

School Psychology: From Science to Practice, Summer 2010, Volume 2, Issue 2

School Psychology: From Science to Practice

The Quarterly Periodical of the Student Affiliates in
School Psychology

School Psychology: From Science to Practice

Editor

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Periodical Description

Student Affiliates in School Psychology (SASP) is the student-led organization of the American Psychological Association's (APA) Division 16. *School Psychology: From Science to Practice* (FSTP) is the quarterly periodical of SASP. It serves as a multipurpose platform for promoting and disseminating graduate student scholarship; sharing applied knowledge and valuable practicum experiences; exchanging information and perspectives on critical issues in the field of school psychology; propagating scientific and applied insight from current faculty, practitioners, and interns; and informing the membership of relevant activities, opportunities, resources, and happenings within the organization.

Manuscript Guidelines

FSTP currently accepts articles for seven themed columns: Scholarship, Research Reviews, Lessons From the Field, Forum, Commentary, Chapter Spotlight, and Perspectives. All submissions should be submitted directly to the editor via email at benders4@msu.edu. Submissions are accepted on a rolling deadline, therefore articles may be accepted well in advance of publication. For word count, content, and formatting guidelines for each column, please reference the Manuscript Guidelines document located on the SASP website, <http://www.iu.edu/~sasp/>. All manuscripts should be submitted as Word documents and adhere to APA style.

Future Submission Deadlines

Issue	Deadline
October 2010	October 11, 2010
January 2011	December 13, 2010

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Message from the President

Greetings SASP members!

Welcome to summer and another edition of FSTP. The SASP Executive Board has worked diligently over the past several months on several initiatives. We have focused much of our work on preparing for the upcoming SASP Mini-Convention, which will be held during the 2010 APA conference in San Diego, on Thursday August 12 from 4:30-6:30pm. The Mini-Convention will include several outstanding poster and paper presentations focused on a variety of topics related to our field as well as issues faced by school psychology students. In addition, the Mini-Convention will feature a panel of speakers who will lead what is sure to be in an intriguing discussion on recent developments in school neuropsychology. More information about the Mini-Convention can be found in the update from SASP Convention Chair Kelly Barker, on page 6 of this issue. In recent months, SASP has also worked to promote the annual SASP Diversity Award scholarship competition. Applications are now being accepted from both incoming and an advanced school psychology students of various under-represented cultural groups. See the message from SASP Diversity Chair, Ovetta Chapman, on page 6, for more information on this award. An application form is also included on page 64 of this issue. In addition to these efforts, SASP FSTP Editor, Stacy Bender, has compiled another outstanding issue of FSTP. This issue features several noteworthy and unique articles, including student research on school psychologists' attitudes toward projective testing (pp. 19). Also included are several interesting research reviews bridging science and practice with empirically-sound findings, such as an article featuring recommendations for promoting social acceptance among students with Aspergers Disorder (pp. 28), and another article highlighting issues of self-concept faced by Arab American children in the post-9/11 world (pp. 33). I encourage you to read all of the articles included in this issue; many offer enlightening perspectives on issues of practice and scholarship in our field, while others provide unique insights on SASP-related activities and benefits of SASP membership experienced by students from differing regions of the US. I hope you enjoy this issue of FSTP, and have a safe, relaxing, and productive summer!

Kristin Rezzetano
SASP President

SASP needs your input!

In order to ensure our efforts are beneficial and pertinent to students, SASP is looking for student feedback on various topics related to SASP activities and services.

Please take a few moments to complete the 2010 SASP Student Survey, available online at <http://www.surveygizmo.com/s/284269/the-2010-sasp-member-survey>.

The survey should take approximately 5 minutes to complete.

Thank you for your time, your feedback is very much appreciated!!

SASP Executive Board Member Updates

Update from the Diversity Chair – Ovett Chapman

One of my goals as Diversity Chair has been in the promotion and recognition of school psychology graduate students from culturally diverse backgrounds. Last year, SASP announced the annual Diversity Scholarship Program. This year we, once again, are seeking doctoral students from under-represented cultural backgrounds to receive compensation in the amount of \$1000. Two awards are available: one for a student who will be a first year doctoral student in the Fall of 2010, and another for an advanced doctoral graduate student. SASP is aware of the financial pressures that graduate students are frequently faced with, and the Diversity Scholarship Program has been created to provide monetary support to aid students from diverse cultural backgrounds. The deadline to apply is July 1, 2010.

Update from the Convention Chair – Kelly Ann Barker

Planning for SASP's 2010 Mini-Convention is in full swing! As the Convention Chair, I have been hard at work putting together what I hope will be an interesting and worthwhile convention for all students. We received a record number of student proposals this year, and I was extremely impressed with the caliber of the research submitted. Following review by a team of peer reviewers, 10 poster presentations and 1 paper presentation were selected. Students attending the Mini-Convention will have the opportunity to learn from poster presenters about a variety of topics, including campus violence, school-based trauma assessment, working with LGBTQ students, and childhood obesity. The student paper presentation will be given by Michelle Prescott from the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee and focus on a three-tiered intervention for Tourette Syndrome and Tic Disorders. Students will have the opportunity to learn about both disorders and participate in a demonstration of the academic experience of a student with Tourette Syndrome. In addition, intervention procedures for these students at different levels will be described. This presentation should be an engaging and informative one!

The keynote address will feature field professionals discussing "Neuropsychology in the Schools". Students in attendance will learn about the role neuropsychology can play in an educational setting and its utility with various student populations. As always, the Mini-Convention promises to be a great opportunity for socializing and networking with peers and potential future colleagues as well as practitioners and trainers in the field.

I hope that you all will attend the Mini-Convention during the American Psychological Association conference in San Diego, California this August. The Mini-Convention will be held on Thursday, August 12th, from 4:30 to 7:30pm in the San Diego Marriott Hotel. Watch your e-mail for further information as the date approaches!

Chapter Spotlight

SASP at the University of Maryland, College Park

Megan Vaganek

University of Maryland, College Park



The University of Maryland (UMD), College Park campus is home to an active, enthusiastic Student Affiliates of School Psychology (SASP) chapter. The School Psychology Program, located in the Counseling and Personnel Services (CAPS) Department, is focused on producing scientist-practitioners who aim for leadership positions. The CAPS department is ranked #1 by U.S. News and World Report. School Psychology doctoral students at UMD receive in-depth training in cognitive, personality, and academic assessment, instructional consultation, psychology coursework, and psychological and educational research.

The SASP chapter at UMD aims to foster growth and professionalism in students. By virtue of being in our program, all students are SASP members and the level of participation is up to the individual. With several different types of opportunities for involvement, SASP touches our entire School Psychology student population.

The Executive Committee (EC) of UMD's SASP Chapter is elected at the end of the spring semester. The EC includes a chair, secretary, treasurer, student support coordinator, two faculty liaisons, and two professional development coordinators. Prospective students are first exposed to SASP during Interview Day and through the SASP website, linked to the program's homepage. The website is updated every semester with photos of recent activities, a schedule of upcoming events, and links to other resources. School Psychology Buddies are prospective students' next contact with SASP, as they are encouraged to correspond with their buddy (i.e., a current student) to ask questions about the program, the local area, and anything else that comes up during the graduate school decision-making and transition process.

SASP kicks off the new school year with a Welcome Lunch for the incoming students. Current students provide a potluck lunch and meet with new students in a casual, fun atmosphere. This is a great opportunity for everyone to meet and connect before a busy academic year begins.

SASP holds one or two Executive Committee meetings each semester to plan events. The entire SASP community meets once a semester to request student feedback about potential events, share program news, and stay connected. UMD's SASP chapter has an event, whether professional or social, almost monthly. Past social events included happy hours, football and basketball games on campus, group outings to local attractions, and dinners. These activities help our students build a social-support network, bond over shared interests, and take a break from the rigors of graduate school life.

Volunteer opportunities are also an important part of SASP at UMD. In April 2009, SASP participated in the Hands on DC Work-A-Thon, where a large group of members painted and landscaped at a Washington, D.C. school. We were the #1 fundraising group at the event!

In addition to fundraising for charitable causes, SASP has organized bake sales and other creative ways to raise money for the chapter. These funds help provide pizza at meetings, treats for students throughout the year, and gifts for speakers that we invite to campus. Last year, we designed t-shirts for our program, which also generated funds for SASP and provided everyone with a memento from their UMD experience. Many students ordered extra shirts to give to friends and family!

Students' professional development is one of the major goals of UMD's SASP chapter. With two students dedicated to on and off campus professional development, we are able to plan several events. The off-campus coordinator is our connection with the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) and the Maryland School Psychologists Association (MSPA). This person keeps students up-to-date with conference information and important issues in the field. The on-campus coordinator is responsible for planning a professional development event each semester. Every other year, we organize an internship panel, where current and former interns in the area meet with students to discuss the application process and their experiences in local school districts. Other recent professional development events included a seminar about private practice and a crisis-intervention workshop.

Each November SASP celebrates School Psychology Awareness week with thank-you cards for faculty and practicum supervisors, goodie bags for our students, and an educational outreach event to spread the word about school psychology.

SASP stays connected with the school psychology and education community in many ways. In January 2009, students and a faculty member attended the state of Maryland's Legislative Day and met with senators and delegates about the role of school psychologists and advocated for students and families. SASP also reaches out to undergraduates by giving presentations about our field. In recent years, SASP members met with UMD's Psi Chi chapter to talk

about school psychology as a future career.

SASP members are not only involved with the community and their fellow students, but also with the School Psychology Program faculty. The SASP faculty liaisons meet every two weeks with the faculty. Over the past few years, the faculty liaisons played an integral role in the revision of the program's comprehensive exam requirements. The liaisons share student thoughts with the faculty regarding courses, research opportunities, and other program-related issues. The liaisons often survey student opinions, share program news, and represent the students during meetings. In collaboration with the faculty, SASP faculty liaisons organize events such as movie nights and ice cream socials.

SASP at the University of Maryland is a community of students who are engaged in academics and research, but also dedicated to supporting one another. In the upcoming school year, SASP will continue some traditions and create new ones. We have an internship panel, Halloween bake sale, t-shirt sale, and social events in the works. We're also planning to extend our volunteer experiences. New events include weekly student lunch meetings, where students can discuss their research, thesis, and dissertation progress.

The SASP board from 2009-2010 and 2010-2011 includes: Laura Schussler (current chair), Eva Yiu (current treasurer), Julie Grossman (current secretary), Megan Vaganek (current faculty liaison), Will Bovender (current faculty liaison), Renee Jorisch (current student support coordinator), Cyril Pickering (current on-campus professional development), Janaiha Nelson (current off-campus professional development), Kristi Maslak (former faculty liaison), Marissa Johnstun (former student support coordinator), and Jill Berger (former chair).

Our website: <http://www.education.umd.edu/EDCP/SchoolPsychology/SASP/>.

Megan Vaganek, B.A., is a student in the school psychology doctoral program at the University of Maryland and is the chapter's Faculty Liaison.

Why Start a SASP Chapter?

Michael J. Vance and Jeffery Cheneir

Louisiana State University



If one had to pick a current theme in education, it would be the implementation of evidence-based practices within the classroom. Whether this is seen in the wording of current federal law or the increasing use of tiered models of instruction within the general education curriculum, schools are consistently being asked to find the most effective instructional practices and to monitor them as a means of holding teachers and administrators accountable. While this practice is relatively new (at least to the extent that is mandated by law), it is something that school psychologists have long been practicing.

Despite disagreements over whether school psychologists should be more concerned with assessment or with intervention, the purpose of both was always to do more than admire the problem. Since the inception of the field, school psychologists have been asked to identify students with academic or behavioral disabilities and then been asked to identify empirically validated interventions meant to reduce the effects of the disability as much as possible within the classroom. Even within a more traditional model, identification was meant as a means of providing a more effective instructional placement, not just a means of removing difficult children from the general education setting.

This task of consistently being knowledgeable of the most effective practices (both within assessment and intervention) is one of the reasons we are currently starting up a SASP chapter at LSU. The connection of colleagues with differing backgrounds is one of the most important things we can do as scientist-practitioners to keep up with what is out there. It's no secret that advisors, as researchers, get into a groove of publishing in particular journals and reading from an even more specific set. While this is completely understandable given time constraints, it reduces their ability to be knowledgeable of everything out there, and thus limit their ability to provide the broadest scope of education.

This selective exposure can be seen at all levels of the field; in the school districts we apply to work in, in the journals we submit articles to, and to the people we collaborate with. As people we want to surround ourselves with like-minded individuals who will push us to 10

continue to work on things that we commonly feel as important, but as scientists we have to constantly seek out research that is outside of our expertise or even contrary to our own results. There is no better time to start engaging in this practice than in graduate school.

School psychology is a huge field with a number of differing factions, and as practitioners, school psychologists are expected to be experts in all of them. While it's unreasonable to make this assumption, it happens, and it is our task to know where to find out more information about any available topic. As students, it is our job to know what is out there, beyond what our professors are teaching. We may not agree on everything, but there needs to be at least a dialogue. For this reason, we at LSU are starting up a SASP chapter; so we can be a part of the dialogue, provide some information about what we do, and hopefully learn something from other students beyond what were learning here.

Michael J. Vance, M.A., and Jeffery Cheneir, M.A. are school psychology doctoral students at Louisiana State University

Scholarship

The Relationship Between Impulsivity, Alcohol Use, and Academic Achievement with Undergraduate College Students

Monica R. Chenard
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Abstract

The focus of this research is to examine the relationship between impulsivity, alcohol use and grade point average (GPA) in college undergraduate students. Participants were recruited from Saint Joseph's College, a private undergraduate college in Maine. Participants were administered three scales: a demographic questionnaire, the Barratt Impulsiveness Scale, Version 11 (BIS-11; Patton, Stanford & Barratt, 1995), which measured impulsivity and the Rutgers Alcohol Problem Index (RAPI) (White & Labouvie, 1989) which assessed problem drinking. This research helped to prove that a lower GPA is associated with higher levels of impulsivity, greater alcohol use is associated with greater levels of impulsivity, both males and females tended to be equally impulsive, the more a student drinks, the greater the level of impulsivity; freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors all experienced similar levels of impulsivity and alcohol.

Consider this scenario: Billy is a freshman at a private undergraduate college studying Business Administration. Billy, with his newfound freedom, has often found himself drinking beer with "the guys" every night after his classes are finished. Billy has also begun to hang out with a very risky crowd, doing things that he usually does not do, and his grades are beginning to slip. How would you conceptualize Billy's change of character? Would you say he is becoming more impulsive? Is he just trying to fit in because he is in a new place with an entire group of new people? Researchers have acknowledged that college life is filled with similar complex situations. Students take chances, drink, take more chances, and then drink some more. Does a student's level of impulsivity have any correlation with the amount of alcohol that he or she drinks, and does that impact academic performance? Does gender play any role? The focus of this research is to examine the relationship between impulsivity, alcohol use, and academic achievement among undergraduate college students.

Impulsivity and Academic Achievement

There have been numerous studies that have examined the relationship between impulsivity and academic achievement. Gilpin and Larsen (1981) examined impulsivity in college students. They used the Matching Familiar Figures Test (MFFT) on a sample of 23 college students and hypothesized that performance on the MFFT (which is a measurement

of conceptual impulsivity) would be unrelated to motor impulsivity. In this study, subjects completed the Adolescent/Adult form of Kegan's Matching Familiar Figures Test (MFFT), the Draw-A-Line task, and the Draw-A-Circle task. The subjects then performed a motor inhibition task. At the end of the experiment, all subjects were given a definition of impulsiveness and they were asked to rate themselves on an 11-point scale. The results of this study indicated that the performance on the MFFT was not related to performance on any of the other tasks, and therefore there was no relationship found between conceptual and motoric impulsivity in college-age students.

Kockler and Stanford (2007) examined the association between impulsivity, executive functioning, and verbal learning and memory. This study was conducted with a sample of 170 clinically aggressive participants. It was hypothesized that there would be correlations between scales of learning and executive functioning measures. Various measures were used to measure executive functioning: (a) the Controlled Oral Word Associated Test (COWAT), (b) the Trail Making Test (TMT), (c) the Wisconsin Card Sorting Test (WCST), and (d) the Ruff Figural Fluency Test (RFFT). In order to measure memory, the California Verbal Learning Test (CVLT) was used, and the Barratt Impulsivity Scale (BIS) was used to measure impulsivity. The results indicated that there were negative correlations between learning, memory, attention, and impulsivity in clinical aggressive population. Additionally, higher levels of working memory were correlated with lower levels of impulsivity and that with impulsive individuals. There were higher frequencies of intrusion errors and motor impulsivity was not associated with general verbal learning abilities.

Rodriquez-Fornells and Maydeu-Olivares (2000) investigated impulsive problem solving styles as a predictor of academic achievement in Spain. This study used a sample of 263 first year college students to determine if social problem solving can be used to predict academic competence in college students. It was hypothesized that the Impulsivity/Carelessness style of problem solving would be the most useful predictor of GPA because impulsivity has been found to be significantly related to poor academic performance. First and second year cumulative GPA was used as the dependent measure, and the Selectivity Exam (SE), which is an achievement test administered to students graduating from high school, was used to control for previous academic performance. The Spanish Adaptation of the SPSI-R was used to measure Social Problem-Solving. The SPSI-R was given to the subjects at the beginning of their second semester in college, after having taken the SE during the previous year, and their GPA was obtained at the end of the semester. The Impulsivity/Carelessness measure had the most significant negative correlation with GPA. Both SPS scores and impulsivity/carelessness were effective in predicting GPA.

Dickman (1990) investigated the differences between functional and dysfunctional impulsivity and their relations with personality and cognitive functioning. His first study focused on distinguishing between functional and dysfunctional impulsivity. There were 17 items that tapped functional impulsivity, 23 items for dysfunctional impulsivity, and 23 filter items. These items were administered to 477 undergraduate students. The results

of this study indicated that there is a distinct difference between functional and dysfunctional impulsivity. For both types of impulsivity, the tendency to think less about a situation before taking action is involved, but the differences between the two lie in the consequences. Individuals with high functional impulsivity gain positive consequences from this tendency, but individuals with dysfunctional impulsivity are faced with difficulties.

In his second study, the relationship between functional impulsivity and dysfunctional impulsivity styles and other personality traits were examined. The results indicated that functional impulsivity was more closely associated with positive personality traits such as enthusiasm and activity, and dysfunctional impulsivity was more closely associated with negative personality traits such as disorderliness and the tendency to ignore facts when faced with a decision.

In his third study, Dickman was to determine which type of impulsiveness account for the previously identified relationship between impulsivity and the speed and accuracy of perceptual processes. The same impulsivity inventory was used in this study that was used in Dickman's previous studies. The results of this study indicate that there is an association between functional impulsivity and the speed and accuracy of perception. Overall, the research by Dickman indicates that there are two types of impulsivity, function and dysfunctional, and that functional impulsivity represents an ability to engage in more accurate and rapid information processing.

In research on impulsivity in the college population, Nussbaum and Courbasson (1997) examined possible associations between impulsivity, cognitive functioning, personality traits, and maladaptive behavior in college student and forensic samples. They hypothesized that university students would commit fewer errors on the Matching Familiar Figures Test (MFFT), produce briefer latencies on the MFFT, score lower on both measures of impulsivity and demonstrate higher field independence than the forensic sample. They also hypothesized that impulsive subjects would produce shorter latencies and commit more errors on the MFFT than less-impulsive subjects.

The results of this study indicate that measures of personality and cognitive style are contaminated by intellectual strengths and weaknesses. Additionally, it appears that levels of impulsivity or reflectivity cannot be differentiated on the basis of locus of control (Dickman, 1990). The research on impulsivity and academic achievement indicates the relationship between the two.

Impulsivity, Alcohol Use, and Academic Achievement

Colder and Magid (2007) investigated the correlation between impulsivity, alcohol use, and problems among college students. It was hypothesized that non-impulsive cognitive structures such as sensation seeking and premeditation will be related to alcohol use in college students, but that impulsive cognitive structures such as perseverance will be

related to actual alcohol problems. The UPPS Impulsive Behavior scale, an alcohol use index, and the Rutgers Alcohol Problem Index (RAPI) were used with a sample of 267 undergraduate college students. The results indicated that urgency and perseverance were related to alcohol problems, but not alcohol use and individuals with high levels of urgency and with low levels of perseverance experienced high levels of alcohol related problems.

In research on factors that contribute to gender differences in alcohol use, Hoeksema and Hilt (2006) noted that men appear to hold certain risk factors, impulsivity being one of them, which heighten the chance that they will develop an alcohol-related disorder. They continued to explain that college men score higher on ratings of impulsivity, and that this was positively correlated to their higher rates of heavy drinking during their college years.

In research on impulsivity and hazardous drinking patterns in college undergraduate students, MacKillip, Matheson, Anderson MacKillip, Castelda, and Donovan (2007) studied the impulsivity of two groups: heavy drinkers in college and a control group of social drinkers. The Alcohol Use Disorders Test (AUDIT) was used to measure alcohol use, and impulsivity was measured using various scales including the Eyesenk Impulsivity Questionnaire (EIQ), the Delay Discounting Task (DDT), and the Present Hedonism and Future subscales of the Stanford Time Perspective Inventory (STPI). All of these methods were included in a self-report questionnaire completed by the participants. The heavy drinking group reported greater impulsivity ($r = .40, p < .001$), greater orientation toward pleasure seeking ($r = .34, p < .001$), a foreshortened orientation to the future ($r = -.24, p < .001$), and an attraction to thrill and seeking of adventure ($r = .20, p < .06$). These results support the idea that greater impulsivity is associated with alcohol misuse in college students.

Based on this review of literature, it was felt that this study would contribute to better understanding of the relationship between impulsivity, alcohol use, and academic achievement. The following research questions were identified:

- (a) Is there a relationship between impulsivity and GPA in college undergraduate students?
- (b) Is there a relationship between impulsivity and alcohol use in college undergraduate students?
- (c) Is there a relationship between gender and impulsivity?
- (d) Is there a relationship between impulsivity and number of drinks consumed for undergraduate college students?
- (e) Is there a relationship between class standing, impulsivity, and alcohol use for undergraduate college students?

Method

Participants

119 undergraduate students at a private college in the Northeast were surveyed.

The sample consisted of 22 males and 97 females. There were 20 freshmen, 43 sophomores, 20 juniors and 36 seniors. The mean age of male students was 20 years ($SD = 1.56$) and the mean age for female students was 20 years ($SD = 1.20$).

Materials and Procedure

Three scales were administered. The first scale, which was author constructed, was the Demographic Questionnaire, which asked questions about age, gender and major. Academic achievement was measured using the students' GPA.

The second scale administered was the Barratt Impulsiveness Scale, Version 11 (BIS-11; Patton, Stanford & Barratt, 1995). The BIS-11 consists of 30 items that measures general impulsiveness of an individual. Subjects respond to items on a 4 point scale where 1 = Rarely/never and 4 = Always/almost always (Psiquiatr, 2007). Higher scores indicate a higher level of impulsivity (Patton, Stanford & Barratt, 1995). Internal consistency of this scale is 0.62 (Psiquiatr, 2007).

The third scale administered was the Rutgers Alcohol Problem Index (RAPI) (White & Labouvie, 1989). The RAPI consists of 23 items that assess problem drinking. Subjects respond to items on a 4 point scale where 0 = None and 3 = More than 5 times. Higher scores indicate a higher likelihood of problem drinking. This scale has a reliability of .92 and a 3-year stability coefficient of .40 for the total sample (Labouvie & White, 2007).

Analysis of Data

Research Question #1

In order to analyze this question, a correlation was conducted between GPA and impulsivity. The results indicated that there was a significant negative correlation between GPA and impulsivity ($r = -.284$, $p = .002$). The findings indicate that a lower GPA is associated with higher levels of impulsivity.

Research Question #2

In order to analyze this question, a correlation was conducted between impulsivity and alcohol use. The results indicated that there was a significant positive correlation between alcohol use and impulsivity ($r = .469$, $p < .001$). This finding indicates that greater alcohol use is associated with greater levels of impulsivity.

Research Question #3

In order to analyze this question, a correlation was conducted between impulsivity and gender. The results indicated that there was no significant relationship between impulsivity and gender ($r = .003$, $p = .971$). Both males and females tended to be equally impulsive. 16

Males scored an average of 59.68 (SD = 12.71) and females scored an average of 59.77 (SD = 10.36) on the BIS scale.

Research Question #4

In order to analyze this question, a correlation was conducted between impulsivity and the number of drinks consumed by students during one week. The results indicated that there was a significant correlation between number of drinks and impulsivity ($r = .313$, $p = .001$). This finding indicates that the more a student drinks, the greater the level of impulsivity.

Research Question #5

In order to analyze this question, a correlation was conducted between class standing, impulsivity, and alcohol use. The results indicated that there were no significant correlations found between class standing and impulsivity ($r = -.085$, $p = .368$), and between class standing and alcohol use ($r = .088$, $p = .344$). These findings indicate that freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors all experienced similar levels of impulsivity. Additionally, alcohol use was similar across the four class standings.

Discussion

This study investigated the relationship between impulsivity, alcohol use, and academic achievement in college undergraduate students. It was interesting to note that there was no significant relationship between gender and impulsivity with both males and females experiencing the same levels of impulsivity. These results contradict the results obtained by Hoeksema and Hilt (2006) who found that college men tend to be more impulsive during their college years than college females.

Another interesting finding was the absence of relationships between class standing, impulsivity and alcohol use. One can assume that because freshmen students are just beginning to learn the ropes and make new friends in an entirely new environment, their impulsivity levels may be a little higher. One can also assume that because junior and senior students are at a legal age for alcohol consumption, that the higher classes may have higher instances of alcohol use.

A third interesting finding was the relationship between impulsivity and amount of alcohol consumed by students. This is interesting because a common activity for college students is alcohol consumption and one can assume that greater alcohol consumption may lead to higher impulsivity.

How can the results of this study help colleges and universities?

1. Student life departments at universities and colleges can make an effort to inform students of the various consequences of alcohol consumption. They can implement

- programs on campuses that deal with alcohol awareness.
2. College staff and faculty should monitor levels of impulsivity, especially with men because impulsivity is positively correlated with alcohol consumption and GPA.

Caution should be used when interpreting the results of this study because the study included more female than male participants. Future research should aim at getting a more representative sample of gender and class standing.

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School Psychologist Attitudes Towards and Use of Projective Measures in Educational Planning

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Abstract

There is currently a lack of research regarding which types of projective measures are used most frequently. Previous research also offers conflicting views on the utility of projective assessment, especially within an educational setting. Therefore, the purpose of this research study was to investigate the projective measure use among school psychologists in the school setting. The participants in this research consisted of 15 school psychologists working in school districts surrounding the Albany, NY area. A survey constructed by the primary investigators was used to gather data from school psychologists. Findings indicated that objective measures were reported to be used more frequently than projective measures. Also, a majority of participants regarded objective measures as being useful in educational and intervention planning, whereas projective measures were not indicated as being useful.

School Psychologists' Current Use of Projective Measures

There is evidence to suggest that psychologists in the United States use drawing assessments more often than psychologists in other countries. For example, a study conducted by Bekhit, Thomas, and Jolley (2005) compared the formal and informal uses of drawing assessments in clinical assessment in Britain and America. These investigators concluded that formal drawing tests were used infrequently by British clinical psychologists, while informal drawing assessments were used with reasonable levels of frequency. In the United States, a previous study concluded that 80% of clinical psychologists indicated using projective drawing tests and 56% reported using them with a moderate degree of frequency.

In a study by Hosp & Reschly (2002), assessment practices of school psychologists across all regions of the United States revealed that Behavior Rating Scales were among the most commonly used measure. Moreover, in the last two decades, Behavior Rating Scales have made significant advances. Today, this method is one of the most widely used for assessing child behavior (Merrell, 2007). Personality and projective measures were used as frequently as intelligence and cognitive ability measures. Specifically, in the Mid-Atlantic region (NJ, NY, PA), it was reported that school psychologists completed more projective assessments per month than any other type of assessment (i.e., IQ/ability, behavior rating scales, achievement, behavior observations). Projective and visual-motor assessments appear to be practiced at a comparable rate, and more so within the coastal regions of the United States. The plains, Midwest, and mountain areas of the U.S. emphasized systematic behavior observations and other assessments with higher technical adequacy than projective measures (Hosp & Reschly).

Key findings from a study conducted by Shapiro and Heick (2004) indicated that more respondents (75.5%) reported using Behavior Rating Scales than projective assessments (50%). This finding, compared with findings from previous studies, suggests that there is a substantial decrease in the usage of projective measures in the past 10 to 15 years. This study also found that these practitioners believed that behavioral assessments were "well linked" to intervention.

School Psychologists' Perceptions About the Utility of Projective Techniques

It has been suggested that in the realm of educational and intervention planning, conservative and tentative hypotheses about an assessment case can be refuted or supported by more objective, technically sound behavioral/social-emotional instruments (Miller & Nickerson, 2006). Projective measures are useful to generate hypotheses, not to confirm them. Miller et al. (2006) suggest that Projective-expressive techniques and self-report instruments should be considered "Third-line" assessments; these should never be used as primary methods. Using "First-line" measures (i.e., direct behavioral observations, behavior rating scales) and "Second-line measures (i.e., sociometric techniques, interviews) reveal information that is more reliable, valid, and easier to interpret. However, the nature of "Third-line" measures may create an assessment environment that consists of lower levels of defensiveness and suspicion, especially when students are asked to merely draw, finish a sentence, or tell a story about pictures (2006).

This position was supported in an article by Merrell (2001), which posited that projective measures should not be used as a primary assessment tool for evaluating social skills. It has been argued that other methods, such as Behavior Rating Scales and direct observations, have more clinical utility and should therefore be used instead. Merrell (2001) suggested that projective measures such as sentence completion tasks, thematic approaches, and drawing tasks may be helpful for informal uses such as gaining rapport with a child or developing hypotheses to guide further assessment. However, these measures would not be helpful or appropriate in identifying and classifying specific social skills and should never be used as a primary assessment source. Merrell (2001) indicated that direct observations and behavior rating scales should be used in best practice.

In defense of projective measures, it is argued that projective drawing techniques are less susceptible to "faking information" than self-report measures (Veltman & Browne, 2002). Becoming quickly absorbed into drawing can help facilitate rapport and useful information, especially in the case of children who have been maltreated. There is no doubt that research using projective drawing techniques to make direct inferences about internal psychological states has been criticized and refuted. Projective measures can be used as effective ways to break the ice, especially when dealing with frightening or threatening situations and experiences. School psychologists may also ask follow-up questions that may not always be appropriate when using "First-" or "Second-line" assessment measures. Nevertheless, other authors such as Hibbard (2000) argue that recommendations to limit the use of projective 20

measures in assessment are not warranted or reasonable at this time. Simply put, projective techniques may be useful as rapport-building devices, but they are not always useful measurement devices (2002).

Projective measures are equated with subjective professional judgment. Researchers have noted that in areas that use more objective and systematic practices, school psychologists are better able to incorporate current educational reforms (i.e. functional behavior assessment, positive behavior support) (Hosp et al., 2002). The use of projective measures may have to decrease in order for the role of school psychologists to better align with state and federal educational regulations. Test validity and competence of the school psychologist are always an issue in the administration of projective techniques. Knauss (2001) sums up the current state of research on projective measure use in educational settings by saying, "to automatically eliminate all projective testing from school settings would be inappropriate; educators must always be focused on the issue of answering the referral question."

The purpose of this research is to study the projective measure use among school psychologists in the school setting. The current study will also address the relative lack of information regarding which types of projective measures are used most frequently (i.e., drawing, thematic, and sentence completion tasks). This study will report findings from a survey designed to address the practices and attitudes of school psychologists.

Research Questions

Three research questions will be addressed in the current study:

- 1.) How often do school psychologists use projective techniques compared to other measures (i.e., intelligence, achievement, observations, rating scales)?
- 2.) How often do school psychologists use various projective techniques (i.e., drawing tasks, thematic apperception tasks, and sentence completions)?
- 3.) How useful do school psychologists perceive projective techniques to be an informing part of intervention and educational planning?

Method

Participants

The participants in this research consisted of 15 school psychologists working in the Albany and surrounding school districts. The survey utilized for this study provided information regarding demographics of the participant sample. Participants were recruited through email or telephone contact based on information obtained from school district websites. Participants were also recruited via contacts through the Department of School Psychology at the University of Albany, State University of New York.

Instruments

A survey was used to gather data from school psychologists. The instrument used in this study was produced by the primary investigators based on variables identified by Shapiro et al. (2004). A pilot study was conducted in order to gain information about the reliability and validity of the *Survey of School Psychologists' Use of Projective Measures in Assessment*. Results indicated an acceptable and adequate level of reliability and validity for the requirements of the Master's EPSY 680 course.

The survey was designed to elicit information about how often school psychologists use projective techniques (compared to other assessment measures), which projective techniques are used most frequently, and perceptions about projective measure utility. Also, to improve the accuracy of self-report data, school psychologists were asked to rate usage over the last 10 cases they evaluated.

Procedure

Primary investigators contacted school psychologists currently working in a school setting. School psychologists were contacted via email in order to gain permission and provide informed consent for participation. Contact information was located through the University at Albany school psychology office directories. Consent to participate was implied by completion and return of the survey.

Results

Demographics

Table 1 presents the demographic characteristics of the participants. Among the respondents for the current study, 20% of the sample indicated that they were male; while 80% of the sample indicated that they were female. Of the sample, 40% of the participants reported having completed a Masters degree, and 60% indicated having completed a doctoral degree (i.e., PhD, EdD, or PsyD). Data related to years of professional practice revealed that 93.3% of the participants have been practicing school psychologists for less than ten years, while 6.7% of the sample reported practicing as a school psychologist for more than twenty-six years. A large majority of the sample also reported being trained in accordance with a cognitive-behavioral approach (93.3%). One respondent (6.7%) reported being trained and operating within an eclectic approach.

How often do school psychologists use projective techniques compared to other measures?

Respondents were asked to reflect on their past ten cases and indicate the frequency in which they used various general assessment practices. Table 2 indicates the list of methods and the percentage reported. In the areas of cognitive assessment, achievement assessment, direct observations, and rating scales, a majority of respondents indicated using these practices

Table 1
Demographic Characteristics of Sample

Variables	<i>n</i>	%
Gender		
Male	3	20
Female	12	80
Highest Degree Completed		
Masters	6	40
Masters +30/CAS		
PhD/EdD/PsyD	9	60
Years of Professional Practice		
0 to 5	12	80
6 to 10	2	13.3
11 to 15		
16 to 20		
21 to 25		
26+	1	6.7
Philosophical Approach to Graduate Training		
Behavioral		
Cognitive-behavioral	14	93.3
Cognitive		
Psychodynamic		
Other	1	6.7

Table 2
General Assessment Practices

	Frequency (Percentage)				
	0	1-3	4-7	8-10	Not Sure
Cognitive	2(13.3)	1(6.7)	4(26.7)	8(53.3)	0(0)
Achievement	2(13.3)	4(26.7)	3(20.0)	6(40.0)	0(0)
Direct Observations	0(0)	0(0)	1(6.7)	14(93.3)	0(0)
Rating Scales	0(0)	2(13.3)	5(33.3)	8(53.3)	0(0)
Projective	7(46.7)	7(46.7)	1(6.7)	0(0)	0(0)

at least eight times within their previous ten cases (53.3%, 40.0%, 93.3%, and 53.3%, respectively). Conversely, a majority of participants reported using projective measures three or fewer times (93.3%) over their previous ten cases.

Chi-squared analyses were conducted in order to further investigate whether a significant difference existed within the five general assessment practices. The analyses revealed that there was a significant difference within school psychologists' self-reported use of direct observations, with 8-10 times (out of 10 previous cases) being reported most frequently, $\chi^2_{(1, N=15)} = 11.27, p < .05$. No other significant differences were identified within the various assessment practices.

How often do school psychologists use various projective techniques?

Respondents were also asked to consider their use of specific projective assessment techniques throughout their previous ten cases. Frequency analyses indicated that a majority of school psychologists who participated in this study used drawing tasks, thematic apperception tasks, and sentence completions three times or less within their previous ten cases (93.3%, 100%, and 100%, respectively).

Chi-squared analyses were conducted in order to further investigate whether there was a significant difference between the three projective assessment practices. These analyses revealed that participants of this study self-reported a significant difference within the area of thematic apperception test use, with the majority of respondents indicating that they did not use this assessment technique within their previous ten cases, $\chi^2_{(1, N=14)} = 7.14, p < .05$. There were no other significant differences noted on the different projective measures.

Table 3

Projective Assessment Practices

	Frequency (Percentage)				
	0	1-3	4-7	8-10	Not Sure
Drawing Tasks	7(46.7)	7(46.7)	1(6.7)	0(0)	0(0)
Thematic Apperception Tasks*	12(80.0)	2(13.3)	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)
Sentence Completions	9(60.0)	6(40.0)	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)

How useful do school psychologists perceive projective techniques to be an informing part of intervention and educational planning?

Lastly, respondents were asked to reflect on their past ten cases and indicate the usefulness of general assessment practices related to intervention and educational planning. In the areas of cognitive assessment, achievement assessment, direct observations, and rating scales, a majority of respondents indicated finding these tools very useful (60.0%, 60.0%, 86.7%, 66.7%, respectively). Projective assessment techniques were reported by a majority of

Table 4

Projective Measures and Interventions/Educational Planning

	Frequency (Percentage)				
	Not Useful At All	Minimally Useful	Neutral	Somewhat Useful	Very Useful
Cognitive*	0(0)	2(13.3)	1(6.7)	2(13.3)	9(60.0)
Achievement*	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	5(33.3)	9(60.0)
Direct Observation	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	2(13.3)	13(86.7)
Rating Scales	0(0)	0(0)	1(6.7)	4(26.7)	10(66.7)
Projective*	5(33.3)	1(6.7)	5(33.3)	3(20.0)	0(0)

the school psychologists sampled in this study to range from not useful at all to neutral (73.3%). Chi-squared analyses were also used in order to investigate whether there was a significant difference between general assessment practice utility in intervention and educational planning. Statistics revealed significant differences in the areas of cognitive assessment, direct observations, and rating scales. Specifically, a majority of participants considered cognitive assessments, direct observations, and rating scales to be "very useful" when designing educational plans over their last ten cases, $\chi^2_{(3, N=14)} = 11.71, p < .05$, $\chi^2_{(1, N=15)} = 8.07, p < .05$, $\chi^2_{(2, N=15)} = 8.40, p < .05$, respectively.

Past research has suggested that there is a prevalent use of projective measures within psychological assessment (Bekhit et al., 2005; Hosp & Reschly, 2002). However, more recently it has been reported that the use of projective measures is decreasing while the reliance on behavior rating scales is increasing (Shapiro & Heick, 2004). The findings from the current study are in concert with those offered by Shapiro & Heick. Particularly, it was noted that cognitive and achievement assessments as well as direct observations were used at similar frequencies to rating scales. Projective measures, on the other hand, were used less frequently than the other general assessment practices.

Research has not specifically addressed the frequency with which school psychologists use different projective measures in their practice. The current study adds to this literature base by suggesting that there were no distinct preferences among the participants. This could be because the participant sample utilized in this study consisted of a large majority of psychologists who align with a cognitive behavioral orientation; this relatively limited sample of school psychologists practicing may have an impact on their response choices. Furthermore, it was noted that while respondents reported using the various projective measures relatively equally, they were minimally used within their previous ten cases.

Previous research has reported that projective measures are useful to generate hypotheses in the area of intervention and educational planning (Miller & Nickerson, 2006). It has also been suggested that a reliance on projective assessment within the realm of education should be reserved as a rapport-building tool and to guide further assessment (Merrell, 2001;

Veltman & Browne, 2002). Nevertheless, it has been posited that these practices should not be used as primary methods of gathering data; school psychologists are urged to incorporate more objective and systematic assessment practices (Hibbard, 2000; Hosp & Reschly, 2002).

The current study adds to the pre-existing literature by addressing the perceived utility of all general assessment practices, including projective measures, in an educational setting. A majority of participants of this study reported that projective assessment techniques were not useful in educational planning. Other forms of assessment (i.e., cognitive, achievement, direct observations, and rating scales) were perceived to be of higher usefulness.

Implications

This study provides insight into the assessment of school psychologists within an educational setting. Specifically, practicing school psychologists indicated relying primarily on objective forms (i.e., cognitive assessment, achievement assessment, rating scales, and direct observation) of measurement as opposed to subjective forms (i.e., projective measures). Not only were these objective measures used more frequently, but also, school psychologists reportedly found them to be more useful in terms of providing information when designing and implementing interventions and education plans. These findings are encouraging due to previous research indicating higher prevalence of projective measure use in the area of assessment. In order for educators, including school psychologists, to provide optimal learning environments for children, objective measures should be viewed as the primary source of data and information. By relying on subjective measures, school psychologists could be placing themselves at a disadvantage when carrying out necessary roles.

Future research would stand to gain considerably if a qualitative method of gathering information was introduced. A survey is useful in eliciting basic information about current assessment practices and attitudes; however, it does not consider the reasons or offer an area for explanation and justification. The results from this study provide an initial attempt at examining more localized school psychology assessment practices. Nevertheless, future research may contribute to this study's findings by incorporating a more representative participant sample.

Limitations

There were several limitations inherent in this study. Of most importance is the representative nature of the current sample. School psychologists who participated were all graduates from the School Psychology Program at The University at Albany, SUNY. Due to the fact that these school psychologists received similar training, the sample was largely cognitive-behavioral in their approach to practice. A majority of the participant sample was also found to be practicing as school psychologists for a relatively short period of time (i.e., ten years or less). Also, participants were contacted primarily through email, which limited the sample to professionals with email access.

The survey utilized in this study was developed from a pre-existing model within the literature. One inherent limitation is that school psychologists were asked to respond based on ranges. This provides a somewhat limited picture of assessment practice. In an effort to be as brief as possible, specialized assessment techniques and areas were not explored. Also, the pilot study of the *Survey of School Psychologists* was limited to a small group of students from the EPSY 680 class. Thus, information on reliability and validity should be considered tentatively. The primary investigators in this study consider the information and data obtained to be useful to inform practices of school psychologists practicing within Albany, NY and surrounding areas.

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Research Review

The Effects of Peer Rejection on Academic Outcomes: Implications for Children with Aspergers Disorder

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Abstract

The importance of positive social relationships in the lives of typically developing children and adolescents is well documented. For children with Aspergers Disorder (AD), forming positive social relationships is difficult and peer rejection is often a reality, yet less is known about the impact of poor peer relationships. This paper discusses the academic effects of peer rejection while specifically identifying implications for individuals with AD. Finally, suggestions for practitioners who work with students who have AD are presented.

Social relationships are an integral part of development for all individuals and they are related in a many ways to academic, social, and emotional adjustment. Current research has focused specifically on the importance of peer relationships, which can be defined as affiliations with others of relatively similar power marked by driven reciprocities and voluntary shared experiences. The number of peer relationships and the proportion of children's activity involving other children tend to increase as children grow older and peers begin to play a more important role over time. School, in particular, is a context in which children have increased opportunity for peer interaction and as children proceed through the K-12 grades, the significance of peer relationships changes. For many children with Aspergers Disorder (AD), who have limited understanding of social norms or lack the necessary skills to positively interact with their peers, these years become increasingly difficult.

Peer rejection, which can be defined as the exclusion of an individual from his/her peers for failing to meet social standards, is an important phenomenon to investigate due to its pervasiveness and its negative effects on individual adjustment. This paper will review the effects of peer rejection on academic outcomes while discussing implications for children with AD. While there is limited research on peer rejection directly pertaining to this population, the research on typically developing individuals and the theoretical models used to support this research can be used as a foundation for making hypotheses about this atypical group.

An explanation of AD is in need before any further analysis takes place. According to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (APA, 2000), AD is one of the five autism spectrum disorders classified as "Pervasive Developmental Disorders".

AD is qualified by a significant impairment in social interaction, narrowly focused interests, and repetitive behaviors. Unlike many other children on the autism spectrum, children with AD have no clinically significant delay in cognitive development or language. There are many difficulties with pragmatic language, non-verbal cues, and interpersonal communication for this population, however. Some common challenges include interpreting facial expressions and body language, making eye contact, appropriately entering and exiting conversations, staying on topic, understanding sarcasm, making jokes, and differentiating between language used with peers and with adults (Rao, Beidel, & Murray, 2008). All of these challenges likely put children with AD at a greater risk of peer rejection since they very obviously defy the social norms of classrooms and peer groups. Furthermore, children with AD may often be painfully aware of their disability and of their rejection (Rao et al., 2008).

Peer Rejection

Children's social status can be classified into five different groups: accepted, rejected, neglected, controversial, and average (Coie, Dodge, & Coppotelli, 1982). Rejected children are those who fail to meet social standards and are therefore excluded from peer groups. Two different dimensions are used in evaluating peer group status: social acceptance (the degree to which a peer is liked in a group) and social impact (the degree to which a child stands out in a group), and it is important to note the differences between rejected and neglected children. Rejected children have high social impact and low social acceptance while neglected children have low social impact and neither high nor low social acceptance (Schaffer, 2006). This is important to consider because the problem for rejected children is not a lack of interaction with peers, but rather a history of negative experiences. Furthermore, there are two proposed categories of rejected children: aggressive-rejected and submissive-rejected (Schaffer, 2006). Aggressive-rejected children are not often overtly rejected because they are a threat to their peers and other children are often hesitant to confront them (Coie & Cillessen, 1993). However, children who are more submissive "recognize that other children do not like them and they describe themselves as lonely and wanting help with relationships" (Coie & Cillessen, 1993, p. 92). It is logical to assume that this awareness puts rejected children in an emotionally sensitive state of mind.

Peer status classifications can be determined at very early ages and have been shown to be relatively stable across time (Coie & Dodge, 1983). This suggests that early relationships are predictive of later experiences and those who are rejected early on may have difficulties forming positive peer relationships in the future. The reasons for this are plentiful, but may include declining opportunities to interact with positive peers and declining self-esteem. These factors seem to initiate a cycle of events which make it difficult (though not impossible) for rejected children to break out of the rejected status and therefore, the classification may remain over time.

Academic Outcomes

The severity of the cycle of rejection is seen in a variety of contexts, but the focus here is on academics and the school environment. As mentioned previously, the majority of children's contact with peers occurs in school contexts and therefore research has explored the relationship between peer rejection and classroom environment. Cook and Semmel (1999) researched how classroom composition and severity of disability collectively influenced peer acceptance. Results showed that in homogeneous classrooms (classrooms with little diversity in respect to race, SES, or disability status), students with mild disabilities were less accepted than students with severe disabilities. This suggests that students with mild disabilities aren't offered the same sympathies as children with severe disabilities (Cook & Semmel, 1999). Children who do not have visible disabilities, such as those students with AD, are expected to behave in ways that comply with social norms while students who are more obviously disabled are afforded more leniencies from their peers. Students with AD fit the profile of the mildly disabled student as they are not visibly disabled nor are they cognitively impaired. Furthermore, children with mild disabilities are more accepted in heterogeneous classrooms (where there is more student diversity) in comparison to the homogeneous classroom context (Cook & Semmel, 1999). This demonstrates that classroom environment has an impact on the prevalence of peer rejection among children and that perhaps by modifying the environment, teachers and practitioners have an opportunity to change the likelihood of rejection for some children. Given the fact that peer rejection can have such long-lasting effects, this is an important finding for practice.

Ladd, Herald-Brown, and Reiser (2008) studied the effects of the length of time of rejection on classroom outcomes to determine if there were different outcomes for children who do get caught in the cycle of rejection versus those who can break out of it. Chronically rejected children are less likely to be engaged in class, they tend to participate less frequently, and these effects are shown to last over time (Ladd et al., 2008). For children who are transiently rejected, there are constraints that inhibit classroom participation during the period of rejection. When the rejection ceases, however, children become active and cooperative members of the classroom community once again (Ladd et al., 2008). This is relevant for children with AD because they lack the ability to learn the constantly changing norms of peers groups. Therefore, these children are at a heightened risk of chronic rejection with academic outcomes that are long-term and more severe.

Some of these long-term academic outcomes may include dropping out of school, academic failure, and repeating grades. Early rejection has been associated with less favorable attitudes toward school, avoidance of school, and lower levels of performance even beginning in kindergarten (Coie & Cillessen, 1993). When examining childhood acceptance as a predictor of dropout status, Parker and Asher (1987) found that dropouts had significantly lower mean levels of early acceptance compared to graduates. This is an important finding because dropping out is a voluntary action by the student and indicates flight from something unpleasant (in this context, the school environment) (Parker & Asher, 1987).

Whereas achievement test scores, grade retention, and poor marks are imposed on an individual, drop out status is much less subjective (Parker & Asher, 1987). Nonetheless, all of these measures are relevant since dropout status and low achievement can both predict future interpersonal and occupational success (Parker & Asher, 1987).

Implications For Children with Aspergers Disorder

One could argue that for students with AD, academic achievement is of greater importance since social interactions are so difficult. Studies have shown that children with AD are at-risk in school contexts not only because of poor relatedness, but also due to their excessive preoccupations, and they need expert help to remain academically challenged (Perry, 2004). In the work force, one can usually compensate for his/her own deficits by increased skill level in another area. For students with Aspergers who may already have poor social skills, academic skills are doubly important and these academic risks pose a sincere threat to their overall well-being and future success.

Knowing that rejected children are at greater risk for poor academic outcomes, the next task for researchers and practitioners is determining how to address the problem. One suggested means of analysis is Dodge's (1986) social information processing model (as cited in Schaffer, 2006). This model is "a means of analyzing the cognitive mechanisms used in processing the social cues provided by a child's partners in peer interaction" (Schaffer, 2006, p.174). The steps believed to be important in this model include: 1) encoding the cues, 2) interpreting the cues, 3) accessing or constructing appropriate responses, 4) evaluating the likely effect of the responses and selecting the most suitable, and 5) enacting the response (Schaffer, 2006). This model has been found useful in locating the problems that some rejected children have when processing social information during peer interaction and it presents an interesting framework for examining the same behavior in children with AD. For these children, the identified problem is in Steps 2 and 3 where they have difficulty encoding and interpreting social cues. According to this model, however, if these steps can be remediated then perhaps the problem of peer rejection can be eliminated.

A number of suggestions for practice and intervention can be made specifically for children with AD. To address the problem of early negative experiences that may influence later development, disability awareness is a plausible approach. By educating parents and teachers on the signs of AD, early diagnosis is possible and therefore early intervention can help to ward off the negative long-term effects. Also, putting a greater emphasis on the importance of positive peer relationships in early childhood may be helpful. Some forms of direct social skills instruction have shown to be effective in teaching social skills to children with AD and if taught early enough, children may be able to avoid entering the cycle of rejection (Rao et al., 2008). This direct instruction can be viewed in terms of Dodge's social information processing model as a way to remediate the problem of interpreting cues and accessing appropriate responses. Finally, another option, as addressed by Cook and Semmel (1999), could include manipulating the classroom environment to promote a greater awareness of, and appreciation

for, differences.

In conclusion, peer rejection is a prevalent phenomenon that has serious academic consequences for all children. Children with AD, however, may be at greater risk for peer rejection due to the inherent social skills deficit that is manifest in their disability. The academic outcomes discussed here show that poor peer relations have a significant impact on school performance and that children who display poor social skills can be doubly disadvantaged with poor academic achievement, low motivation, grade retention, or at worst, failure to finish grade school. Since peer relationships have such a strong influence on academic outcomes, it feels safe to argue that schools should make a greater effort to teach and to reinforce positive peer relationships. Often after the early grade school years, there is a sole academic focus in school environments and the importance of social relationships is no longer supported. For students with AD, it may be even more important that schools place value on peer relationships because these children may not have any other interaction with peers.

If interventions can be used to foster positive peer relations and reduce the prevalence of peer rejection in classroom settings, it could benefit all children who are at-risk. Even more so, if transiently rejected children can be identified, and if the problem can be addressed, it may be possible to prevent children from becoming chronically rejected and many of the negative long-term outcomes can be avoided. Overall, it is necessary for practitioners to make positive peer relationships a priority and to begin examining the effectiveness of interventions not only in early grade school years, but also throughout primary and secondary education. This kind of a movement will not only help children with AD, but can serve to help the multitude of other children who experience peer rejection.

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Self-Concept of Arab American Students Post 9/11

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Abstract

Arab Americans have historically faced discrimination and stereotyping in the United States. Following the attacks of September 11, 2001, they faced these problems more than ever before. The impact of political injustice and ethnic hate crimes, as a result of the attacks, on Arab American families has shown to have dire consequences, especially for their children in the public schools. After the attacks, Arab American children in the school system faced discrimination and prejudice acts from their peers, teachers, and other school staff and administrators. Research shows that the degradation of one's ethnic group may impact one's self-concept. The purpose of this paper is to explore and discuss the experiences of Arab American students in the school system and how, theoretically, these experiences may relate to and impact their self-concept. Strategies that school psychologists may use to help Arab American students in the school systems are also discussed.

The student population in the United States includes a significantly large population of Arab American students (M.F. Suleiman, 2001). Limited research exists on Arab Americans' school experiences, learning styles, and academic achievement (Nieto, 2000) compared to other ethnic minority groups considerable in size. Banks (1997) reported that Arab Americans achieve higher academically than most ethnic groups; consequently they have not been targeted in research (Nieto, 1996). Yet, these students face other challenges as a minority in the school system. The literature refers to Arab American students as "the invisible minority" (Al-Khatab, 1999; Nieto, 2000; M.F. Suleiman, 2001a); however, this population has been highly visible through negative images and stereotypes portrayed in the media (Nieto, 2000). These images are permeated in the minds of American society, making their way into the schools and ultimately affecting Arab American students' self-concept.

Experiences of Discrimination in the School System

Arab American students have historically faced discrimination in the schools, especially after September 11, 2001 (Wingfield, 2006). The American-Arab Anti-Discrimination Committee (ADC) publishes reports on discriminatory acts in the schools, documenting the most commonly occurring incidents as harassment, verbal abuse (e.g., derogatory names such as "towel head" and "camel jockey"), and the stereotyping of Arabs by students, teachers, and administrators (Ibish, 2001). "Other children may 'tease' Arab Americans, associating them with terrorism and incidents of political violence" (Ibish, 2001, p. 39). These incidents occurred before 9/11; such incidents have increased ever since. Post-9/11 incidents are lucidly associated with the attacks and the war in Iraq (Ibish, 2008).

The ADC published a special report documenting incidents that occurred from the day of 34

9/11 through over a year later. Hate crimes and discrimination were experienced by students of all ages, including kindergarten through college. Along with individual case stories, the report provided an overall picture of Arab American students' experiences in the schools:

"On September 11, and the days and weeks that followed, students reported physical assaults, death threats and overt ethnic and religious bigotry. Students were beaten, cursed, kicked, spat upon, and insulted. There were knife attacks, bomb threats, and vandalism. Many Muslim girls reported having their head covering pulled off. Teachers and other students made fun of their Arab names and made obscene and demeaning remarks. Students were harassed in classrooms, hallways, cafeterias and restrooms, on school buses and walking home from school. Sometimes teachers, administrators and coaches were more of a problem than the other students. Arab-American students, even young children in elementary school, were blamed for, or seen as being associated with, the attacks. A 5-year-old came home from school and asked her father, 'what does it mean, terrorist? The other kids called me a terrorist.' Some school officials actually went as far as calling the police or FBI to investigate students" (Ibish, 2003, p. 105).

Furthermore, Arab American Christians felt the need to wear Christian symbols conspicuously as to not be associated with their Muslim counterparts (Ibish, 2003). One hundred and fifteen acts of physical violence, threats, harassment, and bias in schools were reported in that year alone. As time went by, reported incidents began to decrease but were still significantly more than before September 11, 2001. Between the years of 2003 and 2007, 80 incidents were reported. Parent reports indicated that, due to these incidents, students were exhibiting "symptoms of stress, fear, tension, reluctance to go to school, bed-wetting, anger, and combativeness" (p. 106).

According to Schwartz (1999) and Suleiman (1996b), schools have not actively acknowledged Arab culture or tried to counteract stereotyping against Arabs. The inclusion of information on Arab culture and history in the curriculum of public schools is virtually either nonexistent or inaccurate (Wingfield, 2006). "A gap opens up between what they learn at home about their family's background and what they learn in the classroom about the Middle East" (Ibish, 2001, pg.39). An intolerant environment in the schools can create a sense of shame about students' cultural heritage, inevitably leading to a negative self-concept. The ADC published a report documenting accounts of children who were ashamed of their identity to the extent that they did not want to learn the Arabic language (Ibish, 2001). A negative self-concept can potentially lead to social maladjustment and suffering achievement (Al-Khatib, 1999). Consequently, it is imperative that school psychologists work with schools to create a tolerant environment for Arab American students.

Implications on Self-Concept in Arab American Students

Hilgard, Atkinson, and Atkinson (1979) defined self-concept as "the composite of ideas, feelings, and attitudes people have about themselves" (pg.605). Self-concept may be affected

by the way students perceive themselves and others perceive them. Experiences of prejudice and discrimination have been found to be related to the self-concept (e.g., Moradi & Hasan, 2004; Ruggiero & Taylor, 1995; Ruggiero, Taylor, & Lydon, 1997). This theoretical relationship is known as the stigma hypothesis. The stigma hypothesis states that the internalization of stigma, or minority status, leads to lower self-concept in minority groups (Twenge & Crocker, 2002). The status of being a minority becomes internalized with experiences of prejudice and discrimination. Such experiences may be considered negative social interactions with others, according to symbolic interaction theorists. As a result, people of minority groups become affected psychologically. Although there is a wealth of research on self-concept and stigma in various other ethnic minority groups (e.g., Baez, 1997; Berger & Milem, 2000; Calhoun, Sheldon, Serrano, & Cooke, 1978), the research on self-concept in Arab American students is very limited. Only two studies that investigated the self-concept in Arab American students were found in the literature. Al-Khatib (1999) conducted a study to explore the self-concept of a sample of Arab-American students from Detroit, Michigan, Lexington, Kentucky, and San Diego, California. Results indicated that the overall self-concept profile of these students was positive, suggesting that Arab American students perceive themselves positively. There are several limitations that call for a cautious interpretation of this study. First, over half of the sample was from a city where there is a significant population of Arab Americans; thus, these students are considered the majority in that location. Perhaps that sample of students had a positive profile due to a large population of Arab Americans in that city, which resulted in higher tolerance in school. In school districts where there is a large community of Arab Americans, such as Dearborn, Michigan and Detroit, Michigan, fewer incidents of discrimination are reported (Ibish, 2003). Such communities are better equipped to prevent anti-Arab incidents due to an established working relationship between Arab American leaders, city, school, and police officials, and other community organizations (Ibish, 2003). Consequently, that sample of students' self-concept may be higher than students who have encountered such discrimination and prejudice. Additionally, this study examined self-concept alone, without investigating the relationship with external factors. Finally, this study was conducted before the events of 9/11; examining the self-concept in these children after such events is extremely necessary.

Kovach and Hillman (2002) found results that conflict with the results from the study conducted by Al-Khatib (1999). The authors examined self-concept in Arab, African, and European American high school students. The authors found that Arab American students had the lowest self-concept compared to the other two ethnic groups. They were also more likely to attribute negative feedback from out-group members to prejudice. Arab American students used prejudice to explain the causes for negative outcomes or feedback more frequently than African American students. In addition, they frequently endorsed prejudice as a reason for failure like African American students, but unlike European American students. This study did not examine self-concept in relation to reports of prejudice acts. Future researchers should aim to investigate this relationship in Arab American students.

Implications for School Psychologists

In the aftermath of 9/11, some schools responded appropriately to counteract incidents of harassment and hostility, while others exacerbated them. According to Ibish (2003) some schools enacted a “zero-tolerance” policy to prevent acts of discrimination and violence. Other schools allowed incidents to escalate to the point of physical violence and would even ignore the fact that problems were occurring. This suggests the necessity of a cultural understanding in schools and the overall community of Arab Americans to prevent and counteract incidents of discrimination and violence against them.

After 9/11, “preventing anti-Arab discrimination suddenly became a major educational issue” (Ibish, 2003, p. 106). Schools around the nation contacted ADC chapters for the provision of speakers, advice, and resources on the culture of Arab Americans. Conferences and training workshops were held for educators to teach about the culture and help combat acts of discrimination and violence in their schools. There became an imperative need to provide schools with professional development training and accurate resources about the various Arab groups in the U.S. and the nature and extent of anti-Arab attitude (Schwartz, 1999).

Several articles and book chapters have been published to provide an overall view of the Arab American culture and outline how best to serve the children and their families in the schools when it comes to psychological and mental health (e.g., Erickson & Al-Timimi, 2004; Haboush, 2007; Palacios & Trivedi, 2009). Haboush (2007) provided strategies specific to school psychologists to help Arab American students. The author suggested important strategies such as “educating school personnel about relevant cultural values as well as intervening at the individual and systems levels to foster safe learning environments” (p. 196). In other words, when working with Arab American children and their families, school psychologists must use culturally competent practices.

Other literature suggests specific strategies for schools in general. For example, Wingfield and Salam (1993) discussed strategies that school systems can use to reduce discrimination against Arab American students. One major theme out of this discussion was the use of culturally relevant and representative curriculum and textbooks. According to Schwartz (1999) and Suleiman (1996b), schools have not actively acknowledged Arab culture or tried to counteract stereotyping against Arabs. The problem with the inclusion of Arab culture and history in the curriculum of public schools is two-fold: it is insignificant or nonexistent in many situations (Wingfield, 2006); yet, when presented it often contains inaccurate information about the culture and history of Arabs. Ultimately, Wingfield and Salam (1993) published a guide to help schools in the transformation of curriculum and instruction to include culturally relevant materials that are beneficial to the needs of Arab American students. Wingfield (2006) suggests that Arab American content can be easily added to courses already being implemented in the curriculum. School psychologists may use this guide to help schools integrate the curriculum with Arab American ethnic content. Doing so may help combat prejudice and discrimination in the schools by helping to inform educators

and students about the culture.

Another theme that arose was the participation of Arab American figures in the schools in the provision of cultural knowledge to school personnel (Wingfield & Salam, 1993). Arab Americans can work with personnel to teach culturally competent practices and help schools create a school climate that is welcoming for Arab American students. School psychologists may also seek out Arab American organizations for help with workshops or conferences aimed at building awareness in their school system. Some examples include local American Arab Anti-Discrimination Committee chapters and the Arab World and Islamic Relations organization. These organizations offer resources and trainings to help teachers and school personnel develop cultural competence with regard to the Arab world and culture (Wingfield & Salam, 1993). By doing this, they can also help schools to actively work against prejudice and discrimination towards Arab American students.

Conclusion

The Arab American culture is severely misunderstood and portrayed negatively through the media in the United States. These negative images have made their way into the school system; consequently, Arab American students face prejudice and discrimination from the mainstream public. Such experiences have been found to be negatively related to peoples' self-concept. Therefore, it is important for the K-12 school system to intervene with discriminatory acts in the schools. In doing so, schools may potentially play a protective role for these students if effective strategies are used. Common strategies for schools to utilize were found in the literature. One of the main strategies focused on providing culturally relevant curriculum in schools, which is similar to strategies used for other ethnic minorities (M.F. Suleiman, 2001b; Wingfield, 2006). By educating students and school personnel about the Arab American culture and increasing awareness about the culture, schools may help reduce acts of discrimination and violence. The second strategy focused on providing an environment that is culturally conducive and safe for learning and providing culturally competent mental health strategies. The last strategy focused on finding Arab Americans in the community to work with the schools to transform negative images of the Arab American culture. These strategies may help provide a safer and more tolerant and inclusive environment for Arab American students in the schools and help to increase positive outcomes in self-concept for these students.

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Academic and Behavioral Early Intervention Programs for At-Risk Children

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Abstract

Literature within the topic of early intervention shows several academically based intervention programs, several behaviorally/emotionally based intervention programs, and one program that incorporates academic and behavioral interventions. These programs are able to show significant improvements in academic performance and behavior, both initially and into adolescence. Programs such as these provide the opportunity for additional small group evidence-based instruction for at-risk children, which can be incorporated into Tier 2 of the RTI system. By incorporating into practice the information found within this literature, in regards to the facets of successful intervention programs and the method which to incorporate them into the RTI system, programs which utilize evidence based methods may be developed in order to improve the adolescent outcomes of at-risk children.

Social Significance

The incidence of community violence, high risk behavior, poor academic performance, and school drop-out has emerged as a growing problem for adolescents. In 1999, juveniles were arrested in relation to 16% of all violent crimes and 32% of all property crimes committed (Snyder, 2001). As for high risk behavior, 15-19 year olds accounted for 12% of all pregnancies in 2002 (National Center for Chronic Disease Prevention and Health Promotion, 2009). Also, 4.1% of students in grades 9-12 were reported to have dropped out of high school during the 2005-2006 school year (U.S. Department of Education, 2009). The statistics clearly show that these issues are a danger to the future success and happiness of adolescents; however the situation may be helped by intervening with early interventions targeted towards the risk factors of these difficulties.

Early Intervention

Several risk factors for these difficulties seen in adolescence have been identified; specifically behavioral problems and low academic achievement which begin in early childhood (Eron, 1990; Hawkins, Catalano, Kosterman, Abbott, & Hill 1999; Maguin & Loeber, 1996). Children showing such behavioral and academic difficulties at an early age can be viewed as at-risk for the future development of additional troubles in adolescence. Additionally, it has been shown that such "early starters" show a more pervasive pattern of problematic behavior and low academic performance (Maguin & Loeber, 1996), and are much more resistant to treatment when intervention begins in late childhood or adolescence (Conduct Problems Prevention Research Group [CPPRG], 2003). Specifically, Eron (1990) has suggested that behavior crystallizes by age 8, stressing the important of intervention in early childhood for at-risk children.

Previous research has shown that early intervention programs can provide a short term positive impact by successfully improving academic performance and behavior at these young ages directly after intervention (Fuchs, D., Fuchs, L., Mathes, & Simmons, 1997; Sprague & Perkins, 2009; Webster-Stratton, Reid, & Hammond, 2004). Several early intervention programs have also been able to suggest more long term effects, in which the immediate effects persisted for anywhere from 1-6 years post intervention; specifically improving academic performance (Burns, Senesac, & Silberglitt, 2008), problem behavior at home and in school (Eddy, Reid, & Fetrow, 2000; Tremblay, Pagani-Kurtz, Vitaro, Masse, & Pihl, 1995; Webster-Stratton & Hammond, 1997), and family functioning (Eyberg et al., 2001). Importantly, Hawkins et al. (1999) suggested that interventions which begin in the early elementary years, as opposed to later in childhood, can have a positive impact lasting through age 18. Such interventions may reduce the occurrence, in adolescence, of juvenile arrests (Reynolds, Temple, Robertson, & Mann, 2001), school drop-out (Temple, Reynolds, & Miedel, 2000), violent criminal behavior, school misbehavior, high risk behaviors, and may positively impact academic achievement (Hawkins et al., 1999). Early childhood interventions directed toward low academic performance and behavioral difficulties of at-risk children may help to result in future positive outcomes, as these children become adolescents.

Intervention Programs Focused on Academics

Previous research within the early intervention subject area shows literature about after school programs, which primarily focus on improving academic performance among elementary school students. These programs share a few commonalities amongst them, but also exhibit many differences in their approaches. Academically based after school programs have focused primarily on the completion of homework (Huang & Cho, 2009), reading (Burns et al., 2008; McMaster, Fuchs, D., Fuchs, L., & Compton, 2005), and math (Baker et al., 2006). Also, a secondary focus of some after school programs incorporates the teaching of study skills; such as time management, organization, note taking and test preparation skills (Huang & Cho, 2009).

Interventions included within successful after school programs are often administered through a tutoring delivery method. Several researchers have stressed the importance of small group (Baker et al., 2006; Huang & Cho, 2009) or individual tutoring (Burns et al., 2008; Huang & Cho, 2009; McMaster et al., 2005) for success on the part of the tutored student. In order to ensure enough tutors to successfully provide small group or one-on-one tutoring services, tutors are often acquired as volunteers from local universities or community sources and are trained and supervised by actual teachers from the school or after school program staff (Baker et al., 2006; Burns et al., 2008; Huang & Cho, 2009). Peer assisted tutoring in a one-on-one ratio has also been utilized by successful academic after school programs (Huang & Cho, 2009; McMaster et al., 2005). Interestingly, McMaster et al. (2005) initially provided a reading intervention through a peer assisted tutoring approach, the Peer-Assisted Learning Strategies Program (PALS), and found that those students who did not respond positively were successively helped most positively by an adult tutoring one-on-one ratio style

intervention.

Previous research on the format of successful academically based after school programs has also indicated a few important structural concepts. Some programs utilized a shorter, more directive approach to service delivery. These programs were operated three to four days a week for 30-35 minutes per day and consisted solely of time spent engaged in academic interventions (Burns et al., 2008; McMaster et al., 2005). Another program utilized a broader approach, incorporating snack, play time and academic intervention into a 90-minute session, once per week (Baker et al., 2006).

Other important factors, which can be identified from previous research on successful academic after school programs, include communication between the program and regular school day teachers, incentives used during the program, and types of progress monitoring utilized. Communication between the after school program staff and the regular school day teachers is often accomplished through means of a folder, form, or planner (Baker et al., 2006; Huang & Cho, 2009). Incentives were given as a means to encourage homework completion and intervention cooperation (Baker et al., 2006; Huang & Cho, 2009). Progress monitoring was an important piece of each after school program, and was accomplished by most through comparing pre-intervention and post-intervention measures (Baker et al., 2006; Burns et al., 2008; Huang & Cho, 2009).

After reviewing the focus, interventions, format, mode of communication, incentive use and progress monitoring of each of these academic after school programs, it is important to view these through the lens of the outcome that each was found to have. The students in the HOSTS program, which provided reading interventions in a one-on-one tutor to student ratio, showed significant improvements in fluency, comprehension, and reading progress; and these improvements continued for two years post-intervention (Burns et al., 2008). A study that looked at a variety of small group and individual intervention techniques aimed at homework completion, and which emphasized both communication and incentive use, showed successful improvements in grades post-intervention (Huang & Cho, 2009). An unnamed program that provided small group tutoring intervention in math, found that 72% of students showed gains in their math inventory scores (Baker et al., 2006). Finally, the PALS program which provided peer assisted tutoring in reading, and further individual adult tutoring to non-responders, found that 83% of students showed a significant response to peer tutoring and 50% of non-responders showed a significant response to individual adult tutoring (McMaster et al., 2005). Overall, these academically focused after schools programs were found to be quite effective.

Intervention Programs Focused on Behavior/Emotion

Previous research within the early intervention subject area also shows a great amount of literature dealing with programs that primarily focus on improving behavior and social skills among elementary school students. These programs typically take a multimodal approach to intervention; including interventions designed for children who show early signs of

behavior problems, as well as interventions designed for the parents of those children (Catalano et al., 2003; CPPRG, 2002; Eddy et al., 2000; Hawkins et al., 1999; Sprague & Perkins, 2009; Tremblay et al., 1995; Webster-Stratton & Hammond, 1997). Specifically, targets of behaviorally/emotionally based programs are often the development of social skills and problem solving skills in children and the development of parenting skills in their parents (CPPRG, 2002; Eddy et al., 2000; Hawkins et al., 1999; Webster-Stratton & Hammond, 1997).

Two examples of such programs, which deliver interventions to children and parents after school, are the Fast Track Program (CPPRG, 2002) and the Dinosaur School program (Webster-Stratton & Hammond, 1997). These programs deliver the child targeted interventions through sessions in which puppets and/or videos demonstrate social skills and problem solving behavior, and the children practice through role plays and group activities (CPPRG, 2002; Webster-Stratton & Hammond, 1997). The parent targeted interventions are delivered through sessions in which parenting and interpersonal skills are demonstrated through videos, and practiced in discussion and role plays (CPPRG, 2002; Webster-Stratton & Hammond, 1997). The child and parent sessions are run separately but simultaneously (CPPRG, 2002; Webster-Stratton & Hammond, 1997).

Both of these programs utilized pre-intervention and post-intervention progress monitoring, including observations (Webster-Stratton & Hammond, 1997) and parent, teacher and peer ratings (CPPRG, 2002). According to Webster-Stratton and Hammond (1997), observations of child-peer interactions showed significantly more positive interactions in those children who had participated in Child Training only and Child plus Parent Training; while observations of parent-child interactions showed significantly more positive interactions in those families that participated in Parent Training only and Child plus Parent Training. For the Fast Track Program, results were found to indicate significantly less parent and teacher reports of child conduct behavior and significantly improved self-ratings of parent behavior, while no significant results were found for ratings of child social competence. The success of both of these programs in impacting behavioral difficulties through an early intervention is evident (CPPRG, 2002; Webster-Stratton & Hammond, 1997).

Additionally, there are behaviorally/emotionally focused, multimodal programs which accomplish the teaching of parenting skills in an after school setting, but deliver the child portion of the model during the school day, as shown in Table 2. These programs typically either train the regular school day teacher to incorporate social skills lessons into the school day, as in an unnamed program studied by Hawkins et al. (1999), or bring the program staff into the regular school classroom to provide and facilitate interventions such as lecture, role play and group practice, as in the Linking the Interests of Families and Teachers (LIFT) program (Eddy et al., 2000). Parent interventions are delivered in weekly 2-hour sessions, during which parenting skills are taught through lecture and video, and parents are provided a chance to practice via role plays, discussion and weekly homework (Eddy et al., 2000; Hawkins et al., 1999). Incentives are used with the children as both individual and group rewards, and are given for individual shows of positive behavior and group inhibition

of negative behavior (Eddy et al., 2000). Progress monitoring occurs both pre-intervention and post-intervention, and utilizes self-report measures and school records (Eddy et al., 2000; Hawkins et al., 1999). Hawkins et al. (1999) reported a significant decrease in school discipline and self reported violent acts, and nearly significant increases in school GPA and decreases in school dropout. Eddy et al. (2000) reported significantly less aggression from children, less aversive behavior from parents during family discussions, and higher reports of child positive behaviors by teachers.

Program Focused on Academics and Behavior/Emotion

Additionally, there has been a recent addition to the literature which incorporates interventions for children targeted towards improving both academics and behavior, as seen in Table 2. The Challenging Horizon Program (CHP) was operated, for research purposes, 4 days a week for 3 months (Langberg et al., 2007). Each 2-hour session consisted of 15 minutes of check in and snack time, 35 minutes of academic group, 35 minutes of a group with rotating content, and 35 minutes of recreation time (Evans, Axelrod, &Langberg, 2004; Langberg et al., 2007). Interventions occurred during these "groups"; which consisted of tutoring and teaching during academic group, and teaching and the practicing of behavioral and academic skills during the rotating group (Evans, Axelrod, &Langberg, 2004; Langberg et al., 2007). Both communication and incentives were stressed as an important part of this program. Each staff member was assigned to speak with 2 regular school day teachers each week, and each family was sent information about their child's progress each week (Langberg et al., 2007). Incentives consisted of intangible items, such as choice of snack or choice of game, and were given based on a defined behavioral system that was put in place (Langberg et al., 2007).

Progress monitoring of this program was done pre-intervention and post-intervention, and compared to a community after school program control. Although very few significant results were found, due to a small sample size, trends were observed in all areas in the direction that would be expected, with CHP students making more positive changes and progress as compared to the control group (Langberg et al., 2007).

The Role of Response to Intervention

While keeping these factors from the literature in mind, it is important to incorporate the recent shift in school psychology, which has taken place due to Response to Intervention (RTI). RTI is a tiered method of intervention, which allows students to be assessed on their lack of responsiveness to increasingly intensive levels of evidence-based intervention (Burns & Coolong-Chaffin 2006). Within the school system, Tier 1 consists of a strong, research supported curriculum that is delivered effectively to the entire school population; Tier 2 consists of the delivery of additional small group interventions to non-responders; and Tier 3 consists of individually designed and delivered intensive instruction (Burns & Coolong-Chaffin, 2006).

RTI has brought about the development of a new system of tiered and successively intensive interventions, which can be tailored and applied to provide appropriate interventions to children with behavioral and academic difficulties in the education field (Lindsey & White, 2009). According to Lindsey and White (2009), Tier 2 interventions can be provided to non-responders who show behavioral and academic difficulties, as additional small group instruction time either within school hours or as part of an after-school program. After school programs can be a valuable resource to providing Tier 2 interventions; as after-school programs provide the opportunity for additional and personalized small group evidence-based instruction outside of school hours (Langberg et al., 2007; Baker, Rieg, & Clendaniel, 2006).

From Research Review to Practice

The literature has shown that there are several academic and behavioral/emotional intervention programs which have been shown to encourage significant improvements in academic performance and behavior, respectively. The CHP program, which incorporates academic and behavioral interventions, has the potential to encourage simultaneous changes in both academic performance and behavior (Langberg et al., 2007). After-school programs, such as these, provide the opportunity for additional and personalized small group evidence-based instruction which can be incorporated into Tier 2 of the RTI system. By incorporating the information found here into practice, programs which utilize evidence-based methods may be developed in order to efficiently and effectively improve the adolescent outcomes of at-risk children.

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Forum

The Role of School Psychologist in the Prevention and Alleviation of Depression

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School psychologists face immense challenges in promoting strong academic outcomes among diverse learners. The role of a school psychologist tends to revolve around providing assessment and intervention services for adolescents exhibiting learning and behavioral deficits, with only minimal amounts of time typically devoted to the mental health needs of youth (Curtis, Lopez, Castillo, Batsche, Minch & Smith, 2008). This is problematic, as adolescence is characterized by periods of internal transition and reorganization that can impact the mental health status and subsequent academic outcomes of the adolescent. Depression is the most pervasive mental health challenge experienced by adolescents, and epidemiological research indicates that adolescents are not being provided treatment for depression at rates commensurate with the prevalence of the disorder through private and/or community mental health settings (Avenevoli, Knight, Kessler, & Merikangas, 2008; Merrell, 2008).

Fortunately, a small but growing body of intervention studies is demonstrating that it is possible to efficiently provide effective intervention services to prevent or alleviate depressive symptoms. This work is largely growing from an area known as positive psychology. Because schools are the only public institutions that come into contact with a majority of all youth, they are the primary settings for the potential recognition, prevention, and treatment of mental health challenges in youths. Therefore, it is important that school psychologists be aware of threats that can ensue from the un-met mental health needs of youth as well as evidence-based procedures that can be efficiently administered to sustain and bolster the well-being of diverse youth.

The Impact of Un-Met Mental Health Needs on Adolescents in Schools

Depression is the most prevalent mental health condition experienced by adolescents (United States Surgeon General, 1999). Epidemiological findings indicate that 15-20% of adolescents experience a clinical depression at some point during adolescence, while 30% of adolescents experience clinical or sub-clinical depressive symptoms that severely impair functioning and satisfaction with life (Avenevoli et al., 2008). Adolescents with sub-clinical depressive symptoms are at high-risk for subsequent major clinical depression and an array⁴⁸

of other mental health disorders.

Youth with depression are under-served throughout our society. Overall findings from a 2005 report put forward by the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMSA) indicate that among adolescents between the ages of 12 and 17 who experienced clinical depression, fewer than half (40.3%) received treatment (Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, 2005). This lack of mental health services was especially acute among urban minority youth, where findings indicate that only 20% of such youth receive treatment for depressive symptoms (Atkins, Frazier, Birman, Adil, Jackson & Graczyk, 2006).

Youth with depression experience an array of affective symptoms that can lessen the likelihood of resilient outcomes, which include a pervasive sad mood and feelings of guilt, shame, hopelessness, withdrawal and disengagement from social activities, somatic complaints and other symptoms that are more pronounced and persistent than occur in typical children. Also, recurrent suicide ideation, thoughts or preoccupation with death, or a specific plan or an attempt at suicide can also be symptoms of depression (Merrell, 2008). Early identification and treatment of sub-clinical depression can lower the risks for clinical depression. This is important, as neuropsychological research indicates that depressive episodes tend to leave residual effects that threaten the well-being of the individual and serve to increase the likelihood of subsequent depressive episodes in later adolescence and throughout adulthood (Seligman, Schulman, & Tryon, 2007; Silberg, Pickles, Rutter, Hewitt, Simonoff & Maes, 1999). Youth who do not receive preventative or remedial treatment are also at higher risk for multiple mental health disorders, with a Substance Related Disorder, Eating Disorder, Disruptive Behavior Disorders, and Anxiety Disorders being most prevalent (American Psychiatric Association, 2000). SAMSA also reports that youth who had experienced a clinical depression were more than twice as likely to use illegal drugs in the past month as compared to youth who had not (Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, 2005).

School psychologists and other school officials who hope to foster strong academic outcomes in adolescents have specific reason to promote mental health: depression represents a significant barrier to learning. Students who have high levels of depressive symptoms do not have the energy to care about or strive to improve their performance in school. Depressed youth often display motivational and behavioral changes that threaten their academic success, such as diminished ability to concentrate during school or academic activities (American Psychiatric Association, 2000; Vernon, 2006). This contributes to increased disengagement from school and the learning process. Strong associations have been shown between depression and a range of academic problems such as underachievement, school attendance problems, school disengagement, lower standardized test scores, school failure and school drop-out (Lewinsohn, Rohde, & Seeley, 2003; Roeser & Eccles, 2000).

Potential Roles of School Psychologists in Meeting the Mental Health Needs of Adolescents

Schools are often overlooked as centers of service provision for youth experiencing social-emotional challenges (Atkins et al., 2006). On a societal level, schools are the only public institution that oversees the well-being of all youth (Mazza & Reynolds, 2008). The lack of service utilization within community mental health settings by individuals of low-socioeconomic, ethnic, racial, and cultural minority backgrounds demonstrate the need of schools to provide these services (Herman, Merrell, Reinke, & Tucker, 2004). This especially appears to be the case within lower-income urban settings, where 80% of urban youth with severe depressive symptoms do not receive any treatment for their mental health challenges (Atkins et al., 2006). A majority of urban youth who do receive treatment for depressive symptoms receive such services through the school, making schools the “de facto providers of mental health services for children and youth (Atkins et al., 2006, p. 148).” Whether desired or not, public schools are the primary service point for identifying and treating youth who are depressed or at-risk for major depression.

School psychologists hold a special role in the schools, with their training in mental health and the implementation of evidence-based interventions. In fact, leading professionals in the field of school psychology declared in *School Psychology: A Blue Print for Training and Practice III* that school psychologists should be the “leading mental health experts in schools,” able to “design and implement prevention and intervention programs to promote wellness and resiliency (Ysseldyke, Burns, Dawson, Kelley, Morrison, Ortiz, Rosenfield & Telzrow, 2008, p. 68).”

School psychologists may be able to make a contribution toward a more positive school climate at the preventative level, through the provision of evidence-based, positive psychological intervention services. Evidence-based practices have been described as those that promote effective psychological practice and enhance well-being of individuals by applying empirically supported components of psychological assessment and intervention (Kratochwill & Stoiber, 2002). With the importance for school psychologists to engage in ethical conduct through the use of empirically-based practices in schools, positive psychology interventions appear to lend themselves well towards response-to-intervention and data-driven practices.

Research suggests that small group or classroom-wide preventative services conducted through an evidence-based framework offer the benefit of more rapidly reaching a larger portion of the school than is normally possible through the provision of services provided to individuals exhibiting symptoms at the tertiary-level (Mazza & Reynolds, 2008). Such work is increasingly demonstrating utility in helping to bolster the mental health status and academic outcomes of all youth, by inoculating students with low or intermediate depressive symptoms, while also benefitting students with high depressive symptoms (Esposito, 2005; Gilham et al., 2007). Interventions that target an area defined in the literature as subjective

well being (SWB) may be especially valuable as a preventative service to bolster the mental health status and academic outcomes of all youth.

The What and Why of Targeting Subjective Well Being

Research increasingly indicates that positive psychological interventions may be a useful preventative method to alleviate depressive symptoms and promote more optimal well-being amongst adolescents (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). In the case of positive psychology, researchers have frequently utilized the concept of SWB to investigate interventions that seek to prevent or alleviate depressive symptoms and promote wellness in adolescents who are depressed or at-risk for a major depression. Interventions that target SWB hold great promise as a mode to foster resiliency among adolescents by bolstering mental health functioning and, consequently, improving subsequent academic outcomes (Seligman, Schulman, & Tryon, 2007).

SWB is, in simple terms, an individual's current evaluation of their present state of happiness. Researchers theorize that both cognitive and affective components contribute to SWB. The cognitive component of SWB consists of self-appraisals, or attitudes of self. This cognitive component can be determined through a brief self-report measure that gathers data on overall life satisfaction (Diener & Seligman, 2002). Meanwhile, the affective component of SWB is also measured through a brief self-report measure that gauges the positive affect (PA) and negative affect (NA) of individuals over time. These affective components are predicated upon the finding that they (PA and NA) do not correlate with one another. In other words, how much PA or NA one experiences in life is not believed to hold any bearing on how much of the other an individual has experienced (Hill & Buss, 2008). High PA and low NA can be thought of as the relationship within a person between happiness and depression. Higher levels of PA over and above NA have been found to support greater happiness and lower levels of depression (Diener & Seligman, 2002). Overall, research has found that high SWB consists of positive perceptions on one's overall life satisfaction as well as frequent and intensive positive states over and above anxiety and depression (i.e. high PA and low NA) (Kashdan, 2004).

There are many practical reasons why researchers and practitioners are interested in SWB. Elevated levels of SWB in children and adolescents have been linked with greater happiness (Lykken & Tellegen, 1996), openness to others (Duckworth, Steen, & Seligman, 2005), and better physical and mental health outcomes (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Seligman, 2008). Scholastically, higher reported satisfaction with life has demonstrated correlations with more adaptive perceptions of satisfaction with the schooling experience (Huebner & Gilman, 2003), academic-self concept and self-efficacy (Bandura, 2001; Robins & Pals, 2002), and the valuing of school (Rathunde & Csikszentmihalyi, 2005). Other research outcomes have found that youth with elevated levels of happiness enjoy comparatively lower levels of depressive symptoms and enjoy greater school attendance and academic achievement (Suldo, Michalowski, Stewart, Shaffer, Friedrich & Thalji, 2009). Therefore, it appears that the purposeful targeting of SWB can benefit the current mental health status of adolescents

and can contribute towards more resilient academic outcomes.

Accumulated research findings appear to indicate that genetic, situational, and learned characteristics contribute towards SWB (Seligman, 2008). These three factors have been classified as set point, life circumstances, and purposeful activity ((Lyubomirsky, 2007; Lyubomirsky, Sheldon, & Schkade, 2005). Set point is the genetic component of SWB, which includes interpersonal, temperamental, and affective personality traits that comprise well-being. The set point theory proposes that hereditary attributes account for 50% of well-being (Lykken & Tellegen, 1996). Life circumstances are relatively stable demographic facets of an individual's life. These include life situations such as one's socio-economic background, physical health status, or beauty. Researchers theorize that one's circumstances account for only approximately 10% of overall well-being (Lyubomirsky, 2007; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005). Set point and life circumstances are both believed to be difficult or impossible to influence through purposeful intervention.

Unlike the youth's genetic inheritance or circumstances, intentional activities can be purposefully targeted through intervention. A large and growing body of literature has investigated specific attributions, thoughts, and behaviors that accrue from intentional activity. Empirical evidence indicates that people with high reported SWB tend to value and hold a greater number of close relationships with others (Deci & Ryan, 2008), are comfortable expressing gratitude for all they have (Emmons & McCullough, 2003), frequently become engaged and immersed in their activities (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990), are deeply committed to lifelong goals and aspirations (King, 2001), and practice an optimistic explanatory style when dealing with setbacks and adversity (Lippman, & Brown, 2004; Seligman, 2002). Based on findings from this large and growing body of literature, researchers have proposed that intentional activities account for 40% of well-being (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005).

Demonstration Study – The Potential of Positive Psychology Interventions

The first large study that examined SWB explicitly through a positive psychology framework was published in 2005 (Seligman, Steen, Park, & Peterson, 2005). These researchers administered a randomly controlled clinical trial online through the Internet, a method that has received increasing acceptance over the past few years (Mcalindon, Formica, Kabbara, Lavalley, & Lehmer, 2003). Participants completed the interventions as homework, independently on their own over the course of one week. Participants were assessed prior to intervention, at posttest immediately upon conclusion of the one-week intervention, one week following initial posttest, and at one, three, and six month points following conclusion of the one-week study. Two short self-report measures with strong psychometric properties, the Center for Epidemiological Studies-Depression Scale (CES-D) and the Steen Happiness Index (SHI), were used as the assessment measures for SWB and depression and were used to evaluate effects of the intervention.

The *three good things in life* intervention required participants to record three things that went well and provide causal explanations for each of the three good things in the evening each day for one consecutive week. In the *using signature strengths in a new way* intervention, participants complete the Inventory of Character Strengths online. Participants received personalized feedback regarding their top five strengths as per results from the survey and were instructed to use one of these top strengths in a new and different way once per day over the course of one week. The *gratitude visit* intervention instructed participants to write one thank-you letter to someone who had been particularly kind to them in the past but who the participant had not been properly thanked.

Participants in the *using signature strengths in a new way* and *three good things in life* interventions demonstrated significant improvements in SWB and depression at initial, one week, and one month, three month, and six month posttest. Participants in the *gratitude visit* intervention demonstrated significant improvements in reported SWB and a significant decrease in reported depression at one week and one month following conclusion of the intervention (Seligman et al, 2005).

Implications: Positive Psychology Interventions

Applying positive psychological interventions such as the ones implemented by Seligman et al. (2005) could beneficially impact SWB and subsequent academic outcomes among adolescents. Although these particular interventions were implemented with adults, positive psychology researchers are demonstrating a growing empirical base to support such work with adolescents. For example, Suldo and colleagues (2009) found beneficial effects for students who were administered gratitude intervention components derived from the Seligman et al. (2005) study. This work was presented to adolescents in a ten-session, classroom-based intervention. Other studies completed with adolescents and young adults have found that SWB can be bolstered by targeting grateful thinking of past events through journaling exercises (Emmons & McCullough, 2003; Froh, Sefick, & Emmons, 2008), having individuals engage in intentional acts of daily kindness in the present (Otake, Shimai, Tanaka-Matsumi, Otsui, & Fredrickson, 2007; Sheldon & Lyubomirsky, 2006), and having individuals reflect on specific goals they wish to attain in the future (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005; Sheldon, Kasser, Smith, & Share, 2002).

Positive psychology research is demonstrating that it is possible to simultaneously bolster the functioning of typical students and protect vulnerable students or students experiencing depressive symptoms from severe depression. Results from the Seligman (2005) study indicate that positive psychology interventions conducted via the Internet over a one-week period resulted in short and long-term (up to six months) beneficial effects on well-being. The effects from these interventions are striking when one considers that the intervention was effectively self-initiated by the participants, only required a minimal amount of time, and that the researchers provided very little guidance or feedback (Seligman et al., 2005). Since the study was administered on the Internet, therapeutic effects were largely eliminated

from the outcomes. Research has demonstrated that the therapeutic relationship and other common factors such as empathy and warmth are the strongest indicators of client outcomes (Lambert & Barley, 2001). Therefore, it is not far-fetched to imagine even greater effects if this intervention were administered by a supportive school psychologist. Secondly, it should be noted that only one intervention was presented to each participant. It seems plausible to presume that a package of the positive psychological interventions, such as those administered in this study or others that have been administered might well exceed the beneficial effects of any single intervention. Lastly, it should be noted that each of these interventions could be administered relatively quickly over a short period of time, individually or within a small group or classroom-wide setting by a school psychologist.

Conclusion

School services generally focus upon identification and treatment for externalizing behavioral challenges, learning deficiency, and learning disabilities. Large-scale identification and intervention services intended to enhance resiliency are rarely conducted within schools and can challenge the existing infrastructure of a school (Herman et al., 2004). The challenges schools face in promoting strong academic outcomes is indicative of the need for changes in methodologies, perspectives and practices. Positive psychology, with its strength-based orientation, is gaining increased acceptance as a framework for research and practice in clinical and school settings (Miller & Nickerson, 2007; Rashid & Anjum, 2008). Strength-based approaches afford youth an opportunity to build internal and external resources and enhance their well-being (Sapp, 2006). Research suggests that youth who demonstrate greater self-reported SWB tend to demonstrate more traits that support stronger academic outcomes (Suldo & Shaffer, 2008). Recent positive psychology intervention research trials have demonstrated that SWB can be enhanced for relatively long periods of time, through the use of targeted, short-term interventions (Seligman et al., 2005). Positive psychology intervention packages afford a practical method of prevention and intervention for school psychologists. As the scope and role of school psychology practice changes, it is important that researchers and practitioners have the training and skills necessary to address the varying needs of all children.

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The Implementation of Successful Mental Health Screenings

Linda Howells and Jennifer Belland
Temple University

The universal increase in mental health awareness necessitates the responsiveness of school psychologists and other professionals within school systems. Recent research suggests growing rates of under identified and under treated youth with mental health problems (Katoka, Zhang, & Wells, 2002). Because schools have the opportunity to offer school-based mental health services and interventions to a large number of students, they are quickly becoming the forefront of mental health providers (Burns et al., 1995; Farmer, Burns, Phillips, Angold, & Costello, 2003). Although some schools have started to offer specialized school based mental health prevention and intervention services there is still a demand for these practices to be universally implemented. Given the increase of psychopathology amongst youth, and the role of schools providing mental health services, there is a need for adequate measures for the early identification and prevention of mental health problems. The future direction of mental health screening implementation in schools necessitates an identification of adequate measures, the legal and ethical issues surrounding these measures, and the usefulness of their results.

Recent research has evaluated the reliability and validity of available mental health screenings and instruments, and concluded that many of the currently available instruments only allow for over-inclusivity or over-exclusivity of students identified at risk (Levitt, Saka, Romanelli, & Hoagwood, 2007). This highlights the need for universal mental health screenings to possess both internal consistency and external validity in order to accomplish the underlying goal of widespread implementation. Therefore, it is important for the measures to effectively assess and identify students ranging in a continuum of low to high risk of mental health disorders. To account for the varying levels of sensitivity and specificity offered with current tools, school psychologists should be prepared to respond in a tiered system. Implementation of a mental health intervention system needs to consider a number of points; including developmentally appropriate measures, legal and ethical issues, and a tiered response system.

Developmentally appropriate measures for school aged children are necessary because preschool, elementary, middle and high school youth have varying degrees of symptoms associated with any given disorder. Given that an age appropriate behavior of a preschooler can be considered a symptom of a disorder in adolescence, assessment tools must account for the high degree of variability between age groups. Additionally, because disorders occur on a continuum, subclinical symptom data collection obtained from universal screening measures should allow for schools to track the progression and development of psychopathology potentially meeting criteria with the DSM-IV-TR. Screening measures must also provide sensitivity to internalizing versus externalizing disorders because internalizing disorders are not as readily noticeable by informants. Teachers often refer students who have high degrees of externalizing behaviors (i.e. office discipline frequency), but are less likely to refer

students with internalizing behaviors (i.e. suicidal ideation). To date, there is a need for measures to capture these varying degrees of behaviors. Recent research has suggested that using multiple informants provides a more comprehensive view of the manifestation of externalizing as well as internalizing behaviors (Levitt et. al., 2007).

In order to implement a successful mental health screening design with the incorporation of multiple informants, it is essential to practice the appropriate legal and ethical guidelines surrounding informed assent and consent. Jackson (2006) specifically discusses the issues of informed consent within mental health screening. If mental health screenings were introduced, problems of confidentiality would inevitably arise. For example, if a child is identified as having symptoms of a particular mental disorder, the school district would be required to disclose the information to numerous parties in an attempt to respond with appropriate referrals and interventions.

The overarching goal of universal mental health screenings is to provide prevention and intervention services to students in need. However, research suggests that universal screenings for mental health are still in their infancy and therefore school districts currently do not have sufficient programs in place to fulfill intervention and treatment requirements (Shirk, 2008). Universal mental health screenings need to be put into practice through a tiered system to allow school professionals to respond appropriately. At Tier 1, the universal mental health screening system would involve administration of appropriate and adequate measures to multiple informants (i.e. teacher, student, parents). With the results of these screening measures, universal responses should be in place for a Tier 2 intervention (i.e. specialized seminars, groups counseling discussions, etc.). School psychologists should be at the forefront of developing and implementing Tier 3 services to students who do not respond to Tier 2 interventions or who have developed more severe symptoms. This level of support provided at the Tier 3 intervention level may include community based referrals, family involvement, and individualized school-based services (i.e. special education eligibility). A particular obstacle of effective services at this level is the extreme difficulty in coordinating services from multiple agencies and fostering collaboration among schools and the numerous community and family service providers. Because school psychologists have backgrounds in many of these services, they should focus on being the main collaborators in developing goals and determining the best educational placement for students with mental health needs. Although monumental advances have been made in the understanding of mental health issues of students, the incorporation of universal screenings into evidence-based interventions has not progressed to what the research suggests is fundamental for a successful system. School psychologists should take necessary steps in order to provide mental health services to students in a tiered system to allow for successful responses to intervention.

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Perspectives

10 Tips for Being Green in School Psychology

J. Lynsey Fraser, Heather Arduengo, Jessica Glenn Richardson,
Kimberly Booker, and Angela Mitchell
Texas Woman's University

School psychologists are charged with the mission of making the world a better place through their work with children. The children we serve not only need to be provided with a strong learning environment at school, but they also need a safe and healthy environment outside of the classroom. By practicing small daily acts that eventually become habits, we can enhance the way we live and create a cleaner planet for future generations.

Most school psychologists are not unfamiliar with paperwork. Large amounts of required documents necessitate large quantities of paper. School psychologists have numerous file cabinets containing pertinent student information including consent forms, developmental histories, and other information relating to the student's case. In addition, test protocols are almost always in a paper-based format, and computer-based scoring programs often require the user to print several pages of information related to the assessment given. Without a doubt, school psychologists are major consumers of paper. In addition, schools in general also utilize large quantities of electricity, as computers and other electronics have become essential to our jobs. The purpose of the current article is to provide school psychologists with a variety of eco-friendly ideas that will positively impact our environment.

We interviewed school psychologists from several school districts throughout the state of Texas to find out what programs their schools are currently implementing to help preserve the environment.

In one school district in south Texas, schools refill used ink cartridges, which helps reduce the amount of garbage that goes into landfills each day. The majority of printer ink cartridges are constructed of non-biodegradable materials such as plastic, which means that it can take hundreds of years for a small ink cartridge to disintegrate. These schools also collect Capri Sun® packages at lunchtime to be recycled. The parent-teacher association (PTA) is responsible for coordinating recycling at the end of the week. Lights have also been installed that turn off automatically when people leave the room.

In a North Texas school district, there are flyers or decals near light switches to remind employees to turn off the lights when they leave the room. Recycle bins are also placed

throughout campuses to encourage students and employees to recycle their goods, and shredded paper is also recycled rather than thrown away. Many teachers encourage their students to place recyclable items in the recycle bin and non-recyclable items in the trash. Most computers in the district are set up to go into a “sleep mode” when not in use for a specified period of time.

In a second North Texas school district, school psychologists are scanning all test protocols to an online service to help reduce paper consumption. This allows a variety of professionals to view protocols without making multiple copies. This method also reduces the amount of space used to store files, and allows that space to be used in more efficient ways.

In addition to these great ideas that are already being implemented, the authors have developed a list of 10 eco-friendly strategies from their own experiences that you can use to help save the planet.

1) Recycle.

Scan original protocols into a confidential database. While original protocols are required to be kept for a certain number of years, having a database where other professionals can view protocols will reduce the number of copies being made. If copies should be made, use recycled paper. Recycled paper can help save trees. School psychologists go through vast amounts of paper each year, so using recycled paper and recycling any files will positively impact the environment. Also, setting up recycle bins throughout schools in your school district can encourage school staff and students to recycle. Persuade your school or university to find a paper supplier with maximum available recycled content. Additionally, use electronic presentation tools such as Microsoft PowerPoint, Apple Keynote, or Prezi, and encourage teachers at your school to use PowerPoint for notes, photos, and study guides. This also helps reduce the amounts of paper used.

2) Teach the children!

In addition to taking personal action and encouraging other staff to participate in preserving our planet, we need to teach children *why* it is important to recycle and how they can help. For example, children can grow plants in a school garden and learn about healthy eating. Older students can be involved in the cafeteria recycling process. Incorporate eco-friendly recommendations into your reports. For example, suggest teachers to create “jobs” for their students. Jobs can include children watering the classroom plants or gathering recyclable items at the end of the day. Jobs, such as these, can help build confidence and instill responsibility in children.

3) Use Natural Energy.

Keep a plant in your office. Plants give off carbon dioxide and filter the air of impurities making them good for your health (and your spirit!). Given that school psychologists are often busy, some low maintenance plants include spider plants, ivy, ferns, and cacti.

4) Turn off the lights.

Electricity production generates more than 1.9 billion metric tons of carbon dioxide emission a year (www.wholeliving.com). Turn off the lights when you are not in your office. Encourage your schools to do this as well. Additionally, instead of using the overhead light in your office, use a desk lamp with an energy efficient light bulb. This creates a nice ambiance, too!

5) Turn off your computer.

Turn off your computer at the end of the day. This can reduce energy use by more than 50 percent. According to the U.S. Department of Energy, it is recommended that you shut off your monitor if you are not going to use it for 20 minutes, and shut down the entire computer if you will not be using it for more than two hours (www.thedailygreen.com).

6) Find new uses for old things.

Instead of throwing away old toys, computers, and supplies, encourage your school set up a site to donate items to local shelters and other charitable organizations. The donations not only reduce the trash in landfills, but you will be contributing directly to your community.

7) Digitize communication.

Encourage email communication among staff and parents. Read information online instead of printing it as this helps save paper. Start an email campaign that eliminates hard copies of paperwork. When you use printer paper, elect to use recycled paper. Print double sided-documents whenever possible to reduce the amount of paper being used.

8) Lunch Time.

Bring your lunch to work in a reusable container. This is an eco-friendly and healthy way to eat at work. Bring reusable plates, utensils, and napkins as well.

9) Bring a mug or glass to school.

Instead of pouring coffee or water into a Styrofoam cup, bring your own mug or glass to school, which can be washed and reused over and over again.

10) Campaign for an "Idle-Free School Zone."

According to The Daily Green (www.thedailygreen.com), American's idle away 2.9 billion gallons of gas a year, totaling approximately \$78.2 billion dollars each year. "Idle-Free School Zones" encourage parents to turn off their engines when they arrive at school to pick up their kids. This can greatly reduce pollution. Find out more information at: <http://www.screamtobegreen.com/2007/11/idle-free-school-zones/>

School psychologists play an important role in the school community and can help schools become eco-friendly. Many of these tips are simple and easy to implement. Helping a school adopt just a few of these suggestions can help create a healthier environment for future generations.

Suggested reading:

The Daily Green
(www.thedailygreen.com)

Green Facts
(www.greenfacts.com)

Scream to be Green
(www.screamtobegreen.com)

Whole Living
(www.wholeliving.com)

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Jessica Glenn Richardson is a school psychology specialist level candidate at Texas Woman's University.

Kimberly Booker, Ph.D., is a professor at Texas Woman's University.

Angela Mitchell, Ph.D., is a professor at Texas Woman's University.

Opportunities

Diversity Scholarship Award



The Student Affiliates in School Psychology is pleased to announce the annual Diversity Scholarship Award provided through the Diversity Scholarship Program. The purpose of this program is to promote and advance diversity by providing some financial support to students from under-represented cultural backgrounds.

Two awards of \$1000 are available. One award of \$1000 will be given to an advanced student, and one award of \$1000 is given to a student who has been recently accepted to a graduate program in school psychology.

In order to be eligible for the Diversity Scholarship Award, the applicant must be a member of an underrepresented cultural group and accepted into a doctoral program. For information regarding the requirements and materials to submit for consideration of this award, please see the Advanced Student and Incoming Student applications that are located at the end of this issue of PSTP.

The application deadline is July 1, 2010.

If there are any questions regarding the application process, please contact Ovetta Chapman at ogc@email.arizona.edu

SASP 2010 Diversity Scholarship Advanced 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. The advanced student diversity scholarship intends to help promote and support diversity within School Psychology programs. One annual award of \$1000 is given to an advanced student who will be entering their 2nd, 3rd, 4th, or 5th year of graduate training (beginning in Fall 2010) 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.

TO BE CONSIDERED FOR THIS SCHOLARSHIP, THE CANDIDATE MUST:

- Be a member of an under-represented cultural group
- Be a 2nd, 3rd, 4th, or 5th year doctoral student enrolled in a School Psychology graduate program in the United States as of Fall 2010

THE FOLLOWING MATERIALS MUST BE INCLUDED WITH YOUR APPLICATION:

- Completed One-Page Application (following page)
- Current Resume/Curriculum Vitae
- A Purpose Statement of professional goals (maximum 1,000 words).
- Transcript (can be unofficial) from the applicant's graduate institution.
- Two (2) letters of recommendation (typed on official letterhead). Both letters should be from faculty members of the applicant's graduate institution and should describe how the applicant enhances diversity within their school psychology program.

NOTE: Be sure to highlight any campus and community activities with which you may be involved, as well as any honors, awards, and scholarships you may have received.

APPLICATION DEADLINE

The application package must be postmarked by **July 1, 2010**. In addition to mailing the application materials, applicants may also submit their *statement of purpose* and *Resume/Curriculum Vitae* via e-mail to ogc@email.arizona.edu.

Mail all application materials in ONE packet to:

Ovett Chapman
SASP Diversity Scholarship
P.O. Box 64571
Tucson, AZ 85728

CONTACT INFORMATION

For additional information, please contact Ovett Chapman at ogc@email.arizona.edu or (520) 906 – 6548

SASP 2010 Diversity Scholarship APPLICATION FORM

(Please Print)

Today's date:

STUDENT INFORMATION

Last name:	First:	Middle:	<input type="checkbox"/> Mr. <input type="checkbox"/> Mrs.	<input type="checkbox"/> Miss <input type="checkbox"/> Ms.	
Is this your legal name? <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No	If not, what is your legal name?	(Former name):	Birth date: / /	Age:	Sex: <input type="checkbox"/> M <input type="checkbox"/> F
Street address:		Social Security no.: (for payment purposes)	Phone no.: ()		
P.O. box:	City:	State:	ZIP Code:		
Race/Ethnicity/Cultural Group:					

SCHOOL (UNDERGRADUATE) INFORMATION

Undergraduate Institution	Graduation date: / /	School Address:	Major:
Cumulative GPA:	GRE Score:		

GRADUATE SCHOOL INFORMATION

Graduate School Institution	Start date: / /	School Address:	Department Phone no.:
Graduate GPA:			

SIGNATURE

The above information is true to the best of my knowledge.

Signature

Date

Mail this form along with the application materials to:

Overt Chapman
SASP Diversity Scholarship
P.O. Box 64571
Tucson, AZ 85728

SASP 2010 Diversity Scholarship (Incoming 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 are faced with and thus the Diversity Scholarship Program has been created to provide monetary support to aid students from diverse cultural backgrounds entering the field. The SASP Diversity Scholarship for incoming students intends to help promote and advance diversity within School Psychology. One annual award of \$1000 is given to an incoming student recently accepted into a School Psychology graduate program. This is a one-time award; individuals granted the awards may not reapply in subsequent years.

TO BE CONSIDERED FOR THIS SCHOLARSHIP, THE CANDIDATE MUST:

- Be a member of an under-represented cultural group
- Have applied and been accepted into a School Psychology doctoral program in the United States
- Be a first-year doctoral student enrolled in a School Psychology Program as of Fall 2010
- Be sure to highlight any campus and community involvement you may have, as well as any honors, awards, and scholarships you may have received

THE FOLLOWING MATERIALS MUST BE INCLUDED WITH YOUR APPLICATION:

- Completed One-Page Application (following page)
- Current Resume/Curriculum Vitae
- A Purpose Statement of professional goals (maximum 1,000 words).
- Transcript (can be unofficial) from the applicant's undergraduate institution.
- Two (2) letters of recommendation (typed on official letterhead). Both recommendations should explain how the applicant would bring diversity into the school psychology program.
 - The first letter should be from a faculty member of the applicant's undergraduate institution.
 - The second letter of recommendation should be from a faculty member of the school psychology program in which the applicant is planning to attend beginning Fall 2010.

NOTE: Be sure to highlight any campus and community activities with which you may be involved, as well as any honors, awards, and scholarships you may have received.

APPLICATION DEADLINE

The application package must be postmarked by **July 1, 2010**. In addition to mailing the application materials, applicants may also submit their *statement of purpose* and *resume/curriculum vitae* via e-mail to ogc@email.arizona.edu.

Mail all application materials in **ONE** packet to:

Ovett Chapman
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P.O. Box 64571
Tucson, AZ 85728

CONTACT INFORMATION

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SASP 2010 Diversity Scholarship APPLICATION FORM

(Please Print)

Today's date:

STUDENT INFORMATION

Last name:		First:	Middle:	<input type="checkbox"/> Mr. <input type="checkbox"/> Mrs.	<input type="checkbox"/> Miss <input type="checkbox"/> Ms.		
Is this your legal name? <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No	If not, what is your legal name?		(Former name):		Birth date: / /	Age:	Sex: <input type="checkbox"/> M <input type="checkbox"/> F
Street address:			Social Security no.: (for payment purposes)		Phone no.: ()		
P.O. box:		City:		State:		ZIP Code:	
Race/Ethnicity:							
Cultural Group:							

SCHOOL (UNDERGRADUATE) INFORMATION

Undergraduate Institution	Graduation date: / /	School Address:	Major:
Cumulative GPA:	GRE Score:		

GRADUATE SCHOOL INFORMATION

Graduate School Institution	Start date: / /	School Address:	Department Phone no.:
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SIGNATURE

The above information is true to the best of my knowledge.

Signature

Date

Mail this form along with the application materials in ONE packet to:

Ovett Chapman
SASP Diversity Scholarship
P.O. Box 64571
Tucson, AZ 85728

Student Affiliates School Psychology

Membership Information

To become a member of SASP please complete this form and mail it to the address listed below. Members are also eligible for travel expenses to APA, scholarship awards, and other financial rewards by taking part in activities designed to promote SASP. SASP membership is FREE to all school psychology students. In addition, please consider joining the SASP listserv. This listserv will provide you with access to our newsletter, information on how to apply for various awards and travel grants, and other resources important to students in our field. SASP encourages members to also join APA's Division 16 (School Psychology). Information regarding this will be included in your welcome packet.

SASP Membership Committee
Attn: Karen Knepper
121 S. Knoblock #3
Stillwater, OK 74074

STUDENT AFFILIATE IN SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY (SASP) MEMBERSHIP APPLICATION

Renewal: Please circle yes or no

NAME: _____

MAILING ADDRESS: _____

EMAIL ADDRESS: _____

UNIVERSITY AFFILIATION: _____

STUDENT STATUS : _____
(i.e., 1st year, part-time, 3rd year, full-time)

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Would you like to be added to the SASP Listserv ? yes or no

Please indicate committees in which you may have interest:

☐ Communications

☐ Membership

☐ Diversity Affairs

☐ Nominations/Elections

☐ Other Interests (describe) _____



MEMBERSHIP APPLICATION

Please print or type:

Last Name First Name M.
Address _____

City State Zip
Phone() E-mail
APA Membership Number (if applicable): _____

Please check status:

- ☐ Member \$45
☐ ****First time Member (free membership for 2009)**
☐ Fellow \$45
☐ Professional Affiliate \$55
☐ ****First time Professional Affiliate (free membership for 2009)**
☐ 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 (with Division 16 Publications)
☐ Student Affiliate \$30 (Complete Below)
☐ ****First time Student Affiliate Member (free membership for 2009; Complete Below)**

Faculty Endorsement Institution Expected Yr. of Graduation

Please join online (<http://memforms.apa.org/apa/cli/divapp/>) or 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

****FREE MEMBERSHIP FOR ONE YEAR** Individuals who have never been a member of Division 16 in the "member," "professional affiliate," or "student affiliate" categories may join at no expense for 2009. Individuals who have been student affiliate members in the past, have never joined as a member, and are now eligible to do so may also join at no expense for 2009. New members who take advantage of the free membership offer will receive *School Psychology Quarterly* as part of this promotion, *The School Psychologist* is available free of charge on-line at the Division web site (<http://www.indiana.edu/~div16/index.html>).



Science. Practice. Policy.

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.
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- ❖ 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.
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