THE SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGIST

VOL. 70, NO. 2 (SUMMER 2016)

16

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PRESIDENT'S UPDATE

By Dr. Lea A Theodore

The College of William & Mary

I am honored to serve as the President of Division 16, and consider it a privilege to work collaboratively with a talented group of professionals to advance the Division's mission of *science, practice, and policy*. As I begin my Presidential year, I plan to continue our time-honored roles and functions while simultaneously paving the way

toward new initiatives, increasing the Division's visibility and ensuring its relevance.

School Psychology has grown from an early "test and place" orientation to a mature field that emphasizes evidence-based interventions, Response to Intervention, consultation, psychoeducational assessment and test development, international school psychology development, cultural and linguistic diversity, neuropsychology and executive functioning, bullying intervention, crisis and disaster intervention, and many other important niches. Moreover, school psychologists are now working in more diverse settings: public and private schools, community agencies, hospitals, clinics, private practice, juvenile justice systems, publishing houses, colleges and universities, and the legislature, to name a few. Given the multitude of roles and functions of 21st Century school psychologists and the contexts in which they work, I believe it is important to acknowledge and highlight the field's diversity, including the initiatives pursued by the Division 16 Executive Committee (e.g., improving the practice of school psychology; enhancing work with children and families; the promotion of issues related to school psychologists by the Council Representatives; creating and monitoring the APA accredited internship Grant Program, encouraging, mentoring, and including Early Career Psychologist's in various capacities; fostering and supporting the Student Association of School Psychologists; and creating and maintaining the new Division 16 website). I believe that we need to highlight the Division's efforts to have the greater field of psychology understand and recognize the unique contributions of School Psychology. As a field, School Psychology should be front and center with regard to health service delivery, and we need to showcase what we do (and can do) in this growing field.

Stemming from the plans, proposals, and strategies of aspirational focus of the Division are the incremental activities of what we have accomplished thus far. I would like to take this

President Lea A. Theodore

opportunity to highlight the Division's initiatives and update members on important matters of interests.

Convention Highlights

The Division 16 Convention Planning Committee has done an outstanding job of putting together a strong scientific program that will be featured at the 2016 APA convention in Denver, Colorado, Aug. 4-7. Please note that convention registration is currently open. For more specific information regarding registration or housing reservations, please visit this website.

Further, per APA "*any member of APAGS (American Psychological Association of Graduate Students) who is presenting as first author within a symposium or paper/poster session will have his/her registration fee waived if registration occurs before July 1.*"

Highlights of the 2016 convention in Denver include:

• Divisional programming with cutting-edge research within the domains of academic assessment and intervention, school-based mental health, workforce issues, social-emotional assessment, and many more interdisciplinary topics.
• Collaboration with 16 other APA divisions that have innovative and interactive sessions. Notably, Division 16 members are represented in 8 collaborative programming sessions that were selected through a competitive review process.

For more information about the convention, please contact Dr. David Hulac, Ph.D. (D16 Convention chair). We have an exciting program replete with symposia, poster sessions, and a social hour. We look forward to seeing you in Denver!

Grant Program for School Psychology Internships (GPSPI)

One of the Division's recent initiatives, the Grant Program for School Psychology Internships (GPSPI), is currently in its second year of implementation. The GPSPI was developed to address the pre-doctoral internship crisis by providing funds as well as consultation and mentorship to grantees for the development of new APPIC School Psychology Internship Programs. It is the hope and expectation that these internships will attain APA Accreditation, making school psychology students competitive for internships as well as future career opportunities. Notably, the GPSPI has support from Division 16 of the APA, the Council of Directors of School Psychology Programs (CDSPP), National Association of School Psychologists (NASP), and Trainers of School Psychologists (TSP). For additional information,

please see the GPSPI website. *The deadline for new grant proposals is June 30, 2016.*

Membership

Division 16 is promoting its Membership Sponsorship Campaign for 2016. The intent of this membership initiative is to encourage current members to sponsor a new member for $20. Providing membership affords the recipient with access to all Division 16 resources such as *The School Psychologist*, *School Psychology Quarterly*, and members-only listservs. More importantly, it demonstrates your support of that individual's professional development and gives new members access to resources for the rest of this year and full benefits of membership (journal, etc.) for all of 2017. Please consider joining the Member Sponsorship Campaign and giving the gift of membership to someone you know. If you have any questions, please contact our Vice President of Membership, Dr. Amy Briesch.

Mid-Career Awards

At our mid-winter meeting this past January, the EC added two new awards intended for individuals at the mid-career level: (1) mid-career scholarship award, and (2) mid-career service/practice award. These awards are intended for school psychologists who are seven to twenty-years post-graduation.

• The Tom Oakland Mid-Career Scholarship Award will be given to professional and academic school psychologists who have demonstrated scholarship that merits special recognition. Continuing contributions to scholarship is the primary consideration in making the award.

• The Jean Baker Mid-Career Service/Practice Award will be given to school psychologists who have demonstrated exceptional contributions to the field of school psychology through programs of service or innovations in practice.

For more information about these and other awards given by Division 16, please visit the Division website's award page or contact Dr. Cathy Fiorello.

Early Career Psychologists (ECP)

The Early Career Psychologists group (ECP) has made tremendous strides since its inception in 2013. Under the leadership of Dr. Jacqueline Brown, this year the ECPs have been active in myriad activities that promulgate and advance the goals of the group, which include the recruitment of members to the Division as well as broadening its scope to meet the interests and needs of the group. Thus far, in 2016, the ECPs have:

• Developed an infographic which describes the roles and functions of a school psychologist as well as the educational and practical experiences required for training. This was disseminated to the APA Committee of Teachers of Psychology in Secondary Schools (TOPSS) and other related groups with the intent of informing students about the field of school psychology.
• Collaborated with various school psychology and child psychology organizations, both within and outside of APA (e.g., ISPA, NASP, APA D33).
• Began the process of developing a webinar to train ECPs in various areas of research and practice.
• Published an ECP content article within each issue of TSP. In addition to the content article, the ECPs have started a "Setting up a Private Practice" series to be published in TSP.
• Contributed to the Division's bi-weekly digest by providing information and updates relevant to ECPs.
• Provided opportunities for support to ECPs attending the annual APA Convention. This year, three ECPs were awarded a convention waiver to defer the costs of registration for the APA Annual Convention.

The ECP workgroup will be presenting a symposium at the convention on Friday, August 5th from 8am – 9:50am, entitled "Developing a Research Agenda-Strategies for the Early Career Professional," presented by Drs. Amy Briesch

and Katie Eklund (with assistance from Amanda Sullivan). In addition, a poster focused on "Early Career Leadership Opportunities in Division 16: School Psychology" will be presented in the ECP poster session on Saturday, August 6th, from 2pm – 2:50pm.

School Psychology Quarterly (SPQ)

The Division would like to thank Dr. Shane Jimerson for his 5-years of service as Editor of School Psychology Quarterly (SPQ). During Shane's tenure as Editor, he continued the many aspects of SPQ tradition that have made it one of the most outstanding publication outlets for cutting-edge research, while also broadening its scope, enhancing its prominence, and heightening its impact. Under Shane's editorial direction, the SPQ associate editors (including Drs. Ardoin, Mayer, Reinke, Riley-Tillman, and previous Senior Editor of International Science, Dr. Oakland) and editorial board employed myriad strategies to increase the journal's quality, its impact factor, and the recruitment of international scholars to serve on the editorial board. Shane identified salient topics for special issues and reduced the timeline from manuscript submission to decision (currently an average of 22 days) and also doubled the number of new submissions (over 200 new submissions last year). Presently SPQ enjoys its highest impact factor ever (2.182 for 2015). With Shane's leadership, SPQ currently excels at fulfilling Division 16's commitment to advance science, practice, and policy relevant to school psychology. The board is grateful to Shane for his time in promulgating the field of school psychology and highlighting the visibility of SPQ.

The Division is delighted to have Dr. Richard Gilman serve as our new Editor for School Psychology Quarterly, bringing a rich expertise as a scholar, scientist, and practitioner to his role as Editor. Dr. Gilman is currently professor in the Department of General Pediatrics at the University of Cincinnati Medical School. He is the Director of School-Based Mental Health Programming at Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center and the Director of Training and

Clinical services at the UC Stress Center. Dr. Gilman is a fellow of Division 16, a global international fellow from Harvard University, and serves on the advisory board of the National Center for School Crisis and Bereavement, and the International Society for Quality of Life Studies. Rich has published over 100 peer-reviewed articles and chapters, is the author of The Handbook of Positive Psychology in Schools, and previously served as associate editor of School Psychology Review and Behavioural Change. He sits on numerous editorial boards.

As Rich commences his tenure as Editor, he has given a great deal of thought and consideration to enhancing the journal. In addition to modifying the cover of the journal, Rich has revised the table of contents to reflect the customized format and content for manuscript publications. The newly configured layout will include the following headings:

- Advances in Methods: Quantitative, Qualitative, and Mixed Brief studies
- Empirical articles
- International perspectives
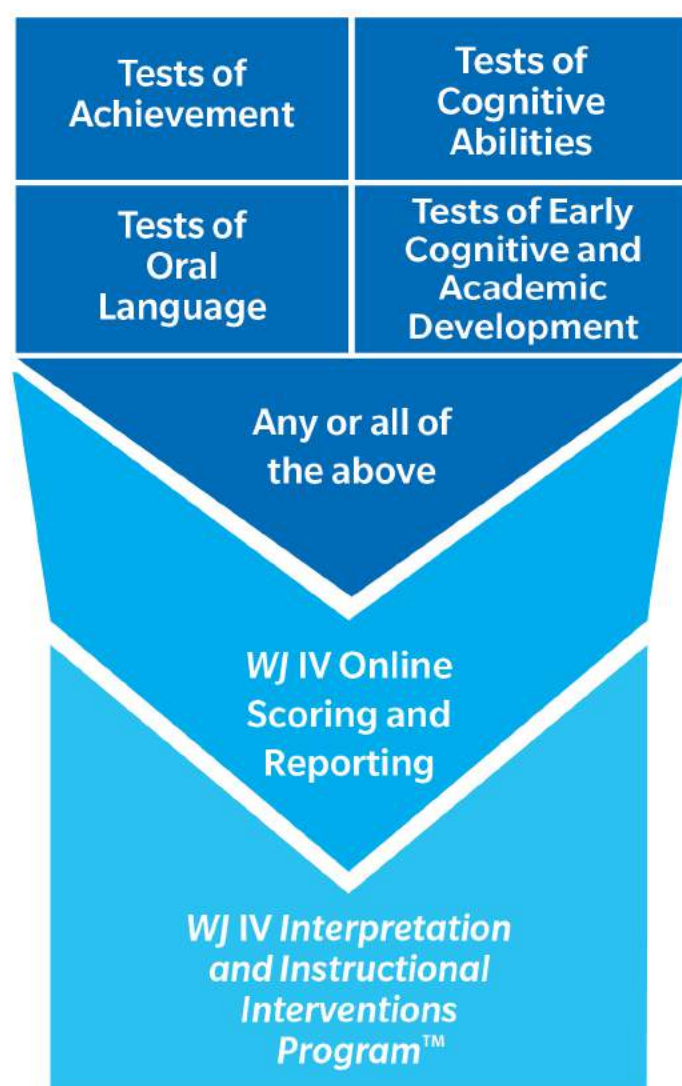- Reviews
- Special Sections

Rich has also selected cutting-edge editorial board members to disseminate SPQ's mission of addressing myriad academic, behavioral, and social-emotional issues that affect children across the lifespan and in various milieus. Significantly, the board has been populated with individuals with statistical/methodological expertise. According to Dr. Gilman, "…most importantly, the quality of any journal rests with the papers selected for publication. To this end, the composition of the Editorial Board is internationally renowned for its expertise across a wide array of areas important for the science and practice of psychology as applied to schools, youth, and psychological, behavioral, social, and/or academic outcomes." For additional information, please see the journal website.

Finally, I would like to extend a warm welcome to our new Executive Committee members who joined the board this past January 2016: Prerna Arora (Secretary), Jacqueline Brown (ECP), Amanda Clinton (President-Elect), Bonnie Nastasi (Council Representative), Michelle Perfect (VP-Publications and Communications), Yadira Sanchez (VP-SEREMA), and Samuel Song (Council Representative). The Division is fortunate to have talented and esteemed colleagues who bring a unique expertise to their respective roles.

As we endeavor to enhance Division 16's mission of science, practice, and policy, I welcome your thoughts and feedback. Please feel free to contact me with any comments and/or suggestions that you may have. I am honored to be serving you as President this year!

NONCONTINGENT REINFORCEMENT FOR A STUDENT WITHOUT DISABILITIES

By Rachel Youngblom, Psy.D., Kevin J. Filter, Ph.D., Lindsey Finch, B.A., & Sylvia Labial, M.S.

Minnesota State University, Mankato

Noncontingent reinforcement (NCR), sometimes referred to as fixed-time reinforcement, is a simple and efficient behavioral intervention. It involves presenting stimuli with known reinforcing properties that are delivered on a fixed-time or variable-time schedule, independent of the student's behavior (Vollmer, Iwata, Zarcone, Smith, & Mazaleski, 1993). Therefore, by presenting reinforcers that serve the same function as the behavior on a noncontingent schedule, the student has access to the reinforcer and the demonstration of the problem behavior is no longer necessary. For example, if a student realizes that every time he shouts out in Math class, he is sent to the principal's office, the teacher may schedule breaks for the student before he shouts out.

"This makes NCR a valuable and potentially efficient intervention in a school-based setting as professionals are able to adapt the same procedures for another student based on the results of a Functional Behavior Assessment (FBA)"

Research has demonstrated that NCR can be used to remediate diverse behaviors maintained by various functions of behavior such as obtaining food or attention (Hanley, Piazza, & Fischer, 1997; Kahng, Iwata, Thompson, & Hanley, 2000; Vollmer et al., 1993), escaping from instructional requests and non-preferred activities (Kodak, Miltenberger, & Romaniuk, 2003; Vollmer, Marcus, & Ringdahl, 1995), and auditory or physical stimulation (Lindberg, Iwata, Roscoe, Worsdell, Hanley, 2003; Nolan & Filter, 2012). While the specific reinforcer may vary between students, the same general procedures may be utilized. This makes NCR a valuable and potentially efficient intervention in a school-based setting as professionals are able to adapt the same procedures for another student based on the results of a Functional Behavior Assessment (FBA).

Although NCR has been demonstrated to be effective across various populations and in various settings (Buchanan & Fisher, 2001; Carr, Severtson, & Lepper, 2009; Falcomata & Gainey, 2014; Hagopian, Fisher and Legacy, 1994; Vollmer et al., 1993), there are limited studies that address NCR for individuals without disabilities in general education settings (Banda & Sokolosky, 2012). Austin and Soeda (2008), and Riley, McKevitt, Shriver, & Allen (2011) are two such studies that have reported successful NCR interventions utilized with students in a general education setting who also did not have disabilities. Austin and Soeda implemented an NCR intervention with a third-grade student who was not identified as having a disability and received all instruction in the general education setting. Although the result of the study indicated that the student's problematic behavior decreased, it was possibly due to the teacher's positive praise of the student's on-task behavior when the teacher delivered attention on a fixed-time schedule. Therefore, it is uncertain that the NCR intervention was the sole contributor to the decrease in the student's problematic behavior. Riley and colleagues implemented an NCR intervention in conjunction with a FBA to accurately understand the function of the student's behavior (teacher and peer attention). However, within the study, the teacher continued to make behavior-specific statements that were either praise or redirection-related when the teacher delivered attention on a fixed-time schedule. Therefore, either the student's positive behaviors were reinforced or they continued to receive attention for their problematic behaviors (redirection). While the students demonstrated attention-maintained behaviors across all of the studies, research has demonstrated that NCR has the potential to be incorporated into the general education setting with students who are not identified as having a disability. However, research has yet to clearly determine if the administration of non-contingent neutral attention alone can remediate problematic behavior in the general education setting.

It is important to explore the potential of NCR as an intervention for students in the general education setting; particularly targeting schools utilizing three-tiered models of prevention wherein individualized behavior supports are not provided based on disability but are provided based on

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Rachel Youngblom, Psy.D. (rachel.youngblom@gmail.com)

need and failure to respond to less intensive interventions (Scott & Eber, 2003). Conceptually, NCR fits well into a positive and preventative framework of supporting behavior because the intervention is delivered prior to the onset of behavior and can be based on the function of the behavior. One practical aspect of NCR when compared to consequence-based interventions is that interventionists do not have to carefully monitor occurrences of either problem or alternative behavior; they simply deliver reinforcers at the pre-arranged time. This makes NCR an appealing option as a school-based behavioral intervention because teachers are generally the interventionists and have many other demands on their professional time, especially during instructional activities.

The present study addresses the following research questions: (a) Can NCR be implemented with fidelity by teachers in general education classrooms?; (b) Does NCR lead to a decrease in off task behavior for a student without identified disabilities?

Methods

Participant and Setting

B.G. was a 9-year-old male in a general education third grade classroom. He was not receiving special education services. He was, however, an individual of concern due to his display of problem behaviors within the general education setting. B.G. had been recommended for the study by the Student Assistance Team at his school due to the high number of office discipline referrals that he had accrued and by his teacher who was seeking guidance on a new intervention that she could try in the classroom to help with behavior problems. Assessment and intervention took place within the general education setting during his reading time between 11:00am and 11:30am. This time was decided upon based on the findings of a routines analysis during the FBA, which indicated that this was the time when the general education teacher felt the most problem behavior was most likely to occur.

Functional Behavioral Assessment

Teacher interview and direct observation data were collected during the functional behavioral assessment phase of the study. Interview data from B.G.'s general education classroom teacher were collected before observation using the Functional Assessment Checklist for Teachers and Staff (FACTS; March et al., 2000). The FACTS has strong test-retest reliability, interobserver agreement, convergent validity with direct observation, and experimental functional analyses. It has also been effective in planning interventions and has evidence of social validity (McIntosh et al., 2008). The primary author conducted the FACTS interview.

Direct observation data were collected by the lead author using the Functional Behavior Assessment Observation and Summary Form (FBA-OSF; Filter & Alvarez, 2012). The FBA-OSF is a direct observation form for recording the antecedents, behaviors, and consequences of behavior and is based on the Functional Assessment Observation Form (O'Neill et al., 1997). For each incident of behavior observed, the observer records the particular behavior observed as well as its antecedents and perceived consequences.

Preliminary Results

The FACTS interview for B.G. indicated that his problem behaviors were most likely to occur during reading time. Results showed that B.G.'s problem behaviors were getting out of his seat and not following directions. Antecedents identified included group instruction and independent reading during reading time. Consequences identified were adult attention in the form of teacher verbal reprimand and/or verbal redirection. On a scale of one to six with one meaning that the teacher was not very confident and six meaning that the teacher was very confident, the teacher reported a confidence level of five, thereby indicating that she was confident that this summary of the problem behavior, antecedents, and consequences was accurate based on her experience.

Results from the FBA-OSF indicated the following antecedents: task level (difficult, easy, and/or long), class activity (seatwork, teacher-led instruction, or unstructured time), and interactions (with adults, with peer[s], or alone with no attention). Consequences observed include positive reinforcers (obtain adult attention, obtain peer attention, obtain task/activity, or obtain tangible) and negative reinforcers (escape adult attention, escape peer attention, escape task/activity, or escape tangible).

During the observation in the regular classroom during reading time, B.G. was observed getting out of his seat and not following directions six times. Four of the six behavior incidents were associated with obtaining adult attention and two of the behavior incidents were associated with obtaining peer attention. There were no differences observed between the two behaviors in terms of consequences so they were determined to be part of the same response class, which will be referred to henceforth as "off task." The pattern of antecedents was not consistent, with behavior occurring during seatwork (four times), teacher-led instruction (two times), and unstructured time (one time; note: one incident occurred during teacher-led instruction and unstructured time) as well as alone (four incidents) and while interacting with peers (two times).

Since the intervention focused on the manipulation of reinforcers using NCR, it was determined that enough was known about the reinforcer (teacher attention). Therefore, the function of the behavior was confirmed through the FACTS, FBA-OSF and classroom observation, and was determined to be attention-maintained by the teacher. All of the information provided was deemed substantial enough to be able to develop an effective NCR intervention during the problem routine (reading time).

Intervention

A rapidly alternating A-B-A-B design was implemented wherein the NCR intervention and baseline were each implemented within a short interval of time. Baseline or NCR were observed consecutively every day that observations took place. For example, on one day, baseline was implemented for 10 minutes, a five-minute waiting
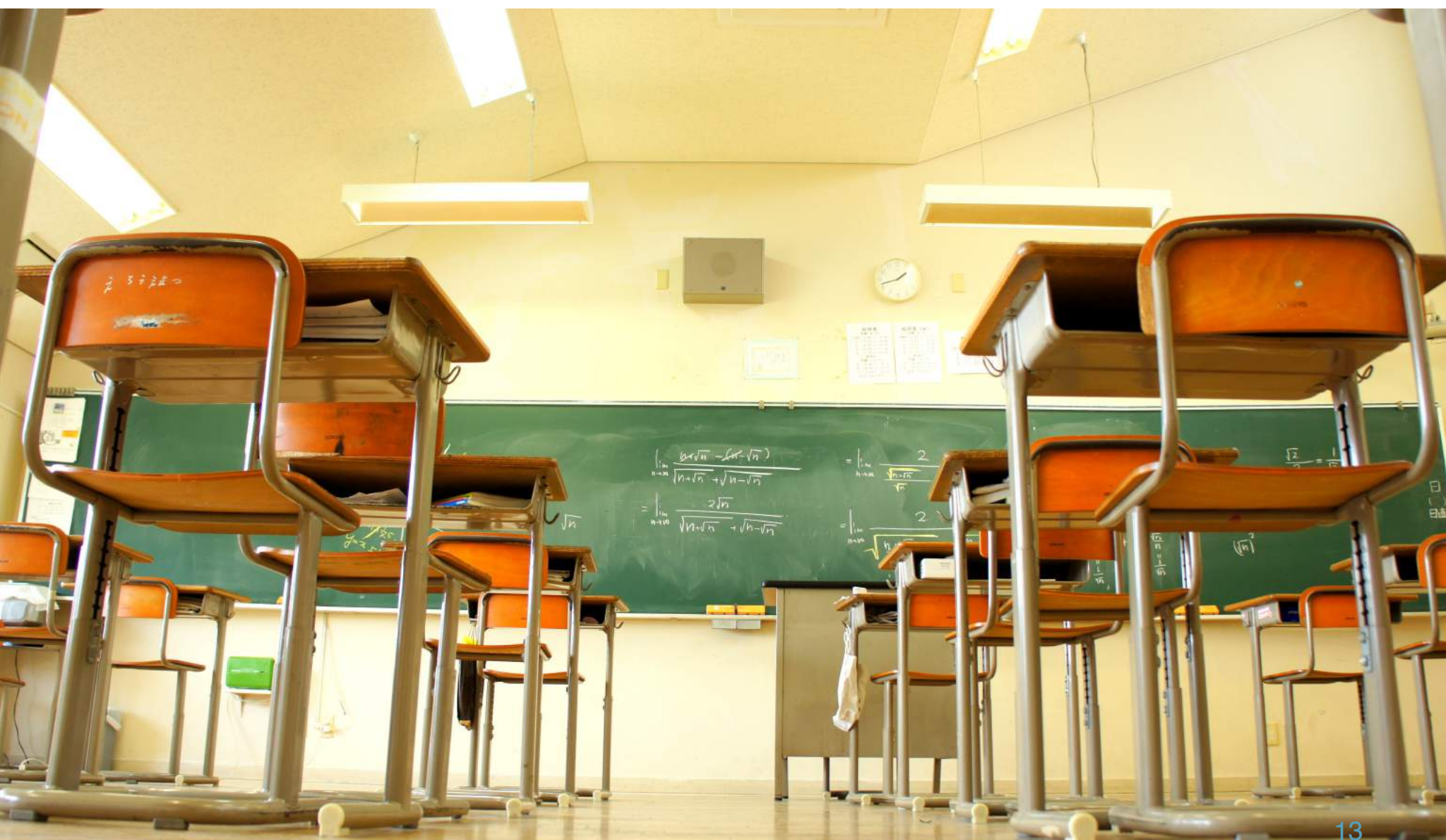
period began, and NCR was implemented for the next 10 minutes. On another day, NCR was implemented to start the observation for 10 minutes, the intervention was discontinued for at least five minutes, and baseline (no intervention presented) was be implemented for 10 minutes. A schedule of whether baseline or NCR would be implemented first, was decided upon prior to observing the student, using a randomized schedule. The number of intervention sessions were not predetermined.

Measurement

The Direct Observation Progress Monitoring System (DOPMS; Filter & Alvarez, 2012) was used to measure off task behavior during the baseline and intervention phases of the study. The DOPMS is designed to record occurrences of behavior via momentary time sampling using 10-second intervals collected during 10-minute intervals. Observers were one graduate student in a school psychology program and one undergraduate psychology student. Both observers had been trained in the observation technique and were familiar with the observation recording instrument. Inter-observer agreement was collected during 38.5% of the observations and ranged from 89-100% with a mean of 95.8% using the total agreement formula of intervals with agreement divided by total intervals and multiplied by 100.

A checklist was also formulated and scored to assess the fidelity of the intervention carried out by the general education teacher. After each observation session, the researchers rated the implementation of three intervention components, each on a scale of zero to two (0 = not observed, 1 = somewhat observed, 2 = fully observed). Intervention components measured included (a) appropriate reinforcement delivered (in this case positive attention) and that (b) the reinforcement was consistently delivered. A second observer rated implementation fidelity for 30% of intervention sessions and inter-rater agreement for implementation fidelity was 100%. Observations of intervention fidelity indicate that the NCR intervention was implemented at a mean of 95% fidelity with a range of 83.33% to 100% for each session.

Procedure

Depending on the schedule of the alternating treatments, the observer(s) would either begin baseline data collection once the reading time had started for 10 minutes when there was no NCR implemented, or quickly meet with the general education teacher before class to set up the vibrating beeper when NCR was to be administered first. It was decided by the researcher and the teacher that teacher attention (the functional reinforcing stimulus identified during the FBA) would be given every two minutes during the intervention sessions, thereby creating a two-minute fixed-time schedule. This was based on the information that the researcher had collected from the FBA-OSF, information that the teacher had given the researcher about the frequency of B.G.'s behavior, and also the feasibility that the teacher felt was appropriate in the classroom. A timing device was given to the teacher and was pre-set to vibrate every two minutes. It continuously vibrated until a specific button was pushed. Even though the beeper would signal every two minutes and continue to vibrate, it would automatically continue on to the following two-minute interval regardless of whether the button was pushed. Therefore, the observation schedule would not be upset by less frequent NCR administration. The teacher was trained with the vibrating timer prior to the start of the intervention phase of the study.

While NCR was being implemented and the timer began vibrating, the teacher pressed a timer button to stop the vibrating and gave B.G. brief attention in the form of neutral, task-related comments that lasted no longer than five seconds. For example, if the student was reading independently, the teacher would comment, "You sure seem to enjoy your book." The timer continued to vibrate every two minutes and the teacher was instructed to ignore any other behavior that B.G. demonstrated during the 10 minutes that the intervention was implemented. During baseline, the teacher was instructed to continue to teach as she would any other time. The fidelity checklist was completed by the observers after each completed intervention session. Feedback was given to the teacher at the beginning of the next observation session if one of the areas of fidelity assessed was less than 100%.
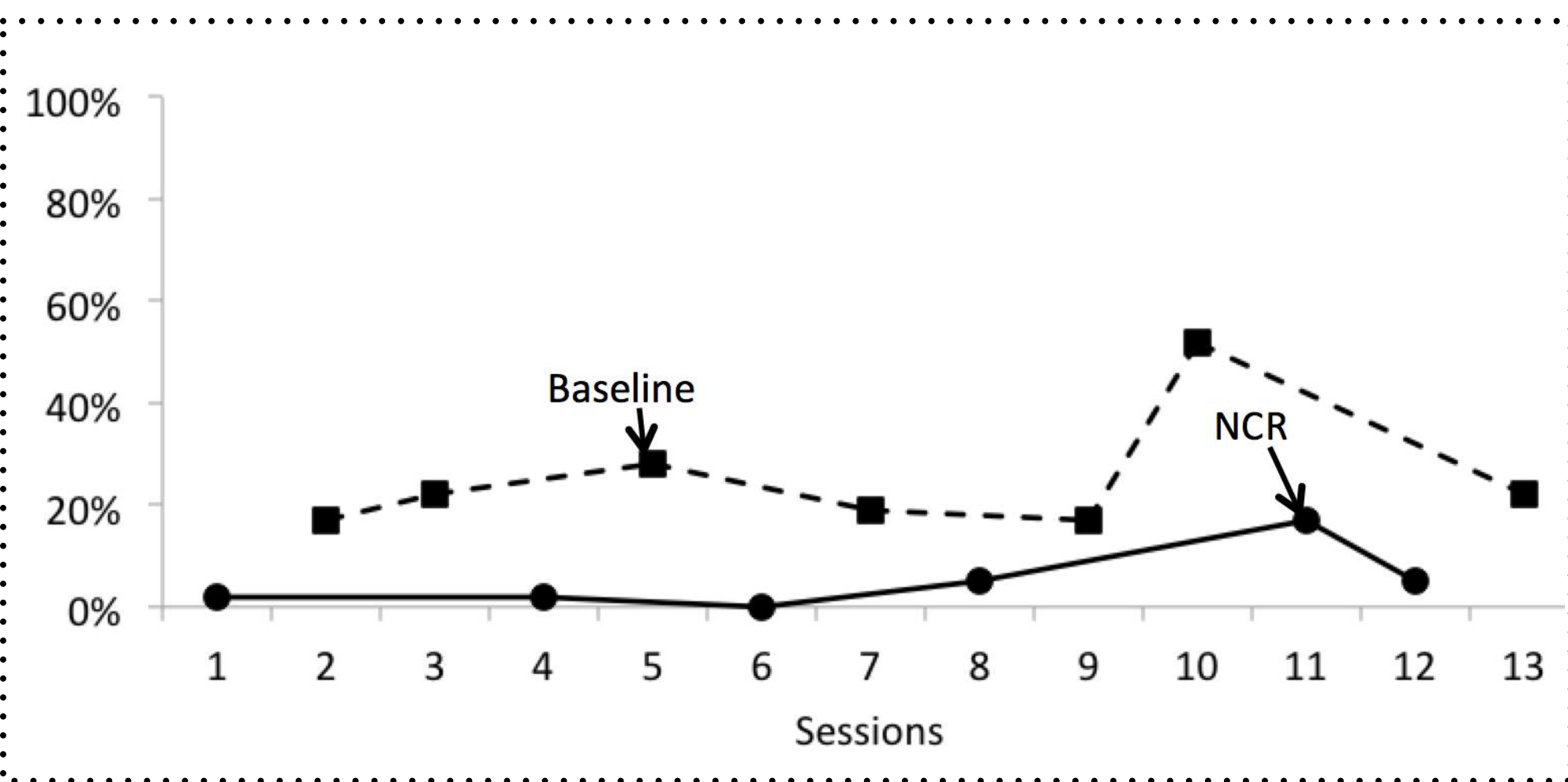
Figure 1. Percentage of intervals with off task behavior for B.G. during NCR intervention and baseline within an alternative treatment design.

Results

There were 13 completed sessions, seven of which were baseline sessions and six of which were NCR intervention sessions. The reason for the unequal numbers of sessions across the two conditions was that there was one day during which only a baseline observation was conducted before the class transitioned to a non-reading activity in another setting.

Results are presented in Figure 1. The mean percentage of intervals with problem behavior during baseline was 27% with a range of 17% to 52%. The mean percentage of intervals with problem behavior during NCR intervention was 5% with a range of 0% to 17%. On each individual day, the level of problem behavior was higher during baseline than it was during NCR intervention. There was one session of NCR intervention (session 11, which was 17%) that was equal in level to one session of baseline (session 9, which was also 17%). Therefore, there were five data points out of six data points during intervention that did not overlap with baseline data points. This percentage of non-overlapping data points of 83.3% indicates a moderate effect size (Scruggs, Mastropieri, Cook, & Escobar, 1986).

Discussion

The present study demonstrated that NCR can be implemented with fidelity in a general education setting and that it can be effective in reducing the problem behavior of a student without disabilities. The study obtained an overall fidelity of implementation of 95% and B.G.'s teacher was able to provide neutral attention, the reinforcer that maintained his problem behavior, noncontingently in two-minute

intervals. The NCR intervention was effective in reducing the student's behavior from an average of 27% of intervals to an average of 5% of intervals. The present study is unique, regarding the rapid alternating treatment design, whereas other NCR studies often utilize an A-B-A-B design. On each day that the NCR intervention was implemented, it led to lower problem behavior than baseline, regardless of the order of implementation of the two conditions. While the present study aimed to provide the student with a reinforcer (attention) that did not produce superfluous effects, it is limited in its capacity to extend the NCR literature to other functions of behavior in the general education setting.

There are many questions yet to be addressed in school-based applications for students without disabilities that are being explored in the broader literature. For example, is NCR more effective when paired with other behavioral interventions (Buckley, Strunck, & Newchok, 2005; Mildon, Moore, & Dixon, 2006)? How long do the positive effects persist after NCR is discontinued (Hagopian, Crockett, VanStone, DeLeon, & Bowman, 2000; Kahng et al., 2000b)? What is the best schedule for delivering reinforcers (Carr et al. 2009)? Although the present study, taken in context with the existing literature, lends to a broader application of NCR, there is a need to answer many more questions as NCR begins to proliferate in general education settings.

The potential for NCR within a function-based and prevention-oriented approach to school behavioral services, such as positive behavior interventions and supports, is substantial. Given this fit with positive behavior support, the efficiency of NCR relative to many other school-based behavioral interventions (Carr et al., 2000) and NCR's effectiveness in supporting a wide-range of behavior functions with minimal adaptations between the functions (Hanley, Piazza, & Fischer, 1997; Kodak, Miltenberger, & Romaniuk, 2003; Lindberg, Iwata, Roscoe, Worsdell, Hanley, 2003), it is important to expand our knowledge of NCR in typical school-based settings for a wide range of students and behaviors. Although studies have indicated that NCR can be used to remediate diverse behaviors

maintained by various functions of behavior, further research is required to determine if these studies could be generalized to the general education setting. Therefore, future studies are encouraged to replicate the NCR interventions with more students in general education settings and to explore the potential for NCR to be utilized to manage behaviors related to various functions.

References

Austin, J. L., & Soeda, J. M. (2008). Fixed-time teacher attention to decrease off-task behaviors of typically-developing third graders. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 41,* 279-283.

Banda, D. R., & Sokolosky, S. (2012). Effectiveness of noncontingent attention to decrease attention-maintained disruptive behaviors in the general education classroom. *Child and Family Behavior Therapy, 34,* 130-140.

Buchanan, J. A., & Fisher, J. E. (2002). Functional assessment and noncontingent reinforcement in the treatment of disruptive vocalization in elderly dementia patients. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 35(1),* 99-103.

Buckley, S. D., Strunck, P. G., & Newchok, D. K. (2005). A comparison of two multicomponent procedures to increase food consumption. *Behavioral Interventions, 20,* 139-146.

Carr, J. E., Coriaty, S., Wilder, D. A., Gaunt, B. T., Dozier, C. L., Britton, L. N., Avina, C., & Reed, C. L. (2000). A review of noncontingent reinforcement as treatment for the aberrant behavior of individuals with developmental disabilities. *Research in Developmental Disabilities, 21,* 377-391.

Carr, J. E., Severtson, J. M., & Lepper, T. L. (2009). Noncontingent reinforcement is an empirically supported treatment for problem behavior exhibited by individuals with developmental disabilities. *Research in Developmental Disabilities, 30,* 44-57.

Falcomata, T. S., & Gainey, S. (2014). An evaluation of noncontingent reinforcement for the treatment of challenging behavior with multiple functions. *Journal of Developmental and Physical Disabilities, 26,* 317-324.

Filter, K. J., & Alvarez, M. E. (2012). *Functional behavioral assessment: A three-tiered prevention model.* New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Hagopian, L. P., Crockett, J. L., Van Stone, M., DeLeon, I. G., & Bowman, L. G. (2000). Effects of noncontingent reinforcement on problem behavior and stimulus engagement: The role of satiation, extinction, and alternative reinforcement. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 33,* 433-449.

Hagopian, L. P, Fisher, W. W, & Legacy, S. M. (1994). Schedule effects of noncontingent reinforcement on attention-maintained destructive behavior in identical quadruplets. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 27,* 317–325.

Hanley, G. P., Piazza, C. C., & Fisher, W. W. (1997). Noncontingent presentation of attention and alternative stimuli in the treatment of attention-maintained destructive behavior. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 30,* 229-237.

Jones, K. M., Drew, H. A., & Weber, N. L. (2000). Noncontingent peer attention as a treatment for disruptive classroom behavior. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 33,* 343-346.

Kahng, S., Iwata, B. A., Thompson, R. H., & Hanley, G. P. (2000). A method for identifying satiation versus extinction effects under noncontingent reinforcement schedules. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 33,* 419-432.

Kahng, S., Iwata, B.A, DeLeon, I.J., & Wallace, M.D. (2000). A comparison of procedures for

programming noncontingent reinforcement. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 33,* 433-449.

Kodak, T., Miltenberger, R. G., & Romaniuk, C. (2003). A comparison of differential reinforcement and noncontingent reinforcement for the treatment of a child's multiply controlled problem behavior. *Behavioral Interventions, 18,* 267-378.

Lindberg, J. S., Iwata, B. A., Roscoe, E. M., Worsdell, A. S. Hanley, G. P. (2003). Treatment efficacy of noncontingent reinforcement during brief and extended application. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 36,* 1-19.

March, R. E., Horner, R. H., Lewis-Palmer, T., Brown, D., Crone, D., Todd, A.W., & Carr, E.

(2000). *Functional assessment checklist for teachers and staff.* Eugene, OR: Educational and Community Supports.

Mildon, R. L., & Moore, D.W. (2004). Combining noncontingent escape and functional communication training as a treatment for negatively reinforced disruptive behavior. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions, 6,* 92-102.

Nolan, J., & Filter, K. J. (2012). A Function-based Classroom Behavior Intervention Using Non-contingent Reinforcement plus Response Cost. *Education and Treatment of Children, 35,* 419-430.

O'Neil, R. E., Horner, R. H., Albin, R. W., Sprague, J. R., Storey, K., & Newton, J. S. (1997). *Functional assessment and program development for problem behavior: A practical handbook (2nd Ed.).* Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks Cole Publishing.

Rasmussen, K., & O'Neill, R. E. (2006). The effect of fixed-time reinforcement schedules on problem behavior of children with emotional and behavioral disorders in a day treatment classroom setting. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 39,* 453-457.

Ringdahl, J. E. (2005). Noncontingent reinforcement and the acquisition of appropriate behavior. *European Journal of Behavior Analysis, 6,* 51-55.

Scott, T. M., & Eber, L. (2003). Functional Assessment and Wraparound as Systemic School Processes : Primary, Secondary, and Tertiary Systems Examples. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions, 5,* 131-143.

Vollmer, T. R., Iwata, B. A., Zarcone, J. R., Smith, R. G., & Mazaleski, J. L. (1993). The role of attention in the treatment of attention-maintained self-injurious behavior: Noncontingent reinforcement and differential reinforcement of other behavior. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 26,* 9-21.

Vollmer, T. R., Marcus, B. A., & Ringdahl, J. E. (1995). Noncontingent escape as treatment for self injurious behavior maintained by negative reinforcement. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 28,* 15-26.

CONSIDERATION OF GENDER IN SUPPORTING SCHOOL ACCULTURATION

By Arielle B. Mottes & Tara C. Raines
University of Denver

School Psychology, as a profession, is committed to serving children and families using culturally responsive practices. It is believed that these practices both honor the culture of origin and support healthy acculturation into the mainstream U.S. culture with the aim of supporting optimal educational and mental health development. However, in reviewing the research and literature that help support school psychologists in the promotion of these practices, it is apparent that gender is fundamentally ignored. This conceptualization yields two primary concerns: 1) the principles are based on White western perspectives of gender equity and 2) additional acculturative stress is placed on students depending on their gender and culture. Although school psychologists are trained to be culturally competent, inadequate consideration of the impact that diverse gender roles have on acculturation question the efficacy of culturally responsive interventions and socio-emotional supports. This paper is a call to research encouraging

scholars to assist in the identification of best practices for considering gender when supporting acculturation.

Best practices in supporting students from diverse backgrounds require practitioners to self-reflect on personal culture, beliefs, and values, so that personal biases may be confronted. However, outside of the context of supporting students who identify beyond the gender binary (and this is recent), navigating gender roles is not explicitly addressed in the training of cultural competence. This is discouraging because 74% of school psychologists identify as female and 92.6% as White (Curtis, Lopez, Castillo, Batsche, Minch, & Smith, 2008). The conversation surrounding gender equity, which is often generalized to include women worldwide, has been developed through a lens of values and perspectives primarily held by White western women. White western ideals of gender equity have insinuated majority U.S. culture, and as a result become part of the dominant culture in U.S. schools. Mainstream feminist perspective does not adequately incorporate the viewpoints of women of color (Bruns, 2010). Research in the area of minority perspectives within feminist ideologies is lacking; hence, school psychologists, who are by majority White and female, have limited research and resources to use in their quest to incorporate a diverse feminist perspective into their practice.

Academic Achievement and Acculturation

The newcomer experience in the U.S. varies greatly depending on how and under what circumstances newcomers leave their home countries. Newcomer families often flee their home countries to escape persecution due to war or discrimination. The migration process requires planning and could take many years (Welcoming Center for New Pennsylvanians, 2004). Sometimes children arrive to the U.S. alone and have had little to no education. School psychologists support newcomer students by recognizing that migration can be a stressful process experienced differently by all persons.

The various stages of acculturation and the many ways students identify is acknowledged by school psychologists, especially in their work with newcomer students and their families who experience much transition during and after their migration. Acculturation is a multifaceted paradox where newcomers accept or reject aspects of the dominant culture and maintain or reject aspects of their original culture (Cabassa, 2003). It is common for family members to be in different stages of acculturation and a family member's phase of acculturation may influence a student's self-identification in a variety of ways; contributing to a student's level of comfort in their acculturative identity (Cabassa, 2003). Acculturation may influence a family's willingness to work with school psychologists, who are often viewed as being a part of the majority culture.

Colón and Sánchez (2010) point out the inconsistencies found in studies surrounding acculturation and academic achievement due to the diverse conceptualizations of acculturation. Colón & Sánchez specifically criticize

researchers who view acculturation as a linear process, where adopting characteristics from the dominant culture yields a loss of characteristics of the original culture (Colón & Sánchez, 2010, p. 254). Colón and Sánchez's (2010) study examines how multiple domains affect academic achievement. Of the one hundred forty-three 12th grade Latino student participants in this study, 74 are girls, 69 are boys and 85% of all participants are from low-income families (Colón & Sánchez, 2010). According to Colón and Sanchez, language, knowledge, and values are the areas that reflect a student's level of acculturation. Colón and Sánchez (2010) find that females' maintenance of their Latina culture serves their academic success compared to their male counterparts (2010, p. 270). Acculturation is measured by *The Cultural Identity Scale for Latino Adolescents*, a 35 item survey with subscales measuring Spanish language preference, language proficiency, romantic relationship preferences (White or Latino), familiarity with American and/or Latino culture, students' participation in activities associated with Latino culture, perceived discrimination, attitudes and behaviors toward gender equality, and the traditional Latino value of respecting elders (Colón & Sánchez, 2010). Female participants report higher levels of attitudes for gender equality and greater Spanish preference and proficiency than their male counterparts.

These results indicate that strong cultural ties to one's country of origin promote female academic success; however, Colón and Sánchez only use GPA and attendance as guides to describing academic success. Academic success, "is accompanied by feelings of confidence, control, and ease" (Skelton, 2010, p. 140). By failing to measure levels of confidence, Colón and Sánchez do not address the level of empowerment experienced by the females in their study. Their study gives a plethora of information regarding their 17-year-old participant group, however, without studying other age groups (older and younger), the study reveals no information about the change of acculturative identity from one generation to the next. Hence, in order for practitioners to truly understand the relationship between gender, acculturation, and academic success, there is a dire need for further investigation on this topic.

Additional findings highlight that families who move to the U.S. from developing countries monitor the behavior and activities of their daughters more than their sons (Quin, 2006). Increased family involvement for immigrant girls is a leading factor for their high academic achievement compared to that of immigrant boys (Quin, 2006). Gibson's (1991) research with West Indian immigrants shows that boys display masculinity by defying against school order. Girls, on the other hand, uphold their femininity by doing well in school. There is a stated connection between academic achievement and acculturation in the current body of research. More extensive knowledge on exactly how the two intersect is an area for future research.

Why Considering Gender is Important to Cultural Competence

As the U.S. school population becomes increasingly diverse, the need for school psychologists to understand how their personal biases impact their work with students from multicultural backgrounds has become imperative (Kearns, Ford, & Brown, 2002). School psychology graduate programs across the country train students to become culturally competent in order to understand minority identity development, multicultural perspectives toward education, and how the culture of the practitioner influences their work with students and families. This intention materializes in the form of diversity course requirements, practicum experiences, and assignments that force future practitioners to work with a diverse student population (Kearns, Ford, & Brown, 2002). Unfortunately, upon reviewing the research and practice of cultural competence training in graduate programs, it is evident that gender is not a pronounced topic in this area of training.

Perhaps one of the reasons for gender's exclusion from cultural competence training is due to the lack of research on how practitioners' gender specific attitudes influence their work with students of multicultural backgrounds. Conceptions of gender and its function are the result of an extensive system of social factors that are interconnected in a variation of cultural and social subsystems (Bussey & Bandura, 1999, p.1). School psychologists are

trained to think about children's development in a culture-specific context and therefore, it is imperative that school psychology programs further investigate the role of gender in becoming culturally competent. In order for school psychologists to consider how children interpret their culture, they must be in touch with their own personal interpretation of culture. The influential relationship between gender and culture causes researchers to ask how the gender-specific attitudes of practitioners might negatively or positively influence their work with a diverse student body.

Uma Narayan (1997), an Indian American feminist, discusses how western White feminism falsely speaks on behalf of women of color. Her multicultural perspective sheds light on how individuals from multicultural backgrounds develop unique personal attitudes toward gender and gender roles. Narayan rejects western feminism's claim as being essential to the creation of feminism in non-western countries. Narayan argues that in an effort to develop culturally inclusive feminism, western White feminists have generalized cultures.

She reasons that The West's attempt to include diverse perspectives is noble but fails to address the significance of giving an account of oneself to bring realism and humility to the discussion of feminism within a global context, an initiative also essential to cultural competence. Narayan contributes a personal narrative to offer perspective to support her beliefs.

Narayan shares accounts of her upbringing to highlight the impact her culture bears in shaping her feminist perspective. Furthermore, she uses this to dispute the assumption that her feminism is based on western feminism. It is the assertion Narayan makes, that for many us, "women in different parts of the world, our relationships to our mothers resemble our relationships to the motherlands of the cultures in which we were raised" (Narayan, 1997, p. 545) that is most profound. The relationship between a female and her mother and mother culture, one that transforms with the shift of distinct generations, is the root of feminist consciousness. In turn, this feminist consciousness not only causes a woman to seek

female empowerment, but also to harbor resentment towards her mother culture to varying degrees (Narayan, 1997). This concept speaks to the idea of individualism within feminism and helps one to understand how such a unique perspective shapes a person's acculturation process.

As students' acculturative identities change, students' feelings toward gender and gender roles are likely to evolve. Narayan's perspective highlights how attributing the majority culture for being the sole force behind such a shift in a student's gender attitude is likely false and may also be insulting. Narayan's development of her own multicultural feminist identity suggests that school psychologists, who are by majority White and female, might attribute their personal culture for the shift in gender attitudes among their students. There is speculation that such personal biases might negatively influence school psychologists' efficacy in working to support students from multicultural backgrounds. When school psychologists enter relationships with their students with an ethnocentric mindset, they risk judging others as "cultural dopes;" people who follow their culture's customs and categories without thinking things through independently (Magnusson & Marecek, 2012, p. 34). Such judgment obstructs the progress made by school psychologists in areas of social justice and advocacy. It is imperative that the field of school psychology further investigate whether or not practitioners are generalizing gender identity development and culturally specific gender attitudes, and how such practices might influence their work with students.

Implications for Ignoring Gender through Acculturation

The 2015 "Global Gender Gap Report" (World Economic Forum, 2015), which looks at four factors: health, education, economy, and politics, rates the U.S. number 28 amongst world nations. Western countries representative of the ethnocentric, generalized feminist perspective disputed by Narayan above, such as the U.S., Canada, and the United Kingdom, are rated lower than Rwanda and Nicaragua. It should be noted that the World Economic Forum Report does not account for abuse and rape, issues that women

face disproportionally. Despite this shortcoming, the study calls upon the U.S. and other Western countries to discuss gender inequity and consider looking toward other countries and cultures for support. History has shown us time and again, that issues that are not dealt with nor discussed make little progress. So why then, are schools not discussing gender outside of Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual ,Transgender, and Questioning (LGBTQ+) issues? Gender is an important discussion to the LGBTQ+ community and to students who lie outside this group.

Further research and development of feminist literature specifically in the field of school psychology would better prepare practitioners to address gender-related issues in school. Christine Skelton (2010), a British researcher of gender education, explains how multiple definitions of feminism have contradicted one another and that many theorists do not write in a language that is easily accessible and useful to educators, causing educators to rely heavily on their "own personal knowledge and understanding of gender" (Skelton, 2010, p. 139). Skelton's (2010) study found that girls attenuated their abilities due to a fear of being disliked for their level of achievement. Skelton presents excerpts from interviews to reveal girls' priority for preserving their femininity over success, their perception of teachers as authority figures who validate their success, and girls as being less likely to argue with teachers. These interviews bring great insight to how girls may downplay their intelligence to be well liked. However, Skelton's decision to indicate interviewees' backgrounds sometimes but not always, paints a picture of her demographic as being primarily white, and coming from working or middle class families. Skelton's inability to clearly present diverse viewpoints gives her argument less validity in being applicable to the general public and cause researchers to want to explore the intersection of gender and achievement further to understand how this relationship differs across cultures.

In many minority families, the values for women may be in direct conflict with those of White western values. For example, in some Latino cultures, families may feel their daughters' rite of passage into adulthood is to get married and have

> "School psychologists, who offer services to an increasingly diverse U.S. student population, are trained to consider culture in every component of their work. School psychologists, who by majority are also female, should be urged to consider gender as a foundational component of culture"

children (Ginorio & Huston, 2001). However, U.S. gender equality culture tells women that they should not get married or have children until after high school and college, when they have had time to be independent and explore personal interests. Latina girls are then left to filter through multiple viewpoints and decipher how they can integrate all or choose one. This process adds stress to the student and will likely lead to them feel judged or unaccepted by one of the cultures. It is important, then, for schools to not engage in such subtle discrimination. Forcing the majority culture on students who are multicultural is never acceptable, especially when referring to an individual's right to develop their own gender expectations. Again, there is a dire need for the field of school psychology to conduct research on how practitioners are integrating their personal gender-specific attitudes into their work with students and its impact.

Future Directions for School Psychologists

The U.S. has made tremendous strides in some areas of gender equity, but there is still much progress to be made. School psychologists, who offer services to an increasingly diverse U.S. student population, are trained to consider culture in every component of their work. School psychologists, who by majority are also female, should be urged to consider gender as a foundational component of culture. It is vital that school psychologists conduct research on how practitioners can best serve students while maintaining an awareness of gender roles in their quest to become culturally competent.

The studies discussed above, which focus on acculturation, gender, and achievement, cause one to conclude that individual attitudes toward gender vary. The assumption that all attitudes toward gender are based on western ideas may cause culturally diverse populations, wanting to uphold their mother-culture and traditions, to reject western notions of gender because it is associated with the majority culture (Narayan, 1997). The scarcity of research on this topic allows for much speculation and hypothesis rather than evidenced-based data; further research is necessary to gain a deeper and more accurate understanding.

Recommendations

While scholars are embarking on research in this nascent field, practitioners and training programs should consider the following recommendations in their quest to consider gender while seeking cultural competence:

- *Incorporate gender from diverse perspectives into graduate school training.* This can be done by including literature and experiences from scholars who study the gender experiences of different cultural

groups. It is important that training programs attempt to expose future school psychologists with ample opportunity to critically review multiple viewpoints and opinions of gender roles across cultures.

- *Engage in reflective practices to become aware of personal gender attitude biases.* As previously stated, self-reflection and knowledge of your own biases is a vital component of the quest to become culturally competent. It is important that school psychologists, trainers, and students become familiar with diverse attitudes and beliefs about gender and gender roles, and understand how they align with their personal values and biases. This self-awareness will assist in navigating interactions with students and families who may have different expectations. As school psychologists we must be sure to steer clear of assuming gender roles based on cultural essentialism

- *Ask students and their families how they perceive gender roles to gain a deeper understanding of their expectations and values.* In addition to exploring gender through scholarly mechanisms, it is important that school psychology students and practitioners remember that every family is unique within a larger cultural context. Therefore, explicitly asking if there are any gender related expectations and values is critical to understanding the needs of the child and family to promote the development of culturally responsive interventions.

References

Bruns, C. M. (2010). Feminism and feminist therapy across generations. *Women & Therapy, 34*(1-2), 19-37.

Bussey, K., & Bandura, A. (1999). Social cognitive theory of gender development and differentiation. *Psychological Review, 106*(4), 676-713. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.106.4.676

Colón, Y., & Sánchez, B. (2010). Explaining the gender disparity in Latino youth's education:
Acculturation and economic value of education. *Urban Education 45*(3), 252-273. doi:10.1177/0042085908322688

Curtis, M. J., Lopez, A. D., Castillo, J. M., Batsche, G. M., Minch, D., & Smith, J. C. (2008). The status of school psychology: Demographic characteristics, employment conditions, professional practices, and continuing professional development. *Communiqué, 36*, 27-29.

Gibson, M. A. (1993). Variability in immigrant students' school performance: The U.S. case. *Division G. Newsletter, American Educational Research Association.* Washington, DC.

Ginorio, A., Huston, M. (2001). *¡Sí, se puede! Yes, we can: Latinas in schools.* Washington, DC: American Association of University Women Educational Forum.

Kearns, T., Ford, L., & Brown, K. (2002). Multicultural training in doctoral school psychology programs: In search of the model program (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 465930). Columbia, SC: University of South Carolina.

Magnusson, E, & Marecek, J. (2012). *Gender and culture in psychology.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Narayan, U. (1997) Dislocating cultures: Identities, traditions, and third world feminism. (pp. 525-537). New York, NY: Routledge.

Skelton, C. (2010). Gender and achievement: are girls the "success stories" of restructured education systems? *Educational Review, 62*(2), 131-142. doi:10.1080/00131910903469536 Welcoming Center for New Pennsylvanians. (2004). *Immigrant Philadelphia: From cobblestone streets to Korean soap operas.* Philadelphia, PA: Author.

World Economic Forum (2015). *The global gender gap report 2015.* Geneva, CH: World Economic Forum. Retrieved from http://www3.weforum.org/docs/GGGR2015/cover.pdf

PROFESSORS IN PRIVATE PRACTICE: RECOMMENDATIONS FOR A SUCCESSFUL PRACTICE AS A FACULTY MEMBER

By Jessica S. Reinhardt (Emerge, Denver CO)
& Anisa N. Goforth (University of Montana-Missoula)

Introduction to the Series

Participation in private practice is a growing area of importance for faculty members in school psychology. Although few data exist related to the number of faculty members in school psychology who also have a private practice, the American Psychological Association (APA) indicated that the largest proportion (41%) of school psychologists who are licensed reported being employed in individual private practice (Finno, Michalski, Hart, Wicherski, & Kohout, 2010). An additional 16% were employed in a group psychological practice.

It is likely that among this proportion of school psychologists in independent practice are also faculty members who choose to provide assessment, treatment and consultation to children and their families. Anecdotally, there are a number of colleagues in various stages of their career who choose to maintain a practice in addition to having full-time or part-time positions as faculty members in school psychology training programs. That is, they are maintaining their responsibilities in academia through teaching, research and service, while also establishing themselves as independent practitioners who provide direct services within their communities.

This new series seeks to explore topics related to providing school psychological services in private practice, with a particular emphasis on issues and challenges for early career faculty members in school psychology. In this series, topics will cover ethical and professional challenges, issues in specialization in practice, advantages and disadvantages of starting a private practice, insurance-related issues, and supervision. In this introduction to the series, however, we will first provide the basics of starting a practice. Of course, each context, experience, and professional training is different, yet we provide here some basic considerations in starting a practice as a faculty member.

Starting Your Private Practice: Basic Considerations

Developing a business plan.

Although many faculty members have obtained an advanced degree in school psychology, few have obtained an advanced degree in business. Thus, one of the biggest challenges is developing a strong business plan that aligns with the goals of one's practice. Pope and Vasquez (2005) recommend that a business plan should include one's financial goals, as well as consider a number of business expenses such as but not limited to professional license, liability insurance, office rent, utilities, and psychological test kits.

Bargeen (2014) recommends seeking a financial advisor to assist in developing a strong business plan. He recommends interviewing potential financial advisors and soliciting recommendations from other psychologists who have been successful, and who may specialize in healthcare or non-profit work. Recognizing that as a professor time is limited, Bor and Stokes (2010) also suggest that hiring an accountant or financial planner may save money long term. Indeed, a financial advisor may be particularly helpful to faculty members, as they may have less time or resources dedicated to developing a business plan and likely will not be able to provide direct services full-time.

Office and location.

Finding a safe, inviting, comfortable space for working with children and families is essential. Bargeen recommends seeking an office space that does not have significant overhead expenses (e.g., rent, internet costs) as well as finding a location that does not have too many other psychologists. Furthermore, he recommends having a functional office space, with a good waiting room and appropriate lighting. Similarly, both Pope and Vasquez and Bor and Stokes, suggest considering whether the space is accessible for individuals with disabilities as well as considering whether the office space has good soundproofing.

Faculty members in school psychology may want to consider renting space from the university clinic or collaborating with colleagues to help reduce both start-up and long-term costs. At the University of Montana, for example, faculty members in school and clinical psychology have arranged to rent space in the clinic to see their private clients. Rent can be expensive in the community and this option is more reasonably priced. Furthermore, faculty members can easily see a client and then return immediately to their regular duties (the clinic is located next to the school psychology program building). Alternatively, faculty from multiple psychology

programs in Denver, Colorado share a rented space, alternating evenings in which they utilize the office. Bor and Stokes put forth that sharing a space offers other benefits besides reducing overhead costs including but not limited to consultation, increased referrals, and reputation. Another recommendation is to select a location within a business in a related field such as a pediatrician or a community tutor. In each of these scenarios, costs are substantially reduced, making it possible for faculty members to have space for independent practice.

Finding clients and referral sources.

The primary purpose of establishing an independent practice is, of course, to provide school psychological services to children and families. In some communities, finding clients may be easy; in other communities where there is an oversaturation of psychologists, finding clients may be very challenging. For example, an APA (2016) report showed that the Mountain division of the United States (which includes Montana and Colorado) had a mean of 21.6 licensed psychologists per county, while the New England division had 130.1 psychologists per county. Thus, understanding the context and community is crucial when considering whether to open a practice.

Pope and Vasquez provide a number of recommendations for finding clients and referral sources. They suggest that having one's practice in the telephone book or online can cultivate referrals. They also suggest

preparing a brochure that highlights one's practice, practice specialization (e.g., psychological assessment of children), philosophy of treatment, and contact information. The pros and cons of practice specialization will be discussed in a future installment. They also suggest participating actively in the community to better understand the issues within that community. Introducing oneself to referral sources (e.g., physicians) and hiring someone to create a professional website are also strategies to increase client referrals. Bor and Stokes discuss professional partnerships with related fields (medical, educational, etc.) as an excellent source of referrals. Faculty members in school psychology may have an advantage in seeking client referrals because they may already have had contact with the schools through their students' practica or internships. Faculty members, however, also have to consider the implications of taking clients from schools in which their students or field-based supervisors may work (we will discuss the ethical and professional challenges associated with this in a future installment in the series).

Other considerations.

In addition to establishing a business plan, obtaining office space, and getting client referrals, there are a number of other considerations. Bailey (2003) highlights that when establishing independent practice, one should consider the rules that govern practice in that state, consider managed-care options, and consider a billing service. Furthermore, Bargeen (2014) also suggests hiring psychology assistants (e.g., psychodiagnosticians, psychometricians) to assist in increasing the volume of work. Faculty members in school psychology should also consider whether they are able to see their clients after the regular school-day, and whether this may conflict with their teaching or administrative responsibilities. In other words, they may need to consider whether they are able to see children or their families

when their schedules only allow them to practice after 6pm or on weekends.

Looking Ahead

Given the breadth of issues involved in pursuing an independent practice as a faculty member, this series will cover specific issues in more depth. The next installment of *Professors in Private Practice* will address issues related to managed-care and insurance panels, as these subjects are frequently raised by early career faculty in independent practice. Future installments will address other critical topics unique to faculty in private practice.

Additional Resources

• American Psychological Association Practice Organization has a number of helpful resources for establishing an independent practice, including information about reimbursement rates and legislative advocacy. It requires an additional membership. http://www.apapracticecentral.org/about/index.aspx
• Bargeen, O. J. (2014). *Starting a successful practice in clinical psychology and counseling: A guide for students in psychology and new career psychologists.* New York, NY: Routledge.
• Bor, R & Stokes, A. (2010). *Setting up in independent practice: A handbook for counselors, therapists and psychologists.* New York, NY: Palgrave MacMillan.
• Pope, K. S., & Vasquez, M. J. T. (2005). *How to survive and thrive as a therapist: Information, ideas, and resources for psychologists in practice.* Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association.

References

American Psychological Association. (2016). 2015 County-level analysis of U.S. licensed psychologists and health indicators.
Bailey, D. S. (2003). Buiding an independent practice. *Monitor, 34,* 40.

Bargeen, O. J. (2014). *Starting a successful practice in clinical psychology and counseling: A guide for students in psychology and new career psychologists.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Bor, R. & Stokes, A. (2010). *Setting up in independent practice: A handbook for counselors, therapists and psychologists.* New York, NY: Palgrave MacMillan.
Finno, A. A., Michalski, D., Hart, B., Wicherski, M., & Kohout, J. L. (2010). Salaries in Psychology 2009. In A. P. Association (Ed.). Washington, D.C.

Pope, K. S., & Vasquez, M. J. T. (2005). *How to survive and thrive as a therapist: Information, ideas, and resources for psychologists in practice.* Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association.

REVISITING THE ROLE OF BEHAVIOR ANALYSIS IN SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY SCHOLARSHIP AND PRACTICE

By Rondy Yu
UC Santa Barbara

Few school psychology training programs in the United States provide advanced training in behavior analysis. Whether most programs even offer adequate training in this skill area remains uncertain. Given the important role of behavior analysis in the field of school psychology, its continued emphasis in the training of future school psychologists is worthy of consideration. This article will aim to provide readers with information regarding its significance in school psychology practice and scholarship, as well as its current level of integration in school psychology training programs.

Behavior analysis has played an important role in the history of school psychology, having influenced school psychology research and practice since the formation of the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) in 1969 (Ervin & Ehrhardt, 2000). As a discipline that impacts the full range of activities engaged in by school psychologists, including assessment, evaluation, consultation, intervention, and scholarly research, relatively little attention has been placed on the development of the behavior analytic skills of school psychologists-in-training. Numerous scholars have considered the issue of training in behavior analysis for school psychologists and expressed some level of concern regarding the lack of training experiences provided (Shriver & Watson, 1999; Wilczynski, Thompson, Beatty, & Sterling-Turner, 2002). Following the reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) in 1997, the awareness of its relevance to school psychology seemed to rise along with the increased efforts observed across the nation to move towards implementing function-based behavior supports. Given the law's explicit emphasis on the use of functional assessment and positive behavior support, as well as the increased use of pre-referral intervention teams in schools, it seemed likely that school psychologists would receive further training in behavior analysis to competently engage in these activities. Despite the support in the research literature for the inclusion of graduate coursework and practicum experience in behavior analysis and single-case research design, there is no clear indication that school psychology programs have made any substantial changes to increase graduate students' competency in behavior analysis. In fact, a review of the current literature does not indicate that any significant attention has been paid to this issue since Wilczynski and colleagues last discussed the role of behavior analysis in school psychology in 2002.

In a study conducted by Shriver and Watson (1999), it was reported that school psychologists were generally provided with a single training course on behavior analysis. They concluded that "the amount of didactic and practicum training in behavior analysis does not appear to represent the time commitment needed to adequately prepare school psychologists in the effective application of behavioral technology in the school" (p. 219). This statement seems well-justified given the standards for competency in behavior analysis as delineated by the behavior-analytic community represented by the Behavior Analyst Certification Board, Inc. (BACB). Now, after nearly two decades since Shriver and Watson's survey of behavior analysis training in school psychology programs, a brief review of the current core requirements published online for 14 of 15 NASP-approved school psychology training programs in the state of California indicate that the vast majority of these programs include only a single course that presents content that falls under the umbrella of behavior analysis. Specifically, 12 of the 14 programs include one course dedicated to behavior analysis or assessment of behavior, with the two remaining programs offering two courses in positive behavior supports (PBS). While this is not a comprehensive review of all NASP-approved school psychology programs, these preliminary findings do raise the question of whether any substantial efforts have been made to integrate behavior analysis in the curricula designed to prepare future school psychologists.

As a former school psychology practitioner and behavior analyst in California, I am compelled to share some of my experience in the field as it has profoundly shaped my development as both a practitioner and researcher-in-training, and serves to fuel my motivation for writing this article. Like many others in school psychology programs across the country, I was required to enroll in one course that focused on the functional assessment of behavior. The content of the course provided a basic overview of behavior analysis and included the experience of conducting one functional assessment and developing one behavior intervention plan based on that assessment. While I received additional

experience during my internship with a large school district, I did not have supervisors with any extensive training in behavior analysis. Consequently, my behavior analytic skills remained as they were, limited to what I learned from the one course I completed on functional assessment of behavior and what I was able to find in various books and websites. While I initially believed that my basic training in behavior analysis was sufficient for the professional role I was preparing to assume, it soon became apparent to me that there was much more to learn if I were to become a school psychologist capable of effectively using behavioral technology to support teachers, families, and students. Towards the end of my school psychology internship, I enrolled in additional coursework in behavior analysis and acquired supervision from a behavior analyst to expand my skillset. My purpose for doing so was a response to what I observed to be the needs of the schools I served, despite my lack of initial preference for adopting a behavioral orientation to service delivery. Because school psychologists frequently serve as first-line problem solvers, it appeared logical to pursue additional training in behavior analysis. As I understood it, more training and expertise in behavior analysis would equal greater contributions to early intervention efforts and potentially reduce the risk of inadequate

assessment, treatment, and need for an outside consultant or behavior specialist.

Thus far, the information presented in this article has primarily focused on the implications of training in behavior analysis on school psychology practice. However, the lack of focus on behavior analysis in graduate training programs also affects research in the field of school psychology. As explained by Wilczynski et al. (2002), single-case design methods used in behavior analysis can be employed to provide individualized services for students while also establishing the effectiveness of various intervention services. Although some school psychology researchers continue to publish studies utilizing single-case design, most scholars in the field are not using behavior analytic methods in their studies due to their lack of training in these methods (Wilczynski et al., 2002).

While not every school psychologist needs to be a behavior analyst, it is clear that behavior analysis has a great deal to offer both practitioners and scholars. Behavior analysts have developed an impressive variety of interventions based on the principles of operant conditioning, many of which have been successfully implemented in school settings (Ervin & Ehrhardt, 2000). Furthermore, there is research that supports the need for a sophisticated understanding of behavior analysis to effectively employ and maintain more complex behavioral interventions in schools (Johnston, Foxx, Jacobson, Green, & Mulick, 2006). Thus, school psychologists who are also competent behavior analysts have much to offer as both practitioners and researchers, but they are in short supply. In the words of Sugai and Horner (2016), behavioral technology that can be applied effectively in schools is "large and worthy of study" (p. 209). For more information on the current standards of competency for behavior analysts and graduate programs in behavior analysis housed within and outside of school psychology programs in the United States, please visit the BACB website at bacb.com.

References

Ervin, R. A., & Ehrhardt, K. E. (2000). Behavior analysis and school psychology.

Johnston, J. M., Foxx, R. M., Jacobson, J. W., Green, G., & Mulick, J. A. (2006). Positive behavior support and applied behavior analysis. *Behavior Analyst, 29*(1), 51.

Kratochwill, T. R., & Martens, B. K. (1994). Applied behavior analysis and school psychology. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 27*(1), 3–5. http://doi.org/10.1901/jaba.1994.27-3

Sugai, G., & Horner, R. H. (Eds.). (2016). *Functional Behavioral Assessment: A Special Issue of Exceptionality*. Routledge.

Wilczynski, S. M., Thompson, K. F., Beatty, T. M., & Sterling-Turner, H. E. (2002). The role of behavior analysis in school psychology. *The Behavior Analyst Today, 3*(2), 198.

PEOPLE AND PLACES

Edited By Ara J. Schmitt, PhD
Duquesne University

Dr. Bruce A. Bracken, College of William and Mary, will be receiving the "Legends in School Psychology Award" from the National Association of School Psychologists at the 2017 convention in San Antonio, Texas. This commendation recognizes and honors distinguished contributors to the field of School Psychology, and culminates in the Legends Address.

Dr. Linda Knauss, ABPP, NCSP, received the Philadelphia Society of Clinical Psychologists (PSCP) Psychologist of the Year Award at PSCP's annual event on April 17, 2016.

The School Psychology Doctoral Program at the University of Montana (Missoula, MT) recently received accreditation from the American Psychological Association (APA). The training program is the only one in the state of Montana and is run by the core faculty of **Dr. Greg Machek**, **Dr. Anisa Goforth**, and **Dr. Jacqueline Brown**. The program also includes a Specialist degree course of study, which has been continuously accredited by the National Association of School Psychologists since 1994.

The PsyD School Psychology Program at Duquesne University (Pittsburgh, PA) is pleased to announce that it recently earned accreditation by the American Psychological Association (APA). Duquesne University now provides an APA-accredited PhD School Psychology Program and an APA-accredited PsyD School Psychology Program. Faculty of the programs include **Drs. Laura Crothers, Scott Graves, Tammy Hughes, Mary Pat Jones, Elizabeth McCallum, Kara McGoey, Jeffrey Miller,** and **Ara Schmitt.**

See Yourself & Colleagues Here!

Please send items for next issue's "People & Places" to Ara Schmitt.

Suitable information includes personal accomplishments within the field, such as hires, professional awards, and other recognitions. Similarly, let us know about the accomplishments of your program or institution (e.g., gaining accreditation status). Finally, please let us know about relevant program creations—such as training programs, internship sites, post-doctoral positions, and so forth.

Information that promotes products or services is not suited for "People & Places," but may be shared via Division 16's paid advertising options (please contact Greg Machek for more information).

DIVISION 16 EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

The following elected officials have been selected by Division 16 membership to serve leadership roles for the specified terms.

Office	Term	Name	Contact Information
President	2015-17	Lea Theodore	College of William & Mary Email: ltheodore@wm.edu
President-Elect	2016-18	Amanda B. Clinton	University of Puerto Rico Mayaguez Email: amanda.clinton@gmail.com
Past-President	2014-16	James DiPerna	The Pennsylvania State University Email: jdiperna@psu.edu
Vice President for Convention Affairs & Public Relations (VP-CAPR)	2014-16	Robin Codding	University of Minnesota Email: rcodding@umn.edu
Vice President for Professional Affairs (VP-PA)	2015-17	Michelle Athanasiou	University of Northern Colorado Email: michelle.athanasiou@unco.edu
Vice-President for Membership	2015-17	Amy Briesch	Northeastern University Email: A.Briesch@neu.edu
Vice-President for Education, Training, & Scientific Affairs (VP-ETSA)	2014-16	Cathy Fiorello	Temple University Email: catherine.fiorello@temple.edu
Vice-President of Publications and Communication	2016-18	Michelle M. Perfect	University of Arizona Email: mperfect@email.arizona.edu
Vice-President for Social, Ethical, and Ethnic Minority Affairs (VP-SEREMA)	2016-18	Yadira Sanchez	Academia Maria Reina Email: yadirav33@gmail.com
Treasurer	2014-16	Mark D. Terjesen	St. John's University Email: terjesem@stjohns.edu
Secretary	2016-18	Prerna G. Arora	Pace University Email: parora@pace.edu
Council Representative	2014-16	Tammy Hughes	Duquesne University Email: hughest@duq.edu
Council Representative	2016-18	Bonnie K. Nastasi	Tulane University Email: bnastasi@tulane.edu
Council Representative	2016-18	Samuel Y. Song	Seattle University Email: songs@seattleu.edu

AUTHOR'S INSTRUCTIONS & PUBLICATION SCHEDULE

Division 16 of the American Psychological Association publishes *The School Psychologist* as a service to the membership. Three PDF issues are published annually. The purpose of TSP is to provide a vehicle for the rapid dissemination of news and recent advances in practice, policy, and research in the field of school psychology.
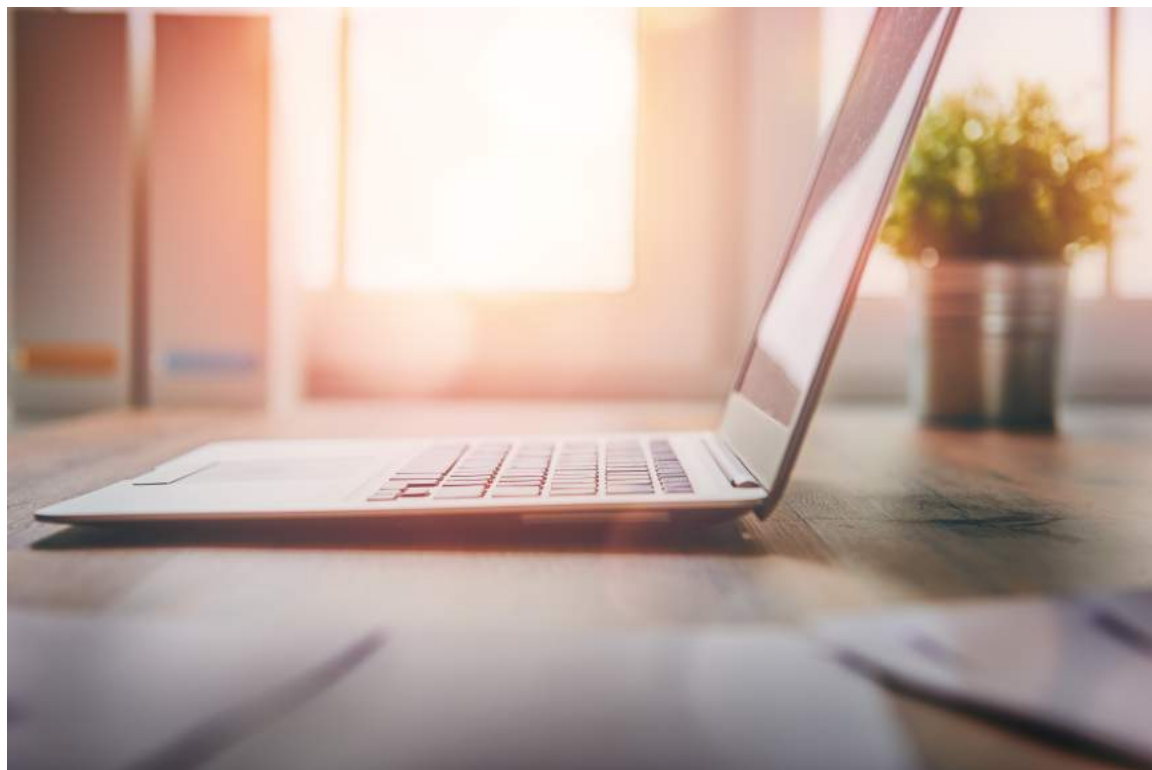
Article submissions of 12 double-spaced manuscript pages are preferred. Content of submissions should have a strong applied theme. Empirical pieces conducted in school settings and that highlight practical treatment effects will be prioritized. Other empirical pieces should have a strong research-to-practice linkage. Non-empirical pieces will also be reviewed for possible publication, but are expected to have a strong applied element to them as well. Briefer (up to 5 pages) applied articles, test reviews, and book reviews will also be considered. All submissions should be double-spaced in Times New Roman 12-point font and e-mailed to the Editor. Authors submitting materials to The School Psychologist do so with the understanding that the copyright of published materials shall be assigned exclusively to APA Division 16.

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

Greg R. Machek, PhD
Department of Psychology
The University of Montana
Missoula, MT 59812
greg.machek@mso.umt.edu

To be considered in an upcoming issue, please note the following deadlines:

Fall Issue: Approximate publication Date - September 15th; Submission Deadline - August 1st
Winter Issue: Approximate publication Date - January 15th; Submission Deadline - December 1st
Spring Issue: Approximate publication Date - June 1st; Submission Deadline - April 15th