

Running Head: REDUCING BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS IN HEAD START

Targeting children's behavior problems in preschool classrooms:

A cluster-randomized controlled trial

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Abstract

The present study evaluated the efficacy of a multi-component classroom-based intervention in reducing preschoolers' behavior problems. The Chicago School Readiness Project model was implemented in 35 Head-Start classrooms, using a clustered RCT design. Results indicate significant treatment effects for teacher-reported and independent observations of children's internalizing and externalizing behavior problems, with effect sizes ranging from $d = .53$ to $d = .89$. Moreover, there was some evidence for the moderating role of child gender, race/ethnic group membership, and exposure to poverty-related risk, with stronger effects of intervention for some groups of children than for others. Findings contribute to a growing area of research on poverty and preventive intervention in early childhood.

Key Words: randomized, trial, classroom-based consultation, teacher-training

Recently, researchers and policy makers have expressed the concern that preschoolers' behavior problems may significantly compromise their chances for later success in school (Gilliam, 2005; Raver, 2002). Specifically, young children who are persistently sad, withdrawn or disruptive have been found to receive less instruction, to have fewer opportunities for learning from peers, and to be less engaged and less positive about their role as learners (Arnold et al., 2006). Young children facing economic disadvantage may be at particularly high risk. Exposed to a wide range of psychosocial stressors, children in poor neighborhoods are at greater risk for developing emotional and behavioral difficulties and have minimal access to mental health services (Fantuzzo et al., 1999). In light of the growing evidence of onset of behavior problems as early as toddlerhood (Carter, Briggs-Gowan, Jones & Little, 2003; Shaw, Dishion, Supplee, Gardner, & Arnds, 2006), early childhood represents a particularly important time to target children's risk of behavior problems.

Given the consequences of behavioral difficulty for children's school readiness, how can children's behavior problems be reduced in early childhood? Preschool classrooms are an increasingly important service setting outside the home (Spoth, Cavanagh, & Dishion, 2002), with 67% of young children in the United States enrolled in center-based or non-relative care prior to enrollment in Kindergarten (Innes, Denton, & West, 2001). Path-breaking studies in the last decade suggest that targeting classroom processes can be an effective way to reduce children's behavioral problems (see for example, August, Realmuto, Hektner, & Bloomquist, 2001; CPPRG, 1999; Ialongo et al., 1999; Lochman & Wells, 2003; Webster-Stratton, Reid, & Hammond, 2004). However, most of those classroom-based studies target low-income children in early elementary grades (see Berryhill & Prinz, 2003 and Jones, Brown, & Aber, 2008 for reviews). It is unclear from these important school-based efficacy trials whether those same classroom processes hold for urban settings in which younger children are served and where

preschool teachers have substantially lower levels of training, salary, and support on average, than do teachers in elementary schools (Granger & Marx, 1992).

In short, this study addresses a gap in our understanding of the types of classroom-based interventions that might reduce behavior problems among low-income children in preschool settings. Results of a recent nationally-representative sample suggest that while low-income children experienced short-term academic benefit from having attended preschool, their emotional and behavioral adjustment was placed at substantially greater risk in the long-run (Magnuson, Ruhm, & Waldfogel, 2007). This “tradeoff” is alarming, and signals the need for targeting preschool classroom processes that might support rather than compromise young children’s emotional and behavioral development. In sum, it is imperative to learn whether interventions that target social-emotional development in preschool can avert the risk of higher behavior problems among low-income children while also supporting their emotional, behavioral, and academic adjustment.

Moderating Role of Economic Risk, Race/Ethnicity, and Gender

Recent research in prevention science has highlighted the ways that low-income children of color face significantly higher risks of behavioral difficulty while also facing large disparities in their access to mental health and behavioral health services (Yoshikawa & Knitzer, 1997; Fantuzzo et al., 1999). A key step in closing the gap in these behavioral health disparities is that we need to learn whether interventions demonstrate similar or different levels of efficacy for both boys and girls, and for children in different sociocultural and socioeconomic contexts (Knight & Hill, 1998). Similarly, recent findings from a number of efficacy trials suggest that interventions demonstrate significantly stronger impacts for families facing a greater versus smaller number of poverty-related risks (Aber, Jones, Brown, Chaudry, & Samples, 1998; Tolan, Gorman-Smith, & Henry, 2004). Based on these bodies of research, child gender and family

cumulative exposure to poverty-related risks were hypothesized to play key moderating roles in the efficacy of our intervention. Finally, Hispanic children represent the fastest-growing group of children in poverty in cities such as Chicago, and programs increasingly identify that their services must meet the needs of Hispanic children as well as those of African American children (Goerge, Dilts, Yang, Wasserman, & Clary, 2007). Accordingly, we also examined the moderating role of children's race/ethnic status when examining the efficacy of the intervention.

The Current Study

The Chicago School Readiness Project (CSRP) intervention is based on several theoretical models of preschool children's behavioral problems in early educational settings. First, much recent research suggests that children's behavioral difficulty may be part and parcel of relatively low quality of care in preschool classrooms (Ritchie & Howes, 2003). For example, teachers are expected to manage large numbers of preschoolers in their classrooms (NICHD Early Child Care Research Network, 1999), often with little training or support in effective methods of classroom management. In this model, children with more emotional and behavioral difficulty engage in escalating, emotionally deregulating "coercive processes" with teachers (Arnold, McWilliams, & Arnold, 1998; Kellam, Ling, Merisca, Brown, & Ialongo, 1998). Based on this theoretical framework, we provided intensive training in strategies teachers could employ to provide their classrooms with more effective regulatory support and better classroom management as one mechanism to reduce children's behavior problems (Raver et al., 2008).

Classroom-based research suggests a second, complementary theoretical model whereby teachers may experience "burnout" marked by "emotional exhaustion" and "depersonalization" as a result of trying to meet too many classroom demands with too little support (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000). Review of this literature suggests that teachers might be unlikely to take new, proactive steps to support children's behavioral self-regulation, if teachers themselves feel

unsupported (Woolfolk, Rosoff, & Hoy, 1990). This framework led us to include two additional components to the model. As part of a model of classroom- and child-centered consultation, a weekly Mental Health Consultant (MHC) provided 20 weeks of consultation as a “coach” in supporting teachers while they tried new techniques learned in the teacher training (Donohue, Falk, & Provet, 2000; Gorman-Smith, Beidel, Brown, Lochman, & Haaga, 2003). As an additional program component, mental health consultants also spent a significant portion of the school year (in winter) conducting stress reduction workshops to help teachers to reduce stress and limit burnout. One critique might be that MHCs bring both “an extra pair of hands” to the classroom in addition to their clinical expertise. To control for improvements in adult-child ratio introduced by the presence of MHCs in treatment classrooms, control group classrooms were assigned a lower-cost Teacher’s Aide (TA) for the same amount of time per week.

A final theoretical model drawn from child clinical research suggests that low-income preschoolers face much higher likelihood of exposure to a range of poverty-related risks that pose serious threats to their mental health and school adjustment (Shaw et al., 2006; Campbell, 1995). Exposure to high levels of family and community violence may represent a particularly pernicious threat to young, low-income children’s emotional and behavioral adjustment and school readiness (Margolin & Gordis, 2000). In recent research, as many as 30% of inner-city, low-income preschool and early school-aged children were reported to have been exposed to severe violence that included robbery, threats with a weapon, or shooting or stabbing (Randolph, Koblinsky, & Roberts, 1996). Based on such findings, it is clear that many children in inner-city, economically disadvantaged communities are likely to come to preschool with considerably more emotional and behavioral concerns than preschool teachers can reasonably handle. While Head Start is mandated to serve children with special needs, children with emotional and behavioral problems remain substantially under-referred and underserved for emotional

disturbance (Fantuzzo et al., 1999). In short, this model suggests that mental health consultants could aid parents, teachers, and children by providing both classroom-based and individualized consultative services (Keenan et al., 2007; Yoshikawa & Knitzer, 1997). Thus a fourth component of the CSRP model is the provision of child-focused mental health consultation for three to five children in each classroom in the late spring of the preschool school year.

The principal aim of the Chicago School Readiness Project intervention was to marshal these primary programmatic components to improve low-income preschool-aged children's school readiness by increasing their emotional and behavioral adjustment. Our immediate research aim addressed in this paper, is to test whether this multi-component intervention yields short-term benefits by reducing children's behavioral problems in the spring of children's preschool year. Following Flay et al.'s (2005) recommendations to use multiple methods, we assessed the CSRP's intervention's impact for the full sample of CSRP-enrolled children via survey methods more commonly used in school settings. In addition, we used a more labor-intensive observational method to assess children's problem behaviors (including aggressive and nonaggressive disruptive behavior as well as withdrawn and disconnected behaviors), where a small subsample of focal children within each classroom is randomly selected and observed (Miller, Gouley, Seifer, Dickstein & Shields, 2004). In so doing, our aim was to capitalize on the strengths of each methodological approach while also balancing research limitations of feasibility and cost. We hypothesized that CSRP intervention would significantly benefit children enrolled in treatment-assigned Head Start programs as compared to children enrolled in control group assigned programs, with the prediction that observational findings would be consistent with (if not confirmatory of) results yielded from teacher reports.

Hypotheses

First, we expected the intervention to decrease children's internalizing and externalizing

behavior problems by spring of the Head Start school year. We expected the precision of our estimates of the impact of treatment to be greater when we took important baseline child-, teacher-, and classroom-level covariates into account. Second, we expected that estimates of the impact of intervention to be moderated by children's exposure to higher levels of poverty-related risk at baseline, with effects of the intervention larger for children facing higher levels of poverty-related risk. Third, we expected that the impact of intervention might be moderated by children's racial/ethnic status. Due to the limited research examining race/ethnic differences in treatment effects in this context, no specific hypotheses were made. Fourth, we examined whether the intervention had a significantly larger impact on girls compared to boys.

The present study capitalizes on recent methodological advances in prevention science and educational research in which the impact of interventions on children's outcomes are considered as "nested" within classroom and institutional contexts. Recent school-based prevention trials aimed at supporting low-income youth have demonstrated the importance of disaggregating potential confounds such as family income (see for example August, Egan, Realmuto, & Hektner, 2003; Tolan et al., 2004). In addition, recent research suggests that interventions may work quite differently in settings marked by low versus high levels of institutional resources, teacher education, and motivation (Gottfredson, Jones, & Gore, 2002). Building on these recent innovations in educational research, we employed a cluster-randomized experimental design to evaluate the efficacy of the CSRP model. A "settings-level" approach (with the inclusion of a large number of child-, classroom-, and school-level baseline characteristics) has also been argued to increase the precision of treatment impact estimates (Bloom, 2005; Cook, 2005). This study provides us with an opportunity to examine the merits of these analytic approaches for a classroom-based preventative intervention.

Method

Sample

Following recent school-based intervention models, this study used a cluster-randomized design. As such, random assignment occurred at the site-level, with matched pairs of Head Start-funded programs assigned to treatment and control conditions.

School and subject selection. In an effort to balance generalizability and feasibility, preschool sites were selected on the basis of (a) receipt of Head Start funding, (b) having two or more classrooms that offered “full day” programming, and (c) location in one of 7 high-poverty neighborhoods (see Raver et al., 2008 for a detailed discussion of exclusionary criteria). CSRP staff completed block-by-block surveys of all 7 neighborhoods, identifying, phoning and screening all child-serving agencies to determine whether they met additional site selection criteria (including receipt of Head Start funding). Eligible sites were then invited to self-nominate for participation in the research project, with 18 sites across 7 neighborhoods completing the process and included as CSRP sites. Two classrooms within each site were randomly selected for participation, with research staff successfully able to recruit 83% of the children enrolled in classrooms between Labor Day and the assigned enrollment cut-off date in mid-October of the school year. Teacher reports of child behavior problems were collected for the full sample across fall and spring of the school year (see Figure 1). In addition, observational assessments of children’s externalizing/disruptive and internalizing/disconnected behavior were collected for a stratified, randomly selected subsample of the full sample.

Randomization. Each site was matched with another “sister” site that most closely resembled it on a range of demographic characteristics of families and site characteristics indicating program capacity. Methods employing sum of squared distances and sum of absolute distances were used to estimate best matches for pairs of sites across 14 site-level demographic characteristics (list available from 1st author upon request). One member of each pair was

randomly assigned to treatment and the other member of the pair was assigned to control group. Within each of the 9 treatment sites, 2 classrooms participated, for a total of 18 treatment classrooms. Across the 9 control sites, there were 17 classrooms (2 classrooms in 8 sites, and 1 classroom in the remaining site which lost one Head-Start funded preschool classroom due to funding cuts). Treatment classrooms received the multiple components of the intervention package across the school year, and control classrooms were paired with teaching assistants as described above. Additional information on program design and implementation are detailed below.

The CSRP intervention was implemented for two cohorts of children and teachers, with Cohort 1 participating in 2004-05 and Cohort 2 participating in 2005-06. As with other recent efficacy trials implemented with multiple cohorts, the sites enrolled in Cohorts 1 and 2 differed on several program-level and demographic characteristics, and therefore those characteristics were included in all analyses (see, for example, Gross et al., 2003).

Because we planned to model child outcomes as potentially responsive to both the intervention and to teacher- and classroom-level characteristics, teachers were also included as participants. Teachers were enrolled in two cohorts which were also pooled into a single dataset ($N = 90$). A total of 87 teachers participated at baseline. The number of teachers increased to 90 by the spring of the Head Start year. This net increase reflected the entry of 7 more teachers and the exit of 4 teachers who either moved or quit during the school year.

At baseline, a total of 543 children participated in CSRP. By the spring, the number of participating children was reduced to 509. Nearly all of the exits were due to children voluntarily leaving the Head Start program, though one child was requested to leave the Head Start program and one parent opted to withdraw her child from participating in CSRP¹.

The sample for analyses of teacher-report data in this study included 449 children, who

had complete data on children's behavior problems in the fall and spring, as well as child and family background characteristics in the fall. Representativeness analyses compared children across children's gender, race/ethnicity, risk of behavior problems in the fall, whether parents were single, whether families included 4 or more minors, whether parents spoke Spanish, and family risk factors. Overall, analyses revealed no significant differences between children who were in the analytic sample and those children who were excluded due to missing data. However, the analytic sample included a lower percentage of parents who spoke Spanish ($\chi^2(1, N = 602) = 18.341, p < .001$). Similarly, teachers who were in the analytic sample and those teachers who were omitted due to children's missing data were mostly similar. There were no significant differences across analytic and omitted samples in terms of teachers' age, education level, and depressive symptoms. The one exception was that differences were found in levels of teacher job overload, with teachers in the analytic sample reporting lower job demands and control ($t(600) = 3.314, p < .01$, and $t(600) = -2.414, p < .05$, respectively). These variables were included as covariates in all analyses.

Because of the importance of multi-method, multi-measure approaches to estimates of treatment efficacy (Flay et al., 2005), independently collected observational assessments of children's problem behaviors were conducted for a stratified, randomly selected subsample of children within the CSRP sample, where roughly 6 children per classroom were selected, representing low ($z\text{-score} < 0$), average ($0 < z\text{-score} < 1$), or high ($1 < z\text{-score}$) levels of behavior problems based on fall (baseline) teacher-reports on the Behavior Problems Index (BPI) (described below). Each child's $z\text{-score}$ was centered by child gender and classroom membership (i.e., calculated in comparison with other children of the same gender in the same classroom). The n for this subsample was 181 (the sample size for analysis was 172), with approximately even groups of males and females (54% female). Moreover, percentages of each race/ethnic

group in the observational subsample matched those in the total CSRP sample.

Design

As described earlier, The Chicago School Readiness Project intervention model comprises four specific components: (a) teacher training in behavior management strategies, (b) MHCs' provision of "coaching" to teachers in implementing these strategies in the classroom, (c) MHC's provision of stress reduction workshops, and (d) MHC's provision of targeted, direct services for children with the highest emotional and behavioral problems. The intervention components were embedded within a model of service delivery that emphasized three central principles, MHC-teacher collaboration, MHCs' cultural competence, and sustainability, as well as a dual focus on supporting behavioral change at the classroom and child levels. The four components of teacher training, coaching, stress reduction, and direct "1-on-1" child-focused services were delivered in this sequence by consultants to classrooms randomized to treatment. The full model was manualized, and staff members involved in service delivery underwent two days of training in implementation, as well as clinical supervision (1x every two weeks) and administrative supervision (1x every week) throughout the year.

Treatment classrooms: Teacher training. Treatment teachers were invited to participate in 30 hours of workshop-style training sessions (across five Saturdays in October through January). These trainings, adapted from the evidence-based Incredible Years Teacher Training Program (Webster-Stratton et al., 2004) and led by a licensed clinical social worker (and experienced trainer), apply behavioral principles to teachers' approaches to reducing children's challenging behaviors. MHCs attended the sessions as well, as one way of fostering their collaborative partnership with teachers. Teacher incentives included payment (\$15/hour), catered lunches, and on-site childcare. To address concerns regarding the relevance and acceptability of the training program for ethnic minority teachers of young African American and Hispanic

children, the training component was piloted in two demonstration sites not included in the full study. The training and measures were translated into Spanish, and piloting and follow-up focus groups were conducted in English and Spanish with 12 teachers in two pilot sites which served low-income African American and Hispanic families. Teachers' feedback indicated that the training and coaching formats were "helpful" to "very helpful."

Mental health consultation: Coaching and stress-reduction. Teacher training was combined with weekly provision of mental health consultation to classrooms, anchored in clinically trained consultants' provision of "coaching" and stress reduction strategies. Past intervention studies have found that training alone may not ensure teachers' transfer of learned material to their classrooms, given the everyday challenges of running a classroom smoothly (Gorman-Smith et al., 2003; Wasik, Bond, & Hindman, 2006). Therefore, during the first 10 weeks (or the first third) of the intervention, MHCs' classroom visits focused on following a set of specific coaching steps to help teachers strengthen their ability to promote children's positive emotional and behavioral development: Establishing shared goals with teachers, observing teacher-child interactions, sharing and discussing feedback, collaborative problem-solving, and supporting the use of specific techniques (for more details, see Madison-Boyd et al., 2006). During the second third of the intervention, MHCs held a one-day stress reduction workshop for each Head Start site. MHCs also began devoting time during classroom visits to discuss teachers' experiences of and strategies for relieving stress (e.g., taking breaks, airing concerns). When given concrete forms of support from a MHC, teachers may be better able to focus their attention on meeting the needs of children in their classrooms (Curbow, 1990).

Mental health consultation: Direct service to children. In the last 10 weeks of the intervention, MHCs provided targeted, direct intervention services (including individual and group therapies) to a small number of children. During the first six months of the intervention

MHCs identified 3 to 4 children per class (approximately 70 total) on the basis of: (a) clinical judgment, (b) consultation with teachers, and (c) review of teacher-reported measures of children's behavioral problems in the fall. In addition, MHCs recorded the number of school visits spent working with individual children as well as the primary clinical concerns addressed during “1-on-1” sessions with individual children (see below).

Program satisfaction. Exit survey data (from cohort 1 treatment-group teachers) suggested high acceptability of mental health consultation, with over 80% of teachers reporting that MHCs were “somewhat” to “very” helpful in: strengthening classroom rules and routines, helping teachers to build positive behaviors with children who were “difficult,” and allowing teachers to spend more time teaching in groups. Also, 91% reported that MHCs allowed them to devote time to individual children who needed extra help. When asked whether they would choose to have a MHC in their classroom again, 89% of teachers said yes.

Control classrooms. Classrooms within sites randomly assigned to the control group were paired with Associate’s degree-level teaching assistants during the intervention year. Control classroom-assigned teacher assistants provided an “extra pair of hands and eyes” during everyday classroom activities.

Facilitators and providers: Program coordinator, clinical supervisor, and trainer. The program coordinator helped ensure that the project ran smoothly across the 35 classrooms and 18 sites participating in CSRP. For example, the program coordinator organized all teacher trainings for teachers in the intervention group, acted as a community liaison, and encouraged teachers in the intervention group to register for the training sessions. The program coordinator also monitored TAs in the control condition on the number of hours they spent in control classrooms. In the treatment condition, the MHCs received biweekly clinical supervision from a licensed clinical social worker with a Master’s degree. A second licensed clinical social worker was

included as a leader of teacher trainings. The teacher training leader used the Incredible Years Teacher Training Program (Webster-Stratton et al., 2004) and had extensive experience leading parent and teacher groups in community-based agencies in the Chicagoland area.

Mental Health Consultants. Each MHC held a Master's degree in social work. Given the focus of CSRP, MHCs were required to have had experience working in early childhood settings and with families facing multiple poverty-related risks. Additional emphasis was also placed on MHCs' ability to deliver culturally competent services, languages spoken (e.g., Spanish) and cultural match across MHCs, teachers, and children when making hiring decisions.

Treatment fidelity. The fidelity of implementation of the CSRP model was monitored in several ways. This included tracking (a) the number of trainings attended by all intervention-assigned teachers and TAs, (b) records of the number of weekly visits made by MHCs to their assigned classrooms, (c) MHCs' detailed weekly and monthly reports of content of all classroom- and child-focused consultation services, and (d) ratings by both the MHCs and intervention-assigned teachers on the extent to which intervention services had been successfully delivered and implemented.

Analysis of (a) teacher attendance at trainings suggests that teachers attended 3 of the 5 trainings, on average. Regarding the stress reduction workshop (held onsite at CSRP-enrolled Head Start sites), nearly all teachers attended the session. Mental health consultants followed up with a review of training topics with all treatment-assigned teachers (including those who may have missed an earlier training session) during classroom visits. Records suggested (b) that MHCs completed 29 classroom visits to their assigned classrooms, on average, across the school year (range = 21–40). This resulted in classrooms participating in an average of 128 hours of mental health consultation by the end of the school year. Service delivery was relatively evenly distributed across programs (Li-Grining et al., 2007).

In addition, (c1) MHCs' classroom- and child-focused consultation services were monitored via weekly reports completed at the end of each classroom visit. MHCs reported on the number of social services they provided (e.g., coaching on strategies covered in teacher training, direct services to children), the number of strategies from teacher training sessions that teachers tried, and the quality of this implementation. Review of these weekly service provision reports suggest that MHCs coached teachers in the use of the five specific behavior management strategies taught during the trainings in every classroom, throughout the school year. Every month, (c2) MHCs also submitted spreadsheets (and accompanying treatment plans) that identified the number of children to whom they had delivered direct services. These monthly reports identified details such as dates of visits, child ID and the nature of the behavioral concern. Review of these logs showed that 137 children received child-focused consultation services, with individual children receiving 5.49 MHC visits, on average (range = 1 – 23).

Finally, (d1) teachers rated the quality of trainings as very helpful and they rated MHCs, on average, as somewhat to very helpful in providing classroom- and child-focused consultation. Ratings were also obtained (d2) from MHCs on the degree to which teachers were successful in trying the strategies in their classrooms. In their weekly reports, MHCs rated teachers as “somewhat successful” on average, on teachers' use of classroom management strategies that were covered in trainings

Procedures

Data collection. In the fall, families with children ages 3–4 were recruited from each of the 35 classrooms to participate in the study, with approximately 17 children in each classroom enrolling in CSRP. Consent forms for each child were signed by his or her parent or guardian, who also completed an interview, which included questions regarding child and family demographic characteristics (e.g., parent's marital status and education level).

Children's behavior problems were rated by teachers in both fall and spring of the Head Start year. Teachers and teacher assistants were given the Behavior Problems Index (BPI; Zill, 1990) in the fall and spring, as well as the Caregiver-Teacher Report Form (C-TRF; Achenbach & Rescorla 2001) in the spring, for each CSRP-enrolled child in their classrooms. Teachers' reports were collected by CSRP research staff (blind to the treatment status of the classroom) within 6 weeks and teachers were reimbursed a nominal subject payment (of \$20 per packet).

For the observational subsample of CSRP, we selected the observer rating version of the Penn Interactive Peer Play Scale (PIPPS) (developed by Fantuzzo et al., 1995; adapted by Milfort & Greenfield, 2002) as a coding system that had been validated against other informants with low-income, ethnic minority children. It can be reliably coded "in vivo" to yield data on low frequency behaviors such as children's aggressive and withdrawn behaviors (see Miller et al., 2004 on the challenges posed by direct observation of these behaviors in preschools). Children's externalizing/disruptive and internalizing/disconnected behaviors were observed in 20-minute blocks during the course of the school day by the coding team (see below).

To account for classroom-level differences in resources and support for children's social-emotional development, both trained observers and teachers provided classroom-level data in the fall. Trained observers, who were blind to randomization, assessed the quality of children's classrooms using the Classroom Assessment Scoring System (CLASS; La Paro, Pianta, & Stuhlman, 2004) and the Early Childhood Environment Rating Scale, revised edition (ECERS-R; Harms, Clifford, & Cryer, 2003). The team consisted of 12 individuals who each had at least a bachelor's degree. Of the 12 members, 6 were African American and 6 were Caucasian or Asian, thus approximately half the time, the observers' race matched the race of most children. Using the ECERS and CLASS, observers rated overall classroom quality as well as dimensions of emotional climate (e.g., teacher sensitivity, behavior management, and negative climate). While

conducting observations, staff noted the number of children and adults in the classroom.

Teachers and their assistants also completed self-reports of demographic information (e.g., level of education) and psychosocial well-being (e.g., depressive symptoms (Kessler et. al, 2002)).

In the fall, administrators at each Head Start site provided CSRP with access to site-level characteristics regarding staff (e.g., percent of teachers with a BA, availability of a family support worker on site). Administrators also provided site-level data on children and families (e.g., total enrollment, percentage of families led by single parents).

Measures

Dependent measures of treatment impact. To assess the impact of the CSRP intervention on children's behavior problems, two teacher-reported measures of children's internalizing and externalizing behavior problems were included. The Achenbach System of Empirically Based Assessment profile entitled the Caregiver-Teacher Report Form (C-TRF; Achenbach & Rescorla, 2001) was completed by teachers in May. The measure consists of 99 items asking the respondent to rate the child on a scale from 0 to 2 (where 0 = not true, 1= somewhat or sometimes true, and 2= very true or often true). Responses were summed into Internalizing ($\alpha = .90$) and Externalizing ($\alpha = .97$) subscales. For all HLM analyses, raw Internalizing and Externalizing scores were used so as to avoid truncating variance in teacher report scores (Achenbach, Edelbrock & Howell, 1987). Standardized t-score values were also calculated so that the percentage of CSRP-enrolled children with "elevated" levels of behavioral problems (with t-scores ≥ 60) could be included in descriptive analyses.

In addition, in both the fall and spring, teachers completed the Behavior Problems Index (BPI), a 28-item rating scale originally designed for parent report of child behavior adapted from multiple studies of children's behavior problems (Zill, 1990). CSRP modified the original version in several minor ways. For the purposes of this study, items were summed into

Internalizing ($\alpha = .80$) and Externalizing ($\alpha = .92$) subscales, following the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (NLSY79) (Zill, 1990). For both the BPI and C-TRF, children's scores were averaged across the two reporters (i.e. the child's teacher and teacher assistant).

In order to provide independent observational assessments of children's behavior problems, CSRP received permission from the author, John Fantuzzo, to use an observer rating version of the Penn Interactive Peer Play Scale (PIPPS), which has been shown to be valid and reliable (Fantuzzo, et al., 1995; Milfort & Greenfield, 2002). The original measure was altered slightly, with the CSRP version (a) including 30 of the 32 original items and (b) using a dichotomous rating that indicated whether or not the coder observed the specific behavior (rather than a 4-point scale that ranged from never to always). Inter-rater reliability was high, ranging from an alpha of .79 to .92 for 30% of the cases (where a second coder observed 2 out of 6 of the children in each classroom). Based on results from principal components analysis, we created 3 subscales, two of which met adequate levels of inter-item reliability (aggression/disruption $\alpha = .71$, withdrawal/disconnection $\alpha = .64$) and were subsequently used in analyses. Concurrent validity has been demonstrated for the aggression/disruption subscale which was positively correlated with the externalizing subscale of the C-TRF ($r = .16, p < .05$).

Child-level covariates. Child-level demographic characteristics were also included in the following analyses. These included (a) child gender, (b) child membership in the race/ethnic category of African American versus Hispanic, (c) parent's self-identification as Spanish-speaking in the home, (d) large family size (with ≥ 4 children), (e) single-headed household, and (f) family's cumulative exposure to 3 poverty-related risks (including mothers' educational attainment of less than high school degree, family income-to-needs ratio for the previous year being less than half the federal poverty threshold, and mothers' engagement in 10 hours or fewer of employment per week) (Raver, 2004). A final child-level covariate was the child's total

behavioral problems score (as rated by teachers on the BPI) in the fall.

Classroom/teacher-level covariates. A set of teacher characteristics were included as proxy assessments of classroom quality, and were assessed through teacher report. These included teachers' reports regarding their age, level of education (teacher's attainment of BA as well as TA's attainment of BA), as well as their report on several psychosocial characteristics that might affect teachers' perceptions of children's behavioral difficulty (see Anthony, Anthony, Morrel, & Acosta, 2005). To assess their psychosocial characteristics, teachers' depressive symptoms were briefly assessed at baseline using the 6-item *K6*, a scale of psychological distress developed for the US National Health Interview Survey (Kessler et al., 2002). The *K6* items are coded as 0–4 and then summed ($\alpha = .65$). In addition, teachers reported job overload on the 6-item “job demands” and 5-item “job control” subscales of the Child Care and Early Education Job Inventory rated on 1–5 scales (Curbow, Spratt, Ungaretti, McDonnell, & Breckler, 2000). Subscales demonstrated adequate internal consistency ($\alpha = .67$ and $\alpha = .56$, respectively) and were summed. To calculate classroom-level covariates, scores on each variable were averaged across all teachers in each classroom (Gerard & Buehler, 2004).

To control for additional variation in classroom quality, observational measures were collected in fall using the CLASS (La Paro et al., 2004) and the Early Childhood Environment Rating Scale-R (ECERS-R, Harms et al., 2003). CLASS indicators included 7-point Likert scores on negative climate, teacher sensitivity, and behavior management (see Raver et al., 2008). Three-quarters of the observations were double coded “live” by two observers and intraclass correlation values (α) indicated adequate to high levels of inter-observer agreement (negative climate, $\alpha = .70$; teacher sensitivity, $\alpha = .77$; behavior management, $\alpha = .66$).

The 43-item ECERS-R (Harms et al., 2003) is a widely used research tool used to measure early childhood classroom quality, with items scored on a 1–7 scale (Harms et al.,

2003). The ECERS-R data were collected during the fall of each year by the same cadre of observers who collected the CLASS data, with 43% of the ECERS-R observations double-coded for purposes of reliability ($\alpha = .87$ for the ECERS-R Total Score). The number of children and the number of teachers observed in each classroom in September were also included, to control for the potential confounds of differences in class size or staffing ratios at both time points.

Site-level covariates. In order to test the role of “settings-level” program characteristics, a limited number of site-level covariates were entered into models, including the availability of a fulltime family worker at the Head Start site, the size of the program (i.e., the number of children served, ages 3–5), the proportion of the site identified as African American, the proportion of the teachers with BA degrees and the proportion of TAs with some college, the proportion of the families served that were single parent families, employed, and reliant on TANF.

Analytic Approach

In this study, we first employed teachers’ reports of children’s internalizing and externalizing behavior problems on the BPI and the C-TRF in May as dependent measures of CSR program influence. We then repeated our analyses with observational PIPPS assessments of children’s externalizing/disruptive and internalizing/disconnected behaviors collected in May for a stratified randomly-selected subsample of children, as an additional set of dependent measures of CSR program influence. In both sets of analyses, a multi-level strategy is necessary because children in this study are nested in classrooms and sites. Multilevel modeling allows for the simultaneous estimation of variance associated with individual (within-participants) and population (between-participants) change based on the specification of fixed- and random-effect variables in the model (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2003). With these data it is possible to assess the direct impact of school- or classroom-level (e.g., intervention vs. control) variables, net of both person-level (e.g., demographic and ecological characteristics of children and families),

classroom/teacher-level, and site-level characteristics².

The overall impact of intervention was then modeled using three equations, with the equation at Level 1 (child level) specified in the following way:

$$Y_{ijk} = \pi_{0jk} + \sum_m \pi_{mjk} X_{mijk} + \varepsilon_{ijk}$$

where Y_{ijk} is the behavioral problem score of child i in classroom j within CSRP site k ;

$\sum_m \pi_{mjk} X_{mijk}$ represents the sum of m child characteristics, such as gender, race/ethnicity, and pre-treatment BPI score as well as family characteristics (e.g., household size) and number of other family risks (i.e., low level of parental education). ε_{ijk} is a random error term.

Correspondingly, Level 2 (classroom level) was specified in the following way:

$$\pi_{mjk} = \beta_{m0k} + \sum_n \beta_{mnk} C_{mnjk} + r_{mjk}$$

where $\sum_n \beta_{mnk} C_{mnjk}$ is the sum of n teacher characteristics (e.g., whether the teacher has a BA degree), and classroom characteristics such as baseline classroom quality (e.g. ECERS scores).

A third equation specifying Level 3 (site level) is then written as:

$$\beta_{m0k} = \gamma_{m00} + \gamma_{001} T_k + \sum_p \gamma_{m0pk} S_p + u_{m0k}$$

where T_k is treatment/control assignment while $\sum_p \gamma_{m0pk} S_p$ represents the sum of p site-level characteristics, such as whether the site had additional family support worker on staff. β_{00k} , the adjusted mean level of child behavior problems in site k , varies as a function of whether or not the site was assigned to the treatment or control group; γ_{000} is the adjusted mean level of behavioral problems across all control group sites; and γ_{001} is the treatment effect. Though not

shown here, $\gamma_{100} - \gamma_{800}$ represent the pooled within-site regression coefficients for the Level-1 covariates. The magnitude of treatment impact can then be examined, where γ_{001} represents the average difference between treatment and control sites, controlling for all covariates. Effect sizes were calculated by dividing that difference by the full sample's SD for the dependent variable.

We first used HLM analyses, as specified above, to estimate the treatment effects of CSRP. We further investigated whether the treatment impacts (if any) were moderated by child race/ethnic status, child gender, or children's low vs. high exposure to poverty-related risks. Given our study's small sample size (i.e., $n=18$ sites randomized to control and treatment conditions), and the known difficulty in detecting interaction effects with small sample sizes (McClelland & Judd, 1993), omnibus tests of interactions between treatment and the three possible moderators, regardless of statistical significance, were followed with post-hoc analyses of treatment impact within subgroups (see Figure 2). Finally, a 3rd alternative model specification was included, with the 8 pairwise site assignments entered as dummy-coded binomial variables at level-3 of the HLM models in place of the large list of site-level covariates. This provided us with a sensitivity test of the impact of treatment on child behavior problems. In the 3rd alternative model specification, the estimate of treatment is yielded net of the role of specific matched pairs of sites, which represent the observed and unobserved heterogeneity among children enrolled in different types of CSRP Head Start sites with differing resources, across different neighborhoods. Implications of these different model specifications are discussed below.

Results

Table 1 presents descriptive statistics for all predictors of children's behavior problems at the site, classroom, and child levels. As can be seen from the descriptive statistics in Table 1, many measures of poverty-related risk and of children's behavioral problems were higher in treatment than in control sites at baseline, though our analyses suggest that these differences are

not statistically significant (Raver et al., 2008). This heterogeneity among sites and classrooms reinforces the importance, however, of including classroom- and site-based covariates when analyzing treatment impact. Mean levels of teacher-reported and observed behavior problems among CSRP-enrolled children, as well as the percentages of children whose fall C-TRF t-scores were at or above a “clinically elevated” cutoff score of 60, are also presented in Table 1.

Three sets of models were then run to yield the “Intent to Treat” or ITT estimates of CSRP intervention services on children’s internalizing and externalizing behavior problems. For each dependent variable, Model 1 included all 3-level covariates; Model 2 included interaction terms between treatment and child race/ethnicity, gender, and family socioeconomic risks; Model 3 included site-pair dummy variables instead of site-level covariates. For ease of interpretation, results from Model 2 are presented in Table 2.

With Internalizing and Externalizing BPI scores as the dependent variables, the results from Models 1 and 2 suggest that overall, CSRP benefited children in the treatment group, whereby children in the treatment group were reported as having significantly fewer internalizing and externalizing behavior problems than did their control group-enrolled counterparts by spring. In particular, compared to children in the control group, those in the treatment group on average had significantly lower scores on the BPI Internalizing scale, (-1.81 points in Model 1, $t = -4.20$, $p = 0.00$, $d = -0.89$) and on the BPI Externalizing scale (-2.92 points, $t = -3.17$, $p = 0.01$, $d = -0.64$) scores. After including the interactions between treatment and child race/ethnicity, gender, and family socioeconomic risks (Model 2), children in the treatment group had even lower scores on the BPI Internalizing scale (-2.15 points, $t = -4.00$, $p = 0.01$, $d = -1.06$) and BPI Externalizing scale (-4.50 points, $t = -4.21$, $p = 0.00$, $d = -0.98$).

Table 2 also reveals several important associations between a number of the Level 1 and Level 2 covariates and teachers’ reports of children’s BPI scores in the spring. For example,

children with higher levels of behavioral risk in the fall of Head Start year were reported to continue to show significantly higher BPI scores in the spring (1.25 points, $t = 6.10$, $p = 0.00$, $d = 0.62$ on the Internalizing scale and 3.48 points, $t = 7.70$, $p = 0.00$, $d = 0.75$ on the Externalizing scale in Model 2). Conversely, children whose parents spoke Spanish were reported by teachers to have lower levels of internalizing problems (see Model 2, -0.59 points, $t = -2.02$, $p = 0.04$, $d = -0.29$). Other child and family demographic characteristics were not significantly related to child BPI scores in spring, $p > .05$ (see Table 2).

Among the Level 2 covariates as predictors of children's behavior problems, teacher's ratings of job demand and job control were both positively associated with child BPI Internalizing and Externalizing scores (see Table 2). In addition, teacher's K6 scores were weakly associated with children's lower behavior problem scores in Model 1 (-0.23 points, $t = -2.81$, $p = 0.01$, $d = -0.11$ for BPI Internalizing and -0.33 points, $t = -1.89$, $p = 0.07$, $d = -0.07$ for BPI Externalizing scores) and marginally associated with BPI scores in Model 2. Regarding Level 2 classroom-level covariates, teacher's behavior management and negative climate in fall were negatively related to BPI scores across both models (e.g., in Model 1, higher behavior management in fall predicted a 1.23 decrease in spring Internalizing BPI scores, $t = -4.56$, $p = 0.00$, $d = -0.61$ and a 2.33 decrease in Externalizing BPI scores, $t = -4.07$, $p = 0.00$, $d = -0.51$). Teacher's sensitivity and negative climate were associated with BPI scores in unexpected directions (see Table 2). Other teacher and class covariates (e.g., teacher education age, overall classroom quality, and number of the adults in class), were not associated with BPI scores.

Among the covariates at the site level, Tables 2 shows that children who were enrolled at sites with more family support workers on staff and a higher percentage of teacher assistants with college degrees on average tended to be rated as having fewer behavior problems. In contrast, children enrolled in larger sites, in sites with higher percentages of African American

children, teachers with BAs, and families with at least one parent employed tended to be rated by teachers as having a higher number of behavior problems (see Table 2). Other site-level covariates did not show significant associations with child BPI scores.

All analyses were repeated with teacher-reported C-TRF scores (assessed in spring) as the dependent measure. These additional models suggest that children in the treatment group were reported as having significantly fewer internalizing and externalizing behavior problems on the C-TRF scales than did their control group-enrolled counterparts, net of children's initial levels of behavioral risk (see Table 2). Again, effect sizes of treatment impact were larger when interactions between treatment and child race/ethnicity, gender, and family socioeconomic risk were included in Model 2. For example, children in the treatment group had lower C-TRF Internalizing scores (-3.96 points, $t = -2.66$, $p = 0.03$, $d = -0.82$) and lower C-TRF externalizing scores (-8.77 points, $t = 3.98$, $p = 0.01$, $d = -0.92$) than did children in the control group. Inspection of results suggests the same pattern and magnitude of associations between covariates at levels 1, 2 and 3 and C-TRF scores as were found when BPI scores were considered as the dependent variable (see Table 2).

Because of the known difficulty in detecting the effects of moderators, we then graphed point estimates and confidence intervals for all sub-groups for both the BPI and the C-TRF teacher reported data, to examine whether the CSR treatment demonstrated differential efficacy with some groups of children compared to others. Figure 2 is provided as an illustration and shows that overall girls and Hispanic children in the treatment group tended to show larger point estimate reductions in externalizing behavior problems than did their counterparts in the control group. For example, girls in the treatment group were rated 3.88 points lower in BPI Externalizing scores than girls in the control group; while boys in the treatment group were rated 1.98 points lower than boys in the control group. Compared to their same race/ethnic group peers

who were in the control group, Hispanic children in the treatment group tended to score 3.45 points lower in BPI Externalizing scores than their Hispanic counterparts in the control group, while Non-Hispanic Black children in the treatment group scored 1.81 points lower than Non-Hispanic Black children in the control group. What these figures illustrated for us, however, is that no one group “carried” the effect of the CSRP intervention on children’s behavior problems (as indexed by teacher report). In addition, all children, regardless of family socioeconomic risks, tended to benefit from CSRP treatment.

Results from additional post-hoc sensitivity analyses conducted with the BPI and C-TRF teacher reports as dependent variables (Model 3) revealed that treatment effects were no longer statistically significant when binomial codes for pairwise matches between sites were substituted for program characteristics as level-3 covariates (table available from 1st author upon request). It should be noted that the same site-level covariates that were included in Model 2 were employed to determine the matches. As such, we are confident that the difference in results between these two model specifications is probably due to (a) limited statistical power, (b) ways that program pairs may not adequately capture the observed and unobserved heterogeneity in our sample, and to (c) ways that Model 3 is likely to be sensitive to outliers on the impact of the intervention at the site level.

Finally, with regard to independent observational assessments of children’s aggressive/disruptive and withdrawn/disconnected behaviors, the best fitting models (Model 2) were rerun for the stratified, randomly selected subsample. As indicated in Table 3, there were marginally significant effects for treatment on PIPPS assessments of children’s externalizing/disruptive behavior (-1.40 points, $t = -2.09$, $p = 0.06$, $d = 0.77$). In addition, there was a statistically significant treatment by poverty-related risk interaction (0.92 points, $t = 3.36$, $p = 0.00$, $d = 0.51$). As shown in Figure 3, children with no or one risk tended to benefit from

CSRP treatment, while the treatment effect for children with two or more risks was not statistically significant. These analyses suggest converging evidence for the role of child, teacher/classroom, and site characteristics as significant predictors of observed externalizing behavior problems (see Table 2).

Discussion

Children exposed to the multiple family and neighborhood stressors associated with poverty are at substantially increased risk for behavioral difficulty, with Head Start teachers reporting children's behavioral dysregulation and disruptive, aggressive behaviors among their top concerns (Cai, Kaiser, & Hancock, 2004; Morales & Guerra, 2006). In response to this pressing policy concern, the Chicago School Readiness Project was designed to support children's emotional and behavioral regulation and to reduce their risk of behavioral difficulty. The CSRP targeted classroom processes in low-income, urban, community-based preschools in answer to recent calls to focus not only on low-income children themselves, but on settings that might alternately ameliorate or exacerbate children's behavioral risk (Atkins, Grayczyk, Frazier, & Abdul-Adil, 2003; Cai et al., 2004).

Results from our analyses suggest that CSRP had a large, statistically significant impact on reducing low-income preschoolers' internalizing and externalizing behavior problems. On average, children enrolled in CSRP classrooms were reported by teachers to manifest significantly fewer signs of sadness and withdrawal than were children in the control group with effect sizes ranging from $d = .89$ for teacher-reported BPI scores to $d = .62$ for teacher-reported behavior problems on the C-TRF. This effect size would translate to a reduction of one to two internalizing behavior problems for the treatment group as compared to the control group on the Behavior Problems Index, for example. The CSRP model of intervention also demonstrated efficacy in reducing preschoolers' externalizing behavior problems, including children's

symptoms of aggression and defiance, with $d = .64$ and $d = .53$ on the BPI and C-TRF, respectively. This effect size would translate to a reduction of 2 to 3 externalizing behavior problems for children in the treatment group as compared to their control group counterparts (see Figure 2 for illustration of effect sizes plotted as point estimates on teacher-reported Externalizing BPI scores).

Results from our independently-assessed classroom observations (using an observer rating version of the Penn Interactive Peer Play Scale (PIPPS)) supported our teacher-reported findings, providing important converging evidence of the impact of this intervention on children's externalizing behavioral outcomes. Results from our observational data suggested that fewer instances of externalizing, disruptive behavior such as physical and verbal aggression were observed among children in treatment-assigned classrooms as compared to their counterparts in control-enrolled classrooms, for children facing lower levels of poverty-related risk, only (see Figure 3). Observations of children's internalizing, disconnected behaviors (such as wandering aimlessly, withdrawing from play) were in the hypothesized direction, but were not sufficiently large to reach levels of statistical significance.

In short, results indicate that our classroom-based intervention offers a potentially promising model for supporting the emotional and behavioral development of low-income preschool children exposed to a large number of poverty-related risks. Our results are consistent with emerging research on ways to support and build on the strengths of low-income families and the institutions that serve them (Berryhill & Prinz, 2003; Dishion & Stormshak, 2007; Tolan et al., 2004). Our findings suggest that a key source of institutional support of children's communities, namely the Head Start-funded preschool programs in their urban neighborhoods, can be leveraged to provide important behavioral as well as academic intervention and support.

How do our findings stack up to previously published results of classroom-based

intervention? Our findings are consistent with other recent studies on the efficacy of teacher-training programs with older children. Systematic review of the literature revealed few cluster-based randomized trials that combined extensive teacher-training and mental health consultation models for children in this age range (for exceptions see Dumas, Prinz, Smith, & Laughlin, 1999). That said, CSRP drew from the strengths of previous models emphasizing the importance of providing significant adults in children's lives with the knowledge, skills, and support to effectively support children's self-regulation and reduce their behavior problems. As with those programs, CSRP placed central importance on intervention staff serving as coaches to teachers, to aid in building new relationships with students using more adaptive strategies of management and engagement (Donohue et al., 2000; Gorman-Smith et al., 2003). In sum, our results contribute to a growing literature in prevention research that suggests ways teacher training and mental health consultation efforts can be extended "downward" to settings where an increasingly large fraction of preschool children are served.

Did the CSRP intervention work better for some children, as compared to other children? Significant treatment X gender and treatment X race/ethnic group membership interactions for teachers' reports suggest that Hispanic girls showed the largest reductions in behavior problems, as compared to other children in the sample. While moderating analyses of the full sample did not yield statistically-significant evidence of the moderating role of poverty-related risk, evidence of moderation by poverty-related risk was found for the observational sub-sample. Following McClelland & Judd (1993), we took additional steps to guard against the risk of type II error (that is, concluding null differences when the problem may lie with inadequate statistical power to detect differences in treatment impact for different groups). To guard against that risk, we conducted follow-up analyses of treatment impacts within each subgroup. Follow-up subgroup analyses suggest, when children in the treatment group were compared to their

race/ethnic- and gender-matched control-group peers, the intervention led to significant, albeit smaller, reductions in boys' and African American children's behavior problems as well.

Placing Intervention in the Social Context of Classrooms

When considering intervention from a classroom-based perspective, results of this study highlight recent observations by Anthony et al. (2005) that classroom teachers vary widely in their reports of the prevalence of students' behavior problems. Findings by Anthony et al. (2005) suggest that some teachers reporting exceptionally few children exhibiting difficulty while other teachers report as many as 60% of their children showing serious behavioral difficulty. To disentangle the sources of this tremendous variability, this study included key child-level factors such as children's initial level of behavior problems (collected at baseline) and children's exposure to high versus low levels of poverty-related risk in estimating the impact of the intervention on children's adjustment. Our models also took into account teacher and classroom characteristics that might covary with teachers' perceptions of children's behavioral difficulty. For example, our results suggest that teachers' own feelings of job overload was significantly predictive of teachers' reports of higher behavior problems for the children in their classroom. Site-level characteristics such as whether programs could afford to have a full-time family support staff-member on staff were also related to teachers' reports of whether children's behavior problems worsened or improved over the course of the school year. Our results suggest that it is very important to comprehensively attend to teacher and classroom dynamics in our analyses of classroom-based intervention impact.

Limitations of the Current Study

While the present study had several strengths, this study's conclusions are constrained by several limitations. For example, each of the measurement approaches used in this study has its strengths and drawbacks. On one hand, teacher reports offer a relatively low-cost and

ecologically valid means of assessing children's emotional and behavioral dysregulation, offset by the risk of reporter bias given teachers' knowledge of their program's treatment status. On the other hand, the benefits of independently assessed classroom observation are balanced against high cost, low feasibility, and the risk of insufficient power to detect treatment impact, given the "low base rate problem" for young children's observed aggressive and disruptive behaviors (Hughes, White, Sharpen & Dunn, 2000; Milfort & Greenfield, 2002, pp. 593; Miller et al., 2004). With those limitations in mind, we were heartened to find that the observational findings regarding children's externalizing behaviors using the adapted version of the PIPPS were consistent with (though not confirmatory of) our teacher report findings.

A second key limitation is that the current analyses are restricted to assessments of children's behavior problems at the end of the school year in which programs were randomly assigned to treatment or control groups. For more robust estimates of CSRP's efficacy, it will be important to see whether evidence of the benefits of our classroom-based intervention extend into children's kindergarten year (Flay et al., 2005). Analyses are currently underway to detect whether treatment group-enrolled children sustain these improvements as they make transitions to new kindergarten classrooms where teachers are unaware of children's prior involvement in treatment- vs. control-group assigned Head Start programs. With this caveat in mind, our findings are in keeping with previous clinical research using children's behavior problems as indicators of intervention efficacy, where short-term improvement in children's behavioral adjustment is an important outcome in its own right (see Berryhill & Prinz, 2003 for review).

A third limitation is that we cannot "unpack" the benefits of CSRP intervention to detect which program components may have made the most difference in reducing children's behavior problems. Ours was a relatively small-scale classroom-based study with only sufficient statistical power to randomize programs to a control group vs. to receipt of a single "package" of

intervention supports. In the meantime, our study represents an important preliminary empirical step, bridging previous research traditions focusing on elementary school-based RCT trials on the one hand and programs and non-randomized preschool mental health consultation studies, on the other.

Clinical and Research Implications

Previous research in child development and psychopathology has sounded a recurrent, clear alarm regarding the prevalence, persistence, and severity of behavior problems among young children facing conditions of income poverty and inequality (Campbell, 1995; Shaw et al., 2006). The children living in CSRP's low-income neighborhoods face many of these risks: Many of the families in our study reported living on incomes substantially below the federal poverty threshold, trying to "make ends meet" with lean financial resources. The children enrolled in CSRP were reported and observed to demonstrate a range of behavioral difficulties in fall and spring of their preschool year, indicating substantial reason for concern for young children's emotional and behavioral adjustment, early on in their educational trajectories.

In the context of these multiple risks, it is important to highlight low-income children's socioemotional competence and their capacity for behavioral improvement: The Chicago School Readiness Project offers a promising approach for reducing children's risk of behavioral difficulty in classroom settings. Recent innovative studies in prevention science have built on family and community strengths to support low-income children's emotional and behavioral adjustment in urban communities such as Baltimore, Philadelphia, Seattle, and Chicago (Tolan, Gorman-Smith, & Henry, 2003; Van Zeijl, et al., 2006). Our findings suggest that children's preschools may represent an additional avenue to pursue in building a comprehensive system of prevention and early intervention.

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Footnotes

1) Attrition was due to the exit and entry of two groups of children. The group of 543 children was reduced when 88 children exited the study, leaving 455 children who entered the study at baseline and remaining in the study throughout the school year. In addition to the original group at baseline, 59 children entered the study later in the school year, with five of these children subsequently exiting and 54 of them remaining in the study. Thus, there were 509 children (455 children who entered at baseline and 54 children who entered after baseline) participating in the study by the spring. Attrition analyses suggest that differences in exits and entry between treatment and control groups were minimal and unlikely to bias analyses of treatment impact (see Raver et al., 2008).

2) In the present study, our first set of models includes teachers' assessment of children using the BPI in fall and spring of the Head Start year, allowing for estimates of residualized change in children's BPI scores as an indicator of treatment impact. Additional models include the assessment of children using teacher-reported C-TRF scores and observer-reported externalizing and internalizing behaviors in spring as dependent variables, with children's fall BPI score as a covariate. These latter analyses yield estimates of treatment-control differences in children's behavior problems on those two additional assessments, net of their baseline behavioral risk (indexed by their fall BPI scores).

3) Note: dots represent point estimates; lines represent their 95% confidence intervals (for Figures 2–3).

Table 1
CSRP Descriptive Statistics (N = 547)

	Overall Sample	Treated Group	Control Group
Outcome Variables			
BPI Internalizing score	1.59(1.98)	1.98(2.19)	1.18(1.65)
BPI Externalizing score	4.18(4.57)	5.09(5.16)	3.26(3.65)
C-TRF Internalizing raw score	4.21(4.70)	5.46(5.21)	2.93(3.71)
% with elevated Internalizing C-TRF t-score	5.5%	8.5%	2.6%
C-TRF Externalizing raw score	7.84(9.58)	9.94(11.06)	5.69(7.21)
% with elevated Externalizing C-TRF t-score	9.1%	11.9%	6.3%
PIPPS Disruption score ^a	1.60(1.88)	1.57(1.85)	1.64(1.91)
PIPPS Disconnection score ^a	1.18(1.52)	1.12(1.48)	1.23(1.56)
Child and Family Characteristics			
Child Age (months) at Spring	58.17(7.47)	58.32(7.45)	58.01(7.50)
Child Gender: Boy	0.47(0.50)	0.53(0.50)	0.42(0.49)
Child Race/Ethnicity (Black)	0.65(0.48)	0.66(0.48)	0.64(0.48)
Child Race/ Ethnicity (Hispanic)	0.28(0.45)	0.28(0.45)	0.27(0.45)
Child BPI fall risk	0.29(0.45)	0.31(0.46)	0.26(0.44)
Parent Age (years)	29.70(7.46)	29.60(7.85)	29.81(7.05)
Parent Race/Ethnicity (Black)	.69(.46)	.70(.46)	.68(.47)
Parent Race/Ethnicity (Hispanic)	.27(.45)	.29(.45)	.25(.44)
Parent poverty related risks ^b	1.08(1.00)	1.15(1.01)	1.00(0.99)
Less than high school degree	.26(.44)	.27(.44)	.25(.43)
Income less than half the poverty line	.43(.50)	.46(.50)	.39(.49)
Less than 10 hours of work per week	.41(.49)	.43(.50)	.39(.49)
Single families	0.69(0.46)	0.70(0.46)	0.67(0.47)
Four or more children in household	0.25(0.43)	0.25(0.43)	0.25(0.44)
Parent Spanish speaking	0.22(0.42)	0.19(0.39)	0.25(0.44)
Teacher and Class Characteristics			
Teacher BA	0.63(0.48)	0.66(0.47)	0.61(0.49)
Teacher age	40.44(11.66)	37.63(12.08)	43.30(10.50)
Teacher K6 score	2.50(1.99)	3.13(1.63)	1.86(2.12)
Teacher job demand	2.71(0.59)	2.88(0.63)	2.54(0.48)
Teacher job control	3.26(0.68)	3.34(0.69)	3.19(0.67)
Teacher behavior management	4.89(1.04)	4.62(1.08)	5.17(0.93)
Teacher sensitivity	4.85(1.03)	4.62(0.94)	5.08(1.06)
Class negative climate	1.99(0.97)	2.13(1.08)	1.86(0.82)
Classroom overall quality	4.72(0.78)	4.47(0.72)	4.97(0.77)
Class size	16.47(2.59)	16.68(2.54)	16.25(2.62)
Number of adults in classroom	2.41(0.69)	2.55(0.79)	2.27(0.54)
Site Characteristics			
Family support worker on staff	1.20(2.35)	0.39(0.49)	2.03(3.09)
Number of children aged 3-5	111.96(115.62)	96.18(48.57)	128.03(155.30)
Proportion of African Americans	0.71(0.38)	0.68(0.38)	0.74(0.37)
Proportion of teachers with BAs	0.43(0.39)	0.50(0.36)	0.36(0.41)
Proportion of teacher assistants with college	0.49(0.37)	0.36(0.32)	0.62(0.36)
Proportion of single families	0.86(0.16)	0.84(0.15)	0.88(0.15)
Proportion of families employed	0.74(0.26)	0.81(0.22)	0.67(0.29)
Proportion of families receiving TANF	0.31(0.34)	0.24(0.29)	0.39(0.37)

^a The descriptive statistics within the PIPPS ($n=181$) sample is similar to those in the full sample.

^b Poverty related risk is an aggregate comprised of maternal; income, educational, use of public services as well as family assets.

Table 2

Parameter coefficients (and standard errors) of the effects of CSRP on BPI, C-TRF, and PIPPS

	BPI		C-TRF		PIPPS	
	Int.	Ext.	Int.	Ext.	E/Disr.	I/Disc.
Treatment	-2.15** (0.54)	-4.50** (1.07)	-3.96* (1.49)	-8.77** (2.20)	-1.40+ (0.67)	-0.41 (0.59)
Child and family characteristics						
Boy	-0.31 (0.23)	0.39 (0.73)	-0.25 (0.60)	0.61 (1.63)	-0.59 (0.41)	0.12 (0.36)
Treatment*boy	0.33 (0.32)	2.30* (1.03)	0.89 (0.84)	5.18* (2.28)	0.67 (0.56)	0.16 (0.49)
Black	-0.08 (0.47)	-0.49 (1.09)	-0.06 (1.18)	-0.96 (2.14)	0.87 (0.63)	0.49 (0.56)
Treatment*Black	0.82 (0.55)	1.72 (1.24)	1.76 (1.46)	4.01 (2.39)	-0.56 (0.71)	-0.81 (0.63)
Other race	0.05 (0.52)	0.34 (1.70)	0.56 (1.30)	1.64 (3.36)	0.24 (0.93)	-0.20 (0.81)
Treatment*(other race)	0.64 (0.73)	1.90 (2.27)	0.83 (1.88)	3.89 (4.51)	-0.62 (1.24)	0.12 (1.08)
Family poverty risk ^a	0.17 (0.13)	0.18 (0.27)	0.08 (0.37)	0.60 (0.57)	-0.37+ (0.20)	0.04 (0.17)
Treatment*(Poverty risk ^a)	-0.12 (0.18)	-0.26 (0.38)	0.14 (0.53)	-0.69 (0.80)	0.92** (0.27)	0.02 (0.23)
Fall total BPI risk	1.25** (0.21)	3.48** (0.45)	2.66** (0.47)	7.57** (0.96)	0.76* (0.32)	0.79** (0.27)
Single parent	0.21 (0.18)	0.60 (0.40)	0.55 (0.41)	1.62+ (0.84)	- -	- -
4+ children in household	0.17 (0.19)	-0.35 (0.41)	0.09 (0.43)	-1.17 (0.86)	- -	- -
Spanish speaking	-0.59* (0.29)	-1.04 (0.64)	-1.13+ (0.66)	-2.06 (1.35)	- -	- -
Teacher and class characteristics						
Teacher B.A.	0.01 (0.29)	0.77 (0.55)	0.35 (0.65)	2.05+ (1.16)	-0.17 (0.38)	-0.16 (0.32)
Teacher age	-0.01 (0.01)	0.00 (0.03)	-0.01 (0.03)	-0.04 (0.06)	-0.04* (0.02)	-0.00 (0.02)
Teacher K6 score	-0.17+ (0.09)	-0.15 (0.17)	-0.21 (0.20)	-0.30 (0.35)	0.01 (0.09)	-0.05 (0.08)
Teacher job demand	0.85** (0.27)	1.95** (0.53)	1.39* (0.61)	3.55** (1.10)	0.50 (0.33)	0.10 (0.28)
Teacher job control	0.66** (0.18)	0.94* (0.35)	1.45** (0.41)	2.07** (0.73)	-0.00 (0.23)	0.02 (0.19)
Behavior management	-1.24** (0.25)	-2.64** (0.49)	-2.40** (0.57)	-5.34** (1.04)	- -	- -
Teacher sensitivity	0.70* (0.32)	2.57** (0.63)	1.80* (0.74)	4.95** (1.32)	- -	- -
Negative climate	-0.79**	0.07	-1.45**	-0.52	-0.15	0.42+

	(0.21)	(0.41)	(0.48)	(0.86)	(0.28)	(0.24)
ECERS-R	-0.03	0.46	-0.25	0.39	-0.38	-0.22
	(0.27)	(0.53)	(0.61)	(1.10)	(0.32)	(0.27)
Class size	-0.29**	-0.73**	-1.01**	-1.50**	-0.09	0.05
	(0.07)	(0.13)	(0.16)	(0.28)	(0.09)	(0.08)
# adults in class	0.15	0.62	0.40	1.38	0.28	-0.32
	(0.22)	(0.42)	(0.51)	(0.86)	(0.27)	(0.24)
Site characteristics						
Family support worker	-0.89**	-1.62**	-1.98**	-3.49**	-0.36	-0.17
	(0.22)	(0.44)	(0.52)	(0.92)	(0.24)	(0.21)
# children aged 3-5	0.02**	0.03**	0.03**	0.06**	0.01+	0.00
	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.00)
% African Americans	1.00	1.23	1.24	2.66	1.12	0.07
	(0.71)	(1.48)	(1.61)	(3.02)	(0.80)	(0.69)
% teachers with BA	1.75*	2.47+	4.13*	3.85	0.79	0.89
	(0.58)	(1.13)	(1.35)	(2.36)	(0.76)	(0.69)
% TA with college	-2.37**	-3.94**	-4.12**	-5.98*	0.86	-1.16*
	(0.47)	(0.91)	(1.07)	(1.90)	(0.52)	(0.45)
% single families	0.16	1.93	2.48	5.34	-	-
	(1.02)	(2.05)	(2.48)	(4.09)	-	-
% families employed	1.97+	4.35*	3.56	7.79+	1.74	2.07+
	(0.98)	(1.87)	(2.24)	(3.88)	(1.18)	(1.02)
% families using TANF	0.29	1.63	0.88	3.99+	-	-
	(0.48)	(0.92)	(1.10)	(1.93)	-	-
<i>Constant</i>	4.78+	-0.35	13.33*	1.84	-0.36	-1.64
	(2.30)	(0.41)	(5.36)	(9.31)	(2.41)	(2.10)

Note. Standard errors in parentheses; + $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

^a Poverty related risk is an aggregate comprised of maternal; income, educational, use of public services as well as family assets.

Figure Captions

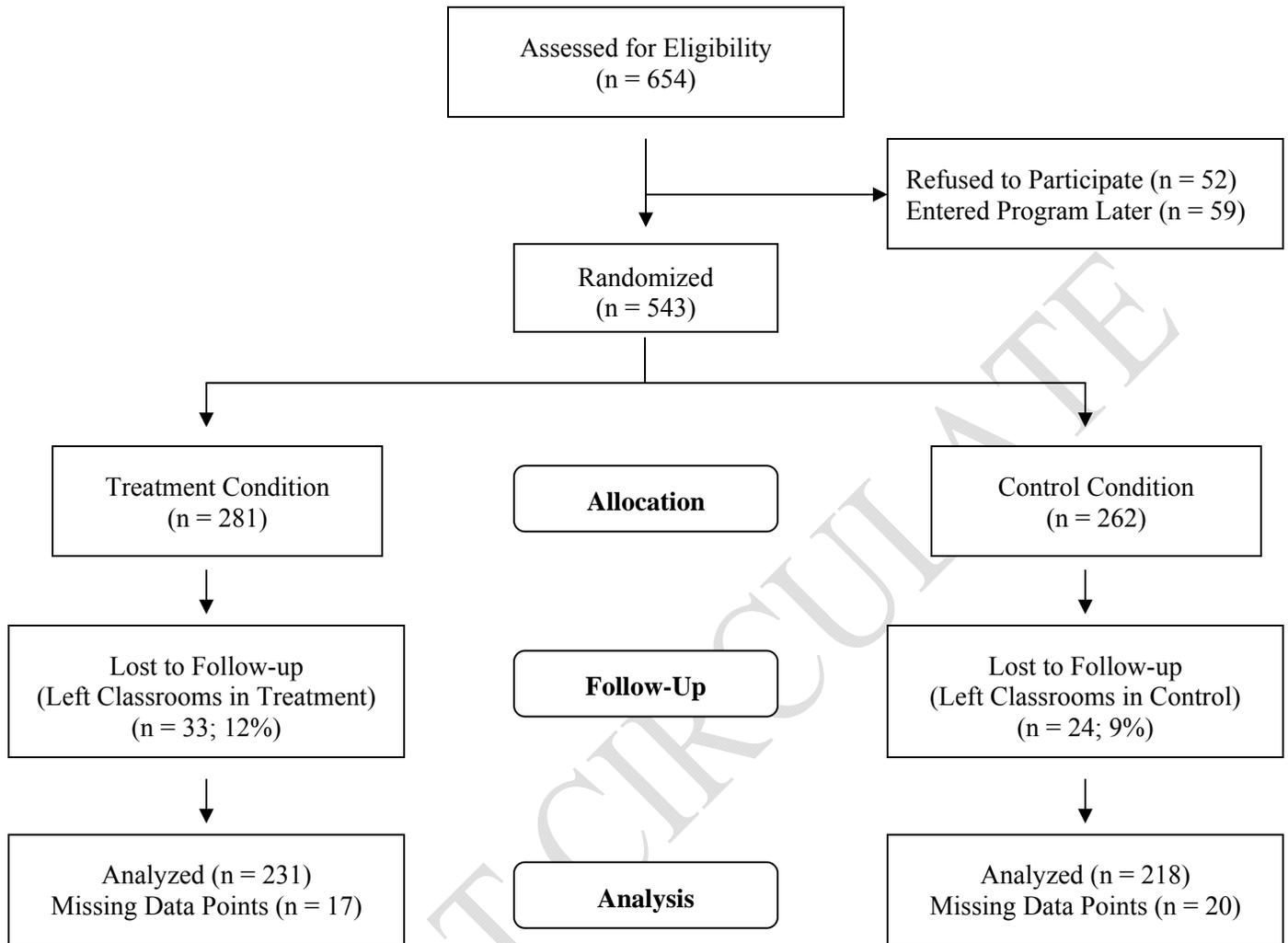
Figure 1. CSRP Participant Flow Chart

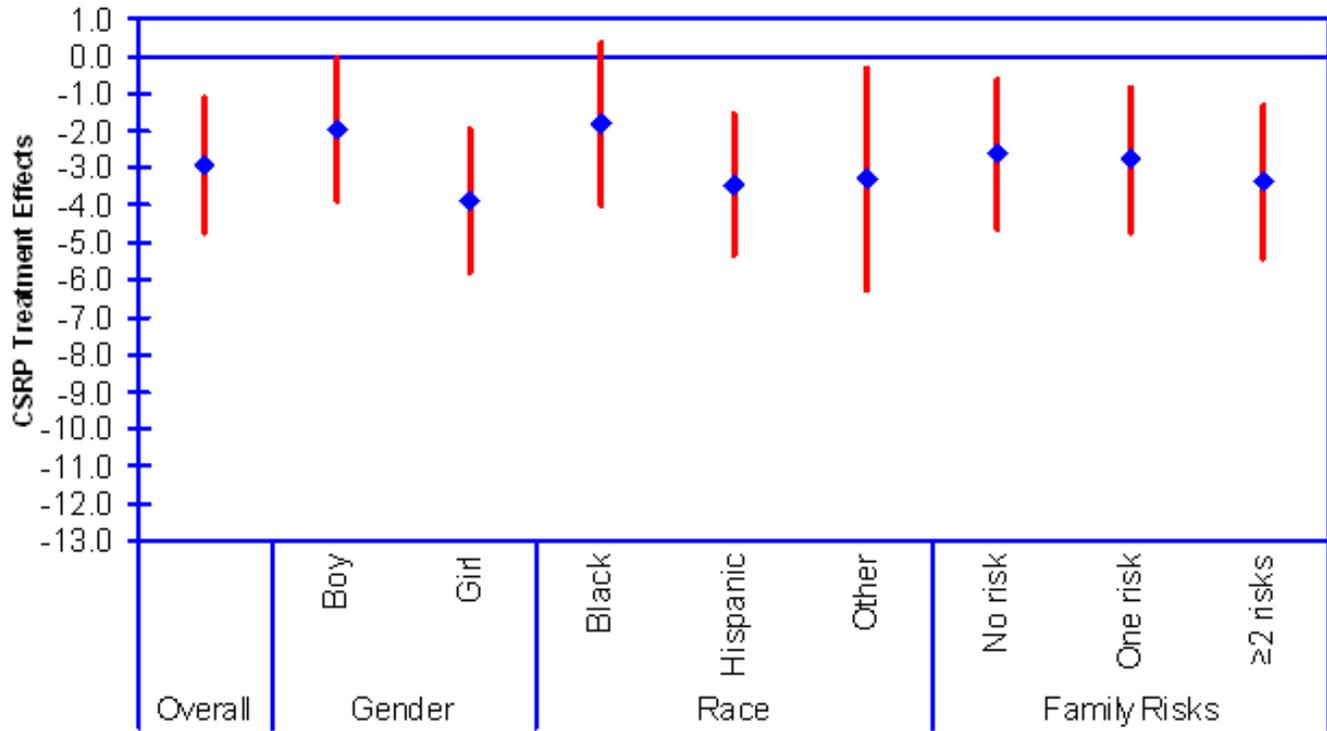
Figure 2. Effects of CSRP treatment on child BPI Externalizing scores

Figure 3. Effects of CSRP treatment on child PIPPS Disruption scores

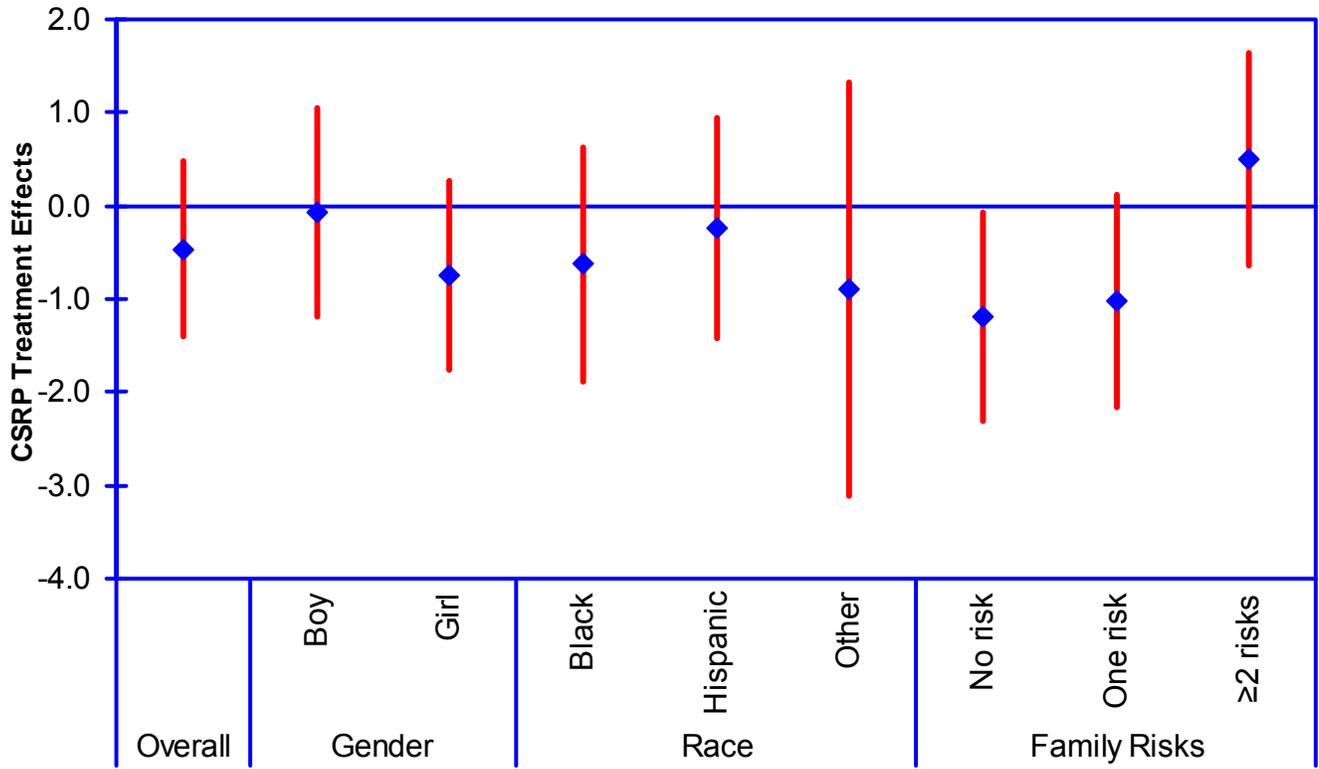
For Figures 2–3, see footnote 3.

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