SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY: FROM SCIENCE TO PRACTICE

Spring 2011 issue

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Scholarships

Hello School Psychology Students! SASP supports students from under-represented cultural backgrounds as they endeavor to become a part of the inspiring profession of School Psychology. SASP is aware of the financial pressures that graduate students experience and thus offers the Diversity Scholarship Program to provide monetary support to aid students from diverse cultural backgrounds. SASP offers the following two awards each year for student support:

Incoming Student Diversity Scholarship: One annual award of **$1000** is given to a masters/specialist or doctoral student who will be entering their 1st or 2nd year of graduate training (beginning in Fall 2011) to help defer some of the costs acquired through graduate study. This is a one-time award; individuals granted the awards may not reapply in subsequent years.

Advanced Student Diversity Scholarship: One annual award of **$1000** is given to an advanced masters/specialist or doctoral student who will be entering their 3rd, 4th, or 5th year of graduate training (beginning in Fall 2011) to help defer some of the costs acquired through graduate study or in preparation for internship. This is a one-time award; individuals granted the award may not reapply in subsequent years.

For more information about these awards, please visit http://www.apa.org/divisions/div16/sasp/resources.html to download the application form and supplemental materials. The application package must be postmarked by **May 15th, 2011**.

If you have any question, please feel free to contact me at rtorki@uoregon.edu or (949) 295-0489. We are looking forward to receiving your applications, and to honoring two of our fellow School Psychology students!

Warm wishes,
Rhonda N. T. Nese, M.Ed.
Division 16 SASP Diversity Chair

MESSAGE FROM THE BOARD
SASP MINI-CONVENTION

KELLY HUGGER

Greetings from the Convention Chair!

Your SASP Board has been hard at work this year! With the first few board meetings under our belt, we have been able to set goals and make significant progress! As Convention Chair, I was particularly impressed with our presence at the NASP Convention in San Francisco this past February. This year, we had the opportunity to man a booth in the Exhibition Hall, which we shared with Div16. Although booth-duty is often dreaded, our board found it to be fun and worthwhile. We were able to network with Div16 board members and other professionals in the field, collaborate and share ideas with fellow graduate students, and promote the Mini-Convention.

As a result of attending NASP, I was able to connect with Dr. Beth Doll, Professor of Educational Psychology at University of Nebraska. Dr. Doll was on my list of potential keynote speakers for the mini-convention. It is interesting how this whole process unfolded, and a great reason for attending these conferences. So, I was manning the SASP booth one afternoon and I was casually chatting with Beth about her international travels and research interests. Throughout the conversation, I kept thinking to myself, "Wow, this woman is great…I feel like I know her from somewhere?" Well, low and behold, I head back to my room that night, open up my keynote speaker spreadsheet, and there she is, #1 on the list. So, the next day I raced to the Exhibition Hall, found Dr. Doll and graciously asked if she would be interested in speaking. She agreed, and yes, history was made! A little interesting fact for you, Dr. Doll was the president of Div16 when the first Mini-Convention was held. I am sure her keynote will address the changes she has observed over the years for students.

Being able to return home to Maine with a confirmed keynote speaker was an excellent accomplishment for the trip, but the NASP Conference as a whole was extremely rewarding. It was reinvigorating and energizing being in an environment of people who were committed to bettering the lives of children. It reminded me of why I am in school…why I spend hours hiding behind my computer researching different areas of interest, writing papers, reading books, developing research ideas… It reminded me of just how big the school psychology field is and that the possibilities for future work are truly endless. If you have not yet attended a conference, I highly suggest it (especially while you can still get the student rate!).

Don't forget to mark your calendars!

The SASP Mini-Convention will be held at the119[th] Annual APA Conference in Washington, D.C. August 4-7th. We are currently accepting poster and paper presentation proposals.

Please contact me if you have any questions!

Cheers!

Kelly Hugger

Perspective
Conducting Graduate Research in Another Country
Eirini Adamopoulou, Ed.D.

Introduction

When I decided to pursue my graduate studies in the U.S., I never imagined the plethora of life challenges and academic accomplishments that I would experience. I began my graduate studies as an international student from Athens, Greece, in Chicago eight years ago. During my doctoral studies, I was privileged to be in a graduate program with a large number of international students from different parts of the world and with professors who valued our cultural and linguistic differences.

Through my doctoral studies, my ambition was to complete a research project that would address barriers to learning and psychosocial functioning of students in Greek schools. I think when designing your dissertation, you need to find a topic that it is interesting and reflects your personal interests. Conducting research with Greek populations was an opportunity for me to study and examine thoroughly issues and topics that had previously puzzled me as a student and teacher in Greece.

Designing the Research

Even though I had an area of interest, I needed to specify my research goals. I spoke with different professors to present my research interests. Their feedback was really valuable in developing my research goals and, at the same time, in selecting my dissertation committee. Due to my research interests, I also needed to analyze literature from Greece surrounding my area of study. Therefore, I scheduled to spend one summer in Greece to search in the university libraries for bibliographies. During that time, I also consulted with a Greek professor that I had during my undergraduate studies about my dissertation. However, the true challenge was when I returned to the U.S. and had to translate everything into English!

I learned there are different software programs that can help you organize your literature sources and material. Personally, I decided to create my own systematic organization to review the literature, especially, as I was simultaneously working in two languages.

Research Methodology

The purpose of my study was to explore the perceptions and experiences of Greek parents whose children experience learning and social-emotional difficulties. As there has been limited research in this field of inquiry, I selected a quantitative methodological approach to summarize large amounts of data and reach generalizations based on numerical descriptions. Studying a larger sample of parents also provided an opportunity to explore trends from a diverse population. The quantitative methodology and, specifically, the completion of surveys, also served the time constraints of conducting research in another country. Another advantage of this method is that it offered the possibility of collecting data anonymously.

Narrative data (e.g., open-ended questions and open responses) were also included in the quantitative study. I collected the quantitative data using a Likert scale on two structured questionnaires about Greek parents' perceptions and experiences regarding their children's learning and social-emotional difficulties. The qualitative data included two open-ended questions and open responses that were included on the same questionnaire completed by the same number of participants who completed the quantitative items.

Data Collection

After the completion of my dissertation proposal, I planned a second visit to Greece to conduct a pilot study to test my instruments. In addition, I applied for permission to conduct research in Greek schools from the Greek Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs. The next step was to organize my professional and academic obligations prior to going to Greece for the third time to gather my final data.

I was able to collect the data over a period of four months. This time frame included a two-week period during January 2009. This entailed the initial contact to the principals, the distribution

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of surveys in four different areas of Greece, and the collection of completed questionnaires from the participants until April 2009. Of the 1000 questionnaires that were distributed, 298 were returned, which resulted in a 29.8% response rate. The majority of the questionnaires ($N = 209$; 70.1%) were gathered from 15 schools in the capital city region of Athens.

Implications-Recommendations

When conducting research in another country, it is important to understand the particular educational structure, laws, and procedures. In this study, one of the biggest challenges was obtaining permission to conduct research in Greek schools from the Greek Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs. The permission procedure took six months and involved the completion of an application and approval from the Greek Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs and the Greek Pedagogic Institute. However, due to the conflicting bureaucratic procedures and mechanisms between these two organizations, the official approval to conduct research included certain limitations. For example, the Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs did not allow for the distribution of questionnaires directly to students in schools (in order to deliver them to their parents) despite the Pedagogic Institute's assurance that this was permitted.

In addition, due to time and distance limitations, more questionnaires were distributed in Athens. Specifically, I was able to travel only for a two-week period during January 2009 to Greece to collect the data. In this time frame, I was able to contact only 30 school principals (from the 70 approved) in five different areas of Greece. Even though I received permission from the Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs to conduct research in Greek schools, principals were reluctant to allow me to contact the parents of their schools, which affected the permission rate (61.29%). The

majority of the principals agreed to participate in the study by distributing a small number of questionnaires through the schools' parent councils to the parents of students in all elementary grades. Although I planned to collect data from fifth and sixth graders, I needed to adjust the study sample to incorporate Greek parents of elementary children from all grades. The current study was also initially designed to have teachers of the fifth- and sixth-grade elementary students evaluate the children's academic performance. Unfortunately, I was not able to collect teachers' ratings of the children's academic performance from all of the schools that participated in the study. Therefore, I eliminated this variable from the analysis.

The challenges described above might have also affected the low survey response rate (29.8%). The time and number of questionnaires and items to be completed (parents needed 20-30 minutes to rate their children's behavior on 112 items and report their perceptions and experiences) and the discretion of the information might have discouraged Greek parents from participating. This was also evident in the need for constant reminders and communication with the schools and parents to gather the questionnaires. Future studies should approach Greek parents during report card pick-up days or invite parents to organized events such as interactive informational talks or group discussions of their children's learning and social-emotional needs.

One of the greatest advantages was that I conducted my research in my home country and I speak the Greek language, which helped me in my initial contacts with the schools. Even though, initially, principals were hesitant to assist me, when they learned about my personal story and my graduate studies in the U.S., they became more willing to help. For example, 5 of the 19 principals disregarded the restrictions set by the Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs and permitted the distribution of questionnaires to the fifth and sixth graders in

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their schools, so they could be delivered to parents.

Finally, a major contribution to my study was my "supporting team;" a group of family members and friends in Greece, who assisted me in collecting the surveys over a period of four months after my return to the U.S. Thus, additional time and local contacts are necessary when conducting research in another country due to the inherent difficulties and challenges.

About the author
Eirini Adamopoulou graduated from National and Kapodistrian University of Athens, Greece with a B.A. in Philosophy, Pedagogy and Psychology. She earned her Ed.S. in School Psychology and Ed.D. in Educational Psychology at National-Louis University. She worked as a school psychologist at Chicago Public Schools for five years and she currently began her private practice in Athens, Greece.

LESSONS FROM THE FIELD
TIPS FOR WORKING WITH PARENTS
TERRA VAJCNER

When choosing school psychology as our future career, a majority of us chose this field because we enjoy working with and helping children, not because we enjoy working with adults. However, working with adults in some capacity is a significant portion of our job. I frequently hear that "working with adults is the hardest part of the job." Although I concur, I've found I actually enjoy working with adults.

In full disclosure, I'll admit that initially parents intimidated me. I'll also admit that certain parents still frustrate me. My first experience working with parents was in a Head Start program. I was fortunate to have co-workers with positive views of parents. They challenged beliefs I didn't know I had, and helped to shape my current views and interactions with parents. Since then I've had many other experiences with various professionals and parents. I've also had numerous discussions about working with parents. Based on these experiences and discussions I have the following words of wisdom.

First, I think it's important for us to have self-awareness. Our beliefs about parents are an important factor in determining how we interact with them. If we are aware of our automatic thoughts or core beliefs about parents, it will be easier challenge the accuracy of our beliefs and to

monitor our behavior. It has been seven years but I clearly remember an interview with a teacher applicant who commented that, "*most low-income parents love their children.*" I remember thinking about how this belief would impact her interactions with parents. If she believes that not all parents love their children, it makes sense that she would be more likely to interpret parent's behavior negatively. For example, if a parent didn't show up for a meeting, this teacher may think this means the parent doesn't care about their child or their education. Where a person who believes all parents love their children may interpret this behavior as a sign that the parent didn't have transportation, or couldn't get time off of work.

Start each interaction on a positive note. Compliment the child or the parent. It can be a simple statement or a funny recollection of an interaction with the child. Recently I attended several meetings for an elementary student with severe behavior problems. At the start of each meeting the teacher and principal each said something positive to the parent, for example, thanking her for continuing to come to the school and for following through on their suggestions. This has made a significant difference in allowing the school and the parent to maintain a positive relationship.

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Keep in mind that we all want what is best for the child. In my experience, there is sometimes tension in meetings between the school and the parents regarding what this might look like. I was recently in a meeting to develop a behavior plan for an elementary student; the parents made several suggestions but the principal disagreed. As things began to get tense, I summarized and reminded everyone that ultimately we have the same goal; we want what is best for this little guy. With that in mind, it was easier to come to a common ground.

Most of us future school psychologist's will still prefer to work with the children, but working with parents is unavoidable and doesn't have to be a burden. These words of wisdom unfortunately do not ensure that all of our interactions with parents will be pleasant; it does help us if we're aware of our beliefs, try to view parents more positively, and remember that we all want what is best for the child.

About the Author

Terra Vajcner, MA, is a fourth year doctoral candidate at the Ohio State University in Columbus, Ohio. She has previously worked with families at Head Start and currently works for a private psychologist doing counseling, psychological evaluations, and in-home behavior support.

CHAPTER SPOTLIGHT
OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
KIM VOGEL

The SASP chapter at Oklahoma State University provides students with unique opportunities for interaction between cohorts and with faculty members and the Stillwater community. Objectives of this student-led organization include a) increasing awareness of opportunities for research presentation and professional development; b) promoting the dissemination of critical program information across cohorts; c) establishing a sense of community through social activities, and d) creating a meaningful difference in the local community through services and diversity-awareness projects.

During SASP meetings students are able to ask questions about issues related coursework and program/graduation requirements, while receiving mentorship from older students. This past year at bi-monthly chapter meetings, third and fourth year students presented on the dissertation proposal and APPIC internship process, and faculty members spoke on choosing dissertation topics and discussed the results of recent research projects.

OSU SASP members have recently participated in various service projects in the Stillwater community. In December, students volunteered at the Stillwater Junior Service League's Christmas Store, which gives economically disadvantaged families the opportunity to shop for donated toys for their children and adolescents. In addition to helping with set-up and assisting shoppers, students selected and donated gifts for the often-overlooked adolescent age-range. In April a group of OSU students will be running a 5-K to support the Hearing Impaired Kid's Endowment Fund, and in May SASP members will be volunteering at the Special Olympics.

Last semester a group of SASP members formed a Diversity Committee. This organization aims to increase awareness of and respect for individual and group differences through education, promoting discussions of diversity-related topics, and providing service to diverse populations. The Diversity Committee recently published a newsletter, Shades of Orange, that highlighted recent diversity research conducted by OSU faculty and students, provided information on unique educational challenges

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faced by children of migrant workers, and shared a faculty member's perspective on diversity issues in school psychology. The SASP chapter at OSU allows students to further their professional development through service, education, and leadership opportunities. If you are interested in starting a

SASP chapter at your university, please contact Jacqueline Brown, Membership Chair.

About the Author

Kim Vogel is currently in her second year in Oklahoma State University's Ph.D. program. Her interests include ADHD assessment and intervention,

RESEARCH REVIEW
ASSESSMENT IN RTI: A LOOK AT IDIOGRAPHIC AND NOMOTHETIC METHODS
BY MONICA PIRES

It used to be that services to support learning were not offered until the student was identified with a disability. For many it was frustrating to watch students struggle until they failed. Response to Intervention (RTI) is a problem solving model designed to addresses this issue. RTI consists of a multi-tiered model intended to help struggling learners. Its goal is to offer early intervention services to struggling learners and also provide a more valid approach to identifying learning disabilities (Fuchs et al., 2007). Unlike the traditional "waiting-to-fail" model, RTI attempts to help struggling students before a referral for special education services is made. Although RTI focuses primarily on academic problems, it has been extended to address behavioral issues as well.

RTI involves systematic and data-based methods for identifying and addressing students' difficulties (Brown-Chidsey & Steege, 2005). It assures that all students are taught with a scientifically validated curriculum. Instruction is a main element in this model. Only empirically based curriculums that are implemented with fidelity will allow for accurate assessment of students' ability (Sailor, 2009). Similarly, RTI can be applied to behavioral supports within schools to address the behavioral needs of students. All students are given evidence-based behavioral interventions at a schoolwide or class-wide level (Sprick & Booher, 2006). These interventions address behavior expectations for all students. Whether it is behavior or academics, in RTI all students are monitored and those that struggle receive interventions at increasing levels of intensity. Although this paper focuses primarily on academic inter-

ventions, the RTI model assumes a similar process for both types of intervention. When a student does not respond to the most intensive level of empirically based intervention, he or she is referred for special education services.

At first glance, RTI appears to be a simple approach to helping students. It consists of three tiers of intervention that increase in intensity. RTI as a structured model is meant to match instruction or services to students' needs. In academic services, this is also known as differentiated instruction (Brown-Chidsey & Steege, 2005). RTI may be challenging to implement because there is not one single method of instruction to teach all students. It requires problem solving, careful implementation, and close monitoring of all interventions, including those at the universal (Tier 1) level. In addition, RTI requires quality instructional knowledge and skill from educators at each of the levels (Fuchs & Fuchs, 2009). With such a complex model there is a need for a variety of assessment at the different levels.

Hosp (2006) explains RTI as an evaluative "process of using information to make decisions" (p. 7). Students move from one level to another in the model based on a serious of assessment and problem solving steps (Batsche, Castillo, Dixon, & Forde, 2008; Brown-Chidsey & Steege, 2005). Two assessment approaches within the RTI model are possible. Briefly, idiographic assessments are concerned with the *uniqueness* of each individual, whereas nomothetic assessments are used to understand the *general laws* that apply to large numbers of individuals (Lamiell, 1998). Idiographic assessment places more emphasis on the individual, relying

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more on individual measures. When groups are assessed with quantitative and objective measures, nomothetic assessment is likely taking place. Both of these approaches are used to determine the student's response to intervention (Christ & Hintze, 2007).

Traditional assessment practices had a tendency to focus more on nomothetic rather than idiographic evaluation methods. These were typically norm-referenced tests, where individuals were compared to a norm group. Generally, practitioners who used these believed that if a student's ability was not within the range of his or her peers, the causes for their lack of progress were residing within the individual (Sailor, 2009). These measure provided however, a limited sample of the students' ability and often did not take into account environmental variables (e.g., quality of instruction). With RTI, highly reliable and valid group and individual assessments are frequently done to ensure that students' skills do improve (Brown-Chidsey & Steege, 2005). In general, idiographic measures may be favored over nomothetic assessment methods.

RTI begins with Tier 1. All students at this level receive the same intervention under the same conditions (Tilly, 2008). This level of intervention is designed to meet the needs of the majority of the students. Tier 1 requires the use of a curriculum that has been shown to be empirically effective. If the curriculum is effective, it can be expected that 80% of the students will demonstrate progress in skills and knowledge (Tilly, 2008). This tier involves both whole-class instruction and small group instruction (Brown-Chidsey, Bronaugh, & McGraw, 2009). Achievement standards are defined and students' progress is measured to assess if he or she was able to achieve them.

To measure students' learning outcomes, Tier 1 requires that assessment be done. This assessment type is also known as universal benchmark screening. At this level, assessments take place either quarterly or three times a year to determine if additional learning supports are needed for each student (Brown-Chidsey et al., 2009).

These are nomothetic assessments because they are given to all students and are objective in examining learned curriculum. Generally, this type of assessment consists of curriculum based measures (CBM). Fuchs and Vaughn (2006) explain two purposes of CBM assessment, the first consists of evaluating classroom instruction quality, and the second measures what a student has learned in comparison to his or her classmates. The goals of Tier 1 assessment are to prevent students from failing and to help each student maximize his or her learning (Brown-Chidsey & Steege, 2005). Therefore, at this level ongoing idiographic assessment should also take place. These can be regular day-to-day assessments such teacher observation notes, test grades, or evaluations of students' sample work.

Students who require Tier 2 interventions are those who are below benchmark targets. These students require additional instruction to be successful. Interventions at this level are more specific and typically take place a few times per week in the regular classroom. These interventions are considered general education instruction at a supplemental level and may include small group instruction or targeted skill interventions (Tilly, 2008).

Frequent assessment, or progress monitoring, should take place once a week to evaluate the effectiveness of the interventions used in Tier 2 (Brown-Chidsey et al., 2009). Usually this is a brief assessment that requires three minutes or less to complete. The goal of progress monitoring is to help understand if the intervention used is working and if there are areas that need improvement. Progress monitoring measures only the skill that the student is having targeted. The interventions at this level would also be monitored using a CBM within a single-subject research design (Brown-Chidsey & Steege, 2005). This type of assessment is considered an idiographic measure as it focuses on each student's progress. If the as-

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sessment results indicate that the student is learning, the intervention would be continued until it is determined that it is no longer needed. If assessment results reveal that the student is not responding to Tier 2 interventions, even after adjustments have been made, then the student would begin more intensive services (Kovaleski & Prasse, 2004).

Students who have not responded to Tier 1 and Tier 2 interventions or are severely below grade level will be serviced at Tier 3. Tier 3 consists of a very small percentage of students. The goal at this level is to remediate existing problems through intensive and highly focused instruction (Brown-Chidsey & Steege, 2005). Weekly assessment is required to help determine if the intervention is working; these are idiographic measures. Instruction and assessment may be continued over an extended period of time to ensure that the student is learning. At this level, students may also undergo more formal diagnostic assessment and may participate in general education or special education (Brown-Chidsey et al., 2009). At this point, students may be referred to special education and possibly become identified with a learning disability. If standardized evaluations take place, then the student is participating in nomothetic assessment because his ability is being compared to large numbers of individuals and not the student's own ability.

Treatment integrity is a key element of RTI as it may effect assessment results. An intervention can be highly effective to address a problem, but if an intervention is not implemented correctly and consistently, then it may negatively impact student progress and assessment of the effectiveness of the interventions that are used (Brown-Chidsey & Steege, 2005). Therefore, it is imperative that each intervention component is followed step-by-step during implementation. Checklists can be created to help during this process.

Canter (2006) explained RTI assessment as the measurement of students' response to "scientific changes in instruction" (p. 1). RTI is a problem solving approach that requires much detail and quality. An underlying assumption in RTI is that high-quality interventions are matched to stu-

dent needs and that frequent progress monitoring (assessment) takes place. Implementing RTI is not as easy at it may appear at first; it requires commitment, energy, teamwork, and much problem-solving (Fuchs & Fuchs, 2009). However, the RTI model can provide an array of services to students that may prevent learning problems. Consequently, the practice of RTI has resulted in some debate within the school psychology field as it has been questioned whether or not learning disabilities are in fact real (Fuchs & Vaughn, 2006).

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About the Author

Monica Pires is a fourth year doctoral student at the University at Albany, State University of New York. Her research interests include positive psychology approaches in school settings, gifted and talented education, and the changing role of school psychologists.

RESEARCH REVIEW
THE INFLUENCE OF SAME-SEX PARENTING ON GENDER ROLE DEVELOPMENT
BY CHARLOTTE R. ESCHENBRENNER

Introduction

In comparison to the broader topic of gender role identity development, there is relatively little research conducted on the influence of gay parents. However, the changing dynamics of the family is an important topic, as attitudes towards same-sex parents become more accepting. Because of the shift in attitudes, studies focusing on parenting and gender are becoming more frequent. Much research on parenting regarding gender differences is conducted using heterosexual parenting couples or single parents. This paper will attempt to review the literature surrounding the topic of the influence of same-sex parenting on gender development, and make suggestions for future research.

Importance of Gender Development

In the past decade, most research on gender development has used Egan and Perry's (2001) conceptual framework which includes five components: knowledge of one's membership in a gender category (membership knowledge); perceived similarity to others of one's gender (gender typicality); satisfaction with one's gender assignment (gender contentedness); pressure felt from parents, peers, and the self for conforming to gender stereotypes (felt pressure for gender conformity); and the belief that one's gender group is superior to the other (intergroup bias).

In 2004, Yunger, Carver and Perry conducted a two-year study to assess whether Egan and Perry's (2001) gender development concept is stable. The study found that gender development is indeed a construct made up of several components, each of which affect the psychosocial development of gender identity in different ways (Yunger et al., 2004). This conflicts with previous constructs of gender development which only use one measure (Yunger et al., 2004). Because of this finding, the authors suggest that single measures of gender identity are likely to result in misinformation. The study found that low gender typicality, low gender contentedness, and high felt pressure are negative influences on children's well-being (Yunger et al., 2004). As shown in this study, gender identity development is an important factor in positive psychosocial development. With the changing dynamic of alternate family structures, re-

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search focusing on psychosocial development, and gender development in particular, is necessary to form an accurate picture of the influences of same-sex parenting.

Review of Literature

Articles regarding the topics of same-sex parenting were found in several reputable journals, such as Developmental Psychology, the American Sociological Review, the Journal of Marriage and Family, and Sex Roles, among others. However, few of them focus specifically on the topic of gender identity development. During the past two decades, most research has focused on psychosocial development of children raised in same-sex families. This is important research in the field of gender identity, as psychosocial development includes gender role identity development. Much of the research focuses on lesbian parents, and there are relatively few articles studying the affects of parenting by gay male partners. This is likely because lesbian mothers are able to give birth to their own children through a previous heterosexual relationship, or donor insemination. However, gay male parents must gain custody of a child through adoption or through a previous heterosexual relationship. This requires approval through the judicial system, or a legal adoption, and historically gay partners have faced opposition when attempting to adopt or gain custody of a child.

Gender Identity of Children in Same-Sex Families

There were few articles commenting on the development of gender identity in same-sex parenting families. Bos and Sandfort (2010) attempted to find whether lesbian parenting affects a child's gender development, psychosocial development and whether young adults growing up in a lesbian family were more likely to seek out same-sex partners. Their study is unique because they interviewed the children, rather than the parents, as is usual practice in similar studies. The authors found that children in lesbian parent families felt less pressure to conform to gender stereotypes and are less likely to feel that their own gender is superior. No differences between lesbian parent families and heterosexual parent families were found regarding psychosocial development, which is consistent with other research on this topic (Bos & Sandfort, 2010).

A limitation of this study is that they had a small sample size, using only 63 lesbian families and 68 heterosexual families, all from the Netherlands. As the Netherlands legalized same-sex marriage in 2001, it is likely that theirs is a more accepting attitude towards same-sex parenting families, which could influence the results of this study.

Another study focusing on the gender development of children in same-sex families was conducted by Fulcher, Sutfin and Patterson (2008). The authors used a small sample size of 33 lesbian families and 33 heterosexual families in the United States. These families were interviewed regarding their attitudes towards gender and occupational roles. This study found few differences in children's knowledge or flexibility surrounding gender stereotypes, but did find that children of lesbian parents were less likely to apply a double standard to gender transgressions by boys and girls, seeing them as equal. In heterosexual families, it is more likely that children see boys' gender transgressions as more serious. This finding was hypothesized to be a result of lesbian parents' more liberal attitudes towards gender, and the absence of a more conservative father figure (Fulcher, et al., 2008).

Another study by the same authors was conducted regarding the role of the environment on a child's gender development (Sutfin, Fulcher, Bowles, & Patterson, 2008). This study looked at 29 lesbian families and 28 heterosexual families, and hypothesized that there will be similar associations in both family types with regards to parental attitudes about gender in relation to the environments they create for their children, and their children's attitudes about gender. The authors found that lesbian parents held less gender-specific views than heterosexual parents, and were less likely to provide a gender-stereotyped environment (i.e. bedroom décor) for their children. In addition, they found that physical environment does have an impact on gender role development in children (Sutfin et al., 2008). A study conducted by Golombok et al. (2003) focused on the quality of the parent-child relationship and gender development in lesbian parents and their seven-year-old children. Participants in this study were 39 lesbian parent families, 74 two-parent heterosexual families and 60 families with single heterosexual mothers. The authors note

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that it is often difficult to randomize studies of this type, as they are often samples of convenience due to location and availability of lesbian families willing to participate (Golombok et al., 2003). In addition, many lesbian parent families tend to be affluent and are more likely to adopt children of different ethnicities to the parents, which may account for some differences (Stacey & Biblarz, 2010). This study was one of the few which accounted for differences seen in families with single mothers. The authors found that the outcome for children was more favorable in two-parent families, regardless of sexual orientation (Golombok et al., 2003). There were few differences noted between children of lesbian mothers and heterosexual mothers, assuming a positive parent-child relationship. Overwhelmingly, the development of the child was positive regardless of which type of family he/she had (Golombok et al. 2003).

Most of the research conducted regarding the gender development of children of same-sex parents shows that there is no significant difference compared to children of heterosexual parents (Biblarz & Stacey, 2010; Bos & Sandfort, 2010; Golombok et al., 2003). Any differences reported were shown to be minor and did not seem to have a negative impact on a child's gender development (Stacey & Biblarz, 2001).

Lesbian Mothers

Research focused on the role of lesbian parenting is far more prevalent than research focusing on gay male parenting. Much of the research on lesbian parenting has found no significant difference in children's psychosocial development compared to that of heterosexual families, and indicates that children develop well in lesbian families (Perrin, 2002; Stacey & Biblarz, 2001).

One negative aspect to lesbian parenting is argued to be the absence of a male role model in the family structure (Clarke & Kitzinger, 2005). Clarke and Kitzinger (2005) researched the response of lesbian parents on several television programs, including talk shows and documentaries regarding the per-

ceived lack of a male role model in their children's lives. The authors found that lesbian parents argued that their children had role models in the extended family and in the community. This study concludes with the perception that a child raised by lesbian parents does have access to male role models, but the focus on this is ignoring social change (Clarke & Kitzinger, 2005). In addition, there is no mention of the many families where the sole parent is a single mother, and any worries about lack of male role models in that environment.

Some research on lesbian parenting seems to indicate that lesbian parents are better at sharing co-parenting than their heterosexual counterparts (Biblarz & Stacey, 2010). Traditionally, heterosexual fathers are the least engaged parents, and the absence of the father in a lesbian parenting couple increases the co-parenting engagement (Stacey, 2006). Tasker and Golombok (1998) studied the parent-child relationships in three types of families: 15 lesbian parent families, 43 heterosexual families where the child was a result of donor insemination and 41 heterosexual families where the child was naturally conceived. Again, the study had a limited scope because of such a small sample size. The authors found relatively no differences in father-child and co-mother-child relationships (Tasker & Golombok, 1998). The study did find that co-mothers played a more active role in parenting than did heterosexual fathers, which is consistent with other studies (Biblarz & Stacey, 2010; Tasker & Golombok, 1998).

Gay Fathers

Although there is little research on the effects of male homosexual parents on their children's development, it is suggested that two males tend to co-parent more effectively than heterosexual fathers (Biblarz & Stacey, 2010). Two gay male parents tend to take on more traditionally feminine approaches to parenting, engaging more actively in parenting than most heterosexual fathers (Stacey, 2006). It is also suggested that gay male parents must be highly motivated to become parents as their avenues to parenthood (i.e. adoption, awarding

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of custody) are much stricter and harder to navigate (Biblarz & Stacey, 2010). In addition, they must overcome traditional views of masculinity and homosexuality, as they adapt to becoming full-time parents (Stacey, 2006).

Conclusion
Summary of Research

There is little research focusing solely on the issue of gender role development in same-sex parenting families. However, there are a number of encouraging studies that report no adverse psychosocial effects on the development of children in these families (Biblarz & Stacey, 2010; Bos & Sandfort, 2010; Perrin, 2002; Stacey & Biblarz, 2001). In addition, it is suggested that a more accurate representation of a child's psychosocial development rests in his or her relationships with parents regardless of sexual orientation (Perrin, 2002). Research is mostly conducted on lesbian parent families, rather than gay male parent families. Studies are often limited in scope and sample size; however, this is likely to change as alternative family structures are increasingly accepted.

Suggestions for Future Research

There is little research focusing on the affects of same-sex parenting on children's gender role development. The few studies completed have been small in scope, and focused mainly on lesbian parenting. Future research should include more studies using homosexual male partners as parents and on the gender role development of children in same-sex families. In addition, larger scope studies, longitudinal studies, and cross-cultural studies would be a welcome addition to the literature. The topic of same-sex parenting has been widely debated in the media by religious, social and political groups (Bos & Sandfort, 2010). This topic is used by opponents of same-sex marriage as a reason not to legalize civil unions, as there are beliefs that same-sex parenting harms children (Clarke & Kitzinger, 2005). However, this is not an accurate representation of the current literature on this topic (Biblarz & Stacey, 2010; Fulcher, et al., 2008; Stacey & Biblarz, 2001). As same-sex marriage becomes an even

hotter topic in the United States, empirical evidence for same-sex parenting is imperative to show that children's psychological development will or will not be harmed growing up in these families. There are great political and social implications for this type of research, as the more evidence linking same-sex parenting to favorable outcomes in their children, the fewer obstacles for legalization of same-sex marriage in the United States.

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FORUM

INTERVENTION FOR ATTENTION-DEFICIT/HYPERACTIVITY DISORDER IN SCHOOL SETTINGS

WENDY MCGINNIS, M.S.

Abstract

Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) is one of the most widely recognized childhood developmental disabilities in the United States and one with which school psychologists find themselves increasingly immersed in the school setting. A review of the literature on the nature of intervention strategies for elementary age children with ADHD was conducted to examine the various methods available to those working in the school setting. Behavioral disinhibition, not inattention is what seemingly best categorizes ADHD apart from other clinical disorders and is what should probably be given the greatest consideration in understanding children with ADHD and is the focus of intervention strategies discussed in the following paper. Response-to-Intervention (RTI) is a tiered model of intervention strategies that can be used to plan, administer, and evaluate behavioral interventions related to ADHD. With RTI, increasingly more intensive layers or tiers of treatment are employed to determine which individuals have behavioral difficulties. Such strategies within a tiered framework are discussed and implications for practice are considered.

Assessment and Intervention of Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder in School Settings

According to the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual for Mental Disorders, 4th ed., Text Revision* (DSM-IV-TR), ADHD is a childhood-onset psychiatric condition and the current diagnostic label for children who present with significant difficulties with inattention, hyperactivity, and impulsivity (American Psychiatric Association [APA], 2000). Children with ADHD can present with a combination of these symptoms to such an extent that they are far less able than their peers to regulate their behavior thus causing difficulties for themselves that include peer rejection, academic difficulties, classroom behavior problems, and conflicts with parents and family members (Daly, Cohen, Carpenter, & Brown, 2009; Pelham, Jr. & Waschbusch, 2004).

The purpose of this paper is to present a summary of the current evidence supporting school-based interventions and to provide a brief overview of intervention options for children with ADHD that are presently available to those in school settings. The elementary-age population of children is where according to

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Barkley (2006) assessment and treatment of ADHD usually begin. Often, school psychologists practicing in the schools, seemingly find themselves trying to determine how best to go about resolving ADHD issues of difficulty for teachers who want and need solutions that will really work in the classroom.

Empirical Evidence for School-Based Interventions

Behavioral interventions are the only school-based strategies that are empirically grounded for ADHD (American Academy of Pediatrics, 2001; DuPaul & Eckert, 1997; Pelham, Wheeler & Chronis, 1998). School-based interventions for problematic behaviors can be conceptualized in much the same way as those interventions targeted toward academic difficulties. Response-to-Intervention (RTI) is a tiered model of intervention strategies that can be used to plan, administer, and evaluate behavioral interventions related to ADHD (DuPaul & Stoner, 2010). With RTI, increasingly more intensive layers or tiers of treatment are employed to determine which individuals have behavioral difficulties (DuPaul & Stoner, 2010). DuPaul and Stoner (2010) suggest that schools use three tiers including: universal, selected, and indicated strategies administered based on how students perform at the first tier or universal level of implementation.

Essentially, universal behavioral strategies are administered to all students in the classroom or school, and, most students respond positively and appropriately to those strategies used in class-wide or school-wide instruction (DuPaul & Stoner, 2010; Pelham, Jr. & Waschbusch, 2004). However, students with ADHD may struggle to adequately respond in ways that are considered socially appropriate. For instance, all children in the general education classroom are taught how to be respectful toward other students by learning that they must sit quietly after finishing an assignment so as not to disturb others still working. A child with ADHD may not be able to sit still and may end up disturbing peers in close proximity because

of impulsive behaviors that may range from constant chattering with others to excessive out-of-seat behaviors. According to Barkley (2006), behavioral disinhibition not inattention is what seemingly best categorizes ADHD apart from other clinical disorders and is what should probably be given the greatest consideration in understanding children with ADHD and is the focus of intervention strategies discussed in the following paper. Behavioral disinhibition can be thought of as a loss of conditioned behaviors where a child loses behavioral reflexes, which results in random acts that may appear hyperactive and uncontrolled in nature. Therefore, such a child may be in need of more proactive behavioral strategies (tier two) selected to meet his or her specific needs such as rearrangement of the child's desk (DuPaul & Stoner, 2010; Pfiffner, 1996; Wielkiewicz, 1995). If after a specified period of time the child cannot behave appropriately with selected behavioral strategies tailored to address the specific problem areas, the teacher along with the school psychologist and other school professionals may choose an indicated or clinical strategy, one that is even more structured and individualized than those considered universal or selected (DuPaul & Stoner, 2010; Pelham & Waschbusch, 1999).

Intervention

The levels of intervention mentioned earlier for children with ADHD occur at various levels and include: universal, selected, and indicated; and, as already mentioned when students do not or are not able to respond to those guidelines that have been implemented at the universal or general education level, selected strategies are considered. Similarly, when selected strategies are not effective, indicated strategies are recommended at the individual level. In this discussion of interventions, emphasis will be placed on selected and indicated strategies since these two levels are usually where school psychologists might be actively engaged in consultation with teachers and other education personnel for purposes of development and implementation of treatments.

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Universal Interventions

School-wide interventions and even class-wide interventions in some situations are considered universal approaches to intervention for children with ADHD. School-wide behavioral interventions are often called "positive behavioral support programs" (Carr et al., 2002). Positive behavior support programs are an extension of the basic elements of applied behavior analysis. One program that has received empirical support as a school-wide intervention is the Effective Behavior Support (EBS) Model, which emphasizes behavioral skills for all students in the school or classroom (Lewis & Sugai, 1999; Todd, Horner, Sugai, & Sprague, 1999). With this model, teachers choose three to five behavioral expectations that they want students to follow. Teachers then emphasize a behavioral routine to be followed for each expectation and model the expectations for students to imitate. Another school-wide program that has received empirical support is the School Wide Intervention Model (SWIM; Pelham, Jr. & Waschbusch, 2004). The fundamental goals of the SWIM program are to ameliorate misbehaviors and support adaptive behaviors in the classroom and school in general. Enhancing students' problem-solving abilities, social skills, and conflict resolution competence is an important aspect of this program.

Universal interventions such as the two mentioned above generally provide most students with the tools needed to become successful at demonstrating prosocial behaviors in the classroom and school settings. Behavior coaching provided by the teacher is one method that can be used to assist students in learning and remembering to follow rules. Also, with re-teaching strategies, students learn rules repetitively throughout the school year, which can effectively reduce problem behaviors. However, many students with ADHD may have great difficulty learning, following, or remembering the rules that have been set in place. Therefore, many students with ADHD are at a greater risk than their typically developing peers for significant behavioral difficulties because of behav-

ioral disinhibitions that create problems for them. Selected-level interventions can be used to reach those students with ADHD more directly.

Selected Interventions

Selected interventions occur on a classroom-wide basis and are primarily instituted when improvements in an entire group of students are sought (Pelham, Jr. & Waschbusch, 2004). Thus, overall group behavior is usually targeted with selected interventions. Class-wide behaviors such as excessive talking or late assignment completion provide examples of when teachers may consult with a school psychologist regarding implementation of selected interventions. Important in the use of selected interventions is the notion of incorporating both proactive and reactive strategies (DuPaul & Stoner, 2010). Proactive strategies might involve deliberate classroom arrangement or peer tutoring whereas group contingency programs represent a reactive strategy used to decrease negative behaviors.

A simple and often effective, popular proactive strategy for selected-level intervention is structuring the classroom environment in such a way so that a child with ADHD is situated near the classroom teacher for monitoring and decreased peer reinforcement purposes (Pfiffner, Barkley, & DuPaul, 2006). Overall classroom organization is important as well because a properly organized room facilitates structure and predictable patterns of behavior, which not only children with ADHD need, all children need. Posted feedback charts identifying children's adherence to classroom rules, posters with classroom rules, and daily schedule pictorials can be valuable and appropriate ideas for teachers to consider for children with ADHD. Peer interventions such as class-wide peer tutoring (CWPT) not only enhance positive behavior displays in the classroom, they enhance academic achievement in a number of areas as well such as math, reading, and spelling (Greenwood, Maheady, & Delquadri, 2002). Once the class is divided into two teams, stu-

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dents within each of the two teams are paired and take turns tutoring each other for points. Peers in pairs correct each other to enhance learning, and teachers monitor each pair for following procedures. Again, CWPT is beneficial for all children in the classroom not just those with ADHD. Research suggests that children with ADHD benefit from CWPT due to enhanced on-task behavior and academic performance (DuPaul, Ervin, Hook, & McGoey, 1998).

In order to reduce negative behaviors, teachers may decide to implement a group contingency program. By means of peer group pressure, negative student behaviors can be significantly reduced. For example, the "Good Behavior Game" is a group contingency intervention in which a classroom is divided into teams. The team with the fewest group rule violations shares a group reward. Thus, group contingency programs may reduce serious problematic behaviors such as aggression to less serious behaviors such as classroom rule violations. An important point to remember with regard to group contingency programs is that they should be used to reduce negative behaviors of the whole group and not the behaviors of a targeted individual student (Pelham, Jr. & Waschbusch, 2004).

Indicated Interventions

When a specific student's behaviors need remediation, intense, individualized interventions may be warranted. Individual interventions are directed toward very specific disruptive student behaviors and provide a comprehensive and structured plan to help the student with ADHD decrease problematic behaviors. In order to plan a successful intervention a functional behavior analysis can be conducted to determine conditions that prompt or maintain a behavior. A functional behavior analysis allows one to pinpoint the function of disruptive behavior, which generally involves: escape from a demand, access to adult attention, or access to a preferred tangible item. Several indicated interventions include: computer-assisted instruc-

tion (CAI), contingency management systems, school-home notes, and self-management (DuPaul & Stoner, 2010). CAI is a proactive strategy that can be used with elementary-age students with ADHD and seems especially appropriate for those who struggle with inattention and motivational skill deficits. CAI engages students through a game-like format and specification of clear goals and objectives accompanied by activities to achieve those goals. Content within the program is presented to children in manageable pieces so that they may use multiple sensory modalities and increase their overall engagement in presented activities (Pfiffner, Barkley, & DuPaul, 2006).

Contingency management systems at the individual level can involve response cost or token economies, contingency contracting, or strategic teacher attention. Students with ADHD need consistent and strong reinforcement usually in the form of special privileges or activities, and certain privileges or activities may be provided to students when they meet certain goals (Pfiffner, Barkley, & DuPaul, 2006). In other words, sometimes reinforcement of appropriate behavior is contingent upon performing a targeted behavior. Reinforcers should be delivered immediately after a certain behavior is performed in order to be effective. Response cost occurs when a reinforcer is taken away from a student in an effort to reduce problematic behavior. A system of leveling fines is a response cost program. Thus, response cost is the withdrawal of a reinforcer or certain amounts of it contingent on inappropriate behavior. A token economy is a type of response cost procedure. For example, a math teacher might give each student ten tokens and inform the class that each time they solve a problem incorrectly a token will be repossessed. Response cost is often used effectively with a token reinforcement system where students simultaneously earn tokens for appropriate behavior and lose tokens for misbehavior. Response cost has been empirically supported by research that was done by Rapport, Murphy, and Bailey (1980). Contingency contracting is placing the contingency for

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reinforcement into writing in the form of a contract (DuPaul & Stoner, 2010). Contracting requires negotiations between the teacher and student. According to DuPaul and Stoner (2010) several considerations should be taken into account when contracting is used with students who have ADHD. First, the length of time between required behavior and the reinforcement should be as brief as possible. Second, attainable goals must be set so that the student is able to reach his or her goal within a relatively short amount of time. Third, students should be able to have some decision-making power in determining which rewards they will receive for appropriate behavior. Lastly, the contract should be negotiated often since a student's progress will likely affect possible changes in his or her goals.

Strategic teacher attention involves the teacher's use of his or her own attention to help students stay on task or to redirect those that are off task. Teacher praise has been shown to have positive effects on students with ADHD (O'Leary & O'Leary, 1977). Similarly, actively ignoring a student exhibiting undesirable behavior is one way to effectively decrease inappropriate behavior. When praise is given immediately following a desired behavior, it tends to be more effective. The timing involved in delivering attention for appropriate student conduct is critical to the success of teacher attention as a change mechanism (Pfiffner, Barkley, & DuPaul, 2006).

Home-based contingency programs are common interventions that can be used with children who have ADHD (Kelley, 1990). Home-based programs or school-home notes involve contingencies for behavior that are provided at home, thus, these programs require parental involvement. Based on the teacher's report of the child's behavior at school, rewards (and sometimes negative consequences) are provided at home. For children with ADHD, weekly report cards that are sent home represent a strategy that works well with home-based contingency programs. The teacher's report lists the target behavior monitored at school along with daily ratings of the child's success in meeting goal-level performance requirements. Successful home-based contingency programs require well-defined target behavior and that children be monitored each day and given appropriate feedback regarding their behavior. Also, teacher reports must be translated into clear and specific consequences at home.

Finally, self-management programs can be effective indicated intervention strategies for children with ADHD (DuPaul & Stoner, 2010). Self-management program interventions include two components: self-monitoring and self-evaluation. Children with ADHD can use self-management strategies to monitor and evaluate their own academic progress and social behavior and provide themselves with rewards. Setting goals is an important aspect of self-management programs and teachers help students set goals that are realistic and attainable. According to research by Gureasko-Moore, DuPaul, and White (2006), several students who were diagnosed with ADHD were successful in setting goals regarding organizational skills at school. The students were given checklists to monitor their organization and were asked to record daily success with class preparation. They were also asked to evaluate themselves weekly on how well they felt they had been organized and prepared for classes throughout the week. The procedure was successful and allowed students to think daily about important classroom preparatory essentials. Self-management strategies involve a shift from external to self-reinforcement and, overall, these interventions have resulted in moderate to large effects on classroom behavior and productivity.

Conclusion

Without question, many students with ADHD experience significant difficulties with behavior control and academic achievement as well as some difficulties with interpersonal relationships. Using a three-tier service-delivery model seems to be an appropriate context for placing interventions and school psychologists

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can play a critical role in facilitating these interventions. The research is generally clear as to those interventions that work. The strategies that have been discussed in this paper whether mediated by teachers, peers, or students themselves are flexible and can be adapted to meet individual student needs in different settings. Even though we still need a better understanding of how to match problematic behaviors with appropriate interventions, we have many interventions that have shown great success in improving student outcomes. As research continues, it provides great promise in assuring that students with ADHD will have the necessary supports needed to succeed in the school environment.

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___Membership   ___ Diversity Affairs   _____

APA Division 16
MEMBERSHIP APPLICATION
Please print or type:

Last Name   First Name   MI

Address: _____

City: _____ State: _____ Zip: _____

Phone: (___) _____ e-mail: _____

APA Membership Number (*if applicable*): _____

Please check status:

____ Member $45.00

____ Fellow $45.00

____ Associate $45.00

____ Professional Affiliate $55.00

____ International Affiliate* $5.00

____ Life Status, no fee (*Division 16 members, 65 years of age or older and have been a member of APA for at least 25 years*)

____ Life Status $30.00 (*with School Psychology Quarterly*)

____ Student Affiliate $30.00 (*complete below*)

_____

Faculty Endorsement   Institution   Expected Yr. of Graduation

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

Attn: Division 16 Membership

APA Division Services Office

750 First Street, NE

Washington, DC 20002-4242

* International Affiliate status shall be extended to individuals who are credentialed school psychologists, other psychologists, or individuals pursuing preparation in school psychology who live outside the United States and Canada. APA members must join Divisions in the same category of membership. Therefore, if you are an International Affiliate of APA, you would join the Division as an International Affiliate. If you are a Member of APA, you would join the Division as a Member, not as an International Affiliate, even if you live outside the US and Canada.

APA members can submit their membership application online at:

http://www.apa.org/about/division/join.aspx

Division 16 is an exciting division with many activities and services to benefit you. Members:

- ❖ Engage in the national and international conversation on school psychology. Division 16 is active in advocating for the interests of school psychologists on issues both within the broader field of psychology as well as with constituent school psychology organizations.
- ❖ Receive cutting edge publications such as *School Psychology Quarterly*, the Division's APA journal and the high quality peer-reviewed newsletter *The School Psychologist*.
- ❖ Network with colleagues and leaders in the field who share your interest in School Psychology.
- ❖ Contribute to the Science for Policy and Practice in School Psychology during Division 16 programming at the APA annual convention via round table discussions, symposia, poster sessions, workshops and the superlative Division 16 Hospitality Suite and Social Hour.
- ❖ Join the Division 16 listserv to keep up to date with current trends, professional opportunities, and the on-going dialogue on School Psychology matters.
- ❖ Recognize outstanding achievements. Division 16 honors Students (e.g., APF-Paul Henkin travel awards, minority scholarships, AGS outstanding scholarship awards), Early Career Scholars (e.g., Lightner Witmer Award), and substantial contributors to the field (e.g., Fellow, Senior Scientist, Jack Bardon Distinguished Service Award, Lifetime Achievement Award).
- ❖ Become involved in Division 16 governance. There are many opportunities to join committees and run for executive office in the Division.
- ❖ Visit our website for more information:
  http://www.indiana.edu/~div16/index.html