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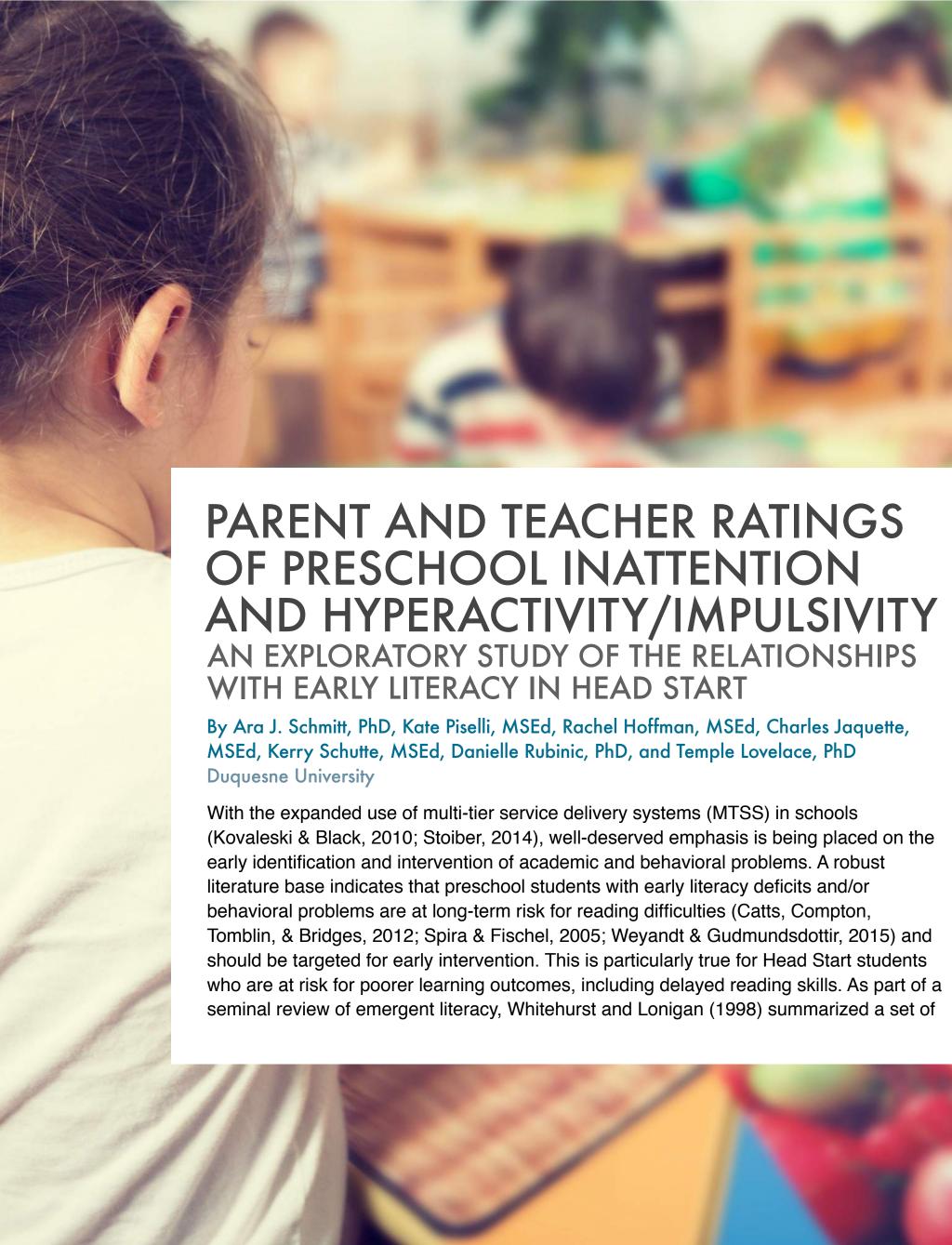
Cyndi Riccio, Treasurer. I look forward to working with them and the rest of the Executive Committee.

We are working particularly this year toward putting the Division on a strong financial footing. We have long depended primarily on dues income to support our initiatives, which has limited our ability to pursue long-term strategic goals. We have recently established an investment account called the Permanent Operations Fund, and are forming a Committee on Professional and Corporate Sponsorship of School Psychology, led by the estimable Dr. Cecil Reynolds.

We of course plan to continue our successful Grant Program for School Psychology Internships. Sponsored by Division 16 and supported by generous donations from NASP, CDSPP, and TSP, this initiative is intended to encourage the development of more APA-accredited internship slots available to school psychology doctoral students. In addition to providing seed funding for the development of

consortia, the GPSPI also provides consultation and mentorships to interested programs. Partnerships of universities and school districts are welcome to apply. Our next deadline is June 30, and you can find more information about the program on our website, here.

We have a very exciting program planned for the APA convention in Washington DC this August. Division 16 has been active in several crossdivisional presentations, as well as symposia and poster sessions. We will again host a SASP graduate student breakfast, electronic poster session, and professional development talk on Saturday morning. We are also reviving the tradition of having a Presidential Address at convention. I will be speaking on the importance of the brain to school psychology on Saturday afternoon. And please plan to attend the Division 16 Business Meeting Saturday afternoon, where we will be presenting a number of awards, including the newly established award for contributions to practice. This will be followed by our social hour. I hope to see many of you at APA in Washington, DC this August!



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Ara J. Schmitt, Ph.D. Associate Professor G3B Canevin Hall Duquesne University 600 Forbes Avenue Pittsburgh, PA 15282

schmitta2106@duq.edu Phone: 412.396.1057 early developing skills related to later word reading and reading comprehension abilities. These early skills encompassed phonological awareness, including rhyming abilities and the ability to manipulate sounds in words; phonological processing, including rapid naming of letters, digits, or colors, and making sound-symbol connections; receptive and expressive language skills; and general print knowledge. Well-established is that early childhood deficits in these emergent literacy areas are directly linked to future poor reading achievement (Catts et al., 2002; Catts, Compton, Tomblin, & Bridges, 2012; Scarborough, 1998; Snowling, Bishop, & Stothard, 2000; Spira, Bracken, and Fiscel, 2005; Whitehurst & Fischel, 2000).

Children with attention problems are at particular risk for learning failure (Rabiner, Murray, Schmid, & Malone, 2004; Sexton, Gelhorn, Bell, & Classi, 2012), as up to 45% of students with attention disorders have been shown to have comorbid learning disabilities (DuPaul, Gormley, & Laracy, 2013). Specifically, children with attention problems are at particular risk for reading difficulties. Estimates of reading disabilities among students with attention disorders may range up to 44% based on Pastor and Reuben's (2008) population-based study. That said, few studies have attempted to study the relationships between subtypes of Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) and risk for learning disabilities. Massetti et al. (2008) did discover that children with ADHD-Inattentive type were found to have poorer reading, spelling, and math skills compared to those with ADHD-Hyperactive/Impulsive and ADHD-Combined subtypes, even after controlling for the effects of IQ.

The presence of early childhood ADHD symptoms is also related to lower pre-academic skills in preschool students (DuPaul, McGoey, Eckert, & VanBrakle, 2001). Relatively few studies, however, have been conducted to examine the pre-academic skills of preschoolers with attention disorders (DuPaul & Langberg, 2015). As one example, Loe et al. (2008) demonstrated that children with ADHD earned significantly lower scores on receptive language and cognitive tasks in preschool compared to controls. Unclear, however, is the differential impact of inattention and impulsivity/hyperactivity to these negative outcomes.

Studies exist that link inattention and hyperactive/impulsive behaviors, respectively, to poor early literacy skills (see Spira & Fischel, 2005, for a thorough review). However, investigations that have incorporated preschool ratings of inattention and hyperactivity/impulsivity as distinct variables suggest that inattention symptoms alone are related to emergent literacy deficits. Lonigan et al. (1999) obtained teacher ratings



of inattention and hyperactivity/impulsivity for a group of 41 Head Start students and 41 middleincome preschool-aged children. Controlling for nonverbal cognitive ability, only teacher ratings of inattention were significantly related to a combined measure of receptive and expressive language, phonological awareness and processing, and print knowledge, for both groups. Likewise, Sims and Lonigan (2013) found that only teacher ratings of inattention, and not hyperactivity/impulsivity, were a unique predictor of phonological awareness, vocabulary skills, and print knowledge, even after controlling for the effects of income, age, gender, month of testing, and nonverbal cognitive ability. These results are also consistent with Rabiner, Coie, and The Conduct Problems Prevention Research Group (2000) who monitored 387 children from kindergarten through fifth grade and discovered only early teacher ratings of inattention, not hyperactivity, were related to later word reading and reading comprehension skills. Similar to the previous studies, this was true after controlling for

IQ, initial reading performance, and parental involvement.

Little research has examined the relationships among parent ratings of inattention and hyperactivity/impulsivity as distinct categories of behavior and emergent literacy skills. One known study was conducted by Willcutt et al. (2007). Willcutt et al. explored the relationships among these variables in a population sample of 809 pairs of preschool twins in order to explore common genetic influences of ADHD and achievement deficits. Germaine to the present study, only parent ratings of inattention were independently related to the measures of early literacy skills, which included phonological awareness, rapid naming, verbal memory, vocabulary, grammar/morphology, and print knowledge. Considered together with research regarding teacher ratings, behavior ratings of attention appear to best predict emergent literacy skills and later reading performance.

As curriculum-based measurement has been advocated for use with children with attention concerns (DuPaul & Langberg, 2015; DuPaul & Kern, 2011), the first purpose of the present study was to examine the relationships among parent and teacher ratings of inattention and hyperactivity/impulsivity with preschool curriculum-based measures of rhyming, alliteration, and picture naming, in addition to commonly employed measures of expressive and receptive vocabulary. The second purpose of this study was to determine the extent to which parent and teacher ratings of inattention and hyperactivity/impulsivity account for significant variance in these emergent literacy skills.

Method

Participants

Participants included 30 African-American students enrolled in two Head Start preschool classrooms in an urban, low SES area in the Mid-Atlantic region of the United States. Head Start is a governmentfunded preschool program for low-income families. All students in these classrooms received statefunded no-cost preschool education due to their low-income status. The present study used a sample of convenience, as all participants were enrolled in an existing reading intervention study. Parental consent was obtained for a total of 31 students between the ages of 3 years 0 months and 4 years 11 months. The mean age at time of assessment of approximately 4 years 7 months (M = 56.26 months). Within the sample, there were 20 male students and 10 female students. Thirty participants were included in analyses, as one participant was excluded due to being a significant univariate outlier.

Measures

Parent and teacher behavior ratings. The Attention Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder Rating Scale IV,

Preschool Version (ADHD-RS-IV) is a rating scale used to measure symptoms of inattention and hyperactivity/impulsivity in preschool-age children that has verified technical adequacy (McGoey, DuPaul, Haley, & Shelton, 2007) and is commonly used in the study of preschool attention problems (e.g., Halperin et al., 2012; Rajendran et al., 2013). The measure consists of 18 items that prompt parents and teachers to rate how frequently the child exhibits inattentive and hyperactive behaviors as determined by the DSM-IV-TR diagnostic criteria for Attention Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD). Respondents rate the frequency of a given behavior using a 4-point scale, ranging from 0 (never or rarely) to 3 (very often). Ratings yield a Hyperactivity/Impulsivity subscale score (0-27 raw score), an Inattentive subscale score (0-27 raw score), and a Total score that incorporates all items (0-54 raw score). McGoey et al. reported teacher form internal coefficient alphas and test-retest reliability (Pearson correlation) coefficients of 0.95 and 0.93 for the Inattention scale, 0.93 and 0.96 for the Hyperactivity/Impulsivity scale, and 0.92 and 0.94 for the Total score. McGoey et al. further conveyed the 93rd percentile for preschool boys is a total score of 38 on the teacher form. Regarding preschool girls, the 93rd percentile corresponded to a score of 24 on the teacher form.

Receptive and expressive vocabulary. The Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test, Fourth Edition (PPVT-4; Dunn & Dunn, 2007) was administered to students in order to measure receptive language skills. This test involves the examiner speaking a word and the examinee being asked to identify from options which picture best describes the word. The PPVT-4 demonstrates high internal consistency and split half reliability across all age groups, with values of at least .90 (Dunn & Dunn, 2007). Convergent validity was assessed by comparing the PPVT-4 to the Clinical Evaluation of Language Fundamentals, Fourth Edition (CELF-4; Semel, Wiig, & Secord, 2003). Correlations on the core language and receptive language domains of the



CELF-4 were moderately correlated (.67-.79) with the PPVT-4 in a sample of school age children.

The Expressive Vocabulary Test, Second Edition (EVT-2, Williams, 2007) was administered to measure expressive language and word retrieval skills. For this task, the examinee is shown an illustration and asked a question (e.g., What do you see? What color is this?). The EVT-2 demonstrates high internal consistency, with coefficient alpha values of .93 or above for all age groups (Williams, 2007). Split-half reliability values ranged from .88 to .97 for all age groups.

In terms of validity, the EVT-2 and PPVT-4 are highly correlated, with values ranging from .80-. 84 across age groups. Additionally, the EVT-2 demonstrated moderate correlations (.75-.79) with the expressive language scale of the CELF-4 in school age samples.

Early literacy curriculum-based measures.

Alliteration (i.e., a measure of first sound fluency),
Rhyming (i.e, a measure of phonological
awareness through identification of rhyming
words) and Picture Naming Fluency (i.e., a
measure of rapid word retrieval) probes within the

Individual Growth and Development Indicators (IGDIs) system were used to measure emergent literacy skills (McConnell, McEvoy, & Priest, 2002; Missall & McConnell, 2004). As each subtest measures correct responses within a timed period, these measures can be used to assess fluency in early literacy skills. Early literacy IGDIs evidence moderate to high (.62-. 89) test-retest reliability (Missall, Carta, McConnell, Walker, & Greenwood, 2008). Longitudinal research investigating the predictive validity of early literacy IGDIs has found significant relationships between early literacy IGDIs and oral reading fluency performance in kindergarten and first grade (Missall, et al., 2007), as well as in second grade (McCormick & Haack, 2010).

Procedures

Parents of all students enrolled in the two Head Start preschool classrooms were notified of an opportunity for their children to participate in a research study investigating the relationship between early literacy skills and behavioral ratings. Once informed consent was provided, the two Head Start teachers were administered the ADHD-RS-IV for each participant in their respective classrooms, so that each participant was rated by their primary classroom teacher. The parent form of the ADHD-RS-IV was provided to the parent of each participant. Parent ratings were returned for 22 of the participants.

The emergent literacy measures were individually administered to each participant by trained school psychology graduate students in a quiet location within the Head Start building. The vocabulary measures and IGDI probes were administered following standardized administration procedures. Administration of Alliteration probes requires the presentation of a picture of a common object with an array of other

objects underneath. The objects are first labeled by the examiner, and then the examinee must choose which object from the array has the same initial sound as the target picture. The examinee has two minutes to provide as many correct answers as possible to the series of stimulus cards. With respect to Rhyming probes, the examinee is presented with images similar to those used during the Alliteration subtest. The examinee is asked to choose the object from an array that rhymes with the target object and the total score is calculated as the number of correct responses provided in two minutes. Finally, regarding Picture Naming probes, the examinee is presented with pictures of common objects and is asked to name correctly each object (e.g., "apple") as quickly as possible within a oneminute time frame.

All measures and rating scales were scored by a member of the research team. The scoring accuracy of all measures was confirmed by a second member of the team. Tests of statistical assumptions completed prior to analysis indicated that two variables, Alliteration and Picture Naming, were significantly positively skewed. After these data were transformed using a square root transformation, all variables met the assumption of normality.

Results

Correlation Analyses

Table 1 presents the means and standard deviations for all variables. A Pearson's coefficient of correlation analysis was used to determine the relationships among parent and teacher ratings of inattention, hyperactivity, and combined inattention/hyperactivity, and expressive language, receptive language, picture naming fluency, alliteration, and rhyming as emergent literacy skills. The correlations among

TABLE 1

Means and Standard Deviations for Predictor and Criterion Variables

Measure	M	SD	
EVT-2	103.40	12.25	
PPVT-4	99.70	13.12	
Rhyming Fluency	5.63	4.34	
Alliteration Fluency	3.83	2.46	
Picture Naming Fluency	17.53	6.14	
Parent Inattention	5.41	5.18	
Parent Hyperactivity/Impulsivity	4.86	3.75	
Parent Total	10.27	8.61	
Teacher Inattention	5.97	4.51	
Teacher Hyperactivity/Impulsivity	5.17	4.37	
Teacher Total	11.13	8.09	

Note: $EVT-2 = Expressive\ Vocabulary\ Test-2$; $PPVT-4 = Peabody\ Picture\ Vocabulary\ Test-4$; parent and teacher rating scale data regard the *ADHD-IV* Rating Scale Preschool Version; n=30 for teacher variables; n=22 for parent variables.

TABLE 2

Pearson Correlations Among Study Variables

	EVT-2	PPVT-4	RF	AF	PNF	P-IN	P-HI	P-Total	T-IN	T- HI
PPVT-4	.79**									
RF	.41*	.43*								
AF	.46**	.31	.43*							
PNF	.59**	.50**	.58**	.50**						
P-IN	27	02	.03	.08	16					
P-HI	16	.04	01	.00	19	.86**				
P-Total	23	.01	.01	.05	18	.98**	.95**			
T-IN	64**	59**	13	46*	49**	.11	.09	.11		
T-HI	32	36	01	09	39*	.26	.41	.34	.66**	
T-Total	53**	52**	08	31	48**	.22	.29	.26	.91**	.91**

Note. EVT-2 = Expressive Vocabulary Test – 2; PPVT-4 = Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test – 4; RF = Rhyming Fluency; AF = Alliteration Fluency; PNF = Picture Naming Fluency; P-IN = Parent Inattention; P-HI = Parent Hyperactivity/Impulsivity; P-Total = Parent Total; T-IN = Teacher Inattention; T-HI = Teacher Hyperactivity/Impulsivity; T-Total = Teacher Total; parent and teacher rating scale data regard the ADHD-IV Rating Scale Preschool Version. * indicates significance at the p < .05 level; ** indicates significance at the p < .01 level; p = .01 level; p =

these variables are presented in Table 2. Consistent with previous research, teacher ratings of Inattention were generally strongly and inversely related to expressive language skills (r = -.64), receptive language (r = -.59), Picture Naming Fluency (r = -.49), and Alliteration Fluency (r = -.46). There was no significant relationship between teacher ratings of

Inattention and Rhyming Fluency. Teacher ratings of Hyperactivity/Impulsivity were moderately and inversely correlated only with child Picture Naming Fluency (r = -.39). Teacher Total score (i.e., combined ratings of inattention and hyperactivity/impulsivity) was significantly and inversely correlated with expressive language skills (r = -.53), receptive language (r = -.52),

Picture Naming Fluency (r = -.48), and Alliteration Fluency (r = -.31). These correlations may be considered moderate to strong across tasks. In contrast, no significant correlations were found between parent ratings of Inattention, Hyperactivity, or the Total score with any of the emergent literacy variables.

Regression Analyses

A series of stepwise multiple regression analyses were then conducted to determine the degree to which parent and teacher ratings predicted the students' emergent literacy skills. All statistical assumptions regarding regression were satisfied. First, five stepwise regression analyses were completed to determine the extent to which Inattention, Hyperactivity, and Total parent ratings considered as predictor variables explained significant variance in each of the five emergent literacy measures as distinct criterion variables. Consistent with previous literature, significant variance in any of the criterion variables could not be attributed to parent ratings on the ADHD-IV-RS, Preschool Version, with all p values far exceeding the .05 level of significance.

Next, five stepwise multiple regression analyses were completed to determine the extent to which Inattention, Hyperactivity, and Total teacher ratings explained significant variance in each of the five emergent literacy measures as distinct criterion variables. With respect to expressive vocabulary skills as the criterion, teachers ratings of inattention alone accounted for 41% of variance in EVT-2 scores, R^2 = .41, F(1, 28) = 19.80, p < .001. Regarding receptive language abilities, teacher ratings of inattention also significantly predicted *PPVT-4* performance, *R*² = .35, F(1, 28) = 15.14, p < .001, with the teacher ratings accounting for 35% of the variance in receptive language skills. The teacher Hyperactivity and Total score scales did not significantly predict additional variance in

expressive or receptive language skills beyond the Inattention scale.

With respect to curriculum-based fluency measures, teacher Inattention ratings alone accounted for 24% of the variance in Picture Naming Fluency scores, R^2 = .24, F(1, 28) = 8.63, p = .007. Teacher Hyperactivity and Total score ratings did not contribute significant additional variance. Regarding Alliteration Fluency, only the teacher Inattention scale was found to significantly predict performance on this measure, R^2 = .23, F(1, 28) = 8.15, p = .008, with Inattention accounting for 23% of the variance in Alliteration Fluency. Finally, stepwise regression analysis revealed that no *ADHD-IV-RS*, *Preschool Version* teacher scale significantly predicted Rhyming Fluency performance.

Discussion

Because preschool children with poor emergent literacy skills are likely to experience reading achievement difficulties well into the future (Arnold et al., 2012; Catts et al., 2002; Catts et al. 2012; Scarborough, 1998; Snowling et al. 2000; Spira, Bracken, & Fischel, 2005; Whitehurst & Fischel, 2000), understanding which preschoolers are at risk for emergent literacy deficits may help preschool intervention teams screen for students in need of intervention, even before emergent literacy deficits can be detected in later school years. Children with attention problems are known to be at risk for underdeveloped emergent literacy skills and future reading disabilities (Pastor & Reuben, 2008; Spira & Fischel, 2005; Weyandt & Gudmundsdottir, 2015). However, little previous research has studied the relationships between inattention and emergent literacy skills by considering inattention and hyperactivity/ impulsivity as unique constructs. Early childhood studies that did take this approach have concluded that symptoms of inattention, and not

hyperactivity/impulsivity, are linked to oral language, phonics, and word decoding deficits (e.g., Lonigan et al, 1999; Rabiner et al., 2000; Sims & Lonigan, 2013; Willcutt et al. 2007).

The present investigation aimed to extend the existing literature by gathering both parent and teacher ratings of inattention and hyperactivity/ impulsivity using the ADHD-IV-RS, Preschool Version in the study of emergent literacy skills in preschool. Previous studies relating parent and teacher ratings of these unique constructs to emergent literacy skills are not apparent from a search of the extant peer-reviewed literature. Additionally, no known study related early literacy curriculum-based fluency measures, such as IGDIs, to parent and teacher ratings of inattention and hyperactivity/impulsivity. The findings of this study inform early childhood professionals regarding which scales on the ADHD-IV-RS. Preschool Version, as completed by parents and teachers, are related to emergent literacy skills and future reading difficulties.

Regarding the first purpose of this study, only teacher ratings were significantly and inversely correlated with the emergent literacy measures. Specifically, teacher Inattention ratings were related to expressive vocabulary (EVT-2), receptive vocabulary, (PPVT-4), Picture Naming Fluency (IGDIs), and Alliteration Fluency (IGDIs) skills. Teacher Hyperactivity/Impulsivity ratings were significantly and inversely related to Picture Naming fluency. Finally, teacher Total score ratings were significantly and inversely related to all measures, with the exception of Rhyming Fluency. These findings are consistent with previous research that teacher ratings of inattention bear stronger relationships to emergent literacy skills than ratings of hyperactivity/impulsivity.

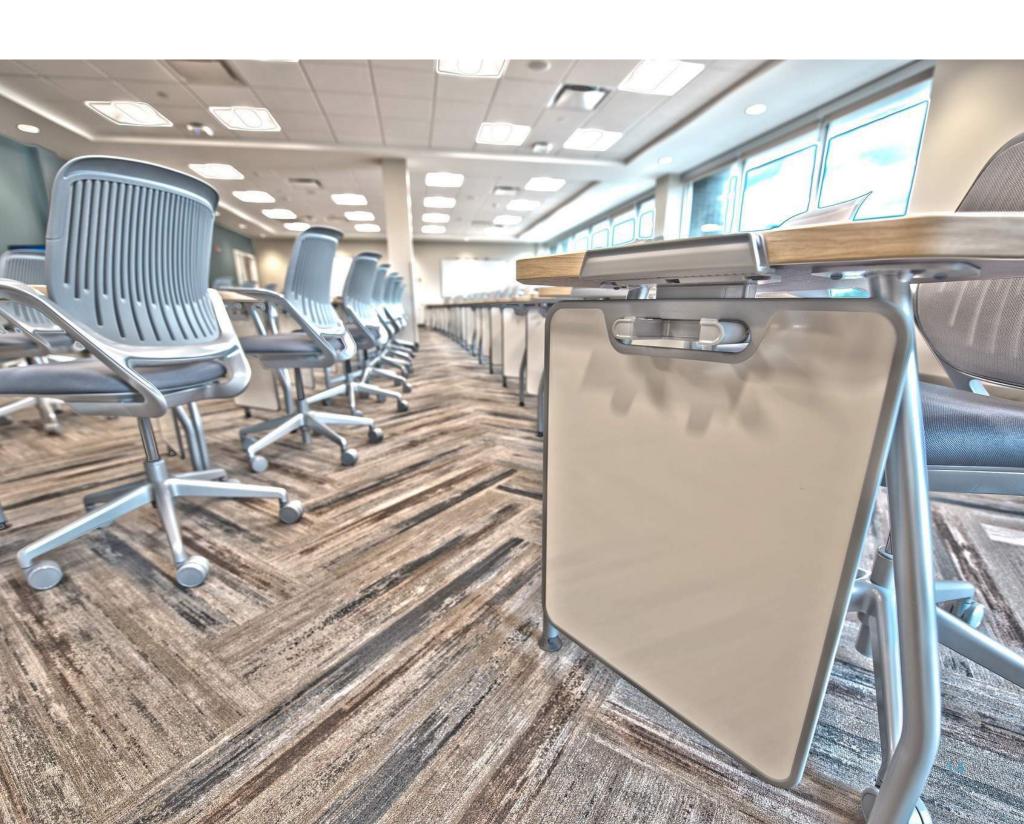
On the other hand, parent Inattention, Hyperactivity/Impulsivity, and Total score ratings were not significantly correlated with any emergent literacy measure. This finding is inconsistent with Willcutt et al. (2007), who found that parent ratings of inattention were related to performance on phonological tasks. However, the finding is consistent with Fowler and Cross (1986), who found that physician inattention ratings of young children were related to reading performance, but not the ratings of the children's parents. One hypothesis for the significant correlations regarding teacher ratings, but not parent ratings, is that the parent raters in this study lacked developmental/normative references regarding these behaviors. Very likely is that the teachers considered the behavioral norms of children that comprise Head Start classrooms when making individual child ratings, which resulted in more accurate depictions of each child's level of inattention and hyperactivity/ impulsivity.

Regarding the second purpose of this investigation, no significant correlations were discovered between any parent rating and emergent literacy skill and parent ratings did not account for significant variance in any emergent literacy measure. On the other hand, teacher Inattention ratings alone accounted for significant variance in expressive vocabulary (41%), receptive vocabulary (35%), Picture Naming Fluency (24%), and Alliteration Fluency (23%). Teacher Hyperactivity/Impulsivity and Total scores did not explain further variance regarding any criterion measure. This finding is consistent with previous early childhood investigations that have linked symptoms of inattention, but not hyperactivity/impulsivity, to lower emergent literacy skills (e.g., Lonigan et al. 1999; Massetti et al., 2008; Rabiner et al., 2000; Sims & Lonigan, 2013). These data provide robust evidence that early symptoms of inattention place children at-risk for emergent literacy difficulties regarding oral language and phonological awareness. Furthermore, the present findings

contribute to existing knowledge by demonstrating that teacher ratings of behavior, and ratings of inattention in particular, are associated with early literacy curriculum-based fluency measures.

Limitations and Future Directions

One limitation of the present study is the limited sample size of 30 students used for analyses. The present study has insufficient power to detect small effects and is prone to type II error. Therefore, this study might be best characterized as exploratory as a larger sample of participants with a greater distribution of scores across measures may lead to different conclusions. Also related to the present sample, the preschool participants resided in two classrooms within an urban Head Start facility. As such, only two teacher raters participated in this study. Unknown is the extent to which unique professional characteristics of the classroom teachers influenced the present results. Future studies should seek to involve a greater number of classroom teachers in an attempt to control for potential rater bias among the teacher participants. Finally, future studies should be conducted regarding children from varied racial/ethnic and economic backgrounds. The present findings must be understood with the context of a sample of low income, African-American students in an urban Head Start facility.



Conclusions

The present study confirmed that teacher ratings of Inattention are a robust predictor of preschool students' emergent literacy skills, which are known to be related to later reading achievement. Consistent with previous literature, teacher ratings of hyperactivity/impulsivity do not appear to be related to emergent literacy constructs. Furthermore, teacher ratings of Inattention were found to be significantly and inversely related to early literacy curriculum-based fluency measures, supporting the use of these measures when preschool service delivery teams screen for students at risk-for long range achievement difficulties. Additional research with expanded sample sizes is needed to further explore the unique relationships between parent ratings of inattention and hyperactivity/impulsivity and emergent literacy skills, as compared to teacher ratings.

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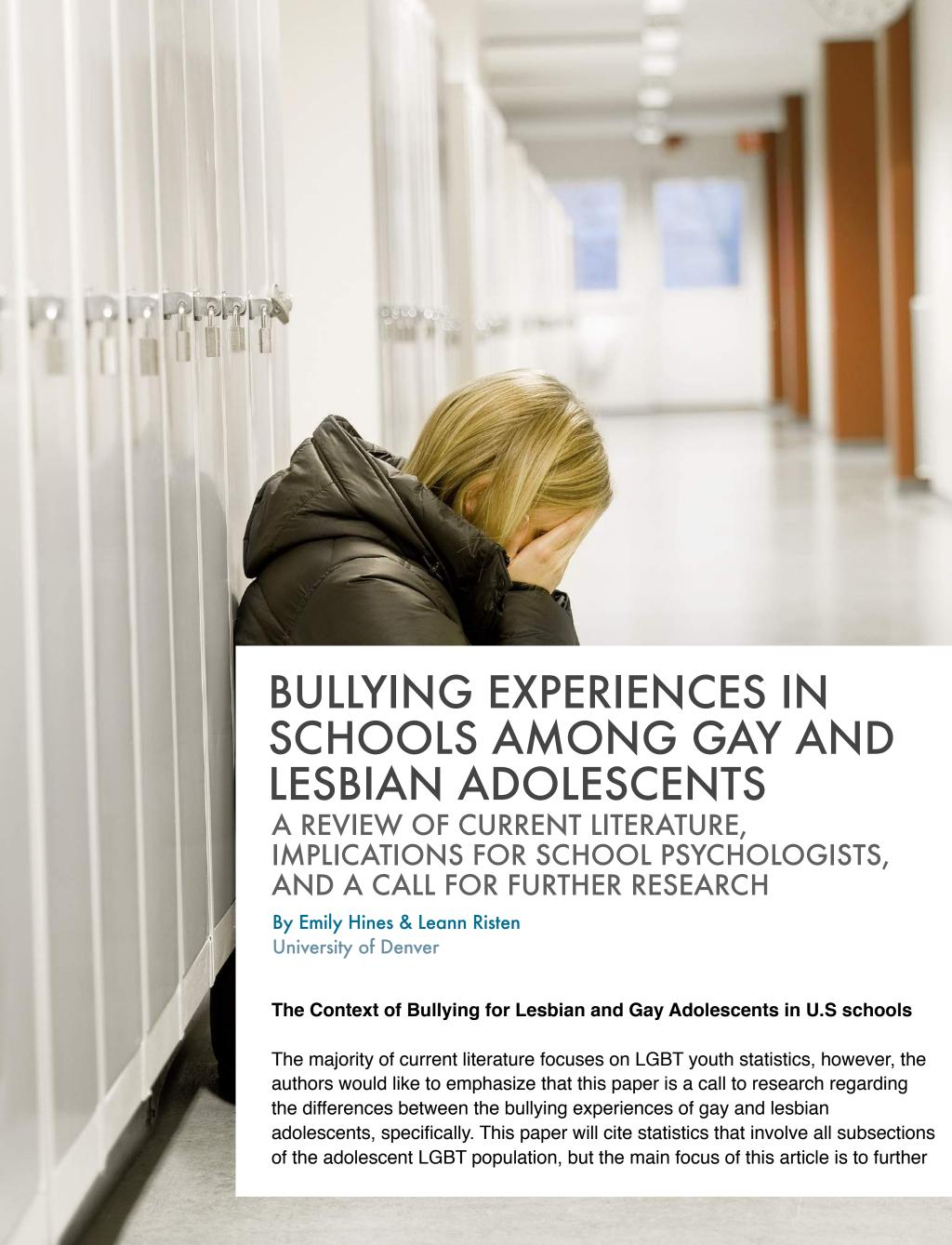
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explore the experiences of gay and lesbian teens. While it is true that many youth in the LGBT community do not like to identify as one label, and may adopt a more fluid identity when it comes to sexual orientation and gender, it is important for school psychologists to understand the differences in gay and lesbian adolescents' experiences with bullying.

In 2015, the Gay, Lesbian & Straight Education Network (GLSEN) conducted a National School Climate Survey where 57.6% of LGBT youth reported feeling unsafe at school 85.2% reported having experienced verbal harassment within the last year, and 59.6% reported being sexually harassed due to their sexual orientation (GLSEN, 2016). Of those students, 27% reported instances of physical harassment, and 13% had experienced extreme violence, yet only 42.4% of those bullied reported the incidents to their teachers or administrators (GLSEN, 2016). Of the students who did report the attacks, 63.5% reported that their school administration did not make an effort to address the situation or told the student to ignore the incident (GLSEN, 2016). From this survey, it is clear that too many LGBT students do not feel safe at school, and do not trust their school staff to advocate for them. As school-based mental health providers, school psychologists must advocate for all students, and find ways to intervene when LGBT students are experiencing bullying, harassment, and violence. This includes understanding the differences between experiences of gay and lesbian teens.

During the survey GLSEN (2016) also found that 48.6% of students who identify as being LGBT reported experiencing cyberbullying in the past year. Cyberbullying includes sexual harassment online—which is experienced by LGBT students at a rate four times higher than their peers—threatening messages and insults, as well as text messages (GLSEN, 2016). Along with the

information from GLSEN (2016) about students not reporting instances of bullying, cyberbullying may also be harder for school staff to identify, as it often happens outside of school. A student may not be bullied during school hours, but it is entirely possible that they are experiencing harassment from text messages or on social media sites such as Facebook and Instagram.

The American Foundation for Suicide Prevention found that over 30% of adolescents in the LGBT community attempt suicide, compared to 8-10% of their heterosexual peers (Haas, 2012). Gay and bisexual male adolescents attempt suicide at a rate four times higher than their heterosexual peers, and lesbian and bisexual female adolescents attempt suicide at a rate two times higher (Haas, 2012). Adolescents who identify as part of the LGBT community are four times more likely to have medically serious suicide attempts requiring hospitalizations (Haas, 2012). GLSEN (2016) also found that LGBT youth who are bullied are at a much higher risk for developing depression, anxiety, substance abuse problems, dropping out of school, and becoming runaways. LGBT youth make up 15% of adolescents in juvenile detention facilities, thought to be a result of disciplinary problems related to incessant bullying and harassment for their sexuality (Nobullying.com, 2015). It is believed that the development of mental health disorders and disciplinary problems for LGBT teens can be linked to the amount and degree of bullying experienced during adolescence (Nobullying.com, 2015).

As there is a general lack of presence of LGBT-related issues in journals, the literature focused on bullying and sexual orientation is incredibly scarce (Graybill & Proctor, 2016). Across a sample of eight school support personnel journals from 2000 to 2014, only 0.3-3.0% of the articles included LGBT-related research

"The most frequent form of prejudice against sexual minority students was name-calling, followed by being ridiculed in front of others, being hit or kicked, having rumors spread, getting teased, to perpetrators stealing or damaging their belongings and being sexually assaulted."

(Espelage, 2016; Graybill & Proctor, 2016). Therefore, most research on sexual orientation and bullying combines LGBT youth in each statistic; however, it may be beneficial for school psychologists to understand the potential differences in the types of bullying experienced specifically by gay and lesbian students. The following section of this paper will discuss various studies that address the differences in bullying based on gender as well as sexual orientation (e.g. experiences of lesbian vs gay teens). The goal of this paper is to highlight the importance of conducting research to determine if gay, male adolescents experience different forms of bullying than lesbian, female adolescents, and how school psychologists can address these populations effectively.

Experiences of Bullying and Victimization for Lesbian and Gay Youth

"Various researchers have demonstrated that when a young person is victimized because of his or her actual or perceived sexual orientation, the nature of the bullying he or she experiences ranges from incidents of hitting, kicking, and pushing to sexual assault and assault involving a lethal weapon" (Rivers, 2011, p. 38). Clearly, there is no shortage of diversity in the bullying that lesbian and gay youth experience, although there is a difference in frequency in the types of bullying. The most frequent form of prejudice against sexual minority students was name-calling, followed by being ridiculed in front of others, being hit or kicked, having rumors spread, getting teased, to perpetrators stealing or damaging their belongings and being sexually assaulted (Rivers, 2011; Russell, Everett, Rosario, & Birkett, 2014).

Bullying, particularly towards sexual minority students, is a complex social process encouraged by confederates that join the bullying and bystanders (Rivers, 2011). In a study of 722 high school students, 66.8% had witnessed one or more displays of explicit prejudice or dislike of lesbian and gay students (Poteat & Vecho, 2016). Interestingly enough, Poteat and Vecho (2016) also found that girls more so than boys were more likely to actively respond to situations of homophobic behavior. Boys were more likely to use and be called homophobic slurs, a behavior that increased throughout high school; whereas girls reported less frequent instances of these slurs as they progressed through their high school years (Poteat, O'Dwyer, & Mereish, 2012). This difference is thought to be due in part to the male adolescent system of hierarchy in school, and the need to assert dominance over peers to gain acceptance (Poteat et al., 2012). In a study of homophobic bullying from 2003-2006, Rivers (2011) found that while rates of bullying

were highest for boys (mostly name-calling, teasing, physical harm), girls were more likely to engage in relational and social isolation bullying. These types of bullying significantly increase the contemplation and attempts of self-harm, and place students at greater risk for depression, drug use, and suicidal ideation when bullied (Rivers, 2011; Espelage, Aragon, & Birkett, 2008).

It is no surprise that lesbian and gay youth report consistently higher levels of victimization than heterosexual youth (Russell et al., 2014). Some forms of victimization that these youth experience include skipping school due to feeling unsafe, being physically harmed, and having property stolen or damaged (Russell et al., 2014). Although there were no significant differences in sexual identity and behavior, youth who reported no sexual partners reported significantly lower rates of victimization than youth who had sexual partners (Russell et al., 2014).

While use of technology and social networking applications can help LGBT students to find supportive communities and feel less isolated, the rates of cyberbullying for LGBT teens has been found to be higher than their heterosexual peers (Varjas, Meyers, Kiperman, & Howard, 2013). While some of the high school participants stated that cyberbullying, in their experiences, decreased later in high school, the participants emphasized that sexual orientation was a major "reasoning" behind cyber victimization (Varjas et al., 2013). Text messages have become an easy way to target LGBT peers because a single text can immediately be sent to every contact in an individual's phone (Varjas et al., 2013). Males in the study reported higher instances of physical threats based on sexual orientation and instances of being sent computer viruses that cause the individual's operating system to crash (Varjas et al., 2013). Females, on the other hand, experienced higher rates of relational aggression

at the hands of their peers, who were also usually female (Varjas et al., 2013). An example of relational aggression experienced by one of the participants was described as another female peer creating online lists of names indicating who were "sluts", "whores", and "dykes", and these lists were shared publicly (Varjas et al., 2013). Despite the scarcity of literature, it is evident that the experiences and types of bullying vary drastically between female, lesbian adolescents and their male, gay peers.

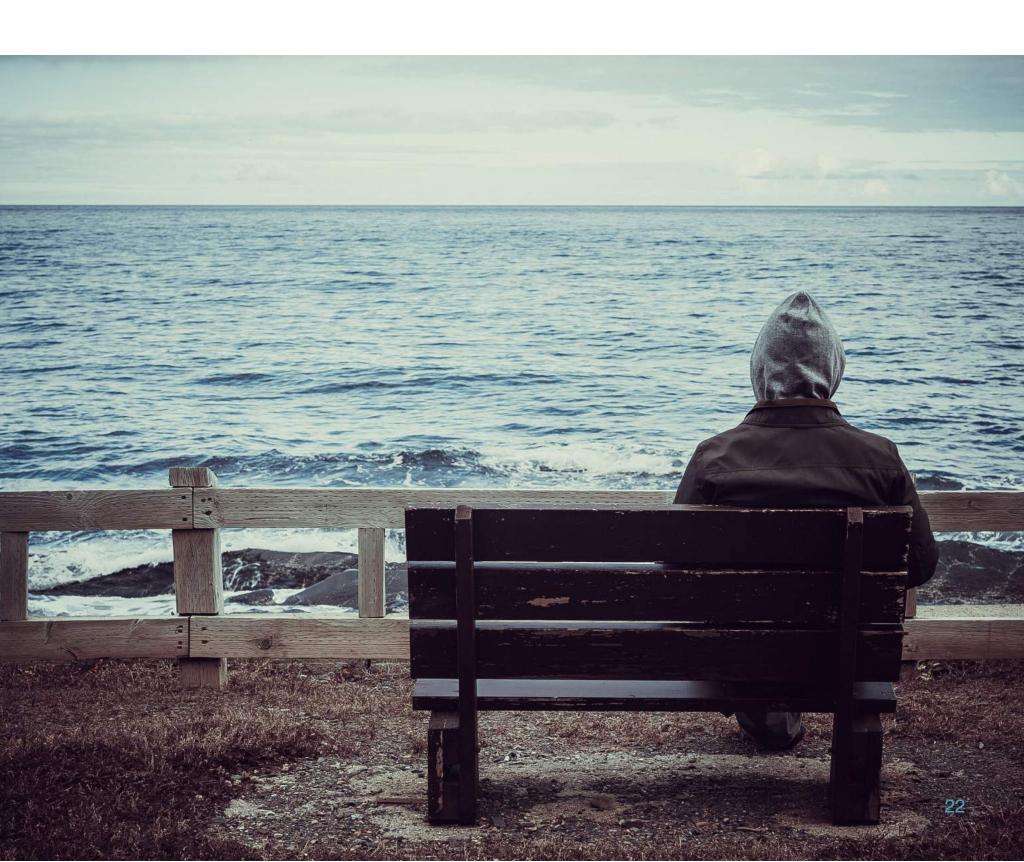
Critique of Current Anti-Bullying Strategies and Interventions

Most U.S schools follow state anti-bullying laws and guidance on how to address bullying, whether it is on school property or via the Internet (Human Rights Campaign, 2015). As of August 2015, 20 states created laws that explicitly address bullying and harassment of students based on sexual orientation and sexual identity (Human Rights Campaign, 2015). However, the Human Rights Campaign (2015) also found that there are two states that prevent schools from explicitly protecting LGBT students from bullying (Missouri, South Dakota), and there are 8 states with laws that ban the inclusion of LGBT topics in school curricula (Alabama, Arizona, Louisiana, Mississippi, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Texas, Utah). The remaining 20 states have anti-bullying laws or policies, but do not offer specific categories of protection to sexual minority students (Human Rights Campaign, 2015). While states are doing their part to help address bullying and harassment within schools, there are obvious gaps within the system and state laws, especially when it comes to protecting LGBT students.

Many districts and schools have anti-bullying policies, however, not every policy is inclusive or explicitly protects lesbian and gay students. Hatzenbuehler and Keyes (2013) investigated

"... researchers found that lesbian and gay youths were 2.25 times more likely to have attempted suicide in the past year if they lived in districts with fewer inclusive anti-bullying policies compared to counties and districts with more inclusive policies"

whether sexual minority-inclusive anti-bullying policies were associated with a decrease in suicide attempts among sexual minority students. The results of the study indicated that, even when other sociodemographic characteristics and victimization were controlled for, inclusive anti-bullying policies were related to a significant decrease in suicide attempts among lesbian and gay adolescents (Hatzenbuehler & Keyes, 2013). The researchers found that lesbian and gay youths were 2.25 times more likely to have attempted suicide in the past year if they lived in districts with fewer inclusive anti-bullying policies compared to counties and districts with more inclusive policies (Hatzenbuehler & Keyes, 2013). Therefore, school districts should adopt inclusive anti-bullying policies that explicitly protect sexual minority youth in order to reduce their risk of suicide attempts, and safeguard these students' mental health and access to education.



Ways School Professionals Can Be Proactive Against Bullying of Lesbian and Gay Students

Presently, there are various anti-bullying campaigns and curricula for schools to choose from, such as Bully-Proofing Your School (BPYS), and school administrators and school psychologists can collaborate over which curricula they would like to use (National Center for School Engagement, 2012). Curricula such as BPYS are purchased by the school district and come with books of activities and lesson plans centered around different kinds of bullying. This curriculum provides guides for all grade levels (early childhood through high school) as well as a book specifically designed for parents (National Center for School Engagement, 2012). These lessons teach students about the different types of bullying, how to deal with someone who is bullying, and how to stand up for others and for themselves in the event that peers are harassing them.

While the BPYS curriculum does not address the bullying of lesbian and gay students, specifically, there are other ways for school psychologists to provide protective measures for our lesbian and gay student population. For some time, research has indicated that a student who can identify at least one caring, supportive adult at the school reports more positive outcomes and less challenges compared to those who cannot identify a safe adult (Graybill & Protoctor, 2016; Graybill, Varjas, Meyers, & Watson, 2009). Although many school personnel want to support LGBT students, many feel uncomfortable or unprepared to support them due to a lack of training in sexual minority youth-related issues (Graybill & Proctor, 2016). Therefore, school psychologists or other qualified personnel should conduct professional development for all school staff in order to combat this feeling of inadequacy and discomfort in order to promote a safer, supportive, more inclusive school climate.

Along with conducting staff professional development seminars on how to address bullying and how to support the LGBT student population, GLSEN (2016) found that students who had Gay-Straight Alliances (GSAs) at their school were less likely to report feeling unsafe at school or experience victimization based on their sexual orientation or gender expression when compared to students without access to GSAs. Students with GSAs also reported fewer instances of hearing homophobic slurs and reported feeling a stronger sense of connectedness to their school community (GLSEN, 2016). Although the sole presence of a GSA on a school campus can be very beneficial, various GSAs around the country are operated differently. Therefore, studies have addressed the specific functions and components of GSAs in hopes to increase the effectiveness and well being of the students.

It was found that GSAs who were involved with more advocacy work predicted purpose and increased a sense of agency in sexual minority youth (Poteat, Yoshikawa, Calzo, Gray, DiGiovanni, Lipkin, Mundy-Shepheard, Perrotti, Scheer, & Shaw, 2015; Poteat, Calzo, & Yoshikawa, 2016). GSAs that provided more support/socialization, information, and resources also increased a sense of agency and positive outcomes in these youth (Poteat et al., 2016). As predicted, GSAs whose advisors served longer, had more training, perceived more control, and were in supportive school climates reported higher levels of positive youth development (Poteat et al., 2015). This not only supports the importance of creating and maintaining GSAs, but also ensuring that the specific functions of these alliances are fully developed in order to enhance the effectiveness of the alliance as well as encourage the well being and positive outcomes for lesbian and gay youth.

In a qualitative study, Graybill, Varias, Meyers, and Watson (2009) found three advocacy strategies for effective GSA advisors including advisor responses to students, advisor responses to school personnel, and recommendations for other school personnel. Advisor responses to students include situations where the GSA advisor heard LGBT-related comments (e.g. "that's so gay", discriminatory language) made by students. The advocacy in this instance was that the advisor intervened by personalization of the comment, reacting with sarcasm, and educating the student (Graybill et al., 2009). Graybill et al. (2009) also encouraged proactive responses which include strategies to implement prior to these student comments (e.g. discouraging students from discriminatory comments through school climate and explicit pre-teaching). Advisor responses to school personnel include responding honestly to inquiries about sexual orientation, discrimination, same-sex displays of affection and responding to concerns about students (Graybill et al., 2009). The last advocacy strategy of recommendations for other school personnel was to know personal views and biases of sexual orientation, take advantage of legal resources, highlight consequences of not advocating, use community resources, be nonconfrontational about creating change, educating oneself, and increasing visibility of LGBT-related issues (Graybill et al., 2009). Focusing on advocacy work and improving the functions of GSAs will increase positive outcomes and provide a safe space for LGBT students and their allies.

Next Steps for Research and Practice

The current scarcity of literature addressing the differences in bullying for gay and lesbian teens leaves a large area for new research in the field of school psychology, and exploring this topic further would undoubtedly aid in practitioners' abilities to support diverse student populations.

While there are many questions that should be addressed regarding bullying and LGBT youth, some more critical issues, which are organized under the subheadings below, may be good places to begin:

Next Steps for School-Based Practitioners

<u>Involve parents.</u> Recent literature has discussed the various influences of parental support on adolescent bullying. One study found that higher parental support was related to less involvement, in both perpetrating and being a victim of bullying (Espelage et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2009). Other research on the impacts of family acceptance and support has been fairly extensive. It is well known that positive family relationships can serve as a protective factor for various physical and mental health risk factors, however, there is limited research on the specific roles of parentadolescent relationships for lesbian and gay youths. Ryan, Russell, Huebner, Diaz, and Sanchez (2010) examined family accepting behaviors in regards to adolescents' sexual orientation, gender expression, mental health, suicidal ideation and behaviors, substance use, and sexual risk. The researchers found that higher rates of family acceptance of the adolescent's sexual orientation were strongly associated with positive mental and physical health (Ryan et al., 2010). This included higher self-esteem with lower depression, substance use, suicidal ideation and other risk behaviors (Ryan et al., 2010). Therefore, the researchers suggested that interventions should promote parental and other family acceptance of the sexual minority youths, as those relationships were crucial in improving their mental and physical health (Ryan et al., 2010). Since family acceptance and parental support are incredibly beneficial when supporting sexual minority adolescents, future research should investigate best practices for collaborating with parents in order to support the students.

Educate and advocate. Along with the aforementioned ways school psychologists can advocate for gay and lesbian students, another way that school personnel can help maintain a safe space for our LGBT students is by advocating for inclusive curricula within our schools. Students whose curricula included positive representations of LGBT people reported increased feelings of safety, peer acceptance, and peer support at school (GLSEN, 2016). However, within this school climate survey, only 22.4% of students reported having inclusive curricula including positive representations of LGBT people in history, 42.4% were able to find information of LGBT figures in their school libraries, and 49.1% reported being able to access information on LGBT people on school computers (GLSEN, 2016). While inclusive curricula may be controversial in some communities, school psychologists have an obligation to advocate for all students, and must do their part in promoting the use of inclusive curricula within their schools.

Areas of Inquiry

Part of future research should focus on answering a range of questions from the more general to more specific questions regarding coping strategies and family engagement. It is vital that future researchers and practicing school-based mental health professionals consider and address these questions. Without delving deep into different forms and effects of bullying and the involvement of the adolescents' parents, school psychologists will not be able to effectively serve our gay and lesbian students. The authors of this paper pose the following questions to address:

 Are gay males more likely to experience physical and verbal aggression when compared to lesbian peers, and how is this issue addressed differently compared to a situation of relational aggression?

- Are there different coping strategies used by students based on types of bullying they experience (e.g. relational aggression vs. physical violence)?
- Does the type of bullying experienced correlate with the amount of maladaptive behaviors (i.e. self-harm, substance abuse, suicidal ideation/ attempts)?
- How can we foster family acceptance and collaboration in the school, community, and home regarding lesbian and gay adolescents?
- How can we incorporate parents into the sexual orientation- specific anti-bullying interventions?
- What supports can be put in place for students whose parents do not accept their sexual orientation?

Implications for School Psychologists

As school psychologists, we dedicate our careers to serving students, families, and communities from a research-based approach. Given recent laws and anti-bullying policies, the United States is making huge strides in its efforts to protect the LGBT population, and psychologists are doing their part in schools. However, in order to be the most effective in service delivery, there is a need for more research in the area of bullying experiences for LGBT student populations. Studies have shown large differences in the types of bullying based on gender, and it is reasonable to expand on this information and surmise that bullying is different for gay males than it is for lesbian female students.

An effective school psychologist would not treat any student's experience the same as another's, and this needs to be true for LGBT students. Statistics often combine these four distinct categories, but each category is made up of thousands of unique individuals with their own

experiences. How can a school psychologist offer effective and individualized services if there is limited research on the topic being addressed? This paper emphasized the importance and the need for research in the area of bullying for gay and lesbian students, and what implications these findings may have for the field.

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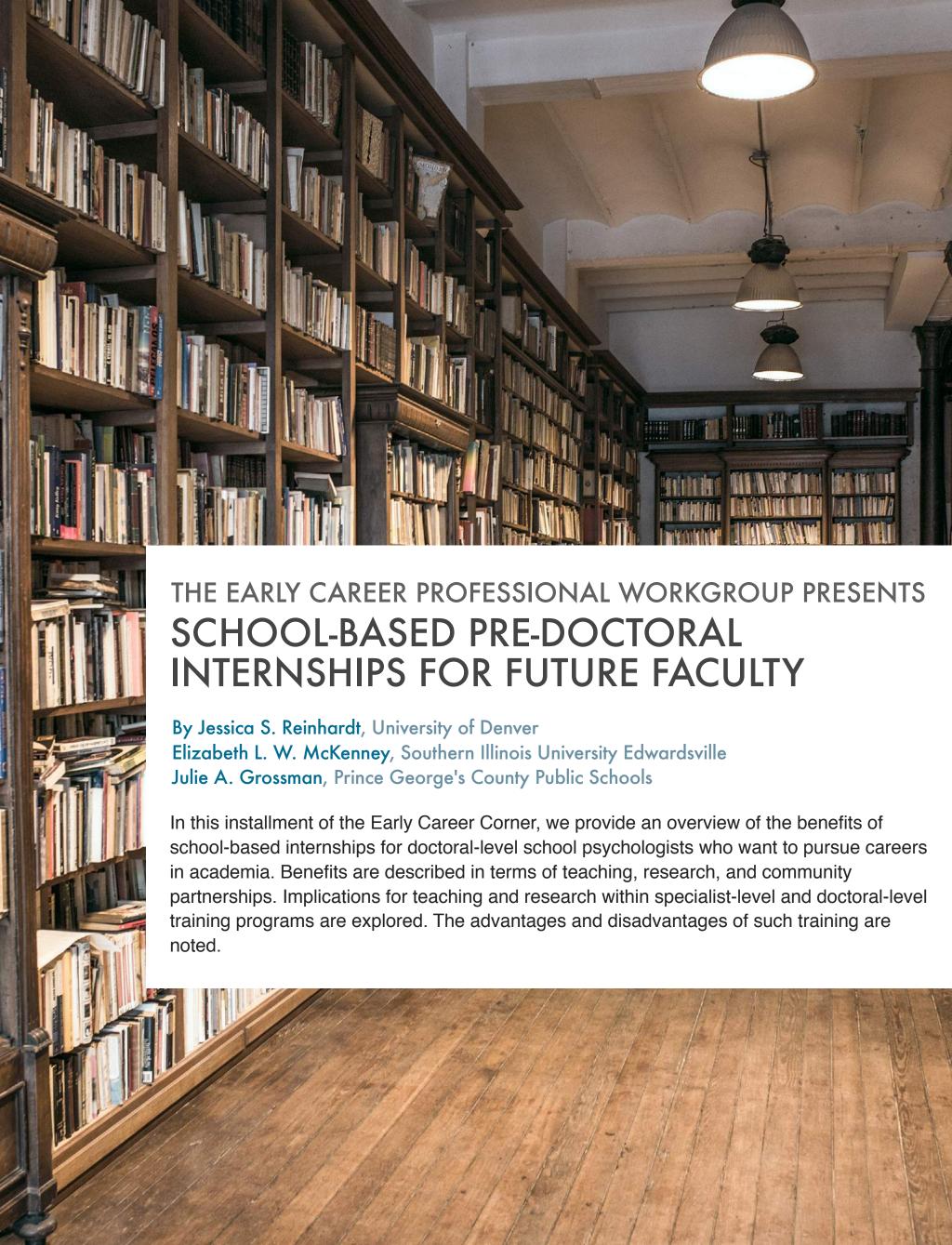
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Completion of an internship prior to graduation from a school psychology program is a requirement by state licensure and certification boards, the American Psychological Association (APA) and the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) credentialing boards.

Depending on professional goals and program standards, graduate students may participate in the internship selection process managed by the Association of Psychology Postdoctoral and Internship Centers (APPIC), accredited by APA, or may participate in a similar selection process such as pursuing a site which meets guidelines adopted by the Council of Directors of School Psychology Programs (CDSPP).

APPIC sites are historically considered the gold standard of internships in sister fields, such as counseling and clinical psychology. Indeed, APPIC accredited sites meet predetermined criteria of quality as do APA accredited sites. That said, for two decades, a disparity between the quantity of applicants and available internships has existed (Perfect & Mahoney, 2015). Perfect & Mahoney note that school psychology trainees have "historically had the lowest match rate," (2015). A review of the 2014-2015 year shows that only 50% of 347 school psychology interns from accredited programs secured APA accredited internships. Further, many accredited sites are not within a traditional brick and mortar school, which further limits the sites appropriate for a school psychology trainee. Specifically, a Fall 2016 search of APPIC's website indicates 11 school district sites. When APA-approved internships do include school-based practice hours, those hours often include activities related to school-based services that occur outside of the school setting, such as psychological report writing following school-based evaluations. Similarly, consultation activities are often conducted as an external consultant, which is a

different experience from the act of consulting as an employee of the district or school receiving those services.

As previously mentioned, school psychology trainees also are allowed to participate in internships at sites that have guidelines adopted by the CDSPP. Often, these internships are located in school-based settings and bring with them some clear benefits. While a full review of reasons why many individuals chose to finish their doctoral training with a school-based internship is beyond the scope of this article, interested readers are referred Harris (2015) and Phelps & Swerdlik (2011). Instead, the present article serves as a review of the benefits associated with such an internship for those interested in pursuing careers in academia and research.

Type of Faculty Position

Because school psychology faculty roles are diverse and responsibilities can vary greatly by role (Tenure-track, Research, Clinical, Professor of Practice, and more), the benefits of a schoolbased internship will be discussed based on different roles. Harris and Sullivan (2012) describe tenure track positions as a golden carrot in academia. Tenure track faculty may find that connections made in a school-based internship can enable their scholarly productivity via schoolbased research, especially during the pivotal early years of establishing a research trajectory. School-based internships are opportunities for future researchers to establish relationships, which may serve as future opportunities for research collaboration. Specifically, the internship may foster inroads for junior faculty looking to complete research in the schools. Having previous experience working in schools may give researchers the knowledge and patience to navigate the bureaucratic processes inherent to



"...school personnel are unlikely to react positively to being told that they are going about tiered service delivery all wrong, no matter how well-intentioned the messenger."

school-based work. For their part, school personnel may find it easier to build rapport and trust with a professional who understands the political and logistical realities of modern education. For example, researchers interested in multi-tiered systems of support often lament the state of problem-solving processes or understanding of evidence-based interventions (Erchul, 2011). However, school personnel are unlikely to react positively to being told that they are going about tiered service delivery all wrong, no matter how well-intentioned the messenger. Researchers who understand and accept the necessity of on-site adaptation are more likely to build the lasting relationships that ultimately lead to impactful research and, hopefully, sustained delivery of evidence-based services (Kratochwill et al., 2012). Conducting district-based research often presents faculty with red tape and logistical hoops. A school-based internship may develop trust between those who work in the school and yourself as a representative of an institute of higher education. On the other hand, research is at times embedded in accredited internships and participating in a school-based internship may not afford an individual the chance to bolster publications in preparation for tenure track positions.

Clinical and other teaching oriented faculty positions typically come with a greater emphasis on courses, service, and supervision. For these faculty, a school-based training experience often provides credibility with students participating in school-based training. For example, a professor with recent schoolbased experiences can share anecdotes and make classroom training come to life using examples and experience gained on internship. Another benefit includes connections with externship, practicum, and internship supervisors in districts. Indeed, connections are often critical in placing students in field training sites. For all faculty, graduate programs frequently are looking to forge relationships with various individuals in schools as ways to find placements, people willing to serve as adjunct faculty, serve on career panels for the program, etc. By interning in a school, a person begins to foster such relationships that can be tapped into later.

Type of Training Program

School psychology faculty training programs are diverse (i.e., specialist level, doctoral level, and combined). School-based internships provide unique experiences for faculty in any program. That said, for faculty who teach in specialist level or combined programs, participation in a school internship may be especially useful. Specialist level programs are those programs in which a terminal degree includes two to three years of on campus training followed by an internship. These training programs often result in Education Specialists (Ed.S.) or Master's with Certificates of Advanced Graduate Study (CAGS) degrees. Combined programs include those which have both a specialist and doctoral program. The strong link from school-based internship to understanding the reality of what's going on in schools may be more helpful/beneficial for faculty teaching in specialist programs than for early career faculty at doctoral programs. Additionally, many faculty start their careers in a specialist program and then transition to doctoral training. The benefits of a school-based internship may either be more dynamic in specialist programs

(as new faculty begin) or may evaporate as scholars move on to other universities.

Conclusion

Pre-doctoral internships often set a foundation for the professional work of early career psychologists. In this article, we provided a brief overview of the doctoral internships and explored the benefits of a school- internship for early career faculty, including but not limited to improved teaching, connections for research, and field placements.

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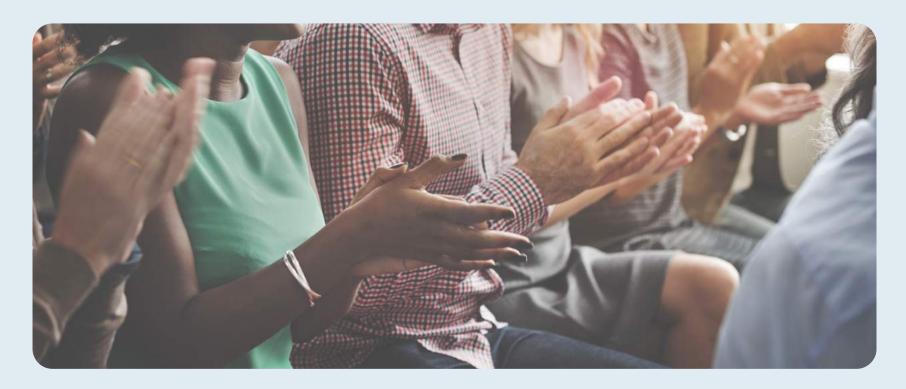
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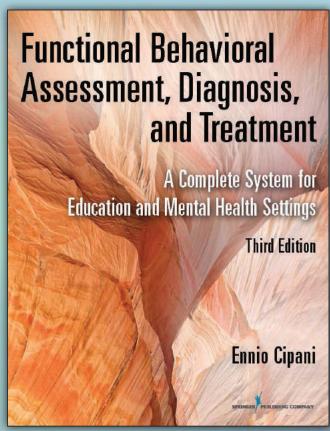
Division 16 has developed a Grant Program for School Psychology Internships (GPSPI) to assist in the predoctoral internship crisis in the U.S. The GPSPI is supported by Division 16, Council of Directors of School Psychology Programs (CDSPP), National Association of School Psychologists, and Trainers of School Psychologists.

GPSPI's primary aim is to provide funds and consultation for developing new APPIC School Psychology Internship Programs that will eventually obtain APA Accreditation. Internship programs that accept doctoral students from more than one doctoral program are preferred (non-captive programs). GPSPI also may provide funds and consultation for expanding existing APPIC School Psychology Internship Programs that will eventually obtain APA Accreditation.

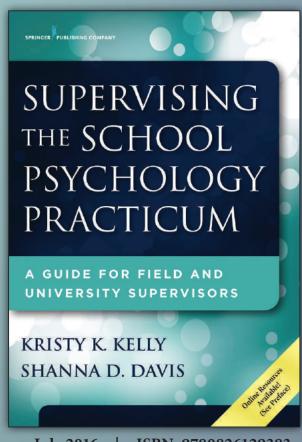
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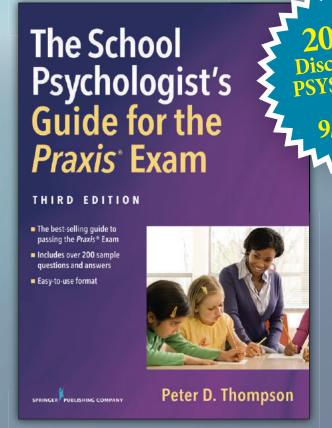
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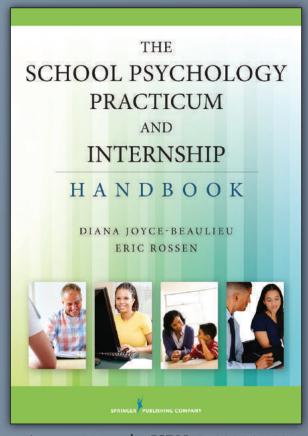
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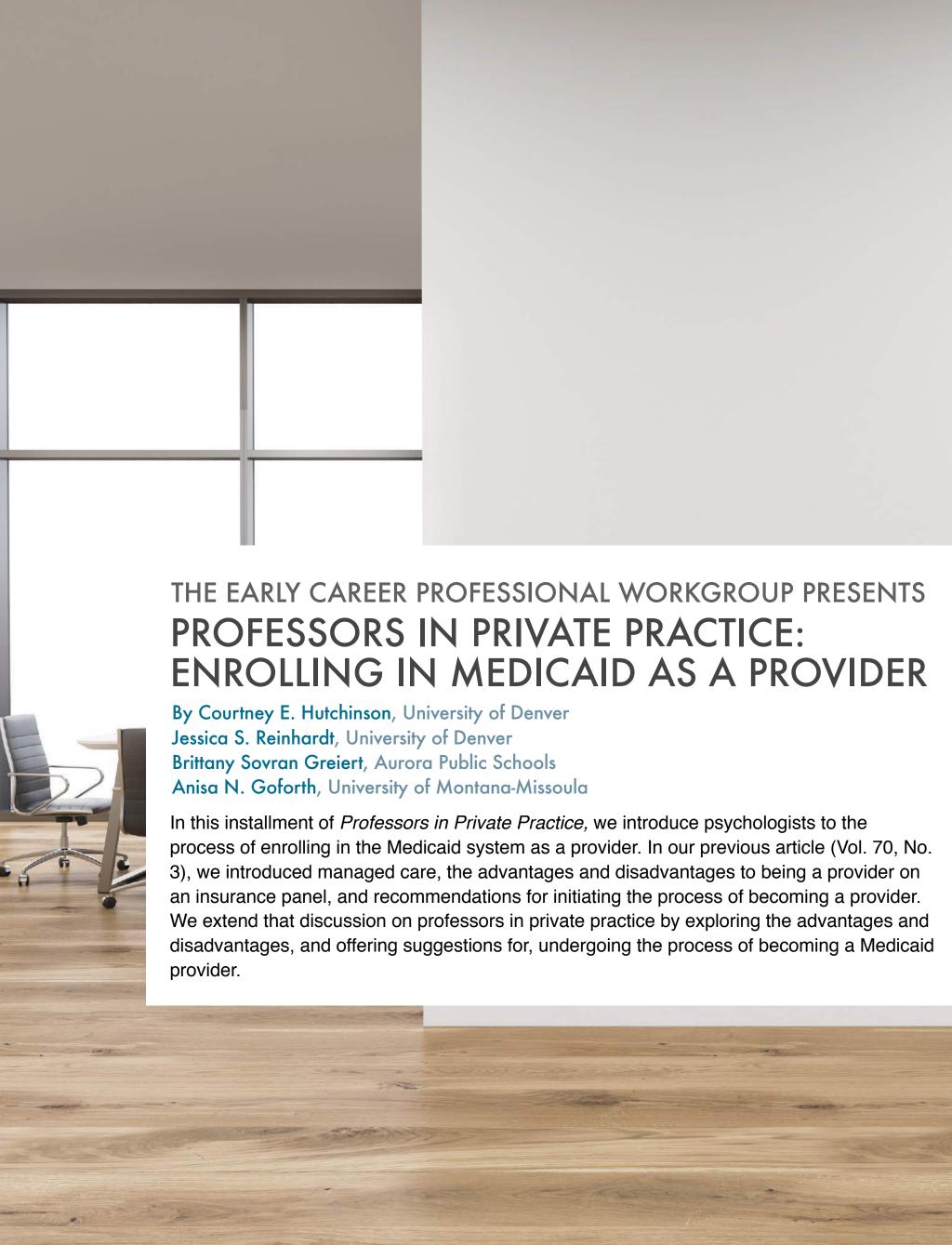


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Medicaid: A Historical Overview

Medicaid was created in 1965, as Title XIX of the Social Security Act. Originally intended to provide medical care to people who receive cash assistance, Medicaid is a federal program that provides health care for more than 62 million Americans whose incomes are at or below 133% of the poverty level (Kaiser Commission on Medicaid and the Uninsured, 2013, p. 3). While each state has its own Medicaid program, all state Medicaid programs must meet the Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services' federal minimum eligibility levels for coverage. Each state, however, can decide who is eligible for Medicaid coverage, which health services are covered by Medicaid, and how the program is implemented and facilitated. State Medicaid programs are not required to provide psychological services because they are considered an "optional" benefit. Nonetheless, states that use private companies to run their Medicaid programs, known as managed care, are required to provide equal access to mental health services (American Psychological Association (APA), 2011).

To complicate the issue, even when states include psychological services in their Medicaid plans, each state differs on which services are covered. For instance, some states will cover psychological evaluations but not treatment, while other states will only cover services from community mental health services but not from psychologists in private practice. Other states limit the number of mental health visits per client. Across all states, children receive considerably more services, as all Medicaid recipients under age 21 are eligible for mental health screening and treatment (APA, 2011).

Historically, many psychologists chose not to participate in Medicaid programs due to low

reimbursement rates, a lack of eligible clients, and delayed payment (APA, 2010). Prior to the implementation of the Affordable Care Act (ACA) of 2010, Medicaid covered low-income children, pregnant women, elderly people, people with disabilities, and some parents, but excluded many low-income adults (Wachino, Artiga, & Rudowitz, 2014). After the ACA went into effect, all adults ages 19 to 64 with incomes up to 138% of the federal poverty level (up from 133% previously) were eligible for Medicaid coverage (Kaiser, 2013).

Although there was an expansion in eligible adults, in 2012, the Supreme Court ruled that each state can decide whether or not to expand their Medicaid program. States that choose to expand their Medicaid programs and provide coverage to low-income adults are able to receive full federal funding for the first three years (Kaiser, 2013). After the initial three-year period, states can receive at least 90% federal funding for the additional adults covered under expanded Medicaid (Kaiser, 2013). Perhaps due to the prospect of increased Medicaid future expenditures, 19 states have chosen not to expand their Medicaid coverage, as of May 2016 (National Conference of State Legislatures, 2016). In short, Medicaid eligibility and covered services vary widely from state to state and are subject to state budget cuts.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Becoming a Medicaid Provider

The expanded coverage of Medicaid and the inclusion of behavioral health services have led to an increased interest among psychologists to become a Medicaid provider. Medicaid is one of the largest insurance providers for specific low-income individuals: 1) low-income parents and children, 2) individuals with disabilities, and 3) the elderly. Licensed psychologists, particularly



"Recent research indicates that counties that have a larger percentage of residents who are Black, Hispanic, or living in rural areas are less likely to have outpatient mental health facilities that accept Medicaid, which is particularly concerning."

those who are also licensed in school psychology, often specialize in providing treatment, assessment, and consultation to children and their families, as well as to individuals with disabilities and therefore are particularly well suited to provide services to those who qualify for Medicaid. There are a number of advantages and disadvantages, however, to consider in becoming a Medicaid provider.

One of the primary advantages to becoming a Medicaid provider is the increased client base. States must offer Early and Periodic Screening, Diagnostic and Treatment (EPSDT) benefits to all Medicaid-eligible children and adolescents under age 21. EPSDT services include mandatory screening and treatment for mental health conditions. As noted in our previous installment, many private insurance panels are closed to those professionals who provide behavioral health care, especially in major metropolitan areas. Recent research indicates that counties that have a larger percentage of residents who are Black, Hispanic, or living in rural areas are less likely to have outpatient mental health facilities that accept Medicaid, which is particularly concerning (Cummings, Wen, Ko, & Druss, 2013). The advantage becomes access to clients in areas where other insurance panels may be closed.

According to the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services Health Resources and Services Administration (2014), as of June 19, 2014 there were 4,000 designated Health Professional Shortage Areas (HPSAs) for the field of mental health as determined by a psychiatrist to population ration of 1:30,000. Medicaid eligibility is frequently taken into consideration when

designating a HPSA (Health and Human Services Administration, 2016). Although the HPSA mental health ratio is determined by access to psychiatrists, the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services considers core mental health professionals who can serve in HPSAs to include psychiatrists, clinical psychologists, clinical social workers, marriage and family therapists, and psychiatric nurses (Health and Human Services Administration, 2016); therefore psychologists are often eligible to receive incentives such as tuition reimbursement, bonus payments for working in HPSAs and serving individuals who qualify for Medicaid. Indeed, there is a national shortage of Medicaid providers, so those who are credentialed will likely not have a shortage of work. As such, becoming credentialed with Medicaid may provide psychologists with an immediate client base, and from a social justice perspective, becoming a provider under Medicaid demonstrates a commitment to working with underserved populations.

There are a number disadvantages of becoming a credentialed Medicaid provider. Depending on the location of the practice, reimbursement rates may be lower for clients with Medicaid compared to those with private insurance. However, Gasquoine (2010) notes that this may not always be the case. Assuming the same workload, some private insurance companies actually pay a lower reimbursement rate because some laws prevent independent providers from bargaining as managed care organizations (Gasquoine, 2010).

Additionally, similar to the burdens associated with becoming credentialed with insurance companies, there are a number of administrative burdens and effect on services associated with being a Medicaid provider. Psychologists may experience loss of time due to paperwork related to Medicaid billing. Medicaid also does not reimburse for case management of metal health services or integrative behavioral health services

(Nordal, 2012), which may impact psychologists' ability to work with physicians within different health care settings. Furthermore, there is additional emphases on providing short-term treatment or conducting the minimum amount of time for a psychological evaluation given the constraints of reimbursement. Indeed, administrative and financial burdens may be particularly important for early career faculty who may have a small unaccompanied practice and no administrative support.

How to Enroll in Medicaid as a Provider

The first step to enrolling as a Medicaid provider is obtaining a state psychologist license, through the state board of psychologists. Once licensed, you will need to register for a National Provider Identifier (NPI) number here. Additionally, we suggest that you have the following information easily available for completing any necessary paperwork: Social Security Number (or Employment Identification Number), a copy of your W-9 form, a cancelled check for Electronic Funds Transfer, and mailing address.

Once you receive the NPI number, review your state's requirements and follow the enrollment procedures for the state in which you live. This information is available through either using the search function for "Medicaid Provider Enrollment" or through this website (click on your state to find your Medicaid office). It is important to note that each state website is organized differently, but there will likely be a section or tab for providers, and then a "Getting Started" or "Provider Enrollment" link. The Medicaid website for your state may also provide an enrollment checklist.

If you would rather not go through the process of enrolling in Medicaid on your own, you can hire a professional medical billing specialist to guide you through the process. One way to find a reputable billing specialist is to contact your state association of psychologists. You can email board members, send an email inquiry to the state list serve, or join a committee in order to network and get recommendations for billing specialists.

Looking Ahead

In this article, we provided a brief overview of the process of becoming a Medicaid healthcare provider. A previous article discussed becoming credentialed with insurance panels. In the next installment of *Professors in Private Practice*, we will address the advantages and disadvantages of board certification for early career faculty in private practice.

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a more personal level with students, families, and school professionals and collaborate with community organizations. Two such community outreach events include the semi-annual Pop-Up Free Store and the annual Adopt-A-Family Program.

Pop-Up Free Store

The mission of the Pop-Up Free Store is to provide an easily accessible, dignified way for community members to receive free, donated items. The event is modeled after the international movement titled the Street Store. In the parking lot of a Columbus metropolitan elementary school, 20 SASP-OSU members set up a "pop-up" store, which included clothes hanging along the fence and additional items organized on tables. An estimated 8-10 cars full of items were donated for the event, including clothing, shoes, and accessories for men, women, and children; specialty clothing (e.g., maternity, infant, professional, winter outerwear);

household items; toys, books, and entertainment items; and personal hygiene items.

Approximately 40 community members shopped for donated items, and we were thrilled with their positive feedback. Several people expressed that they were able to take home "exactly what they needed." One student excitedly told his friend about an Xbox-themed shirt that he spotted, and a man told us that he found several pairs of pants and an Ohio State jersey that fit him. Many community members also seemed excited to shop for specific family members and friends. One woman donated a dollar to express her appreciation of the event and to encourage future free stores. In the midst of a rigorous graduate program, it was a refreshing opportunity for SASP-OSU members to chat and connect with students and families.

Adopt-A-Family Program

This past Christmas, SASP-OSU revived an Adopt-A-Family Program that was in practice before current students entered the program. In collaboration with the school counselor at a local elementary school, our organization identified a family with parents who, due to financial circumstances, would have struggled to provide Christmas gifts for their four children. With close to \$300 in donations, SASP-OSU was able to purchase toys, fleece pajamas, thick winter socks, and a school uniform shirt for each child; gift baskets for their parents; and gift cards for the family to use together. A few days before Christmas, three of our members delivered the gifts with wrapping paper and bows so that Mom and Dad could enjoy wrapping presents for their children. Mom was touched by the gifts and told us to have a blessed Christmas, giving each of us a hug while guarding the living room from her curious children.



Lessons Learned

Collaboration Between Agencies and Professionals

As graduate students receiving training on matters of social justice and diversity, we continue to learn about the importance of integrating our services with other agencies and professionals, both within the schools and greater communities that we support. In an effort to ensure culturally responsive practices within the community, we partnered with a local church and the elementary school principal for the Pop-Up Free Store. This partnership enabled us to determine and better address the unique needs of the community, including students and families. Through this event, we learned firsthand that collaboration with agencies and professionals

requires patience, preparation, excellent communication, and organization. As a result, we were better able to support the students, families, and communities we serve.

Grassroots Efforts in Social Justice

In communities with such high poverty, it can often seem impossible to make a tangible difference. Through our community outreach events, however, we have learned that every effort is worthwhile: each interaction is meaningful, and the smallest gestures can significantly impact individuals and families. For example, the clothing available at the Pop-Up Free Store could help men and women to make a positive impression in the job setting and to pursue professional opportunities. Additionally, our Adopt-A-Family program allowed four children to continue experiencing the spirit of Christmas in a way that only children can.

The Importance of Sustainable Practices

Community members who visited the Pop-Up Free Store were incredibly excited to hear that another store would occur in the spring. While we were pleased to hear this feedback, we also realized that as it stands, the store could not be sustained without SASP-OSU. Over time, SASP-OSU plans to increase involvement of the elementary school students and staff in the operations of the event. This student and staff involvement will increase the sustainability of the Pop-Up Free Store so that it can occur for years to come. Additionally, we believe that this transfer of ownership will help the elementary school students and staff further connect with their community and build students' skills such as event planning, public speaking, writing, organization, and financial responsibility. SASP-OSU plans to continue supporting the event via donations and advertising.

Future Directions for SASP-OSU

SASP-OSU will continue to advocate for social justice through our Chapter meetings, professional development opportunities (such as an upcoming training on the effects of trauma on student learning and development), and mentoring opportunities for first year students and novice student researchers. We also intend to build upon our community outreach events. Specifically, the local elementary school has graciously agreed to partner with SASP-OSU for a second Pop-Up Free Store in the spring. For the next store, we will reach out to local businesses to expand the amount of donations in order to meet a wider range of community members' needs. Additionally, we plan to advertise the event more thoroughly by distributing flyers to local organizations and by strengthening our social media presence. Finally, we will continue our Adopt-A-Family program and reinstate it as a core tradition of our chapter.

Kelsey Ross, M.A., is a third year doctoral student in school psychology at The Ohio State University (OSU). She has been a member of the SASP community since 2014 and currently serves as SASP-OSU's Social Justice Chair. She received a B.A. with Honors Research Distinction in Psychology and English from OSU. Kelsey is currently a member of a research team examining the effects of a Tier 2 self-questioning intervention with systematic prompt fading on reading comprehension. Her other research interests include phonics instruction and intervention.

Jamie Hall, M.A., is a third year doctoral student in school psychology at The Ohio State University (OSU). She has been a member of SASP for three years and currently serves as one of the School Psychology Program's two Graduate Teaching Associates. She received a B.A. in Psychology from OSU in 2014 and a M.A. from

OSU in 2015. Jamie's current research interests include suicide prevention and postvention services, the importance of university assisted community schools, and long term outcomes for students of special education.

Qingqing Xia, M.A., is a third year doctoral student in school psychology at The Ohio State University (OSU). She has been a member of SASP for three years and served as SASP-OSU's Treasurer/Secretary. She received a B.A. with Research Distinction in Psychology from OSU in 2014 and a M.A. from OSU in 2015. Qingqing is currently a member of a research team examining the effects of anaphoric cueing on reading comprehension for students with Autism. Her other research interests include early childhood development and interventions for English Language Learners.

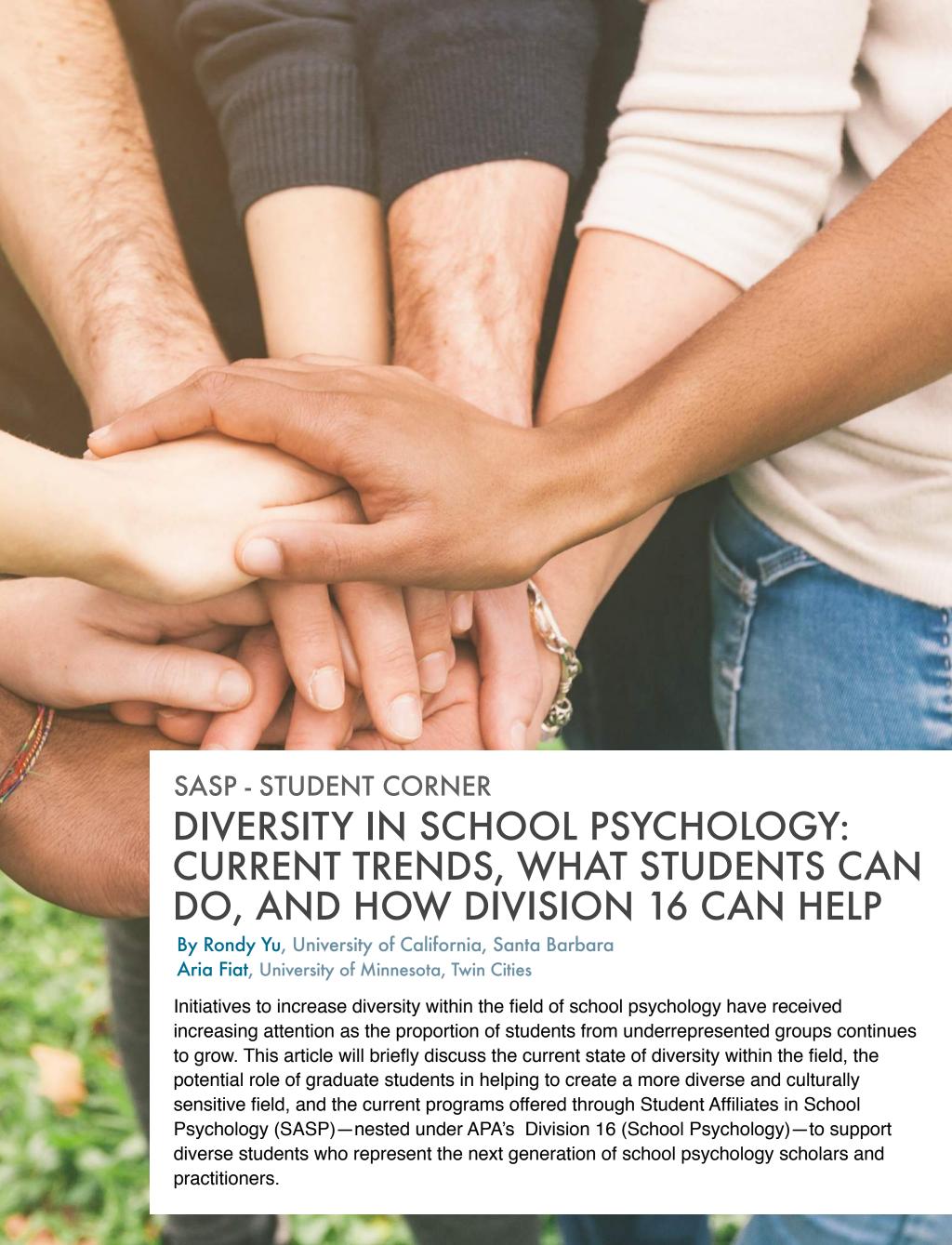
Caroline Dahlstrom, M.A., is a third year doctoral student in School Psychology at The Ohio State University, where she earned her B.S. in Early Childhood Development and Education in 2013. She is one of the School Psychology Program's two Graduate Teaching Associates, and has served as the Communications Chair and Treasurer/Secretary for SASP-OSU. Caroline is currently spearheading and conducting research on a mentoring program for African American boys in 4th and 5th grades.



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Current State of Diversity in School Psychology

School psychologists have historically been a culturally homogeneous group. Only within the last four decades have the issues of increasing cultural diversity within the profession, recruiting diverse faculty and graduate students, and promoting multicultural competence garnered attention in the school psychology literature (Lopez & Rogers, 2007). Growing awareness of the need to diversify the field occurred alongside major changes to the demographic composition of the United States. This demographic shift is directly reflected in the diversity of the student population served in U.S. schools and classrooms. The National Center for Education Statistics (2016) estimated that current public school enrollments include 48.2 percent White, 15.4 percent Black, 26.9 percent Hispanic, 5.5 percent Asian, 1 percent American Indian, and 3 percent Mixed race students. Data reported by the US Census Bureau in 2010 revealed that the White-only population remains proportionally the largest racial and ethnic group, but Hispanic and Asian populations are growing at a much greater rate (Humes, Jones, & Ramirez, 2011). Given these observed changes and future projections of even greater diversity in our student population, concerns have been raised about the relatively slow rate of change in the demographic make-up of school psychologists and how it may impact school psychological service delivery.

Numerous scholars have argued that diversity is important for promoting social justice and accessing the diverse perspectives and talents of individuals from underrepresented backgrounds to better serve the diverse make-up of our students in public schools (Grapin, Bocanegra, Green, Lee, & Jaafar, 2016). While the demographic composition of school psychologists may not reflect that of the K-12 student

population any time soon given the significant disparity that exists, the need to shrink the gap remains. So where are we currently in our efforts to promote diversity? Well, there have been numerous efforts made in the field to further advance the goal of diversification. For example, the Committee on Ethnic Minority Affairs (CEMA) under APA's Office of Ethnic Minority Affairs (OEMA) was formed to increase the visibility and accessibility of model strategies for recruitment and retention of individuals from ethnic minority backgrounds. The National Association of School Psychologist (NASP) also stands at the forefront of addressing diversity issues through its formation of the Multicultural Affairs Committee (MAC) to promote cultural awareness and multicultural competence in practice. Some of the initiatives undertaken have focused on minority recruitment, scholarships, and training. While change has been slow, NASP membership surveys conducted in 2010 and 2015 reveal that the percentage of members from racial and/or ethnic minority groups has increased from approximately 10 percent in 2010 to nearly 14 percent in 2015 (Walcott et al. 2016; Castillo, Curtis, & Gelley, 2013).

What School Psychology Graduate Students Can Do to Support Diversification

A recent article by Grapin and colleagues (2016) provides several recommendations to graduate students for supporting diversity recruitment initiatives. These recommendations include: 1) participating in the admissions process as supplemental interviewers or pairing with students during campus visits to allow for sharing of information about peer support, 2) disseminating information about school psychology to raise knowledge and awareness (e.g., present a brief presentation on school psychology in undergraduate classes, contribute to student newsletters and publications, work with



on-campus organizations to educate students at career fairs), 3) participating in peer mentoring to include academic and emotional support for students from minority backgrounds, and 4) participating in student governance or interest groups that focus on diversity issues to strengthen peer support networks.

In addition to contributing to recruitment activities, graduate students can take important steps to enhance their multicultural competence. The diverse demographic profile of the student population in the U.S. necessitates that school psychology training programs prepare all graduates, regardless of their cultural background, to competently work within a diverse world. Strategies outlined by NASP for promoting multicultural competence include: 1) further exploring your culture and beliefs, 2) believing that you can serve children from any racial and ethnic background, 3) developing contacts with professionals to consult and communicate with about multicultural issues, 4) recognizing

differences within any cultural group, 5) involving families in their children's education, 6) learning about culture through children and their families, and 7) using a strengths-based approach in working with children and families.

SASP and Division 16: Supporting Diverse Students

The Student Affiliates of School Psychology (SASP), under Division 16 (School Psychology) of APA, is aware of the importance of promoting diversity within our field and supports students from underrepresented minority backgrounds who aspire to become school psychologists. In recognition of this, SASP runs a promising Diversity Mentorship Program and Diversity Scholarship Program with the support of Division 16. The Diversity Mentoring Program pairs graduate students with an outside faculty member or practicing school psychologist. The purpose of this pairing is to create opportunities for students and mentors to talk about issues

related to diversity, collaborate on professional activities, and develop professionally supportive relationships. With the support of Division 16, SASP also offers a Diversity Scholarship Program that provides financial assistance to graduate students from diverse cultural backgrounds. The program awards two \$500 scholarships to students in their first or second years of training, and one \$1,000 scholarship to an advanced student in their third, fourth, or fifth year of training. Awardees are then invited to present a poster highlighting their research at the SASP Student Research Forum (SRF) at the annual APA convention.

For those interested in participating in the Diversity Mentorship Program, please contact our current Diversity Affairs Chair, <u>Asha Unni</u>. For those interested in the Diversity Scholarship Program, please visit <u>the official call</u> online.

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The University of Nebraska Lincoln School Psychology Program is excited to announce the hiring of **Dr. Matt Gormley** as an assistant professor. Dr. Gormley received his Ph.D. from Lehigh University in School Psychology. He is joining current faculty Dr. Susan Swearer, Dr. Sue Sheridan, Dr. Ed Daly, and Dr. Scott Napolitano.

Loyola University Chicago School of Law and School of Education are pleased to announce an Online Cross-Disciplinary Certificate Program in School Discipline Reform. This online certificate program is designed for professionals committed to serving their students and their communities by understanding, shaping and implementing prevention-oriented approaches to school discipline. This part-time program provides educational professionals--superintendents, principals, other school and district-level administrators, school attorneys, discipline deans, school psychologists, school social workers, counselors, and other educators—with the tools and skills needed to lead comprehensive initiatives to reduce the use of suspension and expulsions and their adverse impacts on vulnerable students. Go to LUC.edu/schooldiscipline to learn more about the certificate program."

The Chicago School of Professional Psychology (Chicago campus), one of the largest and oldest schools in the nation, is pleased to announce a new Psy.D. program in School Psychology! This program has a strong focus on evidence-based interventions, and brings together the expertise of a large group of diverse faculty from a vibrant urban setting.

Further, the Chicago School of Professional Psychology is pleased to welcome **Dr. Pip McGirl** as an Associate Professor in School Psychology. Dr. McGirl has interests in attachment and trauma, crisis prevention and intervention, international psychology, and pedagogy of professional education. She is actively engaged in curriculum projects with the University of Rwanda, and Hue University, Vietnam to develop the profession of school psychology and school guidance and counseling internationally.

Finally, the Chicago School of Professional Psychology, School Psychology program, would like to congratulate **Dr. Rik Carl D'Amato** on his selection as the winner of the 2016 Jack Bardon Distinguished School Psychology Service Award! Rik is known for his international work around the world and his focus on neuropsychological interventions. We are glad to celebrate with you! Congratulations!

Texas Governor Greg Abbott has appointed **Ronald S. Palomares**, **Ph.D.** (Texas Woman's University) to the Texas State Board of Examiners of Psychologists (TSBEP) for a five year term as a board member. TSBEP is the Texas licensing board overseeing the licensing of psychologists, psychological associates and specialists in school psychology.

See Yourself & Colleagues Here!

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



PARTING SHOT: FAMED THAYER HOTEL VISITED

On a recent trip in November 2016 to the New York City area, Tom and Susan Fagan visited the historic Thayer Hotel at West Point, NY. The hotel was the site of the Thayer Conference on the Functions, Qualifications, and Training of School Psychologists, August 22-31, 1954. The conference set directions for the development of the APA Division of School Psychology and the field in general. The recommendations for training, credentialing, and practice, a Thayer Model, provided alternatives to those of the Boulder Model of 1949. For a discussion of the conference see *School Psychology Quarterly*, 2005, *20(3)*.

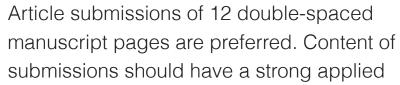
DIVISION 16 EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

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	2017-19	Cathy Fiorello	Temple University Email: catherine.fiorello@temple.edu
Past-President	2017-19	Lea Theodore	College of William & Mary Email: ltheodore@wm.edu
Vice President for Convention Affairs & Public Relations (VP- CAPR)	2017-19	Rik D'Amato	The Chicago School of Professional Psychology Email: rdamato@thechicacgoschool.edu
Vice President for Professional Affairs (VP-PA)	2015-17	Michelle Athanasiou	University of Northern Colorado Email: <u>michelle.athanasiou@unco.edu</u>
Vice-President for Membership	2015-17	Amy Briesch	Northeastern University Email: <u>A.Briesch@neu.edu</u>
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Council Representative	2016-18	Samuel Y. Song	University of Nevada, Las Vegas Email: sam.song@unlv.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.





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. The manuscript should follow APA format and should identify organizational affiliations for all authors on the title page as well as provide contact information for the corresponding author. 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:

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

Fall Issue: Approximate publication Date - October 1st; Submission Deadline - August 15th Winter Issue: Approximate publication Date - February 1st; Submission Deadline - December 15th

Spring Issue: Approximate publication Date - June 1st; Submission Deadline - April 15th

