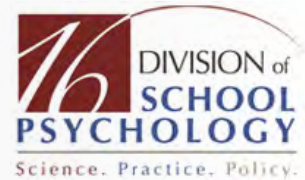


School Psychology: From Science to Practice



SASP Election Results Are In! Jennifer Cooper, 2013 SASP President

SASP would like to thank everyone who participated in the 2013 SASP Executive Board elections. The 2013 elections proved to be one of the best turnouts for nominations seen by SASP in recent years. There were many qualified individuals who submitted nominations from across the country. SASP was eager to see the potential leadership that our field has to offer in the years to come. We were also happy to see how many of you participated by voting for your favorite candidate. Our overall poll numbers were great, and made for an exciting election!

On behalf of SASP, I am pleased to announce the 2013 SASP Executive Board. Congratulations to all!

President-Elect

David Cheng, St. John's University

Student Interest Liaison

Katherine Stoll, The University of Arizona

Membership Chair

Cait Hynes, Fordham University

Convention Chair

Kayla Nichols, Duquesne University

Diversity Affairs Chair

Kennetha Frye, University of Houston

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Chelsea Benson, University of Missouri

VOLUME 5, ISSUE 4

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Message From the Board

Greetings SASP Members!

As the year begins to wind down, I wanted to take the time to thank the 2012 SASP Executive Board for their tremendous efforts. We have had a successful year with great strides made towards bettering the services we provide to our student members.

Some of these efforts included the Division 16/SASP student membership merge, the initiation of the Diversity Mentorship Program, and the new student section for SASP members on the Division 16 website. We also continued to provide existing support for our students through the re-vamped SASP newsletter, *From Science to Practice*, the SASP Student Research Forum at the annual APA Convention, and the Diversity Scholarship awards. In an effort to strengthen our communication with our members, we also implemented

a Division 16 SASP Facebook page and now have a monthly announcement email available to keep our members up to date on current happenings in the field.

We are always grateful for the Division 16 Executive Board; without their support, we would not be able to have such a strong student organization in school psychology. I, and the other board members, truly appreciate the mentorship the board provided this year.

Overall, it has been a great year for SASP, and I am honored to have spent the past year working with the leadership of this board. I wish the best for the incoming 2013 board members. I am sure SASP will continue to be a robust organization in the field!

On behalf of the SASP Executive Board, I would like



*2012 SASP President,
Kaleigh Bantum*

to wish all of our SASP members a safe and happy New Year!

Your 2012 SASP President,
Kaleigh Bantum

The purpose of *School Psychology: From Science to Practice* is two-fold: to disseminate student-focused articles pertaining to the study and practice of school psychology as well as circulate news relevant to the Student Affiliates of School Psychology (SASP), the student-led organization of American Psychological Association's Division 16: School Psychology. The newsletter is prepared by Editor, Lindsay Fallon (Lindsay.beck@uconn.edu), and Co-Editor, Aaron Haddock (ahaddock@education.ucsb.edu). Expressed opinions do not necessarily reflect or infer the positions of SASP, Division 16, or the American Psychological Association. For more information about SASP or previous newsletters, visit <http://www.apadivisions.org/division-16/students/index.aspx>.

Diversity Mentorship Program Spotlight

Kennetha Frye
Diversity Affairs Chair

Hi SASP Members,

I hope all is well. In this issue of *FSTP* we decided to include a mentor/mentee spotlight to share with current SASP members the benefits of having a SASP diversity mentor. This issue's mentor/mentee is Ashlie Llorens and Dr. Scott Graves. They have both been members of the program since April. Ashlie is a fourth year doctoral student in the School Psychology Program at the University of Houston with interests in African Americans and autism. Dr. Graves is an Assistant Professor in the School of Education at Duquesne University. Please see below for their story.

Best,
Kennetha

From Ashlie Llorens:

What topics have you discussed in regard to diversity within your mentor/mentee relationship?

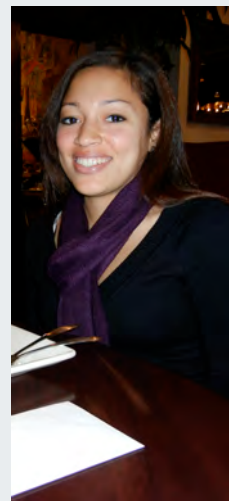
Primarily we have talked about the option of myself considering academia as a career choice and what it takes to maintain a career in academia. In addition, we have talked about the underrepresentation of school psychology faculty members of color. In an effort to help me better understand the realities of academia, my mentor and I have discussed opportunities at upcoming conventions to network with other school psychology faculty of color.

Have you had the opportunity to collaborate on research projects?

Yes, my mentor informed me of a dataset that he had access to and informed me that I wanted to develop a research question we could collaborate on a project. We have submitted a proposal to the APA 2013 convention and are working on writing a paper together.

What have you enjoyed the most about the mentor/mentee experience?

I have enjoyed the opportunity to have access to a faculty member whose research interests include a focus on African American students. Additionally, I appreciate the fact my mentor has talked to me and encouraged me (repeatedly!) to consider the option of pursuing an academic position, which is not a career choice that I had previously ever given any serious consideration.



Ashlie Llorens, Doctoral Student
School Psychology Program,
University of Houston

From Dr. Graves:

What is your opinion on the future of multiculturalism within School Psychology?

I think the study of culture in school psychology has a bright future with the implementation of programs such as this. Unfortunately, there has been a pipeline problem from matriculation to graduation for students of color. However with mentoring programs such as this more students will be able to enter academia and conduct research related to children of color.

What comes to mind when you reflect on this mentorship experience?

I've really enjoyed the fresh ideas that have emerged during our conversations. While I don't have a specific focus on autism, the project that we are working has given me a better understanding of the issues African American children with autism face. These issues were more pronounced than I thought and Ashlie's line of research will be very beneficial to the school psychology community.



Scott L. Graves Jr., Ph.D., Assistant Professor
School Psychology Program,
Duquesne University

Save the Date

AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION
ANNUAL CONVENTION
HONOLULU, HAWAII • JULY 31–AUGUST 4, 2013

Hawai'i Convention Center
Hilton Hawaiian Village Beach Resort
Sheraton Waikiki Hotel

Early registration opens April 1, 2013

REMINDER: Useful Information - APPIC Timeline

Greetings SASP members!

For those of you applying to internship this fall, APPIC has released the match schedule for the 2013 APPIC process. It is as follows:

PHASE I

Wednesday, February 6, 2013 - 11:59 p.m. Eastern Time

- **Phase I Rank Order List Deadline:** Deadline for submission and certification of Rank Order Lists. All lists must be finalized and certified by 11:59 pm Eastern Time on this date.

Friday, February 22, 2013

- **APPIC Phase I Match Day:** Results of the Match are released to applicants and training directors.

PHASE II

Friday, February 22, 2013 - 11:00 a.m. Eastern Time

- The list of programs with unfilled positions in Phase I of the Match is posted. Applicants who are eligible to participate in Phase II of the Match may submit applications to programs that are participating in Phase II.

Thursday, February 28, 2013 - 11:00 a.m. Eastern Time

- The application submission "deadline" for Phase II.

Monday, March 18, 2013 - 11:59 p.m. Eastern Time

- **Phase II Rank Order List Deadline:** Deadline for submission and certification of Rank Order Lists for Phase II of the Match. All lists must be finalized and certified by 11:59 pm Eastern Time on this date.

Monday, March 25, 2013

- **APPIC Phase II Match Day:** Results of the Match are released to applicants and training directors.

Good Luck!

Considering the Use of Bullying Prevention Programs with Students with Disabilities: An Examination of the *Olweus Bullying Prevention Program* and *Steps to Respect*

Kristen S. Girard
Michigan State University

Mental health is commonly defined as the emotional and psychological well-being needed in order to function and participate in daily life (World Health Organization, 2011). In this sense, mental health is characterized by the well-being of individuals within social groups. To function effectively in society, individuals need to interact in positive ways with others including helping, sharing, cooperating, and demonstrating empathy to others. Thus, pro-social behavior is one aspect of mental health that schools specifically try to foster in children.

Bullying is an example of a negative social interaction that is unfortunately common in schools and is a threat to students' mental health. Bullying affects millions of children in American schools each year and is a "hot topic" in current educational research and popular media particularly because of the negative effects it can have on students' mental health and academic performance (Skiba & Fontanini, 2000). In 2001, the American Medical Association estimated that more than 3.2 million sixth through tenth grade students are victims of moderate or serious bullying each year. The definition of bullying can vary but one common definition "...is aggressive behavior marked by an imbalance of power occurring repetitively with intent to harm and can be either physical (e.g., fighting, pushing) or relational (e.g., social exclusion, spreading rumors" (Bauer, Lozano, & Rivara, 2007, p. 266). Being a victim to bullying can lead to low

self-esteem, depression, and/or anxiety among students (Blood & Blood, 2004; Didden et al., 2009). Bully victimization is also associated with school truancy, declined academic performance, and lower feelings of self-worth (Hirschstein & Frey, 2006). Chronic bullying victimization can lead to aggression, anxiety, depression, and self-inflicted violence (Hirschstein & Frey, 2006).

Due to the potential negative effects on students' mental health, recent research has focused on how to best address bullying in the schools with prevention and intervention programming. Previously schools had focused on discipline enforcement to handle bullying, but the developers of prevention programs of the past two decades have worked to also include interpersonal skill instruction in order to prevent problems from occurring (Hazler & Carney, 2006). More and more programs are being developed to tackle school bullying, but only a small number of these programs have been evaluated through research (Hazler & Carney, 2006). Two such programs are the *Olweus Bullying Prevention Program (OBPP)*, formerly known as the *Bully/Victim Program*, and *Steps to Respect (STR)*.

Dr. Olweus, the primary author and developer of the *OBPP* defines a bullying victim as someone who "...is exposed, repeatedly and over time, to negative actions on the part of one or more other persons, and

he or she has difficulty defending himself or herself” (Hazelden Foundation, 2011, “Frequently Asked Questions,” para. 1). Questionnaires developed as assessments as part of the *OBPP* ask questions about both direct (i.e., verbal, physical, racial, and sexual bullying and having things taken or damaged) and indirect forms (i.e., social exclusion or isolation, lies or false rumors, and cyberbullying) of bullying (Hazelden Foundation, 2011). *STR* defines bullying similarly as a repeated activity done with the intent to harm that involves a power imbalance in which the person doing the bullying has more power. Bullying includes physical aggression, verbal insults, rumors or gossip, and threats of exclusion (Committee for Children, 2012). Hirschstein and Frey (2006) in their discussion of *STR* indicate that the program defines bullying to children as “unfair and one-sided. It happens when someone keeps hurting, frightening, threatening, or leaving someone out on purpose” (Hirschstein & Frey, 2006, p. 311).

Bullying Students with Disabilities

Although many students in schools around the United States and the rest of the world experience bullying, some sub-groups of students have been identified as being particularly vulnerable to bullying. One specific group includes students with disabilities, although the prevalence rates of bullying experienced by this group differ depending on the source (Doren, Bullis, & Benz, 1996; Holmquist, 2011; Rose, Espelage, Aragon, & Elliott, 2011). Like students without disabilities, students with disabilities need appropriate social behavior to engage with others in their daily lives. Bullying is one threat to the development of pro-social behavior for students with and without disabilities. It has been noted in research that students with disabilities both experience bullying as victims and engage in bullying as bullies (Estell et al., 2009).

Students with disabilities are more frequently placed in general education classrooms and interact more with general education peers than in the past, to ensure they receive education in the “least restrictive environment” as defined by the *Education for All Handicapped Children Act* (1975) and *Individuals with Disabilities Improvement Act* (2004; Carter & Spencer, 2006). While general education classroom participation can be beneficial to students with disabilities seeking to develop academic and social skills, these settings can also provide opportunities for comparison between students with and without disabilities, which may lead to bullying (Schoen & Schoen, 2010).

For students with and without disabilities, bullying can be related to a student’s race/ethnicity, weight, religion, gender, sexual orientation, or other characteristics (National Association of School Psychologists, 2012). Students with disabilities may also frequently be bullied for having disabilities (Whitney, Smith & Thompson, 1994). These students experience a wide range of bullying behavior including social exclusion, verbal abuse, and physical aggression (Carter & Spencer, 2006; Raskauskas & Modell, 2011).

Students with disabilities can potentially experience the same negative effects on mental health as students without disabilities when they are bullied. Students with intellectual disabilities who were bullied online reported high levels of emotional and interpersonal problems (Didden et al., 2009). Some studies indicate that students with disabilities are at an even greater risk than general education peers. For example, adolescents with learning disabilities are at a greater risk of emotional distress compared to peers without disabilities and females with learning disabilities are more likely to attempt suicide (Svetaz, Ireland, & Blum, 2000).

Bullying Prevention Programs: Goals and Methods

Schools have been encouraged to adopt anti-bullying policies and utilize bullying prevention programs to avoid the negative effects that bullying can have on students with and without disabilities (Limber & Small, 2003). Hazler and Carney (2006) identified several common components of effective bullying programs. Programs focus on universally addressing bullying or targeting specific groups of students who are at-risk for being bullies or victims (Hazler & Carney, 2006). Successful programs also attempt to reduce the isolation of individuals and build empathic awareness (Hazler & Carney, 2006). This is in order to limit the number of opportunities for students to be alone, but also to build opportunities for inclusion and create emotional connections between people (Hazler & Carney, 2006). Typically these programs are implemented in stages: awareness building, policy development, skill development, continuing involvement, and assessment with adjustment (Hazler & Carney, 2006). The research on bullying prevention programs is still fairly recent, but two programs that might be classified as “successful” are the *Olweus Bullying Prevention Program* and *Steps to Respect*.

The *Olweus Bullying Prevention Program* (OBPP) is, according to their website, the “most researched and best-known bullying prevention program available today” (Hazelden Foundation, 2011, para. 1). It was first developed and evaluated in Norway (Limber, 2006). The program is designed to reduce existing bullying problems, prevent new bullying problems, and improve peer relations (Hazelden Foundation, 2011). Instead of just implementing a classroom curriculum to meet these goals, the OBPP is a school-wide program to address the issue on all levels by focusing on the known risk

factors for bullying behavior and building upon protective factors (Limber, 2006; Hazelden Foundation, 2011). Although it has been adapted for use in high schools, OBPP is designed for elementary, middle, or junior high schools with students five to fifteen years old (Hazelden Foundation, 2011). The program was identified as “effective” by the U.S. Department of Justice’s Office of Juvenile and Delinquency Prevention and was classified as a “Model Program” by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services’ Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration and the University of Colorado’s Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence Institute of Behavioral Science (Hazelden Foundation, 2011).

In order to achieve these goals, OBPP includes components at four different levels: school, classroom, individual, and community. At the school-level, the program involves the development of a committee, staff training, school-wide data collection, introduction of school rules against bullying, and refinement of the school’s supervision system (Hazelden Foundation, 2011). Classrooms, as part of the program, must post and enforce school rules, and hold regular meetings as a class to discuss the subject (Hazelden Foundation, 2011). On an individual level, student activities must be supervised and staff must intervene immediately when bullying occurs (Hazelden Foundation, 2011). In addition, meetings are held with students involved in bullying and individual intervention plans can be developed (Hazelden Foundation, 2011). Finally, the OBPP stresses the involvement of the community as part of the committee and to develop partnership with community members to help support and spread the school’s program (Hazelden Foundation, 2011). Although not identified as core components, it is highly desirable to

also hold meetings with staff and parents (Olweus, Limber, & Mihalic, 1999).

Individual intervention approaches have limited success in reducing the aggressive behavior of individuals; therefore, the *OBPP* takes a school-wide approach (Olweus et al., 1999). The implementation of a school-wide program allows for restructuring of the school's entire social environment to reduce bullying opportunities and consistently reward positive behavior in order to redirect behavior to be more pro-social (Limber, 2006; Olweus et al., 1999). The school environment must be structured in order that adults become authority figures who provide firm limits for behavior and negative consequences to rule violations while also serving as positive role models who are warm, positive, and involved (Olweus et al., 1999).

Steps to Respect (STR) is also a school-wide program to address bullying and the program developers' goal of fostering "...the social and emotional development, safety, and well-being of children" (Committee for Children, 2012, "Our mission," para. 1). Similar to *OBPP*, *STR* is a universal program designed to tackle bullying programs on multiple levels however it is designed for elementary schools only (i.e., grades three through six) and emphasizes classroom instruction (Hirschstein & Frey, 2006). Once the school works to assess bullying problems and train all adults how to respond to bullying situations, the classroom lessons focus on teaching students to make friends, recognize feelings, and recognize, refuse, and report bullying (Committee for Children, 2012). This format not only increases staff awareness of and responsiveness to bullying problems, but it also fosters social responsibility among students and teaches students specific skills to solve these problems (Hirschstein & Frey, 2006). The program was identified by CASEL

(2013) as an "effective" social-emotional program because, while it is designed specifically for bullying prevention, it promotes the acquisition of more general socio-emotional competence among students (Hirschstein & Frey, 2006).

To meet the previously discussed goals, the *STR* program is implemented in three phases. In the first phase the school administrators must use surveys to gather baseline data and examine current bullying policies and procedures (Committee for Children, 2012). The second phase involves training all of the adults in the school to recognize and handle bullying (Committee for Children, 2012). Finally, in the third phase classroom lessons are used to foster the development of general socioemotional skills such as making friends and understanding and recognizing feelings and also to build students' specific skills in handling bullying (Committee for Children, 2012). There are 11 lessons on three different levels. The topics covered by the lessons also attempt to address the students' beliefs and peer-group norms related to bullying (Hirschstein & Frey, 2006).

The goals of both the *OBPP* and *STR* programs, although established as general goals for all children in a school, are still applicable to students with disabilities as a specific sub-group. In order to maintain the mental health of these students at school, students with disabilities can benefit from the reduction or prevention of bullying problems and improved peer relations. The social and emotional development, and general safety and well-being is an important goal for all students including those with disabilities.

Research on Bullying Programs

OBPP has been examined through research for over thirty-five years on the program's implementation around the world. There have been six comprehensive studies of the

program in Norway in addition to the replication studies that have been conducted in Canada, Germany, and the United Kingdom (Limber, 2006). The original study of *OBPP* in Norway involved 2500 students in 42 schools (Olweus, 1994). Results indicated a 50% reduction in student bullying behavior after two years of program implementation (Olweus, 1994). The program has also been studied in the United States but the results are more mixed. These research studies all examine the effectiveness of the program in the context of “real-world” school implementation.

OBPP was first evaluated systematically in the United States after being implemented in 18 middle schools in South Carolina in the mid-1990s (Limber et al., 2004). The program was implemented over the course of one year and evaluated by examining student reports of bully behavior, victimization, social isolation, and attitudes about bullying (Limber et al., 2004). The researchers found significant decreases in boys’ and girls’ reports of bullying behavior and also significant decreases in boys’ reports of being bully victims and feeling socially isolated (Limber et al., 2004). These additional decreases were not found among girls’ reports and there were no significant changes in students’ attitudes (Limber et al., 2004). The program was also evaluated after being implemented in 12 elementary schools in Philadelphia (Black, 2003). Significant decreases in students’ reports of bullying and victimization and adults’ observations of bullying were found in the schools that implemented *OBPP* with moderate fidelity (Black, 2003). These initial studies highlighted the potential positive effects of the program.

More recent research has found less positive results. For example, one study examined the effects of implementing *OBPP* in middle schools in Seattle (Bauer, Lozano, & Rivara,

2007). Seven intervention schools were compared to three schools that chose to prevent bullying less formally. Program effectiveness was evaluated using student-reported victimization frequency (four items on questionnaire about relational and physical bullying), student attitudes towards bullying (one item on questionnaire) and perceptions of others’ willingness to intervene (two items on questionnaire about teachers/adults and other students), and improving the general school environment (nine yes or no items on questionnaire about perceptions of safety, support, and engagement). Questionnaires were administered pre-implementation in spring 2003 and then again in spring 2005 after one academic year of *OBPP* implementation. Results indicated that there was no overall effect on student-reported victimization, although when stratified by ethnicity/race, White students reported less victimization after implementation. Students in the intervention schools perceived other students to be active in intervening in bullying incidents compared to students in the control schools, but no other significant differences were found.

In another recent study of six schools in a large urban U.S. school district, student bullying behavior was directly observed to calculate bullying incident density pre- and post-implementation of *OBPP* (Black & Jackson, 2007). The program was implemented over four years. In addition to these observations, student reported data on the program’s Bully-Victim Questionnaire was collected. Changes in bullying incident density from pre- to post-implementation ranged from no change to a 65% decrease with an average of a 45% decrease. Changes in student-reported bullying on the questionnaire ranged from an increase of 7% to a decrease of 10% with an average of a 5% decrease. The range in the effects among the

different schools does not lend itself to clear interpretation of the results regarding the program's effectiveness.

As a newer program, there is less research on the *STR* program in general. One study examined playground bullying and pro-social beliefs in elementary students in the Pacific Northwest (Frey et al., 2005). The *STR* program was implemented in three schools for one year compared to three matched control schools. The schools implementing *STR* did not see the increases in playground bullying across the school year that were found in the control schools. Although the differences were not significant, there were trends indicating that bystander encouragement of bullying declined in intervention schools and students' in intervention schools self-reported less victimization, but not less bullying, compared to students in control schools. Teachers did not indicate any difference in student interpersonal skills in their ratings but observations showed a decrease in argumentative interactions and increased agreeable interactions among students in the schools implementing *STR*. With regards to student beliefs, students in intervention schools reported a stronger sense of responsibility to intervene as bystanders, less tolerance of bullying, and more adult responsiveness to bullying problems compared to students in control schools.

A larger and more recent study examined the outcomes of implementing *STR* in California elementary schools (Brown, Low, Smith, & Haggerty, 2011). The 33 schools were randomly assigned to intervention or waitlist control groups. The researchers sought to examine the following research questions: "(a) What are the effects of the *STR* program on the social-ecological context of the school? (b) What are the effects of the *STR* program on teacher perceptions of student behavior? (c) What are the effects of the *STR* program

on student perceptions of school climate, staff/teachers, and connectedness with their school?" (Brown et al., 2011, p. 427). Results using survey data indicated that the *STR* program had significant positive effects on the school environment, specifically school anti-bullying policies and strategies, student and staff climate, and school bullying problems. In addition, there were significant increases in teacher assessments of student social competency and decreases in teacher assessments of physical bullying perpetration. Student surveys indicated that students also noticed the improvements in student and teacher bullying intervention, positive bystander behavior, and student climate.

While the literature on school bullying, risk factors, and bullying prevention programs is growing, there are still gaps in the research. One glaring gap is that while students with disabilities have been identified as one subgroup that is potentially at a higher risk for engaging in bullying and experiencing bullying, bullying prevention programs have not been developed for use with this specific population. The more widely used bullying prevention programs such as *OBPP* and *STR* do not explicitly discuss any modifications or adjustments to address the needs of students with disabilities (Flynt & Morton, 2007). The published research on these programs has examined differences among grades, ages, genders, and racial/ethnic groups but has ignored students with disabilities as a subgroup of interest.

Use of Bullying Prevention Programs with Students with Disabilities

Although bullying prevention programs have not been directly studied with students with disabilities and the existing programs do not outline considerations for this population, students with disabilities may still benefit from programs such as *OBPP* and *STR*. These

programs address the issue of bullying using a school-wide approach. If students with disabilities are bullied by students without disabilities, the prevention programs may reduce the bullying behavior of the general student population and therefore reduce the victimization rates of students with disabilities. In addition, the focus on staff training and clear policies and procedures may help raise the awareness of the adults and help them recognize and address bullying when it occurs at school. The adults can intervene when students with disabilities are being bullied. Still, special consideration of students with disabilities is needed when implementing bullying prevention programs. In particular, school environment and structures, assessment, and instruction may need to be modified or adapted in order to make them applicable for these students. In addition, research that specifically examines the effects of these modified programs on the bullying of students with disabilities will be needed to evaluate these adaptations.

School Environment & Structures

A major component of prevention programs designed to address bullying on a school-wide level is the establishment of consistent policies and procedures to handle bullying in the schools. It will be important for schools to include clauses in these policies that are specifically related to the bullying of students with disabilities, which may be classified as disability harassment (NJ Coalition for Bullying Awareness and Prevention, 2012). In addition, schools must decide if there should be different consequences or procedures for students with disabilities who engage in bullying other students. For example, zero tolerance policies may not be appropriate for students whose behavior is related to their disabilities (Parker-Roerden, Rudewick, & Gorton, 2007). Some schools may set up anonymous reporting procedures to encourage students to share incidents of

bullying. Students with disabilities may not understand the concept of anonymous reporting (Flynt & Morton, 2007) and may need alternative reporting procedures (NJ Coalition for Bullying Awareness and Prevention, 2012; Raskauskas & Modell, 2011). Connecting these students with a caring adult in the building who they can report incidents to may be more appropriate for some students who do not understand or reporting procedures established for general education students.

Hazler and Carney (2006) indicated that successful bullying prevention/intervention programs attempt to reduce the isolation of individuals to limit the opportunities for students to be targeted by bullies. Bullying programs often have adults encourage students to include students in school activities. Although many students with disabilities are “mainstreamed” and included in general education classes as much as possible, students with disabilities may still spend part of the day in special education or resource room classrooms. Changes in placement during the school day may limit the number of opportunities for students to be included in social activities with general education peers. In addition, their disabilities may hinder their ability to fully participate in some general education activities (Flynt & Morton, 2007). Teachers and students without disabilities may need direct instruction in how to best include students with disabilities in their classrooms and activities. Supplemental social skills groups or afterschool clubs that connect students with disabilities with general education “buddies” may be beneficial for both groups of students (NJ Coalition for Bullying Awareness and Prevention, 2012; Parker-Roerden, Rudewick, & Gorton, 2007).

Assessment

Both the *OBPP* and *STR* programs utilize

student surveys to collect data regarding school bullying problems. These survey assessments, such as the Bully-Victim Questionnaire created by Dr. Olweus, are used to assess the extent of the students' initial bullying behavior and provide data to support the adoption and implementation of a prevention or intervention program. These surveys are then used after one or more years of implementation to examine the effects of the intervention and help guide any adjustments. These same assessments are frequently used in the published research on the bullying prevention programs to measure intervention effects. The challenge of using these surveys with students with disabilities is that they require a certain reading level. Some students with disabilities (e.g., cognitive impairment or specific learning disability in reading) may not have the basic reading or comprehension skills needed to fill out the survey (Flynt & Morton, 2007). For some students this issue could be addressed by having teachers read survey items to the students, but some students may still not understand the item contents like general education peers do or may need alternate ways to respond to survey items if they cannot write or speak (Raskauskas & Modell, 2011). The key is to adapt and modify the assessments in order to include these students, rather than to exclude them from assessments. This will lead to the development of more effective programs for these populations (NJ Coalition for Bullying Awareness and Prevention, 2012).

Instruction

A major component of the *STR* program is the classroom curriculum. The instruction provided in these lessons is one of the major mechanisms to change student behavior because it is designed to teach students how to make friends, understand and recognize feelings, and appropriately handle bullying situations. Some students with disabilities

have deficits related to social skills and could benefit from the lessons offered as part of bullying programs. The severity of a student's deficits may require more intensive instruction than what is offered through a bullying program with classroom lessons. The lesson may need to be repeated several times for students with disabilities to gain the necessary skills (Raskauskas & Modell, 2011). Students with disabilities typically receive special education services or general education accommodations to help them access or benefit from academic instruction. Students with visual or hearing impairments would not be able to benefit from the *STR* classroom curriculum as it currently stands because the classroom lessons utilize posters, pictures on overhead projectors, videos, and classroom discussions. The materials may need to be adapted so they are accessible for all students (Raskauskas & Modell, 2011). In addition to curricula modifications to make sure students with disabilities can access the instruction (Flynt & Morton, 2007; NJ Coalition for Bullying Awareness and Prevention, 2012), the bullying examples used in the lessons could be adapted to include the common forms and types of bullying that these students experience including name-calling or exclusion related to their disabilities.

Conclusion

The negative effects that bullying can have on students' mental health make it an important issue to address with prevention or intervention programs in schools. Students with disabilities form a sub-group of the student population that should be specially considered, as they are particularly vulnerable to bully victimization. Bullying prevention programs such as the *Olweus Bullying Prevention Program* and *Steps to Respect* program have some preliminary evidence of their effectiveness in reducing bullying problems in schools. These programs

both address the issue on a school-wide level, incorporating staff training and involvement and the development of students' social responsibility. *Steps to Respect* places more emphasis on direct classroom instruction on general social-emotional skills and handling bullying. Neither program has been researched with students with disabilities and neither program's guidelines include information on how to adapt or modify the program to make it more accessible for these populations. Adaptations or modifications may be necessary to make the school's environment and structure (e.g., policies and procedures and opportunities for inclusion), assessments of bullying problems, and instruction more appropriate for this population. Depending on the extent of these modifications, it could greatly affect the validity of the prevention programs and research on these adapted versions would be an important addition. Despite these adaptation considerations, there is still reason to expect that students with disabilities could benefit from prevention programs such as *Olweus Bullying Prevention Program* and *Steps to Respect* program as they currently stand. Both programs attempt to build a positive school climate built on acceptance and social responsibility. Teachers and other school staff play an important role in this school climate and can help protect and respond to student with disabilities who experience bullying (NJ Coalition for Bullying Awareness and Prevention, 2012). School-wide bullying programs may also lead to opportunities to provide disability awareness education to teachers and students on visible and nonvisible disabilities to promote empathy, acceptance, and support for students with disabilities throughout the building (Parker-Roerden, Rudewick, & Gorton, 2007; Raskauskas & Modell, 2011). Students with and without disabilities can benefit from opportunities to interact and build friendships to feel less isolated.

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The Prescriptive Authority Movement for Psychologists: A Call for RxP Advocacy

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In the recent *Conference on the Future of School Psychology 2012* (Futures Conference), Dr. John E. Lochman held the keynote address on the topic of advocacy in the field of school psychology. The conference described the role of advocacy as

...a critical skill to influence and create change for the future of our nation's children. School psychology and school psychologists need to further develop effective advocacy strategies to support our children and youth, to enhance the profession, and to incorporate evidence-based assessment and treatment in schools.

In his address, Dr. Lochman described the critical roles that school psychologists can play as advocates in the profession through systems-level and individual opportunities. One important advocacy opportunity that will likely affect change in the profession of professional psychology at all levels is the prescriptive authority movement for psychologists (RxP). This vision has endured since 1984 when Hawaii Senator Daniel Inouye introduced this legislation under Hawaii State Resolution 159. Since then, slow but considerable progress has been made in endeavors such as the Department of Defense's creation of the Psychopharmacology Demonstration Project (PDP) which in 1989 trained 10 psychologists to prescribe, the APA's approval of an RxP training model in 1996, and the passing of RxP legislation in the U. S. territory of Guam, the states of New Mexico and Louisiana, the U. S. Military, and

the Indian Health Service. Also, many other states have submitted RxP legislation.

Obviously, this expansion of roles would provide more professional relevancy and security as we develop skills to treat a wider range of patients and integrate into a diverse array of work settings. While the vast majority of school psychologists have no interest in ever obtaining prescriptive authority themselves, the reasons to advocate for this type of legislation within their own state are myriad and include more comprehensive patient care, improved monitoring of compliance and side effects, more thorough psychiatric diagnosis, better integration of educational, psychosocial, and psychotropic interventions, less overmedication/polypharmacy, more patient follow-up, and fewer mixed messages about treatment. With the increased prevalence of prescribing psychotropic medications to school-age populations (Zito et al., 2003) there is clearly a need for a more efficacious approach to mental health treatment that is different from the current approach whereby primary care physicians (PCPs), who have little training in child and adolescent mental health and demonstrate an overreliance on drugs, are the primary prescribers. The following sections outline two critical reasons for why the ability for appropriately-trained psychologists to prescribe medication is vitally important for the profession and overall patient care.

Limited Access to Underserved Populations

A recent National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) found only half (50.6%) of children with a mental disorder

had received any type of treatment in the previous year (Merikangas, He, Brody, Fisher, Bourdon, & Korentz, 2010). These survey results also indicate that children are more likely to receive treatment for ADHD than for either mood or anxiety disorders. Other research suggests even lower treatment rates, as only 20-25% of children with a mental disorder received any form of specialty service, with the majority failing to receive any service at all, as reported by their families (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1999).

A major reason for this lack of available mental health service is the current shortage of mental health providers. Workforce trends indicate a profound shortage of available psychiatrists as evidenced by recent downsizing of psychiatry residency training programs (Rao, 2003). This trend is even more pronounced among pediatric providers (Kim, 2003; Thomas & Holzer, 2006). Between the years 1980 and 2002, the amount of U.S. child and adolescent psychiatry residency programs decreased from 130 to 114 (Koppelman, 2004). Reasons for this downsizing of programs include, but are not limited to, reduced governmental support for pediatric residency training (see the Balanced Budget Act of 1997) and closure of state hospitals, which housed many of the programs (Koppelman, 2004). Additionally, there is less interest from medical students to pursue child psychiatry as a career path, partly due to financial disincentives of obtaining child psychiatry training coupled with low reimbursement rates from private insurers and Medicaid. (Koppelman, 2004).

While the mental health needs of most children are not adequately met, the needs of specific subsets of youth are even more profound. There is a lack of available pediatric mental health professionals in poor, urban and rural areas (Goldman, 2009). For example,

nearly 96% of counties nationwide have unmet needs for medication prescribers, with needs in rural counties even more profound (Thomas, Ellis, Konrad, Holzer, & Morrissey, 2009). Further, the majority (87%) of designated mental health provider shortage areas (MHPSAs) in the United States are in non-metropolitan areas (Bird, Dempsey, & Hartley, 2001). Because of the significant reliance on PCPs practicing in rural areas, most require long appointment wait-times and limited "face-time" with patients. Consequently, most PCPs will not be able to take the time necessary to conduct a thorough background screening, psychological or psychiatric evaluation, or closely monitor treatment effects and side-effects for dosage titration.

Survey response from practicing psychologists in both urban and rural settings, indicates access to appropriate medication management was their community's most unmet psychological need (Campbell, Kearns, & Patchin, 2006). However, population density factors are not the only barriers to adequate specialty care. Campbell, Kearns, and Patchin (2006) also found significant unmet psychological needs in other underserved groups, specifically those with chronic mental illness and the economically disadvantaged. The maldistribution of PCPs, specifically in poor, urban and rural areas highlights the need for more mental health practitioners to take on further psychopharmacology training to address medication management needs (DeLeon, Fox, & Graham, 1991). Appropriately-trained psychologists are in an excellent position to step in and help undertake prescribing roles to provide access to currently underserved populations.

Restricted Continuity of Care

Though children spend a significant amount of time in schools, they are prescribed

medication by personnel working outside the school. Oftentimes, there is little communication between those providing pharmacological interventions outside the school and those providing social-emotional-behavioral and/or academic interventions within the school. Without communication and integration of care, service providers are unaware if they are ultimately treating the same deficits or accounting for service that is already being provided by someone else. This disjointed approach to treatment is neither cost nor time effective and creates inherent ethical and safety risks for children.

Frequently, due to time constraints and large case-loads, many PCPs do not use needed treatment follow-up procedures. They prescribe medications and send the child back to school, but fail to inform school personnel about expected medication effects and side-effects. It is usually not until more serious symptomatology present (e.g., extreme lethargy, mood swings, tics) that the PCP is even made aware of needs for medication titration or discontinuation. The inability to adequately monitor and evaluate drug effects is particularly worrisome given the paucity of safety data in most pediatric medication. In fact, most safety and efficacy data for children is extrapolated from adult drug trials (Vitiello, 2007). As a result, most pediatric drugs are prescribed off-label, or in a manner inconsistent in which they were approved. Between the years 1996 and 2007, there was an almost 6% increase in pediatric office visits resulting in the prescription of psychotropic medication from at least two classes (Comer, Olfson, & Mojtabai, 2010).

Many of these drugs, particularly antidepressants, contain “black-box” warning labels, highlighting their risk for suicidality. Further, two or more of these medications are often combined in a treatment regimen (i.e., polypharmacy). For obvious reasons, these

practices raise profound ethical and safety concerns within vulnerable pediatric populations.

Even more disconcerting, may be the lack of training that many current prescribers have in pediatric mental health. Recent trends in medical school training have resulted in shortened clinical rotations in psychiatry for future physicians (Serby, Schmeidler, & Smith, 2002). While, the average length of psychiatric clerkship is roughly six weeks, some can be as short as only four weeks. This limited exposure to psychiatric training during medical school, may lead to less confidence in treating specific conditions. In a survey of primary care pediatricians, 46% of respondents lacked confidence in their clinical ability to diagnose child or adolescent depression; further, 86% lacked confidence in their ability to manage depression pharmacologically. In more severe mental health conditions, PCPs may elect to refer to a mental health specialist (Muse, Brown, & Cothran-Ross, 2011). However, because these referrals are usually limited, most PCPs elect to treat “in-house.” Psychologists, with more extensive training in child and adolescent mental health, can provide not only a higher quality of care by implementing less intrusive interventions before a medication is needed, but also provide the long-term follow-up that typically does not occur with the PCP.

Opportunities to Advocate

School psychologists have numerous ways to advocate for this vital movement for the field. The first step is to visit the APA Division 55 website for the American Society for the Advancement of Pharmacotherapy (ASAP) at <http://www.division55.org/>. Along with APA, ASAP has been pushing for RxP for well over two decades. This website provides the ideal starting point for the practitioner who is curious about learning more about the RxP

movement and about all the possible avenues there are in which to advocate. The division publishes a quarterly newsletter entitled "The Tablet" which provides on-going updates regarding RxP legislation efforts. Other methods for advocacy are addressed in the following organization's web resources: APA Public Policy Advocacy Network: <http://www.apa.org/about/gr/advocacy/network.aspx>; APA Government Relations Office (GRO) advocacy guides: <http://www.apa.org/about/gr/advocacy/piguide.pdf>; APA Center for Psychology in Schools and Education: <http://www.apa.org/ed/schools/cpse/>; NASP: <http://www.nasponline.org/advocacy/index.aspx>; NASP: <http://nasponline.org/resources/factsheets>.

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Tricks of the Trade: Becoming the Teacher you Aspire to Be

Suggested steps and activities for securing a teaching position

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Many students pursuing a doctorate in school psychology share the goal of entering academia following graduation. Others wish to work in clinical or school settings, but aspire to teach as adjunct faculty. The national shortage of qualified trainers of school psychology gives credence to achieving this professional goal, but not without the necessary training and preparation (Clopton, & Haselhuhn, 2009). Whether the goal is to become a faculty member at a large research institution, work as adjunct faculty, or simply pursue a teaching assistant position as a graduate student, an individual must be willing to put in the work of learning how to become an effective teacher. The goal of this article is to assist school psychology students with an interest in teaching by describing some suggested steps and activities for securing a teaching position. A set of guiding principles for beginning teachers is also presented. While this is not an exhaustive list, our goal is to provide a solid foundation that students can build upon according to their individual professional goals and aspirations. A word to the wise: teaching is indeed one of the most important and influential activities that an individual may be called to do, but only if it is done well.

Just as students prepare for many of the important milestones in their graduate education – taking the GRE, applying to graduate school, applying to

practicum/internship sites, and completing comprehensive exams – it's important to do the necessary homework beforehand when it comes to teaching. Taking a good educational psychology course will introduce students to the most widely used theories of learning and cognitive development, modalities and assessment of learning, academic motivation, and social and emotional development. This will serve as a critical foundational anchor for course planning and instructional approaches. Investing in good resources about teaching is a simple, straightforward approach, but one that should not be minimized or looked over. There is no need to reinvent the wheel when evidence-based teaching strategies exist, especially when they're such great reads! A few of our favorite teaching resources include the following: Ambrose, Bridges, DiPietro, Lovett, and Norman's "How Learning Works: 7 Research-Based Principles for Smart Teaching"; Bean's "Engaging Ideas: The Professor's Guide to Integrating Writing, Critical Thinking, and Active Learning in the Classroom"; and Bain's "What the Best College Teachers Do."

Another step to preparing for the role of a future teacher is to research existing services, programming and specialized training opportunities that may be offered at an individual's college or university. An

example of such a program is the Preparing Future Faculty program that was part of a national initiative by the Association of American Colleges and Universities that encouraged higher education institutions across the country to re-think and reorganize the preparation of doctoral students who aspire to become faculty. Alternatively, students may be able to pursue a specialization or minor in college teaching as a part of their training program. Additionally, courses focused on teaching at the college level or related topics in higher education may be offered through education or student affairs departments. If a student's college or university does not offer these types of opportunities, many institutions do have resources available that focus on faculty and teaching assistant development through periodic trainings on teaching methods, course design, and course/student evaluation. Finally, be sure to look for training sessions geared toward students interested in academia at our national conferences such as APA and NASP.

As students contemplate the type of teacher they would like to become, they should identify current faculty members, peers, mentors and others who exhibit those traits as experienced teachers. Setting up a time to talk with them about their teaching experiences, tricks of the trade, and advice to students hoping to become future trainers of school psychology is a great way to learn more about the prospect of teaching. Talking to a trusted mentor or experienced professor is also a great way to research what is involved in the academic job search and promotion and tenure process. Scheduling a time to observe them in class and debrief afterward about their teaching methods is another great way to gain insight into the mind of an effective teacher. Shadowing in the form of assisting in the creation of an assignment or guest lecturing with feedback from the instructor are also great ways of getting hands-on experience. If graduate students plan to guest lecture, it is best to talk to the professor early

about the expectations of the lecture that can include defining goals, outlining the content of the lecture, and creating opportunities for feedback from the student participants after the lecture.

Once an individual knows that teaching is the direction in which they'd like to continue, it's time to look for teaching opportunities. As graduate students, applying for a teaching assistant position is highly recommended, as it is likely to provide invaluable experience for students interested in entering the professoriate. Individuals can contact local colleges/universities to ask if they hire doctoral students to teach introductory or intermediate-level psychology and/or education courses. Depending on where a student is in their training program, typical courses that school psychology students are prepared to teach include: introduction to psychology, educational psychology, introduction to research methods, human development, and courses focusing on students with disabilities.

However, before we get ahead of ourselves, there are a few preliminary steps for students to undertake to successfully market themselves for a teaching position. First, preparing a philosophy of teaching statement is a great exercise in articulating the kind of teacher a student strives to become and the types of activities they plan to incorporate in their instructional approaches. In general, a philosophy of teaching statement includes: an individual's conception of teaching and learning; a description of how they teach; and justification for why they teach that way. Examples of these statements can be found through a simple online search. These narratives are frequently requested when seeking academic positions (on its own or as part of a teaching portfolio) and as a

component of an individual's dossier for promotion and tenure. Keep in mind that the first draft of this statement will inevitably undergo many rounds of revisions, but overall it will provide a foundation to build upon throughout a student's teaching journey.

Also, students should organize their curriculum vitae in a way that highlights teaching experiences when applying for a teaching position. It is important to be as descriptive as possible. For instance, individuals should describe the course, its goals, the number and type of students, their level of responsibility for the course, and the teaching and assessment methods used. The responsibilities of teaching assistants may vary substantially from one university to another, so when describing any previous experiences, include relevant details and items that would stand out from other job candidates. Furthermore, individuals should not limit themselves to classroom-based responsibilities only. Teachers frequently have other roles such as advising students and managing instructional resources. Including these other responsibilities will help a potential teacher to market him or herself as a multifaceted professional.

To conclude, we've created six guiding principles that were particularly helpful to us as beginning teachers that we'd like to share. Once a teaching position has been secured be it as a teaching assistant, adjunct faculty member, or guest lecturer, we believe it is important to stick to a few guiding principles as a way of facilitating personal growth as a teacher. However, we encourage all teachers to develop their own guiding principles as part of their teaching philosophy.

1. First and foremost, an effective teacher is always a student first; acknowledging that learning and

teaching are long-life pursuits holds individuals accountable for their own ongoing professional development.

2. Preparation is essential. This one is straightforward; if teachers are not prepared, students will know and the instruction won't be nearly as effective as possible.
3. Know the audience. What works in a small graduate seminar may not be nearly as successful in large undergraduate survey course. Getting background information about the number of students in the class, if they're freshman or seniors, and if it's a required upper-level course or a general education requirement will help in tailoring the teaching methods and strategies to meet the students' learning needs.
4. It's important for teachers to go outside of their comfort zone to try different teaching methods and be responsive to learners' needs. Traditional lectures are not the only way to teach and teachers are increasingly looking for innovative approaches to instruction through the use of technology, collaborative learning, and experiential activities, so don't be afraid to try something new. Case studies and role-playing are two activities that are particularly germane to our field because they allow for the application of acquired knowledge.
5. Engage in frequent assessment; this applies to us, as teachers, as well as for students. Research has shown that frequent assessment through the use of weekly quizzes or assignments allows teachers to identify gaps in students' knowledge and adapt the instructional approaches to better meet their learning needs (National Research Council, 2001; Ambrose, Bridges, DiPietro, Lovett, & Norman 2010). Allowing students to evaluate how the course is progressing and the effectiveness of the instructional

approaches provides useful information to the teacher in terms of their pedagogical practices and approach to the course.

6. Finally, flexibility and adaptation is the name of the game in teaching. In this way it is very similar to school psychology practice. A teacher may have a game plan, but upon learning something new discover the need to alter the original plan. Possessing the ability to “go with the flow” and adapt as needed is indeed one of the traits consistent among highly effective teachers (Bain, 2004). While this undoubtedly comes with experience, as beginning teachers, students can help themselves by being prepared with a Plan B in case that video clip in the PowerPoint decides not to cooperate. But remember, “Experience is simply the name we give our mistakes.”

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This article was reprinted with permission from July 2012 issue of *The School Psychologist*, 66 (3)

Lessons from the Field: Weighing the Importance of Methodological Precision and Student Success

Michael Frank, M.A.
University of South Florida

Testing interventions for reading presents a significant challenge to education researchers. With the high stakes of end-of-year testing, wait-lists and control groups are a hard sell to the teachers and parents of children recruited for research. If a child is denied treatment for even six weeks, their opportunity for growth may be limited, and if the state has mandatory retention laws, the stakes are even higher. However, implementing a multi-faceted intervention with varying components that are simultaneously delivered makes the interpretation of effectiveness difficult.

This year, I collected data for a reading intervention study conducted by a special education teacher. The intervention featured auditory training, basal reading, reading-based games, and at-home parent practice and was evaluated based on improvement in the Big 5 reading skills (i.e., phonics, phonological awareness, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension) as indicated by the Woodcock Johnson Reading Mastery Tests - Third Edition (WJRM-T-III). Due to the limited time available for Tier II intervention and the aforementioned pressure for reading improvement, the many facets of this intervention had to be implemented simultaneously.

When I began working on this project, I expressed concerns about interpreting the unique influence of each component; does one component (e.g., games) improve all five skills alone, or did each component boost one? The special educator and her co-author (my adviser) explained to me that the goal was not

to create a taxonomy of multiple interventions and their unique effects, but rather to demonstrate the successes and challenges faced by a realistic intervention in a realistic school. Having only completed my first year of graduate school, my understanding of science still outweighed my understanding of practice. After observing interventions at my practicum site, I began to realize what they meant.

In order to understand best practice in the field of education, it is important to have reliable, valid, and clear data on effective programs. However, once those are established, researchers are charged with the task of making these programs accessible to schools with a variety of needs. As it turned out, each of the individual components of the intervention has its own research base. Games have strong evidence for increasing motivation to read (Charlton, Williams, & Mclaughlin, 2005; Wells & Narkon, 2011), while basal reading has been shown to increase phonics, comprehension, and vocabulary (Briggs, Clark, & Texas Center for Educational Research, 1997). Auditory training can increase comprehension and fluency (Hawkins et al., 2011), and parent involvement has positive effects on generalizing skills learned in school and maintaining gains (Lignugaris-Kraft et al., 2001). What if a teacher wants their student to improve in all of those areas?

It is true that simultaneous interventions are difficult to interpret separately, but I found

that this was not the goal my co-authors were attempting to achieve. Rather, the goal was to implement a dynamic intervention that met the needs of students that presented varying challenges. Those who had difficulty paying attention were reined in by the games, while the students who had trouble decoding text benefitted from the basal reading. Instead of having three groups meet separately to work on their various needs, an efficient environment was created in which everyone grew across the board.

No study is without flaw; small sample size and confounded techniques reduced the empirical robustness of our study. However, we discovered remarkably positive effects that may be the impetus for future research for integrating intervention techniques. As a graduate student learning about science-informed practice, it can be difficult to compromise the desire for statistical and methodological perfection. Nevertheless, I now consider that statistical and methodological precision is not always necessary for an intervention. Of course, some precision is absolutely necessary; one needs to know that an intervention will work, and even the best intervention is unlikely to yield results if it is not implemented with fidelity. Those needs aside, it does not always matter *which* portion of the intervention was responsible for the growth as long as the children get better. Furthermore, keeping the training of various skills separate for the sake of precision may prevent a student from reaching their full potential.

I am very grateful to have been given the opportunity to work alongside a practitioner in my research because it has taught me a great deal about how to transition from science to practice. As I conduct future research, I will continue to aspire toward pristine research methodology. However, I will bear in mind the difference between testing individual constructs and integrated

teaching strategies. Most of all, I will not forget that the goal of all of our work in education research is not only to understand learning, but to create positive outcomes for students.

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About the Author

Michael Frank, M.A., is a second-year PhD track graduate student at the University of South Florida who received his Bachelor's Degree of Psychology at Edinboro University

of Pennsylvania. He is currently the President of USF SASP and serves as a volunteer for NASP's Student Development Workgroup. Michael's current research interests include ADHD, positive psychology, school climate, and school-based mental health.

Special thanks to Cathy Pelzmann, M.S., and Linda Raffaele Mendez, Ph. D., the intervention designer and my professor, respectively.

Ball State University Student Affiliates of School Psychology Chapter Spotlight

Elizabeth N. Hooks
Laura E. Peek
School Psychology Program
Ball State University

The Ball State chapter of SASP was formed in the mid-2000s and became officially recognized as a student organization by Ball State University in 2011. Since 2010, the highlight of the year is the annual spring student school psychology research symposium, awards and banquet. Students prepare a conference-style poster session of original research, and students, alumni, faculty, and emeritus faculty review and discuss the projects with the student authors. Presenting students then feel more confident about submitting presentations to national and regional conferences and beginning students are introduced to the research process.

This year, the chapter's principle goal was to increase student involvement, community and ownership beginning with increasing the frequency of events from four meetings a year to monthly meetings. Involvement was also promoted when chapter members voted to institute the additional roles of secretary, treasurer, event coordinator, and website manager positions. The website manager has started and maintained the chapter website, Facebook page, and BSU SASP university e-mail. Additionally, SASP members voted on the topics for monthly meetings that would most interest them at the beginning of the semester. As a result, meeting attendance has greatly increased. Currently, most meetings and special training events are attended by at least 20 or more students and we are reaching 50-75% active involvement of all enrolled students for any given individual event.

Six meetings were held this fall. Presentation topics included suicide prevention and QPR training (presented by a member of SASP), private practice (presented by a school psychology professor), a group viewing and discussion of a live webinar on culturally sensitive assessment, and a group viewing of a webinar on bullying interventions. In addition to presentations, the chapter held weeklong events for School Psychology Week in November and an end of the semester holiday event. The newly initiated website and Facebook page help us communicate with current members regarding future meetings and events. Additionally, these tools have been used to stay in contact with students who have graduated and to learn from their experience in the field. The chapter also receives very regular contact and support from our faculty advisor, Dr. Hernández Finch, and the chair of the educational psychology department, Dr. Sharon Paulson.

The Ball State University SASP chapter is extremely excited about the Spring 2013 semester. BSU SASP in conjunction with the Ball State chapter of the Association of Neuropsychology Students in Training (ANST) will participate in the Polar Bear Plunge, a fundraiser for Special Olympics - Indiana. Planned BSU SASP spring meetings include a presentation by a local speech-language pathologist, a presentation on a new executive functioning measure, and a cross-cultural simulation. Additionally, the chapter will hold its annual end of the year research symposium. With strong leadership and new

organization, SASP chapter activities have become significantly more frequent. The chapter will continue to use its members' input to guide activities, including covering topics which its members find relevant in furthering their professional development as scientist practitioners.

About the Authors

Elizabeth N. Hooks, M.A., is a third year Ph.D. student in the school psychology program at Ball State University and is the BSU SASP chapter president. Elizabeth received her B.A. in psychology and German from Illinois State University in 2010. She received her M.A. in school psychology from Ball State University in 2011. Elizabeth has worked as a research graduate assistant for various Ball State professors and is currently working as a school psychology extern at a local school district. In the summer of 2012, she worked at Camp Isanogel, a summer camp for children with Autism Spectrum Disorders. Her current research interests include children with ASDs, as well as school belongingness.

Laura E. Peek, M.A., is a third year Ph.D. student in the school psychology program at Ball State University and serves as the BSU SASP chapter vice-president. She received her B.A. in psychology from the University of North Texas in 2009 and her M.A. in school psychology from Ball State University in 2011. Laura has worked as a research graduate assistant for Ball State professors, as well as working at the Riley Hospital for Children HANDS in Autism program. She is currently the student associate director at the Ball State University Psychoeducational Diagnostic & Intervention Clinic. Her current research interests include anxiety disorders in early adolescence and in the gifted population.

Reminder From SASP: **SASP Diversity Mentorship Program**

Kennetha Frye, M.S.
Diversity Affairs Chair, SASP

Greetings Members! I would like to remind students and faculty about a new initiative from SASP: the Diversity Mentorship Program. The goal of this initiative is for professionals and faculty from diverse backgrounds or interested in research related to diversity to mentor students through interactive discussions on topics related to diversity. For more information on this new initiative, please see below for a description of the program as well as a rough timeline for the program.

Description of Mentoring Program

Mentors/mentees should be willing to communicate on a monthly basis about diversity issues in school psychology and other relevant interests of the mentor/mentee. This relationship should be one that is mutually beneficial in which both parties should be able to gain and offer things throughout this process. Mentors/Mentees should each be willing to send a quarterly mentor/mentee update (should take about 10-15 minutes) to the Diversity Affairs Chair at the end of the quarter that summarizes the nature of their interaction and activities for that quarter. The goal of collecting information is to provide support, as needed, to program participants and help SASP in improving this new initiative based on participant feedback and the open exchange of ideas and best practices. Although there are recommended activities and a few requirements, mentors and mentees should set goals and guidelines for their individual relationship. Please see a list of recommended activities:

Highly Recommended Activities:

- Discuss issues of diversity in relation to psychology as a whole, and specifically to school psychology
- Discuss research and offer advice on successfully completing the thesis/dissertation process
- Offer advice on the internship application process and how to successfully obtain an internship
- Discuss relevant articles on multiculturalism and diversity in school psychology
- Discuss the importance of multicultural competence in the workplace and methods of implementation

Optional Activities:

- Offer advice on joining other psychological associations that promote diversity
- Discuss possible ways that students can advocate for diversity within the field. Some ways include getting involved with leadership in SASP, NASP, APA, etc.
- Students can also discuss the state of graduate students, their feelings about diversity within the field, and ways to address it
- Possibly team up on research projects

Goals of the Program:

- Connect students and professionals with common interests related to diversity
- Provide the opportunity to interact (i.e. communicate, collaborate on research) with professionals outside of their program
- Develop a lasting professional relationship

Application materials are as follows. Mentee applications will be accepted on an ongoing basis.

Mentee and mentor applications will be accepted on an ongoing basis. If interested, please contact Kennetha Frye at kennethafrye@yahoo.com with the following information:

For mentees, please email with your:

1. Name:
2. Year in Program:
3. School:
4. Ethnic Background:
5. Research interests/ Clients you are interested in working with:
6. Email address:

For mentors, please email with your:

1. Name:
2. Number of Years you have been in the field:
3. Current Profession:
4. Ethnic Background:
5. Research interests/ Clients you are interested in working with:
6. Email address:



Join and Attend ISPA

The field of School Psychology has become so diverse over the past 15 years. School Psychology is not only a discipline that is practiced in the United States, but internationally. If you are interested in getting involved with school psychology on an international level, you should check out the International School Psychology Association, which brings school psychologists together from around the world through research and advocacy. This year the annual conference will be held in Montreal, Canada from July 9th through July 13th at McGill University. Please check out this website and consider attending <http://www.ispaconference.info/>.



APA Division 16
MEMBERSHIP APPLICATION

Please print or type:

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Phone: (____) _____ e-mail: _____

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Please choose your Division 16 membership status:

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____ Professional Affiliate \$55.00

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APA for at least 25 years)

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

____ Student Affiliate in School Psychology (SASP member) \$20.00 (complete below) I attest that I
am a graduate student in school psychology.

Student signature: _____

Institution: _____

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Division 16 provides one year of free membership to new members, including SASP members, who have not previously been Division 16 members. Please indicate if you are a new Division 16 member on your application form

____ I am a new member to Division 16

You can also submit your division membership application online at:

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



Division 16 membership activities, benefits, and services include:

- Engaging 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.
- Receiving cutting edge publications such as *School Psychology Quarterly*, the Division's APA journal and the high quality peer-reviewed newsletter *The School Psychologist*.
- Networking with colleagues and leaders in the field who share your interest in School Psychology.
- Contributing 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.
- Joining the Division 16 listserv to keep up to date with current trends, professional opportunities, and the on-going dialogue on school psychology matters.
- Recognizing outstanding achievements. Division 16 honors Students (e.g., APF-Paul Henkin travel awards, minority scholarships, AGS outstanding scholarship awards), Early Career Scholars (e.g., Lightner Witmer Award), and substantial contributors to the field (e.g., Fellow, Senior Scientist, Jack Bardon Distinguished Service Award, Lifetime Achievement Award).
- Becoming involved in Division 16 governance. There are many opportunities to join committees and run for executive office in the Division.

Additional benefits for student (SASP) members include:

- Links to national and international leadership in school psychology and psychology as a whole.
- Student activities at national conferences (e.g., SASP Student Research Forum at the APA Convention)
- Resources and financial supports (e.g., Division 16/SASP Diversity Scholarships and the Student Research Forum Travel Awards).
- Information on current topics pertaining to school psychology and forums to build connections with other school psychology professionals (e.g., SASP listserv, Facebook page, and website).
- Opportunities to get involved in activities that will further strengthen this discipline in the future. Opportunities to disseminate research and to share ideas through the SASP publication, *School Psychology: From Science to Practice*.
- Connections to a national network of local SASP chapters as well as guidance in building a local SASP chapter at your institution.
- Mentoring opportunities (e.g., SASP's Diversity Mentoring Program) that create relationships between students and professionals in the field.
- Opportunities to become involved in SASP governance.