the most common form of restraint currently being used with students that exhibit aggressive and self-injurious behavior in the school setting (Ryan & Peterson, 2004). This is when one or more individuals physically use their bodies to restrict the movement of a student as a means of re-establishing behavioral control in order to maintain safety for the acting-out person, other students, and staff (American Academy of Pediatrics Committee on Pediatric Emergency Medicine, 1997; American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, 2000). Seclusion is when a student is involuntarily confined alone in a room and is physically prevented from leaving for any period of time (American Academy of Pediatrics Committee on Pediatric Emergency Medicine, 1997). Restraint and seclusion are often associated with each other as school personnel will have to use



restraint to move a student to a secluded environment (Ryan, Peterson, Tetreault, & Van der Hagen, 2007).

Recently, the use of these procedures in educational settings have been questioned due to hundreds of reports nationwide of alleged abuse and death of students by school personnel improperly using restraint and seclusion in schools (*GAO-09-719T: Seclusions and Restraints*, 2009; Ryan & Peterson, 2004). There is mounting evidence to suggest that abuse and death of many special needs students can be related to a lack of training by school personnel using restraint procedures and, in many cases, the absence of regulations to monitor their use in schools (*GAO-09-719T: Seclusions and Restraints*, 2009). This could be in part due to the fact that the same federal

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regulations governing the use of restraint and seclusion that protects the rights of psychiatric patients does not apply to schools (Ryan & Peterson, 2004). Some examples of these regulations that protect patients' rights include that staff must be trained in the appropriate use of restraint and seclusion to assist in assuring patient safety during the use of these procedures, patients must be monitored at all times face-to-face during restraint and/or seclusion, and that there are time limits on how long a patient can be secluded (Crisis Prevention Institute, 2010; Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services, 2008). Currently, there are no guidelines or systems in place to monitor or regulate the use of restraint and seclusion in schools.

The proposed federal legislation titled *Keeping All Students Safe Act* (2011) is the first attempt at providing federal guidelines for the use of restraint and seclusion in schools. If passed, the legislation would: (1) provide minimum safety standards in schools; (2) require states to develop policies and reporting procedures on restraint and seclusion; (3) allocate grant funding to states to disseminate to schools for professional development and crisis intervention training of school professionals and the development of Positive Behavior Support programs in schools; (4) require schools to have a team of professionals properly trained and certified in the use of restraint

and seclusion; and (5) mandate each state to submit reports annually to the United States Department of Education on the use of restraint and seclusion in their schools (Klotz, 2011). Since the bill's introduction in 2010, many states have proposed or implemented state legislation to provide guidance for schools and school professionals on the use of restraint and seclusion; however, the content of these guidelines and policies vary greatly with no set standards for practice (GAO-09-719T: *Seclusions and Restraints*, 2009; Ryan, Robbins, Peterson, & Rozalski, 2009; U.S. Department of Education, 2010).

In addition to the lack of public policy on this issue for schools, there has been minimal research conducted on the use of restraint and seclusion practices in these settings. Of those studies examining restraint and seclusion, all of them have focused on the roles of teachers or paraprofessionals in using restraint and seclusion (Ryan et al., 2004; Ryan & Peterson, 2004; McAfee, Schwilk, & Mitruski, 2006; Ryan et al., 2009). With the scarcity of research in this area, no research to date has examined the school psychologist's role in restraint and seclusion. Furthermore, no research has looked at the ethical issues involved for school psychologists or has offered recommendations for school psychologists on this topic.

The Role of the School Psychologist

Fagan and Wise (2007) present several key points on the roles of school psychologists as it relates to working with students with disabilities. School psychologists are typically viewed as the mental health expert in the school and are often called upon to provide behavioral consultation and crisis intervention. Often school psychologists will be asked to provide behavioral consultation for a teacher that may have a student who is exhibiting dangerous behaviors toward self or others. Therefore, school psychologists will often have to conduct behavioral assessments and aid the teacher in developing a Behavior Intervention Plan (BIP) for a student. School psychologists may have to include crisis intervention procedures in the plan to protect the safety of the child (O'Neill, Horner, Albin, Sprague, Storey, & Newton, 1997). It could also be argued that school psychologists are more likely to be the individual in the school that works with all of the classified students, therefore, potentially putting them at risk of dealing with students with aggressive or self-injurious behaviors (Fagan & Wise, 2007). Thus, it could result in them having to use physical restraint or seclusion when these students are under their care. This in turn could pose many ethical dilemmas for school psychologists.

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Ethical Dilemmas for School Psychologists

School psychologists should make use of the ethical and legal decision-making model in order to process ethical dilemmas surrounding the use of restraint and seclusion in schools. This model entails the following steps: (1) describing the problem situation, (2) defining the potential ethical-legal issues involved, (3) consulting available ethical-legal guidelines, (4) consulting with supervisors and colleagues, (5) evaluating the rights, responsibilities, and welfare of all affected parties, (6) considering alternative solutions and consequences of making each decision, and (7) making the decision and take responsibility for it (Williams, Armistead, & Jacob, 2008, p.16). There are numerous ethical dilemmas that restraint and seclusion could cause for school psychologists. School psychologists are trained to adhere to both the National Association of School Psychologists' (NASP) Principles for Professional Ethics and the American Psychological Association's (APA) Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct. The next sections will outline the primary ethical codes that may be brought into question regarding a school psychologist's involvement in the use of restraint and seclusion in schools.

NASP's Principles for Professional Ethics

Under NASP's Principles for Professional Ethics there are specific subsections and strands under the major principles that are relevant to the use of restraint and seclusion by a school psychologist. These subsections and strands fall under the following principles: Principle I: The Dignity and Rights of All Persons, Principle II: Professional Competence and Responsibility, and Principle IV: Responsibility to Schools, Families, Communities, the Profession, and Society (NASP, 2010). Each of these subsections and strands will be examined in the subsequent paragraphs.

Principle I.1. Autonomy and Self-Determination (Consent and Assent). This subsection mentions that "School psychologists respect the right of persons to participate in decisions affecting their own welfare" (NASP, 2010, p. 3). This is an ethical dilemma for school psychologists because a student typically will not have a say in whether or not they are to be restrained or secluded when having a behavioral incident. It is, however, recommended that the school psychologist present the student with choices of behavioral alternatives to alleviate the need for using restraint and seclusion. Choice is viewed as one of the central principles to delivering ethical behavioral services (Cooper,

Heron, & Heward, 2007). If a student is non-verbal or has limited expressive language it can present a challenge for school psychologists as these students may have difficulty in expressing their decisions or concerns regarding their own welfare. Therefore, it is suggested that school psychologists should make use of picture symbols (e.g., Picture Exchange Communication System [PECS]), augmentative communication devices, or other alternative methods to assist the student in communicating what is wrong and help them to calm down before the behaviors escalate to a point where restraint and seclusion may be necessary.

Continuing under Principle I.1.

Autonomy and Self-Determination (Consent and Assent), Standard I.1.2 states "It is ethically permissible to provide psychological assistance without parent notice or consent in emergency situations or if there is reason to believe a student may pose a danger to others; is at risk for self-harm; or is in danger of injury, exploitation, or maltreatment" (NASP, 2010, p. 4). While parents or guardians do have a say on behalf of their child as to whether or not restraint and seclusion may be used, under extreme circumstances their child may still be restrained without their consent if the child is posing an immediate danger to self or others. It is the authors' contention that questions whether or not restraint

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and seclusion procedures fall under the auspice of psychological assistance when dealing with extreme behavioral situations. This wording does not indicate a clear resolution for school psychologists on restraint and seclusion practices and ethical obligations. We recommend that if a student is restrained or secluded in an emergency situation without parental consent, then the school psychologist, who is usually part of the crisis intervention team, and/or school administrator (e.g., school principal) should call the parents/guardians immediately to notify them of the incident. Best practice dictates that school psychologists who are involved in case management of students with severe disabilities contact parents when severe behavioral incidents occur in school (Fagan & Wise, 2007). We recommend that a follow-up meeting should be scheduled to discuss what occurred during the crisis and a written plan should be formulated in which all parties agree to in writing on how to handle a crisis situation with that student again in the future. We suggest that this plan be retained in the case management notes for the student and placed in the student's file.

Standard I.1.5 under this subsection goes on to further indicate that “School psychologists respect the wishes of parents who object to school psychological services and attempt to guide parents to alternative resources”

(NASP, 2010, p. 4). With this ethical standard, the question becomes whether or not restraint and seclusion falls under the umbrella of traditional school psychological services. It could be argued that these procedures do because they are within the realm of crisis intervention, which is part of school psychological services. Therefore, if they are considered a part of psychological services then with this standard, the next question becomes what are school psychologists supposed to do if a student poses a significant danger to self or others and they need to use restraint and/or seclusion with them, but a parent/guardian objects to these services or procedures being used with their child? The following case study illustrates an example of this ethical dilemma.

Parents of a child with a severe developmental disability, who has a long history of self-injurious behavior (i.e., punching herself in the side of her head with a closed fist) does not want their child to be restrained as she had been restrained in all other schools that she had attended and the parents felt that these procedures never helped her. The school psychologist tries to explain to them that those procedures are used as part of crisis intervention in order to protect her from hurting herself, but the parents still state that they do not want their child to be restrained. The child begins her new placement within

the school and the school psychologist is called to observe the student's self-injurious behavior. It is observed by the school psychologist that the student's behavior occurs with enough intensity that could cause head trauma and vision loss. The school psychologist contacts the parents to let them know about the behaviors and that the staff would like to be able to perform restraint to protect their child from serious injury. The parents still do not consent to the use of restraint and informs the school that they would rather have the behavior continue than have their child restrained.

In this case example, it is difficult because if restraint and seclusion are part of school psychological services and the parents object to these procedures being used, this ethical standard clearly states that the school psychologist has to respect the parents' wishes, however, at what cost to the student's safety? Therefore, we recommend that school psychologists work closely with the school's administration to develop sound school policies on restraint and seclusion, which indicate that any student could be subjected to restraint or seclusion under specific emergency conditions, such as posing a significant danger to self or others. Schools technically do not need parental consent to use restraint and seclusion to prevent a student from

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suffering severe injury or death in a highly dangerous, unforeseen emergency (The Association for Persons with Severe Handicaps [TASH], 2011). In fact, it would be considered criminally negligent of school personnel to allow a student to suffer serious physical harm while under their care (TASH, 2011). Therefore, in the case example above, while the school psychologist did the right thing by contacting the parents for permission and notifying them of the severity of the behavior, the school psychologist should have told the parents to either come pick up the child or emergency services would be contacted to have the child hospitalized and that staff may end up using restraint to maintain the child's safety. A follow-up meeting should have then been scheduled with the child study team, administration, and the parents to discuss alternative options to keep the student safe in the future.

Principle II.1: Competence. This principle states that school psychologists engage only in activities that they are qualified and competent to practice (NASP, 2010, p. 6). Standard II.1.1 goes on to further explain that school psychologists also recognize the strengths and limitations of their training and experience (NASP, 2010, p. 6). School psychologists typically do not receive training at the graduate level that involve them learning various restraint procedures

or provide them with certification in any of the training programs that are available (e.g., Crisis Prevention Institute's Non-Violent Crisis Intervention® or Handle With Care® Behavior Management System). School psychologists may learn about seclusion in graduate courses that focus on behavior modification techniques, but may never have to actually apply such procedures. Therefore, it is important for school psychologists to not use restraint or seclusion if they do not have the necessary training. However, school psychologists may still find themselves in situations within the school where they may need to use restraint and seclusion to protect students or staff. This can present an ethical dilemma since this goes beyond the scope of their professional training. Therefore, it is recommended that school psychologists seek professional development training in restraint and seclusion as well as preventative techniques such as Positive Behavior Supports. We suggest that if a school psychologist finds him/herself in a situation where they may have to restrain a child without having proper training that they do not actually attempt to restrain the student. Instead, they should do their best to block any assaults from the student and yell for help from another staff member (who might be trained to perform restraint) or follow their school's procedure on how to access assistance

(e.g., calling the main office for a school resource officer or contacting local emergency services).

Furthermore, Standard II.3.9 under this subsection mentions that school psychologists are to only use interventions that are research-based and considered evidence-based practices (NASP, 2010, p. 8). As discussed earlier, there is relatively little research supporting the use of restraint or seclusion and its efficacy in reducing aggressive behavior in schools. However, the research literature on restraint and seclusion in psychiatric facilities does illustrate that restraint and seclusion is effective in preventing injury and reducing agitation and that it is nearly impossible to operate a program with severely aggressive individuals without some type of seclusion or restraint procedure (Fisher, 1994). Due to the differences in populations, clinical disorders, and settings we may not be able to generalize such findings to the school system. Therefore, school psychologists may want to use Positive Behavior Supports, which is rooted in evidence-based practices and has been shown to reduce the need for restrictive procedures such as restraint and seclusion (Horner & Sugai, 2009).

Principle IV. 2. Respect for Law and the Relationship of Law and Ethics. This subsection mentions that school psychologists are knowledgeable of the

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laws pertinent to the practices of school psychology and that they consider the relationships between their code of ethics and the law (NASP, 2010, p.12). In addition, Standard IV.2.2 under this principle goes on to further explain that school psychologists are to respect the law and the civil and legal rights of students and other clients (NASP, 2010, p. 12). This standard presents a challenge for school psychologists because, as mentioned earlier, the same legal rights that apply to psychiatric patients regarding restraint and seclusion do not carry over into the school (Ryan & Peterson, 2004). Further, no federal legislation provides guidelines on restraint and seclusion in schools so as to protect the civil and legal rights of students. However, most state laws allow teachers and others in the school setting to use reasonable physical force as deemed necessary to protect people from immediate physical danger or to protect property (Hinchey, 2003; Jacob, Decker, & Hartshorne, 2011). Therefore, it could be argued that school psychologists could use restraint and seclusion as part of a prescribed behavioral treatment plan with students in order to protect the welfare and safety of other students as well as the acting-out student.

APA'S Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct

Under APA'S Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct there

are two major principles that are relevant to the use of restraint and seclusion by a school psychologist. The first is Principle A: Beneficence and Non-Maleficence and the other is Principle E: Respect for People's Rights and Dignity. In addition, a pair of ethical standards are relevant to this topic: Ethical Standard 1.03: Conflicts Between Ethics and Organizational Demands and Ethical Standard 3.06: Conflict of Interest (APA, 2002).

Principle A: Beneficence and Non-Maleficence. This principle states that "Psychologists strive to benefit those with whom they work and take care to do no harm and that their professional actions seek to safeguard the welfare and rights of those with whom they interact professionally and other affected persons" (APA, 2002, p. 1062). School psychologists are in a difficult position because the use of restraint or seclusion could potentially do harm both physically and psychologically to the students they aim to serve. However, this principle could also be interpreted as school psychologists could use restraint or seclusion since they are procedural safeguards to be used to protect the welfare of the student that they are working with as well as other students in the school.

Principle E: Respect for People's Rights and Dignity. This principle states "Psychologists are to respect the dignity and worth of all people, and the rights of

individuals to privacy, confidentiality, and self-determination (APA, 2002, p. 1063). The use of restraint and seclusion with students could have negative effects on their relationships with peers and school personnel (e.g, fear, mistrust, humiliation, etc.) (National Disability Rights Network, 2009). Therefore, school psychologists will want to consider least restrictive methods or alternatives before employing such intervention strategies with students. On the other hand, the principle further states "Psychologists are aware that special safeguards may be necessary to protect the rights and welfare of persons or communities whose vulnerabilities impair autonomous decision making" (APA, 2002, p. 1063). This could be interpreted as school psychologists must protect not only the acting-out student but also the other students in the classroom. Therefore, if the acting-out student cannot come to an appropriate decision for alternative behavior, then the school psychologist might have to make a decision for the student, which could include restraint and seclusion.

Ethical Standard 1.03: Conflicts Between Ethics and Organizational Demands. For school psychologists there may be an ethical dilemma when the organization (i.e., the school) asks a school psychologist to perform restraint or seclusion and the school psychologist does not feel comfortable doing so

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because they view it as an ethical concern. Thus, this may create tension between the school psychologist and administration. Hence, school psychologists must do their best to adhere to their ethics code and try to explain the situation to administration and, if necessary, consult with their ethics board. However, there may also be a dilemma if a school psychologist feels that the school should implement restraint and seclusion protocols but there is no program or protocol in place and the school administration does not favor having such a program. This could be an issue especially if the school is serving more aggressive students than before, thus resulting in an increase in student or staff injuries due to the absence of such a program. In this case, the school psychologist may want to collect data on student and staff injuries as well as student data on aggressive behaviors to demonstrate a need for training.

Ethical Standard 3.06: Conflict of Interest. For a school psychologist to use restraint or seclusion with a student that is currently on their caseload can present a clear conflict of interest. This is particularly true if the school psychologist is currently providing the student with counseling or other psychological services. The following case study example provides a clear illustration of this ethical dilemma.

One day while in class, a student

classified as being multiply disabled ended up going into crisis because of problems that had occurred at home. The student became physically aggressive toward his classroom teacher and other staff (i.e., instructional aides). The child's counselor (i.e., the school psychologist) was called to come and assist the student during the crisis. Since the student was posing a danger to the safety of the staff, the school psychologist and the classroom teacher had to place the student into a two-person standing restraint in order to maintain their safety. During the restraint the school psychologist and the teacher verbally deescalated the student until he was able to calm down. Once calm, the student was released from the restraint and discussed with the school psychologist what had occurred at home that was making him upset. However, the student also expressed anger and resentment toward the school psychologist for restraining him and he felt as though he could no longer trust the school psychologist. The next few counseling sessions had to be taken to process this with the student so he could understand that the school psychologist had to restrain him in order to prevent him and the other staff from getting seriously hurt.

In the case study example, the school psychologist could have found

himself in a situation that could have potentially damaged the student/counselor relationship that had been established with that student, depending upon how he had intervened with him. We suggest that school psychologists instead consult with other staff and seek out supervision with their administrator(s) to come to an agreement that someone else in the school would have to perform restraint or seclusion with the student in order to avoid a situation like the one mentioned above.

Discussion

The use of restraint and seclusion in schools is controversial in nature. School psychologists are placed in a difficult position, as the NASP Principles for Professional Ethics (2010) and the APA's Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct (2002) do not offer general principles regarding professional practice for school psychologists in using restraint and seclusion in schools. It is recommended that school psychologists try to resolve any ethical dilemmas that might arise while doing their best to adhere to the ethical standards of the profession. Furthermore, it is recommended that school psychologists review their state's legislation on restraint and seclusion, if one exists, for guidance on this issue. Lastly, school psychologists should review what research is available

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on restraint and seclusion in schools to become familiar with best practices in this area. Please see Table 1 for a list of suggested readings on this topic.

School psychologists should consider some limitations regarding the use of restraint and seclusion in schools. First, there has been minimal research conducted at this point examining restraint and seclusion in schools, with few focusing on teachers and paraprofessionals and none focusing on school psychologists or other school personnel (Ryan et al., 2004; Ryan & Peterson, 2004; McAfee et al., 2006; Ryan et al., 2009). Secondly, this is a topic that in the past school psychologists did not have to face because students exhibiting severe behavior problems were rarely educated in schools. Instead, these children and adolescents were often placed in mental health facilities such as psychiatric hospitals and residential treatment facilities (Ryan & Peterson, 2004). As a result of federal legislation, such as IDEIA, it is only of recent that these students with severe behavior problems have made their way back into the public schools (Ryan & Peterson, 2004). Also, with the current movement of many public school districts removing students from privatized special education schools due to fiscal constraints and placing these students back in the public schools, this topic will be of greater

Table 1
Recommended Readings on Restraint and Seclusion in Schools

Articles

- Couvillon, M., Peterson, R. L., Ryan, J. B., Scheuermann, B., & Stegall, J. (2010). A review of crisis intervention training programs for schools. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, 42(5), 6-17.
- Horner, R., & Sugai, G. (2009). *Considerations for seclusion and restraint use in school-wide positive behavior supports*. Retrieved from <http://www.pbis.org/seclusion/restraint/default.aspx>
- McAfee, J. K., Schwilk, C., & Mitruski, M. (2006). Public policy on physical restraint of children with disabilities in public schools. *Education and Treatment of Children*, 29(4), 711-728.
- Ryan, J., & Peterson, R. (2004). Physical restraint in school. *Behavioral Disorders*, 29(2), 154-168.
- Ryan, J., Robbins, K. Peterson, R., & Rozalski, M. (2009). Review of state policies concerning the use of physical restraint procedures in schools. *Education & Treatment of Children*, 32(3), 487-504.
- United States Department of Education. (2012). *Restraint and seclusion: Resource document*. Retrieved from <http://www2.ed.gov/policy/seclusion/restraints-and-seclusion-resources.pdf>
- United States Department of Education. (2010). *Summary of seclusion and restraint statutes, regulations, policies, and guidance by states and territories*. Retrieved from <http://www2.ed.gov/policy/seclusion/seclusion-state-summary.html>

Books/Book Chapters

- Johnson, S. F. (2010). *Preventing physical restraints in schools: A guide for parents, educators, and professionals*. Warner, NH: Education Law Resource Center, LLC.
- Ryan, J., Peterson, R., Tetreault, G., & Van der Hagen, E. (2004). Reducing the use of seclusion and restraint in a day school program. In M. Nunno, D. Day, & L.B. Bullard (Eds.), *For our own safety: Examining the safety of high-risk interventions for children and young people* (pp. 201-217). Atlanta, GA: Child Welfare League of America, Inc.

concern for school psychologists in the public sector in the future (Ryan et al., 2009).

Future Directions

It is apparent that there is still significant work that needs to be done on restraint and seclusion in schools. For

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one, more research should be conducted on restraint and seclusion in schools and the direct implications for school psychologists and other school personnel should be formally addressed. Also, empirical research should be conducted to explore the effects of restraint and seclusion on students and school personnel as well as to determine its efficacy in dealing with severe problem behaviors in the schools. Next, national psychological associations such as NASP and APA should develop guidelines for school psychologists on the use of these procedures in schools. In conclusion, the ethical dilemmas and recommendations presented in this paper should be seriously considered by school psychologists as it seems this topic will continue to be a concern for school psychologists in the present and the future.

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- Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services. Hospitals – Restraint/seclusion interpretive guidelines and updated state operations manual. Retrieved from <http://www.cms.gov/Medicare/Provider-Enrollment-and-Certification/SurveyCertificationGenInfo/downloads/SCLetter08-18.pdf>
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PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Advancing School Psychology Training through Connected and Virtual University Collaboration

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Advancing School Psychology Training through Collaborative and Interactive Models

Overcoming barriers associated with the availability of resources is a challenge too well known by both the research community and school psychologists. Not surprisingly, at both the systems and individual level, solutions that do not encourage more cooperative efforts have rarely been successful. Therefore the importance of collaboration across training programs, for the advancement of the field of School Psychology, cannot be underestimated. Accordingly, leaders in both psychological and educational arenas have a great opportunity to strengthen the capabilities of both current and future school psychologists by effectively bridging systems in new and innovative ways.

One way to improve collaboration within the field of school psychology is through the development of virtual universities. The virtual university concept originated as a non-traditional university hosted entirely online for the purpose of catering to “disenfranchised” learners (Barbour & Reeves, 2009). The original model has however expanded beyond services only provided online, including establishing opportunities for universities to collaborate and present their services to one another and to the public via face-to-face interaction (Jacobson, 1994; Razavi, Strommen-Bakhtiar, & Krause, 2011). Virtual universities can be used to eliminate geographical limitations and boundaries, integrate different courses, offer degrees and continuing education, lower the cost of delivering educational services, and

reduce the time lag between knowledge generation and dissemination (Razavi, Strommen-Bakhtiar, & Krause, 2011), all of which may be of interest to current graduate programs as fewer resources are made available for professional training, and the scope of necessary training seemingly continues to expand.

Kratochwill, Shernoff, and Sanetti (2004) proposed the use of a virtual university in school psychology as a potential method of increasing the number of students interested in pursuing academic careers in school psychology. One conceptualization of a virtual university is “a partnership among various institutions that are willing to commit time and resources to the concept of high-strength academic career training,” consisting of “doctoral-level training institutions forming a consortium



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to offer training and mentorship of individuals interested in academic careers” (Kratochwill et al., p. 359). Their conceptualization of the virtual university contains several components, including information and resource sharing, web-based courses relevant to academic careers, an exchange program for graduate students, and a clearinghouse on academic opportunities. This virtual university model allows for collaboration both online and in person, providing numerous networking opportunities for students.

Although Kratochwill et al. (2004) originally proposed the use of a virtual university in school psychology as a means to increase the number of students interested in pursuing academic careers in school psychology, their idea of a virtual university could be adapted to serve various purposes, including collaborative training. More specifically, graduate training programs that participate in collaborative activities and virtual university formats can offer opportunities for practicing school psychologists and graduate students in training to advance their knowledge and practice, as well as to develop relationships across agencies. Some foundational components associated with collaborative training programs and virtual universities will be reviewed, along with a review a recent collaboration effort between the University of Wisconsin-Madison and the University of Minnesota.

Implications and future applications of cross-system partnerships will be discussed

Foundations: Collaborative Training Programs

Although little has been written on “collaborative training,” the literature on interdisciplinary training, interdisciplinary collaboration, and inter-professional collaboration is extensive. For decades, professionals in scientific fields have collaborated across disciplines to increase the effectiveness of the services they provide, including training their students and in-service professionals (e.g., mental health [Bandler, 1973], medicine [Kimball, Young, 1995], community health [Bolton, Georges, Hunter, Long, & Wray, 1998]). School psychologists have opportunities to collaborate with other school psychologists and with other professionals in related fields (e.g., clinical psychology, counseling psychology, related areas of applied and professional psychology, psychiatry) to increase the effectiveness of the services they offer. For example, school psychologists, whether they are university faculty, internship supervisors, or clinic or field practicum supervisors, could use collaborative relationships to improve training for both graduate students (e.g., training programs) and clinicians (e.g., continuing education).

School-based health professionals do have a history of collaborating to

provide interdisciplinary education to their students (e.g., Welch, Sheridan, Fuhrman, & Hart, 1992; Papa, Rector, & Stone, 1998; Lam, 2005); but to our knowledge, most of the interdisciplinary training among school-based mental health professionals has involved students and faculty from the same university. By collaborating across universities, trainers and students are able to take advantage of increasingly limited resources, as well as others’ expertise.

When school psychology trainers are ready to develop collaborative training models and methods, the collaboration literature provides some guidance. D’Amour, Ferrada-Videla, San Martin Rodriguez, and Beaulieu (2005) conducted a review of the collaboration literature and found that the most complete models of collaboration were based in organizational theory or in organizational sociology and on empirical data. While there is diversity in the conceptualization of collaboration and the factors thought to influence collaboration, collaboration is thought to be based in five underlying concepts—sharing, partnership, power, interdependency, and process (D’Amour et al. 2005).

Sharing includes joint responsibilities, decision-making, philosophy, values, data, planning and intervention, and professional perspectives. *Partnership* is characterized by a collegial-like relationship that is authentic and

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constructive, open and honest, based in mutual trust and respect with a common set of goals or specific outcomes, and contains members that are aware of the value of each other's contributions and perspectives. *Power* is shared among team members and is based on knowledge and experience, rather than function or titles. Moreover, power is the product of the relationship and interactions among team members, and each team member's respective power is recognized by all. *Interdependency* is characterized by mutual dependence in which individual contributions are maximized so that the output of the whole is larger than the sum of inputs from each part. Finally, collaboration is a *process* that is evolving, dynamic, interactive, transformative, and interpersonal. Collaboration requires collective action involving negotiation and compromise in decision-making, as well as shared planning and intervention. Professional boundaries are transcended when each participant acts to improve outcomes while considering the qualities and skills of the other professionals. School psychologists can use these five underlying concepts—sharing, partnership, power, interdependency, and process—when developing their own collaborative training models and methods.

Collaboration Across Universities: A Case Study

The following case description presents an example of collaboration between two universities with the goal of promoting research and advancement in academia within the field of school psychology. For the past few decades, faculty members in the School Psychology Programs at the University of Wisconsin-Madison and the University of Minnesota-Twin Cities have collaborated to help each other fulfill their graduate training missions. Both universities are dedicated to advancing school psychology by recruiting and training future school psychologists for academia, research, scholarship, and practice in schools and applied settings at the individual, family, and systems levels. In addition, faculty members from both universities have worked together on training grants, teleconferencing projects for courses, professional and program development, and research. Following from these efforts by faculty, students from both programs have expressed interest in more fully understanding career options that are available post-graduation. Consequently, under the aforementioned broader context of collaboration and a series of unified interests, faculty and staff across each university arranged an “academic career day.” This academically-based career day was organized to promote academic

careers and research for students in school psychology and special education.

The initial organization of the day required initiative and leadership among the faculty at each university. Identified as an essential feature by D'Amour et al. (2005), the partnership also required the program directors (Dr. Thomas Kratochwill from the University of Wisconsin-Madison and Dr. Matthew Burns from the University of Minnesota-Twin Cities) to support the initiative in order for the career day to be successful. Working at highly reputable research institutions, both Drs. Kratochwill and Burns embraced the concept that the expertise and the scholarship of faculty in both programs were vital and should be offered to graduate students. At the same time, each program director recognized that pooling their resources would result in experiences, opportunities, and information that would be much more valuable for students, thereby demonstrating an understanding of the concept of interdependency (For an overview of the day's agenda see the Appendix).

Due to traveling expenses and scheduling conflicts, the academic day only included students from the two respective universities. Surprisingly, even with only two universities, the planning process required extensive amounts of negotiation and compromise. For

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example, faculty and staff had to adjust their schedules to be available throughout the day to hold sessions on a variety of career-based topics, and both students and faculty from Minnesota had to be able to access the necessary capital and make sure they had enough time to be able to commute to Madison, Wisconsin, which required an overnight stay. Some students from both programs expressed disappointment in not being able to attend the day due to these practical and logistical barriers. Although this academic career day took place in-person, there is great potential for a similar collaborative model to occur virtually through an online forum.

The day was organized to span a 6-hour period followed by a 4-hour informal dinner at a faculty member's home. In the morning, students and faculty were introduced to each other, and an overview of the day was presented. Drs. Kratochwill and Burns led the introductory session in which they provided an overview of academic careers; reviewed the special series in the 2004 *School Psychology Quarterly* on academic careers and research in the field; described the universities' program goals, mission statements, and resources; and discussed their own career paths. Faculty members from each program also discussed their experiences in the field and offered advice on holding an academic position, working

in schools, and conducting research. More specifically, the faculty in attendance included Drs. Kratochwill, Gettinger, Asmus, McGivern, and Albers from the University of Wisconsin-Madison and Drs. Burns, Ysseldyke, and Hansen from the University of Minnesota-Twin Cities.

After a short break, the faculty and students split into smaller breakout sessions. The session topics included the following:

- The tenure process,
- Surviving politics,
- Service/consulting/summers, and
- Advising students.

Students rated these small-group meetings as the most positive part of the day, and many expressed interest in rotating through each group so that they could have spoken with faculty members directly about each topic area. After the breakout sessions, students and faculty reconvened to review their discussions with the larger group. Clinical faculty (i.e., Drs. Julie McGivern and Anastasia Hansen) then presented an overview their positions in university-based settings, and the day concluded with the aforementioned dinner. Throughout the day and over dinner, students learned about different careers available to them post-graduation.

Evaluation of the Meeting

Responses to a survey administered to faculty and students after the event were unanimously positive, suggesting that the collaboration was beneficial for individuals at a variety of different points in their respective careers. A first-year student in the Ph.D. program at the University of Wisconsin-Madison reflected on how much she learned about the number of "tracks one can take on the way to an academic career" and about "what opportunities are available to someone in an academic position (consultation, publishing, etc.) and some strategies to negotiate those many different roles," while an advanced student from the University of Wisconsin-Madison commented that she felt the "collaboration across universities created the opportunity for a variety of different dialogues that never would have happened within just one program." A fourth-year student in the Ph.D. program at the University of Minnesota-Twin Cities, already familiar with many of the common employment opportunities available after graduation, indicated that the day "added a rich set of new perspectives on an academic career (both from the standpoint of faculty and students)." One contributing faculty member expressed appreciation for learning more about the approaches that other programs take in regard to training

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and research, and described the day as being “intellectually stimulating.”

Many attendees expressed a desire for future career days to include a broader range of individuals that have taken on more consultative, as well as both research and practitioner-based, roles at the federal- and state- level. Several students also expressed the importance of being able to attend more than one breakout session, another result of the complexity of planning such an event. There were requests to have more notice regarding the event, as well as direction regarding the nature of the opportunity so that students could more fully prepare questions. These reflections confirm the inherent challenges that can accompany collaborative training days. However, the fact that students were interested in pursuing research and academic careers and attending future sessions verified the potential that collaboration can have in advancing the field of school psychology for graduate students and in-service professionals at these two institutions. Students and faculty also expressed an interest in attending another career day in the future, which truly demonstrated the value inherent in such an experience both for professionals in training and for educators seeking to make their home program as effective and beneficial as possible for their students. In fact, another career day is planned during the 2012-2013

academic year.

Implications and Future Applications

The case experience presented above demonstrates potential benefits and challenges associated with the use of a collaborative training model within the context of school psychology. Although the case study utilizes an example from doctoral training programs, with an emphasis on post-graduate academic career opportunities, this model can be used to increase collaboration and develop connections within educational specialist training programs, between doctoral and educational specialist programs, between training programs and schools, and for many other purposes within the field of school psychology. Ultimately, establishing strong partnerships and sharing resources can advance the field of school psychology and increase the knowledge base of future and present-day practitioners.

Collaborative training models require participants from each group that are willing to take on leadership roles and are deeply committed to both creating connections and dispersing information to a larger audience. Without such advocates, it would otherwise be very challenging to coordinate, schedule, and mobilize such a successful collaborative training session. Additionally, the aforementioned event required funding.

Although there may be fewer costs when collaborators and attendees are geographically close or the collaboration occurs over a virtual forum, budgetary constraints must be fully recognized before any level of collaboration can take place. A similar event would also require a great deal of communication among collaborators and between collaborators and attendees. Such dialogues would ensure that everyone comes prepared and is aware of the expectations for the event. Lastly, there are numerous benefits associated with the creation of collaborative training sessions. Attendees can gain information they may not have previously known or understood how to access. The event may also provide a forum for attendees to have questions answered by highly qualified individuals. Moreover, the event may provide attendees with connections to a greater network of individuals who are interested in similar content areas.

The collaborative training model has the potential to disperse information on an array of topics and in many different contexts. While our case example illustrates how graduate students were provided with a greater understanding of a career in academia, this same model could be implemented to inform graduate students about a career within schools, within a more clinical track, or in a governmental agency. Another

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potential use for the model is to provide students or schools with training on specific topic areas from an individual with expertise (e.g., understanding how to effectively utilize response-to-intervention processes, implementing Positive Behavior Intervention and Supports, using evidence-based practices, and training in assessment). Sharing such information between schools within or across districts could allow for a more cost-effective use of resources and increase the amount of available support for faculty and staff associated with the school, university, or agency. By inviting school representatives to a university-based collaborative training session to provide schools with current information about best practices within school psychology, this approach could also strengthen the connection between licensed psychologist practitioners and graduate students in training.

Although day-long training sessions are valuable under certain circumstances, it is also important to recognize that some topic areas and competencies cannot be properly covered within this time frame. According to Guskey and Yoon (2009), positive effects of professional development occur after approximately 30 hours of training that is “well organized, carefully structured, purposefully directed, and focused on content or pedagogy” (p. 499). Although these events do not need to incorporate professional development

or be used as the sole method for professional development, it is important to acknowledge possible limitations of using the model.

Scheduling also presents a challenge in organizing collaborative training sessions. It may not always be realistic that representatives from every necessary group of individuals can attend the session in person. However, this does not mean that these individuals are unable to participate or contribute. If meeting in person is not feasible, it may be important to examine other areas of the virtual university (Kratochwill et al., 2004).

Many agencies can connect through alternate forms of technology. When logistical hurdles stand in the way of the in-person collaboration that was possible with the two universities in our case experience, similar meetings could occur through distance learning with discussion forums to connect individuals interested in learning more about specific content areas. These online forums could still serve the purpose of providing training and creating connections between groups of individuals interested in similar topical areas. An online forum could also be used to continue the relationships formed through a collaborative training day. With the advances in technology and the financial pressures placed on schools, using a virtual university in conjunction with developing collaborative

partnerships could improve the training of faculty, clinicians, and both academic and professional outcomes for students.

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Advancing School Psychology Training through Connected and Virtual University Collaboration

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Appendix

Academic Careers in School Psychology	
March 25, 2011	
University of Wisconsin-Madison and the University of Minnesota	
13th Floor of the Educational Sciences Building	
AGENDA	
9:00-9:30	Coffee and informal gathering
9:30-10:00	Introductions to faculty and students (Tom and Matt)
10:00-11:00	Overview of Academic Careers (Tom and Matt) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Review the special series in SPQ on academic careers Review the Wisconsin and Minnesota programs Faculty discuss their career paths to date
11:00-11:15	Break
11:15- 12:00	Breakout sessions on special topics (lead by individual faculty) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The tenure process Surviving the politics Service/Consulting/Summers Advising students
12:00-1:15	Lunch (local options to be announced)
1:15-1:45	General Session to process breakout sessions (Tom and Matt but each group has a reporter)
1:45-2:15	Clinical faculty presentation (Julie and Annie)
2:15-2:20	Break
2:20-3:00	Panel of faculty: Question and Answer session
Leave by 3:30 for Tom's house on Lake Wisconsin (directions will be provided)	
4:30-7:00	Cocktails and Dinner

PRACTICE FORUM

Complicated Mild Pediatric Traumatic Brain Injury: A Review

Robert Eme

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Pediatric traumatic brain injury (PTBI) is a major public health problem in the United States (Anderson & Yeates, 2010; Stanley et al., 2012; Yeates, 2010). It is the leading cause of neurobehavioral morbidity and permanent disability from trauma in children (Stanley et al., 2012). PTBI results in 7400 deaths, 60,000 hospitalizations, 600,000 emergency department visits annually in the United States, and is the most common reason that a child will sustain a significant life-long disability (Stanley et al., 2012). Unfortunately, the education of most mental health professionals (including school psychologists) regarding neurobehavioral sequelae of traumatic brain injury (TBI) is vastly insufficient (Silver, McAllister, & Yudofsky, 2011). Negative effects resulting from this educational deficiency may be especially true for mild PTBI (mPTBI), which accounts for 80%-90% of all cases of PTBI treated annually in hospital settings (Kirkwood & Yeates, 2010a), as

it has become increasingly clear that complicated cases of mPTBI can cause persistent neurobehavioral impairment. This possibility has historically been largely ignored, even by specialists in PTBI (Kirkwood & Yeates, 2010a, 2010b; Yeates et al., 2012).

The purpose of this paper is to address the knowledge deficits of school psychologists regarding mPTBI. It will begin with a brief overview of PTBI in general that will provide the essential foundation for a review of the recent developments in the understanding of complicated mPTBI.¹

Pediatric Traumatic Brain Injury

PTBI is a traumatically induced structural injury or other alteration in brain function as a result of an external force that is indicated by new onset of at least one of the following clinical signs, immediately following the event (Orman et al., 2011)

- Any period of loss or of a decreased

level
of consciousness

- Any loss of memory for events immediately before or after injury
- Any alteration in mental state at the time of the injury (confusion, disorientation, slowed thinking, etc.)
- Neurological deficits (weakness, loss of balance, change in vision, etc.)
- Intracranial lesion

Although no single classification of PTBI exists that encompasses all the clinical and neuropathological features, traditionally PTBI has been classified by mechanisms causing the trauma, clinical severity, and assessment of structure damage (Smith, 2011).



¹ For a comprehensive presentation on TBI in general, the reader should consult the 2nd edition of the authoritative *Textbook of Traumatic Brain Injury* (Silver, McAllister, & Yudofsky, 2011).

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Mechanisms

This classification distinguishes between focal PTBI caused by penetrating the substance of the brain (e.g. a bullet) or diffuse PTBI caused by closed head, non-penetrating trauma such as a fall or a car accident (the two most common causes in children) [Smith, 2011; Yeates, 2010]. The injury mechanisms in pediatric closed head injury are usually diffuse, resulting in global effects (Stanford & Dorflinger, 2009). Children are more likely to be affected by diffuse TBI than adults because the biochemical properties of the immature brain render it more vulnerable to trauma than the mature brain of the adult (Yeates, 2010). The diffuse injuries from closed head trauma can be classified into two broad categories: primary and secondary (Yeates, 2010). Primary injuries, which result directly from the trauma itself, include skull fractures, contusions/hemorrhaging, and diffuse axonal injury (DAI). This latter injury, which results in widespread axonal shearing because of the rapid acceleration and deceleration caused by the accident, is the most important cause of mortality and neurobehavioral impairment (Smith, 2011). Secondary injuries, which arise indirectly from the trauma, include brain swelling/edema, increased intracranial pressure, and mass lesions.

Severity

Severity of brain injury exists across a broad continuum with the most severe and long-lasting neurobehavioral impairments caused by severe TBI (McAllister, 2011; Yeates, 2010). The classification of injury severity focuses predominantly on three parameters: 1) duration of loss of consciousness (LOC) if any, 2) duration of post-traumatic amnesia (PTA), 3) and scores the Glasgow Coma Scale (GCS) which is a simple measure of best speech and language, motor, and oculomotor function within 24 hours of the injury (Yeates, 2010). On this scale, which has historically been considered to be the gold standard in the assessment of initial injury severity (Adelson, 2010), individuals are given a total score ranging from 1 to 15 based on degree of impairment of the three functions, with lower scores indicating more impairment. By convention, scores from 13 to 15 represent mild injuries, scores from 9 to 12 represent moderate injuries, and scores of 8 and less represent severe injuries (Yeates, 2010).

Structure Damage

The damage associated with TBI may include the following (Smith, 2011): scalp lacerations, skull fractures, contusions (bruising of the surface of the brain), intracranial hemorrhages (bleeding), ischemia (reduced blood flow), and infarction (cell death).

Traditionally this damage has been detected by neuroimaging techniques, such as computed tomography (CT) and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) techniques (Ashwal et al., 2011; McAllister, 2011). However it is now recognized that these conventional techniques may lack adequate sensitivity in detecting brain injury (Ashwal et al., 2011; Rivara, 2012). A number of more sensitive techniques have been developed with diffusion tensor imaging (DTI) being particularly useful for assessing for diffuse axonal injury (DAI), which as previously mentioned is primarily responsible for the neuropsychological impairments caused by PTBI (Ashwal et al., 2011). For example, MacDonald and colleagues (2011) recently found that in a study of 63 soldiers who had been diagnosed with a mTBI, 29% showed DTI abnormalities, no abnormalities on a MRI scan.

Neurobehavioral Outcome

There is overwhelming evidence that juveniles who have sustained a severe PTBI are at increased risk for a multitude of acute neurobehavioral impairments in various domains such as: persisting neurological symptoms, motor dysfunction, communication difficulties, poor attention, reduced memory, slow processing speed, executive dysfunction (e.g., impaired behavioral

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and emotional regulation), and social and emotional disorders (Anderson & Yeates, 2010; Yeates, 2010). Furthermore, since many of the foregoing impairments are characteristic of Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) [Barkley, 2010; Willcutt & Bidwell, 2011], it is not surprising that approximately 30% of cases of severe PTBI also develop ADHD, termed secondary ADHD (SADHD) to distinguish it from primary or developmental ADHD (Eme, 2012). Furthermore, a not insignificant number of juveniles with less severe forms of PTBI (e.g., 8 out of 63) can also develop SADHD (Sinopoli, Schachar, & Dennis, 2011).

With regard to long term neurobehavioral outcome, most longitudinal studies have followed children for relatively brief periods (Yeates, 2010). Children with severe TBI generally show significant improvement in their neuropsychological functioning during the first year postinjury; yet recovery begins to plateau after the first year, with negligible change occurring during the following 2 years post injury (Fay et al., 2009). The findings of a 3-5 year follow-up of 37 children with severe PTBI who ranged in age from 6 to 12 years at the time of the injury (Fay et al., 2009) are representative

of these studies. Approximately 40% of the children had two or more deficits in neuropsychological, behavioral, adaptive, or academic functioning. The pattern of functional deficits is influenced by a variety of factors such as severity of injury, premorbid functioning, and environmental factors such as socioeconomic status. There is also a growing body of evidence that the adverse neurobehavioral outcomes of severe PTBI extend into young adulthood. Although reports of gross neurobehavioral impairment are rare, where cognitive problems are detected, they tend to be in attention, memory and processing speed with effects being most dramatic for measures assessing quality of life in domains such as work and leisure, relationships, and living skills (Anderson et al., 2011).

Mild Pediatric Traumatic Brain Injury

The discussion of mild TBI (mTBI) in the scientific literature has employed an array of designations with the terms *concussion* and *mild TBI* being the most common (DeMatteo et al., 2010). Despite some inconsistency among researchers in defining mPTBI (Kirkwood & Yeates, 2010b), individuals with LOC that is less than 30 minutes, with duration of

posttraumatic amnesia² that is less than 24 hours, and with GCS scores of 13-15 are usually considered to have had a mTBI (McAllister, 2011). However, classification based upon GCSs is less accurate for children than it is for adults for several reasons. First, in general, the GCS is considered to be a crude tool for assessing "...one of the most complex heterogeneous disorders in the most complex organ in the body and dumbing it down to mild, moderate, and severe" (Miller, 2010, p. 297). Indeed several studies have shown the development of traumatic intracranial brain hematomas in 15%-20% of individuals with a perfect GCS score of 15 (Hessen, 2010). For example Kirkwood and Yeates (2010a) presented a case history of a 15 year old male with a mTBI who despite a perfect GCS score of 15 had a small right frontal hematoma, and at 6 weeks postinjury experienced impaired functioning on a neuropsychological evaluation, and severe academic problems. Second, the GCS has never been fully validated for use with children (Adelson, 2010; Stanford & Dorflinger, 2009). As a consequence of these limitations, many cases of PTBI classified as mild are in reality more severe and hence more likely to result in negative neurobehavioral outcomes.

² This refers to impaired ability to form new memories after the TBI leading to "patchy" recollections in MTBI (McAllister, 2011, p. 240).

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Neurobehavioral Outcomes

Despite some inconsistency among researchers in defining mPTBI, an adequate understanding of its natural history does exist (Kirkwood et al., 2008). In the first days and weeks after a mild PTBI there is a constellation of neurobehavioral sequelae referred to as postconcussive symptoms (PCS) that can be reliably clustered into two dimensions for juveniles: cognitive (e.g. trouble sustaining attention, confusion, forgetfulness) and somatic (e.g. headache, dizziness, nausea) (Ayr et al., 2009).

The duration of PCS is a topic of considerable scientific controversy since it depends upon how the symptoms are assessed. Experimental work suggests that the pathophysiological effects of mTBI most often result in temporary rather than permanent brain damage (Kirkwood & Yeates, 2010a). Hence well-controlled studies using standardized neuropsychological and academic achievement tests indicate that cognitive or achievement deficits are generally not evident 2-3 months post injury for most children (Kirkwood et al., 2008). However, in a sizable minority, PCS based upon child and parent self report last months or even years longer despite a resolution of whatever cognitive or achievement deficits were initially seen, and are associated with significant functional deficits (Yeates & Taylor, 2005; Yeates et al., 2009, 2012).

Although non-injury factors undoubtedly account for some of these findings, it now accepted that injury related or neurogenic variables are also involved. These cases represent a PTBI that is termed complicated mPTBI (Hessen, 2010; Kirkwood & Yeates, 2010a,b; McAllister, 2011).

Complicated Mild PTBI

There has been increasing recognition that mPTBI, like all instances of PTBI, exists on a continuum with even cases in the mild range being at risk of persistent adverse neurobehavioral outcomes (Hessen, 2010; Kirkwood & Yeates, 2010a,b). The term complicated was coined in 1990 to designate these cases at the severe end of mPTBI when it was discovered that the presence of abnormal CT findings in mild cases of adult TBI revealed complications of brain physiology and predicted more persistent problems (Williams, Levin, & Eisenburg, 1990). Since then research has been accumulating that supports this initial finding not only for adults (McAllister, 2011) but also for juveniles (Hessen, 2010; Levin et al., 20078; Kirkwood & Yeates, 2010a,b).

Criteria for Identifying Complicated Mild Pediatric Traumatic Brain Injury

Although distinguishing between complicated and uncomplicated mTBI has received far less attention in pediatric than

adult cases (Kirkwood & Yeates, 2010a), several well-designed prospective studies have recently been conducted that provide valuable information for this differential diagnosis (Kirkwood & Yeates, 2010a).

Levin and colleagues (2007) examined the one year post injury outcomes of 80 mTBI cases who were 5-15 years of age at the time of injury. Of these cases, 32 were considered to have complicated mTBI because postinjury CT scans revealed complications of brain physiology such as contusions, hemorrhages, or swelling. At one year, the findings paralleled the results in adult cases in that the juveniles with complicated mTBI performed worse in multiple cognitive (e.g., measures of working memory, episodic memory, and processing speed) and academic domains (i.e., Calculation and Letter-Word Identification tests from the Woodcock Johnson III Tests of Achievement) when compared with those with uncomplicated mTBI.

Rivera and colleagues (2011) examined postinjury outcomes in health-related quality of life, adaptive skills, and participation in social and community activities at, 12, and 24 months after TBI in a sample of 729 juveniles 18 and younger and a comparison group of 197 juveniles with an arm injury. At 3 months children with complicated mTBI had lower quality of life scores than the comparison group. Although this difference was not evident

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at 12 months, the authors concluded that the adverse consequences of complicated mPTBI warrants further investigation.

In the most sophisticated study to date, a team of researchers (Fay et al., 2010; Taylor et al., 2010; Yeates et al., 2009, 2012) studied outcomes of parent reported PCS and physical and psychological functioning in 186 juveniles aged 8-15 with mTBI in comparison to 99 juveniles with mild orthopedic injuries within 3 weeks of injury, and at 1, 3 and 12 months post injury. At the initial assessment (within 3 weeks of injury), parents also provided retrospective ratings of preinjury child behavioral adjustment and family functioning. Hence, this study was able to control for and rule out 2 common confounds in other studies of PTBI, namely the failure to rule out the effects of trauma in general, or preexisting symptoms rather than brain insult as causes of adverse neurobehavioral outcome (Taylor et al., 2010). At 12 months postinjury, children with more severe cases of mPTBI characterized by abnormalities on MRI and a greater duration of loss of consciousness (median = 1 minute, range = 1-15 minutes) were significantly more likely than those with orthopedic injuries to exhibit cognitive PCS such as “trouble sustaining attention, forgetfulness, easily confused” (Ayr et al., 2009) and declines in health-related quality of life as assessed by parent ratings of

their children’s physical and psychosocial functioning on a 50 item questionnaire (Yeates et al., 2012).

In the longest follow-up of a prospective study to date, Hessen (2010) studied neuropsychological outcomes 23 years post-injury of 119 Norwegian juveniles with mTBI who were 15 years or younger at the time of injury. They were assessed on an extensive battery of 24 tests which were combined to yield an overall measure of neuropsychological deficit. When compared to the test battery normative group, all scores for the 24 neuropsychological tests were in the normal range. However, after controlling for a variety of pre and post-injury risk factors, juveniles with complicated mPTBI, as indexed by posttraumatic amnesia beyond 30 minutes and a pathological EEG within the first 24 hours, were at greater risk for neuropsychological deficits such as impairments in attention and processing speed than those with uncomplicated mPTBI.

Lastly, although the literature does contain conflicting results, the cumulative findings from animal and human studies suggests that risk for a mPTBI being complicated is increased by the number of prior occurrences of mPTBI (Wilde et al., 2012). This may be especially true when a juvenile sustains a second mTBI (termed “second-impact syndrome”) before fully recovering from the prior mTBI

(Wilde et al., 2012). Additional evidence comes from the recent recognition that multiple concussive or subconcussive head impacts associated with sports as well as other activities such as physical abuse and head banging can result in neurodegenerative disease termed chronic traumatic encephalopathy (CTE) (Gavett, Stern, & McKee, 2011; McKee et al., 2009). The onset of CTE is typically in midlife (Gavett, Stern, & McKee, 2011), though it can occur much earlier as evidenced by the autopsy results of an 18 year old who sustained multiple concussions playing high school football (Miller, 2007). Although it is not known what severity or recurrence of concussion is required to initiate CTE, there is no doubt that prior occurrences increase risk for complicated mPTBI (Kirkwood & Yeates, 2010a).

Conclusion

It is now clear, contrary to historical assumptions, that some cases of mPTBI, termed complicated mPTBI can result in persistent cognitive impairments, with impairments of attention, memory, and processing speed being the most common in mild as well as moderate and severe TBI in children and adults (Mathias & Wheaton, 2007; McAllister, 2008; Wilde et al., 2012; Yeates, 2010). The reason for this change in thinking is the recognition that mPTBI resides along a spectrum

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of severity with some of those at the severe end continuing to suffer from neuronal damage and thus continuing to have neurobehavioral impairments. Cases of mPTBI that are more likely to be complicated are characterized by pathological findings on brain scans, greater than five minutes of loss of consciousness and posttraumatic amnesia (Kirkwood & Yeates, 2010a), less than perfect scores on the GCS (i.e., 13-14), and occurrence(s) of prior mPTBIs. Moreover, since two of the most common methods of assessing severity of PTBI, the GCS scale and CT scan, are frequently insensitive measures of brain neuropathology, many cases assessed as mild are in reality more severe.

Guidelines for School Management

The following guidelines are based on the recommended protocol provided by Kirk, Slomine, & Dise-Lewis (2012) for the school based management of mPTBI.

Step 1: Communication

As Kirk, Slomine, & Dise-Lewis (2012, p. 327) observed, “One of the most common pitfalls in implementing appropriate educational services for the child with TBI is the lack of communication among medical professionals, parents, and educational professionals.” If the mTBI occurred in the school setting, then school would

presumably be aware of the event and hence the first step would be accomplished. However, if the mTBI occurred outside of school, since even the experts have not historically appreciated the potential seriousness of mPTBI, parents may not have informed the school. They may not have taken their child to a medical provider, or if they did, the injury may not have been formally diagnosed as a TBI (Kirkwood & Yeates, 2010a; Orman et al., 2011). Indeed, parents are very likely to wrongly think that “My child doesn’t have a brain injury, he only has a concussion” (DeMatteo et al., 2010, p. 327). Hence, under the assumption that a child who has sustained mTBI will probably miss school for at least a day because of physical symptoms such as headache, nausea, dizziness, etc., it is incumbent upon school personnel to always inquire about the possibility of a mTBI as a reason for missing school if the parents have not provided one. Once it has been established that a child has sustained a mTBI, the second step should be implemented.

Step 2: Identifying a School Case Manager and Monitoring the Student

The school should appoint a case manager who is well educated on PTBI and who will take the lead among the child’s educational team. The manager should receive the initial information regarding the child’s mTBI as well as

any recommendations that may have been given by a medical provider for the child’s treatment. Second, this information should be evaluated using the previously discussed criteria that have been found to be predictive of a complicated mTBI. Third, if it seems likely that this is the case, various informal temporary accommodations and modifications should initially be established upon the child’s return to school as the child with a complicated mTBI should not be expected to immediately function at the same pre TBI level. For example, a transition plan to school can be developed which might include provision such as a gradual return-to-school-day, reduced class and homework assignments, having the juvenile meet with the case manager at the end of each day to assess school functioning, etc. Fourth, the child’s progress should be carefully monitored. If after 2-3 months post injury (by which time most children with a mTBI will have experienced complete recovery), the child is continuing to experience significant problems in academic functioning, continues to miss a significant amount of school, or evidences any of the classic cognitive impairments in attention, memory, and processing speed (the likelihood of which is higher in children with a complicated mTBI), a referral to a health care specialist with expertise in PTBI to assist with providing a formal

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supportive safety net.

Step 3: Providing a Formal Supportive Safety Net

When temporary, informal accommodations and modifications prove inadequate, a referral for a neuropsychological evaluation is warranted. Furthermore, since it is a truism that “almost certainly” (Kirkwood & Yeates, 2010a, p.15) any symptoms subsequent to PTBI reflect a complex constellation of both injury and non-injury related factors, this evaluation should also include an assessment for premorbid psychiatric features or situational stresses that may be complicating recovery. Such a comprehensive evaluation will provide the necessary information for a Section 504 Plan or an IEP (Kirk, Slomine, & Duse-Lewis, 2012) that will replace the informal safety net that was initially implemented.

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The Mentoring Dynamic: Reflections and Considerations

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From graduate coursework and internship training to professional employment mentoring can serve as a vital signpost for professional education and development. In fact, mentoring can help graduate trainees as well as emerging professionals understand and confront the changing dynamics of school-based mental health issues. According to Bonura (2006) interns typically quickly realize that a mentor can be an invaluable asset, as even an enthusiastic and competent student can become insecure and discouraged without a guide. This article is intended to highlight the utility of mentoring.

Background

Where, in fact, did the term “mentoring” arise? Unknown to many, the term originated in *The Odyssey* by Homer where Odysseus, as he leaves his home, asks to entrust his son, Telemachus to

his trusted friend and advisor, Mentor. Anderson and Shannon (1988), looking at that relationship, noted his work included four components: 1) Intention, 2) Nurturance, 3) Insight, and 4) Support.

Crespi and Rueckert (2002) suggested that an effective mentor should consider each of these facets as mentors teach and guide a mentee in the practical aspects of the profession, provide counsel through myriad professional decisions, and serve as a collaborative partner and guide. While mentoring has been discussed as important for decades (Ellis, 1992), then, and while it has been stated that individuals with mentors experience greater satisfaction, are more productive, and are more involved with systematic professional development than those without mentors, mentoring has not been specifically defined to many and its utility remains somewhat amorphous. Clark,

Harden, and Johnson (2000) noted that many psychology graduates report a lack in mentoring in professional psychology training!

Putting this succinctly, mentoring can be conceptualized as a process where a senior colleague – someone with greater rank, experience, and accomplishments – guides and supports a less developed colleague with personal and professional issues (Crespi, & Rueckert, 2002). For a graduate student and early career professional there are many individuals who can influence and guide an individual. These individuals can include faculty, internship supervisors, colleagues, and members of professional groups. Not all these individuals will necessarily serve as mentors. Given that mentoring can be an important influence and given that mentors can educate students about changes in education, mentoring should be

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considered as an important developmental tool in the career development of a school psychologist.

Still, what issues might be considered? The following represent a sampling of issues mentors and mentees might examine:

- 1) **School-Based Mental Health Practices:** School-based mental health practice has experienced dramatic changes. Discussion topics might explore myriad issues ranging from third party reimbursement to school based health clinics, to legal challenges in the schools.
- 2) **Career Development Options:** School psychologists can consider a maze of career opportunities ranging from school-based career paths to university teaching. Students can benefit from such discussions as well as thoughts on careers including that of a Director of Psychological Services or State Consultant.
- 3) **Educational Development Opportunities:** What options would a Ph.D. offer? Would a private practice be of interest? Is specialty training appealing? Is a career path in Administration appealing? Indeed, educational development options can be quite wide and students may find such discussions engaging.
- 4) **Licensure And Certification Options:** Not all practitioners are

aware of various credentialing options available in mental health, nor about opportunities credentials can offer. Mentors might talk about requirements for credentialing as a Licensed Psychologist, Licensed Professional Counselor, as well as advantages of Board Certification by the American board of Professional Psychology (ABPP).

- 5) **Part-Time Employment Options:** Practitioners can often earn supplemental income through diverse activities ranging from university teaching to private practice. Such opportunities possess unique challenges and may require thoughtful exploration which can be explored with a mentor.
- 6) **Association Contributions:** Becoming involved in state and regional associations can impact the profession, stimulate new laws and impact state regulations. Still, such involvements may be new and unrealized without the support and encouragement of a mentor.
- 7) **Professional And Personal Life Challenges:** Balancing home and school can present unique challenges. Returning home after counseling a suicidal client or after a referral of child abuse can leave emotional impacts not often realized during graduate school. A mentor can often

serve as a listening post and guide in helping to learn to balance the twin challenges of a rich home life and vibrant career.

- 8) **Developmental Career and Life Goals:** Developing a life map which balances with career goals can be arduous. Retirement planning? Health insurance options? Sabbatical options? Summer employment? Vacation planning around assigned school breaks? Indeed, school based careers often pose many life challenges around which a mentor can be most helpful.

Noe (1988) outlined ten wonderful advantages of mentoring. In a useful way, these can serve as both an outline and guide.

- 1) Sponsorship,
- 2) Exposure and Visibility,
- 3) Coaching,
- 4) Protection,
- 5) Suggested Challenges,
- 6) Role Model,
- 7) Encouragement of New Behaviors,
- 8) Performance Feedback,
- 9) Outlet For Concerns And Fears,
- 10) Information on Work and Non-Work Experiences.

Conclusions

Mentoring involves a relationship whereby a senior colleague supports and guides a junior colleague. In a

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fundamental way, mentoring relationships can be helpful and important to school psychologists. From career advice to long-term plans a mentor can help support and guide a younger protégé. This article, briefly, has highlighted a sampling of research on mentoring.

Just as Odysseus entrusted his son Telemachus to his wise friend Mentor, so too, school psychologists may trust a mentor with helping to guide their development. In truth, this is an important responsibility. In fact, just as mentors work as a role model and mentor helped shape a young life, so too, a mentor can guide a school psychologist in profound ways. Have you served as a mentor? Would you benefit from a mentor? Indeed, the challenges are immense. Nevertheless, mentoring provides rewards and it is rewarding!

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PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

So You Want to Be a Professor? Perspectives on the Academic Job Search Process Part 2 – Interviewing and Beyond

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The process of securing a faculty position is fraught with ambiguities and unanswered questions. In Part 1 of this series, we described the university hiring process, considerations for candidates entering the job market, and the typical components of an application. Here, we provide an overview of processes following the selection of potential candidates for a faculty position. We base our advice on our experiences as candidates in multiple job searches and as members of search committees, while acknowledging that there may be considerable differences in the process between and even within institutions.

The Selection of Candidates

As described in Part 1, the search committee typically plays a central role in reviewing submitted applications and selecting promising candidates for further consideration. Depending on the number

of such cases, the search committee may identify several candidates for phone screening in order to select a final smaller pool for campus visits. Phone interviews are generally brief and typically entail discussing the applicant's qualifications to determine fit with the position. In other cases, when fewer candidates are considered strong contenders, those individuals may promptly be invited to campus. Depending on the institution, these invitations may have to be approved by various administrators (e.g., department chair, dean, provost, etc.).

The Campus Visit

Assuming you fit the requirements of the job posting, your careful preparation of application materials will hopefully result in an invitation for an on-campus visit. These visits are considerably more involved and longer than a typical job interview, so knowledge of the process

is essential. After all, these visits will determine who is (and is not) eventually offered the position. In this section, we provide insight into the campus visit, as well as pointers that will help applicants navigate on-campus visits.

Don't Think of It as an Interview

Although it is tempting to think of the campus visit as a job interview, in reality, it is often so much more than that. Typically, you will spend one to two full days visiting the campus meeting various members of the scholarly community. While this certainly provides the search committee the opportunity to further evaluate your suitability for the position, it also serves other purposes. First, it provides opportunities for the broader faculty and, often, the students to become familiar with you as a scholar and potential colleague. Second, it provides the opportunity for you to familiarize yourself

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with the students, faculty, administration, and others in the university community. Third, you will have the chance to learn more about the college/university and location. You may tour the university and/or city to learn about university resources, residential communities, and other issues pertinent to relocating. Thus, while the campus visit provides an opportunity for the search committee to determine whether they think you should be offered the position, it also provides you the opportunity to determine whether you want it. The importance of the latter should not be underestimated. Think of it more as a mutual audition rather than just an interview.

During the visit, questions that are more general in nature may be asked, as well as questions that are more targeted towards your research and teaching. We provide examples of such inquiries in Table 1. While it is important for the various university stakeholders to determine if the you are a good fit for them, you should be equally engaged in evaluating whether the university is a good fit for you since the campus visit is a time for you to gather the data you need to determine if you could be happy in the department, university, and community. Expectations for promotion and tenure are an important aspect to determine. Examples of other questions you might ask of the people with which

you meet during a campus visit are also included in Table 1. Another consideration is whether you can envision yourself content living in the part of the country in which the university is located. Practical considerations to be explored might include spousal employment (i.e., the health of the job market in the area, necessity for a spousal hire within the university), relocation assistance, housing options, and recreational activities.

Arranging Your Visit

The search committee will often generally make (and pay for) your travel arrangements and accommodations. Many universities will arrange travel and accommodations for visiting candidates while others require applicants to arrange their own travel and sometimes accommodations. Similarly, most universities arrange to pay for costs associated with travel and accommodations upfront, while some may require the applicant to pay for these costs, save receipts, and obtain reimbursement after the on-campus visit. Such arrangement will typically be explained to you, but if not, you may inquire as to the procedures to determine the expenses for which you may initially be responsible. The search committee chairperson also typically prepares a detailed itinerary for your visit which may

include who will meet you at the airport or train station upon your arrival, as well as who will drop you off at the conclusion of the on-campus interview.

Your campus visit will generally include meals with faculty and others, meetings with program stakeholders, and a research presentation. You may also be asked to provide a teaching demonstration, and may be provided tours of the college, university, and surrounding community. The dates, times, and locations of each meeting and presentation you must attend will generally also be provided, which you should ask to have as far in advance as possible. If possible, ask that you have a brief break (e.g., 15 to 30 minutes) in your itinerary before your talk so that you have time to get everything set up, calm your nerves, and tackle any glitches before your audience arrives.

On-campus visits tend to be tightly packed with few opportunities for down time. Plan and pack accordingly. If you need breaks during the day (e.g., for a conference call that cannot be rescheduled, to pump breast milk) be sure to communicate this well in advance since your itinerary may not otherwise include any breaks. If traveling to a different region, check the weather so that you will have appropriate attire. Be prepared to wear your suit and shoes all day. You will need to look professional, but also be comfortable since you will

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likely be shuffled from one meeting to the next from breakfast through dinner. It is probable that you will be accompanied by one or more members of the search committee for all onsite transportation (e.g., to and from the airport/train station, to and from meetings) and meals.

Think carefully about what you will need for your presentation(s), and be sure to communicate this to the search chair well in advance. That said, you should be prepared for technology difficulties and plan accordingly. Consider including handouts and be prepared to do your talk without any additional audiovisual aids (e.g., PowerPoint) should the equipment fail. Be sure to have your presentation materials saved on a flash drive and, when possible, share the materials via email or other means with the search committee or staff so that they can download them to their computer and make copies as needed.

Doing Your Homework

Given the importance of this visit, it is wise to engage in appropriate preparation. While you likely did some investigation of the program and institution when you prepared your application materials, you should gather additional information in advance of a campus visit based on the provide itinerary. Your primary concern will likely be to prepare for your research

presentation, but you should also take time to prepare for the other meetings that will take place by familiarizing yourself with the people with whom you will meet and the program, department, college, university, and other local organizations. For instance, you may learn about the local research centers or clinics, school systems, or other organizations with which you could develop professional relationships as a member of the faculty. Familiarize yourself with the research emphases and areas of expertise of the faculty with whom you will meet. Even if a faculty member's research interests are not consistent with yours, basic awareness of their work will at least give you some things to talk about. It will also demonstrate that you are knowledgeable of the faculty and their areas of research. While it is certainly not expected that you know everything about the university or the individuals within it, you should demonstrate a basic level of familiarity and interest. If nothing else, be prepared to ask questions about various elements of the position, program, and institution. Such knowledge will help facilitate informed conversations during the time you spend with faculty while visiting campus.

You will also likely be asked questions about your interest in potential collaborations with other scholars, centers, or organizations. If you seem

unfamiliar with these, search committee members may take your lack of knowledge as lack of interest in the position. This, in turn, can undermine your chances of a job offer. You may consider having a list of questions for each individual or type of individual with which you meet (e.g., program faculty, department faculty, administrators, current students). This is also your chance to assess collaboration and collegiality within the unit, so be prepared to interact with faculty, students, and administrators to ascertain how these individuals interact and engage with you.

Your campus visit may also include a meeting with students that are typically not attended by the search committee or other faculty members. Search committees often consider student input in their hiring decisions, so these meetings provide a way for the students to get to know you. Like your meetings with faculty, it is important to be professional, genuine, warm, and engaging. Perhaps more importantly, meetings with students are also a valuable opportunity to gauge the climate and collegiality of the program, department, or college. Students are often very candid, and this can be helpful for determining whether this position is a good fit for you.

The Research Talk

The research or job talk is a central component of the campus visit, particularly for positions in which

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research is a primary area of your work. The job talk is usually a 45-60 minute formal to semi-formal research presentation, with additional time allotted for discussion and questions. You may ask the search chair about the desired structure of the presentation (e.g., how much time to allow for discussion, whether to focus on a single study or your broader research agenda). You can expect the attending faculty to inquire about the specific study or studies discussed, implications, future directions, and the links to their own work (which is why it helps to do your homework in advance — see above). The job talk is your opportunity to demonstrate that you can design and carry out solid research that has the potential to lead to publications and grant funding. You might best accomplish this by presenting one study, acknowledging the study's strengths and limitations, and demonstrating the ability to respond to questions about the study in a thoughtful and meaningful manner. It is also advisable to dedicate several minutes at the end of the presentation focused on ideas for future research studies that stem from the research study presented even when the search committee suggests that a single-study talk is desired. This demonstrates that you have considered developing a cohesive research agenda that has long-term viability. When posed with challenging questions, don't be afraid

to ask for clarification or to say, "I don't know" or "I don't know that yet." Use those tough questions to acknowledge a new angle or unanswered question.

Typically, faculty members from across the department attend the job talk, along with some of the department's students. The talk may be video-recorded to allow those not in attendance to evaluate your performance. It is common for faculty and students attending the job talk to rate the candidate using a rating scale prepared by the search committee. Alternatively, the search committee may disseminate your CV and other materials (e.g., representative publications, sample syllabi) for review and then solicit feedback on your overall suitability. The increasing use of web surveys means you may be evaluated by people with whom you have no direct interaction.

In preparing for your research talk, you should be thoughtful in your selection and presentation of the topic. Structure your talk in a way that reflects your scholarship and desired trajectory. Be concise in your preparation of visual materials, avoiding wordy slides or overly complex graphics. You should gear your descriptions to both generalists and specialists since your audience will likely include faculty who do not have a background in school psychology. Be sure to practice your talk, preferably with an audience to ensure timely progress and

clarity. You should also be familiar enough with your talk to proceed without slides or other visuals if necessary. A good rule of thumb is to plan for mishaps so that you can maintain your composure regardless. In general, do not underestimate the importance of the research talk; in some cases, it may be one of the most important aspects of your campus visit, particularly in research-intensive institutions.

Teaching Demonstration

In some instances, the applicant may also be asked to give a teaching demonstration as well. This may be more common at institutions where faculty obligations are more weighted towards teaching than research. To prepare for a teaching demonstration, applicants should determine the content of the course, previous material covered, and the makeup of the students (i.e. undergraduates or graduates). It is likely that a few faculty members will also attend the teaching demonstration so providing opportunities for students to ask questions allows the applicant a chance to demonstrate his/her mastery of the material, as well as ability to effectively communicate with students. Importantly, applicants should remember to present in a manner that is comfortable and natural so that students and faculty can get a realistic view of the applicants' teaching

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strategies and teaching persona.

The Importance of Socializing

As suggested above, you should be prepared to interact with members of the hiring unit throughout the duration of your visit. You will likely engage in several meals with faculty, students, and possibly other university stakeholders. These meals are often held in informal settings such as a local restaurant or the on-campus faculty dining hall, but may also take place at a search committee or faculty member's home. These meals are intended to provide an opportunity to evaluate applicants' fit as a colleague—that is, beyond your potential to contribute to the field as a scholar and trainer, are you someone who others will want to have as a colleague (that is, do they want you in the office next door/down the hall for the next one to thirty years)?

It is likely that meals will include program faculty, departmental faculty, and at times, students. You should engage everyone who joins you for a meal. As previously noted, you will also be evaluated during informal interactions (e.g., meals, in the car on the way from and to the airport, walking from one meeting to the next with a student or faculty host, etc.). Finally, applicants often get an opportunity to engage a student or individual faculty member during the campus tour. This is a great time to get a

feeling for the campus, learn great places to grab a bite to eat, and gain insight about the college/university from the guide's perspective. However, like with informal meals and meetings, you should remain aware that the campus tour is still a part of the evaluation process for a faculty position. Thus, it is important that you maintain a professional, approachable, and authentic demeanor at all times.

After your visit, you may send follow up messages thanking the search committee chair (and other relevant faculty members) for hosting the visit. You may also send follow up messages of other faculty with whom you met. Even if you do not receive an offer for the position, you will likely encounter these individuals in professional settings and may want to collaborate with scholars met during campus visits. Therefore, it is important for applicants to demonstrate collegiality even after the interview and offer or rejection is received.

Managing Offers

Hopefully, the result of your visit will be an offer for the position. An offer will typically be made by the department chair or dean and will include some or all of the following: title; contract term; salary; roles/responsibilities (e.g., teaching load, course assignments); probationary period; terms of performance evaluation/promotion; allowances for travel, research,

professional development, graduate/research assistance; relocation expenses; equipment and office space. In some institutions, many of the terms of an offer are negotiable, so you should be strategic, yet honorable, in making your requests. If any of these items are not included in the offer letter and are of concern or interest to you, you should inquire through the person who delivered the offer. It is important to be clear on the terms before you sign anything since it can be quite difficult to solicit additional support or resources afterwards. If you believe you need particular types of support (e.g., software, equipment, research assistants, space, spousal appointments) before you can accept a position, this is the time in the process to request those resources. Your requests should be based on your short and long-term goals and what you think you need in order to be effective in your position. In some instances, this will largely be informed by the circumstances most conducive to your research productivity. Some of the items you request will be essential (e.g., critical materials) and others preferred but not necessary (e.g., summer salary, course releases). This is another area in which doing your homework is important because it can provide information regarding the types and amount of resources you can procure. For instance, you'll likely be unsuccessful

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at negotiating a salary well above that of all other similarly ranked professors in your unit (e.g., assistant professors in the college), so it helps to inquire about such information beforehand.

If you have applied for multiple positions, you might find yourself deciding between multiple offers. In these cases, you will often compare the data gathered during your visit and the terms of the offer to determine which the best position to accept is. This is why the campus visit is so important. At this point in the process, there are several issues to consider: promotion and tenure criteria, workload, institutional resources, professional development opportunities, research support, teaching supporting, mentoring opportunities, collegiality, faculty governance, community characteristics and resources, location, and anything else that may be germane to your professional and personal development.

When faced with two or more attractive positions in which you could envision yourself, your decision may be decided by the terms of the contract. In these cases, you may ask a school to change their offer to match or trump what you have been offered elsewhere. If you have no intention of accepting a position, you should let them know promptly so that the search committee can move forward with other options. In general, you should be discreet and

forthright with all parties since your behavior in this process will contribute to your professional reputation. Whether you accept a given position or not, the faculty on the search committee are now part of your professional community.

Regrouping and Moving Forward

There may be times when your job search is unproductive or you are not offered the position for which you hoped. If you are not invited for any phone interviews or campus visits, you may ask a mentor or other trusted colleague to review your materials to identify potential improvements. Poorly presented application materials can lead to negative evaluations of your appropriateness for a position. Even when your credentials and experience are strong, failure to follow directions or conform to expectations in your field can undermine the success of your application.

If you participated in screenings or campus interviews and did not garner an offer, it could be that there was nothing wrong with your qualifications or fit per se, but that there was simply a more fitting candidate. It will often be difficult to determine why you were not offered a position since multiple factors inform the decision. If you have a trusted colleague at the institution(s) you visited, you may seek feedback regarding your performance

during the research talk and other activities. After each visit, you should also have reflected on what worked and didn't; what questions or interactions you struggled with; and what information you needed but didn't get so that you can do better the next time. You can use this information to fine-tune your efforts when a new position becomes available.

Resources

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Table 1
Example Questions for the Campus Visit

Questions to Expect	Questions to Ask
<p>General</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Why do you want to join this department, college, and university? • How do you see yourself contributing to our department? • What are your long-term goals? • Where do you see this field going in five, ten, and twenty years? • What is your philosophy of training? • What kind of startup package do you need? • What is your methodology for problem-solving? • How do you feel about living here? <p>Research-Focused</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tell us about your dissertation. • What is your 3-5 year plan for research (and why)? • With which faculty, centers, or departments can you envision collaborating? • What supports do you need to conduct your research? • What are your plans for applying for external funding? • What kinds of facilities would you need to conduct your research and teaching here? • How does X apply to your research? How does your research apply to X? • What opportunities for collaboration do you foresee here? <p>Teaching Related</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What is your basic teaching philosophy? • What is your experience advising students' research? • What is your experience advising students in the field? • What courses would you like to teach? • What courses would you feel comfortable teaching? • How do you incorporate technology in your teaching? • How do you approach teaching students of mixed abilities and backgrounds? • How has our research influenced your teaching? 	<p>General</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What is the availability of mentorship for new faculty? • What are the expectations for promotion and tenure? • What support is available for professional development, including conference travel? • What are the immediate needs of the program? How do you see me fitting into those needs? • What are the strengths and weaknesses of the program/department/college? • What are the department's plans for growth and hiring? • What relocation assistant/funding is provided? • Are salary raises computed on a percentage basis or a sum increase? What has been the past "track record" for raises? • What is the average time that faculty spend in each academic rank? • How are graduate students supported? <p>Research-Focused</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What are the expectations for research productivity? • To what degree is external funding expected/required for promotion and tenure? • What supports are available to support research? • What level of startup funds are available? • What other internal funding sources exist? • What other resources are available, such as research assistants, computer accounts, research space, computer hardware and software, and secretarial assistance? <p>Teaching-Related</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What is the expected course load? What is the expected advising load? • What are the expectations/opportunities for summer teaching? • What is the availability of teaching/graduate assistants? • How does the department and university support the improvement of teaching? • How much autonomy would I have in designing courses? • How are advisees assigned/selected?

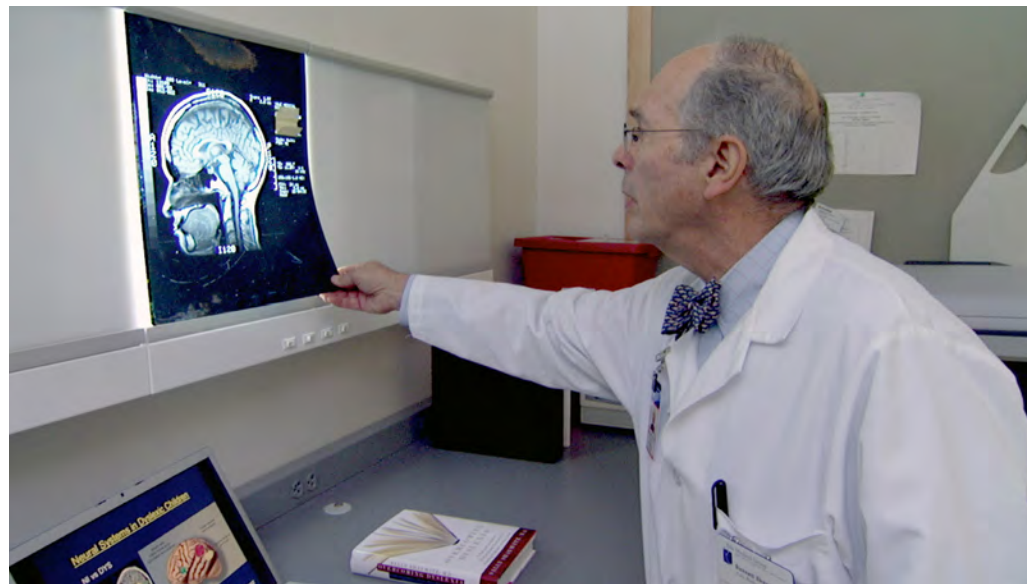
FILM REVIEW

The D Word

Benjamin J. Lovett
Elmira College

In a 2007 episode of *South Park*, the show's four boys visit a town where homeless people began to acquire enough money to buy homes, leaving the townspeople upset at having to live next to homeless people.¹ Paranoia ensued, since as one villager put it, "the people living in the house right next door to you could be homeless, and you wouldn't even know." The joke, of course, lies in the villagers' essentialist view of homeless people; the villagers failed to realize that someone with a home is no longer homeless. *The D Word* highlights a similar error, but its satire is unintentional.

The D Word is a triumph in essentialism, but applied to the characteristic "dyslexic" rather than "homeless." It is no mistake that despite a general sea-change in referring to



From the movie website <http://www.thedwordmovie.com/>

individuals with disabilities using person-first language, this film refers to "dyslexic people." For the film's makers and scientific consultants, Sally Shaywitz foremost among them, having dyslexia is what sociologists call a master status (Hunt, 2011)—it takes precedence over all other statuses and roles that someone has, and it can never be questioned or altered.

I saw *The D Word* at a special screening at the National Association of School Psychologists' February

2012 convention. Shaywitz, a prolific researcher, presented the film, along with a brief opening lecture and a follow-up question-and-answer session. Since then, other screenings have occurred, including one on Capitol Hill to the recently-formed Congressional Dyslexia Caucus. According to the film's website,² it will be shown on HBO this fall, with DVDs available for sale in 2013. Clearly, this film is a very important popular media representation of dyslexia.

¹ "Night of the Living Homeless," Season 11, Episode 7, original air date April 18, 2007.

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Film Review: The D Word (Benjamin J. Lovett)

To its credit, *The D Word* explains and endorses the phonological processing theory of dyslexia, a theory with much scientific support. But the film also includes a mix of first-person perspectives and empirical claims that are either contradicted by research or that simply have not been studied empirically. These perspectives and claims unite in a set of general themes.

The first theme is that *dyslexia is accompanied by distinct strengths*. In her opening lecture, Shaywitz referred to a “sea of strengths” model of dyslexia, in which poor decoding is surrounded by strong skills in vocabulary, reasoning, concept formation, and other cognitive capacities. In the film, the first-person perspectives emphasize these strengths and others. One lawyer with a dyslexia diagnosis opines that dyslexia is “positively correlated with creativity.” Financier Charles Schwab, also diagnosed with dyslexia, says that the disorder leads to less “sequential” thinking patterns, also aiding creativity. Another of the movie’s heroes contrasts “learning” (which dyslexia is said to hinder) with “thinking.” The film insists that each weakness in dyslexia is “balanced” by a strength, as if by some cosmic law. However, empirical research has instead linked dyslexia to a variety of other problems;

reading problems are often comorbid with other learning and psychiatric disorders (Carroll, Maughan, Goodman, & Meltzer, 2005), and on average, students with learning disability diagnoses actually have somewhat lower cognitive skills (as indexed by their IQ scores; see Kavale & Forness, 1995).

The second theme is that *if you need to work hard to accomplish great things, your dyslexia is impairing you*. This theme is never explicitly stated, but again and again, the film’s protagonists (all high achievers) report having to use various learning and study strategies, as if these activities are evidence of dyslexia. One surgeon with a dyslexia diagnosis reports that he had to read before *and* after his anatomy class, and even then, he only really understood anatomy when he saw the cadaver. Another individual with a dyslexia diagnosis reports that she needed to use countless flash cards to study for exams. A politician with a dyslexia diagnosis reports needing to underline or highlight text when he reads. Entrepreneur Richard Branson reports being so impaired that he had to write down what had happened at meetings, or else he would forget what happened. Of course, these are strategies that many nondisabled people use, but the film implies that they are signs of a latent disability. Indeed,

the seats in the film’s viewing room had small cards with the heading “You may be dyslexic if....”

The third theme is that *a diagnosis of dyslexia is always beneficial*. Parents and students speak movingly about how much better they felt once they received a diagnosis. The film’s main character (who is also the filmmaker’s son) avers that the key thing in coping with dyslexia is to “own” the diagnosis—to accept that this is just the way that one is. When this young man receives first-year honors at his highly selective private liberal arts college, the film implies that his “owning” the diagnosis led to his success. Certainly, accepting a disability can be a step toward adapting to life challenges, and the dyslexia label can indeed make people feel better (Riddick, 2000), perhaps because some individuals are comforted by having an explanation of the difficulties that they have faced. However, diagnoses are hardly as benign as the film suggests; instead, research suggests that learning disability diagnoses can act as stigmatizing labels that harm achievement via self-fulfilling prophecies (Phillips, Hayward, & Norris, 2011). When the diagnoses are valid and services are truly necessary, these risks are worth taking, but diagnosis is a far more serious matter than the movie suggests.

² <http://www.thedwordmovie.com/>

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Film Review: The D Word (Lovett)

The fourth theme is that *accommodations should be provided, no questions asked*. Shaywitz is interviewed extensively in the film, and she tells us that “dyslexia robs a person of time,” making extended time accommodations necessary in a variety of settings, especially tests. She explicitly claims that additional time will provide substantial help only to someone with dyslexia; she says that nondisabled individuals may gain a few points, but they may also change a correct answer to a wrong answer—in sum, *they* do not really benefit. This is simply false; recent reviews of research have shown that students generally benefit from additional testing time regardless of their disability status (Lovett, 2010; Sireci, Scarpatti, & Li, 2005). Shaywitz is even more vehement about the inappropriateness of asking that people with a dyslexia diagnosis be re-evaluated for dyslexia before receiving accommodations. But obviously, people’s functional limitations can change greatly over the course of their lives, making Shaywitz’s view confusing.

When one considers these four themes together, they form a radically revised portrait of dyslexia as a different kind of mind that is creative and nonlinear, slower at reading but superior in thinking,

only impaired in the sense of having to put forth substantial effort to attain great things, and needing accommodations so that their accomplishments come more easily. It is unsurprising, then, that the film’s website places “conservative” estimates of dyslexia’s prevalence at 20%; if anything, it seems that well over 20% of the population would meet the lax definition provided by the film.

This portrait diverges greatly from the conception of dyslexia based in research and endorsed by our disability discrimination laws, which require that dyslexia be a true disability, involving actual poor reading skills that impair someone in life, relative to the average student or to the general population. And empirical studies dispute many of the film characters’ specific claims, or else have not even been done to test these claims. Practicing diagnosticians should therefore be wary of the film, as should educators and parents; they will hear little useful information, other than about the phonological processing theory of dyslexia. Worse still, many viewers will begin to think that they or their children have dyslexia, just because they find that they have to work hard at academic or professional tasks. In sum, despite its

potential to counter misconceptions about dyslexia, *The D Word* ends up providing several.

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FILM REVIEW

The D-Word is “The Big Picture”

J. Nini Engel

Mt. Laurel Township Public Schools

“The Big Picture,” which was then under its original title, “The D Word,” was shown to a large group of school psychologists at our national convention in Philadelphia last February. Drs. Sally and Bennett Shaywitz both attended the screening and conducted a lively question and answer session afterwards. This 52-minute documentary presented an accessible introduction to this common and commonly misunderstood disability.

The film presented the stories of students still in school and adults who struggled with dyslexia during their own school experiences. Individual vignettes were interspersed with expert commentary from the Drs. Shaywitz. It was interesting to hear of their work at the Yale Center for Dyslexia and Creativity. Incidentally, the center’s website has wonderful information for students, parents and professionals (www.dyslexia.yale.edu/). Short animations were humorous and informative.

James Redford, the director, was interviewed for the film

and indicated that he made the film he wishes was available when his son was diagnosed with dyslexia. His son, Dylan, is one of the individuals with dyslexia who appear in the film. Dylan is now attending Middlebury College. This film could be a valuable resource for parents and students. As a school psychologist, I have asked parents’ permission to explain dyslexia to their children. Invariably, the children express relief upon learning that they are not “stupid,” and that many famous and successful people struggled with the same learning issues. They begin to perceive that it is possible to have both

dyslexia and great creative potential.

The film was engaging and well paced. As a school psychologist in an elementary school, I would consider using it for a parent information meeting and then open up the session for questions and discussion. I could also see using it for students from about fifth grade on up, to aid in understanding of their own learning strengths and struggles. A minor quibble would center on the lack of lower income students shown in the film and younger children still struggling with diagnosis and reading. Overall, this film is a very positive addition to the film resources available in the area of learning disabilities.

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SASP CORNER

It's an Exciting Time to be a Division 16 Student Affiliate!

By Jennifer M. Cooper, Kaleigh N. Bantum and Jacqueline A. Brown

As you may know, the Student Affiliates in School Psychology (SASP) has always been a student affiliate organization of Division 16 (School Psychology) of the American Psychological Association. However, in the past, there have been two separate membership application processes. In August of 2012, Division 16 and SASP announced an exciting merger to streamline student membership within the Division, and create a more visible relationship between the Division and their student organization.

Beginning in 2013, the process for becoming a Division 16 Student Affiliate and SASP member will be accomplished through one simple online application and payment of annual dues. To encourage more students to join and reap the benefits of Division 16 membership, annual dues were reduced to just \$20! Furthermore, the Division is currently offering a recruitment initiative where first-time Student Affiliates will receive their first year of membership completely free! For students who have already been Division

16 Student Affiliates, the cost is \$20 for both the first and following years.

All SASP members who are not Student Affiliates of Division 16 for the 2013 year will need to complete the Division 16 membership form, even if they previously completed the SASP application form. Those who do not complete it will no longer be registered as a SASP member. If you have already applied for 2013 Division 16 membership, then you are automatically a SASP member. You may review and complete the printable or online Division membership applications at the Division 16 membership page: <http://www.apadivisions.org/division-16/membership/index.aspx>

Q&A with SASP Leaders

To help provide clarity regarding the recent membership changes, we'd like to take this opportunity to address some frequently asked questions that have come up related to the merger and general questions related to membership.

Q: *When does the membership cycle run?*

A: Division 16 membership runs from January 1 through December 31. Annual dues for Student Affiliate status in Division 16 are \$20.

Q: *As a Student Affiliate of Division 16 what benefits are available to me?*

A: There are many activities and services that are beneficial to students. Below are some highlights of being a Division 16 Student Affiliate:

- Subscriptions to *The School Psychologist*, *School Psychology Quarterly*, the SASP newsletter and SASP News
- The opportunity to publish in the SASP newsletter and submit materials to *The School Psychologist* and the APAGS newsletter
- The opportunity to become more involved in the future of school psychology by running for offices within SASP
- The opportunity to present research at the annual SASP Student Research Forum (held during the APA

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SASP - The Student Corner**It's an Exciting Time to be a Division 16 Student Affiliate!**

convention)

- Eligibility to apply for APA travel awards, scholarship awards and other financial awards
- Increased opportunities to meet and interact with leaders in the field of school psychology
- The ability to communicate with students and faculty about psychology-related information, ideas, projects and activities, especially those about issues important to students (e.g., internships, research experiences, practical experiences in the United States and internationally)
- The opportunity to discuss and debate ideas and strategies among differing campuses
- The opportunity to participate in community service and fundraising
- The ability to serve as advocates for current and incoming students through mentoring and advising

Q: *If I was a SASP member before the D16 and SASP membership merger do I still have to complete a D16 form to be considered a SASP member?*

A: Yes; All SASP members who are not Student Affiliates of Division 16 for the 2013 year will need to complete the Division 16 membership form, even if they previously completed the SASP application form. Those who do not

complete it will no longer be registered as a SASP member. SASP membership is a part of Division 16 Student Affiliate status.

Q: *I'm a Specialist-level student and/or a student enrolled in a program that is not approved by APA. Can I still be a Division 16 Student Affiliate?*

A: Anyone enrolled in a school psychology graduate program at either the specialist or doctoral level is encouraged to join Division 16 as a Student Affiliate and SASP member. As a Student Affiliate, you are eligible for full member benefits including running for a SASP Executive Board position.

Q: *As an undergraduate student, can I become a member before being accepted into a graduate program?*

A: No. At this time, D16 only has graduate student affiliate status. However, students can become members once they have been accepted into a graduate program. Additionally, undergraduate students are welcome to join the SASP listserv as a way of beginning a relationship with Division 16 and the field of school psychology. Listserv information is available on our website.

Q: *Are APA and Division 16 membership the same?*

A: No; students need to join APA and Division 16 separately if they are interested in joining both. Annual student membership is \$55 for APA and \$20 for Division 16. You do not need to be an APA student member in order to become a Division 16 Student Affiliate. However, students who join APA in addition to joining the division, will automatically become APAGS members, which offers additional benefits to students such as waiving the registration fee for first authors presenting at the APA convention.

Q: *Do I need to be a Division 16 Student Affiliate to run for a SASP Executive Board position?*

A: Yes; students interested in running/holding a SASP Executive Board position must be active graduate students in a school psychology program and hold Division 16 Student Affiliate status for the duration of their potential terms.

Q: *Did the process for submitting a SASP chapter application also change?*

A: No; the process for completing a SASP chapter application has not changed and will continue to be processed through the SASP Membership Chair

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SASP - The Student Corner

It's an Exciting Time to be a Division 16 Student Affiliate!

rather than by Division 16 membership services. Chapter membership is a unique opportunity offered and regulated through SASP and is separate from the Division.

Q: *Do students still need to complete an individual membership application if their program has a SASP chapter?*

A: Yes; students still need to complete an individual membership application since benefits are conferred on an individual basis. It is a common misconception that students are automatically a Student Affiliate if they have a SASP chapter; however, this is untrue. Chapters should encourage all individual students to apply for Student Affiliate status within Division 16.

Q: *If we already have a student organization, can SASP duties be incorporated into the existing organization?*

A: Yes; student organizations may choose to start a SASP chapter by incorporating SASP duties into their existing organization. For programs considering this approach or starting a new SASP chapter, please review the information on our website to assist you through the process - <http://www.apadivisions.org/division-16/students/chapters/starting-a-chapter.aspx>



What Other Students Are Saying...

As of late October 2012, we have 375 Division 16 Student Affiliates and 38 active SASP chapters around the country. For the 2013 year, 290 students have already signed up or renewed as Student Affiliates! But, don't worry there is still time to join and receive benefits in the 2013 membership year. Act now - visit the membership section of our website here: <http://www.apadivisions.org/division-16/membership/index.aspx> to complete an online application or print a copy of the application to mail in with your annual dues. And, you don't have to believe just us about the great benefits and opportunities that Division 16 Student Affiliate status offers - see what other students around the country are saying.

"Being a first year in a Ph.D. program can be pretty intimidating, but thanks to the members of SASP I was able to develop a great network of friends that were able to help me make the transition into graduate school. Now, as an officer in the UCR chapter of SASP, I try to get everybody in our program involved with SASP knowing they will have a fantastic experience as a member."

- Jason, University of California-Riverside

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SASP - The Student Corner

It's an Exciting Time to be a Division 16 Student Affiliate!

"I just wanted to thank SASP for publishing my 'Lessons from the Field' piece in the Summer issue of FSTP. It's always nice to be able to contribute to the school psych student community!"

- Ethan, University of Georgia

"As a SASP member, I had the opportunity to participate in the Student Research Forum at the APA Convention. I was able to share my research with fellow students, learn about relevant research currently being conducted, and make connections with others in the school psychology field. These experiences are invaluable as I grow as a graduate student and help shape the future practitioner I hope to be."

- Charlotte, The Ohio State University

"My participation in the leadership of SASP was a tremendous experience. I enjoyed working with wonderful executive boards filled with the most amazing representatives of school psychology students from colleges and universities across the country. I also had the opportunity to meet other students as well as faculty and practitioners throughout the field of school psychology. I still maintain contact with many of the people I met through my leadership in SASP and consider them close colleagues. My experience in SASP has truly been invaluable, and I am excited to see the organization change and grow to continue to meet the needs of school psychology students and the field at large."

- Lindsey, SASP Past-President, Duquesne University

We hope you enjoyed reading about the benefits of being a Division 16 Student Affiliate and found the Q&A and testimonials helpful. Our Board would love to hear from you if you have additional questions regarding your Division 16 Student Affiliate benefits, joining as a new member, or starting a SASP chapter!

Please feel free to contact Membership Chair, Jacquie Brown, at jbrown@education.ucsba.edu or 2013 President, Jennifer Cooper, at cooper.1858@osu.edu

People & Places

- The School Psychology Program at the University of Arizona is pleased to announce that **Dr. Katie Eklund** and **Dr. Michael Sulkowski** have joined its faculty as assistant professors this fall. Dr. Eklund received her PhD from the University of California-Santa Barbara; her research concerns prevention and intervention for childhood emotional and behavioral problems. Dr. Eklund has worked in public education for 12 years as a school psychologist, social worker and school administrator. Dr. Sulkowski completed his PhD at the University of Florida, and joins the program after completing a post-doctoral fellowship at the University of South Florida. Among Dr. Sulkowski's research interests are cognitive behavioral treatment of anxiety, violence prevention-bullying, and pediatric school psychology. The Program also announces the retirement this fall of **Dr. Rick Morris** after 34 years at the University of Arizona. **Dr. David Wodrich** assumes the Program Director position upon the retirement of Dr. Morris.
- **Dr. Paul Bueno de Mesquita**, Professor of School Psychology at the University of Rhode Island and earner of the 2010-2012 Silvia-Chandley Professorship for Nonviolence & Peace, is currently serving as Director of the University's Center for Nonviolence & Peace Studies. He is also heading up international nonviolence training and peace projects in Nepal, India, and Africa. Dr. Bueno de Mesquita will direct the annual International Nonviolence Summer Institute at URI June 3-14, 2013.
- Illinois State University is pleased to announce that the Ph.D. Program in School Psychology recently received APA reaccreditation for a full 7 years.
- The Illinois School Psychology Internship Consortium (ISPIC) celebrated its 10th year this past spring and honored ISPIC training Director, **Dr. Brenda Huber**, for her decade of dedicated service to ISPIC.
- The University of Georgia honored **Dr. Bruce Bracken** with the School of Education's Lifetime Achievement Award in September. Additional details may be found at: <http://www.wm.edu/news/stories/2012/school-of-educations-bracken-receives-lifetime-achievement-award.php>. Dr. Bracken also has a novel in press, *The Hollidaysburg Christmas Miracle*, and has additional novels in the works!
- With the mission to foster a more accepting society where differences are embraced and individuality is celebrated, The Born This Way Foundation (BTWF)



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People & Places

announced the creation of the BTWF Research Advisory Board (RAB), a group of scholars from diverse disciplinary backgrounds who will advise the Foundation and provide guidance based on sound theory and research. Chaired by **Dr. Susan M. Swearer** from the University of Nebraska – Lincoln, the goal of the RAB will be to maximize the impact of BTWF initiatives and apply relevant research findings to all upcoming programs.

- The American Academy of School Psychology is pleased to announce the four school psychology doctoral student recipients of the 2012 Irwin Hyman and Nadine Lambert Scholarship. These students include: **Kaleigh Bantum**, Duquesne University; **Jennifer Cunningham**, University of South Florida; **Julia Englund**, University of South Carolina; and **Sarah Fefer**, University of South Florida
- The School Psychology Program at Michigan State University is pleased to announce that **Dr. My Lien** joined the faculty at half-time this fall as a Clinical Assistant Professor. Dr. Lien is a graduate of MSU's program. She completed her predoctoral internship at the Oklahoma Health Consortium and

her postdoctoral work at the University of Rochester Medical Center/University of Michigan Medical School. Dr. Lien will continue to work as a licensed psychologist in Grand Rapids, MI as she helps us to address supervisory and instructional needs within our thriving doctoral program.

- The Department of Educational Psychology at the University of Utah has received a five-year 1.2 million dollar personnel preparation grant award from the U.S. Department of Education to prepare 40 graduate students in the School Psychology Program to address the serious challenges that our schools face to meet the needs of children with Autism Spectrum Disorders (ASDs). The project's co PIs, **Dr. William Jenson** and **Dr. Elaine Clark**, will train graduate students how to deliver state-of-the-art interventions that have been shown to improve behaviors and social skills of children with ASD, including a new multi-media program, *Superheroes*, a social skills program that utilizes fast-hands animated characters and an internet-based parent training program developed by *Rethink Autism*.

- **Robert Woody, Ph.D.**, JD, (University of Nebraska--Omaha) has a new book, *Legal Self Defense for Mental Health Practitioners*, available from Springer Publishing. Reflecting contemporary social policy and laws regarding mental health services, the text emphasizes the protection of rights for both the practitioner and client, and addresses such pitfalls as malpractice, licensing hearings, noncompliant clients, and dealing with the legal system. It also describes how to improve practice strategies for achieving quality care, confront ethics and licensing complaints, and defend against potential or actual lawsuits. Additionally, the book covers individualized treatment planning, effective record keeping, how to deal with dangerous clients, how to insulate yourself from risk, and more.

**Please e-mail all submissions
for People & Places to Ara Schmitt at:
schmitta2106@duq.edu**

ANNOUNCEMENTS

Division 16 Executive Committee Election Results

President Elect:

**Linda Reddy,
Rutgers University**

Secretary:

**Amanda Sullivan,
University of Minnesota**

*Vice President of Social and Ethical Responsibility
and Ethnic Minority Affairs (SEREMA):*

**Amanda Vanderheyden,
Education Research and Consulting**

Vice President of Publications and Communication:

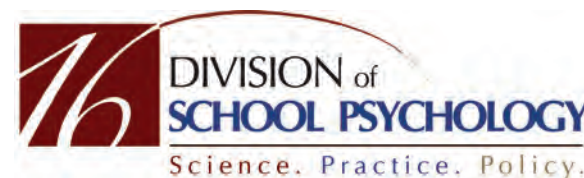
**Dave Shriberg,
Loyola University of Chicago**

Council Representative:

**Frank Worrell,
University of California Berkeley**

Council Representative:

**Beth Doll,
University of Nebraska**



Have You Ever Wanted to Edit or Author a Book?

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(a premiere publishing house)!*

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contact me with your book ideas!*

I look forward to hearing from you!

*Division 16 Vice President of Publications
and Communications:*

Linda A. Reddy, Ph.D., E: LReddy@rci.rutgers.edu

David Shriberg, Ph.D., E: Dshribe@luc.edu

ANNOUNCEMENTS



REQUEST FOR PROPOSALS PAUL E. HENKIN TRAVEL GRANTS

About the American Psychological Foundation (APF)

APF provides financial support for innovative research and programs that enhance the power of psychology to elevate the human condition and advance human potential both now and in generations to come.

Since 1953, APF has supported a broad range of scholarships and grants for students and early career psychologists as well as research and program grants that use psychology to improve people's lives.

APF encourages applications from individuals who represent diversity in race, ethnicity, gender, age, disability, and sexual orientation.

About the Paul E. Henkin Travel Grants

The Paul E. Henkin Travel Grants providing funding to student members of APA Division 16 (school psychology) to help offset registration, lodging, and transportation costs associated with APA Convention attendance.

Program Goals

The Paul E. Henkin Travel Grants:

- Enrich the field of school psychology by supporting its promising younger members
- Facilitate growth of aspiring school psychology professionals through experiential learning opportunities afforded by the APA convention

Amount

Two grants of up to \$1,000 are available for registration, lodging and transportation expenses associated with travel to the APA Convention.

Eligibility Requirements

Applicants must:

- Have a student membership in APA Division 16
- Have demonstrated commitment to pursuit of a school psychology career

Those receiving any APA travel reimbursement for convention attendance are ineligible.

Evaluation Criteria

Proposals will be evaluated on:

- Conformance with stated program goals
- Demonstrated understanding of the field of school psychology, including its demands, research and application opportunities, and the value of continuing professional development for contributing to its advancement
- Applicant's scholarly accomplishments and potential in this field

Proposal Requirements

- Completed application form
- 500 word essay with reference to program goals
- CV
- Letter of recommendation

Submission Process and Deadline

Submit a completed application online at <http://forms.apa.org/apf/grants/> by **April 15, 2013**.

Please be advised that APF does not provide feedback to applicants on their proposals.

Questions about this program should be directed to Parie Kadir, Program Officer, at pkadir@apa.org.

ANNOUNCEMENTS



REQUEST FOR
PROPOSALS

ESTHER KATZ ROSEN FELLOWSHIP

About the American Psychological Foundation (APF)

APF provides financial support for innovative research and programs that enhance the power of psychology to elevate the human condition and advance human potential both now and in generations to come.

Since 1953, APF has supported a broad range of scholarships and grants for students and early career psychologists as well as research and program grants that use psychology to improve people's lives.

APF encourages applications from individuals who represent diversity in race, ethnicity, gender, age, disability, and sexual orientation.

About the Esther Katz Rosen Fellowship

The Esther Katz Rosen Fund was established in 1974 for the advancement and application of knowledge related to gifted and talented children and adolescents. The Rosen fellowship supports graduate students whose work centers on the psychological understanding of gifted and talented children and adolescents.

Program Goals

- Advance the understanding of gifted children for the ultimate purpose of enabling and enhancing development of their talents
- Encourage promising graduate students to conduct research in this area

Amount

Up to \$20,000 for one-year graduate fellowships

APF does not allow institutional indirect costs or overhead costs.

Applicants may use grant monies for direct administrative costs of their proposed project.

Eligibility Requirements

Applicants must:

- Have completed doctoral candidacy (documentation required)
- Be in good academic standing at accredited university in the U.S. or Canada and enrolled in graduate program during fellowship year
- Have a tuition waiver by home institution

Evaluation Criteria

Proposals will be evaluated on:

- Conformance with stated program goals
- Magnitude of incremental contribution
- Quality of proposed work
- Applicant's demonstrated scholarship and research competence

Proposal Requirements

- Description of proposed project to include goal in relation to program goals, conceptual framework (theory, background), target population, methods, expected outcome and impact, future research plans (Format: not to exceed 10 pages; 1 inch margins, no smaller than 11 point font; one paragraph abstract)
- Timeline for execution
- Full budget and justification (indirect costs not permitted)
- Current CV
- Recommendation from graduate advisor and Department Chair or Director of Graduate Studies

Submission Process and Deadline

Submit a completed application online at <http://forms.apa.org/apf/grants/> by **March 1, 2013**.

Please be advised that APF does not provide feedback to applicants on their proposals. Questions about this program should be directed to Parie Kadir, Program Officer, at pkadir@apa.org.

ANNOUNCEMENTS



THE SOCIETY FOR GENERAL PSYCHOLOGY AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION

Call for Nominations for Awards for Year 2013 Deadline: February 15, 2013

The Society for General Psychology, Division One of the American Psychological Association is conducting its Year 2013 awards competition, including the **William James Book Award** for a recent book that serves to integrate material across psychological subfields or to provide coherence to the diverse subject matter of psychology, the **Ernest R. Hilgard Award** for a Lifetime Career Contribution to General Psychology, the **George A. Miller Award** for an Outstanding Recent Article on General Psychology, and the **Arthur W. Staats Lecture for Unifying Psychology**, which is an American Psychological Foundation Award managed by the Society for General Psychology.

In addition, there are two student awards: The **Anne Anastasi Student Poster Award** for the best poster presented in the Division One poster session, and The **Anne Anastasi General Psychology Graduate Student Award**, based on the student's past performance and proposed research.

All nominations and supporting materials for each award must be received on or before **February 15, 2013**.

There are no restrictions on nominees, and self-nominations as well as nominations by others are encouraged for these awards.

The Society for General Psychology encourages the integration of knowledge across the subfields of psychology and the incorporation of contributions from other disciplines. The Society is looking for creative synthesis, the building of novel conceptual approaches, and a reach for new, integrated wholes. A match between the goals of the Society and the nominated work or person will be an important evaluation criterion. Consequently, for all of these awards, the focus is on the quality of the contribution and the linkages made between diverse fields of psychological theory and research.

Winners of the William James Book Award, the Ernest R. Hilgard Award, and the George A. Miller Award will be announced at the annual convention of the American Psychological Association the year of submission. They will be expected to give an invited presentation at the subsequent APA convention and also to provide a copy of the award presentation for inclusion in the newsletter of the Society (*The General Psychologist*). They will receive a certificate and a cash prize of \$1000 to help defray travel expenses for that convention.

I. For the William James Book Award, nominations materials should include: a) three copies of the book (dated post-2007 and available in print; b) the vitae of the author(s); and c) a one-page statement that explains the strengths of the submission as an integrative work and how it meets criteria established by the Society. Specific criteria can be found on the Society's website (<http://www.apadivisions.org/division-1/awards/james/index.aspx>). Textbooks, analytic reviews, biographies, and examples of applications are generally discouraged. Nomination letters and supporting materials should be sent to Janet Sigal, PhD, 888-8th Avenue, New York, NY 10019. (Janet2822@aol.com).

II. For the Ernest R. Hilgard Award, nominations packets should include the candidate's vitae along with a detailed statement indicating why the nominee is a worthy candidate for the award and supporting letters from others who endorse the nomination. Nomination letters and supporting materials should be sent electronically to Dean Keith Simonton, PhD, (dksimonton@ucdavis.edu). More information on the Hilgard award can be found at <http://www.apadivisions.org/division-1/awards/hilgard/index.aspx>.

III. For the George A. Miller Award, nominations packets should include four copies of: a) the article being considered (which can be of any length but must be in print and have a post-2007 publication date); b)

ANNOUNCEMENTS

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 95

The Society for General Psychology - American Psychological Association - Call for Nominations for Awards for Year 2013

the curriculum vitae of the author(s); and c) a statement detailing the strength of the candidate article as an outstanding contribution to General Psychology. They should be sent electronically to Wade Pickren, PhD, (wadepickren@gmail.com). More information on the Miller award can be found at <http://www.apadivisions.org/division-1/awards/miller/index.aspx>.

IV. The 2014 Arthur W. Staats Lecture for Unifying Psychology is to be announced in 2013 and given at APA's 2014 Annual convention. Nominations materials should include the nominee's curriculum vitae along with a detailed statement indicating why the nominee is a worthy candidate for the award including evidence that the nominee would give a good lecture. Nomination letters and supporting materials should be sent electronically to Nancy Felipe Russo, PhD (NANCY.RUSSO@asu.edu). More information on the Staats award can be found at <http://www.apadivisions.org/division-1/awards/staats/index.aspx>.

V. Nomination for The Anne Anastasi Student Poster Award nominations should be submitted for the Division One Posters upon call for the APA Convention Programs. More information on the Anastasi poster award can be found at <http://www.apadivisions.org/division-1/awards/poster/index.aspx>.

VI. The Anne Anastasi Graduate Student Research Award Nomination must be submitted electronically to the 2013 co-Chairs of the committee, Harold Takooshian, PhD (takoosh@aol.com) or Vincent Hevern, PhD (hevern@lemoyne.edu). Please send the following materials:

I. The Following Cover Sheet

Candidates for the Anne Anastasi General Psychology Graduate Student Award should submit the following:

1. There are 2 levels of the Anastasi Award: Students with 2 years or less of graduate study and those with more than 2 years of graduate study.

Circle the one that best applies to you:

- a. Two years or less of study beyond the baccalaureate.
- b. More than two years beyond the baccalaureate.

2. I completed my masters' degree in year: _____. Did not complete a masters' degree _____.

3. Include:

- a. Name + email:
- b. Institution:
- c. A mentor + email:
- d. Focus of research, title:

II. Send the next three as attachments:

1. Research statement on your past/present/future work
(2-3 pages, with limited number of important citations)

2. Your Curriculum Vitae

3. Supporting letter from one mentor, either attached or sent separately

More information on the Anastasi research award can be found at <http://www.apadivisions.org/division-1/awards/research/index.aspx>.

General Comments on all of the awards may be made to Josephine Tan, PhD., Awards Coordinator, (jtan@lakeheadu.ca).

American Psychological Association

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