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ASSOCIATION OF SUMMER EXTENDED SCHOOL YEAR SERVICES AND ACADEMIC REGRESSION

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The provision of extended school year (ESY) services has been interpreted to be part of a free appropriate public education in the least restrictive environment as mandated by the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA, 2004) and its subsequent amendments. ESY services refer to those special education services that occur beyond the typical 180-day school year over the course of the summer (Burke & Decker, 2017; Queenan, 2015; Sobeck, 2017). The need and context for ESY services should be articulated among the child's Individualized Education Program (IEP) team (Jacob, Decker, & Lugg, 2016). Yet, the process for determining which students are to receive ESY services does not appear to be consistent or clear cut across or within states, which

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creates difficulty for students and their IEP teams (Burke & Decker, 2017; Etscheidt, 2002).

Additionally, the literature from the case law does not provide especially clear guidance as to this process of determining ESY services. From reviewing the case law literature, the consistent findings have been that eligibility for ESY services should *not* be determined according to any one single factor (Burke & Decker, 2017; Etscheidt, 2002; Sobeck, 2017). Rather than any one single factor, multiple factors should be considered in determining eligibility for ESY services yet these factors can vary widely. These factors can include but are not limited to: the nature and severity of the disability; the presence of an emerging critical skill; the rate of the child's progress during the school year; the availability of resources by the parent or community; and the degree of regression and subsequent recoupment (Burke & Decker, 2017; Sobeck, 2017). This degree of regression and subsequent recoupment used to determine student eligibility for ESY services is also known as the regression-recoupment standard (Burke & Decker, 2017; Sobeck, 2017). While states and respective schools should consider a combination of factors, the practice of determining ESY services appears to vary considerably by state and even local education agency.

While acceleration of IEP skill acquisition should be part of determining the receipt of ESY services, the regression-recoupment standard is the most widely used factor in determining eligibility for ESY services with nearly every state considering this factor (Queenan, 2015). Queenan (2015) reported that eleven states used the regression-recoupment standard primarily in determining eligibility for ESY services (e.g., New York, Ohio, Nebraska, North Dakota, Massachusetts, Arkansas, Oregon, Montana, Arizona, Texas and Alabama). As such, these states require evidence that students would substantially regress over the summer break and would be unable to readily recoup those losses within the first six weeks. The regression-recoupment standard on its own has been considered difficult for parents to satisfy and ultimately inequitable for parents, who can only conclusively prove regression and a lack of recoupment if they permit their student regress over the summer break (Queenan, 2015). Even then, the degree of regression that is required must be *substantial* or *significant*, such that a parent may have evidence of regression with a lack of recoupment but that regression may not be considered *substantial* or *significant*. Neither of these terms, *substantial* or *significant*, describing the degree of regression has been defined precisely or in a uniform manner according to a certain percentage (Queenan, 2012; 2015). The most prevalent degree of regression noted from reviewing state and local education agency guidelines appears to be twenty percent regression from the spring to fall semester (e.g.,

Allegheny Intermediate Unit, 2018; Public Schools of North Carolina, 2008; Saint Paul Public Schools, 2018).

The purpose of the current study was to examine the association of ESY services with regression and a subsequent lack of recoupment in academic achievement. The current study focused on regression of skills that were not quickly recouped in terms of mathematics and reading achievement among students with disabilities. To achieve this purpose, two research questions were examined. For the first research question, we examined whether receiving ESY services was associated with regression in mathematics and reading achievement respectively. For the second research question, we compared regression in mathematics and reading achievement between those children who received ESY services versus those children who did not.

Method

Sample

We utilized data from the 2010-2011 Early Childhood Longitudinal Study-Kindergarten (ECLS-K) cohort (Tourangeau et al., 2018). The restricted data set consisted of approximately 740 children with Individualized Education Programs (IEPs) as of the second semester of Kindergarten, which was the first wave that this information was collected. Unweighted numbers must be rounded to the nearest 10 in accordance with data security standards (Statistical Standard Programs, 2018). Weighted numbers are subsequently reported to bypass the need to round. Approximately 70% (n_w = 119,596) identified as male and 30% (n_w = 51,255) as female. Approximately 50% (n_w = 85,426) were white, non-Hispanic, 13% (n_w = 22,211) as African American, 26% (n_w = 44,422) as Hispanic, 4.0% (n_w = 6,834) as Asian, and less than 2% were Native American or Hawaiian.

Approximately 26% (n_w = 44,421) resided in rural areas while 29% (n_w = 49,547) in urban areas and 45% (n_w = 76,883) in suburban areas. The average age was 69.43 months old (SD = 5.87). The average length of summer vacation days was 76.45 (SD = 7.54).

Measures

All measures were derived from the 2010-2011 ECLS-K. To measure ESY services, parents were asked whether their student received special education services over the summer. Of those parents who responded, approximately 6% (n_w = 9,511) received ESY services while 94% (n_w = 161,341) did not. To measure academic regression, we determined as twenty or more percent decline in achievement scores from the spring of Kindergarten to the fall of 1st grade. For both mathematics and reading achievement, we utilized Item Response Theory (IRT) scaled scores. These scores take into account both item difficulty and discrimination in creating scaled scores under a 2 parameter logistic model (Tourangeau et al., 2018). Mathematics and reading achievement items were derived from National Assessment for Educational Progress (NAEP) framework (Najarian, Tourangeau, Nord, & Wallner-Allen, 2018). Najarian et al. (2018) provides a complete psychometric report of both the mathematics and reading achievement items utilized. Approximately 7% (n_w = 16,772) had regressed with respect to mathematics achievement and did not readily recoup after the summer break. Approximately 1% (n_w = 534) had regressed with respect to reading achievement and did not readily recoup after the summer break.

Analyses

In calculating the percent of academic regression for mathematics and reading, we statistically controlled for the number of days into the fall semester when the assessment was given.

Schools varied as to when they administered assessments in the fall with an average of 33.30 days ($SD = 27.06$) into the semester. We statistically controlled for this as students would have varying opportunities to recoup any regression given this variability. To answer the first research question, we conducted a chi-square (χ^2) test of independence to examine whether the receipt of ESY services was associated with regression in mathematics and reading achievement respectively. The Phi (Φ) coefficient was utilized as the measure of association with values of 0.10, 0.30, and 0.50 are small, medium, and large respectively (Cohen, 1988). Standardized residuals greater than |1.96| indicate statistical significance for individual cells at the .05 level or less. To answer the second research question, we conducted an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). Cohen's d was utilized as the measure of effect size with values of 0.20, 0.50, and 0.80 and greater as small, medium, and large respectively (Cohen, 1988). As the ECLS-K is a complex data set, weights were applied (Hahs-Vaughn & Onwuegbuzie, 2006). With the application of the appropriate weight, the sample of approximately 740 children with IEPs represent some 170,851 children across the nation.

Results

For the first research question, our results indicate that receipt of ESY services was less associated with regression in mathematics or reading achievement. Students who received ESY services were less likely to regress in mathematics than students who did not receive those services, $\chi^2(1) = 43.29$, $p < 0.001$, $\Phi = 0.02$. This value of the Phi coefficient indicates a small association. Students who received ESY services were also less likely to regress in reading than students who did not receive those services, $\chi^2(1) = 78.93$, $p < 0.001$, $\Phi = 0.04$. Table 1 contains the weighted frequencies along with standardized residuals (parenthetically represented) for both mathematics and reading achievement.

TABLE 1: WEIGHTED FREQUENCIES WITH STANDARDIZED RESIDUALS

Mathematics		
	Regressed	Did Not Regress
ESY Services	748	8,762
	(-6.1)	(2.0)
No ESY Services	16,023	145,317
	(1.5)	(-0.5)

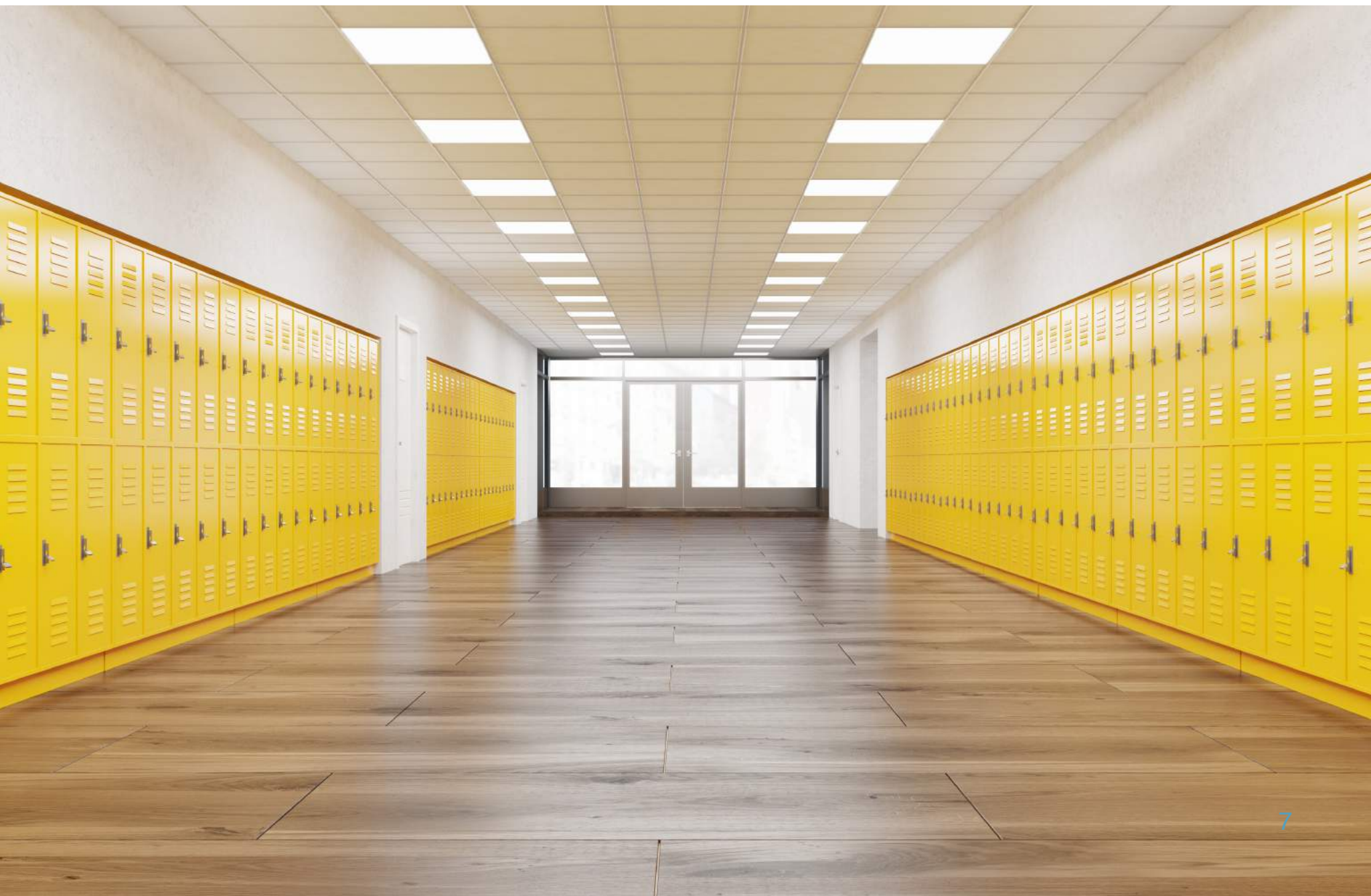| Reading		
	Regressed	Did Not Regress
ESY Services	0	7,743
	(-8.3)	(0.8)
No ESY Services	534	52,314
	(3.2)	(-0.3)

We next examined whether differences in the percent of academic regression over the summer with respect to mathematics and reading achievement. For mathematics achievement, the average amount of regression was 4.0% ($SD = 0.17$) among students with disabilities who received ESY services,

which was significantly lower than students with disabilities who did not receive ESY services ($M = 8.0\%$, $SD = 0.16$), $F(1,170,580) = 504.95$, $p < 0.001$, $d = -0.25$. For reading achievement, the average amount of regression was 8.7% ($SD = 0.17$) among students with disabilities who received ESY services, which was significantly lower than students with disabilities who did not receive ESY services ($M = 10.0\%$, $SD = 0.11$), $F(1,170,580) = 87.13$, $p < 0.001$, $d = -0.12$. We statistically controlled for the number of days into the fall semester when the assessment was given.

Discussion

While a body of literature has indicated the value of academic interventions over the summer for students with disabilities (Christodoulou et al., 2017; Menard & Wilson, 2014), there has been no study that examined the effectiveness of ESY services among students with disabilities. The current study found that students with disabilities had a greater degree of academic regression of skills that were not quickly recouped in mathematics than reading achievement. This difference extended to its association with ESY services, which indicated that students with disabilities who had received ESY services regressed significantly less than their counterparts who did not receive ESY services. This difference was larger with respect to mathematics achievement than reading achievement, which may be a function of summer reading programs being available through schools and public libraries in many places.

Our results also indicate that ESY services were associated with students with disabilities being less likely to have regressed in skills that were not quickly recouped for both reading and mathematics achievement using the twenty percent regression as the benchmark. We did not explore other benchmarks but considered the examination of a criterion or cutpoint score important given that local education agencies would likely make decisions based upon some criterion among others. The cutpoint score could of course vary widely but demonstrating consistent results using a continuous metric and a cutpoint score of twenty percent regression was considered worthwhile. One limitation that emerged in the current study was the large, sample size that may produce statistical significance despite small effect sizes due to the under-estimation of standard errors. Given the large, nationally representative nature of our data set, it is possible that our statistical significance was an artifact.

The current study is the first of its kind to examine the association of ESY services with academic achievement outcomes among students. Edgar, Spence, and Kenowitz (1977) examined the self-reported performance of 18 ESY programs across different metrics. While this study contained some worthwhile information, this study reported no statistical significance (i.e., p values) or practical significance (i.e., effect size), therefore this study did not qualify as empirical. There are other summer programs that have been utilized with success for students with disabilities or considered at risk but these programs were not required as part of an IEP plan as ESY services. For instance, Burgin and Hughes (2008) evaluated the effectiveness of a summer reading program for students from low socioeconomic status, which indicated positive effects. Menard and Wilson (2014) had a similar reading program for students with reading disabilities, which indicated its effectiveness as well but these were not ESY services required as part of an IEP plan. Blanton (2015) developed a home-based summer reading program for students attending a Title I school (i.e., lower socioeconomic status population), which also indicated positive effects but also not provided as part of an IEP process.

Outcomes other than academic are indeed important but again will vary widely depending upon the nature and severity of a student's disability along with IEP goals. Academic achievement was utilized in the current study as it would appear to be a ubiquitous outcome to be considered for all students. The current study indicates the potential promise of ESY services in terms of the academic achievement outcomes for students with disabilities. The lack of clear and direct guidance to local education agencies and states in determining eligibility for ESY services appears to remain a barrier to this potential promise of these services (Barnard-Brak, Stevens, Valenzuela, *in press*). Yet, the current study was a correlational study, not an experimental design, which precludes any estimation of causal effects. However, given the large and nationally representative nature of the data set, the results do suggest that results may be generalizable within the context of a correlational study framework.

The implications for school psychologists center on the role that they play in the IEP process. School psychologists are trained to assess and evaluate academic achievement results with their psychometric training. School psychologists would be appear to be the best qualified professionals on an IEP team to evaluate whether regression occurred dependent upon the standards utilized by their state and school district. From the results of the current study, school psychologists can advise IEP teams whether ESY services would be potentially beneficial for their student. Specifically that, ESY services for mathematics appear to be less effective than for reading, which may be confounded by the existence of reading programs in the summer apart from ESY services. Ultimately though, students who received ESY services did regress less academically compared

to those students who did not receive ESY services using a nationally-representative data set.

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THE ACCEPTABILITY AND PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS OF A PSYCHOEDUCATIONAL PROGRAM ON POSITIVE PARENT-ADOLESCENT RELATIONSHIPS FOR ASIAN IMMIGRANT PARENTS

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The population of Asian-identified individuals within the United States (U.S.) has grown considerably in the recent past, increasing by 43% between the years of 2000 and 2010, four times faster than that of the general U.S. population (Hoeffel, Rastogi, Kim & Hasan, 2012). Moreover, Asian-identified individuals are currently the fastest growing ethnic minority population within the U.S. (Hoeffel et al., 2012). Relatedly, there has been growth of the school-age population who identify as Asian, 25.5% of whom are children of immigrants (Aratani & Liu, 2015; Migration Policy Institute, 2017).

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The period of late childhood and early adolescence has been highlighted as a peak time during which internalizing concerns, such as depression, develop (Cairns, Yap, Reavley, & Jorm, 2015; Merikangas et al., 2010). Indeed, during this period, incidence rates of depressive disorders among Asian American (AA) youth have been approximated at 17% (Saluja, Iachan, Scheidt, Overpeck, Sun & Giedd, 2004). Moreover, children of Asian immigrants are often exposed to unique stressors that can correspond to an increase in internalizing symptoms (Huang, Calzada, Cheng & Brotman, 2012). Such stressors may include experiences of separation from a parent during migration, acculturative stress, and increased discrimination, all of which have been linked to higher rates of depressive symptoms among children of immigrants (Juang, Syed & Cookston, 2012; Suárez-Orozco, Todorova & Louie, 2002; Wyatt, Ung, Park, Kwon & Trinh-Shevrin, 2015).

The quality of parent-child relationships has also been linked to the development of internalizing disorders among adolescents (Stark, Banneyer, Wang, & Arora, 2012). Factors such as high levels of family conflict and low levels of warmth within the parent-child relationship have been considered to be risk factors for depressive symptoms among AA youth (Juang, Syed & Takagi, 2007; Wyatt et al., 2015). In particular, conflict within AA families has been proposed to have a negative impact on mental health outcomes as AA families strongly emphasize family cohesion as a cultural ideal, even more so than their Western counterparts (Juang & Alvarez, 2010). This conflict is believed to stem from discrepant views of acceptable degrees of autonomy between youth and parents amongst other cultural ideals (Juang et al., 2007; Lau, Fung, Ho, Liu & Gudiño, 2011; Wu & Chao, 2005). Further, AA parents are reported to display lower levels of warmth in their relationships than their Western counterparts (Deater-Deckard et al., 2011). AA adolescents, however, are reported to desire even greater displays of warmth from their parents than their Western counterparts (Wu & Chao, 2005). Considering the protective role of parental warmth and support for youth autonomy on the development of depression among AA youth (Deater-Deckard et al., 2011; Joussemet, Mageau, & Koestner, 2014; Wyatt et al., 2015), there is a need to address the quality of parent-adolescent relationship among AA families, particularly among Asian immigrant families in the U.S.

While literature regarding risk and protective factors have highlighted the importance of promoting healthy family relationships, limited research on parenting programming among Asian immigrant populations has been undertaken. Family psychoeducational programming has been shown to be effective at reducing symptoms of depression among White youth with a diagnosis of major depressive

disorder (Brady, Kangas & McGill, 2017). Further, family psychoeducational programming has been shown to prevent the later development of depressive disorders among White youth (Fosco, Van Ryzin, Connell & Stormshak, 2016). Among AA populations, evaluations of family psychoeducational programming, which focus on improving parenting practices and increasing positive parent-child interactions, have been conducted with parents whose children have already received psychiatric diagnoses (Lau et al., 2011; Shin, 2004). To our knowledge, no research has examined the delivery of family psychoeducational programming as a preventive intervention for AA immigrant youth and families. Considering the various barriers to accessing mental health interventions which exist among Asian immigrant families (e.g., stigma, mental health literacy; Abe-Kim et al., 2007; Arora & Algios, in press), culturally-informed prevention programming is needed (Arora, Nastasi, & Leff, 2017; Perreira & Ornelas, 2011).

Current Study

The current study sought to develop and examine the perceived effectiveness and acceptability of a brief, school-based, culturally-informed psychoeducational program addressing parent-adolescent relationships among Asian immigrant parents.

Method

Participants

Although the psychoeducational program was offered to a multiethnic group of immigrant families, this study will focus only on Asian immigrant participants in attendance. Thirty-six participants (n = 36; *M* = 48.89 years; *SD* = 8.50) were included in this study. Participants were Asian immigrant parents with at least one child between the ages of 12 and 21 (n = 33; *M* = 17.39; *SD* = 2.10). The majority of participants

were female (n = 27; 75.0%) and identified as Chinese (n = 35; 97.2%). One participant identified as Asian/Pacific Islander; however, did not report their country of origin. Moreover, the majority of participants reported that Chinese was their first language (*n* = 31, 86.1%). Participants varied greatly in the length of time they had resided in the U.S., ranging from 0.5 to 31 years (*M* = 6.91 years, *SD* = 9.20). The majority of their adolescent-aged children were also born in China (n = 32; 88.9%) and varied in the length of time spent residing in the U.S. (*M* = 2.38 years; *SD* = 2.46).

Measures

Perceived effectiveness. A perceived effectiveness measure was created to assess the participant's knowledge of topics addressed in the psychoeducational program. This perceived effectiveness measure consisted of eight items that assessed participants' knowledge of stressors faced by adolescents, symptoms of mental health concerns, and how parents can enhance the quality of their relationship. Items were scored on a five-point Likert scale from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. An overall mean score of "perceived effectiveness" was calculated. The eight items measuring perceived effectiveness demonstrated excellent internal consistency (*a* = .98) within this sample.

Acceptability. Acceptability was defined as participants' overall satisfaction with the content of the program (Proctor et al., 2011). The acceptability of the program materials was assessed using a modified version of an existing acceptability scale (Fabrizio, Lam, Hirschmann & Stewart, 2013). The five-item scale was modified from open ended questions to a five-point Likert scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. An overall mean score of "acceptability" was calculated. The five items demonstrated excellent internal consistency (*a* = .93) within this sample.

Demographic characteristics. Information regarding participants' ethnicity, native language, place of birth, and time spent living in the U.S. was collected. In addition, information regarding participants' adolescent's age, place of birth, time spent living in the U.S. was collected.

Procedure

Development of the program. Content of the program was developed in collaboration with school stakeholders (i.e., administrative staff and community group leaders). Upon speaking with key stakeholders, concerns regarding the high incidence rates of depressive symptoms among Asian children of immigrants in the school were brought to the researchers' attention. Key stakeholders also noted concerns regarding the quality of relationships between these youth and parents.

However, concurrent with published literature (Abe-Kim et al., 2007), stakeholders indicated that Asian immigrant parents were reticent in seeking mental health services for their adolescents for a variety of reasons, including stigma against seeking mental health and time limitations in parent schedules for steady attendance of available services. The program materials were constructed to specifically accommodate these concerns. For example, the program materials did not include mention of "mental health" as per stakeholders' request. In addition, in order to increase the feasibility of the program and access for parents, the program was provided in a single session during a school meeting that parents had historically been able to attend.

The final program included knowledge of the symptoms of mental health concerns in line with the diagnosis criteria of depressive disorders within the Fifth Edition of the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders* (*DSM-5*; American Psychiatric Association, 2013). A focus on increasing parents' knowledge of symptoms of depression was included as past research has identified limited awareness of mental health symptomology among youth as a barrier to mental health help-seeking (Logan & King, 2002). Relatedly, the program provided a brief primer to educate parents about unique stressors their ethnic minority adolescents may face (i.e., acculturation dissonance; Juang et al., 2012;

Katsiaficas, Suárez-Orozco, Sirin & Gupta, 2013; Li, 2014). The program also included information about facets of healthy parent-adolescent interactions and the impact these types of interactions could have on adolescent psychological functioning (Ahmadimehr & Yousefi, 2014; Steinberg, 2001; Wyatt et al., 2015; Yap et al., 2014). Sections of dialectical behavioral skills training (i.e., sections on validation and interpersonal effectiveness) were used to inform the content of the program materials (Linehan, 2015). The program also touched upon the importance of promoting developmentally appropriate autonomy during the adolescent years. Embedded role plays allowed for parents to practice skills that corresponded to each of these identified facets of a healthy parent-adolescent relationship (Rohner & Britner, 2002; Weaver & Kim, 2008).

Once this initial framework had been developed, the researcher met with stakeholders once more to receive feedback on the program materials. Modifications were made that allowed for the material to become more accessible to the participants. For example, the role-plays were modified to include circumstances often faced by the proposed participants. Moreover, certain words and phrases were modified to reduce the potential of mental health stigma on the program's acceptability. In addition, researchers made sure to include discussion of participants' cultural norms during instruction. Finally, all program materials were translated into simplified Mandarin by the study's researchers.

Recruitment and program procedure. Recruitment took place in high schools with a high enrollment of children from immigrant families (e.g., Asian youth ranging from 56%-65%; New York State Education Department, 2017). Participants were informed that, at a future parent meeting (monthly meetings held at the participating high schools), researchers would be offering a program on "positive parent-adolescent relationships." The day of the psychoeducational program, parents who were in attendance at the monthly parent teacher meeting were invited to participate in the current study at the beginning of the meeting.

The psychoeducational program lasted for ninety (90) minutes. The program materials were delivered in English and translated into Mandarin. Written materials were all provided in both languages. Prior to the start of the program, parents were asked to provide informed consent. During the program, parents were encouraged share their own experiences and participate in the role-plays. The interventionalist, a graduate student in school psychology, provided feedback on the development of skills in vivo. Immediately following the program, parents completed the post-assessment measures (i.e., Acceptability, Perceived Effectiveness and Demographic questionnaires). Parents were also provided with extra resources (i.e., local mental health clinics) if needed. The institutional review boards at all relevant institutions approved this study.

Results

Participants' responses of perceived effectiveness on an aggregate of all eight questions indicated that participants rated the program as effective in increasing their knowledge about the facets of healthy parent-adolescent relationships ($M = 4.30$, $SD = 0.49$). Participants' highest rating indicated that they found the "program increased [their] knowledge of how to have a discussion with [their] teenager(s) without fighting," ($M = 4.34$, $SD = 0.48$) and "increased [their] knowledge of the importance of making time to talk with [their] teenager(s)" ($M = 4.34$, $SD = 0.55$). Participants' additionally "agreed" that the program "increased [their] knowledge of the importance of letting [their] teenagers make some of their own decisions" ($M = 4.25$, $SD = 0.57$) and "helped [them] identify when [their] teenager(s) was/were

experiencing stress" (*M* = 4.19, *SD* = 0.59), although this was the lowest scored item of the perceived effectiveness measure. For detailed analysis of item data, please refer to Table 1.

TABLE 1: PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS

Question	*n*	*M*	*SD*
This program increased my knowledge of how to have a discussion with my teenager(s) without fighting.	32	4.34	0.48
This program helped me to identify when my teenager(s) is/are experiencing stress.	32	4.19	0.59
This program increased my knowledge of how to respond to my teenager(s) with warmth.	32	4.31	0.54
This program increased my knowledge of the importance of letting my teenager(s) make some of their own decisions.	32	4.25	0.57
This program increased my knowledge of how to talk to my teenager(s) questions in a non-judgmental manner.	32	4.31	0.47
This program increased my knowledge of the importance of validating my teenager(s) feelings.	32	4.31	0.47
This program increased my knowledge of the importance of making time to talk with my teenager(s).	32	4.34	0.55
This program increased my knowledge of the importance of apologizing when I speak to my teenager(s) in a way that hurts their feelings.	32	4.31	0.54

Furthermore, mean responses from participants on all five questions measuring acceptability indicated that they rated the program as acceptable (*M* = 4.19, *SD* = 0.54). The item with the highest rating of acceptability indicated that participants "found the program [to be] useful" (*M* = 4.31, *SD* = 0.53). Moreover, participants "agreed" that they "liked this program," (*M* = 4.23, *SD* = 0.73) were "satisfied with the program," (*M* = 4.20, *SD* = 0.53) and would "recommend this program to [their] friends and relatives" (*M* = 4.14, *SD* = 0.60). Participants additionally "agreed" that the "program met [their] expectations" (*M* = 4.09, *SD* = 0.66), although this was the lowest scored item of the acceptability measure. For detailed analysis of item data, please refer to Table 2.

TABLE 2: ACCEPTABILITY

Question	*n*	*M*	*SD*
I liked this program.	35	4.23	0.73
I found the program useful.	35	4.31	0.53
I am satisfied with the program.	35	4.20	0.53
The program met my expectations.	35	4.09	0.66
I would recommend this program to my friends and relatives.	35	4.14	0.60

Discussion

Due to the increasing population of school-aged children of immigrant parents from Asian countries, culturally-appropriate programming to address their mental health needs is necessary. The current study sought to evaluate the acceptability and perceived effectiveness of a one-session, school-based psychoeducational program designed to increase knowledge of healthy parent-adolescent relationships. Overall, the findings from this study add to the limited research examining culturally-informed mental health programming for immigrant parents, a relatively underserved and expanding population in the U.S.

Results indicated that participants found the program to be effective in increasing their knowledge regarding stressors faced by adolescents, symptoms related to mental health concerns, and facets of a positive parent-adolescent relationships. Moreover, results overall indicated that participants perceived the program to be acceptable. These findings are consistent with previous findings that underscore the importance of culturally-informed programming (Shin, 2004) and build on the limited research underscoring the importance of improving access to tier-one psychoeducational prevention material.

Limitations

This study is not without certain limitations. First, the population recruited was from one geographic region of the U.S. This may potentially limit the applicability of the findings for immigrant populations in other regions of the U.S. Furthermore, the population included in this study is the product of self-selection bias and did not include individuals who opted to not remain at the meeting. Moreover, the majority of participants were female parents of adolescent youth and were Chinese. Additionally, there was a large range in the amount of time that Asian parents of adolescents had been in the country. These factors may also have implications for the generalizability of the study's findings.

Additionally, certain methodological limitations existed. In particular, measures of perceived effectiveness and acceptability lacked prior psychometric data. Further, in an attempt to meet key stakeholders' input of reducing the demand on participants, a decision was made to eliminate pre-intervention collection of effectiveness data. While pre-intervention collection would have improved the quality of data, site limitations, namely a request from our community stakeholders, took precedence. Future research should focus on improving pre-intervention collection of data regarding the knowledge being imparted to populations along with a post-intervention measure of effectiveness. This would allow researchers to define a change in knowledge. In addition, considering the correlation between acculturative stress (e.g., resulting from discrepancies in adolescent and parent ideals of warmth or autonomy) and incidence rates of adolescent depressive symptomatology, the inclusion of an acculturative stress measure would have potentially allowed for richer analyses.

Moreover, though attempts were made to collect follow-up data from participants during a second session, the unique nature of the population (e.g., frequent moves, limited ways to contact families) decreased the feasibility of follow-up data collection. Schools with lower rates of transient populations of immigrant parents would be the best equipped to measure longer-term effectiveness data. These schools could additionally provide an avenue to collect evidence in support of psychoeducational methods of reducing adverse mental health outcomes in ethnic minority adolescent populations. Furthermore, offering the 90 minute session in a multi-part series would allow for

retention rate to be utilized as another measure of effectiveness and acceptability in addition to the scales utilized in this study. It is hopeful that these findings will further inform tier one psychoeducational programming for immigrant populations.

Implications

Despite these limitations, this study may have important implications for the delivery of psychoeducational programming for immigrant parents. First, the results of the current study supported the integration of psychoeducational preventative programming within parent meetings hosted in school settings. School psychologists and other school-based mental health providers could seek to make use of these non-stigmatizing locations to provide culturally acceptable interventions for underserved parents. In addition, the results highlighted the importance of incorporating stakeholder input in increasing feasibility and acceptability of brief psychoeducational programming for immigrant populations targeting parent-adolescent relationships. School-based mental health professionals should seek to form partnerships with community stakeholders in order to increase the likelihood that programs are successful and can have a potentially larger impact on reducing adverse mental health outcomes for at-risk populations (Nastasi, Varjas, Sarkar, & Jayasena, 1998)

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THE IMPACT OF TRAINING ON TEACHERS' FAMILY-SCHOOL ENGAGEMENT PRACTICES, ATTITUDES, AND KNOWLEDGE: EXPLORING CONDITIONS OF EFFICACY

By Tyler E. Smith, University of Missouri

For decades, research has continually demonstrated the benefits of family-school engagement on children's academic, behavioral, and social-emotional development. This has been demonstrated in meta-analyses and extant literature reviews (e.g., Fan & Chen, 2001; Hill & Tyson, 2009; Sheridan, Smith, Kim, Beretvas, & Park, in press; Wilder, 2014), across child and adolescent development (Smith, Reinke, Herman, & Huang, in press), for both boys and

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girls (Jeynes, 2005), and for numerous critical outcomes including increased academic performance (Nye, Schwartz, & Turner, 2006), improved attitudes towards school/academics (Jeynes, 2007), and decreased disruptive behaviors (Sheridan et al., 2017). Further, benefits have been revealed for racially-diverse students (Jeynes, 2003) and children in both urban (Jeynes, 2005, 2007) and rural settings (Holmes et al., 2013; Sheridan et al., 2013; Smith, Myers, Moen, Kim, & Sheridan, 2013).

Teachers play a pivotal role in developing and maintaining family-school engagement in education. When teachers reach out to families and support their connections with schools, parent-teacher relationships improve, and children ultimately benefit. Effective teachers have the ability to promote family-school engagement, which is inclusive of both *parent involvement* (i.e., the participation of significant caregivers in activities that promote children's academic and social well-being; Fishel & Ramirez, 2005) and *family-school partnerships* (i.e., child-focused approaches wherein families and professionals cooperate, coordinate, and collaborate to enhance opportunities and success for children and adolescents across social, emotional, behavioral, and academic domains (Albright & Weissberg, 2010; Downer & Myers, 2010). For example, when teachers initiate family-school engagement in their children's educational processes, parents typically respond positively, appreciate teacher guidance in supporting children, and report greater personal efficacy for helping their children learn (Epstein, 1986; Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler, & Brissie, 1992; Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler, & Burow, 1995). Teachers also report higher levels of teaching efficacy, receive greater support from parents, and are viewed by principals and parents as high in teaching ability when family-school engagement is present (Greenwood & Hickman, 1991; Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler, & Brissie, 1987).

Preparing Teachers to Promote Family-School Engagement

Despite numerous benefits for children, teachers, and families alike, teachers often report being unprepared to work with and engage families in their children's education (Epstein & Sanders, 2006; Markow & Martin, 2005; Markow & Pieteres, 2009). Of a nationally representative sample, only 7% of teachers reported that they felt prepared to effectively engage families after completing their teacher preparation programs. This is especially concerning, given that teachers view limited support from families as their most pressing challenge (Markow & Pieteres, 2009). Teachers also recognize the benefits of collaboration between families and schools, and as many of 90% of

teachers have reported family-school engagement as a priority in their schools (Markow & Martin, 2005).

Considering the recognized need and espoused benefits of family-school engagement, a number of teacher professional development, pre-service, and in-service programs have been developed over the past three decades. To assess the potential impact of these programs in preparing teachers to support family-school engagement, we recently conducted a comprehensive meta-analysis of studies from 1988 to 2015 (Smith & Sheridan, 2018; Smith, 2017). Including 39 total studies, our meta-analysis revealed that teacher training programs (TTPs) focused on family-school engagement significantly improved teachers' (i.e., both active and pre-service) family-school engagement practices (e.g., invitations for involvement), attitudes (e.g., perceptions towards family-school engagement), and knowledge (e.g., awareness of families' roles in support children's education). Consistent with a previous systematic review in this area (i.e., Evans, 2013), these results indicate that when trained in family-school engagement, teachers often feel more confident and knowledgeable about working with families, in addition to improving the way they interact and work with families. Additionally, this meta-analysis revealed key components included within teacher training programs that promoted teacher outcomes (i.e., effective communication strategies, promotion of cultural awareness in working with diverse populations, collaborative planning and problem solving, family-school engagement attitudes/beliefs, and building effective parent-teacher relationships; Smith & Sheridan, 2018). However, further exploration is necessary to determine *for whom* and *under what context* TTPs are most effective.

Exploring Conditions of Effective Training

Beyond assessing the impact of training on teacher outcomes and identifying key TTP components, it is also important to consider *how* and *for whom* TTPs are most effective. Research has demonstrated that the most effective TTPs

incorporate a combination of theory, model, practice, and coaching for application (Joyce, Weil, & Showers, 1995). These training practices include presenting information (e.g., lectures, group discussions), hypothetical/simulated experiences (e.g., role plays, video modeling), coaching/consultation (e.g., observation of applied practice), and direct field experiences. Our previous meta-analytic work revealed which specific components were important to TTPs (e.g., building effective parent-teacher relationships, effective communication strategies); however, we did not investigate *how* these components were delivered to teachers (Smith & Sheridan, 2018). To ensure teachers are prepared to effectively engage families and ultimately impact child outcomes, it is imperative that we learn more about the specific methods by which TTPs are delivered. Additionally, although TTPs have been found to positively effect both teacher and pre-service teachers in a combined sample (i.e., Smith & Sheridan, 2018), previous research has not investigated if TTPs are more effective for one group in comparison to the other. It is likely that fundamental differences exist regarding the impact of training for pre-service teachers (i.e., teachers who have yet to work directly with families) and active teachers (i.e., teachers who have already experienced working and communicating with families).

Directly building off our previous meta-analytic work, the current study aims to address these shortcomings by providing key insight regarding *how* and *for whom* TTPs focused on family-school engagement are most impactful. Thus, the following research questions were explored:

1. What methods of TTP delivery are most effective at improving teachers' family-school engagement outcomes?
2. What are the differential effects of family-engagement TTPs on pre-service teacher compared to active teacher practices,

attitudes, and knowledge of family of engagement?

Methods

The current meta-analysis took place in four stages: (1) literature search, (2) study identification, (3) study coding, and (4) data analysis.

Literature search. Procedures for the literature search included a comprehensive search of electronic databases (i.e., EBSCO: Academic Search Premiere, ERIC [Education] from FirstSearch, PsycINFO, ProQuest: Dissertation & Theses [including Dissertation Abstracts International], and Sociological Abstracts) from 1988 to 2015. Combinations of relevant search terms were utilized to search online databases (e.g., "teacher or educator training," involvement," "engagement, ""partnership," "collaboration"). Additionally, key journals in the areas of teacher education (e.g., *Journal of Teacher Education*, *Teaching and Teacher Education*), psychology (e.g., *Developmental Psychology*, *Child Development*, *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*), education (e.g., *Journal of Educational Psychology, Journal of School Psychology*), and sociology were searched by hand for potentially relevant articles, dissertations/theses, book chapters, and conference presentations.

Study identification. Identification of the final meta-analysis sample involved an initial screening of abstracts for potential inclusion, followed by a review of methods sections for relevant studies. A total of 3,687 potential studies were revealed through search procedures. Each study's abstract was reviewed for potential inclusion based on the following inclusion criteria:

1. Studies must include a teacher (or teacher candidate) training intervention focused on *parent involvement* (i.e., the participation of

significant caregivers including parents, grandparents, stepparents, foster parents, etc.) in the educational process of their children in order to promote their academic and social well-being (Fishel & Ramirez, 2005) or *family-school partnerships* (i.e., child-focused approaches wherein families and professionals cooperate, coordinate, and collaborate to enhance opportunities and success for children and adolescents across social, emotional, behavioral, and academic domains; Christenson & Sheridan, 2001).

2. Studies must involve active or pre-service teachers.

3. Studies must present outcomes (i.e., measured effects of teacher training interventions in family-school engagement on teacher practices, attitudes/beliefs, and/or knowledge related to family-school engagement).

4. Studies must include one of the following group research designs: (a) an experimental or quasi-experimental design in which groups are receiving one or more teacher training interventions with one or more control groups with both pretest and posttest measures on at least one qualifying outcome; (b) a pre-posttest design with measures on at least one relevant outcome using the same participants, including one- and multiple-group designs involving TTPs focused on family-school engagement.

After abstract reviews, a total of 209 studies remained for potential inclusion in the final database. Three undergraduate research assistants (URAs) were then recruited and trained to participate in study procedures. Specifically, URAs received an initial 20-hour training focused on general meta-analysis procedures and specific processes of the current study (e.g., inclusion criteria, study coding procedures). URAs first aided in retrieving full copies of the 209 studies deemed relevant through abstract reviews. After all studies were retrieved, URAs were taught the four inclusion criteria (described above) to make determinations based on a review of each study's methods section. Each methods section was reviewed by at least one coder, with 25% being reviewed by all coders.

Study coding. After method sections were reviewed, URAs were trained on the use of the meta-analysis coding system (see Smith, 2017 for the complete coding system). This involved all URAs and the study author meeting to learn about all relevant study characteristics/variables to be extracted from included studies, followed by six weeks of practice coding until consensus was met. Relevant coding system characteristics included TTP results, components, participant characteristics, setting variables, and study quality indicators. Consensus was determined in weekly meetings in which disagreements were discussed and resolved. As an indicator of interrater reliability, intra-class correlations were calculated for continuous variables and kappa was utilized as an indicator for categorical variables (Orwin & Vevea, 2009). Each week, disagreements were discussed until reliability indexes were determined to be at 0.80 or above. Once reliability indexes were met, URAs were then allowed to independently code studies.

Based on method reviews, 39 total studies were included in the final sample. The final coding system included study-level and group-level characteristics. Study-level characteristics included descriptive information on study participants (e.g., teacher age, pre-service/or active teacher, total number of participants, ethnicity) information on the study source (e.g., publication year, type of study) and setting characteristics (study location, type of community, socioeconomic status). At the group level, coders extracted study quality/treatment fidelity information, TTP components, study design characteristics, method of training delivery (see

Table 1), teacher outcome characteristics (e.g., outcome type, source, target, etc.), and effect size information.

TABLE 1: METHOD OF TTP DELIVERY

Method	Description
Presented information/ information sharing	Teachers were presented information of family engagement, family practices, the role of families (e.g., lectures, class discussions, class assignments, videos of parent-teacher conferences)
Hypothetical/simulated experience	Teachers participated in hypothetical scenarios (e.g., role plays of parent conversations; answering questions related to case studies) or simulated experiences (e.g., online, simulated parent-teacher conferences)
Field experience	Includes experiences in which teachers directly interact with families (e.g., parent interviews, home visits, conducting parent-teacher conferences, establishing a family center in a school, etc.)
Coaching/supervision	Training included coaching, consultation, or supervision of TTP components by trained professionals (e.g., consultants directing problem-solving meetings between parents and teachers, observing teacher family-school engagement practices and providing feedback, etc.)

Data analysis. The current meta-analysis included results for studies that evaluated training program effects on teachers' outcomes using both independent group (IG) and repeated measure (RM) designs. Hedges' g (Hedges & Olkin, 1985) was used as a common effect size metric for the current study, since it provides the same meaning regardless of IG or RM designs (Borenstein, Hedges, & Rothstein, 2009). Standardized mean difference effect size estimates were calculated for each study and its outcomes using the meta-analytic software, Comprehensive Meta-Analysis (CMA) version 3.3.070 (Borenstein et al., 2009). When treatment and/or control group means were not provided by a study, relevant test statistic transformation formulas were utilized. Due to potential concerns with dependency common to meta-analyses (e.g., dependency issues due to multiple effect sizes within a single study), the current study utilized robust variance estimation (RVE; Hedges, Tipton, & Johnson, 2010) to analyze collected effect sizes. The R-package "robumeta" (Fisher & Tipton, 2015) was used to complete all RVE analyses necessary to answering research questions. As recommended by Tanner-Smith & Tipton (2014), researchers should choose a weighting scheme based on the most frequent source of dependence in their data. Thus, the "correlated effects" weighting scheme was used to determine approximate inverse variance weights of the current study, as it accounts for studies that include multiple effect size estimates (Fisher & Tipton, 2015, p. 4).

Results

Final Sample Characteristics

Thirty-nine total studies with 393 effects (i.e., approximately 10 effects per study) comprised the final included sample. Within studies, participant sample size ranged from 13 to 545 (mean = 74.13). When studies included gender information (n = 29), 88% of participants were female and 12% were male. Further, of studies including ethnicity, 76% were white. Both gender and ethnicity percentages are comparable to recent trends reported by the National Center for Education Information (NCEI, 2011). Approximately 67% of studies included pre-service teachers and the remaining 33% including active teachers. Regarding methods of TTP delivery, percentages of each method were as follows: presented information/information sharing (100.00%), hypothetical/simulated experiences (46.15%), field experiences (48.72%), and coaching/supervision (10.26%). Complete demographic, setting, and other study characteristics have previously been reported (Smith & Sheridan, 2019).

Method of TTP Delivery

Because all studies of TTPs included some means of presenting information/sharing information among participants, methods were organized in the following manner for analyses: (a) studies that *only* involved the singular method of presenting information/information sharing (i.e., Presented information/information sharing [only]) and (b) studies that included each additional method with presenting information/information sharing included (i.e., Hypothetical/simulated experiences+, Field experiences+, and Coaching/supervision+). Of all methods analyzed, hypothetical/simulated experiences, field experiences, and coaching/supervision (all when paired with presenting information/information sharing), were statistically significant (see Table 2). No statistically significant results were revealed for family-school engagement TTPs that solely relied on presenting information/information sharing as a means of training delivery.

TABLE 2: POOLED EFFECT SIZE FOR METHOD OF TTP DELIVERY ON TEACHER OUTCOMES

	k	*n*	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*df*	*p*	*95% CI*
Presented information/ information sharing	16	162	0.16	0.09	0.20	11.98	0.24	0.16, 0.41
Hypothetical/ simulated experiences	18	111	0.42	0.12	5.43	21.68	0.02*	0.09, 0.23
Field experiences	19	59	0.31	0.10	3.11	17.79	0.04*	0.10, 0.37
Coaching/ supervision	4	18	0.34	0.12	3.51	4.75	0.00**	0.14, 0.40

k = Number of studies; *n* = Number of effects, *b* = coefficient, *SE* = standard error
**significance = *p* <.01; *significance = *p* < .05

Differential Effects of TTPs on Pre-service Compared to Active Teachers

When the impact of training for preservice and active teachers was compared, a significant difference was not found (see Table 3), as α is greater than .05 (i.e., .77). This indicates that TTPs had a similar impact on the majority of study participants, regardless of their preservice or in-service status.

TABLE 3: DIFFERENTIAL EFFECTS OF TEACHING TRAINING FOR PRESERVICE COMPARED TO ACTIVE TEACHERS

	b	*SE*	*t*	*df*	*p*	*95% CI*
Intercept	0.48	0.09	5.33	6.40	0.00**	.10, .23
Pre-Active	0.03	0.11	0.30	9.45	0.77	.61, .17

k = Number of studies; *n* = Number of effects, *b* = coefficient, *SE* = standard error
**significance = *p* <.01

Discussion

Main Findings

As noted above, the current study is based on a previously conducted meta-analysis (i.e., Smith & Sheridan, 2018; Smith, 2017) that found that family-school engagement TTPs can significantly improve teachers' family-school engagement practices, attitudes, and knowledge. Beyond simply understanding that TTPs can be effective, the current study explored these programs in more detail by investigating *how* and *for whom* these family-school engagement TTPs can be impactful. Results indicate that pre-service (e.g., college courses, seminars) and teacher in-service (e.g., professional development trainings) programs simply cannot rely on traditional teaching and preparation methods to adequately train teachers to work effectively with families. Family-school engagement TTPs relying solely on presenting information through readings and lectures are insufficient and place teachers at a disadvantage regarding the skills necessary to engaging families. Instead, our results indicate that family-school engagement TTPs need to additionally incorporate :(a) hypothetical scenarios/simulated experiences wherein teachers practice key family engagement skills in various scenarios (e.g., parent-teacher conferences), (b) field experiences wherein teachers receive first-hand experience working with families, and (c) consultation/supervision wherein professionals observe and provide direct feedback to teachers on specific family-school engagement practices. This is consistent with previous research on general teacher training and preparation methods that has noted the importance of combining theory, practice, and opportunities for application (Joyce, Weil, & Showers, 1995).

A comparison of the impact of family-school engagement TTPs for active and preservice teachers did not reveal a significant difference. This is somewhat surprising, given the distinct contexts and procedures of typical TTPs focused on preservice teachers versus active teachers. For instance, a typical preservice training would include a semester-long college course with activities consistent with a class aimed at preparing students to become teachers (e.g., class readings, lectures, homework assignments, in-class role plays). Conversely, a typical active teacher training would include a brief

(e.g., 2-day) seminar where participants were much more likely to engage in active learning, as participants are frequently engaged in activities, discussions, role-plays and reflections. Despite distinct contexts and procedures, results reveal that the impacts of TTPs are demonstrated across both pre-service and active teachers, and illustrates the importance of training teachers at different stages of their professional careers and development.

Implications for Practice and Training

Results of the current study can help to inform the field of school psychology both in terms of applied practice and preparation and training of school personnel. Interestingly, of all methods of TTP delivery explored, consultation/supervision was found to have the most significant influence on teacher family-school engagement outcomes. This is consistent with previous research that has indicated the importance of including consultation and feedback in teacher training (Fixen et al., 2005). Although promising, few family-school engagement TTPs currently incorporate consultation and/or supervision, as this method was only utilized in approximately 10% of the current sample. Additionally, few schools have resources in place to support consultation and supervision of teachers' family-engagement practices. While working in schools, school psychologists can serve in a unique consultative role that can support connections between parents and teachers. For instance, as consultants, school psychologists often observe student and teacher interactions and provide constructive feedback on behavioral strategies to improve teacher practices and improve student outcomes. In the same way, school psychologists can also play a key consultative role in supporting teachers' use of effective family-school engagement practices through assessment, observation, and direct feedback. Knowing the importance of consultation and supervision within TTPs, school psychologists should increase their

"While working in schools, school psychologists can serve in a unique consultative role that can support connections between parents and teachers."

consultative services to support collaboration between teachers and parents and ultimately impact children's development.

The field of school psychology also needs to take an active role in assuring that key school personnel (e.g., teachers, school psychologists, counselors, social workers, administrators) are not only trained in family-school engagement, but trained using methods which have been revealed effective. As the current study found, family-school engagement TTPs appear to be effective regardless of teachers' professional careers and development. Albeit promising, many schools and TTPs remain absent of family-school engagement curricula or professional development. Further, when TTPs are present, they frequently rely solely on traditional class lectures and presentations that are insufficient. The field of school psychology, through both practice and training, is critical to ensuring teachers receive adequate preparation to improve family-school connections and ultimately support child development. In practice, school psychologists can provide training to teachers in their schools and across their districts. As school psychology trainers, faculty members can teach courses on family-school engagement and lobby to have courses included in teacher preparation programs. Paired with previous meta-analytic results (i.e., Smith & Sheridan, 2018), the current study highlights the importance of teacher training in family-school engagement and should inform school psychology practitioners' and trainers' roles moving forward.

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PREPARING TO SUPERVISE: RECOMMENDATIONS FOR EARLY CAREER SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGISTS

By Jessica S. Reinhardt, University of Denver,
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Supervision of graduate student trainees is an area of growing importance for practicing school psychologists. However, there is a dearth of research on supervision practices, and training in supervision varies considerably among practitioners. Many practitioners may feel anxious or unprepared to supervise students, whereas others may feel excited to share their insights and have additional support for their caseloads. This article explores topics related to providing supervision for school psychology graduate students in school and community settings. In particular, we emphasize issues and challenges for early career school psychologists as they begin to assume supervision responsibilities. Topics include
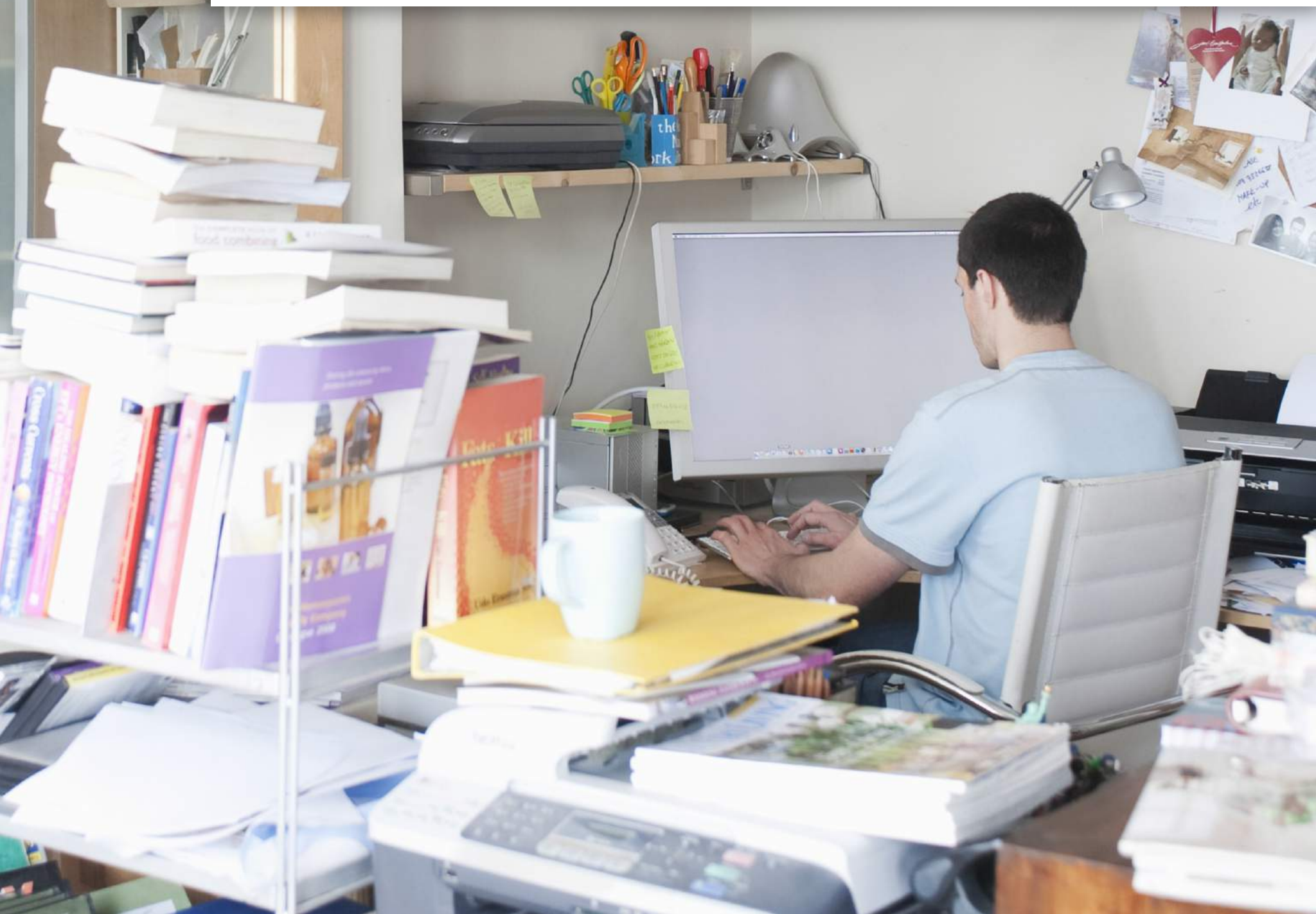
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professional organization and state requirements, advantages and disadvantages of supervising students, tips for getting started, and potential resources.

Professional Organization and State Requirements

Supervision is a required competency for trainees in graduate programs accredited by the American Psychological Association (APA; 2014) and a recommended competency for trainees in programs accredited by the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP, 2018; Skalski et al., 2015). Specifically, APA requires that doctoral-level health service psychologists receive pre-service training in supervision. While NASP does not formally require this type of pre-service training, it does indeed advocate for supervision across contexts.

Students in NASP-approved programs are required to receive supervision from appropriately credentialed school psychologists who have been practicing for a minimum of three years. Additionally, doctoral and post-doctoral trainees from APA-accredited programs must receive primary supervision from a licensed psychologist. This training should align with the APA Standards of Accreditation for Health Service Psychology (SoA) and the Council of Directors of School Psychology Programs' Doctoral Internship Guidelines. These guidelines are fairly broad, and specific requirements for licensure and certification vary by state and jurisdiction. For example, in New Jersey, post-doctoral trainees must be supervised by a doctoral-level psychologist who has held licensure for at least two years in the state in which the supervision is provided (New Jersey Division of Consumer Affairs, n. d.). Therefore, early career school psychologists should consult relevant state licensure and certification requirements when determining their eligibility to become field supervisors.

Advantages/Disadvantages of Becoming a Supervisor

For school psychologists in academic positions, supervision may be a required component of their jobs. These individuals may supervise students through their courses or through on-campus clinics, among other settings. For school psychologists in the field, the transition from practitioner to supervisor can assume many different forms. In some cases, there may be a university training program in the area, and opportunities to supervise practicum and internship students may arise. In other cases, a more junior colleague at the psychologist's site may need supervision for licensure. For many early career school psychologists, the prospect of taking on their first supervisees is exciting but also intimidating. In deciding whether to assume a supervisory role,

we recommend that early career psychologists balance the following considerations.

One of the main benefits of supervising a trainee is that it presents opportunities for the supervisor to further develop his/her own skills. Supervisors are in charge not only of their own cases but also those of their supervisees. Effective supervisors help their students think critically about all aspects of their casework. These critical thinking exercises may present opportunities for supervisors to reflect on topics they have not yet encountered or considered. Additionally, supervisees often come with knowledge of the most recent research and evidence-based practices in a given area. Supervisors often find themselves learning about new topics from their trainees and subsequently feeling motivated to seek additional exposure to these topics.

While there is much to be gained from becoming a supervisor, there are also drawbacks to assuming this extra responsibility. In addition to the time that must be dedicated to weekly individual meetings, supervisors must be readily available for other supervision activities, such as attending school meetings, providing feedback on reports, and overseeing client sessions. They also must be available as needed to answer questions or to respond to urgent situations. Before becoming a supervisor, early career school psychologists should consider the time commitment required and discuss this with their respective supervisors. In some cases, additional compensation or a reduction in assignments/ caseloads may be warranted.

Tips for Effective Supervision

Many practitioners were not trained in supervision during graduate school. Nevertheless, supervision is a critical skill that must be refined over time through intentional study and reflection. We offer the following guidance to support early career school psychologists in becoming effective supervisors and continually developing their skills.

1. Seek additional training in supervision. NASP (2018) recommends pursuing continuing professional development in the area of clinical supervision. Supervision topics may be addressed in professional presentations and workshops at local, state, and national conferences. In addition to attending these workshops, early career psychologists may benefit from attending meetings and networking sessions designated for supervisors and/or trainers. These sessions allow novice supervisors to connect with more experienced supervisors and to learn about new resources and approaches.

Local universities with school psychology programs may offer training in supervision to field supervisors across developmental levels. For example, such free trainings are provided at the first author's institution, which actively recruits novice, senior, and future supervisors. University faculty may be especially eager to connect with "rising" supervisors (i.e., those who are in their third year of practice and will soon be eligible to supervise graduate student trainees).

State associations may offer training for practicum and internship supervisors. For example, the Illinois School Psychology Association offers free training that leads to a supervision credential for interested professionals.

2. Develop a contract with your supervisee. In addition to developing university-supervisor contracts, supervisors are encouraged to develop contracts with their supervisees directly. These contracts should specify benchmark and overall goals, the frequency and format of supervision, and any other relevant expectations for either the supervisor or trainee. These contracts may also specify methods of communication between the supervisor and supervisee (Harvey & Struzziero, 2008). Contracts created by either the program or the supervisor are important for establishing supervision objectives, defining roles, and delineating evaluation procedures. A number of authors have provided examples of supervision

contracts, and Harvey and Struzziero (2008) have compiled and adapted their components for school psychologists.

3. Stay organized. Being responsible for multiple caseloads can be challenging; thus, organization is essential for communicating with supervisees about appointments, case updates, and report writing. Further, communicating with university faculty and appraising supervisee performance requires strong organization and communication skills. Advances in secure technology have made it increasingly easy to coordinate scheduling and share documents. For example, the second author's current intern maintains password-protected online spreadsheets that can be viewed by only the two of them.

4. Seek support from other supervisors, mentors, and colleagues. Often, novice (and even more experienced) supervisors feel they need to have all of the answers for their supervisees; however, all school psychologists need to (and should) consult with colleagues at

times. NASP (2018) recommends that all school psychologists have access to their own supervisors and/or mentors throughout their career. These mentors can be found in practice, university, and other professional settings.

Looking Ahead and Resources

As they develop their own individual styles of working with students, rising supervisors may find it useful to review models of supervision. Several resources have provided extensive reviews of supervision models. For example, Campbell (2006) provides an overview of various theories and basic models of clinical supervision.

Many models of supervision were initially developed for other applied psychology fields, including counseling psychology and clinical psychology. Thus, rising supervisors are encouraged to review these models as well as emerging models in school psychology specifically. These models include the developmental ecological problem-solving model

(Simon & Swerdlik, 2017) and strengths-based supervision (Newman, Guiney, & Silva, 2017). Individuals interested in learning more about the formal supervision of school psychology graduate students may wish to consult the following resources:

Harvey, V.S. & Struzziero, J.A. (2008). *Professional development and supervision of school psychologists* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Kelly, K., & Davis, S. (2017). *Supervising the school psychology practicum: A guide for field and university supervisors.* New York, NY: Spring Publishing Company.

Summary

In conclusion, supervising trainees can be a challenging yet rewarding activity for early career school psychologists. Further, supervision represents an important responsibility in the field. Early career professionals are encouraged to engage in thoughtful planning before assuming supervisory roles. They also are encouraged to pursue structured professional development in this area prior to and throughout their tenure as supervisors. When planned appropriately, supervision provides a unique opportunity for early career school psychologists to expand their skills and to stay connected to the field.

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LETTER FROM THE SASP STUDENT CORNER EDITOR

By Alexandria Muldrew, The University of Minnesota

The *Student Corner* provides a platform for graduate students to share their perspectives on a variety of topics pertinent to the field of school psychology. These topics can include advocacy, internships, research ethics, supervision, culture and diversity, student empowerment and more! Moving forward, the Student Affiliates in School Psychology (SASP) hope to receive submissions for the *Student Corner* that reflect the unique experiences of graduate students in our field.

With this in mind, we encourage students to submit their thoughts and experiences on topics that are pertinent to the lives of graduate students in school psychology. Our next upcoming issue has a focus on creating a work-life balance while in graduate school, as well as ways to promote positive mentorship and advising relationships. While our hope is to receive submissions for these important topics, we still encourage students to write about their experiences related to any topic they believe is important as a graduate student.

When preparing submissions to the *Student Corner*, please consider the following:

- Submissions need to be between 4 and 8 pages (double spaced)
- Although you should include current literature related to your topic, we also want to hear about your thoughts, experiences, and ideas
- Submissions need to comply with APA Journal Article Reporting Standards
- Get creative with your submissions! Tell us things that are important to your university, or things you believe more school psychology students need to be aware of

For more information regarding the submission process, readers are encouraged to contact current SASP Editor, Alexandria Muldrew (muldr008@umn.edu).

This current publication of the *Student Corner* focuses on the practicum requirement of graduate study and presents information surrounding the use of a vertical team structure. This structure holds potential in improving the practicum experiences of graduate students. For most students, a school-based practicum serves as the initial introduction to the work and life of a school psychologist. Therefore, it is important for graduate students as well as for training programs to be aware of unique approaches one can take towards shaping the practicum experience.

INNOVATING PRACTICUM: THE MERITS OF A VERTICAL PRACTICUM TEAM STRUCTURE

By Aria E. Fiat, The University of Minnesota
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For decades, practicum has been a core component of effective pre-service scientist-practitioner psychological training programs (Benjamin & Baker, 2000; Korman, 1976). Students become versed in the responsibilities of their chosen profession in a structured manner under the supervision of an experienced field clinician. With classroom-based didactic training as the foundation, alongside structured supervision and supplementary professional development, students engage in activities suited for

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their current training level. This affords students time to acclimate to the practice environment, while providing a context in which to integrate their classroom learning with applied experiences (Krathwohl, 2002). Practicum is intended to produce practice-ready clinicians who are competent in assessment, intervention, and consultation, however, the specifics of each of these domains are unique to psychological subfields and training sites.

Within the field of school psychology, graduate students' practica aim to emphasize development across ten core practice competencies (National Association of School Psychologists [NASP], 2010). However, neither NASP nor the American Psychological Association (APA) stipulate exactly the structure of practicum. Thus, training programs are free to shape the nature of their students' practicum experiences. The upside of this freedom is that training programs and even individual graduate students can often tailor their practicum experiences toward their training goals. However, the lack of prescribed structure can also result in considerable within- and across-program variability in the quality and content of training.

Despite the criticality of fieldwork in training and sustaining a quality school psychology workforce, there is a dearth of research examining the merits of various practicum structures. Until such work is conducted, we wish to discuss the advantages and challenges of adopting a *vertical team* approach to school psychology practicum. Our intent is to illustrate the general framework of the model for readers to consider for themselves and their programs, or to inspire the creation of more alternative models.

Paradigm Shift Requires a New Training Approach

According to *School Psychology: A Blueprint for Training and Practice III* (Ysseldyke et al., 2006) our field must shift away from assessment for special education toward an integrated model of service delivery emphasizing prevention. As the next generation of school psychologists, graduate students are critical in enacting this paradigm shift (Reschly & Ysseldyke, 1995). Therefore, the practicum experiences and duties modeled by their supervisors all influence how graduate students conceptualize the role of school psychologists and their professional behavior. Importantly, their experiences shape their beliefs and attitudes toward adopting and implementing a range of evidence-based practices for varied needs, which is pivotal given the enduring educational implementation gap (Bearman, Wadkins, Bailin, & Doctoroff, 2015). Currently, graduate students who report practicum experiences predominantly revolving around special education evaluation are likely

to continue working within the "test and place" paradigm that has dominated the field (Tarquin & Truscott, 2006). In contrast, students whose practicum placements emphasize a multitiered systems of support (MTSS), evidence-based practices, and integrated care systems are both more likely and better equipped to steer the field toward prevention and full-service delivery. In the wake of shifting demands and expectations for school psychologists, training and fieldwork directors are obligated to revisit the structure of students' practicum experiences to ensure that it aligns with priorities of their program. One way to help ensure such alignment is by adopting a vertical team approach.

Promising New Approach: The Vertical Team Structure

A vertical practicum team incorporates a hierarchical structure (see Figure 1). At the top of the hierarchy is the school-based supervisor whose role is mentorship and instruction. These supervisors pull from their varied experiences, training, and intimate knowledge of the school context to set agendas and delegate tasks. School-based supervisors who test and inform students' understanding of ethics, laws, evidence-based practices, consultation, and more, ultimately act as mechanisms through which students translate content knowledge into

FIGURE 1: GENERAL VERTICAL PRACTICUM STRUCTURE WITH COMMON ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES BASED ON THOSE ROLES.

Head Supervisor
- Directly supervises student supervisor
- Direct supervision to rest of team but for specific training needs (e.g., attending and conducting IEP meetings)
- Works with all students to navigate school context
- Addresses legal requirements for evaluations and other work
- Manages and supervises student crisis response
- Manages own school-wide efforts with assistance from students

Student Supervisor
- Directly supervises rest of team
- Sets system change agendas and tasks
- Trains team on assessment, intervention, and consultation skills as needed
- Enforces legal and ethical compliance
- Monitors implementation fidelity
- Continues to receive personal training in areas of improvement or interest (e.g., evaluation, EBP implementation, consultation)

Student Team Members
- Conduct assessment, intervention, and evaluation procedures in accordance with their program's curricula and expectations
- Mentor and practice skills together
- Complete practicum assignments from coursework
- Respond to needs and direction given from head and student supervisor

application. This is a difficult role to actualize effectively as the number of supervisees increases. To compensate for this, the vertical team incorporates distributive leadership (Mulford & Silins, 2003) with an additional supervisor role fulfilled by an advanced student while the rest of the team consists of first- and second-year students. Within the practicum team, the school-based supervisor— hereafter, referred to as the head supervisor—provides most of their direct supervision to the advanced student and provides only immediate and necessary supervision to the rest of the team (discussed below). The advanced student functions as a mediator, developing their own supervision skills including effective communication and delegation, while also working toward their individual training goals. This naturally creates a division of responsibilities between the head supervisor and student supervisor. The head supervisor directly mentors the student supervisor, guiding them toward success in their individual training goals. Meanwhile, the student supervisor helps oversee the training of the rest of the team by ensuring they attain program-specific training objectives. The head supervisor provides any additional training and supervising needs of the rest of the team.

Challenges with the Vertical Team Structure

A vertical team structure presents notable difficulties. For instance, since team members receive considerably less direct supervision and training from the head supervisor, the quality of their practicum experiences hinge upon the student supervisor's performance as a leader. To address this, vertical team leaders should concurrently participate in didactic training and supervision around how to be an effective supervisor. Practicum school sites must also be able and willing to accommodate a full team of graduate students, who may be perceived as a liability, despite the ways in which they contribute to the school. School psychology trainers and fieldwork coordinators, however, can help ensure

that graduate students act within their realm of competence, leveraging the vertical team structure for its built-in supervision and oversight.

Variable cohort sizes can present another challenge. Too few—or even too many—advanced students relative to first- and second-year students can create an imbalance and make teams more difficult to coordinate. Nevertheless, this presents a natural opportunity for student leaders to enhance their skills in organization, delegation, communication, and problem-solving.

Benefits of a Vertical Team Structure

Despite its challenges, this model of supervision has been piloted outside of school psychology and has demonstrated a variety of benefits. Specifically, previous work within startup companies established that merging vertical and distributive, or shared, leadership affords several benefits to both supervisors and employees (e.g., Ensley, Hmieleski, & Pearce, 2006). A prime example is the built-in mentorship inherent with students serving as peer instructors. Beginning students benefit from a direct supervisor who has intimate knowledge of their program's training goals and didactic content. Consequently, practicum-related activities can be better coordinated with coursework. With a deeper understanding of the system and the appropriate duties of a practicum student, advanced student supervisors can advocate on behalf of their supervisees, helping to secure experiences best-suited for them given their year in the program and their individual training goals. Finally, vertical team structures ensure that graduate students have a collaborative experience, characterized by shared work-load, team problem-solving, and collegial support.

Brief Example of a Vertical Team Structure

To illustrate, imagine a vertical team at a middle school that disproportionately identifies students from ethnic minority backgrounds as having

behavior problems. This team consists of the head supervisor, student supervisor, three second-year students, and two first-year students. It is the beginning of the Fall semester. The team decides to use their role to investigate the root cause of this disproportionality and attempt to reverse the trend. The first-year students are in an academic and behavior assessment course. To coincide with this class training, the student supervisor and second-year students train the first-year students to use different behavior screening measures. The student supervisor then schedules school-wide screening that the rest of the team conducts. This gives the first-year students exposure to didactic and experiential training, while simultaneously reinforcing the screening skills of the second-year students who already went through the course. At the same time, some of the screened students are referred for special education services. The second-year students, currently enrolled in a cognitive assessment course, incorporate this screening data into their evaluation report as part of their responsibility to use multisource data and investigate all potential disability areas. This strengthens their data-based decision-making skills. In schools adopting MTSS, this data immediately informs intervention procedures that the second-year students can implement. Depending on the training program, first-year students may even be able to assist with intervention implementation. This frees up the student supervisor to conduct treatment fidelity assessment to ensure that the team is implementing an evidence-based treatment with adequate fidelity to produce improved student outcomes. Finally, the student supervisor works with local administrators and behavior specialists to design and implement a new behavior referral system that attempts to reduce cultural bias in the referral process and seek out students who would benefit from additional supports.

Advocating for a New Training Approach

Our goal in illustrating how a vertical team can function is to encourage more school psychology programs to consider adopting this novel approach. We hope that this article will stimulate discussion among program faculty about how graduate students' practicum experiences could be enhanced through structural changes. Graduate students reading this article who are interested in advocating for this approach within their programs are encouraged to bring it up to representatives within their respective student associations. Student association leaders are then encouraged to share this information with their fieldwork coordinator or program director.

Conclusion

A vertical practicum structure that incorporates distributive leadership creates a training environment that naturally supports appropriately-matched training tasks to students' current skill level and progress. Moreover, it effectively distributes tasks and responsibilities while supporting the development of skills needed to be a successful school psychologist (e.g., consultation with school staff). Quality of training is reinforced through an internal mentorship process, while enabling advanced students to practice providing effective supervision. Because of increased capacity, vertical practicum teams can push for reform and improved student outcomes otherwise not possible from typical one-on-one practicum placements. The challenges of this approach and dearth of empirical support notwithstanding, vertical team structures demonstrate promise for training school psychology students to be system change agents equipped to support schools' implementation of MTSS through the delivery of evidence-based practices.

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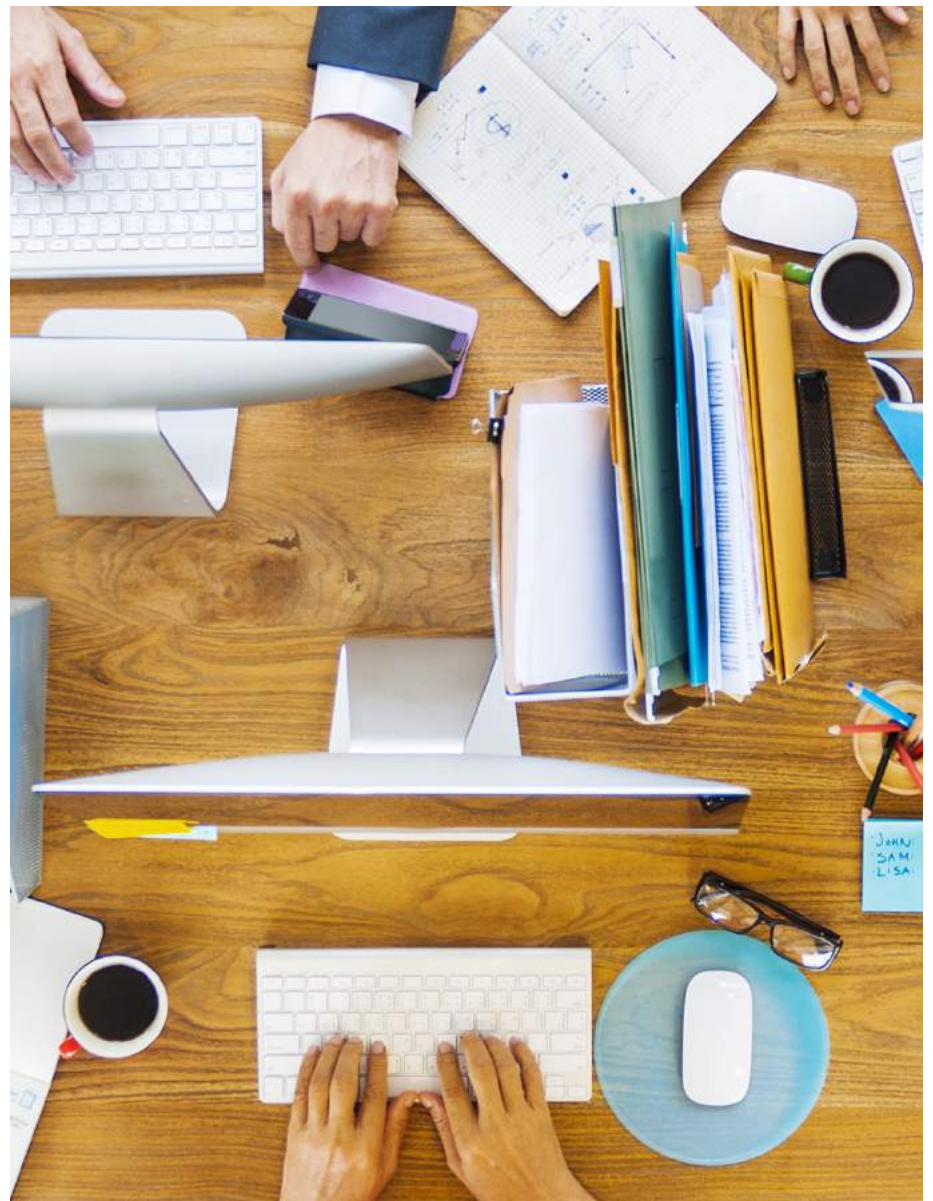
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