

board to provide a diplomate in school psychology. Others instrumental in this movement included Jack Bardon,* Julia Vane, and Jan Duker. By 1980, about 12 percent of all diplomates awarded by the board were in the specialty of school psychology. In 1992, the once-monolithic ABPP was divided into nine separately incorporated specialty boards, each responsible for credentialing one specialty; all specialty boards remain affiliated with ABPP. The American Board of School Psychology was charged with responsibilities for conducting the credential review process, developing and administering the diplomate examinations, and recommending the names of candidates for receipt of the diplomate in school psychology to ABPP, which continues to award the diplomates in all nine areas (Pryzwansky, 1993).

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DIRECT SERVICE DELIVERY. Direct service delivery refers to the personal provision of services to clients, such as psychotherapy, counseling, or skills training. Within the practice of school psychology,* direct services include activities such as crisis counseling with a suicidal student, self-management or social skills training* of individuals or groups, or counseling of pregnant teens. Assessment* activities are sometimes considered "direct services" because the psychologist collects information directly from the client* (interviewing, testing), although it can also be argued that assessment per se is not a "service" but an activity that leads to client services.

Direct psychological services require a significant commitment of professional time and are often impractical in school settings due to the limited availability of psychologists. Schools and other agencies must balance the immediate impact of direct services on a small number of clients versus the potential and longer-term impact of indirect services* on a much larger pool of clients. Although generally less cost-effective, direct services have no intermediary steps; the treatment is not dependent on the training, motivation, or resources of a third party. A combination of direct and indirect services, balanced to best fit the needs of the student population, offers the most flexible model of comprehensive service delivery.

See also **ASSESSMENT (DIRECT AND INDIRECT); INTERVENTION (DIRECT AND INDIRECT).**

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DISCREPANCY IN ASSESSMENT OF LEARNING DISABILITIES. Federal rules and regulations specify (in part) that "a severe discrepancy between achievement and intellectual ability in one or more" of seven specified achievement areas must be noted in determining the existence of a specific learning disability (LD) (U.S. Department of Education, 1992, p. 44823). Over the past thirty years, several approaches to assessing severe discrepancies have been proposed. Early models examined prescribed deviations from grade level or used expectancy formulas. *Grade-level deviation* methods (i.e., one to two years below grade level or graduated deviations for older students) fail to consider intellectual differences and tend to overidentify students with below-average intelligence while underidentifying those with above-average intelligence. *Expectancy formula* methods attempt to estimate or predict expected achievement from mental and/or chronological ages and intelligence test (IQ) scores. These methods also tend to overidentify students with below-average IQs and underidentify students with above-average IQs. Statistical assumptions are violated in treating grade-equivalent values as interval data in performing mathematical operations.

The *standard score difference* method provides a simple comparison between the child's intellectual ability and academic achievement when both measures are expressed in the same units of measurement. This method, although popular and simple, fails to consider regression to the mean effects and thus overidentifies children with above-average IQs while underidentifying children with below-average IQs. Another method of discrepancy used in diagnosis of LD examines profiles or patterns in subtest performance on intelligence tests like the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children-Third Edition (WISC-III). Discrepancies between verbal and performance IQs as well as the ACID pattern (low Arithmetic, Coding, Information, and Digit Span) have been hypothesized to reflect LD. These methods should not be used to diagnose LD, as they have yet to be validated and fail to consider levels of academic achievement.

A federal work group on measurement issues in LD assessment recommended the use of a regression approach in quantifying the severe discrepancy between achievement and intellectual ability (Reynolds, 1984). The regression definition is based on comparing the difference between predicted achievement (based on the individual's intellectual ability) and actual achievement. This difference is then evaluated with regard to the standard error of estimate to determine if the difference is statistically significant based on a selected significance level.

See also **ACADEMIC ASSESSMENT: TRADITIONAL; NORM-REFERENCED ASSESSMENT.**

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DISSENTING OPINION. A dissenting (or minority) opinion occurs when the school psychologist* is in disagreement with the conclusions and/or actions taken by a decision-making team of which the psychologist is a part. Dissenting opinions were considered important enough to be referenced in the first and each revised edition of the National Association of School Psychologists* (NASP) *Standards for the Provision of School Psychological Services*. "The School Psychologist communicates a written minority position to all involved when in disagreement with the multi-disciplinary team position" (NASP, 1992, section 3.5.2.3).

While not specific to school psychology, the Rules and Regulations for the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (Public Law 101-476*) (57 FR 44823, September 29, 1992) require a written statement attached to the team report when the report does not reflect a team member's conclusions.

Underscoring the importance of a dissenting opinion is the school psychologist's ethical responsibility as an advocate for clients' rights and welfare (NASP, 1992, section IV.A.1). A minority opinion may also be an essential document if the ultimate team decision proves ineffective.

See also CODES OF ETHICS; PROFESSIONAL STANDARDS; SECOND OPINION; TEAM APPROACH.

REFERENCE

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- Timothy S. Hartshorne

DIVISION OF SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY. The Division of School Psychology of the American Psychological Association* (APA) was the first national organization explicitly chartered to represent the interests of school psychologists in the United States. It came into existence as the sixteenth of the nineteen charter divisions in the reorganized APA of 1945-1946. The restructuring of APA at this time was stimulated by the merger of APA with several groups,

including the American Association of Applied Psychologists,* which had an educational, as well as clinical, section, to which many school psychologists belonged (Fagan, Hensley, and Delugach, 1986).

In 1948, the division had 90 members (1.8 percent of APA membership); by 1953, it had 298 (2.7 percent); by 1963, it had 856 (4.1 percent); and by 1973, it had 2,505 (7.1 percent). The largest membership reached was in 1976, with 2,629 members, which represented 6.3 percent of APA membership. By 1983, membership had dropped to 2,233 (4.0 percent), a figure that has remained fairly stable up to 1993, when membership was 2,104 (3.0 percent of APA membership).

The 1987 divisional bylaws state the objectives of the division:

- To promote and maintain high standards of professional education and training within the specialty, and to expand appropriate scientific and scholarly knowledge and the pursuit of scientific affairs;
- To increase effective and efficient conduct of professional affairs, including the practice of psychology within the schools, among other settings, and collaboration/cooperation with individuals, groups, and organizations in the shared realization of Division objectives;
- To support the ethical and social responsibilities of the specialty, to encourage opportunities for ethnic minority participation in the specialty, and to provide opportunities for professional fellowship;
- To encourage and effect publications, communications, and conferences regarding the activities, interests, and concerns within the specialty on a regional, national and international basis. (APA, 1991, p. 3)

The first presidents of the division were Warren Coxe* (1944-1945), Morris Krugman* (1945-1946), Harry J. Baker* (1946-1947), and Margaret A. Hall (1947-1948). Other early officers were Milton A. Saffir (1946-1949), first secretary-treasurer; and Fred Brown (1945), first representative to counsel. The position of treasurer, first held by James R. Hobson, was created in 1952 (Fagan, 1993). The division's name was changed in 1969 from Division of School Psychologists to Division of School Psychology.

In 1977, the division phased in four additional positions, termed monitors in place of the members-at-large offices. These positions were restructured in 1987 as vice president for education and training and scientific affairs, vice president for professional affairs, vice president for social and ethical responsibility and ethnic minority affairs, and vice president for publications, communications, and convention affairs.

Besides activities in publication, policy development, convention organization, and working with the boards and committees of APA, the division recognizes members through awards, including fellow status, Lightner Witmer* Award, Distinguished Service Award, Senior Scientist Award, and Dissertation Award.

See also AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION ANNUAL CONVENTION; CODES OF ETHICS; PROFESSIONAL STANDARDS.

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