Georgia School Counselors Association

Connecting School Counselors...Supporting Students

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NEXT

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In This Issue

Click on the article title to go directly to the article

GSCA Journal Editorial Review Members

NEXT

Jump to Article:

Table of Contents

From Your GSCA President

Julie Hartline, Ed.D.

Hello Professional School Counselors of Georgia,

It is with great honor that the Georgia School Counselors Association presents you with our 21st annual GSCA Journal. Our association proudly provides the Journal as a research-based publication for our members. Within this journal, you will find many educational articles that will assist you in finding your VOICE for students as a professional school counselor. These articles are intended to help you in the development, implementation and continued evaluation of your comprehensive school counseling programs.

I would like to thank Dr. Karen Rowland, Editor, and her editorial board for the countless hours that it takes to obtain and edit articles for the GSCA Journal. She and her board have worked diligently behind the scenes to provide Georgia's school counseling professionals with a publication that offers our members the opportunity for continued professional growth and development.

I would also like to thank the writers who are published in this Journal. Thank you for taking your time to share your expertise and experience with others in our profession.

Please enjoy the GSCA Journal as you continue to be A VOICE for Students.

Sincerely,

Julie Hartline
Your 2014-2015 GSCA President

From Your GSCA Journal Editor

Karen D. Rowland, PhD, NCC, LPC

"School Counselors: A Voice for Students" is the theme for GSCA for the 2014 – 2015 academic year, chosen by our president, Julie Hartline. Because professional school counselors are school leaders and agents of change, they are in a prime position to serve as a voice for all students. While there are some students who have learn how to be a voice for themselves through self-advocacy practices, there are still too many who either do not know how to have a voice or are too afraid to speak for themselves. It is the hope of this journal that school counselors, particularly in the state of Georgia will find the articles helpful in understanding the need to be a voice for their students.

The articles in this edition of the journal alludes to the importance of the school counseling program in the school's total educational program. By aligning the counseling program's mission with that of the school's mission statement, the school counseling program actively takes on and advocates for the achievement of the school's mission. In this way, the school counselor acts as a leader, in successfully delivering an effective school counseling program that is both comprehensive and developmental in nature with a firm philosophy and measurable goals, based on the ASCA National Model.

It is my honor and pleasure to share with you the work that your colleagues are doing and to encourage you to write and share what you are doing as you continue to be a voice for every student in your school.

NEXT

Jump to Article:

Table of Contents

Featured Articles

The Sum of All Fears: The Effects of Math Anxiety on Math Achievement in Fifth Grade Students and the Implications for School Counselors

Sarah E. Ruff and Dr. Susan R. Boes, The University of West Georgia

Abstract

Low math achievement is a recurring weakness in many students. Math anxiety is a persistent and significant theme to math avoidance and low achievement. Causes for math anxiety include social, cognitive, and academic factors. Interventions to reduce math anxiety are limited as they exclude the expert skills of professional school counselors to help overcome this nervousness. The effectiveness of a school counseling small group intervention to reduce math anxiety and increase achievement in fifth grade participants is presented.

Since President John F. Kennedy challenged congress in May of 1961 to be the first country to put a man on the moon, the United States has worked to reform education and increase achievement to keep up with the achievement displayed by students in other countries. Even after winning the race to the moon in 1969, the United States continues to struggle to match its international counterparts in mathematic achievement. In 2009, The Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) performed a cross-country comparison on the performance of 15 year-old students in reading, mathematics and science. American students scored below the international average in mathematic literacy. Among 33 industrialized countries, 17 countries had higher average scores than U.S. students, five countries had lower average scores, and 11 countries had scores that were not statistically different from American students (National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES), 2011).

In 2012, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), group provided a snapshot of the condition of education in the United States based on results from its 2011 national study. Students in 4th, 8th, and 12th grade were assessed in reading, mathematics, and social studies. Eighty two percent of the elementary students assessed reached only partial mastery of math knowledge and skills fundamental for proficient work at the 4th grade level. In addition to the national implications from the results, there are also local implications as a comparison was made amongst the 50 states and the District of Columbia. The results indicated that 4th grade students from 33 other states scored higher in math literacy than 4th grade students in Georgia, students from 15 states scored lower and two states, Arkansas and New York, scored the same as Georgia students (NCES, 2012). Despite the continued education reform and political efforts over the past decades, the math achievement gap has not closed.

Numerous research studies have been conducted to pin-point the reasons for the gaps in mathematic achievement for American students. The causes are wide ranging. It is difficult to single out a particular cause for low achievement for American students, but a persistent theme is math anxiety. The negative effects of math anxiety on achievement are extensive. Geist (2010) suggests that for many children math achievement is not related to potential level but rather to their fear of and/or negative attitudes toward math.

Math anxiety is more than a barrier to math achievement as it has a widespread impact on other aspects of students' lives. Seen as early as kindergarten, math anxiety can impede initial learning which results in poor math skills and negatively affect long-term academic success and career choices (Ashcraft, 2002; & Wu, Barth, Amin, Malcame, & Menon, 2012). Highly math anxious students tend to avoid math in general; anxiety prevents completion of small tasks as homework or paying a restaurant bill and large ones like excluding math and science related career path options (Beilock, Gunderson, Ramirez, & Levine, 2010).

Math anxiety is more than nervousness before a math test; it has pervasive negative impacts on math learning, everyday life, and career choices. This Action Research Study (ARS) reviewed the literature related to math anxiety in children. Current interventions to reduce math anxiety are presented. Additionally, gaps in the literature and action research related to school counseling interventions for math anxiety for elementary students also are addressed.

Literature Review

Since long-term negative impacts of math anxiety begins as early as kindergarten (Ashcraft, 2001) this literature review focuses on early onset in children and proposes interventions to reverse harmful effects. Children are defined as elementary school-age students. To identify relevant scholarly peer-reviewed literature, the parameters were set to research definitions, causes, and interventions for math anxiety related to elementary students.

NEXT

Jump to Article: Table of Contents

Richardson and Suinn (1972) defined math anxiety as stress causing negative physical reactions that interfere with the manipulation of numbers and problem solving in both academic settings and everyday life.

Definitions of Math Anxiety

For decades, the subject of math has been plagued with fear and anxiety by some students. As early as the 1950's, educators and researchers began to recognize the significance and prevalence of students with fears and negative attitudes toward math. Studies emerged trying to identify and define this phenomenon. After observing students struggle with math, Gough (1954) described her students' fear and avoidance of math as a disease and called for interventions to help these students. Dreger and Aiken (1957) described "number anxiety" as negative emotional responses to mathematics. Richardson and Suinn (1972) defined math anxiety as stress causing negative physical reactions that interfere with the manipulation of numbers and problem solving in both academic settings and everyday life. Additional studies from the 1970's to present day used these definitions or similar ones for math anxiety. All definitions include an extreme negative physical, emotional, and cognitive reaction to math that hinders a person's ability to learn and perform math activities (Ashcraft, 2002; Beilock, et al., 2009; Henry & Chiu, 1990; Mattarella-Micke, Mateo, Kozak, Foster, & Beilock, 2011; Tobias, 1978). For this ARS, math anxiety is defined as an intense fear, nervousness, and dread related to math leading to avoidance of mathematic activities and impedes math learning (Ashcraft, 2002).

Causes for Math Anxiety

The literature discussing causes and/or contributing factors for the prevalence of math anxiety in elementary students involves various social, cognitive, and academic elements. Social factors include continued race and gender stigmas and lack of parental support in low socioeconomic (SES) households. Cognitive factors comprise dyscalculia and deficits in working memory. Academic factors encompass the traditional math curriculum used in classrooms, ineffective teaching styles, and the influence of math anxious teachers.

Social factors. Gillen-O'Neel, Ruble, & Fuligini, (2011) found students aware of negative subgroup stigmas are more likely to exhibit anxiety, poor self-esteem, and lack motivation. Several studies attribute elevated math anxiety and low math achievement in females to the enduring stereotype, that "Girls are not good at math" (Beilock et al., 2010; Geist, 2010, Sparks, 2011; Tobias, 1978). Sparks (2011) reviewed studies confirming that regardless of math ability, girls are more likely to have higher math anxiety and lower math achievement than boys.

The perpetuation of stereotypes also increases math anxiety and poor self-esteem in other minorities. Renya (2000) revealed that ethnic minorities are more apt to lose motivation and interest in math when stereotyped as low achievers. Due to self-doubt and anxiety, African Americans who are doing poorly in math, consistent with the stereotype, are more likely to disengage in tests and activities than are white students. Gillen-O'Neel et al., (2011) explained elementary-aged ethnic students are aware of negative stigmas and this is linked with higher levels of academic anxiety and less motivation in comparison to their non-minority peers.

Beyond gender and racial stereotypes, parental expectations and beliefs related to education can negatively affect self-esteem and students' attitudes towards math. Scarpello (2007) discusses math anxious students from low SES backgrounds often have less educated parents who also struggle with math anxiety. Often negative parental attitudes and beliefs are passed on and academic achievement is not encouraged. Rown-Kenyon, Swan, & Creager, (2012) explained that parental support is crucial to the self-efficacy in math and science demonstrated by students. Students of low SES status may lack this support due to their parents not being physically

Causes for Math Anxiety

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NEXT

Jump to Article:

Table of Contents

present or lacking the educational background to help the students with homework. Social expectations, negative stereotypes, and lack of support in academic and family settings increase the chances of math anxiety in students.

Cognitive factors. Biological make-up in regards to cognition can increase susceptibility to math anxiety. Sparks (2011) interviewed several neurologists studying math learning and performance. A wide range of math learning disabilities, also known as dyscalculia, was linked to math anxiety. Neurologists found difficulties recognizing the differences in numerical magnitude also exhibited high levels of math anxiety. Numerical magnitude, identifying which of two numbers is bigger, is a foundational concept for advanced math learning. Elementary students with this deficiency could develop poor self-esteem, frustration, and negative reactions to math as they are introduced to more complex concepts.

Students with average to high math capabilities also may have cognitive factors that could attribute to math anxiety. Mattarella-Micke et al. (2011) discussed that high math anxious students tend to have lower cognitive skills than their less math anxious peers due to avoidance of math activities and practice yet may have high inherent capabilities. Ramirez, Gunderson, Levine, & Beilock (in press) found that the cognitive element of working memory is a strong predictor of skill acquisition. Students with higher levels of working memory may be more susceptible to stress and anxiety which negatively impacts their math learning and performance. Willis (2010) explained that the emotional reactions of math anxiety can shut down working memory that is needed to learn and solve problems. She states "when students are stressed, they can't use their thinking brains" (p. 10). Cognitive factors are considerable components contributing to the level of math anxiety demonstrated in elementary students.

Academic factors. Academic factors also carry a heavy influence on math anxiety. Geist (2010) believes math curriculum used in public school classrooms contributes to math difficulties. Reliance on timed tests and memorization has increased anxiety making math a high-risk activity. Many college students who exhibit math anxiety presented negative experiences they had in elementary math classes. Current math curriculum in elementary grade levels does not provide conceptual understanding of mathematics; instead it focuses on acquisition of superficial knowledge of basic computational skills and math operations. The students lack the ability to understand the "why" of mathematics and instead regurgitate facts. As a result, students quickly forget the concepts they have learned and experience continuous frustration (Perry 2004). Swars, Daane, and Geisen, (2010) agreed that math classes using traditional curriculum which concentrates on basic skills, teacher lecture, seatwork, and whole class instruction are more likely to have students with math anxiety than math classes that utilize non-traditional curriculum which focuses on real-life applications and group work.

In addition to research that traditional curriculum increases math anxiety, extensive literature is dedicated to how teachers' relationships, attitudes, and efficacy influence math anxiety. Current research indicates that teachers who struggle personally with fear and anxiety related to math inadvertently pass on math anxiety to their students (Beilock et al., 2010; Bekdemir, 2010; Geist, 2010; Renya, 2000 & Swars et al., 2010). Bekdemir (2010) explained that a majority of math anxious individuals report fear onset and hatred of math to a negative experience with a hostile or inadequate teacher during elementary school. Beilock et al. (2010) reported that 1 year with a math anxious elementary teacher was correlated with lower math achievement and increased negative attitudes toward math in students. Math anxious teachers perpetuate math anxiety as they lack confidence in their ability to teach math. These frustrated teachers spend more time avoiding math and relying on answer keys in textbooks than learning how to teach math creatively. Geist (2010) suggested that math anxiety appears from the way it is taught in math class and may have been presented to math teachers when they were children.

Interventions for Math Anxiety

Despite the various proposed causes, math anxiety results in one significant negative consequence, low math achievement. As researchers recognized and investigated the causes for math anxiety and its link

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to low math achievement they designed and implemented interventions to reduce math anxiety in elementary students. Some researchers explored the social factors and developed interventions to raise awareness of gender and racial stereotypes for school staff. Parent education and workshops were suggested to increase student support of academic endeavors at school and home (Geist, 2010; Gillen -O'Neel et al., 2011; Renya, 2000; Tobias, 1978). Other researchers focused on the cognitive factors of math anxiety and discussed changes in assessment techniques to identify early math learning disabilities and specialized instruction (Ashcraft, 2002; Mattarella-Micke et al., 2011; Mundia, 2012; Ramirez et al., in press) Changes in curriculum such as group work, open discussion, real-life applications, and group or peer assessments were offered as interventions to replace anxiety provoking traditional math curriculum (Geist, 2010; Sparks, 2011; Willis, 2010;). Additional researchers focused on encouraging teachers to explore their own math anxiety and take steps to create stress free and positive classroom environments (Beilock et al., 2010; Bekdemir, 2010; Swars et al., 2010).

Gaps in the Literature

The interventions discussed are valuable if implemented effectively, but they rely heavily on systemic and social change that is not easily attained. Moreover, the majority of these interventions focus on instructional or classroom changes which require instituting more work, planning, and training to already overwhelmed classroom teachers. Additionally, the interventions seem to neglect the psychological and emotional aspects of math anxiety. Schools employ professional school counselors (PSCs) who are uniquely trained to assist students with a wide range of academic and personal/social stressors and could be effectively used to help students cope with math anxiety yet a further search of the literature related to school counseling and anxiety varied in suggestions to assist kindergarten to college students. Many of the interventions varied from moderate school phobia and generalized anxiety disorder to test anxiety and transitional stress (Bruce, Getch, & Ziomek-Daigle, 2009; Cheek, Bradley, Reynolds, & Coy, 2012; Miller, Short, Garland, & Clark, 2010). When keywords limited the search to school counseling and math anxiety fewer documents were suggested. Two promising studies incorporated cognitive-behavioral therapy techniques such as cognitive reframing to replace negative and fearful thoughts related to mathematics with positive visualizations of success and achievement, however these focused on high school and college-aged students (Perry, 2004; Shobe, Brewin, & Carmack, 2005). The majority of counseling research for math anxiety was conducted in colleges and high schools and little in elementary schools.

Academic success in the area of math achievement proves to be a recurring weakness in American students. This gap has been documented as early as kindergarten. A persistent and significant theme related to low math achievement is math anxiety. The research suggests several causes for math anxiety including social, cognitive and academic factors. Based on these causes, some early interventions were developed to reduce math anxiety in elementary students. These include, parent and teacher trainings negative social stigmas, early assessment and specialized education for students with math learning disabilities, new and creative math curriculum, building teacher confidence in math, and increasing positive learning environments. Research supports that interventions have positive results when implemented effectively. Weaknesses for interventions include amending district policies and procedures and relying heavily on curriculum and classroom instruction changes which could add extra exertion to already overwhelmed classroom teachers. Fantuzzo et al. (2012) revealed that high levels of teachers' job stress were related to increased responsibilities and instructional changes that decreased their time dedicated to teaching math and reading basics. Moreover, these studies are limited as they ignore the expert qualities and skills of PSCs as possible resources to reduce math anxiety in elementary students. The deficit in this literature warranted this ARS that designs, implements, and evaluates the effectiveness of PSC's to reduce math anxiety in fifth grade students.

Method

This action research (AR) was defined as a study conducted by a PSC within the school environment to gather information about a counseling intervention and how the participants responded to the intervention. The AR goal was to gain insight by evaluating the intervention effectiveness and developing new practices to improve student outcomes and the lives of those involved (Mills, 2011). This ARS addressed how PSC skills in personal/social development make them uniquely qualified to assist students in overcoming barriers in math learning by reducing math anxiety (Barna & Brott, 2011). A mixed method design was used to identify the nature and degree of problems in math achievement for fifth grade students, in a Georgia public suburban elementary school, by exploring their attitudes and beliefs about math.

There were three research questions (RQs)

1) How does math anxiety negatively impact math achievement in fifth grade students?

2) How can PSCs reduce math anxiety and reverse the negative effects on math achievement?

3) How can the results from the intervention be used to make improvements in future counseling programs to address math achievement?

Instrumentation

RQ 1 was confirmed from previous research collecting data about the negative attitudes and beliefs young students have towards math. The Math Anxiety Scale for Children (MASC) (Henry & Chiu, 1990) was administered to all fifth grade students (N=63). This survey contains 22 items related to math that students rated on a 4 point Likert scale. The MASC demonstrated validity and reliability through a factor analysis compared to other assessments used to measure math anxiety (Henry & Chiu, 1990; Beasley, Long & Natali, 2001). In addition to the MASC, students were asked 5 open ended questions (ARS Survey) probing feelings and perceptions about math. Besides the ARS Survey, the PSC developed a Post-Test consisting of 5 open-ended questions to probe the small group intervention's impact on participants' attitudes and beliefs about math and improvement in coping skills. The ARS Survey and the Post-Test items were designed for this ARS and were not tested for validity or reliability.

MASC scores and ARS survey results were compared to the student's scores on the winter math benchmark exams. The AIMSweb Math Computation Measure (MCOMP) and the Math Concepts and Applications measure (MCAP) benchmarks used by the district are standardized and nationally normed. These data served as a baseline measure and the criteria to identify students to participate in the intervention. Baseline scores and spring scores on the MCAP and MCOMP were compared to evaluate the effectiveness of the intervention.

Post-intervention teacher interviews were conducted for triangulation data. A 16 item questionnaire composed of rating scales and open-ended questions was developed and used during structured interviews with teachers about their observations and perceptions of the impact the small group intervention had on participants. The teacher questionnaire was developed from the literature and not tested for validity or reliability.

Identification and Recruitment of Participants

Student participants. Fourteen students were identified as possible participants in the intentional small group intervention to reduce math anxiety and increase achievement. They did not meet the winter target on one or both math sections of the benchmark assessment and showed significant scores on the MASC. Parent consent and student assent were acquired from 13 students (N= 13): 6 females (3 African-American, 2 Caucasian, and 1 Hispanic) and 7 males (6 African-American, and 1 Hispanic). These demographics were consistent with the literature.

Teacher participants. Fifth grade teachers were asked to participate in interviews about group effectiveness. The volunteers taught math to one or more participants daily.

Materials and Procedures

RQ 2 was addressed by designing and implementing a small group intervention with fifth grade participants in a lunch and learn format. The group met twice a week for 6 weeks for 12 sessions facilitated by the PSC. The curriculum was based on Building Math Confidence by Brigman and Goodman (2008) and Managing the Mean Math Blues: Math Study Skills for Student Success by Ooten and Moore (2010). Session topics included identifying and expressing feelings, positive and negative self-talk, changing negative thought patterns, stress reduction and relaxation exercises, self-advocacy-knowing when and how to ask for help, goal setting, accepting mistakes as a part of learning, celebrating success, specific math study skills, journaling, self -evaluation, and termination. At the final session, a second MASC, ARS Survey, and Post-Test items were administered to assess any impact on beliefs and attitudes toward math. Participants participated in the spring

Post data demonstrated most participants experienced lower levels of math anxiety and increased math achievement.

administration of the AIMSweb MCOMP and MCAP.

Data gathered during the post-intervention teacher interviews summarized teacher observations related to the participants' use of skills and strategies gained from the group. Additionally, teachers related changes they noticed in attitude and motivation in math class, and behavior changes they observed related to the subject of math.

Data Analysis

Qualitative and quantitative data was gathered and analyzed by using a mixed methods design of grounded theory and descriptive statistics. Data analysis was meant to confirm the literature's description of the negative effects of math anxiety on math achievement in elementary students. Other data was analyzed to measure the effectiveness of the small group intervention to reduce math anxiety and increase math achievement.

Quantitative data. Both MASC scores were analyzed using descriptive statistics to compare percentage changes in participants' scores after the intervention. Descriptive statistics compared percentage of change on spring and winter benchmark scores. Post data demonstrated most participants experienced lower levels of math anxiety and increased math achievement.

Qualitative data. All qualitative data were analyzed using grounded theory. The goals of grounded theory are to code qualitative responses and classify into emerging themes (Walker & Myrick, 2006). Attention was paid to themes that correlated with the literature connecting math anxiety and low math achievement. For triangulation, teacher interviews were coded and compared for similar themes relating to the impact of the intervention and participant's pre and post attitudes and beliefs toward math. Qualitative data was translated into numeric form to represent the percentage of positive and negative themes found in teacher and student responses.

Results

Quantitative Student Data

To measure the impact of the intervention on participants' stress and anxiety levels in math, both MASC scores were compared for each participant (Figure 1). The

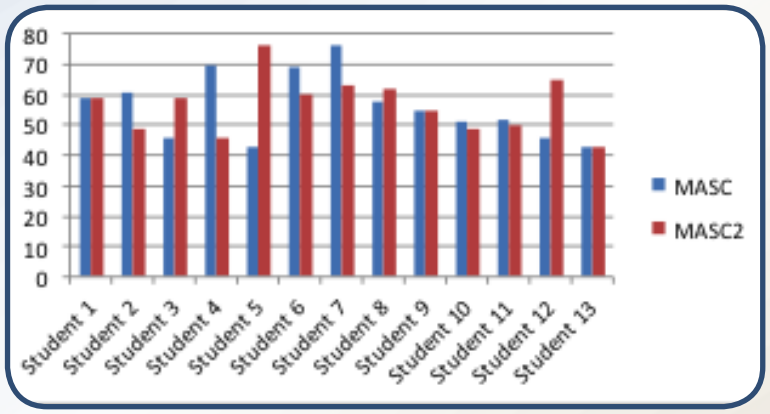

Figure 1: Comparison of Student Participants First and Second MASC Scores

results demonstrated 46% of participants (N=6) had a decrease, 31% (N=4) had an increase, and 23% (N=3) of the MASC scores remained the same.

To examine the impact of the intervention on math achievement, the winter and spring fifth grade math benchmark scores were compared. Analysis of basic math computation skills displayed that 84% of participants (N=10) increased their second MCOMP score, 8% (N= 1) decreased the score, and 8% (N=1) had the same score. The MCAP measures students' skills in math concepts and applications. Results revealed 58% of participants (N=7) had an increase, 33% (N=4) had a decrease, and 8% of the participants (N= 1) had the same MCAP score. One participant was absent and did not participate in the second benchmark administration.

Qualitative Student Data

Using grounded theory five themes emerged from the ARS survey responses to include stress and frustration, negative self-talk and avoidance behaviors, positive attitudes toward math, and positive self-talk and motivated behaviors (See Figure A).

Figure A: Qualitative Matrix of Student Responses to ARS Survey

Pre-Intervention Themes	Examples	Post-Intervention Themes	Examples
Stress & Frustration 52%	"It's really scary when you get called to the board." "I don't like math and I am afraid of math." "I get scared when I don't get the problem." "I get really scared and start sweating." "I feel stupid and can't do it" "Really confusing and frustrating"	Stress & Frustration 30%	"I get a little nervous" "Math is boring "Freak Math!" "Difficult" "Math is a little hard."
Negative Self-talk & Avoidance Behaviors 18%	"Math is hard for me." "I give up instantly." "I just sit there and scratch my head." "I mess with my hair." "I say I can't do it. "I am dumb and don't know anything." "I feel stupid and helpless"	Negative Self-talk & Avoidance Behaviors 5%	"Math is hard for me." "I give up instantly." "I just sit there and scratch my head." "I mess with my hair." "I say I can't do it. "I am dumb and don't know anything."
Positive Attitudes Toward Math 14%	"Sometimes math is hard but sometimes it is not." "Math is great." "Math is good for you." "Ok"	Positive Attitudes Toward Math 30%	"Math is an education that helps your brain to think everyday" "Math is about dealing with real life problems." "Kind of cool" "Better now"
Positive Self-talk & Motivated Behaviors 16%	"I would ask the teacher to help me." "I would solve the problem." "Ask teacher for help" "Ask for some help."	Positive Self-talk & Motivated Behaviors 35%	"I can do it" "I can do this." "I'll try this again." "Keep trying ask questions" "I just count to ten." "I try my best."

After identifying the themes, theme frequency before and after small group intervention was charted and translated into numerical percentages. Student responses before the small group intervention determined 52% displayed stress and frustration with math, 18% displayed negative self-talk and avoidance behavior, 14% displayed positive attitudes toward math, and 16% displayed positive self-talk and motivated behaviors. The frequency changed after the small the group intervention as only 30% of the respondents reported stress and frustration, 5% displayed negative self-talk and avoidance behavior, 30% revealed positive attitudes toward math, and 35% displayed positive self-talk and motivated behaviors.

Another post-test item asked students to respond to the following: Imagine you are in math class and you are about to take a test. How do you feel? The majority of participants still found this to be an anxiety provoking situation as 92% displayed stress and frustration and only 8% displayed positive feelings and attitudes (See Figure B).

Figure B: Qualitative Matrix of Student Responses to Post-Test Questions 1-2

Imagine you are in math class and you are about to take a test? How do you Feel?	Examples	Imagine you are in math class and you are about to take a test? What do you do?	Examples
Stress & Frustration 92%	"Nervous" "Mad" "I feel like I might pass or fail" "Like butterflies are in my stomach" "Scared" "Mad and anxious" "Sometimes stress" "Worried"	Positive Self-Talk & Motivated Behaviors 85%	"Have confidence and say I can do it" "Say I can do this" "Count to Ten" "Practice" "I keep on trying" "Relax" "Ask for help when it's time to check" "Meditate" "I breathe in and out and count to 10"
Positive Feelings & Attitude 8%	"Ok"	Negative Self-Talk & Avoidance Behaviors 15%	"Hold my tummy" "Tense up and get nervous"

The same situation was described and participants were asked what do you do? A majority responded positively to the situation as 85% displayed positive self-talk and motivated behaviors and 15% displayed negative self-talk and avoidance behaviors (See Figure B). The participants were asked to describe their feelings about

math before joining the small group and 92% of the responses displayed stress and frustration with math and 8% displayed positive feelings and attitudes toward math. When asked to describe feelings about math after participation 100% displayed positive feelings and attitudes toward math (See Figure C).

Figure C: Qualitative Matrix of Student Responses to Post-Test Questions 4-5

Describe how you felt about math before joining math group?	Examples	Describe how you feel about math after participating in math group?	Examples
Stress & Frustration 92%	"I had always hated it" "It sucked I failed everything" "I hated math before joining" "Like I am stupid" "Hated it" "Scared" "Stress" "I hated math and wished it never existed." "Dumb" "Nervous" "Very Very Stressed"	Positive Feelings & Attitude 100%	"I feel like I have progressed" "I get 2s and 3s" "I feel good and confident" "A little better" "Easy" "Good" "Pretty Good" "I feel very happy and calm" "Smart" "Awesome" "Like I can do it" "I love it"
Positive Feelings & Attitude 8%	"I loved it"		

Qualitative Teacher Data

Teachers rated each student's stress level in math class using a scale of 0-10 before and after the small group intervention. Responses revealed a decrease in participants' stress level in math class as the mean stress level before joining the math group was 5.6 and the level after participation was 3.0. Teachers' responses also displayed an increase in participation in math class after the intervention as the mean involvement before joining the small group was 5.6 and the current mean after participation was 7.8. When asked if the small group contributed to increased math achievement, 75% stated "Yes", 17% were "Not Sure", and 8% said "No".

The teachers were asked to describe how the small group was effective in increasing math achievement. Common themes were coded and frequencies were translated into numerical percentages (See Figure D). Three themes emerged from teacher observation of participants in class, increased participation and assignment completion, displays confidence and positive attitude, and less fearful and accepting mistakes. Thirty eight percent observed increased participation and completed assignments, 38% responded participants display confidence and positive attitudes, and 24% responded participants were less fearful and accepted mistakes.

Figure D: Qualitative Matrix of Teacher Responses to Structured Interview Question 15

Describe how the small math confidence building group contributed to math achievement	Examples
Increased participation and completed assignments 38%	"I had always hated it" "It sucked I failed everything" "I hated math before joining" "Like I am stupid" "Hated it" "Scared" "Stress" "I hated math and wished it never existed." "Dumb" "Nervous" "Very Very Stressed"
Displays confidence and positive attitude 38%	"She gives when called upon in class, she's more confident in herself." "She believes that she will pass math on the CRCT and I believe she has a chance to." "Strong use of positive self-talk"
Less fearful and accepts mistakes 24%	"Calm demeanor which leads to methodic step by step approach to math" "He seems more willing to share his answers or explanation even though he wasn't sure he was right" "He seems more assertive, He's not scared to be wrong because he knows he's going to get help"

Discussion

Comparison of baseline and post-intervention data answered RQ1. All fifth grade participants had high MASC and low math achievement scores on one or both winter math benchmarks. A lower second MASC score correlates to a decrease in math anxiety, a higher second MASC score correlates with an increase in math anxiety, and the same score on the MASC correlates with the same level of math anxiety exhibited by participants after the small group intervention. To measure the effects of math anxiety on math achievement the data from the second MASC and spring benchmark assessments were analyzed. Of the 46% (N=6) of participants who displayed a decrease in math anxiety on the second MASC, 83% (N=5) scored

higher on the spring benchmark MCOMP and 67% (N=4) showed improvement in their MCAP scores indicating an increase in math achievement. Of the 31% (N=4) who showed an increase in math anxiety on the second MASC, 75% (N=3) scored higher on the MCOMP and 25% (N=1) showed improvement in the MCAP. These findings are consistent with the literature correlating math anxiety and math achievement as more achievement growth was demonstrated in participants who displayed less math anxiety (Ashcraft, 2002; Beilock, et al., 2009; Henry & Chiu, 1990; Mattarella-Mick et al., 2011; Tobias, 1978; Wu et al., 2012).

RQ2 was answered by evaluating effectiveness of the small group intervention to reduce math anxiety. The counseling intervention was moderately effective in reducing math anxiety and its effects on math achievement as nearly half of the participants scored lower on the second MASC and the majority of these participants had higher spring math benchmark scores. Moreover, a majority of the teachers reported improvements in confidence and participation in math class and 75% stated the small group intervention contributed to math achievement. These results indicate the PSC is uniquely qualified to build confidence and increase math achievement in fifth grade students through a small counseling group intervention.

Considerations

It is possible that some participants who increased MASC scores underrated their anxiety on the first MASC or over reported it on the second MASC. This is suggested as post-test qualitative data showed 92% reported feeling stress and frustration in math before the intervention and 100% reported positive attitudes and feelings toward math after the small group intervention. Other factors could have contributed to the higher second MASC scores. In the structured interviews, teachers commented that some participants showed inconsistency in math class that they attributed to variables such as bullying situations, frequent school absences or difficult transition to a new school. Another factor may have been an increase in stress among students as the administration of the Criterion Referenced Competency Test (CRCT) was near.

Lastly, throughout the group intervention several participants reported stress and frustration with math teachers and instruction. These factors are consistent with causes for math anxiety found in the literature (Geist 2010; Perry, 2004; Swars et al., 2010). Continuous exposure to these stressful situations could have increased the students' level of math anxiety.

Limitations

Triangulation of data indicates the small group intervention was moderately effective; however, other variables may have been involved. It is possible that teacher instruction and classroom interventions increased math skills and abilities which led to increased confidence and a reduction in math anxiety.

This ARS was limited in controlling possible stressful situations that may have contributed to an increase in math anxiety and decrease in math achievement. These include teacher/student conflicts, peer conflicts, teaching styles and traditional math instruction, and pressure to perform well on high stakes assessments. Teachers noted peer conflicts as a possible source of inconsistency in students' motivation and performance. Participants also reported negative peer interactions, teaching styles and teacher conflicts as continuous sources of stress in math class. Students expressed anxious feelings about the upcoming CRCT administration as fifth graders are required to meet expectations on the math and reading portions to advance to sixth grade. Although, positive coping skills were taught and practiced in the small group intervention, the PSC could not control participant's continued exposure to these factors.

This ARS was limited to a relatively small group of participants. Gladding (2012) suggests that psycho-educational groups can be large yet are most effective with 8-12 participants. The small group intervention was based on these parameters to include a maximum of 15 participants, approximately one-fourth of fifth grade students. In the structured interviews, teachers discussed other students who may have benefited and were not included in the study.

Triangulation of data indicates the small group intervention was moderately effective; however, other variables may have been involved. It is possible that teacher instruction and classroom interventions increased math skills and abilities which led to increased confidence and a reduction in math anxiety.

Future Implications

The results and limitations reveal areas for improvement and expansion (RQ 3). Consistent with the literature, factors such as traditional math instruction and teaching styles could not be controlled and might have impacted the effectiveness of the intervention. Future studies should examine how PSC's advocate for students and address math concerns with administration and faculty. PSC's could teach faculty to identify students with math anxiety and incorporate interventions into classroom instruction that reduce stress and frustration for these students. Discussions with administration should center on monitoring teaching styles that increase math anxiety and encouraging positive math learning environments in the classroom.

In future ARS the PSC should consider the timing of the small group interventions. Changing the time of the small group was suggested by three teacher participants. Before or after school scheduled group times could allow for less interruption of classroom instruction and longer periods for group intervention. School year schedule should also be considered as students feelings about the upcoming spring CRCT administration may have been stressful.

Lastly, the limitation of this ARS to a relatively small group of participants suggests expansion to include larger student populations. One teacher commented that she felt all fifth grade students could benefit from the skills and lessons addressed in the small group intervention. This preliminary ARS was designed to measure if confidence was built by participation. Possible benefits for all fifth grade students needs to be reviewed. Future ARS could be expanded to include classroom guidance to build math confidence with all fifth graders.

In a final conclusion, more research addressing the psychological and social aspects of math learning and achievement are needed. PSC's are uniquely qualified to identify and create interventions to address these aspects of math learning. As school leaders, PSC's are called to be actively involved with the mission of the school in advocating for the personal/social and academic needs of the students. PSC's can do so by raising awareness of the psychological aspect of math learning among faculty and administration and encouraging collaboration to incorporate interventions to address this aspect in math instruction. By developing classroom guidance and other counseling interventions to effectively reduce math anxiety and increase math achievement, the PSC develops a comprehensive school counseling program that aligns with the academic focus of the school's mission.

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NEXT

Jump to Article:

Table of Contents

ADHD: Implications for School Counselors

Jennifer Branscome, Ph.D.; Teddi Cunningham, Ph.D.; Heather Kelley, Ph.D.; Caitlyn Brown, B.S., Valdosta State University

Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) is the most commonly diagnosed emotional/behavioral health disorder in children (Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration [SAMHSA], 2012). As the rates of ADHD diagnosis rise, so will the likelihood that school counselors will be called upon to work with parents, teachers, and other educational professionals to assist children with ADHD (CWA) successfully negotiate their academic lives. Although the majority of CWA are served within the general education classroom, these children will often continue to face academic, social, and behavioral difficulties both in and out of the classroom (Webb & Myrick, 2006). Children with ADHD often require academic tutoring outside of the classroom setting and are at-risk for repeating grades or eventually dropping out of school (Webb & Myrick, 2006). Children with ADHD are also at-risk for developing additional emotional/behavioral problems (e.g., depression, anxiety), which can compound difficulties they face due to their ADHD. School counselors can provide a myriad of resources (e.g., individual counseling, consultation services) to support teachers and students with ADHD to achieve a successful academic experience. The American School Counselor Association (ASCA) holds the position that school counselors serve as advocates for students with special needs by working with families to involve them with their children's education and by collaborating with other educational professionals with the end goal of promoting academic achievement for all students (ASCA, 2013). School counselors are able to help all students, including students with ADHD, realize their potentials to assist them in achieving academic success, regardless of challenges they may face. The purpose of this paper is to provide resources to assist school counselors in effectively assisting students with ADHD by providing an overview of the current knowledge about ADHD as well as evidence-based training interventions for use with students with ADHD in the academic setting.

Abstract

The focus of this article is to provide an overview of the current state of knowledge of ADHD and to provide evidence-based training interventions for school counselors. An overview of basic information about ADHD will be provided, including diagnosis, presentation, causes, prevalence, and common misconceptions. Evidence-based training interventions will provide information to school counselor for working with children with ADHD in the educational setting.

Keywords: ADHD, school counselors

ADHD in Children: Overview

Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity is a neurodevelopmental disorder in which a child displays persistent, significant problems with inattention and/or hyperactivity-impulsivity (American Psychiatric Association [APA], 2013; US Department of Education [USDOE], 2008). Although all children will display inattentive, hyperactive and impulsive behaviors, for CWA, these core behaviors of ADHD will be more severe and will occur with greater frequency than for children without ADHD (National Institute of Mental Health [NIMH], n.d.). According to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 5th Edition (DSM 5), to be diagnosed with ADHD a child must have symptoms a minimum of six months prior to diagnosis and those symptoms must have been present prior to 12 years of age (APA, 2013). Additionally, the inattentive and/or hyperactive/impulsive symptoms must cause a negative impact in significant areas of functioning (e.g., social, academic, occupational). Children must also experience difficulties in more than one setting (e.g., home and school) to ensure that the problem is one of attention and/or hyperactivity/impulsivity, rather than one of environment (APA, 2013).

As the rates of ADHD diagnosis rise, so will the likelihood that school counselors will be called upon to work with parents, teachers, and other educational professionals to assist children with ADHD (CWA) successfully negotiate their academic lives.

NEXT

Jump to Article:

Table of Contents

Symptoms of ADHD

Although inattention, hyperactivity, and impulsivity are the core set of symptoms used to describe ADHD, symptom presentation in those diagnosed with ADHD will vary. Depending on a child's symptoms, he or she will be diagnosed with one of three types, or presentations, of ADHD: combined, predominantly inattentive, or predominately hyperactive/impulsive (APA, 2013). With the predominantly inattentive presentation, a child displays symptoms of inattention but not of hyperactivity or impulsivity. Common symptoms of inattention include not giving close attention to details, making careless mistakes in work, not appearing to listen when spoken to directly, difficulty organizing oneself, forgetfulness, and avoiding arduous mental tasks (APA, 2013). The difficulties with attention CWA experience can cause them numerous difficulties in the classroom including problems sustaining attention during an entire task, attending to details in directions, and misplacing items necessary for task completion (USDOE, 2008). Problems with inattention, although problematic to academic performance, tend to be less disruptive to the classroom setting that hyperactivity and impulsivity (Webb & Myric, 2006). Children with the inattentive presentation can be overlooked because they are less disruptive and less likely to act out in the classroom (NIMH, n.d.). Also, children with this diagnosis may not experience difficulties with interpersonal relationships, as compared to children with the hyperactive/impulsive or combined presentations (NIMH, n.d.).

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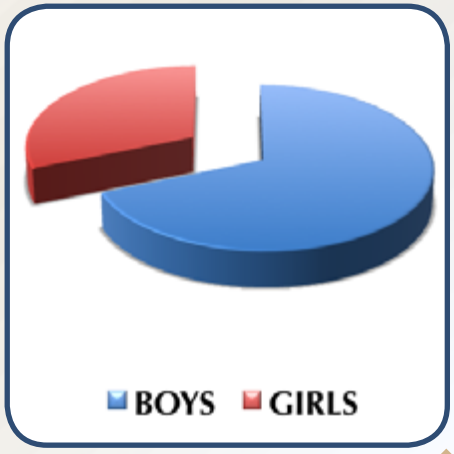
In the predominantly hyperactive/impulsive presentation of ADHD, a child displays symptoms of hyperactivity or impulsivity, but not of inattention (APA, 2013). Hyperactive and impulsive behaviors may include being fidgety, difficulty playing or engaging in leisure activities quietly, talking excessively, interrupting others, difficulty awaiting one's turn, being excessively active, and leaving one's seat when not appropriate (APA, 2013). Hyperactive and impulsive behaviors can affect not only academic performance, but a CWA's interpersonal relationships as well. Often, children with this presentation of ADHD are viewed as aggressive and disruptive to other children and educational staff. This in turn may result in problems with peers and with violation of school behavioral rules requiring discipline by school officials (Webb & Myric, 2006). Impulsive behaviors in particular are implicated in behaviors that cause the CWA to have conflict with educational staff and their peers (Webb & Myric, 2006).

In the combined presentation of ADHD, children will display problematic behaviors with both inattention and hyperactivity/impulsivity (APA, 2013). Children with this presentation will face the challenges that accompany difficulties with attention as well as with hyperactivity and impulsivity. The combined presentation is the most common (NIMH, n.d.) and therefore the one with which school counselors are most likely to work. As with the hyperactive/impulsive presentation, school counselors may be called upon to assist with students with the combined presentation due to the disruptive nature of the symptoms. A common goal is to help CWA successfully manage their classroom behavior and to interact appropriately with peers and teachers.

Prevalence of ADHD

Although the onset of ADHD for most children is prior to age four, ADHD is most often diagnosed when a child is in elementary school (McKinney, Montague, & Honeycutt, 1993). This is when children are first introduced to the structure and demands of the educational system, and when problematic behaviors become evident. School counselors will likely be called upon to work with students with ADHD more and more, as rates of diagnosis have steadily increased over time, at an average rate of 5% per year (Centers for Disease Control [CDC], 2011). Between the ages of 4 to 17 years, the prevalence of ADHD in boys is estimated to be 12.1% and in girls, 5.5% (CDC, 2013), with males consistently diagnosed at higher rates than females, at a ratio of about 2:1 (Bloom & Cohen, 2007). The average age at which children are diagnosed with ADHD is 6.2 years (CDC, 2013), however the greater the severity of the disorder, the earlier it tends to be diagnosed.



NEXT

Jump to Article:

Table of Contents

Associated Features of ADHD

Children with ADHD often demonstrate difficulties with the organization of their behaviors as well as adjusting to environmental demands (Mercugliano, Power & Blum, 1999). This often translates to problems with day-to-day functioning such as having all materials needed for the day, appropriate peer interactions, completing homework, and being on time. Often, CWA display inconsistent performance in school, lower test scores, and behavioral problems. These difficulties often will be those that prompt requests for help from the school counselor (DuPaul & Stoner, 2002a; Reeve, 1990; Zentall, 1993).

Children with ADHD are also at-risk for emotional, social, behavioral, and academic disorders. When compared to children without ADHD, CWA are significantly more likely to have comorbid depression, anxiety, learning disabilities and childhood ADHD (Howe, 2010; Larson, Russ, Kahn, & Halfon, 2011). In one study, researchers examined parental reports of comorbidity in their CWA. Of these children, 46% of were reported to have a learning disability, 27% a conduct disorder, 14% depression, and 12% a speech-language problem. In comparison, 5% of children without ADHD were reported to have a learning disability, 2% a conduct problem, 2% an anxiety problem, 1% depression, and 3% speech problems (Larson, et al., 2011). Sixty-seven percent of the children with ADHD had a minimum of one comorbid disorder (Larson, et al., 2011). These findings suggest that children with ADHD will likely face significant challenges in addition to ADHD, which could affect school and home life, and engender frustration and anxiety for parents and teachers in addition to the children themselves.

Causes of ADHD

Genetics

The specific causes of ADHD are not known; however, in the past decades, research has attempted to determine factors that contribute to the development of ADHD. One factor is genetic inheritance. Similar to other psychological disorders, ADHD run in families. Heritability estimates of ADHD range from 71 – 90% (e.g., Frank-Biggs, 2011; Lichtenstein, Carlstrom, Rastam, Gillberg, Anckarsater, 2010; Thapar, Cooper, Eyre, & Langley, 2013). Studies suggest that first degree relatives are two to eight times more likely to have ADHD than relatives of unaffected individuals. Adoption studies also support that ADHD has a high heritability rate (Thapar, et al., 2013). It is important to note that, no matter what psychiatric condition, the effects of environment as they interact with an individual's genetics can never be discounted.

Other studies have addressed the role of genes and their role in the transportation and use of dopamine, which has been implicated in ADHD (Franks-Biggs, 2011). Dopamine is a neurotransmitter that affects the movement of the body as well as reward and pleasure-seeking behaviors (Comer, 2013). Changes in mood, increased motor behavior, and frontal lobe dysfunction have been linked to excessive dopamine (Howe, 2010).

Brain Structure

Research also suggests that the structure and function of the brains of children with ADHD differ from those without ADHD (e.g., Krain & Castellanos, 2006). Children with ADHD have been found to have lower brain volume in several parts of the brain including the prefrontal regions and cerebellum (Krain & Castellanos, 2006). The prefrontal area of the brain is responsible for, among other things, executive function. Executive function is an umbrella term that refers to a set of mental processes which include attention to stimuli, spatial skills, planning, organizing, and strategizing (Comer, 2013). Dysfunction in the prefrontal lobe has been hypothesized to affective executive functioning, and be reflected in the inattentive, hyperactive, and impulsive symptoms of ADHD (Comer, 2013).

Environmental Risks

Although many environmental factors have been associated with increased risk of ADHD, causality is difficult to identify. Most studies assessing environmental risk factors have focused on toxins, diet, psychosocial factors and prenatal and perinatal factors. Risk factors associated with the prenatal and perinatal periods are myriad. Among the commonly identified factors are prenatal exposure to alcohol, drugs, and tobacco smoke (Thapar et al., 2013). Stress during pregnancy has also been identified as a risk factor for ADHD, as has prematurity and low birth weight. The inattentive presentation of ADHD has especially been associated with low birth weight and prematurity (Thapar et. al., 2013).

Exposure to toxins both pre- and post-natal periods have also been linked to ADHD. Lead, pesticides, and toxic industrial products (TIP) are among the environmental toxins most heavily studied for their impact on the disorder. Lead has been thought

to affect the cognitive development and functioning of individuals exposed to it, especially when ingested. These effects include lower cognitive ability as well as areas such as mental alertness and flexibility of cognitive functions (Frank-Briggs, 2011).

Psychosocial Factors

The psychosocial factors that are believed to place a child at-risk for ADHD include poverty, family dysfunction, family adversity, and severe and early deprivation (Howe, 2010). Maltreatment at the hands of family has also been identified as placing a child at-risk for ADHD. One difficulty in addressing clearly the relationship between psychosocial factors and ADHD is whether the factors are a cause or a result (or both) of ADHD. Genetic factors (e.g., running in the family) can confound attempts at determining such a relationship, as can shared environment. Of the psychosocial factors commonly addressed, early deprivation appears to more clearly place a child at-risk for ADHD. No definitive evidence exists about the causal nature of psychosocial factors, but it is likely that these factors serve to modify its expression and outcomes (Howe, 2010).

Misconceptions of ADHD

Although much is known about what is associated with ADHD, many misconceptions about the disorder exist. These misconceptions are potentially damaging and can prevent teachers, parents, and counselors from providing the adequate support needed for CWA in the educational setting. Next, we will briefly review some common misconceptions school counselors may hear

ADHD Only Affects Children

One of the most common misconceptions about ADHD is that it is only a disorder of childhood and will be outgrown. Although ADHD is a disorder that has its genesis in childhood, it is a chronic and pervasive disorder that continues for many into adulthood (APA, 2013). Similar to children or adolescents diagnosed with ADHD, adults will seem (or feel) restless, inattentive, and unable to focus or accomplish tasks in a timely manner (APA, 2013). An analysis of the academic, social, and behavioral history of adults often reveals long-standing difficulties with organization, productivity and focus.

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Medications Cure ADHD

Another common misconception about ADHD is that pharmacological treatment will eliminate all problematic inattentive, hyperactive and impulsive symptoms. Pharmacological treatment of ADHD has an extensive history, with reports of medication being used to treat the disorder since at least 1937 (Lange, Reichel, Lange, Tucha, & Tucha, 2010). The most common medications that are used for individuals diagnosed with ADHD are methylphenidate, dexaphetamine, atmoxetine, and lisdexamphetamine (Laver-Bradbury, 2013) with methylphenidate being the most commonly prescribed ADHD (Spiller, Hays, & Aleguas, 2013).

Pharmacological treatments for ADHD often focus on the function of the frontal lobe. In those with ADHD, the prefrontal cortex is hypothesized to be underaroused, resulting in difficulties with attention, impaired memory, difficulty with focus, and executive functioning (Comer, 2013). Pharmacological treatments work by stimulating the prefrontal cortex to an optimal level for cognitive efficiency, similar to those without ADHD (Berridge et al., 2006).

Stimulant medications also work by affecting the function of the use and transmission of dopamine and norepinephrine (Berridge et al., 2006). Dopamine and norepinephrine affect, in part, an individual's executive functioning including

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decision-making, problem-solving, planning, and organization (Swanson, Baler, & Volkow, 2010). Medications do not cure ADHD, but it makes it easier for the individual to function similarly to those without ADHD.

ADHD is Over Diagnosed

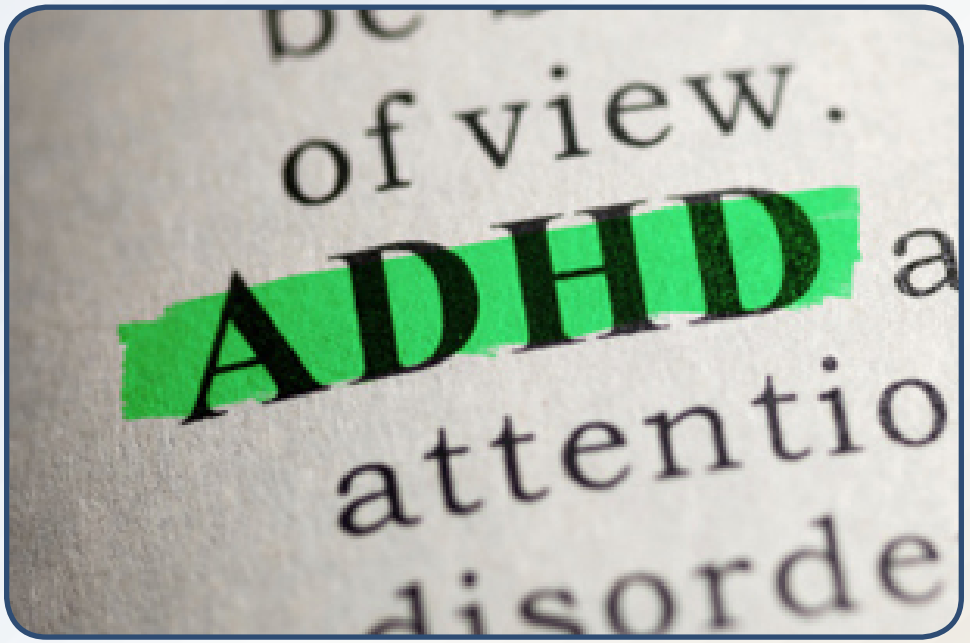
Within the past ten years, there has been a noticeable increase in ADHD diagnoses. Between the years of 2003 and 2011, ADHD diagnoses have increased by a total of 42% (CDC, 2013). Although incident rates of ADHD have increased, it is unlikely that the increase is due to wide-scale misdiagnosing by health care providers. Instead, the increase in diagnoses is likely due to a better understanding of ADHD, which in turn produces a greater awareness in clinicians and the lay population. As knowledge of ADHD increases, the prevalence rates will likely follow suit, as will the ability to provide effective support and treatment both inside and outside of the classroom.

Medication Causes Substance Abuse

One topic that engenders significant discussion is whether children who take ADHD are more at-risk to abuse substances later in life (Miller, 2011). Although stimulant medication used to treat ADHD can make a significant difference in cognitive and behavioral functions (especially when accompanied by psychotherapy), research demonstrates that children and teens diagnosed with ADHD are at a higher risk for developing a substance abuse problem in the future (American Academy of Pediatrics [AAP], 2011). Although the relationship between use of psychopharmacological treatments for ADHD and later substance abuse is robust, it is unlikely that the medications themselves are causal factors in later abuse (AAP, 2011). A number of factors have been proposed to explain the relationship, such a genetic predisposition to substance abuse, use of substance to self-medicate issues secondary to ADHD, and poor judgment skills which often accompanies ADHD (AAP, 2011).

Dietary Implications

The idea that the diets of CWA as contributing to the development and maintenance of ADHD has long been a topic of discussion. In particular, hyperactive and impulsive symptoms associated with ADHD have been (erroneously) linked to overconsumption of sugar. However, in controlled studies regarding the link between sugar and behavior, researchers have found that the amount of sugar had no effect on whether a child was able to concentrate or behave appropriately (AAP, 2011). Studies such as these effectively ruled out a link between sugar and unwanted



behavior such as hyperactivity (AAP, 2011). A recent addition to the discussion of the impact of diet on CWA involves gluten. The focus of gluten on ADHD symptoms has spawned a body of research focusing on the impact of gluten on ADHD. However, only limited evidence exists that gluten is culpable in the development of ADHD, and only to a limited degree (e.g., Niederhofer, 2011).

ADHD: Next Steps for the School Counselor

Having a solid understanding of what ADHD is, how it manifests, its prevalence, its causes, and other related factors is important for school counselors. With this knowledge, school counselors will more effectively be able to provide support for educational persons and parents in assisting CWA. Next we discuss taking this knowledge and implementing it within the school setting, focusing on evidence-based interventions.

Evidenced-Based Training Interventions

In order to address the symptoms of those with ADHD, evidence-based interventions can be used to support a person coping with ADHD. Evidence-based interventions can also be used with or without the use of medication-based

As our knowledge of ADHD grows, it is to be hoped that so too will the school counselor's ability to provide effective, evidence-based interventions to assist all who are affected by ADHD.

strategies. These interventions take place outside the environment where change is desired. The child is trained in specific strategies and the child will implement the training in environments where the behavior needs to be changed. Evidenced-based interventions include small group counseling, mindfulness training, check-in/check-out, and cognitive problem solving. Small group counseling can help students with ADHD a vehicle to help them understand ADHD, enhance learning skills, and recognize external cues (Webb & Myrick, 2006). Small group counseling has also been used to teach cognitive problem solving to children with ADHD (Ozcan, Oflaz, Turkbay, & Freeman Clevenger, 2013). Mindfulness training teaches the student to control their attention and reduce automatic responses. Mindfulness training can be tailored to the specific behavior problems students are experiencing (van de Weijer-Bergsma, Langenberg, Brandsma, Oort, & Bogels, 2014). Check-in/check-out can be used with a variety of problematic behaviors such as inattention, off-task behaviors, and homework completion. In order to be effective, all components of the check-in/check-out process need to be implemented (Swoszowski, 2014).

Teacher Training

School counselors can provide teachers with strategies similar to those taught to parents to increase appropriate behavior in the classroom. Providing teachers with evidenced-based classroom management strategies assists the teacher in helping a child with ADHD manage their behavior in the classroom environment. Token systems and response cost systems are evidenced-based practices that are effective with children who have ADHD. Token systems that reward positive behavior by noticing when the child is engaging in appropriate behavior are an effective evidence-based practice for children with ADHD. A response cost system that gives the child a specific number of points at the beginning of the day and takes points away for negative behavior then rewards the child at the end of the day was found to be an effective way to manage behavior in the classroom (Brock, Grove, & Searls, 2010).

School counselors can conduct teacher-training sessions that indicate how to set up a tangible reward system and/or a response cost system that provides a means for the teacher to give rewards to the child for appropriate behaviors and take points away when the child engages in negative behavior. Training teachers in time-out strategies that do not reinforce the negative behavior is another way that school counselors can assist teachers in helping children with ADHD manage their behavior. Self-management systems have also been found to be effective in assisting children with ADHD. The school counselor works with the teacher to develop a system that allows the student to monitor and evaluate their own behavior reducing the amount of feedback needed from the teacher. Both teacher and student rate the student's behavior. The ratings are compared and points are awarded if the ratings are the same. Students then receive rewards once a certain point level is reached (DuPaul & Stoner, 2002b). The Daily Report Card is a strategy that requires both teacher and parent involvement. The school counselor can work with the teacher to develop small goals for the student to meet and with parents to determine appropriate rewards. As the goals are met, the parent provides the student with the assigned reward (Chronis, Jones, & Raggi, 2006).

Conclusion

Children with ADHD face a myriad of difficulties within the educational setting. Parents and teachers alike may struggle in providing effective assistance to allow these children to succeed. The school counselor possesses a unique skill set which allows counselors to provide support and advocacy for CWA as well as for those who work with CWA. As our knowledge of ADHD grows, it is to be hoped that so too will the school counselor's ability to provide effective, evidence-based interventions to assist all who are affected by ADHD.

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NEXT

Jump to Article:

Table of Contents

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Counseling Immigrant Students in the Schools

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Abstract

According to the 2010 United States Census, one out of every five children live in an immigrant family with either one or both parents being immigrants. This paper will explore the unique needs of children of immigrants who come to school as immigrant students. A discussion of the use of Reality Therapy as a counseling approach with this population is illustrated. Appropriate counseling techniques addressing immigrant students; academic, career and personal/social needs are addressed. A detailed classroom guidance related to the topic is included in the Appendix.

Keywords: immigrant students, reality therapy, school counselors, classroom guidance

The population known as immigrant students is not limited; rather, any student who has come to the United States from a different country can be considered an immigrant. Therefore, when an immigrant student arrives within the school system, school counselors need to consider the individual's personal background before making any decisions about how to conduct counseling sessions and what techniques will be the most beneficial to that particular student.

The following paper gives general information regarding the immigrant student population. However, it is very important to remember that each student, immigrant or not, deserves individual attention without being categorized into a group. The characteristics described below are some which are commonly found among Hispanic, European, and Asian cultures.

NEXT

Jump to Article:

Table of Contents

Characteristics of Immigrant Students

Demographics

In the 2010 Census Report, 12.9 percent of the United States' population was made up of foreign born residents (individuals not born in the United States). Of the 39.9 million foreign born, 53.1 percent were from Latin America and the Caribbean, 28.2 percent were born in Asia, and 12.1 percent originated in Europe. The remaining 2 percent were from "Other" countries. At the time of this census, one-fourth of the foreign born population was concentrated in one state, California, while over half was distributed among just four states; New York, Texas, Florida and California. Georgia has 2.4 percent of the total foreign born population. Of the immigrant population, 7.1 percent were under 18 years old, and 80.5 percent were between the ages of 18 and 64 (United States Census Bureau, 2010).

Common Characteristics

Immigrant students face challenges unique to them. They are more likely than non-immigrants to live in poverty and be uninsured. Their parents typically have low-wage jobs and may not be well-educated. Many of their parents have limited-English proficiency, so higher-paying jobs are not available to them. Immigrant students' parents may also be undocumented residents and therefore are not eligible for Temporary Aid to Needy Families (TANF), putting greater strain on the families (Shields and Berman, 2004.) This poverty may affect these students in several ways. They may have health problems because their families are afraid to take them to a doctor or the health clinic. In school, these students may be bullied or ridiculed because they do not have all the things that their American counterparts have or are not able to participate in the activities their peers can due to lack of financial resources. These issues may lead to low self-esteem in immigrant students.

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Another challenge immigrant students may face is a language-barrier. Among all children in the United States, 18% speak a language other than English at home, and among children in immigrant families, 72% speak a language other than English at home (Shields and Berman, 2004). Since these children are not exposed to English other than at school, their command of the English language may not be as proficient as needed in order to succeed academically and socially. This lack of social and academic success may lead to early drop-out rates leading to a perpetuation of low-wage jobs and continued poverty.

Discrimination is another barrier immigrant students may face. According to García Coll and Szalacha (2004) social position, racism, and segregation can set children of immigrants apart from mainstream populations. Schools serving these students are also likely to have fewer resources, lower teacher expectations, and patronizing attitudes toward students of non-mainstream cultures. For these students, schools can become instruments of racial oppression. This feeling of racial oppression can lead to disillusionment with education and a negative attitude toward teachers and achievement. This disillusionment can lead to their dropping out of school at an early age in order to avoid this oppression.

One difference between most immigrant cultures and American culture is individual versus group orientation. In the United States, being independent and relying only on oneself is regarded as strength, whereas valuing the group over the individual is considered more important in many other cultures in the world. For example, Hispanic and Asian children will do what their parents and family wants them to do, regardless of personal opinions or plans. And if the child does decide to go against their family's wishes and branch out on their own, feelings of guilt might accompany their decision (Baruth & Manning, 2007).

Immigrant children may also be reluctant to visit a school counselor for many different reasons. Some feel an inherent distrust for Americans or people not of their heritage (Blacks, Hispanic), some believe that sharing problems with someone outside of their family is disrespectful (Asian), and others feel ignored or overlooked by adults (European). (Baruth & Manning, 2007).

Counseling Needs of Immigrant Students

School counselors in a diverse school setting might see students of different nationalities on a daily basis. Some of the problems or issues discussed with these students may be common and every day, but some may have a deeper, culturally oriented origin. Again, getting to know the individual student is important, but the issues listed below are common issues found about the immigrant population.

NEXT

Jump to Article:

Table of Contents

Stereotyping may be a career issue with immigrant children. Hispanics are stereotyped as physical laborers, and thus may be influenced to find hard labor work.

Academic Issues

Fuligni, Witkow, and Garcia (2005), found that ethnic minority groups and immigrants in American schools are stereotyped in terms of their values and behaviors related to academic achievement. According to these stereotypes, Hispanics devalue education while Asian place great importance on school and good grades come easily to them. Immigrant students who hear these stereotypes might have difficulties in school based on what is expected of them by their teachers and peers. Hispanic students may not try as hard at school as it is assumed they do not care, and Asian might experience exceptional pressure to excel or immense depression/failure when a subject is difficult for them to understand. Additionally, school personnel who embrace stereotypes of immigrant students' low academic achievement may intentionally and unintentionally neglect or place these students in less rigorous classes. School Counselors may find that they may need to take a leadership and advocacy role when addressing the needs of immigrant students where stereotypes are imposed upon them.

Another issue for immigrant children related to academics is a possible language barrier. For some of these students, English is considered a second language, and might not even be spoken in the home. It might also be possible that the children of these families are the only ones with a grasp of the language. Immigrant students who are not receiving quality English as a second language (ESOL) classes are going to be at an obvious disadvantage in the classroom and in counseling sessions. Also, if a good interpreter is not available at or for the school, interactions with parents and guardians will also be disadvantaged.

Tests can also be an academic barrier for immigrant students. Tests which are biased towards English as the first language, American culture, and White students will not yield appropriate results when taken by a student who has spoken English for a relatively short period of time. Biased test results can lead to immigrant students being held back a grade or misrepresented in Special Education classes.

Career

Stereotyping may be a career issue with immigrant children. Hispanics are stereotyped as physical laborers, and thus may be influenced to find hard labor work. Also, some Hispanic families in America are migrant workers, and these children are often pulled out of school to make extra money for their nuclear and extended families.

Another issue with career counseling immigrant students is the career tests available for use. Like academic tests, it can be difficult to find career tests written in a foreign language, or that has taken non-American culture into mind. These tests can mislead immigrant students as to what careers they should pursue.

Personal/Social

Sheppard (1989) states that after arriving in a new country, immigrants experience a feeling of euphoria at the opportunity for starting over and exploring a new environment. However, euphoria is followed by "psychological arrival," in which the newly arrived individuals realize and feel the impact of cultural differences, become aware of what has been lost, and begin to idealize the past. During the first year feelings of depression, paranoia, insecurity, isolation, guilt, anxiety, resentment, and inadequacy are just a few of the many emotions that can haunt the thoughts of immigrants in a strange new place. Problems related to socializations usually decrease, but those related to health, family, and employment often remain.

One common personal/social issue for immigrant students is the degree to which they choose to acculturate themselves to American society. Many immigrant students, especially those who spent a significant amount of time in their home country, have to struggle with wanting to stay true to their roots, but also wanting to fit in with their American peers. Kosic, Kruglanski, Pierro, & Mannetti (2004) suggest that the degree to which immigrants experience culture shock is influenced by how many individuals of the same culture they are surrounded by in their new environment. The more familiarity they have, the less motivated they will be to acculturate to American culture.

Counseling Approach with Immigrant Students: Reality Therapy

Reality Therapy is commonly used in the school counseling setting. Mason and Duba (2009), proposed that

NEXT

Jump to Article:

Table of Contents

reality therapy techniques be applied to school counseling programs. They propose using reality therapy methods will help school counselors develop positive therapeutic relationships and improve students' self-esteem (Mason & Duba, 2009). This theory is based on helping clients make appropriate choices to successfully attain their five basic needs: survival, fun, freedom, belonging, and power. Reality therapy has a present focus, and the counselor works with clients in a positive way, without listening to complaints, to help them develop a plan for getting what they want (Wubbolding, 2002). School counselors using Reality Therapy consider the five basic needs that all humans possess (survival, love and belonging, power or achievement, freedom or independence, and fun) when engaging in counseling immigrant students. Special attention must always be given to love and belonging which Glasser (2002) believes is the primary need. These basic needs make up one's Quality World and this personal world include specific images of people, activities, events, beliefs, possessions and situations that fulfill individual needs (Wubbolding, 2002). People are always the most important component of this Quality World. For a successful therapeutic outcome, the school counselor must be the kind of person the immigrant student would consider putting in his/her Quality World (Glasser 2002). As school counselors interact with his/her immigrant students, their personal characteristics enable them to appeal to one or more of each student's basic needs.

Reality therapy can be used with immigrant students during counseling sessions for a number of reasons. Reality therapists are non-judgmental, and must constantly work on creating a comfortable and respectful environment for their immigrant students to feel safe in. This facet of Reality therapy can be very helpful to students who feel as though they stand out and do not belong in a classroom of American students. Rapport is considered extremely important in Reality therapy, and counselors are not afraid to allow students plenty of time to feel as though they are in a safe and trusting environment.

Reality therapy is also a good fit for immigrant students because it allows the counselor to take a direct and active role during the counseling sessions. This can be helpful when working with immigrant students who are not used to being in a counseling setting with someone who is not a family member, and does not know where to begin or what is appropriate. Being direct is also of importance when working with students on making an academic, career or personal/social educational plan, as the school counselor can advise the students as to how effective or realistic their plans are. Metaphors can be used in individual counseling sessions, instead of directly addressing personal matters, which can be uncomfortable for some immigrant students (Baruth & Manning, 2007).

Techniques

Establishing rapport is paramount in any counseling relationship and is no different in the school counselor and immigrant student counseling relationship. Foreign-born or immigrant students might need to take more time becoming familiar with their school counselors or warming up to the idea of discussing personal matters with someone outside of the family. School counselors should take this time to ask their students about their culture, and maybe even ask them to bring in something they treasure from home. Showing an interest in what is important to the student will let the student know that the counselor has a genuine interest in getting to know them. Counselor-student relationships are also considered one of the most important aspects of counseling to European Americans (Baruth & Manning, 2007). Most importantly, establishing rapport and getting to know and understand the student will help school counselors determine what types of counseling techniques will work best with the individual student.

The "Ultimate Question," a Reality Therapy counseling activity, is useful with immigrant students because it gives the school counselor insight into the student's quality world, as well as any cultural influences that are influencing their lives. So much information can be gained from asking any student what goes on in their perfect world. Counselors using this technique should be sure to ask the students where they are, what is around them, and the people who are and are not there. The "Ultimate Question" activity can address cross-cultural competency of the school counselor's awareness of their student's worldview as the students' attitudes and beliefs are revealed, and will also give the specific cultural knowledge about the students.

Family therapy can also be useful for immigrant students' backgrounds. Hispanic and Asian cultures greatly value family, and also place the most respect and power in the hands of the father figure. Having an Asian student's family present during counseling sessions might also alleviate feelings of betrayal of the family, as the issues will be discussed in their presence. Family therapy addresses the Cross-Cultural competency of Culturally Appropriate Intervention Strategies, and it

demonstrates counselor knowledge of family structures, hierarchies, values, and beliefs.

Group counseling can also be used in few different ways. A newcomer's group could be created for all new students at a school, or a small culture-specific group could be formed to address the needs of certain students. These groups would give immigrant students a sense of belonging, and help them find other students with similar interests, or who are experiencing the same difficulties. Groups would satisfy the Cross-Cultural competency of Culturally Appropriate Intervention Strategies, as it shows that the counselor understands intrinsic help-giving networks.

Multicultural Activities

School counselors can address the common needs and stereotypes of immigrant students in their comprehensive school counseling program by intentionally including a series of multicultural classroom guidance lessons in their Guidance Curriculum. This would not only benefit the immigrant students in adjusting in and adapting to the American school system but will also help all students show respect for others. Relevant multicultural topics should include respect, individual differences, friendship, stereotypes, diversity, acceptance, and tolerance. School counselors could also take the initiative to organize a Culture Day where students will be asked to do show-and-tell presentations about their heritage, and will be encouraged to dress up in culturally accurate or representative costumes. A classroom guidance activity designed to help elementary students identify and "bust" stereotypes are included as a sample of such classroom guidance activity in Appendix A. This lesson asks students to identify stereotypical statements, and symbolically bust them by popping balloons.

Conclusion

This paper was designed to give an overview of what issues may be presented to school counselors when in contact with children of immigrants. Although each immigrant student will have his or her own personal history and background to consider, there are some things which may be considered "common" factors among this population. The most common issue among this population is the possibility of a language barrier, which can hinder academic, career, and personal/social achievements in the school setting. This issue may require school counselors taking on a leadership and advocacy role to assist their students in their educational achievement.

Reality therapy is commonly used in the school setting because of its directive and specific approach to helping students create realistic plans to reach their goals. This type of therapy, combined with individual, group, and family sessions, can help immigrant students find a comfortable place to talk about what is going on in their lives. Culturally diverse guidance activities should be planned by the school counselor to help all students in a school understand the importance of respect, acceptance, and diversity thus aiding in immigrant students' adjustment in and adaptation to the American school.

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Appendix A

"Bursting" Stereotypes

Type of Activity: Classroom guidance lesson

Title of Activity: "'Bursting' Stereotypes" adapted from http://www.educationworld.com/a_lesson/03/lp294-01.shtml

Participants: 3rd-5th grade

Goals and Objectives:

- Academic Standard A: Students will acquire the attitudes, knowledge, and skills that contribute to effective learning in school and across the life span.
  - o Achieve School Success.
    - A:A3.2- Demonstrate the ability to work independently, as well as the ability to work cooperatively with other students.
- Personal/Social Standard A: Students will acquire the knowledge, attitudes, and interpersonal skills to help them understand and respect self and others.
  - o Acquire Self-knowledge
    - PS:A1.9- Demonstrate cooperative behavior in groups.
  - o Acquire Interpersonal Skills
    - Recognize, accept, and appreciate individual differences
    - Recognize, accept, and appreciate ethnic and cultural diversity.

Resources Needed:

1. Two dozen multicolored balloons, inflated
2. Two dozen paper or tag board sentence strips, two inches wide by 12 inches long
3. Writing paper
4. Pencils or Pens
5. Children's dictionary
6. Crayons or markers
7. Common pin

Time Needed: One hour

Instructions:

Before the lesson, cut paper for sentence strips and inflate about two dozen small balloons. Store balloons in a plastic trash bag until ready to use.

Begin the lesson by writing the words man and woman next to each other on the board. Draw a vertical line between the two words to create a two column chart. Have students set up a piece of writing paper the same way. Then ask students to write words or phrases that describe the qualities or characteristics of a man under the word man and words or phrases that describe a woman under the word woman. To get the ball rolling, you might ask students to share a few ideas with their classmates. Give the students a few minutes to compile their lists.

Next, arrange students into small groups and ask them to share their lists with group members. Then give each group two minutes to brainstorm additional words or phrases describing a man, and two minutes to think of additional words or phrases describing a woman.

Bring the groups together to create a class list of words and phrases about men and women. Write them on the chalkboard as students share them. Then ask some of the following questions:

- Are you happy with the lists you have created? Do you see any changes you would like to make to them?
- Are there terms that do not belong under the heading they are under? re there terms that might fit under both headings?
- Is it fair to say that *all* men _____ or that *all* women _____?

After this discussion, write the word *stereotype* on the board. Ask students if they know what the word means, being sure to encourage their answers. Then write down the dictionary definition of the word. For example, *Scholastic Children's Dictionary* defines stereotype as "An overly simple picture or opinion of a person, group, or thing. It is a stereotype to say all old people are forgetful."

Write on the chalkboard these phrases:

- All old people are grouchy
- Women are better at cleaning than men
- African American men are the best basketball players
- Asian men are the best at math

Give students a few moments to consider these phrases then ask them to share their reactions. Lead students to the conclusion that the statements are too general to be true; encourage them to recognize that it is unfair to make such sweeping statements. Help students make the connection between phrases and the term *stereotype*.

Have students return to their small brainstorming groups and ask them to come up with additional stereotypes they might have heard or thought about. Tell them to keep a written record of the stereotypes they think of. When the flow of stereotypes seems to be slowing down, ask students in each group to take a final look at their lists and mark with a star six to ten of the most interesting stereotypes. Bring the class back together so they can share their ideas. Each time a student shares a stereotype, hand that student a sentence strip and ask them to write it down. Instruct the student to write the words large and bold with a bright marker or crayon.

Now, grab the balloons inflated for the lesson. Call the students holding the sentence strips to come one at a time to the front of the classroom. Have each student read their sentence aloud and hold it up for the class to see. Hold up a balloon as the sentence holder calls on classmates to refute the stereotypes on the strip. Once satisfied that the stereotype has been busted, pop the balloon.

After all the balloons have been popped, ask the students how they felt about the lesson. What did they learn? Were there times during the lesson when they felt angry or sad? Then ask the students to write a paragraph or two explaining what they learned from the lesson. They should include specific examples of stereotypes and explain why they believe those stereotypes are wrong.

Evaluation Method:

The paragraphs written by the students will serve as an evaluation of the effectiveness of the lesson.

Racial Identity Development and Academic Achievement of Academically Gifted African American Students: Implications for School Counselors

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Abstract

Gifted African American students are underrepresented and underserved in gifted education. The current article provides an overview of proper identification, racial identity development implications, psycho-social concerns and the importance of family involvement in the development of gifted African American students. A case study is presented to provide interventions school counselors can use with both students and parents as they advocate for underserved gifted students.

Keywords: racial Identity, African American students, gifted education, school counseling

The academic achievement of African American students has been the subject of many research studies with most of the research focused on the consequences and causes of underachievement (Williams & Bryan, 2013; Obidah, Christie & McDonough, 2004; Ogbu, 2003). In the United States, the field of gifted education, similar to the field of special education is grounded in the belief that some students demonstrate a need for specialized education services that has not been provided in our public school system (King, Kzleski, & Lansdowne; 2009). Students who identify strongly with their ethnic group are better able to negotiate potentially negative environments, to deal with discrimination and prejudice, and to have high self-esteem. It has been found that students with a positive racial identity are better adjusted (Rowley & Moore, 2002). Whereas, much has been investigated and written about academic underachievement and racial identity of African American students, little attention has been focused on the academic achievement and racial

NEXT

Jump to Article:

Table of Contents

identity of gifted African American students. Consequently, it is important for school counselors to understand the needs of academically gifted African American students. The goal of the present paper is to provide an overview of the academic and psycho-social obstacles that challenge academically gifted African American students and make recommendations for how school counselors can help these students.

African American Students in Gifted Programs

Data consistently suggest that African American students are still underrepresented in gifted programs. According to the United States Department of Education, Office of Civil Rights (2006), European American students make up 56% of the total school population and approximately 68% of the students in gifted and talented education. In contrast, African American students account for 17% of the total school population but only 9% of students in gifted and talented education (See Figure 1).

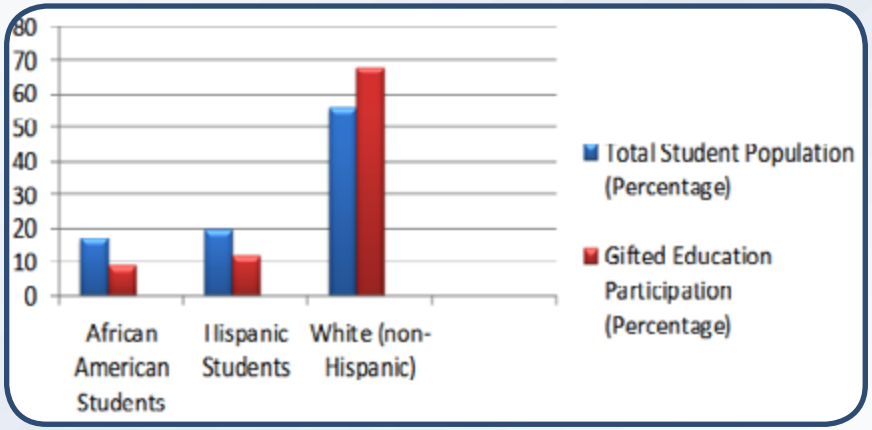

Figure 1. Office of Civil Rights, U.S. Department of Education (2006)

Ford (2010) lists the top roadblocks to diversity in gifted education as lack of teacher referrals, students' differential performance on traditional intelligence and/or achievement tests, stagnant and outdated policies and procedures for labeling and placement, social-emotional concerns and eventual decisions of Black and Hispanic students and their primary caregivers of gifted education.

Proper identification of gifted and talented African American students can aid in supporting students and helping them reach their true academic and social potential. As stated by Archer-Banks and Behar-Horenstein (2012), course placement is another area where schools reproduce society's discriminatory practices and the stratified nature of our schools creates an environment where African Americans are not afforded exposure to advanced courses or post-secondary opportunities. It has been expressed in research that African American students' beliefs about self and race are very much related to their overall educational and social development (Archer-Banks and Behar-Horenstein, 2011; Wright, Weekes, & McGlaughlin, 1999). African American students who do not have a healthy racial identity are likely to succumb to negative peer pressure, which is evident in the underachievement and under representation in gifted education (Grantham & Ford, 2003). To ensure their success and desire for academic achievement, many African American children adopt the attitudes, behaviors, and values most associated with mainstream European American culture (Ford, Moore, & Troutman Scott, 2011; Arroyo & Zigler, 1995). Research has suggested that adapting to mainstream societal norms in order to be accepted is detrimental to the academic and intellectual development of gifted African American students as they struggle with challenges related to perfectionism, achievement and career decisiveness (Hayes & Hines, 2014; Christopher & Shewmaker, 2010; Grantham & Ford, 1998; Peterson, 2006; Smith & Fleming, 2006).

Further attention to racial identity development is necessary to understand the difficulties that influence the psychological well-being of gifted African American students (Ford-Harris, Schuerger, & Harris, 1991). Grantham and Ford (2003) note that racial identity is important because race affects the social-emotional and psychological health in significant ways. More empirically based research is

European American students make up **56%** of the total school population and approximately **68%** of the students in gifted and talented education. In contrast, African American students account for **17%** of the total school population but only **9%** of students in gifted and talented education.

NEXT

Jump to Article:

Table of Contents

needed to expand the knowledge about and support for the healthy racial identity development of gifted African American students in regards to academic success within gifted programs.

In addition, by correctly identifying gifted African American students and addressing their racial identity, educators and families are challenged to provide additional support for gifted African American students and their families. In a seminal study, Exum (1983) noted that African American parents become wary of gifted and talented programs because they perceive them as being underpinned by principles of elitism and assimilation. Also, family involvement and assistance from their child's school can limit parent participation and promote confusion. African American families may find it difficult to take an active role in their child's education due to socioeconomic status, number of parents in the household,, and the student's age (Heinfield, Washington, & Byrd; 2014). To combat parent's fears, educators "should not only be concerned with challenging gifted students cognitively and academically, but should also focus their attention on students' identity, friends, belonging, and safety" (Moore, Ford, & Milner, 2005 p. 168). Support can take many forms; school officials, parents, and students should embrace support programs to identify African American students who are gifted. School counselors are in the position to help make this happen and to help the students embrace the challenges as opportunities and to help parents learn the means to support the students in their academic endeavors.

Proper Identification

In an effort to increase minority presence in gifted education, educators, school counselors, and school administrators must examine how students are identified and selected to enroll in gifted education programs. Often the primary factors are overlooked by educators when identifying students in gifted education are the varied cultural and ethnic differences and learning styles of each student. Using a respected definition for enrollment can be a successful means of identification. The U.S. Department of Education established a more culturally sensitive definition of giftedness as:

> *Children and youth with outstanding talent perform or show the potential for performing at remarkably high levels of accomplishment when compared with others of their age, experience, or environment. These children and youth exhibit high performance capacity in intellectual, creative, artistic areas, or all of these; unusual leadership capacity; or ability to excel in specific academic fields. They require services or activities not ordinarily provided by the schools. Outstanding talents are present in children and youth from all cultural groups, across all economic strata, and in all areas of human endeavors. (1993, p. 26)*

The National Society for the Gifted and Talented declared the above definition as the "broadest and most comprehensive" and has been used by most state school districts. After a thorough search, the definition established in 1993 has not been updated to reflect educational changes. Ford and Whiting (2008) promote that standardized tests adequately measure verbal skills, abstract thinking, math skills and other skills viewed as indicators of giftedness by educators. Yet it should be noted, many standardized tests ignore or minimize skills and abilities such as creativity, interpersonal skills, group problem solving, and musical skills that may be valued by other groups.

Some educators believe that standardized tests are culturally biased in content language and format because achievement tests cater to those who understand the ins and outs of testing and they are not based on any definite theory of cognitive functioning (Miller-Jones, 1981; Rhodes, 1992). The over reliance on, misuse of, and abuse of standardized test is confounded by the inadequate attention paid to the influence of environment and culture upon the development and manifestation of giftedness in different racial groups (Ford-Harris & Ford, 1991). Ignoring factors such as varied learning styles and the continued used of culturally biased testing methods without caution may continue to leave some students behind.

Therefore, educators and school counselors should utilize a variety of methods to identify talented/gifted African American students. Olszewski-Kubilius and Clarenbach (2012) using a more culturally inclusive definition when identifying gifted students, create a school culture that promotes high academic achievement, examine policies and procedures regarding the identification of giftedness, and create a school culture that views parents and community as partners in the education of their children. The continued exclusion of minority students in gifted/talented programs impedes the intellectual development of African American students and perpetuates stereotypes of inferiority. African American gifted students need to be exposed to work that is not only challenging, but also requires a higher level of thinking (Banks & Banks, 1995; Grantham & Ford, 2003).

NEXT

Jump to Article:

Table of Contents

A strong family foundation can lead to the proper development of children. ... One can easily see that the breakdown of the family can lead to negative behaviors.

Racial Identity Development and Psychosocial Implications

In addition to increasing awareness of proper identification of gifted/talented African American students, educators must consider the impact of racial identity development on academic achievement. Much has been written in reference to self-concept, self-esteem and student achievement (Ford & Harris, 1997), however racial identity is worthy of investigation because race affects one's social-emotional and psychological health in significant ways. Carter and Goodwin (1994) assert that "racial identity involves one's psychological response or resolution to one's race" (p. 308). To fully understand the importance of racial identity, one must understand how racial identity is constructed.

Nigrescence theory (Cross, 1991; Cross & Vandiver, 2003) has been revisited and revised over the course of 40 years, and is now in its current expanded version (Dowden, Gunby, Warren, & Boston, 2014). The theory is used here to provide a foundation for racial identity development among African American students. Three core precepts of the expanded nigrescence theory include (a) Blackness viewed as a social identity and not a personality variable; (b) various types of Black identity have resulted in the delineation of a range of identity exemplars; (c) the best way to conceptualize Black identity variability is through the explications of ideological types (profiles); the different types or interpretations of what it means to be Black are at the heart of the theory (Cross & Vandiver, 2003; Dowden et. al, 2014). The core concepts of nigrescence theory assist in understanding the dimensions of racial identity that African American students move through and the impact racial identity has on an individual's self-concept, self-worth, and self-esteem. Heinfield, Washington, & Byrd (2014) suggested that school counselors with multicultural training can assist African American males by providing historical and contemporary images of black males (i.e. Barack Obama, Charles Drew, Ronal McNair, and so on) who have achieved success through educational endeavors. Whereas Heinfield, Washington, & Byrd (2014) focused on African American males, the same can be used for African Amerian females by highlighting successful African American females such as Michelle Obama, Oprah Winfrey, and Mae Jamieson.

One's racial identity is integrated into one's personality and depends on numerous influences such as family, community, society, one's own interpretative style and the manner in which important peers validate, deny, or ignore aspects of one's identity (Carter & Godwin, 1993). With this in mind, racial identity development of gifted African American students can influence a student's academic success and social interactions. Huff, Houskamp, Watkins, Stanton, and Tavegia (2005) argue that gifted African American children experience a dissonance between school and culture because the student needs to prove "investment" in the African American community and therefore often reject academic excellence. Parents and educators should actively engage gifted African American students in conversations about race and social justice and help students process their feelings and concerns regarding race and their identity as African Americans. In addition, school counselors are in such a close proximity to students (Heinfield, Washington, & Byrd, 2014) and are encouraged to engage students in such conversations as well.

Family Involvement

A strong family foundation can lead to the proper development of children. Today, families are more diverse and varied than ever before. Exum (1983) asserts that family or other groups encourage the development of self-worth and other perceptions of self. One can easily see that the breakdown of the family can lead to negative behaviors. Parents of gifted African American students often encounter more complex challenges because of the advanced intellectual maturity of their children. Exum (1983) found that "black parents tend to be concerned with the loss of their authority/control of the gifted child, the child's loss of respect for the family and the child's loss of respect for community and culture, and the student's emotional stability and ability to interact *normally* with other people" (p. 29). In a recent qualitative research study Huff, et al. (2005) analyzed the data from 15 families of gifted African American adolescents. The researchers found that parents perceived that administrators and teachers lacked adequate training to support gifted African American adolescents. To help combat this uneasy feeling within

parents, school officials should help parents understand the emotional and intellectual needs of their children by sponsoring workshops that provide information about giftedness in school age African American children.

Parents can help their child deal with anti-gifted peer pressure by providing a positive environment and supporting their child's talent (Rimm, 2002). A safe environment allows a child to express their feelings, thoughts, and emotions freely. Also, parenting styles can help foster healthy development of gifted/talented students. Olszewski-Kubilius (2002) postulate that parenting styles that encourages a child to find their own identity instead fosters open expression of ideas and independent thought. Consequently, African American parents should encourage their gifted child to freely express themselves while still maintaining a sense of authority within the parent/child relationship. School counselors can provide additional support for families by collaborating with families. School counselors can facilitate parental involvement interventions designed to level the playing field and increase opportunities (Heinfield, Washington, & Byrd, 2014).

Case Study

The following case study demonstrates the challenges many gifted and high achieving African American students experience in schools and follows with support school counselors can provide for students and parents.

Darius

Darius is a 15-year-old African American male in the 10th grade. He enjoys school and is very active in sports and extracurricular activities. He consistently earned A's and B's in elementary and middle school. Last year in the 9th grade he received an award for having the highest average in his advanced math class. Recently, Darius' teachers have noticed a change within him. His grades have slipped to C's and D's and he appears less focused on his school work. Darius confided to his mother and father that he no longer wanted to take advanced level and honors courses. His mother and father inquired why he wanted to change and became concerned his grades and college preparation. His mom mentioned his past academic success and the award he won last year. When his mom mentioned the award, Darius jumped up and screamed "that award ruined my life". Darius stated students would routinely joke about his award and he would purposely not turn in homework assignments because he fear continued ridicule from his African American peers. Concerned about their son's academic and emotional well-being, his parents schedule a conference with his teachers and school counselor.

School Counselors, Gifted African American Students and their Families

Darius' mixed feeling of academic excellence and acceptance from his peers is a common scenario amongst gifted and talented African American youth. Darius found success in the classroom and his teachers recognized his performance. Unbeknownst to Darius' teachers and parents, the award started an unfortunate struggle within Darius as he tried to find balance between his peers and success. Darius' parents concern for their child extends beyond his academics. Students like Darius often put acceptance from their peers before continued academic success. Darius is struggling with his racial identity as he is afraid to excel and not being viewed as "acting white" by his African American peers.

School counselors can assist students like Darius by meeting with him individually to explore his feelings of rejection and his need to underperform. Darius could be experiencing bullying from his peers. Social acceptance and feeling "different" are often developmental challenges many gifted children and adolescents face. School counselors can help students develop appropriate coping skills and discover new strategies to positively impact their social lives (Wood, 2009). Along with individual counseling sessions, school counseling assisting students like Darius can host small groups to further support any developmental challenges. Small groups work

> *when group membership is homogenous in ability, gifted students at any age may be more inclined than otherwise to relax, remove a façade of invulnerability, find developmental commonalities, make connections with other who can relate to their feeling to expression of feeling and concerns. (Peterson, 2002, p. 48)*

Small groups can focus on issued such as self-esteem, expression of feelings, and cultural or racial identity.

School counselors should not neglect the concerns of Darius' parents. Often African American parents of gifted students do not understand the social implications of their child's unique gifts. School counselors can recommend ways in which parents can have open discussions with their children, understand the psycho-social development of adolescents, and ways in which they can support their child. School counselors can present this information in workshops (Weber & Stanley, 2012).

Classroom teachers can provide Darius' parents and his school counselor with more feedback about peer interaction and overall classroom performance. Together, Darius teachers and school counselor can put into action interventions to promote learning and academic excellence from all students.

Implications for School Counselors

School counselors play a key role in a student's academic development. School counselors are well positioned to guide and support students with personal/social, career, and academic concerns, and they also can serve as advocates. Counselors should advocate for the proper placement and nurture the socio-emotional development of academically gifted African American adolescents. In recent years, educational initiatives such as the Transforming School Counseling Initiative (Education Trust,1996) and the American School Counselor Association's (ASCA, 2012) National Model have placed an emphasis on developing a comprehensive school counseling program that promotes equity and enhanced educational opportunities for all students. House and Hayes (2002) theorize that the advocacy role of school counselors is supported by professional organizations because advocating for academic success of all students is a critical component for success in school.

In addition, in order to effectively assist gifted African American students and their families, Heinfied, Washington, & Byrd (2014) suggest school counselors become multiculturally competent counselors and attend professional development to enhance multicultural understanding, educate and inform gifted African American students and families about academic opportunities such as supplementary out –of-school activities, help build a sense of community partnership with schools and families, and as part of any comprehensive school counseling program, collect and evaluate data from students and parents (i.e. individual interviews about student experiences).

School counselors play a key role in a student's academic development. School counselors are well positioned to guide and support students with personal/social, career, and academic concerns, and they also can serve as advocates. Counselors should advocate for the proper placement and nurture the socio-emotional development of academically gifted African American adolescents.

Initiatives such as No Child Left Behind (NCLB, 2001) and its narrow focus on testing and meeting educational standards often miss the untapped potential of students, especially academically gifted African American adolescents. Gentry (2006) asserts that despite No Child Left Behind's intention to "leave no child behind" services intended to support gifted children have been cut and more and more children have been marginalized. The one size fits all standards of NCLB (2001) has created an environment where the achievements of gifted students are not recognized and where school administrators have no incentive for educating gifted children (Gentry, 2006). Therefore, counselors should serve as advocates for students and individualized learning. The lack of proactive efforts and subsequent support to enroll students into rigorous curricula can be a barrier to being successful (House & Hayes, 2002; Schneider & Stevenson, 1999). Consequently, school counselors should not only serve as advocates within the school setting, but also create partnerships with parents and community organizations that will help break down barriers that interfere with more minority parent school involvement.

Conclusion

In order to foster rich and holistic development, it is essential that educators accurately identify and support academically gifted adolescents. Too often educators use standardized testing methods to measure the intellectual ability of all students. Educators assisting high school students can encourage students to enroll in honors and advanced placement classes. Also, school counselors can encourage higher intellectual thinking by inviting minority students enrolled in advanced placement or honors classes to conduct presentations during curriculum fairs. School counselors can facilitate increased enrollment by conducting interviews or surveying the concerns of the parents of gifted African American students. Also, school counselors should make parents aware of mentoring programs and provide parent workshops as a support intervention.

Furthermore, the psycho-social development of gifted African American adolescents is a very important component in their academic success. The literature suggests that gifted African American students find themselves at a crossroads between academic success and acceptance from their peers. In an effort to help them maintain their social standing with peers, school counselors can normalize high achievement by highlighting the achievements of gifted African American students.

NEXT

Jump to Article:

Table of Contents

Without question gifted African American adolescents can find a balance between academic success and social fulfillment. Educators, parents, and school counselors are the key stakeholders for ensuring the proper development of gifted African American adolescents. As the achievement gap continues to grow between minority students and their White counterparts, gifted African American adolescents should be encouraged to excel and their achievements recognized. Gifted African American adolescents deserve the best their school and community can give them. Involvement of key stakeholders in the lives of gifted African American adolescents will not only improve the underachievement of gifted African American adolescents, but also help improve self-esteem, racial identity development, families and communities.

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NEXT

Jump to Article:

Table of Contents

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A Supervisory Issue When Utilizing the ASCA National Model Framework in School Counseling

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According to the American School Counselor Association, the field of school counseling began as vocational guidance in the early 1900's (ASCA, 2012). However, within twenty years, the core of school counseling gradually changed due to mental hygiene, psychometric and child study movements (ASCA, 2012). As a result, school counseling shifted from economic and vocational issues to psychological issues with an emphasis on counseling and personal adjustment (ASCA, 2012). According to ASCA (2012) another area of debate was school counselor roles, focus, and program goals. For example, some researchers asserted school counselors should focus on academics and careers, while others urged the importance of addressing mental health issues (ASCA, 2012). Consequently, the American School Counselor Association adopted a holistic approach and implemented the *ASCA National Model: A Framework for School Counseling Programs* (ASCA, 2012). In fact, in 2003, the ASCA National Model, which emphasized academic, career, and personal social (mental health) domains, was adopted by states and school districts across the country (ASCA, 2012).

Abstract

The authors discuss a supervisory issue, in that; the ASCA National Model: A Framework for School Counseling Programs does not emphasize on-going supervision where ethical expectations of supervisors and supervisees in a school setting are clearly defined. Subsequently, the authors highlight supervisor expectations stated with the ASCA National Model as well as highlight further specific suggestions for clinical supervision for school counselors.

Keywords: clinical supervision, school counselors, ASCA National Model

NEXT

Jump to Article:

Table of Contents

It is evident from the history that clinical mental health practices influenced certain aspects of the ASCA National Model. Interestingly enough, there is one important characteristic of clinical mental health that the ASCA National Model did not widely adopt, and that practice is supervision. Researchers Bernard and Goodyear (2014) postulated supervision provides ongoing opportunities for feedback and reflection that support the growth and development of all mental health professionals while simultaneously protecting the welfare of their clients. Despite the existing literature, clinical supervision appears to lack support from the ASCA National Model (Swank & Tyson, 2012). As a result, this presents one major supervisory issue; the *ASCA National Model: A Framework for School Counseling Programs* (2012) does not emphasize on-going supervision where expectations of supervisors and supervisees in school settings are clearly defined.

Ethical Considerations for Supervision in School Counseling

Presently, school counselors routinely deal with complicated situations including: cases of severe depression, suicidal ideation, pregnancy, substance abuse, school violence, and child abuse (Herlihy, Gray, & McCollum, 2002). Moreover, in order to efficiently respond to these needs, school counselors must obtain strong clinical skills and an acute awareness of legal and ethical ramifications of all actions they take or fail to take (Herlihy et al., 2002). Thus, supervision can be an effective way of assisting school counselors in maintaining and enhancing their competence (Herlihy et al., 2002). However, a major supervisory issue within the school counseling arena remains; there is the need for on-going supervision where ethical expectations of the supervisor and supervisee in a school setting are clearly defined.

Consequently, it is critical to examine ethical issues experienced by supervisors. Wheeler and Bertram (2012) identified transference, dependency and competency as ethical concerns within the supervisor/supervisee relationship. For example, when considering the supervision process in the school setting, the aforementioned ethical issues are frequently experienced. More specifically, transference, countertransference, power, and dependency are some of the major ethical issues that supervisors and supervisees experience during the supervision process (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009).

As an illustration, a supervisor attempting to develop and maintain an appropriate and ethical relationship with a supervisee may come to recognize that the relationship has deviated from the expected norm (Williams, 2008). To further explore this example using transference and countertransference, imagine the same supervisor working within a school setting has experienced a horrific childhood as a result of physically abusive parents. Now, imagine the supervisee presents a tape of a student experiencing a similar problem. In turn, the supervisor may allow repressed feelings of resentment towards his/her family to negatively impact the supervisory relationship. Accordingly, this would be an example of how the supervisor's personal experiences are creating negative transference and countertransference on the supervisory relationship.

Overall, it is essential to continually evaluate how transference, countertransference, power, and dependency are impacting the supervision process. This could be accomplished through continual reflection and evaluation of the supervision process. In addition, supervisors could utilize continual collaboration with other helping professionals for consultation purposes in order to evaluate those constructs of transference, countertransference, power, and dependency.

A subsequent ethical dilemma that may negatively impact the supervision experience is dual relationships (Williams, 2008). More specifically, dual relationships can also negatively influence the supervisory relationship in a school setting. For example, imagine the school counseling supervisor has been providing ongoing counseling for a supervisee who is struggling with severe depression. Over time, the supervisor begins to notice that the supervisee has become less concerned with completing daily tasks such as guidance lessons, career counseling, group counseling, etc.

Insufficient supervisory support increases stress, negative feelings, and contributes to counselor ineffectiveness, burn out, and role dissatisfaction.

and has started to become more concerned with the therapy being provided by his/her counselor/supervisor. Although personal issues of the supervisee that might have a negative impact on supervisor/supervisee relationship should be identified, these issues should be more fully explored with another counseling professional (Bernard & Goodyear, 2014). Overall, it is imperative that supervisors continually evaluate how dual relationships impact the supervision process.

Clinical Supervision for School Counselors

Researchers Luke and Bernard (2006) stated clinical supervision is a viable part of school counselor training and is recognized as a necessary component by the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP). However, its presence in school counseling contexts is minimal (Luke & Bernard, 2006). Although clinical supervision is generally discussed in the literature, it is least likely to be received by school counselors (Remley and Herlihy, 2001). Additionally, school counselors are not mandated to participate in supervision after obtaining employment like other mental health counselors who are obligated to attain supervision for licensure requirements (Swank & Tyson, 2012). In fact, Somody, Henderson, Cook, and Zambrano (2008) found that over seventy-five percent of school counselors did not receive clinical supervision despite indicating a desire for it.

Given the fact that many school counselors do not receive supervision, and that the ASCA National Model does not widely address the topic, school counselors are often unprepared to offer clinical supervision to practicum and intern students (Swank & Tyson, 2012). For example, DeKruyf and Pehrsson (2011) presented that the shortage of trained school counselor supervisors is a concern. In the same vein, these researchers reported site supervisors help shape intern professional identity and suggest training needs should focus on counselor development, supervision techniques, supervisory relationships, and models of supervision (DeKruyf & Pehrsson, 2011). Furthermore, Somody et al. (2008) conveyed insufficient supervisory support increases stress, negative feelings, and contributes to counselor ineffectiveness, burn out, and role dissatisfaction.

Another possible explanation for untrained supervisors is that the ASCA National Model suggests school counselors receive supervision from school administrators rather than senior counselors in the field (ASCA, 2012). An illustration of this can be seen in the ASCA National Model's principal/counselor management agreement (ASCA, 2012). Much like the supervision agreement between the supervisor and supervisee, the ASCA management agreement safeguards a formal discussion between the school counselor and the principal as it relates to program goals (ASCA, 2012). Alarmingly, in a recent study Swank and Tyson (2012) affirmed sixty-three percent of school counselor participants receive administrative supervision from principals that focus on administrative tasks rather than supervision that focused on competence and counseling.

Supervisor Expectations within the ASCA National Model

Despite its importance in counselor development, Swank and Tyson (2012) reported supervision is scarcely mentioned in the ASCA National Model. Ironically, the 2008 ASCA *Counseling Competencies* references supervising students and participating in supervision throughout a counselor's career (Swank & Tyson, 2010), whereas, the 2012 ASCA *Counseling Competencies* does not reference supervision. The deletion of supervision from the ASCA counseling competencies is critical, in that, it removed systematic opportunities for professional assessment and responsive feedback. Furthermore,

NEXT

Jump to Article:

Table of Contents

Somody, Henderson, and Cook (2008) stated clinical supervision for school counselors is vital because it provides monitoring and feedback concerning the school counselors' micro performance in time-defined and specific counseling activities.

Interestingly enough, ASCA did not remove the reference of supervision from its ethical standards. In fact, supervision is referenced within two sections of the ASCA (2010) *Ethical Standards for School Counselors*. The first reference of supervision states school counselors have a responsibility to self to seek supervision if the need arises (Standard E.1.f). This standard confirms the premise that ASCA does not require, but merely suggest, ongoing supervision as practice for school counselors.

The subsequent reference, Standard F.3, discusses supervision of practicum and internship school counseling candidates. More specifically, the standard states school counselor supervisors should support interns in providing personal/social, academic, and career (college planning) counseling experiences to interns (Standard F.3.a). The ASCA (2010) *Ethical Standards for School Counselors* go on to state that supervisors should ensure school counseling candidates gain experience in the development, implementation, and evaluating of data-driven, comprehensive school counseling models (Standard F.3.b.). In addition, the standard acknowledges the importance of counseling candidates gaining experience in the four quadrant systems (Foundation, Delivery, Management, and Accountability) (Standard F.3.c). Subsequently, Standard F.3 addresses obtaining liability insurance during the internship experiences and ensuring site visits are scheduled for school counselor candidates.

An equally important point that is presented after reviewing the ASCA (2010) Ethical Standards for School Counselors is that supervisors are not mentioned within the standard (Swank & Tyson, 2012). Although the ASCA National Model minimally mentions supervision there is a critical need for supervisors to receive supervision training and practicing counselors to receive on going supervision. In turn, site supervisors will be able to assist interns and practicum students in developing their counseling skills, improving their diagnosis skills, and addresses their client's concerns (Swank & Tyson, 2012).

Suggestions for Clinical Supervision for School Counselors

The authors feel that it is very clear that there is a need for the efficacy of clinical supervision for school counselors because of ethical issues that may arise in a school setting and the remaining ambiguity of the supervisor and counselor-in-training roles presented in the American School Counselor Association's (ASCA) book entitled, *ASCA National Model: A Framework for School Counseling Programs* (2012). Moreover, the authors found that ASCA's National Model has little to no specific clarifications of the role and expectations of supervisors, the role and expectations of supervisees, and how to specifically address the various ethical dilemmas and supervisory issues that may be experienced in a school setting.

Again, although the ASCA National Model minimally mentions supervision, the authors feel that there is a critical need for supervisors to receive clear-cut supervision training and practicing counselors to receive on-going supervision with clearly defined expectations of both parties. In turn, site supervisors will be able to assist interns and practicum students in developing their counseling skills, improving their diagnosis skills, and addresses their client's concerns (Swank & Tyson, 2012). Consequently, the authors suggest the following amendments be added to the ASCA National Model to address the recognized need for on-going supervision for school counselors. As recognized in the ASCA National Model, school counselors should work with school administrators to create an annual agreement to ensure that the goals of the school counseling program effectively

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NEXT

Jump to Article:

Table of Contents

Two very effective methods of providing supervision training were noted during our research: Solution-Focused Supervision incorporated with Web-Based Supervision

align with the goals and mission of the school. Within this agreement, school counselors must identify areas for professional development and collaboration (ASCA, 2012). Moreover, the authors suggest adding a section within this agreement where supervision is identified as a professional development opportunity.

Furthermore, the model also provides competencies for school counselors to acknowledge and evaluate themselves as it pertains to possessing the necessary knowledge, abilities, skills and attitudes to effectively plan and implement a school counseling program aligned with the ASCA National Model. Competency III-B-1g suggests that school counselors develop a yearly professional development plan demonstrating how the school counselor advances relevant knowledge, skills, and dispositions (ASCA, 2012). Again, the authors feel that adding supervision would effectively aid in allowing the counselor to demonstrate a means of advancing school counselor competencies.

Bernard and Goodyear (2009) suggested that school counseling supervision should focus on five main areas: educating the counselor; helping with skill development; increasing abilities to conceptualize clients; supporting the development of professional behaviors and attitudes; and increasing self-awareness. These areas become increasingly significant when considering the ambiguity of school counselor's roles and responsibilities and the lack of supervision training provided to these same counselors both have a major influence on the experience of the intern/supervisee. Moreover, several studies have been conducted to explore school counseling intern roles and responsibilities in comparison to the recommendations set forth by the ASCA National Model. For instance, in a study conducted by Leuwerke, Bruinkool, and Lane (2008) data revealed that a significant amount of the school counseling interns' time was devoted to inappropriate tasks and activities. The discrepancies between counseling interns' time and ASCA recommendations were simply startling.

Although school counselors are not mandated to receive neither clinical supervision nor training in how to provide said supervision after receiving their master's degree, they are expected to respond to the social/emotional needs of the students whom they serve and occasionally provide supervision to interns and practicum students (Swank, 2012). According to Magnuson, Black, and Norem (2004), supervision is an essential component within quality clinical experiences for school counseling practicum and internship students; therefore selecting school counseling site supervisors who are trained in clinical supervision is crucial.

Two very effective methods of providing supervision training were noted during our research. These methods provide possible solutions to addressing the recognized need for continued supervision for school counselors and effective training for site supervisors in providing said training (Cigrand & Wood, 2010, Swank, J. 2012). School counselors-in-training often must find a balance between the multiple and sometimes conflicting expectations of the university training program's supervisors and site supervisors in cooperating schools (Askos & Scarborough, 2004). Incorporating at least one of the suggested methods may also reduce the conflict which can exists between meeting the requirements of university and site for interns and practicum students (Leuwerk, R., Bruinekool M., & Lane, A. 2008).

Solution-Focused Supervision is the first method the authors suggest when offering training for site supervisors. The specific techniques of the solution-focused paradigm may lend themselves to interns' increased performance in and knowledge of the roles and responsibilities of professional school counselors as prescribed by the ASCA National Model (Cigrand & Wood, 2010). The goal of Solution-Focused Supervision, (SFS), is to recognize and build upon the strengths of the supervisee (Cigrand & Wood, 2010). It is understood that the supervisee has the tools and skills necessary to solve their own issues in dealing with their clients and it is merely the role of the supervisor to facilitate self-discovery (Cigrand & Wood, 2010). The process of Solution-Focused Supervision includes: eliciting the interns' beliefs and ideas; exploring prior attempts at solutions; identifying differences between the past and current intern performance; adjusting for the intern's pace of development,

NEXT

Jump to Article:

Table of Contents

strengths and limitations; and assuming change will occur while empowering the intern to make the change (Cigrand & Wood 2010).

As cited in Cigrand and Wood (2010), Wood and Rayle (2006) suggest that a supervision approach needs to be clear, concise, and practical. Such is the case in regards to Solution-Focused Supervision. Applying this approach in supervision calls for the SFS supervisor to acknowledge and explore a supervisory power differential (Cigrand & Wood, 2010). This shift in power allows room for the development of a safe relationship in which the supervisee's are seen more as the experts in this journey of self-reflection and self-discovery. The site supervisor's primary area of expertise is the process of solution-focused supervision, itself, which includes eliciting the supervisees' beliefs and ideas; exploring prior attempts at solutions; identifying differences between past and current supervisee performance; adjusting for the intern's pace of development, strengths, and limitations; and assuming change will occur while empowering the supervisee to make that change (Cigrand & Wood, 2010).

In essence, Solution-Focused Supervision offers an array of benefits for all parties involved. This research-based counseling paradigm provides current and potential site supervisors an easy-to-follow process and method, which matches supervisor skill to supervisee need. It uses the implementation of the ASCA National Model as a guide for supervisee development; allows university supervisors to receive detailed goals and concrete ways of measuring those goals from the supervisee; and it also enhances the relationship between the university supervisor and site supervisor by suggesting the use of common language thereby decreasing the complexities of coordination and lessening differing expectations (Cigrand & Wood, 2012).

Furthermore, incorporating a web-based approach for supervisor training is suggested. This web-based supervision training program supports collaborations between counselor education programs and local school systems (Swank, 2012). This method addresses the prominent claim that little importance is placed on school counseling supervision postmasters' degree. Web-based supervision is deemed advantageous in that it provides a basic level of supervision knowledge for site supervisors though the completion of virtual modules, which also promote consistency among all site supervisors (Swank, 2012). The training modules include: an introduction, (allows participants to become comfortable in using the programming software); an outline of the requirements and expectations for the practicum and intern students; a breakdown of the perceived general characteristics of practicum and internship level supervisee; a brief overview of three broad categories of supervision models; an exploration of supervision methods and techniques; and lastly, a look at the possible ethical and legal issues related to supervision. The modules are completed at the pace of the site supervisor (Swank, 2012). While accessibility and flexibility are key components of this method, site supervisors are not deemed qualified to provide supervision until such time as all six modules are concluded (Swank, 2012).

In closing, it is vitally important for supervisors in the counseling field and other helping professions to remain vigilant in following appropriate ethical obligations sanctioned by the individuals' profession. Although ethical and legal statutes are vaguely touched upon by the American School Counselor Association's (ASCA) book entitled, *ASCA National Model: A Framework for School Counseling Programs*, it is critical that a stronger emphasis be placed on continual supervision in a school setting where the expectations of supervisors and supervisees in school settings are clearly defined. In the future, school counselors should incessantly advocate for a strengthened emphasis on clear, concise clinical supervision in a school setting in order to adequately prepare counselors and counselor's-in-training alike.

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Resource Reviews

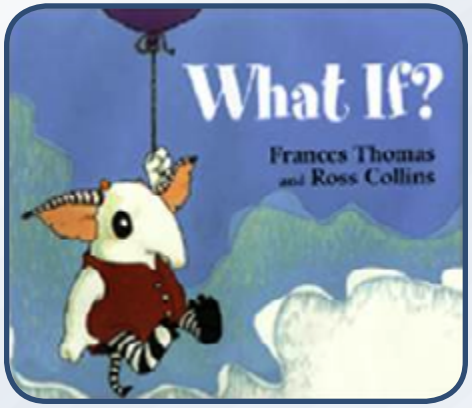
Elementary: What If? by Frances Thomas and Ross Collins

Sarah Kate Hampton, Mercer University

Summary

The book, What if? is a great book for the early elementary grades, K-3. This book features a young monster and his mother imagining different scenarios for what the next day will bring. This story revolves around imagination, hypothetical thinking, anxiety, positive and negative thinking, and love. I think that this book would be a great classroom guidance lesson for kindergarten students, especially during the first few weeks of school where there might be heightened anxiety after the adjustment to school work, and school responsibilities.

The story starts off with the young monster holding his or her "stuffed animal monster" and addressing his or her mother about possible scenarios. An example is, "What if when I woke up tomorrow morning...there was a big... black...hole in the middle of the floor, and I didn't want to fall in, so I called you and you didn't answer" (Thomas & Collins, 1-2). Each scenario gets bigger and more extreme. The illustrations on each page are colorful and imaginative with different "types" of monsters. The second scenario, which is about a big spider at the bottom of the hole, goes on for a few pages. The young monster



finally finishes his scenario by saying that what if, " I just went on falling forever and ever and ever" (Thomas, et al., 7). After the young monster asks his mother what this would look like, the mother says, " That would be very scary... but what if tomorrow when you woke up, you called me and I was making pancakes. And what if you ate all up all your pancakes, and then we went for a walk" (Thomas et al., 8-9).

The mother's positive and pleasant scenarios last for many more pages than the young monster's negative scenarios. The young monster and his mother go the park, get many different colored balloons, each color representing a different thing to the young monster (i.e. red, a jewel), eat ice cream, sit by a warm fire, and read stories before it is time for the sleepy young monster to go to bed. I was immediately touched by this story because of its ability to turn around negative thinking by making positive choices, using the miracle question, and also capturing the child's ability to have an incredible imagination. This story starts with a small negative and scary thought that provokes a lot of anxiety in the young monster but through one of the trusted and loving figures in his life, he can begin to change how he thinks. The young monster learns that thinking about scary things makes you feel scared but that thinking about happy things can make you feel happy.

Recommended Use

This book would be a relatable story for new kindergarten students in a classroom setting. A great way to keep students thinking about the positive aspects of school—especially for students who might be having a hard time adjusting to school life—would be to come up with a list of what they enjoy about school. The students would be encouraged to write what they can but to also draw as many pictures as they want. The counselor would come prepared with butcher style paper and tear off either a piece for each student or a larger piece for groups of students. After the students have brainstormed and created many positive images, words, and ideas about school, they can share their paper with the class.

Another activity could be a, "How can we make it better?" lesson where the counselor reads the book and gives the students a "not-so-good" situation pertaining to school (i.e. I got my name written on the board, I forgot to do my homework, etc). The students can then work with a partner or come up with a solution to make the situation better, either for the present or for a future incident. The counselor can help the students see the benefit of remaining positive and in the present in a fun and engaging way for lower elementary grades. Lastly, because of the very creative and colorful nature of the book, the school counselor could work with the art instructor to help the students create a "big monster dilemma" booklet. The students would think of a problem that they have during their classroom guidance lesson and create a "how to" guide for a young monster to make it better by thinking positive.

This book immediately caught my attention as it asks the question, "what if?" While this book is best suited for lower elementary grades, it can begin to instill a life-long lesson of changing our thoughts to help us feel better. This book can help the younger students trust and like the school counselor as he or she will always be a fun, positive, and exciting experience.

Sarah Kate Hampton is a school counselor candidate in the School Counseling Master's degree program at Mercer University.

NEXT

Jump to Article:

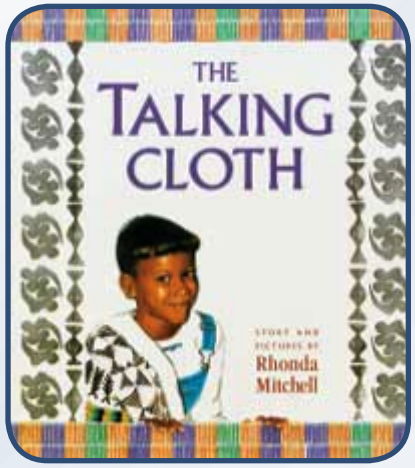
Table of Contents

Elementary: The Talking Cloth by Rhonda Mitchell

Sarah Kate Hampton, Mercer University

Summary

The Talking Cloth is an endearing story of family, symbolism, diversity, and self-discovery. This book is best suited for the 3rd – 5th grades. I would prefer to use this book as a form of bibliotherapy in a small group counseling session. While this book is about a young girl who discovers more about herself and her family, it can easily be applied to mixed gender groups as well as single gender groups (most likely for girls).



The story starts out with a young girl, named Amber, who visits her Aunt Phoebe's house. She explores all the various "things and things and things" that her aunt has collected over the years from her travels to Africa Mitchell, 1). Aunt Phoebe's brother—Amber's father-- is skeptical about the significance of the items. After Aunt Phoebe prepares Amber some mocha to drink, Amber's father is quick to say that mocha will, "stunt [her] growth" (Mitchell, 6). Aunt Phoebe tells her brother that, "Mocha is named after a city in Yemen, and this child just grew an inch or two, inside, for knowing that" (Mitchell, 6).

After Amber drinks the mocha, her aunt brings out a long, white cloth with designs all over it. Aunt Phoebe tells Amber that she got this cloth in Africa and that is a cloth for wearing. She says that the cloths can talk—they can tell how one is feeling. Amber seems confused but Aunt Phoebe explains further. The colors of the cloth have different meanings as well as the various designs covering the cloth. She explains that the cloth is called an adinkra and that it is worn by the Ashanti people in Ghana.

Aunt Phoebe continues to elaborate on the meanings of the colors of the cloths. She says that, "a white cloth means joy—yellow, gold or riches. Green stands for newness and growth. Blue is a sign of love, but red is worn only for sad times, like funerals or during wars" (Mitchell, 16). The black symbols are like words covering the cloth. Aunt Phoebe shares what a few of the symbols mean on the cloth that she took out for Amber. She explains that, "each symbol speaks of something different, like faith, power, or love (Mitchell, 20).

Amber then imagines what the cloths for her family would look like. She imagines that her little, baby brother's cloth would have messy handprints all over a green cloth. Her father would have a grey cloth with squares to represent his seriousness. Aunt Phoebe wraps the long, white cloth around Amber. Amber smiles to herself as the white cloth means joy. She imagines herself as an Ashanti princess and relishes in the thoughts of everyone who has ever worn an adinkra, "gathered around me" (Mitchell, 26).

Recommended Use

One could use this book for a small group counseling session focused on a variety of topics such as diversity, family and traditions, self-esteem, and communication. This short story allows the counselor and the students to think about some ways in which the students are unique individuals, each with family traditions. The book also helps the students to become more aware of ways of communication and how others perceive them and how they perceive themselves. This book allows for the students to identify a key figure in their life who they can relate to and learn from while they grown and learn about themselves and the world around them.

An activity that the counselor could do with the students would be to have them create their own "talking cloth." The counselor would ask the students to brainstorm symbols that they know or to create their own as well as to come up with feelings and emotions to correspond to colors of their choice for their cloth. Students can then create their own cloth using art supplies such as felt cut-outs, sharpies, stencils, etc. After the students have created their own cloth, the other students can guess what each section means by interpreting the colors and symbols, thereby having the "talking cloth" speak for the student. This could be especially useful for reluctant students who may enjoy art and creating more so than talking.

Lastly, a great lesson to learn for all the students in the group would be whether they interpreted each other's "talking cloth" accurately. This can manifest itself into a lesson about perceptions, communications (good and bad), and empathic thinking. I found The Talking Cloth to be engaging, informative, and entertaining. I think it would be great for many purposes as bibliotherapy for a school counselor, especially in the middle school grades and perhaps in the upper elementary school grades if taken apart slowly.

NEXT

Jump to Article:

Table of Contents

Middle: Bully by Patricia Polacco

Tonia Gatlin, Mercer University

Summary

Lyla and Jamie are the new kids at school. They are sixth graders and not members of the popular crowd. After earning good grades and joining the cheerleading squad, Lyla is suddenly befriended by the popular girls. While hanging out with them, she witnesses the popular girls harass fellow classmates online through Facebook. This changes how she feels about being accepted by them, especially when they write mean things about Jamie on his Facebook page. When she puts some distance between herself and the popular girls, she finds herself in a world of trouble after one of the girls steals a state test and blames Lyla. Her classmates respond with waves of hate and bombard her phone and Facebook page with nasty comments. In the end, Lyla is cleared of any theft charges, but things do not change overnight. Lyla is still faced with tense situations at school.

Polacco shines a light on the current battle children are facing today, which is bullying. Bullying has gone far beyond words on the playground as today's generation of children attack each other anonymously and without accountability. This book explores forms of bullying from school to cyberspace. This is a great book for children in middle school especially when they are not sure who they are yet. It teaches kids the difference between being a bully and being bullied yourself and how to face your fears. This is a great way to introduce children to the dangers of not only the internet but cyber bullying and how teasing on the computer is just as wrong as teasing others in person.

Recommended Use

The recommended use for this book is for a classroom guidance lesson for middle grade students (six through eight). During the classroom guidance lesson, the counselor can read this book to the class and begin a discussion on bullying, cliques, popularity, and the concept of trying to fit in. At this stage in their lives, adolescents are trying to find out where they belong and to which group they belong. In the process, students are being excluded from certain groups for certain reasons. Often times, this is when acts of bullying take place. After reading the book, the counselor can lead the students in activities to illustrate the main points of the book.

One activity that students can participate in is the social grouping game. This activity will allow students to explore the dynamics of exclusion and inclusion by examining the patterns that they use to group themselves. The counselor will place a colored sticker on each student's forehead without letting them see the color. The student who receives a white sticker should be capable of handling a simulation about exclusion, and not someone who is typically teased or excluded. As each student receives a sticker, direct him or her to roam around the room in silence. Once all of the students are roaming the room, instruct them to locate their group without asking any questions and without verbal communication of any kind. When students are finished, the counselor can ask the following questions:

1. What were the strategies you used to find your group? Why did you group in this way?
2. What did it feel like to be pushed into a group or told by someone else to go into a group?
3. What did it feel like to direct people to go into a group or not go into another group?
4. Did you like the group you were in? Would you rather have been in another group? What about the person who is not in a group? Why didn't anyone accept that person into their group? What did it feel like for the person who wasn't accepted into the group?
5. Are there any similarities between the way you grouped and treated one another during this activity and the way you group and treat one another in the playground and other social situations?

This activity will help students to see superficial ways in which they often group socially, and how this may lead to exclusion and cliques.

Tonia Gatlin is a school counselor candidate in the School Counseling Master's degree program at Mercer University.

NEXT

Jump to Article:

Table of Contents

Another extension activity to the book is exploring the roles students take when bullying occurs. The counselor will distribute a sheet with four squares on it. Each square will have a question. The questions are as follows:

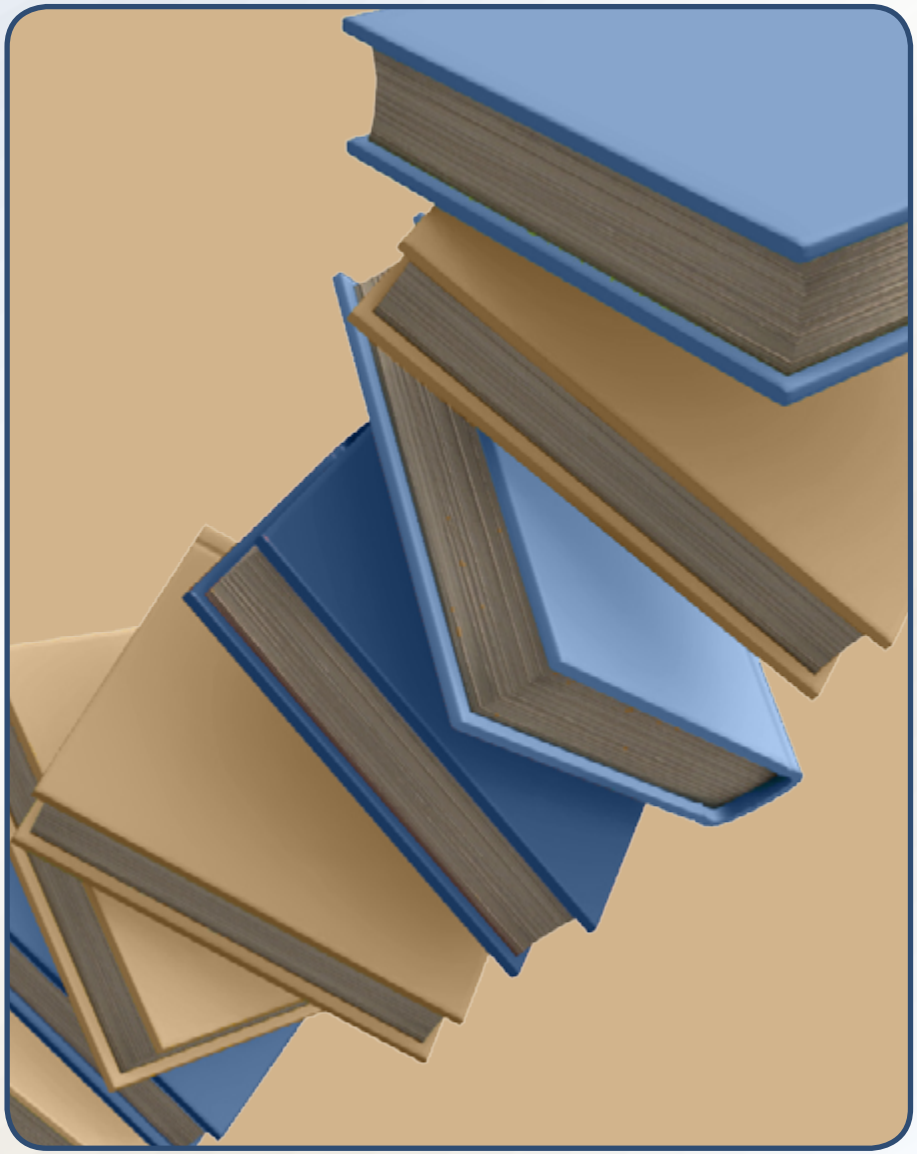
A) describe a time when someone's words or actions hurt you.

B) describe a time when your words or actions hurt someone.

C) describe a time when you saw teasing or bullying take place and you did not help. Why do you think you didn't help?

D) describe a time when you helped someone who was being teased or bullied.

Each question corresponds to a particular role: question A is the target; question B is the perpetrator; question C is the bystander; and question D is the ally. The counselor will ask who would like to share one of their squares with the class. The counselor will ask each volunteer to explain why he or she chose that particular square, how it felt to be in that role, and what was positive or negative about the way he or she responded in that particular situation. This activity will help the class to see patterns in the way different students have behaved when teasing or bullying occurs. The counselor will highlight constructive responses to bullying that come up, and reinforce the importance of being a friend and ally to peers who are the targets of bullying.



GSCA Journal Submission Guidelines

Editor: Karen Rowland
Email: journal@gaschoolcounselors.com

Submissions

All manuscripts submitted for publication must fit into one of the following categories:

1. Research and Practice

- Research Based
  - › Theoretical: Manuscripts in this category may include such things as an extensive review of the literature in a particular area, an annotated bibliography of fundamental key publications, and/or theoretical discussions which integrate relevant material in the field in a new light.
  - › Empirical: Manuscripts which involve actual scientific inquiries, and descriptive and/or inferential statistics. Attention will be paid to details such as client consent, preservation of subject confidentiality, sampling procedures to promote the representativeness of subjects, data storage, and follow up procedures.
- Practice Based
  - › Manuscripts in this arena will involve works which support, and facilitate the practice of school counseling.
  - › Examples may include a review of exemplary programs, activities, techniques, comprehensive websites, documentation procedures, or literary resources tied to a particular topic.

2. Commentaries and Reviews

- Each volume of the journal may contain invited essays on timely topics by school counseling professionals in the state.
- Examples of such topics may include school law and ethics, technological advances, special education, scheduling, state standards, model programs, graduation requirements, college readiness, job preparation.

3. Resources and Reflections

- Short, one to two page items will be included which will provide the reader with practical tools in the field or 'food for thought'.
- Examples of resource items are lists of websites, activities, and books.
- Examples of reflections are reaction statements to timely issues, professional experience accounts, book reviews, case studies, or responses to previous journal articles

Author Submission Guidelines

- Visit gaschoolcounselors.com for more information on guidelines

» Practicing school counselors at all school levels, their supervisors, school counselor educators, graduate students, and related professionals are encouraged to submit original works.

» Manuscripts that reflect creativity and critical thinking, as well as speak to timely issues, will be given the highest publication consideration.

» All manuscripts should conform to the guidelines for publication listed in the latest Edition of the American Psychological Association Publication Manual.

» Manuscripts which are currently under publication consideration by another publisher, or previously published work should **not** be submitted. Only original material will be reviewed.

» Manuscripts must be submitted electronically as a Microsoft Word attachment to the GSCA Journal Editor at journal@gaschoolcounselors.com.

» Manuscripts will be accepted throughout the year. The journal will be published once per year in November.

» Manuscripts longer than 20 pages will not be reviewed. Keep titles and headings concise.

» Manuscripts should include:

- Cover page with: article title,name, title, institution, address, phone number, e-mail address for each author. Primary authors should be designated as the contact person on manuscripts with multiple authors; and author identification should not appear on any page other than the title page in order that the Editorial Review Board may conduct a blind review of the manuscript.
- Abstract of the article should not be more than 75 words.
- Cover letter in which the merits of the manuscript are briefly described, and a statement indicating that the manuscript is an original work not under review consideration or previously published elsewhere is included.

» Author(s) bear full responsibility for the accuracy of their submission

» Each manuscript will be reviewed by a minimum of two editors. All authors will be notified of initial receipt of manuscripts, as well as a final determination regarding the manuscript.

- Approximately sixty (60) days after the "Acknowledgment of Receipt of Manuscript" email is sent to the Author(s), the GSCA journal will provide an electronic Notice to the Author(s) concerning a determination regarding the manuscript. Specifically, the Notice will indicate whether the manuscript is:
  - › Accepted for publication;
  - › Under Consideration and Requires Resubmission; or,
  - › Rejected and will not be published in the GSCA journal.

NEXT

Jump to Article:

Table of Contents

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