Why We Need Dating Violence Prevention Programs in Secondary Schools

This information brief was developed for the Ohio Mental Health Network for School Success (OMNHSS), by the Center for School-Based Mental Health Programs (CSBMHP) graduate research assistance Raven Cuellar.

Dating violence is defined as any attempt to control or dominate another person physically, sexually, or psychologically, resulting in harm (Wolfe & Feiring, 2000).

Dating violence poses a prevalent and serious risk to the emotional and physical health of America's youth.

- Between 10 and 45% of adolescents in the U.S. report having been physically or sexually abused by a dating partner (Centers for Disease Control, 2006; O'Keefe & Treister, 1998).
- In a sample of high school students, 45% of girls and 43% of boys reported being a victim of physical dating violence. In addition, 17% of girls and 9% of boys had been coerced by their partners to perform a sex act (O'Keefe & Triester, 1998).
- Between 28 and 45% of middle school students report having experienced sexual harassment at school (Cascardi & Avery-Leaf, 2000).
- 70% of girls and 52% of boys who are abused by a dating partner report a physical injury (Foshee et al., 1996).
- Adolescents experiencing dating violence are more likely to suffer from depression, anxiety, eating disorders, antisocial behavior, substance abuse, self-harm and suicidal behaviors, risky sexual behavior, and teenage pregnancy (CDC, 2006; Roberts & Klein, 2003; Silverman, Raj, Mucci & Hathaway, 2001).
- Adolescents in abusive relationships often perpetuate patterns of abuse into future relationships (Smith, White, & Holland, 2003; O'Leary et al., 1989).

Schools have an important role to play in preventing dating violence.

- Research suggests that friends play a critical role in influencing one another's behavior. Youths whose friends engage in dating violence or express approving attitudes of it are more likely to go on to abuse their own dating partners (Capaldi, Dishion, Stoolmiller, & Yoerger, 2001; Jouriles, Wolfe, Garrido, & McCarthy, 2006).
- When violence is modeled by peers who are in dating relationships, such behaviors are normalized and serve to justify dating abuse to other youths (Capaldi et al., 2001; Pellegrini, 2002). In fact, acceptance of dating abuse among friends is one of the strongest predictors of future involvement in dating abuse (Arriaga & Foshee, 2004).
- Given the knowledge that the individual risk factor most powerfully linked to dating violence is the belief that such behavior is socially acceptable, the school climate represents an important environment in which to take a stand against dating violence (Malik, Sorenson & Aneshensel, 1997; O'Keefe, 1997).
- Dating violence often co-occurs with the related problems of bullying and sexual harassment. Together, these aggressive behaviors contribute to a hostile school climate that supports continued violence among adolescents (Stein, 1995).
- Schools reinforce dating violence when they fail to provide strong policies against sexual harassment, bullying, and peer aggression. Schools with weak sanctions against violent

behaviors contribute to normalizing these dangerous acts and endorsing their occurrence (Olweus, Limber, & Mihalic, 1999; Pellegrini, 2002; U.S. Department of Education, 1998).
- Research highlights the importance of cultivating school climates that are incompatible with violence, threat, and coercion through prevention efforts (Erickson, Mattaini, & McGuire, 2004).

There is a demonstrated need for effective programs to reduce and prevent the incidence of dating violence and to teach healthy relationship skills among youth.

- In order to experience healthy, non-violent relationships, adolescents must be given opportunities to develop relational skills in areas such as assertive communication, respect, and conflict resolution (Wekerle & Wolfe, 1999). Research has confirmed the efficacy of two evidence-based prevention programs that offer adolescents the chance to learn and practice relational skills:

- The *Safe Dates* program consists of a 9-session psychoeducational curriculum that can be offered universally to all students as part of a health class curriculum (Foshee, Bauman, Ennett, Linder, Benefield, & Suchindran, 2004). The sessions are designed to challenge beliefs that dating violence is normative and acceptable, to teach conflict resolution skills as healthy alternatives to partner aggression, and to help students learn how to seek help if they or someone they know is involved in dating violence. Information on the *Safe Dates* program can be obtained at www.hazelden.org/HAZ_MEDIA/safedates_research.pdf

- The *Youth Relationships Project* targets adolescents who are at high risk for dating violence for inclusion in small groups (Wolfe, Wekerle, Scott, Straatman, Grasley, & Reitzel-Jaffe, 2003). This program offers 18 sessions of psychoeducation on abuse and power dynamics, skills training, and social action. Information on the *Youth Relationships Project* can be obtained at www.eurowrc.org/05.education/education_en/yrp_youth_manual/01.yrp.htm

References

Arriaga X. B., & Foshee, V. A. (2004). Adolescent dating violence: Do adolescents follow in their friends', or their parents', footsteps? *Journal of Interpersonal Violence,19* (2),162–184.

Capaldi, D. M., Dishion, T. J., Stoolmiller, M., & Yoerger, K. (2001). Aggression toward female partners by at-risk young men: The contribution of male adolescent friendships. *Developmental Psychology, 37,* 61-73.

Cascardi, M., & Avery-Leaf, S. (2000). *Violence against women: Synthesis of research for secondary school officials*. National Institute of Justice.

Centers for Disease Control (2004). Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance--United States, 2003. *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report, 2,* 1-98.

Centers for Disease Control (2006). Physical Dating Violence Among High School Students. Atlanta, GA: US Department of Health and Human Services, CDC; 2003. Available at http://www.cdc.gov/mmwr/preview/mmwrhtml/mm5519a3.htm

Erickson, C. L., Mattaini, M. A., & McGuire, M. S. (2004). Constructing nonviolent cultures in schools: The state of the science. *Children & Schools, 26*, 102-116.

Foshee, V. A., Bauman, K. E., Ennett, S. T., Linder, G. F., Benefield, T., & Suchindran, C. (2004). Assessing the long-term effects of the Safe Dates program and a booster in preventing and reducing adolescent dating violence victimization and perpetration. *American Journal of Public Health, 94*, 619-624.

Foshee, V. A., Linder, G. F., Bauman, K. E., Langwick, S. A., Arriaga, X. B., Heath, J. L., et al. (1996). The Safe Dates Project: Theoretical basis, evaluation design, and selected baseline findings. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine,12* (5), 39–47.

Jouriles, E. N., Wolfe, D. A., Garrido, E., & McCarthy, A. (2006). Relationship violence. In D. A. Wolfe & E. J. Mash (Eds.), *Behavioral and emotional disorders in adolescents* (pp. 621-641). New York: Guilford.

Malik, S., Sorenson, S. & Aneshensel, C. (1997). Community and dating violence among adolescents: Perpetration and victimization. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 21*, 291-302.

O'Leary, K. D., Barling, J., Arias, I., Rosenbaum, A., Malone, J., & Tyree, A. (1989). Prevalence and stability of physical aggression between spouses: A longitudinal analysis. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 57,* 263-268.

O'Keefe, M. (1997). Adolescents' exposure to community and school violence: Prevalence and behavioral correlates. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 20*, 368-376.

O'Keefe, M. & Treister, L. (1998). Victims of dating violence among high school students: Are the predictors different for males and females? *Violence Against Women, 4,* 195-223.

Olweus, D., Limber, S., & Mihalic, S. (1999). *The bullying prevention program: Blueprints for violence prevention.* Boulder, CO: Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence.

Pellegrini, A. D. (2002). Bullying, victimization, and sexual harassment during the transition to middle school. *Educational Psychologist, 37,* 151-163.

Roberts, T. A., & Klein, J. (2003). Intimate partner abuse and high-risk behavior in adolescents. *Archives of Pediatrics and Adolescent Medicine, 157* (4), 375-380.

Silverman, J. G., Raj, A., Mucci, L., & Hathaway, M. J. (2001). Dating violence against adolescent girls and associated substance use, unhealthy weight control, sexual risk behavior, pregnancy, and suicidality. *Journal of the American Medical Association, 286,* 572-579.

Smith, P. H., White, J. W., & Holland, L. J. (2003). A longitudinal perspective on dating violence among adolescent and college-age women. *American Journal of Public Health, 93,* 1104-1109.

Stein, N. (1995). Sexual harassment in school: The public performance of gendered violence. *Harvard Educational Review, 65,* 145-162.

U. S. Department of Education. (1998). *Annual report on school safety--1998*. Washington, DC: U. S. Departments of Education and Justice.

Wekerle, C., Wolfe, D. A. (1999). Dating violence in mid-adolescence: theory, significance, and emerging prevention initiatives. *Clinical Psychological Review, 19*, 435–56.

Wolfe, D. A. & Feiring, C. (2000). Dating violence through the lens of adolescent romantic relationships. *Child Maltreatment, 5,* 360-363.

Wolfe, D. A., Wekerle, C., Scott, K., Straatman, A., Grasley, C., & Reitzel-Jaffe, D. (2003). Dating violence prevention with at-risk youth: A controlled outcome evaluation. *Journal of Consultation and Clinical Psychology, 71*, 279-291.

The Case for Culturally Competent Schools

This information brief was developed for the Ohio Mental Health Network for School Success (OMNHSS), by the Center for School-Based Mental Health Programs (CSBMHP) graduate research assistance Julie Platten.

- What is cultural competency?

  - Cultural competency cannot be concretely obtained; it is a process of becoming more aware and more sensitive to one's own culture and the culture of others. Additionally, cultural competency involves an understanding of how culture affects day to day interactions and responses to others.

  - As an individual or organization progresses towards cultural competency, a typical response includes strengthening in the areas of:

    - Self awareness, particularly in the area of how and why one's background may be influencing present-day responses to others and situations
    - Positive attitudes towards other cultures
    - A willingness to engage in conversations with others about their cultural experiences and influences
    - An empathic understanding of others' experiences
    - A growing comfort in discussing differences and similarities between individuals and/or groups of people
    - An appreciation of multiple perspectives

  - Cultural competency is assessed based on

    1. Understanding of one's own ethnocentrism (cultural worldview)
    2. Appreciation of students' cultural background
    3. Development of a flexible understanding of cultural practices in broader social, economic, and political contexts
    4. The ability and willingness to use culturally sensitive management in order to build more culturally responsive, positive classroom and school atmospheres (Weinstein, Tomlinson-Clarke, Curran, 2004).

- What does cultural competency look like in schools?

  - A culturally competent school

    - Honors, respects, and values diversity in theory and in practice and where teaching and learning are made relevant and meaningful to students of various cultures (Klotz, 2006).
    - Makes it a priority to create and maintain an environment where the policies, practices, and attitudes support all students and promote effective, respectful ways of serving diverse populations.

- Why is it important to become a culturally competent school?

- An increasing percentage of ethnically diverse students are enrolling in primary and secondary education (National Center for Educational Statistics, 1996).

- Recent research also shows that 1 in 5 students lives in poverty (Children's Defense Fund, 2001).

- Because teacher reactions to students, both positive and negative, influence students' self-esteem and academic success (Brown, 2007), it is important for teachers to understand how to respond to students in a way that is effectively and easily interpretable by the students in their classroom.

    - Cultural competency enhances a teacher's ability to create an environment that is fair, understanding, and accepting of diverse students, ideas, experiences, and backgrounds (Brown, 2007).

- Some cultural conflicts in schools can be avoided when cultural competency is a highly prioritized ideal.

    - For example, African American students' behaviors are frequently consistent with African American cultural expectations and can come in stark contrast to the mainstream cultural expectations place on them by their teachers (Boykin, Tyler, & Miller, 2005).

- What can a school do to become more culturally competent?

    - Encourage the development and exploration of individual cultural identities, while promoting an openness to create dialogue around cultural differences and similarities.

    - Encourage teachers to hold cultural sensitivity discussions with students when opportunities arise out of the material being covered in class lessons.

    - Teach and model important values and appropriate classroom behavior at every level of the school structure.

    - Provide communications from the school in appropriate languages for parents and community members.

    - Have childcare available at parent meetings.

    - Help students develop a sense of civic responsibility toward their family, community, nation, and world.

    - Collaborate with parents and community members and invite them to share their cultures with the school.

For more information about how a school can become more culturally competent, please visit these resource websites concerning the importance of culturally competent schools http://www.lpfch.org/informed/culturalcompetency.pdf, and how to honor the diverse cultures present in a school http://www.nasponline.org/resources/principals/Culturally%20Competent%20Schools%20

NASSP.pdf and how to become a more culturally competent organization
http://erc.msh.org/mainpage.cfm?file=9.0.htm&module=provider&language=English.

Boykin, A. W., Tyler, K. M., & Miller, O. (2005). In Search of Cultural Themes and Their Expressions in the Dynamics of Classroom Life. *Urban Education*, *40*(5), 521-549.

Brown, M. (2007). Educating all students: Creating culturally responsive teachers, classrooms, and schools. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, v. 43 (1) 57-62.

Children's Defense Fund. (2001). *The state of America's children yearbook 2001.* Washington, DC: Author.

Culturally Competent Organizations. *The Provider's Guide to Quality and Culture*. Retrieved from http://erc.msh.org/mainpage.cfm?file=9.0.htm&module=provider&language=English.

Klotz, B. (2006). Culturally Competent Schools: Guidelines for secondary school principals. *Student Counseling,* PL March, 11-14. Retrieved from **http://www.nasponline.org/resources/principals/Culturally%20Competent%20Schools%20NASSP.pdf**

National Center for Educational Statistics, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. (1993). *Digest of education statistics.* Washington, DC: Government Printing Office.

Olsen, L., Bhattacharya, J., Scharf, A. (2006). Cultural Competency: What it is and why it matters. California Tomorrow. Lucile Packard Foundation for Children's Health. Retrieved from **http://www.lpfch.org/informed/culturalcompetency.pdf**

Weinstein, C. S., Tomlinson-Clarke, S., Curran, M. (2004). Toward a conception of culturally responsive classroom management. Journal of Teacher Education, v. 55 (1) 25-38.

The Importance & Benefit of Positive Youth Development in Schools

This information brief was developed for the Ohio Mental Health Network for School Success (OMNHSS), by the Center for School-Based Mental Health Programs (CSBMHP) graduate research assistance Jennifer L. Elfstrom

Schools today are tasked with promoting academic achievement for a student body with diverse needs and abilities, while also addressing mental health and high-risk behaviors (Catalano, et al., 2004; Greenberg, et al., 2003; Paternite, 2005) To accomplish all this, a public health promotion approach to service delivery in schools is recommended (Weist, 2005).

- Our nation's schools are under pressure to accomplish more than they ever have in the past (Greenberg et al., 2003), as they play an increasingly active role in supporting families in nurturing the development of children so that they will be prepared for adulthood (Catalano et al., 2004).

- To promote positive academic, psychological, and behavioral outcomes, for all students, leaders in the field of school-based mental health advocate for a public health promotion approach to service delivery. This tiered approach entails that all students receive school-wide programming aimed at enhancing student assets, while a select group of at-risk students receives prevention and early intervention services, and an even smaller group requires treatment of severe and chronic problems (Weist, 2005).

- Unfortunately, this model is not yet a reality in our schools—currently, school often concentrate on addressing severe and chronic problems, leading to a reduction or lack of resources allocated for promotion and prevention efforts (Weist, 2005).

The foundation of a public health promotion approach is the enhancement of social, emotional, behavioral, cognitive, and moral assets through positive youth development (PYD).

- In addition to increasing assets, PYD decreases high-risk behaviors (such as alcohol and drug use, sexual activity, and violence) and increases academic achievement (Catalano et al., 2004).

- Students who are engaged in PYD activities are more likely to make meaningful contributions to their own continued positive development, as well as to their family, community, and ultimately, society (Lerner et al., 2005).

- PYD programs also have been shown to successfully improve school climate by creating more positive, caring, and engaging environments (Durlak et al., 2007).

PYD can occur through a variety of programs and activities that share the common aim of promoting assets and use PYD core strategies.

- The aim of PYD is to enhance students' "five Cs":

  - Competence: Positive view of one's actions in academic, social, and vocational domains
  - Confidence: Global sense of positive self-regard
  - Connections: Positive bonds to school, community, family, and peers
  - Character: Sense of morality and integrity
  - Caring/Compassion: Sympathy and empathy for others (Lerner et al., 2005)

- PYD occurs as a result of engaging students in sustained and structured activities that enhance healthy community engagement (Catalano et al., 2004; Larson, 2000; Lerner, 2004; National Research Council and Institute of Medicine, 2002).

- An important feature of PYD is a sustained relationship with at least one caring adult. (Catalano et al., 2004; Lerner, 2004; National Research Council and Institute of Medicine, 2002).

- PYD activities often build skills and challenge participants to use those skills to achieve goals, thus increasing self-efficacy (Catalano et al., 2004; Larson, 2000; Lerner, 2004; National Research Council and Institute of Medicine, 2002).

- Examples of PYD activities include participation in sports teams and extracurricular clubs (Larson, 2000), but PYD can also occur in the context of school-based activities typically reserved for adult participation only.

An innovative and promising approach to PYD is youth participation in the process of planning, implementing, and evaluating school-based programs and practices.

- Research has demonstrated that youth, even elementary school students, can be productive members of teams tasked with decision-making and taking action for change (Checkoway & Richards-Schuster, 2003; Gosin et al., 2003; London, 2006; Torre & Fine, 2006). Furthermore, the principles for best practice in school mental health emphasize student involvement in all program development, oversight, and improvement efforts (Weist et al., 2005).

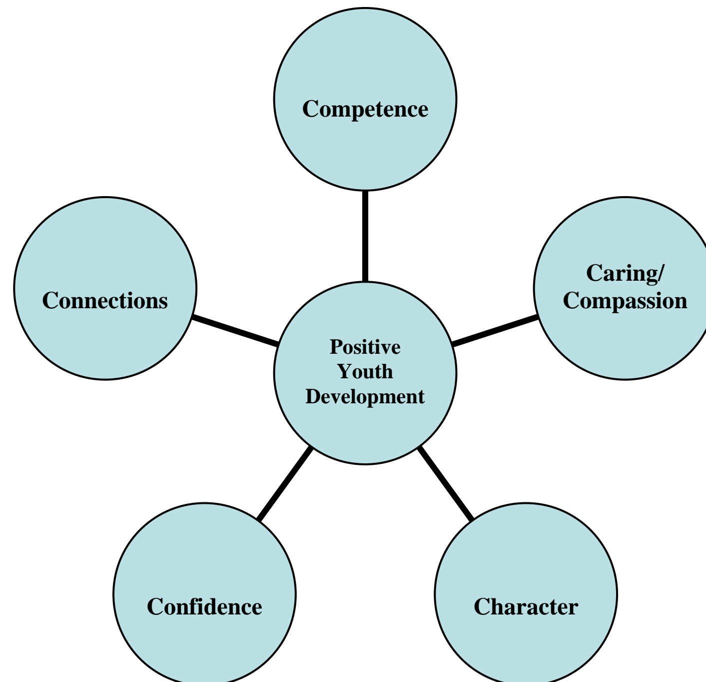
- More than "token or passive presence", this approach entails students' "active participation and real influence" in decisions that affect their school (Checkoway & Richards-Schuster, 2003).

- School committees tasked with decision-making regarding programs and practices may benefit from students' intimate familiarity with their school culture and ability to identify site-specific and student-approved solutions.

To promote positive academic, psychological, and behavioral outcomes through a public health promotion approach, schools may find the following resources regarding PYD and asset building helpful.

- The Search Institute (**www.search-institute.org**) has online resources that discuss the 40 developmental assets, how they are related to healthy development, and strategies to build assets.

- For information about youth participation in planning, implementation, and evaluation, the Michigan Youth and Community Program's webpage (**www.ssw.umich.edu/public/currentProjects/youthAndCommunity**) includes downloadable workbooks that may help guide the development of increased participation.



References

Catalano, R. F., Berglund, M. L., Ryan, J. A., Lonczak, H. S., & Hawkins, J. D. (2004). Positive youth development in the United States: Research findings on evaluations of positive youth development programs. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 591.

Checkoway, B., & Richards-Schuster, K. (2003). Youth participation in community evaluation research. *American Journal of Evaluation,* 24(1), 21-33.

Durlak, J. A., Taylor, R. D., Kawashima, K., Pachan, M. K., DuPre, E. P., Celio, C. I., et al. (2007). Effects of positive youth development programs on school, family, and community systems. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, *39*(3-4), 269-286.

Gosin, M. N., Dustman, P. A., Drapeau, A. E., & Harthun, M. L. (2003). Participatory action research: Creating an effective prevention curriculum for adolescents in the Southwestern US. *Health Education Research*, *18*(3), 363-379.

Greenberg, M. T., Weissberg, R. P., O'Brien, M. U., Zins, J. E., Fredricks, L., Resnik, H., & Elias, M. J. (2003). Enhancing school-based prevention and youth development through coordinated social, emotional, and academic learning. *American Psychologist, 58*(6/7), 466-474.

Larson, R. W. (2000). Toward a psychology of positive youth development. *American Psychologist*, *55*(1), 170-183.

Lerner, R. M. (2004). *Liberty: Thriving and civic engagement among American youth*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Lerner, R. M., Lerner, J. V., Almerigi, J. B., Theokas, C., Phelps, E., Gestsdottir, S., et al. (2005). Positive youth development, participation in community youth development programs, and community contributions of fifth-grade adolescents: Findings from the first wave of the 4-H study of positive youth development. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, *25*(1), 17-71.

London, J. (2006). Youth-led action research, evaluation, and planning. In L. Sherrod (Ed.), *Youth Activism: An International Encyclopedia (p. 698-703).* Westport, CT: Greenwood.

National Research Council and Institute of Medicine. (2002). Community programs to promote youth development. In J. S. Eccles & J. A. Gootman (Eds.), *Committee on community-level programs for youth.* Washington D.C.: National Academy Press.

Paternite, C. E. (2005). School-based mental health programs and services: Overview and introduction to the special issue. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 33*(6), 657-663.

Torre, M. E., & Fine, M. (2006). Participatory action research by youth. In L. Sherrod (Ed.), *Youth Activism: An International Encyclopedia (p.456-462).* Westport, CT: Greenwood.

Weist, M. D. (2005). Fulfilling the promise of school-based mental health: Moving towards a public mental health promotion approach. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 33*(6), 735-741.

Weist, M. D., Sanders, M. A., Walrath, C., Link, B., Nabors, L., Adelsheim, S., et al. (2005). Developing principles for best practice in expanded school mental health. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence,* 34(1), 7-13.

Addressing Non-Academic Barriers to Learning

This information brief was developed for the Ohio Mental Health Network for School Success (OMNHSS), by the Center for School-Based Mental Health Programs (CSBMHP) graduate research assistance Dr. Dawna Cricket Meehan, Coordinator of School Mental Health Programs.

Non-Academic Barriers to Learning:
Conditions in children's lives and environments must be right in order for them to be successful academically, socially, and emotionally. Non-academic barriers to learning can impede upon a student's ability to learn by not allowing them to be engaged in the classroom or to make the most of their academic learning time. Impediments to optimal school success not only affect social, emotional, and developmental growth, but also academic achievement. Non-academic barriers to learning include:

- Physical health barriers, such as hunger and poor nutrition
- Mental health barriers, such as depression and anxiety
- Exposure to violence, such as bullying and gang activity
- Abuse and neglect, including physical, emotional, and sexual abuse
- Exposure to traumatic events or repeated, long-term traumatic experiences
- Family barriers, such as homelessness, domestic violence, and family conflict
- Negative peer influences, such as rule breaking and truancy
- Alcohol, tobacco, and/or drug use
- Difficulties with concentration and attention
- Behavioral barriers, such as disruptive and unruly behavior
- Social-emotional barriers, such as poor impulse-control or anger management

For more information about non-academic barriers to learning, please visit the Center for Mental Health in Schools website at smhp.psych.ucla.edu/, the Center for School Mental Health website at csmh.umaryland.edu/, the Center for School Mental Health Programs website at www.units.muohio.edu/csbmhp/, and the Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning website at www.casel.org.

How Can Schools Address Non-Academic Barriers to Learning?
Research demonstrates that schools have the opportunity to enhance children's abilities to learn and grow within the school setting by:

- providing caring support for their students and families to ensure that the students' basic needs for food, clothing, shelter, and safety are met
- increasing each students social and emotional skills
- provide developmentally and culturally appropriate health and drug information to enable students to make informed decisions about healthy living
- providing appropriate structures that set positive social norms and emphasize limit setting and consistent expectations
- offering disruptive and unruly students an alternative academic environment where they can receive intensive interventions
- providing nutritional meals and snacks
- welcoming parents as part of the learning community, and
- providing all students the opportunity to meaningfully participate in decisions that impact their learning environment

For more information about these opportunities, please visit the eBased-Prevention website: www.eBasedPrevention.org.

What is the State of Ohio Doing to Address Non-Academic Barriers to Learning?
In 2004, the Ohio School Board adopted a set of nine guidelines to assist schools in addressing non-academic barriers to students' success. Those guidelines, which were developed in partnership with school staff, parents, mental health professional, and legislators, include:

- Operational principles for local schools that are grounded in best practices for academic achievement and are espoused by the community produce system effectiveness
- School-community partnerships enable the provision of comprehensive services for students and staff
- Regular, thorough assessment and evaluation result in continuous improvement
- High-quality staff development and administrative support leads to effective program implementation
- Addressing real and perceived threats to safety and security enables students to focus on learning and teachers to focus on instruction
- A student's sense of "belonging" in the classroom encourages class participation, positive interactions, and good study habits
- Engagement of parents and families in school-home learning partnerships maximizes the potential for effective instruction and student learning
- Youth engagement in forming school policy and procedure integrates an essential perspective into proposed solutions
- High-quality food service supports improvements in academic performance and behavior

For more information about the Ohio School Climate Guidelines, please visit the Ohio Department of Education website: www.ode.state.oh.us.

Evidence-Based Programming Can Address Non-Academic Barriers:

One avenue for schools to address non-academic barriers to learning is through the implementation of an evidence-based program. Evidence-based programs are programs that have been evaluated and determined to achieve positive outcomes, such as prevention or reduction of a barrier to learning. The National Registry of Evidence-Based Programs and Practices is a searchable database of prevention and intervention strategies and can be found at www.nrepp.samhsa.gov/. Schools can implement evidence-based programs systematically by following best practice models, such as the ten-step Getting to Outcomes framework. The Getting to Outcomes framework can be downloaded at http://www.rand.org/pubs/technical_reports/TR101/. Each of these steps has been outlined in a separate informational brief designed to assist you in implementing an evidence-based program within your school setting, and can be found at the Center for School Based Mental Health Programs website at www.units.muohio.edu/csbmhp/.