All Theses and Dissertations

2017-04-01

The Social Validity of Online Parent Involvement in a School-based Social and Emotional Learning Program: WhyTry for Parents

Gina P. Hales
Brigham Young University

Follow this and additional works at: https://scholarsarchive.byu.edu/etd

Part of the Educational Leadership Commons

The Social Validity of Online Parent Involvement in a School-based Social and Emotional

Learning Program: Why Try for Parents

Gina P. Hales

A dissertation submitted to the faculty of
Brigham Young University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Sterling C. Hilton, Chair
Scott E. Ferrin
Julie M. Hite
Paul Caldarella
Brad R. Wilcox

Department of Educational Leadership & Foundations

Brigham Young University

ABSTRACT

The Social Validity of Online Parent Involvement in a School-based Social and Emotional
Learning Program: Why Try for Parents

Gina P. Hales
Department of Educational Leadership & Foundations, BYU
Doctor of Philosophy

Involving parents in school-based learning can be difficult for both schools and parents, and more innovative approaches to involving parents are needed. Internet-based programs have the potential to address barriers to parent participation, but more research is needed to determine the effectiveness and social validity of such programs. This study explored the social validity of WhyTry for Parents, an internet-based program for parents of students enrolled in WhyTry, a school-based social and emotional learning program for students in grades K through 12.

Eleven elementary, middle, and high schools across the United States participated in the study by inviting parents of WhyTry students to use the WhyTry for Parents curriculum. Whether or not parents utilized the curriculum, they were invited to take a survey about the importance they placed on the program's goals, procedures, and effects, and to give reasons for their level of participation in the program. A total of 836 parents were invited to take part in the study, and 14 parents made up the final sample. Coordinators (n = 10) of the WhyTry program at each school were invited to participate in interviews focused on their perspectives of parent participation rates and the WhyTry for Parents program.

Regardless of whether parents utilized the curriculum, they found a high degree of social validity in WhyTry for Parents; however, they suggested that the curriculum be simplified and made more accessible. WhyTry coordinators suggested that low participation rates were due to parent resistance, and that helping parents to understand WhyTry might help overcome this resistance. Parents and coordinators suggested that the curriculum be available by app to improve accessibility. Future research should explore the social validity of WhyTry for Parents from the perspective of educators, who implement the program at the school level. Studying the costs associated with internet-based parent programs for both schools and parents may also be prudent.

Keywords: social and emotional learning; social validity; parent participation; family involvement; internet-based parent training

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would first like to express my deepest appreciation to my committee chair, Dr. Sterling C. Hilton, for not allowing me to give up, and for his kindness, patience, and guidance throughout this long process. Without his encouragement and persistent help, I would not have completed this dissertation.

I would like to thank my committee members, Dr. Scott E. Ferrin, Dr. Julie M. Hite, Dr. Paul Caldarella, and Dr. Bradley R. Wilcox who were always willing and available to help me, and whose feedback helped make this dissertation a document that educators around the world can use as they engage in the crucial work of involving parents in their children's education and learning. In addition, I would like to thank to Dr. Clifford Mayes, who got me started in this process and provided abundant scholastic and personal assistance when I most needed it.

I am immensely grateful to my husband for his unwavering support, especially since he came on board after this journey had already begun. A special thanks to my parents (particularly my mother) who spent countless hours tending my daughter so that I would not have to choose between being a mother and completing my degree. I am also grateful for my young daughter, who does not yet understand that her presence in my life provided the necessary motivation to persist and complete this dissertation so that I would not have to tell her later in life that I gave up on my dreams because it was too difficult. Lastly, I would like to thank the many friends and family who encouraged me, comforted me, and provided support in many different forms throughout this process.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

DESCRIPTION OF DISSERTATION CONTENT AND STRUCTURE

This manuscript is presented in the format of the hybrid dissertation. The hybrid format focuses on producing a journal-ready manuscript, which is considered by the dissertation committee to be ready for submission for publication. Therefore, this dissertation does not have chapters in the traditional dissertation format. The manuscript focuses on the presentation of the scholarly article. This hybrid dissertation also includes appended materials. Appendix A includes an expanded literature review, and Appendix B includes an expanded methods section. Appendix C includes evidence of Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval. The first reference list contains references for citations included in the journal-ready article. The final reference list is at the end of this document and contains references for all citations included in the journal article and appendices.

The targeted journal for this dissertation article is the *Journal of Educational Psychology* (JEP) (Tier 1) (impact factor 3.256). The JEP publishes original, primary psychological research pertaining to education across all ages and education levels. Social and emotional learning (SEL) programs are often implemented in educational settings with K-12 students and are frequently utilized by psychologists and professionals in related fields. SEL research is often published in psychology journals and is of particular interest to those in psychology, counseling, and therapy fields. The target audience for the JEP is composed of both clinicians and practitioners in education. Articles submitted to the JEP are subject to a masked review policy, similar to double-blind peer review, in which the identities of both authors and reviewers are unknown. The journal does not have a page or word limit for manuscript submission.

Introduction

Student learning and success are often associated with academic outcomes such as grades and test scores, while the social and emotional aspects of learning are frequently overlooked (Belfield et al., 2015). Emotions and relationships influence how students learn, what they learn, and how they use what they learn (Zins & Elias, 2007). It is therefore important that students learn how to regulate their emotions and manage their relationships with others. Poor impulse regulation interferes with attention and memory and also contributes to disruptive behaviors, while effective management of emotions and relationships can generate an active interest in learning and sustain students' engagement ("Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning," n.d.).

In order for students to meet various challenges and become successful both academically and personally, they must learn and cultivate positive social-emotional skills (Marshall & Price, 2007). Social and emotional learning (SEL) is the process through which people acquire the attitudes, knowledge, and skills necessary to build healthy relationships and effectively manage their emotions. In contrast, character development and moral education are focused on values and the power of *right thinking* and *knowing the good* (Elias, Parker, Kash, Weissberg, & O'Brien, 2008; Elias, Weissberg, Frey, Greenberg, & Haynes, 1997; Huitt, 2004). SEL begins at home in early childhood (Bierman & Motamedi, 2015), but is also acquired and cultivated in other environments where children spend a lot of time, such as school.

The well-established structure of schools and the ability of school personnel to facilitate learning make schools an obvious choice for social and emotional skills training. Schools have been identified as "an important if not central arena for health promotion, primary prevention, and intervention services to adolescents in addition to the education of students" (Roeser, Eccles,

& Sameroff, 2000, p. 467). School leaders have increasingly been implementing SEL programs as intervention services for students with identified academic, behavioral, or emotional needs, as well as schoolwide prevention programs that are designed to help all students develop and maintain positive social-emotional skills. These programs have reported both short- and long-term benefits to students, including improved social skills and prosocial behaviors, a reduction in conduct problems and anti-social behavior, decreased emotional distress, and improved test scores, grades, and school attendance (Durlak, Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor, & Schellinger, 2011; Hawkins, Kosterman, Catalano, Hill, & Abbott, 2008; Sklad, Diekstra, Ritter, Ben, & Gravesteijn, 2012). If schools wish to be truly effective in the social-emotional training of students, however, SEL programs should include other relevant developmental contexts of the youth, including the home (Rones & Hoagwood, 2000; Weissberg, Kumpfer, & Seligman, 2003).

In order to effectively promote SEL across developmental contexts, it would be prudent for families and schools to work together to provide continuous opportunity for skill development in the two settings where children spend most of their time (Albright & Weissberg, 2010). The benefits of involving parents in their children's school-based scholastic learning are well-documented, and include better academic performance, fewer behavior problems, and higher rates of graduation (Elias, Gager, & Leon, 1997). When parents are involved in the SEL learning of their children, the benefits extend beyond the classroom and include lower rates of delinquent behavior (Hawkins, Kosterman, Catalano, Hill, & Abbott, 2005), improved emotional regulation (Reid, Webster-Stratton, & Hammond, 2007), and suppression of aggressive behaviors (Cooke et al., 2007). Clearly, parent involvement in school-based programs enables students to "succeed not only in school but throughout their lives" (Henderson & Berla, 1994, p. 1).

School leaders, however, have been hesitant to reach out to parents for a variety of reasons, including demands on staff's time and limited resources (Stormshak, Dishion, & Falkenstein, 2010). Parents have also been hesitant to participate due to issues with transportation, childcare, and scheduling conflicts (Altschul, 2011; Dumas, Nissley-Tsiopinis, & Moreland, 2007; Heinrichs, Bertram, Kuschel, & Hahlweg, 2005; Orrell-Valente et al., 1999). When seeking parent involvement in school-based programs, it is important to consider the issues faced by schools and parents. Traditional methods for involving parents and families, such as the expectation for parents to attend face-to-face groups or to participate in multiple phone calls, may no longer be realistic, and new, more innovative ways to involve parents must be explored.

Effectiveness and Social Validity of Internet-based Parent Programs

One method that has the potential to address the issues that face both educators and parents is asynchronous, internet-based parent involvement. This type of involvement allows parents to receive program information, participate in asynchronous discussions with other parents, and practice skills with their children online. Parents can participate based on their own timetables rather than requiring them to attend regularly scheduled parent groups or participate in regularly scheduled phone calls. Because internet-based parent programs are relatively new, more research is needed to establish the effectiveness and social validity of such programs. Effectiveness studies of internet-based parent programs in clinical settings have produced promising results in regards to substance use (Schinke, Fang, & Cole, 2009), obesity (Mackert, Kahlor, Tyler, & Gustafson, 2009), cancer (Askins et al., 2009), and traumatic brain injury (Wade, Carey, & Wolfe, 2006; Wade, Oberjohn, Burkhardt, & Greenberg, 2009).

Research regarding the effectiveness of internet-based SEL programs is not prominent in the literature, but the results suggest that these programs may increase parent knowledge (Bert, Farris, & Borkowski, 2008; Schinke et al., 2009) in addition to improving parent attitudes and enhancing parenting skills (Baggett et al., 2010; Calam, Sanders, Miller, Sadhnani, & Carmont, 2008; Schinke et al., 2009; Wade et al., 2006, 2009). The social validity of internet-based parent programs, however, has not yet been explored. Social validity and the buy-in of stakeholders is vital to the success of programs, but it is often overlooked (Marchant, Heath, & Miramontes, 2013). In order for programs to be truly effective they must be realistic, acceptable, and relevant to consumers--in other words, they must have social validity.

The term *social validity* was coined by Wolf (1978) and refers to the assessment of the social significance of program goals, the social importance of the effects, and the social acceptability of the procedures (Gresham & Lopez, 1996; Kazdin, 1977; Wolf, 1978). Gresham and Lopez (1996) suggested that when research and practice are guided by the principles of social validity, "services are more relevant and consumable to consumers by targeting socially significant behaviors using socially acceptable procedures which produce socially important effects" (p. 205). Effective assessment of social validity should include an evaluation of the importance and acceptability of the program's goals, effects, and procedures (Howell, Caldarella, Korth, & Young, 2014). The current study endeavored to explore the social validity of WhyTry for Parents, an online resource for parents of students enrolled in the WhyTry program.

Description of WhyTry and WhyTry for Parents

WhyTry is a multisensory program designed to build resilience in children by enhancing their social-emotional learning and development ("WhyTry: Resilience Education," 2011). The WhyTry curriculum is designed for students in grades K through 12 and consists of 10 units

designed to teach students how to effectively manage emotions, make responsible decisions, problem-solve, and build positive relationships. Each unit utilizes a separate visual analogy to "teach social and emotional principles to youth in a way they can understand and remember" ("Taking SEL to the next level: The WhyTry Program," 2017). The WhyTry program is used in more than 2,000 schools and institutions throughout the United States, Canada, and the United Kingdom. Many of these institutions collect and report data regarding the outcomes of WhyTry implementation in various settings. This data has shown WhyTry to be effective in decreasing aggressive behaviors (Acuna, Vega, Meza, Marqez, & Vera, 2008; Baker, 2008; Gee, 2003; Wilhite & Bullock, 2012), producing positive changes in anxiety and depression (Baker, 2008; Wilhite & Bullock, 2012), and improving social-emotional competencies (Bird, 2010). No studies regarding the social validity of the WhyTry program have been completed, nor have there been any studies regarding parent involvement with the program.

WhyTry for Parents is an online resource for parents of students enrolled in the WhyTry program that teaches parents the skills their children are learning, gives them a forum to share ideas with other parents, and encourages parents to talk to their children about SEL skills. The curriculum consists of one introductory unit, plus 10 units based on each of the visual analogies contained in the WhyTry program. Each unit utilizes the same teaching philosophy espoused by the WhyTry program, namely using music, videos, discussions, and activities to capture the parents' attention and bolster their learning. Each unit is made up of four different sections: watch, share, discuss, and practice.

The *watch* section contains a short written explanation and a visual walk-through of the analogy. These explanations are included to help parents understand the analogy without relying on their children's explanations alone, or needing to attend a WhyTry group. The *share* section

encourages parents to share music, video clips, or any other type of media related to the analogy, which is one of the ways their children learn in the WhyTry program. The *discuss* section contains one or two questions meant to start a discussion among parents about the main concept of each unit, and parents are encouraged to think about how they can help their children apply these concepts. The *practice* section contains a suggested activity parents can do with their children that relates to the main concept of each unit. This section was intended to reinforce both student and parent learning and facilitate parent-child communication.

In addition to the online curriculum, parents received an email every two weeks from a WhyTry trainer. This email contained a reminder to login and participate in WhyTry for Parents, along with one or two URL links for popular music, news stories, or YouTube videos that related to one of the 10 visual analogies. The primary reason for this email was to encourage parents to log in and participate, as well as to provide them with examples of media they could share with others.

This study set out to examine the social validity of WhyTry for Parents from the perspective of parents. The goals, effects, and procedures, of WhyTry for Parents are outlined in Figure 1 and are described in detail in the following paragraphs.

Goals, Effects, and Procedures of WhyTry for Parents

Both WhyTry and WhyTry for Parents aspire to improve students' SEL skills, but each program employs different goals and strategies to accomplish this task. In this study, a program goal is the direct impact that a program hopes to make, and a program effect is the eventual outcome that is anticipated to occur once the program goal has been achieved. The goal of the WhyTry program is to improve student SEL skills and core competencies by working directly
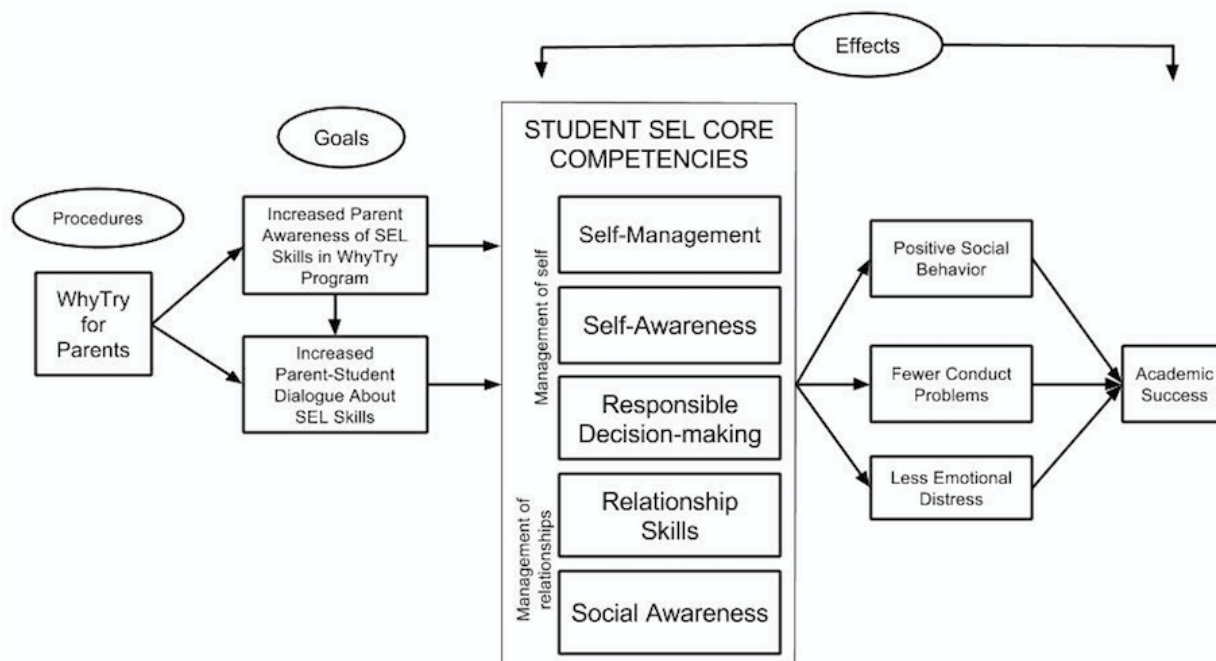
Figure 1. The goals, effects, and procedures of WhyTry for Parents

with students on these skills. WhyTry for Parents, on the other hand, is not directly focused on improving student SEL skills. Instead, it focuses on getting parents involved in the SEL training of their children, ideally leading to an improvement in student SEL skills.

The specific goals of WhyTry for Parents are two-fold: (a) to increase parents' awareness of the SEL skills demonstrated in the WhyTry program; and (b) to increase parent-student dialogue regarding these skills. Once these goals are achieved, the anticipated effect is that students will be more competent in their SEL skills, which will help them display more positive social behaviors, have fewer conduct problems, experience less emotional distress, and have improved academic success. Program procedures are the steps or actions employed by a program to achieve its goals and effects, and the procedures of WhyTry for Parents can be found in its curriculum.

Research Questions

Three research questions guided this study:

1. What are the perceptions of parents regarding the importance of the goals, the significance of the effects, and the acceptability of the procedures of WhyTry for Parents?

2. What reasons did parents give for their level of participation in WhyTry for Parents?

3. What do participating and non-participating parents believe should be changed to improve WhyTry for Parents?

Method

The following section contains the methods used to recruit schools, WhyTry coordinators, and parents to participate in the study. A description of the methods used to collect and analyze the data are also included in this section.

Participants

In order to gain access to parents of students receiving WhyTry, the recruitment process was coordinated through the WhyTry organization and was completed in two stages. The first stage involved recruiting schools who were utilizing the WhyTry program with students, and the second stage involved contacting the parents at each of these schools and inviting them to participate in the study.

Recruitment of schools. Three strategies were used to recruit schools over the course of two school years. The first strategy involved sending an email to educators at each school in the WhyTry database inviting them to become involved in a study of an online parent program. Next, the invitation was extended via general announcement posted to the company's website.

The final strategy included a personal invitation from the lead researcher to a WhyTry group that was known to utilize the WhyTry program with school-aged students.

A total of 78 schools across the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom, and the Philipines indicated that they would be interested in participating in the study. In order to be eligible, schools were required to be implementing a WhyTry group with school-aged students (K-12) during the time of the study and have a formally trained WhyTry coordinator who was willing to aid in data collection. A total of 45 schools met the eligibility criteria (see Table 1). Letters of authorization to participate in the study were received from 14 schools. Upon receipt of letters of authorization, these 14 schools were enrolled in the study, 11 of which attempted to collect data from parents. Participating schools came from across the United States: five in western states, four in southern states, one in the Midwest, and one in the Northeast.

Table 1

Number of Schools and Parents Invited to Participate in WhyTry for Parents

Schools Invited	Number of Schools	Number of Parent Invitations
Interested schools	78	--
Eligible schools	45	--
Received authorization	14	--
Attempted data collection	11	836

Only one school that participated in the study offered WhyTry as part of a prevention program. Because the prevention program was school-wide, each parent in the school (n = 574) received an invitation to participate, which accounted for 68% of all parent invitations (see Table 2). The other 10 schools utilized WhyTry in small groups or with individual students as part of an intervention program, and a total of 262 invitations were extended to the parents of these students. Nine secondary and two elementary schools were included in data collection; however,

Table 2

Number of Schools and Parent Invitations by Educational Stage of Schools and Purpose of WhyTry Program

Type of school and program	Number of Schools	Number of Parent Invitations
Elementary Schools		
Prevention	1	574
Intervention	1	11
Secondary Schools		
Prevention	0	0
Intervention	9	251

because one of the elementary schools used WhyTry as a school-wide prevention program, the majority of parents who were invited to participate (70%) had students in elementary school.

Recruitment of parents. WhyTry coordinators distributed letters to all parents of students receiving WhyTry at their schools. Letters were delivered in one of three ways: via U.S. mail, sent home with the student, or delivered by the WhyTry coordinator. The parent letter contained an explanation of the WhyTry program, a paragraph about the importance of parent involvement in school-based programming, and an invitation to participate in a study evaluating WhyTry for Parents. Parents were informed that if they completed four assignments by the end of the school year, they would be invited to share their opinions regarding the online parent curriculum and would be compensated for their efforts with a $20 gift card. (Parents who completed these requirements will be referred to as *participating parents* for the remainder of this article.) If they chose not to participate in the study by not completing four assignments, parents were invited to take a shorter survey that would be provided electronically or via U.S. mail, and they would be compensated with a $5 gift card. (These parents will be referred to as *non-participating parents* for the remainder of this article.)

Over the two-year recruitment period, 836 parents were invited to take part in the study; however, only 9% (n = 79) agreed to participate and enrolled in the study. Of those who were enrolled, 71% (n = 56) did not log in to the parent website, 10% (n = 8) logged in at least one time but did not complete any assignments, and 11% (n = 9) completed at least one assignment but less than the four assignments required to take the participating parent survey. Less than 8% (n = 6) of enrolled parents completed four assignments; all six of these parents took the participating parent survey.

All of the enrolled parents (n = 73) who agreed to participate but did not complete four assignments (and therefore did not qualify to take the participating parent survey) were contacted twice by email and invited to take the non-participating parent survey. (The parents who did not respond to the initial invitation to participate in the study (n = 757) received no reminders to take the non-participating parent survey.) A total of eight (11%) of the invited parents took the non-participating parent survey; three of them had logged into WhyTry for Parents at least one time but did not complete four assignments. Fourteen parents made up the final sample, and a summary of their demographic information is found in Table 3.

Overall, most parent respondents were Caucasian (87%) and female (87%). All parents who completed four assignments and took the participating parent survey were Caucasian females. Slightly more racial and gender diversity was apparent among non-participating parents, with two members of racial minority groups and two male respondents. In general, non-participating parents were younger than participating parents, with 75% of non-participating parents in the lowest age bracket, as compared to 33% of participating parents. Participating parents reported higher levels of education than non-participating parents. All participating parents completed at least some college, with 67% completing a college degree. In

Table 3

Respondents' Race, Gender, Age, Education, and Relation to Student

Demographics	Participating Parents (n=6)	Non-participating Parents (n=8)
Race		
Caucasian	6	6
Other	0	2
Gender		
Male	0	2
Female	6	6
Age		
25 to 44	2	6
45 to 54	2	1
55+	2	1
Education		
High School or less	0	3
Some college	2	1
Bachelor degree	3	2
Graduate degree	1	2
Relation to Student		
Father	0	2
Mother	5	5
Guardian	1	1

contrast, 38% of non-participating parents had a high school diploma or less, with only 50% having completed a college degree.

Data Collection

Data for this study was provided by parents of WhyTry students and by WhyTry coordinators. Parents completed one of two surveys, and WhyTry coordinators participated in interviews. A detailed explanation of each measure is explained below.

Parent surveys. In order to examine parent perspectives regarding the social validity of the online parent curriculum, respondents completed a survey designed by the primary researcher

to assess their perceptions of the goals, effects, and procedures of WhyTry for Parents. The surveys were constructed based on a social validity survey developed by Howell et al. (2014), the Social and Emotional Assets and Resilience Scales (SEARS) (Merrell, 2011), and the suggestions of Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007) regarding educational research. Survey items assessed the three domains of social validity: (a) the importance of program goals; (b) the significance of program effects; and (c) the acceptability of program procedures. The surveys were available online using a website that specializes in designing and administering online surveys. Paper copies of each survey were also available upon request, and two non-participating parents utilized the paper version.

Because participating and non-participating parents had differing levels of experience with the parent curriculum, two different versions of the survey were administered. Each survey contained identical demographic questions, had a series of open-ended questions, and utilized the same 5-point Likert scale, where *Strongly Disagree* received a score of 1, *Disagree* a score of 2, *Neutral* a score of 3, *Agree* a score of 4, and *Strongly Agree* a score of 5. However, the number of items on each survey was quite different.

Participating parents responded to a 41-item survey designed to assess their perception of the program's goals, effects, and procedures. Using a Likert scale, 36 survey items were administered with eight items designed to assess the importance of program goals (four items for each goal), 13 items designed to assess the importance of program effects (seven items for self-management and six items for management of relationships with others), and 15 items designed to assess the acceptability of program procedures (three survey items for each of the four sections in the curriculum, and three items for overall acceptability of procedures). This survey included five open-ended questions regarding what they liked and disliked about the parent

curriculum, the main reason they chose to participate, the main reason they did not complete more assignments, and an invitation to write about anything else they wanted to communicate. WhyTry and WhyTry for Parents are only available in English; therefore, the survey for participating parents was available only in English.

Non-participating parents responded to an eight-item survey designed to assess their perspectives regarding the WhyTry program's goals and effects. Five survey items were administered using a Likert scale, with two items designed to assess parent perspectives regarding importance of program goals (one item for each goal) and three items designed to assess the importance of program effects (two items for self-management and one item for management of relationships with others). Because non-participating parents did not have sufficient knowledge of the curriculum, there were no survey items related to program procedures. In addition to Likert scale items, the survey included three open-ended questions regarding why they chose not to participate in WhyTry for Parents, what would motivate them to participate, and an invitation to write about anything else they wanted to communicate. Surveys for non-participating parents were available in English and in Spanish; however, no Spanish surveys were returned.

Coordinator interviews. In response to the low rate of parent participation in the study and in order to gain insight into the vast majority of parents who did participate, online and telephone interviews were conducted with WhyTry coordinators who assisted in data collection. Most coordinators had direct contact with parents and could share their perceptions regarding possible reasons so many parents chose not to participate. Ten coordinators assisted with parent recruitment and data collection (the lead researcher coordinated recruitment efforts and data collection at the eleventh school), and each of the coordinators was invited to participate in an

online group interview, along with a personal phone interview. Ultimately, seven coordinators signed consent forms and participated in the interview process.

Among the participating coordinators were two special education teachers, two mental health clinicians, two school social workers, and one school counselor. All seven coordinators implemented WhyTry as an intervention program: six in secondary schools, and one in an elementary school. One participating coordinator utilized WhyTry in individual counseling, and the other six coordinators utilized the program in small groups.

Coordinators were asked a series of open-ended questions designed to elicit their opinions and observations regarding parent participation and WhyTry for Parents. Questions included: What do parents know about WhyTry and WhyTry for Parents? What are the reasons parents did not participate? What would you do to increase parent participation? What are your views about online parent participation? How do you think the WhyTry for Parents curriculum could be improved?

Data Analysis

An analysis of parent responses to Likert scale items addressed the first research question regarding the social validity of the goals, effects, and procedures of WhyTry for Parents. Multiple survey items corresponded to each goal, each effect, and each procedure. These items were summed and averaged to obtain an individual parent's overall score for each goal, effect, and procedure. Means and standard deviations for all participating parents and all non-participating parents were then calculated and used to describe the results. For this study, mean scores between 4.5 and 5 indicated a strong agreement with survey items and provided clear evidence of social validity, scores from 3.8 to 4.5 indicated a moderate agreement with survey items and evidence of moderate social validity, and scores below 3.8 indicated neutral parent

responses. A two-sample *t*-test compared the means between participating and non-participating parents and Cohen's d was used to measure whether the effect size for each program goal and effect was large (0.8), moderate (0.5) or small (0.2) (Cohen, 1988).

Parents' responses to open-ended survey items and coordinators' responses to interview questions provided qualitative data that addressed research questions two and three regarding reasons for parents' levels of participation and their suggestions for program improvement. NVivo software was used to identify concepts and themes in parent and coordinator responses during open coding, and peer debriefing was also used to ensure the validity of identified codes and themes. Themes in the qualitative data were established if more than 50% of a respondent group indicated a specific concept or issue. Axial coding was used to explore relationships between themes as well as between themes and participant demographics.

Results

The study's findings came from one of two sources: parent responses to survey items or WhyTry coordinator responses to interview questions. Parent and coordinator responses were analyzed separately, and the results are described in detail in the following paragraphs.

Results of Parent Responses to Survey Items

Findings regarding each research question are described below and include data regarding (a) the social validity of WhyTry for Parents, (b) reasons parents chose not to participate or complete more assignments, and (c) suggested improvements. There were 14 parent respondents in the final sample for this study, six participating parents and eight non-participating parents. Twelve of the respondents took part during the 2014-15 school year, and two respondents took part in the 2015-16 school year. In order to preserve the confidential nature of the survey, parents were not required to identify the schools their children attended;

therefore, it is not possible to identify whether their children participated in a prevention program or an intervention program. Identified themes were consistent across respondents' race, level of education, age, and gender.

Social validity of WhyTry for Parents. Parent responses to Likert scale items on each survey indicated a high level of social validity for the goals and effects of WhyTry for Parents, while the procedures had a moderate level of social validity. A detailed analysis of the data regarding the goals, effects, and procedures is provided below.

The importance parents placed on the two goals of WhyTry for Parents was measured using eight Likert scale items on the participating parent survey and two Likert scale items on the non-participating survey. These items evaluated the importance parents placed on the two goals of WhyTry for Parents: being aware of the SEL skills illustrated by the WhyTry program and parent-student dialogue surrounding SEL skills and principles. Mean scores ranged from 4.3 to 4.9 on a 5-point scale (see Table 4), indicating that parents agreed or strongly agreed with survey statements about the importance of each goal. For both sets of parents, dialogue regarding SEL skills appeared to be slightly more important than parent awareness of SEL skills, as evidenced by slightly higher mean scores. In addition, participating parents—who had utilized the WhyTry for Parents curriculum--had slightly higher means for each goal. As would be expected with a small sample size, no statistically significant difference was found between the means of participating and non-participating parents. However, goal one had a medium effect size suggesting that participation in WhyTry for Parents had a moderate effect on parents' perspectives regarding increased parent awareness of SEL skills, while goal two had a small effect size suggesting that participation in WhyTry for Parents had little effect on parents' perspectives regarding increased parent-student dialogue.

Table 4

Two Sample T-Test of Importance of Goals and Effects by Level of Parent Participation

Importance of Program Goals & Effects	Participating Parents (n=6) Mean* (s.d.)	Non-participating Parents (n=8) Mean* (s.d.)	p value	Cohen's d
Goals				
Awareness of SEL	4.7 (0.44)	4.3 (0.90)	0.28	0.56
Increase dialogue	4.9 (0.14)	4.8 (0.71)	0.64	0.19
Effects				
Self-management	5.0 (0.00)	4.8 (0.54)	0.39	0.52
Relationship skills	4.8 (0.20)	4.8 (0.71)	0.92	0.00

*Mean scores based on Likert scale where 1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral/Not sure, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly agree

The importance that parents placed on the program effects for their children's self-management and relationship skills was measured using parent responses to 13 items on the participating parent survey and three items on the non-participating parent survey. Mean scores ranged from 4.8 to 5, indicating that both sets of parents strongly agreed with the importance of each effect. While no statistically significant differences were found between the means, patterns in the data suggest that participating parents found self-management skills slightly more important than relationship skills, as evidenced by a slightly higher mean. Non-participating parents found the effects equally important. Participation in WhyTry for Parents had a moderate effect on parents' perceptions of the importance of self-management and there was no effect for parents' perceptions of the importance of relationship skills.

Parent responses to 13 items on the participating parent survey were used to measure the acceptability of the program procedures. Because non-participating parents had little or no experience with the online curriculum, only participating parents responded to survey items regading procedures. Participating parent responses indicated a weak to moderate degree of social validity for program procedures. One survey item assessed overall usability and received

a mean score just above neutral (3.5). In addition, parents were asked to respond to three items

for each section of the online curriculum (watch, share, discuss, and practice) in order to measure

whether parents found each section to be enjoyable, worthwhile, and useable. Mean scores and

standard deviations for each section are found in Table 5.

Table 5

Acceptability of Procedures by Level of Parent Participation

Procedure Section	Participating Parents (n=6) Mean* (s.d.)	Non-participating Parents (n=8) Mean* (s.d.)
Overall usability	3.5 (0.55)	--
Watch section	4.3 (0.42)	--
Share section	3.2 (0.96)	--
Discuss section	3.8 (0.35)	--
Practice section	3.9 (0.69)	--

*Mean scores based on Likert scale where 1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree,
3=Neutral/Not sure, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly agree

The *watch* section of WhyTry for Parents contained a short video explaining the overall

purpose of each unit in order to help parents understand what their children were learning in

WhyTry. This section had a moderate level of social validity with all scores between agree and

strongly agree, resulting in a mean score of 4.3. This finding was the highest mean score in the

procedures section. In addition, parents agreed that this section was enjoyable, worthwhile, and

usable, as the means for each of these sub-items was above 4.

The *share* section encouraged parents to share media with other parents that related to

each unit, just as their children did in the WhyTry program. With a mean score of 3.2, this

section received the lowest mean score, indicating the least social validity. Parents were neutral

about whether sharing media was enjoyable, worthwhile, or usable as indicated by mean scores

just above neutral (3.2) for each sub-item.

The *discuss* section attempted to create an online community that allowed parents to discuss what they were learning and to share ideas with each other. The mean score was 3.8, indicating that parents were between neutral and agree for each item in this section, suggesting a moderate level of social validity. Parents agreed that the discussions were somewhat enjoyable, worthwhile, and usable, as indicated by mean sub-scores at or just below 4.

In the *practice* section, parents were asked to do a short activity with their children to increase interaction and dialogue surrounding WhyTry. The mean score was 3.8, indicating a moderate level of social validity. The mean scores for each sub-item in this section indicated that parents agreed that the activities were enjoyable (4.0) and worthwhile (4.2) but were more neutral about the usability (3.5).

Reasons parents chose not to participate. Participating parents responded to three Likert scale items and one open-ended question regarding reasons they did not complete more assignments in WhyTry for Parents, and non-participating parents answered four Likert-scale items and one open-ended question regarding why they chose not to participate in the program (or not complete the four required assignments) (see Table 6). Both sets of parents agreed that issues of time were a factor in completion of WhyTry for Parents assignments and slightly disagreed that issues with internet access limited their completion of assignments. In addition, participating parents clearly disagreed that their completion of more assignments was affected by a belief that the content was not useful. Non-participating parents disagreed that their extent of completion of assignments was affected by a belief that the school was responsible for teaching life skills to students or that their children did not need the help offered by the WhyTry program. As would be expected with a small sample size, no statistically significant differences were found between the means of participating and non-participating parents. The effect size for

parent responses to survey items related to *lack of time* and *poor internet access*, calculated using Cohen's d, resulted in small effect sizes indicating whether parents believed they had adequate time or the appropriate internet access required to participate in WhyTry for Parents had little effect on the level of parent participation.

Table 6

Reasons Parents Chose Not to Complete More WhyTry Assignments by Level of Participation

Reason	Participating Parents (n=6) Mean* (s.d.)	Non-participating Parents (n=8) Mean* (s.d.)	p value	Cohen''s d
Lack of time	3.8 (0.98)	3.6 (1.19)	0.73	0.18
Poor internet access	2.8 (1.17)	2.6 (1.30)	0.78	0.16
Content not useful	1.5 (0.55)	--	--	--
School is responsible	--	1.8 (0.71)	--	--
Child does not need help	--	2.0 (0.76)	--	--

*Mean scores based on Likert scale where 1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral/Not sure, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly agree

Responses of participating parents to open-ended survey questions supported the results of the Likert scale survey items (see Table 6) that suggested that a lack of time limited their completion of program assignments. Lack of time was the leading reason for limited participation in parent responses to Likert scale items and open-ended questions. More participating parents (67%) than non-participating parents (38%) indicated that their time was limited due to other responsibilities (such as work and caring for children) or that the program required too much time (see Table 7). In addition to issues of time, participating parents (50%) indicated that poor usability (the ease and learnability of the curriculum) affected their level of participation, reporting that confusing and unclear procedures discouraged their use of the curriculum. Non-participating parents (50%) reported that poor accessibility (the ability to access and use the curriculum) was an issue, stating that they either did not know about the

opportunity to participate in WhyTry for Parents (and therefore could not access the materials) or that they did not have access to the technology that was necessary to participate (such as a computer or reliable internet access). Problems with accessibility were not a theme in participating parents' responses.

Table 7

Open-ended Parent Responses Regarding Reasons for Completing or Not Completing Assignments

Topic	Themes	Participating Parents (n=6)	Non-participating Parents (n=8)	Associated Concepts
Reasons parents completed assignments	Strengthen relationship with child	100%	0%	Wanted to help child; wanted to use concepts at home
	Gain a better understanding of child	67%	0%	Trying to help; learn how to communicate with teen
	Child requested parent participation	17%	0%	Son requested
	Desire to know what child learned in WhyTry	17%	0%	Know what child learned in classroom
Reasons parents did not complete assignments	Lack of time	67%	25%	Other responsibilities (school, work, children)
	Poor usability	50%	25%	Unclear instructions; confusing site navigation
	Poor accessibility	0%	50%	No knowledge of program; poor internet connection

In their open-ended responses, participating parents offered reasons that they chose to utilize the online parent curriculum. They all (100%) indicated that the choice to participate was influenced by their relationship with the child enrolled in WhyTry. Within this theme, parents indicated that they (a) hoped WhyTry for Parents would help them to better understand and assist

their children, (b) participated at the request of the child, and (c) wanted to understand what her child was learning in WhyTry.

Suggested improvements to WhyTry for Parents. Parents made suggestions for improvements to the WhyTry for Parents curriculum in their open-ended responses to survey items. Improved usability was a theme for participating parents, with three of them (50%) suggesting that the website's navigation be improved and the instructions clarified, which aligned with reasons of poor usability that these parents gave for not completing more assignments.

While not representative themes, parents made two relevant suggestions for improving WhyTry for Parents. Both a participating and a non-participating parent suggested making the program available by mobile app which would allow parents to more easily access program materials on their mobile devices and improve the program's usability. Another suggestion by two non-participating parents was that communication from the school regarding WhyTry for Parents could be improved by providing parents with more program information and reminders to participate.

Results of WhyTry Coordinator Interviews

Open and axial coding were used to analyze coordinator responses to interview questions and to identify concepts and themes in the data (see Table 8). Identified themes were consistent across the different positions coordinators held at their respective schools and across the age group of WhyTry students being served (elementary and secondary). Each coordinator who participated in the interview process utilized WhyTry as an intervention program; therefore, coordinator responses may not be representative of those who run prevention programs.

Table 8

Coordinator Responses Regarding Parent Knowledge, Low Parent Participation, and Suggested Improvements

Topic	Themes	Examples of Responses
Parent knowledge of WhyTry	Parents received program information (100%)	Given information by face-to-face meetings, emails, or letter
	Insufficient knowledge (100%)	Parents do not know anything about program; no retention of or have forgotten what information they were given
	Parents believe WhyTry is a motivational class to help children improve behaviors (71%)	Parents do not know the details of the class; parents only know WhyTry teaches their children better behaviors
Reasons parent participation was low	Parent resistance (100%)	No compelling reason to participate; see it as the school or child's problem (not theirs); traditionally not involved with child; lack of confidence that it will work; defensiveness
	Lack of time (86%)	Other responsibilities (work, children, school)
	Lack of accessibility (71%)	Issues with or lack of technology; did not know about the program; poor parent literacy
Suggested improvements	Improved communication (100%)	Ongoing communication; phone calls; school website; incorporate parent feedback; give parents better explanation of *WhyTry*
	Improved accessibility (100%)	Make it accessible by app; multimodal approach

Coordinators were specifically asked what knowledge parents had about the WhyTry program, and all coordinators (100%) expressed that most parents had very limited knowledge or understanding of WhyTry and WhyTry for Parents. They also suggested that most parents' understanding was limited to the belief that WhyTry was a motivational class to help their children improve behaviors. All WhyTry coordinators (100%) indicated that parents were given information about WhyTry and WhyTry for Parents, with four coordinators explicitly stating that

specific information about each program was given to the parents in a face-to-face meeting, and the other three coordinators indicating that parents received the information via email or letter. None of the coordinators, however, believed that the parents retained much (if any) of that information. All WhyTry coordinators (100%) indicated that parents were given information about WhyTry and WhyTry for Parents.

The most prevalent theme in coordinators' responses regarding the low rate of parent participation was a general resistance by parents to engage with WhyTry for Parents. All coordinators (100%) suggested that parent resistance was a factor in the lack of parent participation and frequently commented that parents resisted because they lacked a compelling reason to participate and did not buy-in to the program. Another reason coordinators gave as to why parents may have chosen not to engage with the parent curriculum was the time commitment required to participate, and suggested that these issues not only affected participation in WhyTry for Parents, but also affected participation in other school-sponsored activities and meetings. Lastly, coordinators (71%) indicated that poor program accessibility may have contributed to low parent participation, suggesting that many parents lacked the necessary technology to participate in an online parent program (such as reliable internet access and a working computer in the home).

All coordinators (100%) suggested that improving the communication between parents and coordinators regarding WhyTry for Parents may increase parent participation, including using many methods to contact parents (written, digital, phone, and in-person). They suggested that if parents had a better understanding of WhyTry and its importance to students, parents would be more likely motivated to participate and much of their resistance could be overcome. All coordinators (100%) proposed that improved accessibility may increase parent participation.

They suggested that the online version of WhyTry for Parents be supplemented with other methods of parent participation, such as in-person parent groups, student presentations of WhyTry concepts (digital or in-person), and periodic family-centered activities. They also suggested that utilizing additional methods of implementation would more adequately address the varying needs of parents, and that providing additional options might allow more parents to participate. While not a theme in coordinator responses, the suggestion to have the program available by mobile app was made by three coordinators.

Discussion

The main purpose of this study was to explore whether parents found social validity in WhyTry for Parents by examining what significance they placed on the goals, effects, and procedures of the program. Regardless of whether parents in this study utilized the online curriculum or not, they found a high degree of social validity in the goals and the effects of WhyTry for Parents. High mean scores for each goal and each effect indicated that both participating and non-participating parents found it very important that (a) their children possess self-management and relationship skills, (b) parents be involved in conversations with their children about social and emotional principles, and (c) parents have knowledge about the WhyTry program.

Despite this high degree of social validity, and despite a concerted and prolonged effort to recruit parents to participate in WhyTry for Parents, less than 2% of parents chose to participate. These facts, along with the fact that parents were able to access the curriculum at home and according to their own schedules, suggest that the roadblocks to parent participation go beyond logistical issues such as transportation, childcare, and scheduling; thus, additional underlying causes of parent resistance should be researched and addressed.

In order to better understand the issues surrounding parent involvement in school-based programs and to improve future programs, analyses examined the reasons for the low rates of parent participation. Time constraints and scheduling conflicts are often cited by parents as reasons they do not participate in parent programs (Heinrichs et al., 2005; Spoth & Redmond, 2000; Spoth, Redmond, Hockaday, & Shin, 1996). Parents in this study indicated that other responsibilities such as work, school, or caring for children interfered with their ability to participate in WhyTry for Parents, supporting the survey findings. Coordinators also suggested that time constraints were a factor in low parent participation rates, suggesting that many parents were overwhelmed by various expectations and responsibilities. Managing additional responsibilities can increase parental stress levels, which have been negatively associated with parent participation rates in clinical studies (Kazdin & Mazurick, 1994; Orrell-Valente et al., 1999).

Issues with time may also have played a factor in parents' perspectives regarding the acceptability of program procedures. In contrast to the high degree of social validity these parents attributed to the WhyTry for Parents goals and effects, they assigned only moderate validity to the program procedures and curriculum. The mean scores that these parents gave to usability, worthwhileness, and enjoyableness of the curriculum hovered just above neutral, and the only section of the curriculum that parents clearly found acceptable and socially valid was the *watch* section, which required the least amount of time and effort. Conversely, the *share* section, which received the lowest mean score and had the weakest social validity, required the most time and effort. This pattern suggests that procedures which require relatively little time and effort may be considered by these parents to be more usable, relevant, and enjoyable. This idea is supported by Orrell-Valente et al. (1999) who found that the rate of parent participation

was influenced by whether parents perceived the program to be relevant to their own circumstances and whether or not they liked the program.

When examining possible reasons that parent participation in this study was low, the fact must be considered that more than two-thirds of the parents who were invited to participate had children who were involved in WhyTry as a prevention program, meaning that their children had not been identified as needing additional academic, behavioral, or emotional assistance. Parents of students who have been identified with academic or behavioral issues are, in general, more likely to enroll in parent involvement programs and also tend to have higher rates of participation (Dumas et al., 2007; Graf, Grumm, Hein, & Fingerle, 2014; Spoth & Redmond, 2000). In addition, prevention programs are typically implemented school-wide, and parents who are invited to participate as part of a prevention program may not receive a personal invitation to participate. For example, the initial letters inviting parents to participate in this study were delivered by the local WhyTry coordinator but were written and signed by the lead researcher, who had no personal relationship with any of the parents. A personal relationship paired with a sincere invitation to participate may be more effective in helping parents understand the importance of participation and encouraging them to get involved. Generally, clinical studies have shown that the relationship between parent and practitioner influences the levels of parent participation (Orrell-Valente et al., 1999); however, research focused on practitioner-led parent interventions (as opposed to researcher-led interventions) is scarce (Heinrichs et al., 2005). Reports from initial studies of practitioner-led interventions claim that parent enrollment and participation rates are comparable to or better than studies led by researchers (Eisner & Meidert, 2011; Heinrichs et al., 2005; Spoth & Redmond, 2000; Webster-Stratton, Reid, & Hammond, 2001). These findings may also apply to educational settings, where researchers often lead

school-based interventions. More research is needed that examines the impact of practitioner- and educator-led parent interventions and programs on parent enrollment and participation, as well as on parent and student outcomes. Practitioners and researchers who explore these possibilities may be wise to begin with smaller groups of parents

Additional explanations of the low rate of parent participation may include that many of the letters inviting parents to participate may not have made it home with the students; therefore, parents did not know about the opportunity to participate. Furthermore, some of the parents who were invited to participate may already be engaged in their children's education by serving in the PTA, helping in their children's classroom, or assisting their children with homework. These forms of parent involvement may take priority over participating in a parent program relating to the SEL of their children, particularly an online program which is less social, less visible, and requires technological resources and capability. In addition, parent age and level of education may have some influence on their willingness or ability to participate, as participating parents were generally older and had more formal education than non-participating parents.

Research has shown that programs that utilize a variety of methods to disseminate curriculum and program information to parents have higher rates of parent participation (Conduct Problems Prevention Research Group, 2010; DeGarmo, Eddy, Reid, & Fetrow, 2009). In addition, researchers in clinical settings have cautioned that internet-based interventions are not meant to replace face-to-face treatment and should only function as an alternate means of providing services for individuals who might not otherwise be able to receive them (Ritterband et al., 2003). These findings were supported by the statements of WhyTry coordinators who suggested that communication between the school and the parents be frequent, ongoing, and utilize a variety of methods (such as written notes, phone calls, and digital communication).

While they also suggested that WhyTry for Parents be accessible online, they indicated that it would need to be supplemented with in-person groups, home visits, or phone calls in order to meet the varying needs of parents. Having a variety of methods available to recruit and involve parents may encourage more participation from those who are less comfortable with internet-based curriculum.

Although not a theme in the data, a promising suggestion made by a few parents and coordinators in this study was to have the curriculum available via mobile app, which would allow parents to access the program on portable devices and make the curriculum available to parents who do not have a desktop or laptop computer. A recent study that utilized a self-paced, tablet-based parent intervention in a clinical setting reported parent participation rates as high as 85% (Breitenstein, Schoeny, Risser, & Johnson, 2016). Parents were provided with a tablet and asked to complete six modules designed to improve parenting skills that utilized video vignettes, interactive parent-child activities, and multiple choice questions to gauge parent understanding of each module. Telephone assistance was available 24 hours a day to parents who experienced technical difficulties. The high rate of parent participation Breitenstein et al.'s (2016) study suggests that using an app-based approach may be an effective way to boost parent involvement; however, it may also require a considerable investment resources and time. In research on internet-based clinical interventions, Griffiths, Lindenmeyer, Powell, Lowe, and Thorogood (2006) warned that the hidden costs of program development could be a potential drawback for internet-based interventions. Future research should, therefore, include an evaluation of the costs of implementing internet-based parent involvement programs so that schools and educators can determine whether these types of programs are feasible for their settings, should also explore the social validity of the program from the perspective of educators—another important group of

stakeholders. Evaluating the costs to parents, who may need to pay for internet access and other technological tools needed to participate, will also need to be considered.

Each WhyTry coordinator suggested *parent resistance* as a significant reason parents chose not to participate in the online curriculum. Coordinators suspected that parents lacked sufficient knowledge about WhyTry and WhyTry for Parents and, therefore, lacked the necessary interest and buy-in to invest time in the program. A lack of interest in program materials has been shown to negatively affect parent participation (Heinrichs et al., 2005); therefore, program materials should be simple, engaging, and relatively brief. The challenge for educators and for those who produce SEL curriculum, therefore, is to design an asynchronous, internet-based curriculum that requires little time or effort for parents, yet effectively communicates program information.   This strategy may be possible if prospective parent programs focus only on two or three key SEL skills and suggestions for parent-child engagement, rather than attempting to give parents a comprehensive understanding of the program. Future research should explore whether these abbreviated programs are able to engage and motivate parents while simultaneously providing effective instruction of the program material.

Limitations and Implications for Future Research

Response rates for this study were exceptionally low, with less than 2% of invited parents completing a survey. Low response rates can result in estimates that are biased by selective non-response, and parents who did not respond to the survey may belong to a group that is over- or under-represented in the study. Due to the small sample size, the results of the study may not be representative of all parents of WhyTry students. In order to increase the response rate, it may be beneficial for future studies to begin with a smaller number of parents at fewer sites in an effort to gain deeper insight into their motivations and their willingness to participate. These

efforts may be more success if researchers rely more heavily on school personnel who have an already-established relationship with parents to assist with recruiting and retention.

Because it was impossible to distinguish whether parents had children in prevention or intervention programs, it was also impossible to detect and analyze any similarities or differences between their responses based on the purpose of program implementation. This analysis may have yielded information that could assist educators and researchers in recognizing unique issues that each group faces and may have provided useful suggestion for the design of future parent curriculum and recruitment procedures. It may be beneficial to examine these two groups separately in future studies in order to adequately assess their individual needs and concerns. It may also be beneficial to explore whether it is advisable to put forth the effort to involve parents of prevention students, who may lack the interest and motivation to participate in parent programs because their children are not experiencing emotional or behavioral issues at school.

The overwhelming majority of parent respondents in this study were mothers. Fathers are generally well underrepresented in studies of parent interventions (Fabiano, 2007; Panter-Brick et al., 2014; Tiano & McNeil, 2005) despite the substantial evidence of the important role that fathers play in their children's development (Piotrowska et al., 2016). Future research must specifically target or reach out to fathers to determine the most effective ways to involve them in school-based parent programs.

Members of racial minority groups are often underrepresented in studies of parent interventions (Altschul, 2011; Baker, Arnold, & Meagher, 2011; Gonzalez, Borders, Hines, Villalba, & Henderson, 2013; Spoth et al., 1996), and were also underrepresented in the current study. Future studies should include a concerted effort to include (and perhaps focus on) members of racial minority groups, and research should also examine how culture influences the

amount and type of parent participation in school-based programs. Parent curriculum and surveys should also be available in the languages parents speak whenever possible.

Conclusion

Despite clear evidence that involving parents in school-based programs has many benefits for schools and for students (Cooke et al., 2007; Reid et al., 2007), educators often struggle to implement parent programs due to limitations of time and resources (Stormshak et al., 2010), and parents often struggle to participate due to issues with transportation, childcare, and scheduling conflicts (Altschul, 2011; Dumas et al., 2007; Heinrichs et al., 2005; Orrell-Valente et al., 1999). Internet-based parent involvement programs have the potential to address some of these issues; however, more research is needed to determine whether and which stakeholders find social validity in internet-based parent programs.

This study explored the social validity of WhyTry for Parents from the perspective of parents, gathered suggestions for program improvement, and examined reasons for the level of parent participation in the program. Participants in this study included parents of WhyTry students and coordinators of WhyTry programs at several schools across the United States. Study results suggested that parents in this study found a high degree of social validity in the goals and effects of the program but were more neutral about the social validity of program procedures. Both parents and WhyTry coordinators suggested that the curriculum be shortened and simplified, and coordinators added that program accessibility should be improved by utilizing a variety of methods (digital, in-person, and written) to disseminate program information and materials. WhyTry coordinators indicated that parents may have been resistant to participation for a variety of reasons, including that they (a) did not have an adequate understanding of the goals and effects of WhyTry for Parents, (b) lacked a compelling reason to

participate, and (c) did not believe that the WhyTry program would help their children. Coordinators and parents suggested that improving communication between schools and parents may improve rates of parent participation. Future research needs to include an in-depth examination of reasons that participation in parent programs is low (from the perspective of parents), and should also explore the social validity of internet-based parent programs from the perspective of educators in order to ensure that internet-based parent programs are valuable to all stakeholders.

References

Acuna, A., Vega, L., Meza, J., Marqez, M., & Vera, D. (2008). *Outcome evaluation methods and results for the South Los Angeles Resiliency (SOLAR) project*. Presented at the School Social Work Association of America, Los Angeles, CA.

Albright, M. I., & Weissberg, R. P. (2010). School-family partnerships to promote social and emotional learning. In S. L. Christenson & A. L. Reschly (Eds.), *Handbook of School-Family Partnerships* (pp. 246–264). New York, NY: Routledge.

Altschul, I. (2011). Parental involvement and the academic achievement of Mexican American youths: What kinds of involvement in youths' education matter most? *Social Work Research*, *35*(3), 159–170.

Askins, M. A., Sahler, O. J. Z., Sherman, S. A., Fairclough, D. L., Butler, R. W., Katz, E. R., … Phipps, S. (2009). Report from a multi-institutional randomized clinical trial examining computer-assisted problem-solving skills training for English-and Spanish-speaking mothers of children with newly diagnosed cancer. *Journal of Pediatric Psychology*, *34*(5), 551–563.

Baggett, K. M., Davis, B., Feil, E. G., Sheeber, L. B., Landry, S. H., Carta, J. J., & Leve, C. (2010). Technologies for expanding the reach of evidence-based interventions: Preliminary results for promoting social-emotional development in early childhood. *Topics in Early Childhood Special Education*, *29*(4), 226–238. https://doi.org/10.1177/0271121409354782

Baker, C. N., Arnold, D. H., & Meagher, S. (2011). Enrollment and attendance in a parent training prevention program for conduct problems. *Prevention Science*, *12*(2), 126–138. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11121-010-0187-0

Baker, D. (2008). *Examining the effectiveness of the Why Try program for children receiving residentially based services and attending a non-public school* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Southern California, Los Angeles, CA. Retrieved from http://gradworks.umi.com/33/31/3331194.html

Belfield, C., Bowden, A. B., Klapp, A., Levin, H., Shand, R., & Zander, S. (2015). The economic value of social and emotional learning. *Journal of Benefit-Cost Analysis*, *6*(03), 508–544.

Bert, S. C., Farris, J. R., & Borkowski, J. G. (2008). Parent training: Implementation strategies for Adventures in Parenting. *The Journal of Primary Prevention*, *29*(3), 243–261. https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org.erl.lib.byu.edu/10.1007/s10935-008-0135-y

Bierman, K. L., & Motamedi, M. (2015). Social-emotional programs for preschool children. In J. A. Durlak, C. Domitrovich, R. P. Weissberg, T. P. Gullotta, & J. P. Comer (Eds.), *Handbook of Social and Emotional Learning: Research and Practice* (pp. 131–151). New York, NY: Guilford.

Bird, B. (2010). *WhyTry Evaluation Report 2006-2010* (Churchill County Probation Report, Field Research). Churchill County, NC. Retrieved from https://www.whytry.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=109

Breitenstein, S. M., Schoeny, M., Risser, H., & Johnson, T. (2016). A study protocol testing the implementation, efficacy, and cost effectiveness of the ezParent program in pediatric primary care. *Contemporary Clinical Trials*, *50*, 229–237. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cct.2016.08.017

Calam, R., Sanders, M. R., Miller, C., Sadhnani, V., & Carmont, S.A. (2008). Can technology and the media help reduce dysfunctional parenting and increase engagement with preventative parenting interventions? *Child Maltreatment*, *13*(4), 347–361.

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Routledge.

Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning. (n.d.). Retrieved June 4, 2014, from http://www.casel.org/

Conduct Problems Prevention Research Group. (2010). Fast Track intervention effects on youth arrests and delinquency. *Journal of Experimental Criminology*, *6*(2), 131–157.

Cooke, M. B., Ford, J., Levine, J., Bourke, C., Newell, L., & Lapidus, G. (2007). The effects of city-wide implementation of "Second Step" on elementary school students' prosocial and aggressive behaviors. *The Journal of Primary Prevention*, *28*(2), 93–115. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10935-007-0080-1

DeGarmo, D. S., Eddy, J. M., Reid, J. B., & Fetrow, R. A. (2009). Evaluating mediators of the impact of the Linking the Interests of Families and Teachers (LIFT) multimodal preventive intervention on substance use initiation and growth across adolescence. *Prevention Science*, *10*(3), 208–220.

Dumas, J. E., Nissley-Tsiopinis, J., & Moreland, A. D. (2007). From intent to enrollment, attendance, and participation in preventive parenting groups. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, *16*(1), 1–26.

Durlak, J. A., Weissberg, R. P., Dymnicki, A. B., Taylor, R. D., & Schellinger, K. B. (2011). The impact of enhancing students' social and emotional learning: A meta-analysis of school-based universal interventions. *Child Development*, *82*(1), 405–432.

Eisner, M., & Meidert, U. (2011). Stages of parental engagement in a universal parent training program. *Journal of Primary Prevention*, *32*(2), 83–93. https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org.erl.lib.byu.edu/10.1007/s10935-011-0238-8

Elias, M. J., Gager, P., & Leon, S. (1997). Spreading a warm blanket of prevention over all children: Guidelines for selecting substance abuse and related prevention curricula for use in the schools. *Journal of Primary Prevention*, *18*(1), 41–69.

Elias, M. J., Parker, S. J., Kash, V. M., Weissberg, R. P., & O'Brien, M. U. (2008). Social and emotional learning, moral education, and character education: A comparative analysis and a view toward convergence. In L. P. Nucci, T. Krettenauer, & D. Narvaez (Eds.), *Handbook of moral and character education* (pp. 248–266). New York, NY: Routledge.

Elias, M. J., Weissberg, R., Frey, K. S., Greenberg, M. T., & Haynes, N. M. (1997). *Promoting social and emotional learning: Guidelines for educators*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Fabiano, G. A. (2007). Father participation in behavioral parent training for ADHD: Review and recommendations for increasing inclusion and engagement. *Journal of Family Psychology*, *21*(4), 683–693. https://doi.org/10.1037/0893-3200.21.4.683

Gall, M. D., Gall, J. P., & Borg, W. R. (2007). *Educational research: An introduction* (8th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.

Gee, E. J. (2003). *Report to Granite School District on the WhyTry program*. Salt Lake City, UT: Granite School District. Retrieved from www.whytry.org/research.php

Gonzalez, L. M., Borders, L. D., Hines, E. M., Villalba, J. A., & Henderson, A. (2013). Parental involvement in children's education: Considerations for school counselors working with Latino immigrant families. *Professional School Counseling*, *16*(3), 185–193.

Graf, F. A., Grumm, M., Hein, S., & Fingerle, M. (2014). Improving parental competencies: Subjectively perceived usefulness of a parent training matters. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, *23*(1), 20–28.

Gresham, F. M., & Lopez, M. F. (1996). Social validation: A unifying concept for school-based consultation research and practice. *School Psychology Quarterly*, *11*(3), 204–227. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0088930

Griffiths, F., Lindenmeyer, A., Powell, J., Lowe, P., & Thorogood, M. (2006). Why are health care interventions delivered over the Internet? A systematic review of the published literature. *Journal of Medical Internet Research*, *8*(2). http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC1550698/ https://doi.org/10.2196/jmir.8.2.e10

Hawkins, J. D., Kosterman, R., Catalano, R. F., Hill, K. G., & Abbott, R. D. (2005). Promoting positive adult functioning through social development intervention in childhood: Long-term effects from the Seattle Social Development Project. *Archives of Pediatrics & Adolescent Medicine*, *159*(1), 25–31. https://doi.org/10.1001/archpedi.159.1.25

Hawkins, J. D., Kosterman, R., Catalano, R. F., Hill, K. G., & Abbott, R. D. (2008). Effects of social development intervention in childhood 15 years later. *Archives of Pediatrics & Adolescent Medicine*, *162*(12), 1133–1141.

Heinrichs, N., Bertram, H., Kuschel, A., & Hahlweg, K. (2005). Parent recruitment and retention in a universal prevention program for child behavior and emotional problems: Barriers to research and program participation. *Prevention Science*, *6*(4), 275–286.

Henderson, A. T., & Berla, N. (1994). *A new generation of evidence: The family is critical to student achievement*. Washington, D.C.: National Committee for Citizens in Education. Retrieved from http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED375968

Howell, A., Caldarella, P., Korth, B., & Young, K. R. (2014). Exploring the social validity of teacher praise notes in elementary school. *Journal of Classroom Interaction*, *49*(2), 22–32.

Huitt, W. (2004). Moral and character development. *Educational Psychology Interactive*, 1–10. Retrieved from: http://www.edpsycinteractive.org/topics/morchr/morchr.html

Kazdin, A. E. (1977). Assessing the clinical or applied importance of behavior change through social validation. *Behavior Modification*, *1*(4), 427–452. https://doi.org/10.1177/014544557714001

Kazdin, A. E., & Mazurick, J. L. (1994). Dropping out of child psychotherapy: Distinguishing early and late dropouts over the course of treatment. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, *62*(5), 1069–1074. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-006X.62.5.1069

Mackert, M., Kahlor, L., Tyler, D., & Gustafson, J. (2009). Designing e-health interventions for low-health-literate culturally diverse parents: Addressing the obesity epidemic. *Telemedicine and E-Health*, *15*(7), 672–677.

Marchant, M., Heath, M. A., & Miramontes, N. Y. (2013). Merging empiricism and humanism role of social validity in the school-wide positive behavior support model. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions*, *15*(4), 221–230. https://doi.org/10.1177/1098300712459356

Marshall, S. P., & Price, H. B. (2007). *The learning compact redefined: A call to action*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Merrell, K. W. (2011). *Social Emotional Assets and Resilience Scales (SEARS)* [Assessment

    instrument]. Lutz, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources (PAR). Retrieved from

    http://www4.parinc.com/Products/Product.aspx?ProductID=SEARS

Orrell-Valente, J. K., Pinderhughes, E. E., Valente, E., Laird, R. D., Bierman, K. L., Coie, J. D.,

    … Pinderhughes, E. E. (1999). If it's offered, will they come? Influences on parents'

    participation in a community-based conduct problems prevention program. *American*

    Journal of Community Psychology, *27*(6), 753–783.

    https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1022258525075

Panter-Brick, C., Burgess, A., Eggerman, M., McAllister, F., Pruett, K., & Leckman, J. F.

    (2014). Practitioner review: Engaging fathers – recommendations for a game change in

    parenting interventions based on a systematic review of the global evidence. *Journal of*

    Child Psychology and Psychiatry, *55*(11), 1187–1212. https://doi.org/10.1111/jcpp.12280

Piotrowska, P. J., Tully, L. A., Lenroot, R., Kimonis, E., Hawes, D., Moul, C., … Dadds, M. R.

    (2016). Mothers, fathers, and parental systems: A conceptual model of parental

    engagement in programmes for child mental health—Connect, Attend, Participate, Enact

    (CAPE). *Clinical Child and Family Psychology Review*, 1–16. Retrieved from:

    http://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s10567-016-0219-9

    https://doi.org/10.1007/s10567-016-0219-9

Reid, M. J., Webster-Stratton, C., & Hammond, M. (2007). Enhancing a classroom social

    competence and problem-solving curriculum by offering parent training to families of

    moderate- to high-risk elementary school children. *Journal of Clinical Child and*

    Adolescent Psychology, *36*(4), 605–620.

Ritterband, L. M., Gonder-Frederick, L. A., Cox, D. J., Clifton, A. D., West, R. W., & Borowitz, S. M. (2003). Internet interventions: In review, in use, and into the future. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, *34*(5), 527–534. https://doi.org/10.1037/0735-7028.34.5.527

Roeser, R. W., Eccles, J. S., & Sameroff, A. J. (2000). School as a context of early adolescents' academic and social-emotional development: A summary of research findings. *The Elementary School Journal*, *100*(5), 443–471.

Rones, M., & Hoagwood, K. (2000). School-based mental health services: A research review. *Clinical Child and Family Psychology Review*, *3*(4), 223–241.

Schinke, S. P., Fang, L., & Cole, K. C. (2009). Preventing substance use among adolescent girls: 1-year outcomes of a computerized, mother–daughter program. *Addictive Behaviors*, *34*(12), 1060–1064.

Sklad, M., Diekstra, R., Ritter, M. D., Ben, J., & Gravesteijn, C. (2012). Effectiveness of school-based universal social, emotional, and behavioral programs: Do they enhance students' development in the area of skill, behavior, and adjustment? *Psychology in the Schools*, *49*(9), 892–909. https://doi.org/10.1002/pits.21641

Spoth, R., & Redmond, C. (2000). Research on family engagement in preventive interventions: Toward improved use of scientific findings in primary prevention practice. *Journal of Primary Prevention*, *21*(2), 267–284.

Spoth, R., Redmond, C., Hockaday, C., & Shin, C. Y. (1996). Barriers to participation in family skills preventive interventions and their evaluations: A replication and extension. *Family Relations*, *45*(3), 247–254.

Stormshak, E., Dishion, T., & Falkenstein, C. (2010). Family-centered, school-based mental health strategies to reduce student behavioral, emotional, and academic risk. In S. L. Christenson & A. L. Reschly (Eds.), *Handbook of School-Family Partnerships* (pp. 228–245). New York, NY: Routledge.

Taking SEL to the next level: The WhyTry Program. (2017, February 2). Retrieved February 2, 2017, from http://whytry.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=674

Tiano, J. D., & McNeil, C. B. (2005). The inclusion of fathers in behavioral parent training: A critical evaluation. *Child & Family Behavior Therapy*, *27*(4), 1–28. https://doi.org/10.1300/J019v27n04_01

Wade, S. L., Carey, J., & Wolfe, C. R. (2006). The efficacy of an online cognitive-behavioral family intervention in improving child behavior and social competence following pediatric brain injury. *Rehabilitation Psychology*, *51*(3), 179–189.

Wade, S. L., Oberjohn, K., Burkhardt, A., & Greenberg, I. (2009). Feasibility and preliminary efficacy of a Web-based parenting skills program for young children with traumatic brain injury. *The Journal of Head Trauma Rehabilitation*, *24*(4), 239–247.

Webster-Stratton, C., Reid, M. J., & Hammond, M. (2001). Preventing conduct problems, promoting social competence: A parent and teacher training partnership in Head Start. *Journal of Clinical Child & Adolescent Psychology*, *30*(3), 283–302. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15374424JCCP3003_2

Weissberg, R. P., Kumpfer, K. L., & Seligman, M. E. (2003). Prevention that works for children and youth: An introduction. *American Psychologist*, *58*(6-7), 425–432.

WhyTry: Resilience Education. (2011). Retrieved March 31, 2011, from http://whytry.org/

Wilhite, S., & Bullock, L. M. (2012). Effects of the WhyTry social skills program on students with emotional and/or behavioral problems in an alternative school. *Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties*, *17*(2), 175–194. https://doi.org/10.1080/13632752.2012.675135

Wolf, M. M. (1978). Social validity: The case for subjective measurement or how applied behavior analysis is finding its heart. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis*, *11*(2), 203–214. https://doi.org/10.1901/jaba.1978.11-203

Zins, J. E., & Elias, M. J. (2007). Social and emotional learning: Promoting the development of all students. *Journal of Educational & Psychological Consultation*, *17*(2/3), 233–255. https://doi.org/10.1080/10474410701413152

APPENDIX A: EXTENDED LITERATURE REVIEW

School-based social and emotional learning programs have been widely researched and proven effective with a variety of student outcomes (Durlak et al., 2011; Payton et al., 2008). More research, however, is needed to investigate parental involvement in SEL programs. One type of involvement that has the potential to increase parent participation is internet-based parent programs (Breitenstein, Gross, & Christophersen, 2014; Enebrink, 2013; Nieuwboer, Fukkink, & Hermanns, 2013); however, relatively little research about this type of parent program has been published. Because the current study is focused on the social validity of online parent involvement in WhyTry, relevant literature for the following areas will be examined in this review: social and emotional learning (including the WhyTry program), parental involvement, and social validity.

Social and Emotional Learning (SEL)

Learning is often associated with academic outcomes such as grades and test scores, while the social and emotional aspects of learning are often overlooked (Belfield et al., 2015). Our emotions and our relationships influence how we learn, what we learn, and how we use what we learn (Zins & Elias, 2007). It is therefore important that we learn how to regulate our emotions and manage our relationships with others. Poor impulse regulation interferes with attention and memory and also contributes to disruptive behaviors, while effective management of emotions and relationships can generate an active interest in learning and sustain our engagement with it ("Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning," n.d.). Social and emotional learning (SEL) is the process through which we acquire the attitudes, knowledge, and skills necessary to build healthy relationships and effectively manage our emotions.

History of SEL. The idea that education should be holistic and should include training outside of traditional academics is as old as ancient Greece. Plato advanced the idea that school curriculums should take a more holistic approach to learning by including instruction in character and moral judgment, in addition to the instruction of academic subjects. "By maintaining a sound system of education and upbringing, you produce citizens of good character" (Plato, 1980, p. 424). This ancient concept encourages curriculum that teaches students to be caring, responsible, and engaged citizens.

SEL begins at home in early childhood (Bierman & Motamedi, 2015), but is also acquired and cultivated in other environments where children spend a lot of time, such as school. The well-established structure of schools and the ability of school personnel to facilitate learning make schools an obvious choice for social and emotional skills training. Schools have been identified as "an important if not central arena for . . . primary prevention [and] intervention services to adolescents in addition to the education of students" (Roeser, Eccles, & Sameroff, 2000, p. 467).

Schools have long implemented programs designed to assist students in character development and moral education, which are focused on values and the power of *right thinking* and *knowing the good* (Elias, Parker, Kash, Weissberg, & O'Brien, 2008; Elias, Weissberg, Frey, Greenberg, & Haynes, 1997; Huitt, 2004); however, many of these programs were considered ineffective (Nelson, 2011). In an attempt to improve these school-based programs, educators from across the United States met to develop a conceptual framework that would address the varied underlying social and emotional issues that affect learning (Greenberg, et al., 2003; Nelson, 2011). The term "social and emotional learning" was coined in 1994 during one of these

meetings. Interest in school-based SEL grew quickly, fueled in part by an interest in resilience

research and the concept of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995; Zins & Elias, 2007).

Understanding SEL. SEL is the process of acquiring and effectively applying the

knowledge, attitudes, and skills necessary to recognize and manage emotions, set and achieve

positive goals, appreciate the perspectives of others, establish and maintain positive

relationships, make responsible decisions, and handle interpersonal situations constructively

("Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning," n.d.; Elias, Gager, & Leon,

1997). Put simply, SEL is the way we learn the basic skills necessary to work well with others,

manage our own emotions and concerns, and become effective in our own lives (Merrell, 2010).

Literature dedicated to SEL often uses the terms *skills*, *competencies*, *programs* and *outcomes* to

describe social and emotional learning. It is important for the reader to understand the

differences in these terms in order to understand what the literature is trying to convey. A

detailed explanation of each term is included below.

SEL skills and competence are related but different constructs, and are often used

interchangeably. SEL *competence* is a term used to assess the overall quality of a person's

social-emotional adjustment, while SEL *skills* refers to specific behaviors that impact peer

relations and lead to social competence (Whitcomb & Merrell, 2013). Because the two terms are

so interrelated, and because the students participating in WhyTry are in the process of gaining

both SEL skills and competencies, these terms will be used interchangeably in this paper. SEL

programs are planned curricula designed to teach SEL skills and help individuals gain

competency. SEL *skills*, *competencies*, and *programs* lead to a number of academic, personal

and social benefits for students, known as SEL *outcomes* (Durlak, Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor,

& Schellinger, 2011). Some of these outcomes include improved attitudes and behaviors, fewer

negative behaviors, and decreased emotional distress ("Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning," n.d.).

While SEL skills and competencies are important for all students, SEL programs often target a specific subsample of students for whom social, emotional or behavioral problems have already been identified. Because of these already-identified issues, acquiring healthy SEL skills is especially important, and can help students with identified issues increase prosocial behaviors and improve attitudes about self, others, and school (Durlak et al., 2011). All but one of the school-based WhyTry programs that participated in this study focused on children who have been identified by educators as having social, emotional, or behavioral difficulties. Regardless of the presence or absence of difficulties, it is important that students learn positive SEL skills and become competent with these skills for both academic and personal reasons.

Importance of SEL. The development of adequate social skills and peer relations during childhood has significant and far-reaching effects. The ability to effectively relate to others is important for the progress and development of a child, and positive social skills are necessary for adequate peer relationships. Both childhood social skills and the resultant peer relationships have a significant impact on academic success during school years and are an important foundation for various types of success in life (Whitcomb & Merrell, 2013). The development of social and emotional skills and competencies not only predicts and facilitates academic achievement, but also affects how and what we learn, and how we use what we learn in work, family, and community contexts (Caprara, Barbaranelli, Pastorelli, Bandura, & Zimbardo, 2000; "Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning," n.d.). Social-emotional competence is fundamental not only to the social-emotional health of children, but also to their

general health, ethical development, citizenship, motivation to achieve, and academic learning ("Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning," n.d.; Elias, Gager, et al., 1997).

In order for students to meet the various challenges they face, and to become successful both academically and personally, they must learn and cultivate positive social-emotional skills (Marshall & Price, 2007). Several frequently cited studies have indicated that the failure to develop adequate social skills and peer relations is related to an assortment of negative outcomes including mental health problems later in life, delinquency, school dropout, being fired from jobs, chronic unemployment and underemployment, and psychiatric hospitalizations (Cowen, Pederson, Babigian, Isso, & Trost, 1973; Loeber, 1990; Roff, 1963; Roff & Sells, 1968; Roff, Sells, & Golden, 1972). Unfortunately, many students lack the appropriate SEL skills and become less connected to school as they progress from elementary to middle to high school, and this lack of connection negatively affects their behavior, health, and academic performance (Blum, Libbey, Bishop, & Bishop, 2004). As a result, many children engage in challenging behaviors that must then be addressed by educators in order for them to provide high quality instruction and education (Durlak et al., 2011). By high school, approximately 30% of students engage in multiple high-risk behaviors such as substance use, sex, and violence that not only interfere with school performance but also jeopardize their potential for life success (Dryfoos, 1997; Eaton, Brener, & Kann, 2008).

Providing children with comprehensive SEL programs and instruction can assist educators with these issues by helping students enhance their attachment to school, reduce risky behaviors, and promote positive development, thereby positively influencing academic achievement ("Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning," n.d.). In order for SEL programs to produce these results for schools and for students, effective instructional

methods must be used. SEL programs utilizing active, participatory, and engaging techniques are the most likely to produce students with social-emotional competencies (Denham, Ji, & Hamre, 2010; Durlak et al., 2011; Payton, et al., 2008).

Effectiveness of SEL programs. Durlak et al. (2011) conducted a meta-analysis of 213 studies (involving 270,034 students) designed to determine the effects of SEL programming on student outcomes across multiple domains, including social and emotional skills, attitudes toward self and others, positive social behaviors, conduct problems, emotional distress, and academic performance. Results indicated that SEL programs yielded "significant positive effects on targeted social-emotional competencies and attitudes about self, others, and school" (Durlak et al., 2011, p. 432). This included increased prosocial behaviors, decreased conduct problems, and an 11-percentile gain in academic performance. One shortcoming of this meta-analysis, however, is that it only considered students in the general population, and did not include students who were already having issues at school. Because the current study utilized a program that is widely used with students who have been previously identified with social, emotional, or behavioral issues, reviews of intervention programs (for students who have been identified as at-risk of school failure due to academic or behavioral problems) were sought.

A search of scholarly literature was completed for programs that target students with identified issues. This search produced a total of 84 studies involving 11,442 students who had been identified as having behavioral, emotional, or social issues. The overall results of these studies found that students who participated in these programs made statistically significant improvements in three categories of student outcomes: improved social and emotional skills and attitudes, behavioral adjustments (increased positive social behaviors and decreased antisocial behaviors), and improvement in standardized achievement test scores and grades (Baker, 2008;

Beaumont & Sofronoff, 2008; Hawkins, Kosterman, Catalano, Hill, & Abbott, 2008; Merrell, Juskelis, Tran, & Buchanan, 2008; Nakayama, 2008; Payton et al., 2008; Sklad, Diekstra, Ritter, Ben, & Graveseijn, 2012).

These improvements in student outcomes for the indicated population (students with identified issues) correlated well with the findings of reviews focused on the universal student population (Durlak et al., 2011). This suggests that SEL programs are effective on a wide range of outcomes, across multiple domains, for children both with and without identified social, emotional, or behavioral problems. The SEL program that will be used in this study is the WhyTry program.

The WhyTry program. WhyTry is a multisensory program designed to build resilience in children by enhancing social-emotional learning and development ("WhyTry: Resilience Education," 2011). Multisensory instruction utilizes visual, auditory, and kinesthetic-tactile strategies to reach all types of learners and enhance memory and learning (Bandura, Grusec, & Menlove, 1966; Campbell, Helf, & Cooke, 2008). The WhyTry curriculum is designed for students in grades K through 12 and consists of 10 units designed to help students learn to effectively manage emotions, make responsible decisions, problem-solve, and build positive relationships ("WhyTry: Resilience Education," 2011). The length and duration of the program varies according to the setting in which the program is used, however the standard length of time for one lesson is 30 minutes for elementary school students, and 60 minutes for secondary students. The lessons direct youth to examine the challenges they encounter every day and then to develop the skills necessary to meet these challenges (Alvarez & Anderson-Ketchmark, 2009).

Each unit utilizes a separate visual analogy to "teach social and emotional principles to youth in a way they can understand and remember ("Taking SEL to the next level: The WhyTry

Program," 2017), and the visual analogies are reinforced with music, video clips, and hands-on activities. WhyTry employs the SAFE (Sequenced, Active, Focused, and Explicit) protocol that has been found in effective, evidence-based, skill-building programs (Durlak, Weissberg, & Peterson, 2013). The 10 units are organized in a sequential manner with suggested implementation schedules for school programs with different needs. Each unit includes team building activities, video clips, and songs to illustrate and teach the targeted SEL skill. Students also have access to journaling prompts, which include activities that can be completed at home and often double as homework assignments. Sufficient time and attention is paid to building social-emotional competencies in students, as evidenced by key concepts at the beginning of each unit that explicitly state the SEL skill students should learn by the end of the unit (i.e., the key concept for the fourth unit states "Pressure situations are best handled by maintaining control of your emotions and selecting positive defense mechanisms") (Moore, 2008). Secondary concepts are also included in each lesson that contain additional skills and ideas which are also important for students to learn, but are not the main focus of the unit.

The WhyTry program is used in many schools and institutions throughout the United States, Canada, and the United Kingdom that collect and report data regarding the outcomes of WhyTry implementation in various settings. The following is a review of reports and studies that examine the efficacy of WhyTry for a range of student outcomes. Most studies showed positive results related to academic, behavioral, and emotional outcomes, and the building of SEL competencies.

Academic outcomes. Program evaluations of WhyTry in schools have yielded positive results in the areas of attendance, grade point average (GPA), graduation rates, and reduction of failed courses. Bushnell and Card (2003) conducted a longitudinal study of 192 high school

students over four years. The experimental and control groups had the same academic and attendance profile at the start of the study. The experimental group attended a WhyTry course once per week for one semester, and both groups were tracked for 12 terms (four school years). Students who completed the WhyTry course showed a significant improvement in GPA, had fewer absences, showed a significant reduction in failed courses, and reported higher rates of graduation than the control group.

Wymore (2007) conducted a program evaluation of WhyTry in combination with a tutoring program. Students in the treatment group participated in WhyTry groups in conjunction with tutoring sessions for 10 weeks, while the control group only received tutoring. Study results showed that students who participated in WhyTry reduced failing grades by 47% as compared to students who received tutoring only.

Eggett (2003) conducted a study of 40 students in grades 9 to 12 at an alternative high school. The treatment group received 22 sessions of WhyTry for 11 weeks. Statistically significant academic outcomes included fewer school absences and improved attitudes toward school and teachers.

Behavioral and emotional outcomes. WhyTry has proven effective for a variety of behavioral outcomes including a decrease in bullying, fighting, and other aggressive behaviors related to a lack of positive relationship skills, social awareness, and self-management. Wilhite and Bullock (2012) conducted an evaluation of the WhyTry program with 15 students from six school districts using purposive sampling. Participants had been identified with emotional and behavioral problems, attended an alternative middle or high school, and received the WhyTry program over a five-week period. Study results showed that students who received WhyTry had significantly fewer disciplinary referrals, reduced incidents of fighting and aggression, and less

bullying behaviors. Results from the South Los Angeles Resiliency (SOLAR) program also demonstrated positive behavioral changes using WhyTry with elementary school students, who showed a significant decrease in negative behaviors targeted at peers after participation in WhyTry (Acuna, Vega, Meza, Marqez, & Vera, 2008). Other reports also showed that students who participated in WhyTry experienced a decrease in rule-breaking and aggressive behaviors (Baker, 2008; Gee, 2003).

Emotional outcomes of SEL programs with the indicated population included less social stress, less anxiety, and more control over emotions for students who participated in WhyTry (Wilhite & Bullock, 2012). In an unpublished doctoral dissertation, Baker (2008) studied outcomes with 78 WhyTry students, aged 12 through 18, who had been identified with behavioral and emotional difficulties. The research design employed a treatment group with 42 students who attended WhyTry groups for 16 weeks. Assessments completed by the teacher, student, and caregiver detected statistically significant positive changes in anxiety and depression, withdrawal, and internalizing of problems.

Social-emotional competencies. WhyTry has also been evaluated for outcomes related to the SEL core competencies. Bird (2010) conducted a study with over 800 sixth grade students that showed positive results in the areas of responsible decision-making, self-management, and social awareness over a four-year period. Students in the experimental group reported a stronger belief that current actions will affect their future, and a stronger belief in a more positive future (Bird, 2010). These beliefs are major contributors to responsible decision-making, one of the core competencies targeted by CASEL ("Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning," n.d.). The experimental group also reported a positive change in the degree of

willingness to keep trying, a result related to the achievement of goals and student self-management skills.

Research by Wilhite & Bullock (2012) produced similar results, with students in the experimental group reporting an increased capacity to find ways to achieve and carry out personal goals, as well as a greater ability to initiate and sustain action toward goals. Students in the SOLAR project who received WhyTry also reported significant positive change in their willingness to "keep trying to succeed" (Acuna et al., 2008). In addition to these findings, students participating in WhyTry demonstrated a slight improvement in relationship skills, such as asking for help (Acuna et al., 2008), improvement in self-awareness (as evidenced by increased self-confidence and self-efficacy) (Baker, 2008), and better self-management with improved control over impulses and emotions (Wilhite & Bullock, 2012).

These studies yielded promising results, however the results are weakened by the fact that most of these studies are not published in peer-reviewed journals. As a result, the information available was limited, and a full report of many of the studies or the methods they used were not always available for review. Most of the reports and studies focused on elementary and high school students, and the two studies that included middle school students contained limited information on SEL-specific outcomes. None of the highlighted reports or studies examined the effectiveness or social validity of parental involvement in WhyTry. Future research should be published in peer-reviewed journals, and should evaluate the effectiveness of the WhyTry program, explore its social validity, and examine the effects of parental involvement on student outcomes.

Involving Parents

School-based SEL programs typically utilize the school or the classroom as the instrument for change. While this has proven effective for students while they are in the school environment, scholars have pointed out that school-based SEL does not always extend into other relevant developmental contexts, such as the home (Gresham, 1998; Townsend, 1994). According to social cognitive theory, a child's moral rules and standards of behavior are acquired through observational learning and reinforcement in childhood socialization (Bandura, 1986; Bandura et al., 1966; Caprara et al., 2000). Because much of a child's socialization occurs at home, this environment cannot be ignored. According to several researchers, school-based interventions should include the child's relevant developmental contexts (where most of her or his time is spent) in order to be truly successful (Albright & Weissberg, 2010; Rones & Hoagwood, 2000; Weissberg, Kumpfer, & Seligman, 2003). For most children, the two most relevant developmental contexts are home and school.

Involving parents can extend school-based learning into the home. Research has shown that school-based programs that make a purposeful effort to involve multiple domains, namely the home and parents, were more successful in achieving program goals (Dryfoos, 1997; Elias, Gager, et al., 1997; Hawkins, Catalano, & Miller, 1992). Parent-involved programs that have proven effective in multiple domains have had a wide range of desired outcomes, including school success (Fishel & Ramirez, 2005; Oyserman, Brickman, & Rhodes, 2007); health (Blom-Hoffman, Wilcox, Dunn, Leff, & Power, 2008); mental health issues (Yauman, 1991); early-onset conduct problems (Brestan & Eyberg, 1998; Taylor & Biglan, 1998); substance use (Tobler, et al., 2000); and weight management (Cunha, Souza, Pereira, & Sichieri, 2013). These

results support the idea of including parents in school-based programming, however none of these programs focused on SEL skills.

Effectiveness of parent involvement in SEL programs. In an attempt to secure a representative sample of published and unpublished studies that specifically explore parent involvement in school-based SEL programs, computer searches were done on ERIC, Web of Science, GOOGLE scholar, all EBSCO databases, and ProQuest using the following search terms and their variants: social and emotional learning, SEL, program, social skills, implement, evaluation, intervention, prevention, school, home, parent, parent program, family, and training. In addition, the reference list for each identified study was examined for other possible documents related to the search terms.

Programs included in this review of literature were school-based SEL programs with a specific emphasis on social-emotional skills, and included simultaneous parent and student interventions. Nine program reviews of five different SEL programs were located that matched the search criteria. The five programs included: (a) Linking the Interests of Families and Children (LIFT) (DeGarmo, Eddy, Reid, & Fetrow, 2009; Reid, Eddy, Fetrow, & Stoolmiller, 1999), (b) Seattle Social Development Project (SSDP) (Hawkins, Catalano, & Miller, 1992; Lonczak, Abbott, Kosterman, Catalano, & Hawkins, 2002; O'Donnell, Hawkins, Catalano, Abbott, & Day, 1995), (c) The Fast Track (Bierman et al., 2004; Conduct Problems Prevention Research Group, 1999, 2010, 2011), (d) Second Step (Cooke et al, 2007), and (e) The Incredible Years (IYS) (Reid, Webster-Stratton, & Baydar, 2004; Reinke, Stormont, Webster-Stratton, Newcomer, & Herman, 2012; Taylor, Webster-Stratton, Feil, Widdop, & Severson, 2008; Webster-Stratton, 2004; Webster-Stratton & Reid, 2003).

Each of these programs had goals related to preventing or decreasing negative behaviors in youth, and three of the programs included a goal to improve the child-parent relationship. Four of the programs focused on elementary-aged children, and two of them followed up with students in grade 11 or grade 12. One of the five programs focused on pre-school-aged children (age 4) and two programs included elementary, middle, and high school students. Each program included incentives for parents to participate in the form of child care and transportation costs, and some included random lottery prizes for participating parents. Parent modalities included newsletters, telephone calls and messages, role plays, modeling of positive parenting, home visits, video vignettes, and homework assignments.

Findings. Overall findings yielded promising results in favor of school-based programs with a parent component. In comparison to a no-intervention control group, students who participated in school-based programs with parental involvement showed improved emotional awareness, reduced rates of aggressive behaviors, higher rates of program goal completion, and positive gains in social-emotional skills (Conduct Problems Prevention Research Group, 2011; Cooke et al., 2007; DeGarmo et al., 2009; Reid et al., 2004). One study reported lower rates of delinquent behavior, more positive family management techniques, and greater bonding to figures at school and at home (Hawkins et al., 2005). These findings suggest that parent involvement in school-based SEL programs enables students to "succeed not only in school but throughout their lives" (Henderson & Berla, 1994, p. 1)

Three of the five programs reviewed here reported low rates of parent participation or difficulty in engaging parents (Conduct Problems Prevention Research Group, 2010; Cooke et al., 2007; Reid, Webster-Stratton, & Hammond, 2007). This finding is consistent with research into non-SEL parent programs, and many researchers suggest that parents' stress levels, lack of

time, limited access to transportation and childcare, conflicts in scheduling, and conflicting family responsibilities account for low parent participation (Altschul, 2011; Dumas, Nissley-Tsiopinis, & Moreland, 2007; Heinrichs, Bertram, Kuschel, & Hahlweg, 2005; Kazdin & Mazurick, 1994; Mendez, Carpenter, LaForett, & Cohen, 2009; Orrell-Valente et al., 1999; Townsend, 1994). Four of the five programs included in this review, however, provided both childcare and transportation for parent groups. Structural problems alone, therefore, cannot account for low participation rates.

One factor that may play a role in rates of parent participation is the target student population. Programs with a specific focus on children who have been indicated as a high risk for (or as currently displaying) behavioral or academic problems are more likely to have higher rates of parent participation (Dumas et al., 2007; Heinrichs et al., 2005; Reid et al., 2004; Spoth & Redmond, 2000). Parents who perceive their child's behavior as difficult and expect that a parent program can provide the training and assistance necessary to help their children overcome problematic behavioral or academic issues are more likely to enroll and participate in parent training (Graf, Grumm, Heine, & Fingerle, 2014; Spoth & Redmond, 2000). Parents of children in programs that target the universal population may not feel they (or their children) need the additional help and therefore participate at lower rates.

Programs that utilize a variety of methods to disseminate curriculum and program information to parents have higher rates of parent participation. For example, the LIFT and Fast Track programs utilized not only face-to-face parent groups, but also sent newsletters home, conducted home visits, and made phone calls. Both of these programs had high parent participation rates, Fast Track with 70-96% participation (Conduct Problems Prevention Research Group, 2010), and LIFT with 93% participation (DeGarmo et al., 2009). The

Incredible Years (IYS) reported that only 50% of parents completed at least half of the program (Reid et al., 2007), however when IYS utilized a computer-based parent component this number jumped to 82%. IYS with computer-based parent participation may have been the most flexible in its methods, as all parent lessons were provided in-home, and most lessons were self-administered and self-paced. Perhaps flexibility in the way parents are invited to participate and receive information can make a difference in the quality and the rate of parent participation in school-based programming.

  Limitations. The rates of response and participation are typically very low for parent programs (Heinrichs et al., 2005; Spoth, Redmond, Hockaday, & Shin, 1996). It can be difficult to determine the reasons for low rates of participation in parent training programs because much of the published research does not provide sufficient descriptions of the recruitment, enrollment, and retention procedures (Heinrichs et al., 2005). In order to better understand the low rates of parent participation, future research should focus more on the procedures that are used to recruit, enroll, and retain parents.

  Because practitioners and school personnel who work directly with parents and children have an already-established relationship with potential participants, practitioner-led recruitment methods and interventions have the potential to be successful in recruitment efforts. However, there is a scarcity of research on practitioner-led parent interventions. Initial reports claim that parent enrollment and participation rates are comparable to or better than trials led by researchers (Eisner & Meidert, 2011; Heinrichs et al., 2005; Spoth & Redmond, 2000; Webster-Stratton, Reid, & Hammond, 2001). There is a need for more research that examines the impact of practitioner-led parent interventions and programs on parent enrollment and participation, as well as on parent and student outcomes.

The overwhelming majority of respondents and participants in parent training and intervention research are mothers. Fathers are immensely underrepresented in studies of parent interventions (Fabiano, 2007; Panter-Brick et al., 2014; Spoth et al., 1996; Tiano & McNeil, 2005) despite the substantial evidence of the important role that fathers play in their children's development (Piotrowska et al., 2016). It is important, therefore, that future research specifically target or reach out to fathers to determine the most effective ways to involve them in school-based parent programs.

Members of racial minority groups are often underrepresented in studies of parent interventions (Altschul, 2011; Baker, Arnold, & Meagher, 2011; Gonzalez, Borders, Hines, Villalba, & Henderson, 2013; Spoth et al., 1996), and were also underrepresented in the current study. Future studies should include a concerted effort to include (and perhaps focus on) members of racial minority groups, and research should also examine how culture influences the amount and type of parent participation in school-based programs.

More studies are needed that examine parent involvement programs that allow a more flexible, in-home approach, and that address the needs and concerns of schools and of parents. Schools are often hesitant to implement parent programs due to a lack of time and resources (Stormshak, Dishion, & Falkenstein, 2010), and parents can be hesitant to participate because of issues with transportation, childcare, and scheduling conflicts (Altschul, 2011; Dumas et al., 2007; Heinrichs et al., 2005; Orrell-Valente et al., 1999). Traditional methods for involving parents and families, such as the expectation for parents to attend face-to-face groups or to participate in multiple phone calls, may no longer be realistic, and new, more innovative ways to involve parents must be explored. Internet-based programs have the potential to address the needs of schools and parents.

Internet-based parent programs. According to Taylor and Biglan (1998), behavioral parent training is one of the most effective approaches to reduce early child behavior problems. Many programs utilize interventions that require attendance in parent groups, which consumes a lot of time and money, and also poses structural issues for both parents and schools (Altschul, 2011; Mendez et al., 2009; Orrell-Valente et al., 1999). Innovative ways to involve parents in their children's school-based SEL programming are needed in order to extend program effectiveness.

Several researchers have proposed that internet-based technology has great potential for providing parent programs in an accessible way (Daneback & Plantin, 2015; Funderburk, Ware, Altshuler, & Chaffin, 2008). An internet-based format can utilize written materials while at the same time allowing for an organized presentation of audio- and video-based media. Internet-based technology allows individuals access to professional coaching and connection to others experiencing similar life experiences without the need for face-to-face interventions (Taylor et al., 2008).

A search for scholarly articles related to internet-based programs for parents was conducted by performing searches on major databases such as EBSCO, ProQuest, Web of Science, and Google Scholar. Search terms employed were combinations of: web-based, internet, parents, training, programs, computer delivered, media, technology, parenting, child behaviors, internet, and education. Criteria for inclusion in this review included a parent-focused program with internet-based delivery. Fourteen articles were found that adhered to these criteria.

Sample sizes ranged from 9 to 482, and the main topic of intervention services varied widely. Many of these topics were clinical in nature and included programs that dealt with substance use (Schinke, Fang, & Cole, 2009) obesity (Mackert, Kahlor, Tyler, & Gustafson,

2009), cancer (Askins et al., 2009), traumatic brain injury (Wade, Carey, & Wolfe, 2006; Wade, Oberjohn, Burkhardt, & Greenberg, 2009), and foster parent training (Pacifici, Delaney, White, Nelson, & Cummings, 2006). Only two studies had a focus on SEL skills (Baggett et al., 2010; Taylor et al., 2008), and of these, only the Incredible Years program (IYS) program was school-based (Taylor et al., 2008).

Despite the relatively low number of studies and small samples sizes, the results of this analysis were encouraging. Findings support the claim that online interventions may increase parent knowledge (Bert, Farris, & Borkowski, 2008; Schinke et al., 2009) as well as improve attitudes and enhance parenting skills (Baggett et al., 2010; Calam, Sanders, Miller, Sadhnani, & Carmont, 2008; Enebrink, Högström, Forster, & Ghaderi, 2012; Sanders, Baker, & Turner, 2012; Schinke et al., 2009; Wade et al., 2006, 2009). Two studies reported positive gains in parent skills specifically related to SEL (Enebrink et al., 2012; Sanders et al., 2012). Effects at the child level were positive but slightly smaller than parent effects (Enebrink et al., 2012; Sanders et al., 2012; Schinke et al., 2009). These findings are in line with research on the effects of traditional forms of parent training on parent attitudes, knowledge, and behavior (Barlow, Coren, & Stewart-Brown, 2002; Fukkink, 2008; Kaminski, Valle, Filene, & Boyle, 2008; Lundahl, Risser, & Lovejoy, 2006; MacLeod & Nelson, 2000).

Tablet-based interventions, which allow participants to access internet-based curriculum on mobile devices, has shown some promise for parent interventions in clinical settings. Breitenstein, Schoeny, Risser, and Johnson (2016) recently completed a study of a clinical parent intervention that utilized a self-paced, tablet-based curriculum, and reported parent participation rates as high as 85%. Parents were provided with a tablet and asked to complete six modules designed to improve parenting skills that utilized video vignettes, interactive parent-child

activities, and multiple choice questions to gauge parent understanding of each module. Telephone assistance was available 24 hours a day to parents who experienced technical difficulties. The high rate of parent participation in this study suggests that using a tablet-based or app-based approach may be an effective way to boost parent involvement. It may also, however, require a considerable investment resources and time.

Internet-based parent interventions and programs hold much promise for flexibility, however very little research has been published on this topic. More research is needed that explores web-based parent programs, including research that focuses on parents' perceptions of these programs.

Drawbacks and limitations. Griffiths, Lindenmeyer, Powell, and Thorogood (2006) reviewed research focused on internet-based interventions in the medical field, and found many benefits to using the internet in interventions, including the potential to reduce costs (for both provider and user), increase convenience, and reduce isolation for some users. They also found, however, potential drawbacks to this type of intervention. They cited these drawbacks as hidden costs of program development and the potential for reinforcing the problems the intervention was designed to improve. They also cautioned that internet-based interventions might not be an adequate substitute for face-to-face contact. This caution was reinforced by Ritterband et al. (2003), who stated that internet interventions are "not meant to replace face-to-face treatment, but rather to provide an alternate for individuals who might not otherwise choose to receive treatment, or be able to receive treatment, or find appropriate treatment" (p. 532). They also cautioned that maintaining program compliance is difficult, and that developers of internet-based programs need to be aware of issues of user privacy and confidentiality.

In light of the cautions and limitations outlined above, it is important to remember that WhyTry for Parents is not meant to treat medical or mental issues that parents might be having, nor is it meant to replace face-to-face contact between educators and parents. Instead, it is meant to be a resource that allows parents more flexible, in-home access to the information their child is learning in the WhyTry program. Once parents receive this information they can then decide whether they wish to implement or reinforce similar skills at home. In order to preserve confidentiality and ensure parent privacy, parents are given a choice regarding what personal information they wish to share. If parents have questions regarding what information is appropriate to share, the site administrator assists them. While program compliance is a common concern of those administering parent programs, the main focus of the proposed study is on social validity from the perspective of parents, not on whether the parents are compliant with the suggested scope and sequence of WhyTry for Parents.

Social Validity

Validity has many applications in research. When examining validity, researchers are often examining whether a specific assessment tool measures what it claims to measure (test validity), or the degree to which a study truly represents what it was intended to represent (experimental validity). One type of validity that is also important to consider is social validity. While test and experimental validities examine whether a tool or a study accurately represents what it intends to represent, social validity examines whether a program accurately represents the desires, values, and goals of those who will be utilizing the program.

Social validity and the buy-in of stakeholders is vital to the success of programs; however, this type of validity is often overlooked (Marchant, Heath, & Miramontes, 2013). In order for programs to be truly effective they must be utilized, and in order to be utilized they

must be realistic, acceptable, and relevant to consumers. Gresham and Lopez (1996) suggest that

"services are more relevant and consumable to consumers by targeting socially significant

behaviors using social acceptable procedures which produce socially important effects" (p. 205).

Social validity is the study of the social importance and acceptance of a program's goals,

procedures, and outcomes (Howell, Caldarella, Korth, & Young, 2014).

Effective assessment of social validity. Effective methods should be utilized when

assessing social validity and designing measurement tools (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). Several

researchers have noted that effective assessment methods take into consideration (a) the

population being examined, (b) the type of information gained from the assessment, (c) the

timing of the assessment, and (d) the method and procedures used to examine social validity

(Fawcett, 1991; Howell et al., 2014; Schwartz & Baer, 1991).

One of the first steps of effective assessment of social validity is to identify the

population who will be utilizing (or consuming) the program (Bornstein & Rychtarik, 1983;

Kazdin, 1977; Wolf, 1978). There are many different types of consumers to consider, including

direct consumers, indirect consumers, and members of the immediate and extended community

(Schwartz & Baer, 1991). In educational settings, direct and indirect consumers are usually

teachers, parents, or students (Howell et al., 2014).

Once the consumer is identified, it is important to determine what type of information is

needed from that consumer group. Often, the desired information is consumer opinions

regarding the program, also called social acceptability (Schwartz & Baer, 1991). In addition to

opinions regarding the program, consumer opinions concerning the social significance of

program goals, the social appropriateness of the procedures, and the social importance of the

effects are also sought (Wolf, 1978). Other considerations that may also be important include

the intrusiveness of program services, the amount and type of resources involved, and the required time to appropriately assess social validity (Howell et al., 2014; Mitchem & Young, 2001).

It is also important to consider the timing of an assessment in order to accurately measure the social validity of a program. According to Kennedy (1992), researchers must determine whether an assessment should be administered before, during, or after program implementation, since each of these times will yield different information. Researchers seeking consumer feedback in order to tailor services to consumer preferences should administer the assessment before program implementation. Assessments administered during and after program implementation help identify changes that need to be made to improve a program that is already in use (Howell et al., 2014). Researchers must decide what type of information they are seeking from the consumer in order to determine the timing of assessment.

Social comparison and subjective evaluation are two of the methods that can be used to determine social validity (Finn & Sladeczek, 2001; Howell et al., 2014; Kazdin, 1977). Social comparison involves comparing the target student with his or her peers, while subjective evaluation (which is the method used in the current study) involves asking consumer judges about their perceptions of the program in question (Kazdin, 1977). This information can be obtained using a variety of assessment types, including surveys, questionnaires, direct observations, and interviews (Finn & Sladeczek, 2001). Rating scales are an oft used and effective way of gauging consumer opinions.

The primary consumer in the current study was identified as parents of WhyTry students. The study explored the social validity of WhyTry for Parents by having parents complete a subject evaluation. Rating scales were used to determine the social validity of the online parent

program, and open-ended questions were used to determine what suggestions parents had to improve the program. These results will add to the literary conversation surrounding social validity and parent involvement programs. Despite the importance of social validity in research, there have been very few studies that focus on the social validity of parent involvement in school-based SEL programs.

   Social validity and SEL parent programs. A review of relevant literature related to parent involvement in school-based SEL programs was included in a previous section of this paper. While the review found some studies that explored program effectiveness, no studies were found that included an examination of parent perceptions of these programs. Four studies included a measure of social validity, however none of these SEL programs included a parent component.

   Caldarella, Christensen, Kramer, and Kronmiller (2009) examined the social validity of Strong Start, a school-based SEL program, from the viewpoint of the teacher and students. The teacher indicated a high level of satisfaction with the program (91%), and 74% of the students reported being pleased with the program. The teacher also gave feedback regarding the program's structure and implementation, and offered suggestions for improvement. Parent perspective of the program was not sought for this study. Strong Kids, a sister program to Strong Start, was the subject of a study by Kramer, Caldarella, Young, Fischer, and Warren (2014). In this study, 14 teachers reported agreement with the overall goals of SEL instruction, and neutral to slight agreement with the procedures and outcomes of the Strong Kids program. Three studies were found that examined teachers' perceptions of SEL in general. Results of these studies found that many teachers believe that SEL is important and that schools should take an active role in SEL training (Buchanan, Gueldner, Tran, & Merrell, 2009), that SEL skills and resilience

are closely related (Poulou, 2007), and that highly supportive teachers see SEL as highly valuable and integral to their daily activities in the classroom (Zinsser, Shewark, Denham, & Curby, 2014). No parent perceptions were included in any of these reports.

Several studies of school-based SEL programs were located that included parent satisfaction with the outcomes of these interventions, however Graf et al. (2014) pointed out that *consumer satisfaction* is very different than social validity. Consumer satisfaction is a measure of outcome, whereas social validity speaks to whether or not the effects generated by a specific program are meaningful for everyday life and thus useful for different members of society (Van Houten, 1979).

It is clear from this literature review that more research about parent perspectives regarding parent involvement programs is needed. Because the proposed study aims to explore the social validity of an online parent program implemented as part of a school-based SEL program, results of this study can be used to inform the literature about what parents find important, relevant, and useful.

Conclusion

Online parent programs are relatively new; however, they have much potential. As technology improves and more programs utilize online resources to engage parents, it is important to examine the social validity of these programs. If parents do not find the methods of online parent involvement to be acceptable, there is little reason to research or improve them. Examining social validity can also help make improvements to programs based on parent suggestions.

APPENDIX B: DETAILED METHODS

In order to explore the social validity of an online parent involvement program, parents of students enrolled in the WhyTry program were surveyed to about their opinions of and experiences with WhyTry for Parents. In addition, coordinators of the WhyTry program at each participating school were invited take part in interviews regarding parent participation in WhyTry for Parents, as well as suggestions for program improvement. The data collected from the surveys and interviews was used to determine if the program's goals, procedures, and effects were significant and acceptable to parents, and will also help researchers improve parent involvement programs. The following sections provide a detailed description of data collection, the sample, the measures, and data analysis for this study.

Data Collection

In order to gain access to parents of students receiving WhyTry, the recruitment process was coordinated through the WhyTry organization and was completed in two stages. The first stage involved recruiting schools who were utilizing the WhyTry program with students, and the second stage involved contacting the parents at each of these schools to invite them to participate in the study.

Recruitment of schools. In order to be eligible to participate, schools were required to be implementing a WhyTry group with school-aged students (K-12) during the time of the study, have a formally trained WhyTry facilitator, and be willing to aid in data collection. School recruitment was originally anticipated to occur during one school year; however, due to low rates of parent participation, recruitment efforts extended into a second school year.

2015-2015 school year. Participants during the first year of data collection were recruited using a list of parents who were invited to participate in an independent pilot study of

WhyTry for Parents that was being conducted by the WhyTry organization. In an effort to locate parents to participate in this pilot program, the WhyTry organization contacted each school and organization in their client database via email and invited them to participate in a pilot program for WhyTry for Parents. Many emails were either returned as undeliverable or received no response; therefore, an alternate approach was used during the second year of recruitment.

WhyTry originally planned to compare students' pre- and post-test SEARS scores, and chose to focus on middle school students due to the large number of middle schools (n = 43) who expressed interest in participating in the study, and in order to ensure that comparisons of scores were being done across the same general age of the students. Once it became apparent, however, that parent participation was extremely low, the study was opened to elementary schools and high schools in the hopes that more parents would participate. Due to the low rate of parent participation, it was decided to that the results of the SEARS assessments would not be reliable or valid, therefore that portion of the study was concluded. At this point, the lead researcher, in her role as a doctoral student, decided to focus on the social validity of an online parent curriculum in order to determine whether or not an online program was valuable to parents. Schools enrolled in the second year were not offered a free SEARS assessment, and it is unknown whether this affected the number of schools that were willing to participate.

2015-2016 school year. The second year of data collection began just prior to the 2015-2016 school year when it was determined that more data was needed for the study, and four new strategies were used to recruit additional schools. The first strategy was to post a notice on the official WhyTry website with details about the study and an invitation to participate. Interested schools filled out a form online and were contacted by the lead researcher. One school that responded to the official notice ultimately ended up collecting data for the study. Another

strategy was to have the lead researcher invite a private company to participate in data collection. This company ran several WhyTry groups with high school students in conjunction with the Division of Workforce Services (DWS).   Both the private company and DWS gave permission to recruit from two of their groups: one that was currently using the WhyTry curriculum, and one that had completed WhyTry two weeks prior to receiving the invitation to participate. It was deemed appropriate to include the parents whose children had recently completed the WhyTry program because the original criteria for participation only required that the school be running a WhyTry group during the time of the study. In addition, the study was not examining whether the parent program meaningfully changed the students' experience, and parents of students who had recently participated in WhyTry would still have a valid feedback regarding the social validity of WhyTry for Parents.

An attempt was made to recruit correctional facilities that have a strong tradition of using WhyTry with their school-aged population and who work closely with the WhyTry office. While initially showing excitement in partnering in this project, the WhyTry program manager over these facilities did not respond to repeated requests to begin recruitment. The last strategy for recruiting schools was to put a page in the official WhyTry newsletter explaining the study and inviting schools to participate, along with an entry in the WhyTry blog. Neither of these tasks, however, were completed in time to recruit school participants.

Overview. Over the two-year recruitment period, a total of 78 schools indicated that they would be interested in participating in the study. A total of 45 schools met the eligibility criteria, and letters of authorization to participate in the study were received from 14 schools. Upon receipt of letters of authorization, 14 schools were enrolled in the study, and 11 schools attempted to collect data from parents (see Table B-1). Three sites dropped out of the pilot

program: two abruptly ceased communication in January and February of 2015 and did not respond to researcher attempts to contact them, and one site received district approval too late in the school year to participate.

Table B-1

Number of Schools and Parents Invited to Participate in WhyTry for Parents

Schools Invited	Number of Schools	Number of Parent Invitations
Interested schools	78	--
Eligible schools	45	--
Received authorization	14	--
Attempted data collection	11	836

Only one participating school offered WhyTry as part of a universal prevention program (intended for all students in the school), and each parent in this elementary school (n = 574) was invited to participate. WhyTry coordinators at each of the other schools (one elementary and nine secondary) offered WhyTry as part of an intervention program (intended for students identified as at-risk of school failure due to academic or behavioral issues), and a total of 262 parents were invited to participate (see Table B-2).

Table B-2

Number of Schools and Parent Invitations by Educational Stage of Schools and Purpose of WhyTry Program

Type of school and program	Number of Schools	Number of Parent Invitations
Elementary Schools		
Prevention	1	574
Intervention	1	11
Secondary Schools		
Prevention	0	0
Intervention	9	251

A brief description of each participating school is provided in Table B-3, and includes each school's educational stage, the type of WhyTry program implemented at the school (intervention or prevention), the number of parent invitations and responses to the invitations, and a record of the parents' activity in WhyTry for Parents. Two school groups participated in the second year of data collection; however, because these parents could not be identified according to school, their totals have been combined.

Table B-3

Education Level, Group Type, and Description of Parent Participation by School

School	Educational stage	Type of group	Total invitations	Parents enrolled	Four assignments completed	Less than four assignments	Login only	No login
1	Elementary	Prevention	574	21	1	2	1	17
2	Elementary	Intervention	11	4	0	2	0	2
3	Secondary	Intervention	5	1	0	1	0	0
4	Secondary	Intervention	20	13	0	0	2	11
5	Secondary	Intervention	20	6	0	0	1	5
6	Secondary	Intervention	70	6	0	1	2	3
7	Secondary	Intervention	27	7	3	1	0	3
8	Secondary	Intervention	18	5	0	0	0	5
9	Secondary	Intervention	8	8	0	0	0	8
10-11	Secondary	Intervention	83	8	2	1	2	3
		Totals	836	79	6	8	8	57

Recruitment of parents. WhyTry coordinators distributed letters to all parents of students receiving WhyTry at their schools. Letters were delivered in one of three ways: via U.S. mail, sent home with the student, or delivered by the WhyTry coordinator. The parent letter contained an explanation of the WhyTry program, a paragraph about the importance of parent involvement in school-based programming, and an invitation to participate in a study evaluating WhyTry for Parents. Parents were informed that if they completed four assignments by the end

of the school year, they would be invited to share their opinions regarding the online parent

curriculum and they would be compensated for their efforts with a $20 gift card. (Parents who

completed these requirements will be referred to as *participating parents* for the remainder of

this paper.) If they chose not to participate in the study, parents were invited to take a shorter

survey that would be provided electronically or via U.S. mail, and they would be compensated

with a $5 gift card. (These parents will be referred to as *non-participating parents* for the

remainder of this paper.)

2014-2015 school year. In the first year of recruitment, interested parents replied to the

invitation by returning a form with their names and email addresses and indicated (by checking a

box) whether they would like to participate in the online curriculum, or take a short survey at the

end of the school year regarding why they chose not to participate. Parents who wished to

participate were enrolled in the WhyTry for Parents online course and were invited to complete

assignments at their own pace. A comprehensive list of sites and participants was kept that

included the name of the site coordinator, basic parent information, a record of whether the

parents logged in to access the site, and how many assignments were completed.

Toward the end of the school year, parents were sent two emails (one in April and one in

June) with directions regarding how to complete the appropriate survey. A total of 71 parents

agreed to participate and were enrolled in the program; however, 76% of these parents (n = 53)

never logged in to the website. Six percent of parents who enrolled in WhyTry for Parents (n =

4) completed at least four assignments and were sent the link to the participating parent survey

(all four parents took the survey and received a $20 gift card as compensation). One parent (1%)

requested to take the non-participating parent survey at the beginning of the school year and was

sent the link to the non-participating parent survey. Ten percent (n = 7) of enrolled parents

logged in to the website and completed between one and three assignments, and 8% (n = 6) logged in but completed no assignments, and were sent a reminder to complete four assignments in order to be eligible to take the full survey. If parents did not complete a survey by the end of the school year, they were sent one final email with the link to the non-participating parent survey. The parents who did not respond to the initial invitation to participate in the study (n = 757) did not receive a reminder to take the non-participating parent survey.

2015-2016 school year. In an effort to increase parent participation, different methods were used to recruit parents during the second year of recruitment. Instead of filling out a paper enrollment form and returning it to the WhyTry coordinator (who then sent the form to the lead researcher), parents were supplied with a URL link and were able to electronically fill out a form to enroll in WhyTry for Parents. Although this simplified and sped up the process of enrolling parents in the online parent course, it also made it impossible to associate the parent with the school at which their child received WhyTry. This prevented us from comparing rates of participation between the different schools.

Another key difference in recruiting methods was the availability of the parent surveys. During the 2015-2016 school year, the link for the non-participating survey was provided in the parent letter, and therefore immediately accessible to parents who chose not to participate in WhyTry for Parents; however, the parents who participated in the 2014-2015 school year were required to wait until the end of the school year to complete either survey. It is unknown whether this affected parent participation in the curriculum or the number of parents who chose to complete a non-participating parent survey.

During the second year of the study, a total of eight parents indicated that they were interested in participating in WhyTry for Parents. Two parents (25%) completed four

assignments and took the participating parent survey, one parent (13%) completed at least one

but less than four assignments, two parents (13%) logged in but did not complete any

assignments, and three parents (43%) did not log in at all. At the end of the 2015-2016 school

year, each parent who enrolled in the program but had not completed four assignments was sent

two email reminders to complete additional assignments in order to be eligible for the

participating parent survey. They were also invited to take the non-participating parent survey if

they did not wish to complete more assignments. None of these parents responded to the email

or completed the non-participating parent survey.

The incentive to earn money by taking surveys may have led to fraudulent surveys being

completed. During the second year of recruitment, 16 parents requested to participate in

WhyTry for Parents, and 75 completed non-participating parent surveys; however, these entries

were found to be fraudulent and were likely completed by the same person. Without the

financial incentive attached to the completion of assignments and surveys, it is unlikely

fraudulent entries would be an issue.

Sample

Over the two-year recruitment period, 836 parents were invited to take part in the study;

however, only 9% (n = 79) agreed to participate. Of those who agreed to participate, 72% (n =

57) did not log in to the parent website, 10% (n = 8) logged in at least one time but never

completed an assignment, and 10% (n = 8) completed at least one assignment but less than the

four required to take the participating parent survey. Less than 8% (n = 6) completed four

assignments and took the participating parent survey.

Fourteen parents made up the final sample, and a summary of their demographic

information is found in Table B-4 . Overall, most parent respondents were Caucasian (87%), and

most were female (87%). Each of the parents who completed four assignments and took the

participating parent survey were Caucasian females. There was slightly more racial and gender

diversity among non-participating parents, with two members of racial minority groups and two

male respondents. In general, non-participating parents were younger than participating parents,

with 75% of non-participating parents in the lowest age bracket, as compared to 33% of

participating parents. Participating parents reported higher levels of education than non-

participating parents, with all participating parents completing at least some college, and 67%

completing a college degree. In contrast, 38% of non-participating parents had a high school

diploma or less, and 50% had completed a college degree.

Table B-4

Respondents' Race, Gender, Age, Education, and Relation to Student

Demographics	Participating Parents (n=6)	Non-participating Parents (n=8)
Race		
Caucasian	6	6
Other	0	2
Gender		
Male	0	2
Female	6	6
Age		
25 to 44	2	6
45 to 54	2	1
55+	2	1
Education		
High School or less	0	3
Some college	2	1
Bachelor degree	3	2
Graduate degree	1	2
Relation to Student		
Father	0	2
Mother	5	5
Guardian	1	1

Measures

Parent surveys. In order to examine parent perspectives regarding the social validity of the online parent curriculum, respondents completed a survey designed by the primary researcher to assess their perceptions of the goals, effects, and procedures of WhyTry for Parents. The surveys were constructed based on surveys developed by Howell et al. (2014), the Social and Emotional Assets and Resilience Scales (SEARS) (Merrell, 2011), and the suggestions of Gall et al. (2007). Survey items were designed to assess the three domains of social validity: the significance of program goals, the importance of program effects, the acceptability of program procedures. The surveys were available online using a website that specializes in designing and administering online surveys. Paper copies of each survey were also available upon request, and two non-participating parents utilized the paper version.

Because participating and non-participating parents had differing levels of experience with the parent curriculum, two separate surveys were administered. The first section of each survey, however, was identical and included a statement of implied consent and a demographics section. The demographics section included questions regarding the respondents' relationship to the child in WhyTry (mother, father, grandparent, other caregiver); the grade of the child enrolled in the WhyTry program; and the respondent's gender, race, age, and level of education. This information was primarily used to describe the sample; however, it was also useful in exploring patterns and trends in the data related to the reported demographic information. Parents were informed that they could choose to skip any of the items in the demographics section that made them uncomfortable. Both surveys also had a series of open-ended questions and utilized the same 5-point Likert scale, where *Strongly Disagree* received a score of 1,

Disagree a score of 2, *Neutral* a score of 3, *Agree* a score of 4, and *Strongly Agree* a score of 5. The number of items on each survey, however, was quite different.

Participating parents responded to a 41-item survey designed to assess their perception of the program's goals, effects, and procedures. Thirty-six survey items were administered using a Likert scale, with eight items designed to assess the importance of program goals (four items for each goal), 13 items designed to assess the importance of program effects (seven items for self-management and six items for management of relationships with others), and 15 items designed to assess the acceptability of program procedures (three survey items for each of the four sections in the curriculum, and three items for overall acceptability of procedures). There were five open-ended survey items regarding what they liked and disliked about the parent curriculum, the main reason they chose to participate, the main reason they did not complete more assignments, and an invitation to write about anything else they wanted researchers to know. WhyTry and WhyTry for Parents were only available in English; therefore, the participating parent survey was available only in English.

Non-participating parents responded to an eight-item survey designed to assess their perspectives regarding the WhyTry program's goals and effects. Five survey items were administered using a Likert scale, with two items designed to assess parent perspectives regarding importance of program goals (one item for each goal), and three items designed to assess the importance of program effects (two items for self-management and one item for management of relationships with others). Because non-participating parents did not have sufficient knowledge of the curriculum, there were no items related to program procedures. In addition to Likert scale items, there were three open-ended survey items regarding why they chose not to participate in WhyTry for Parents, what would motivate them to participate, and an

invitation to write about anything else they wanted to communicate. Non-participating parent

surveys were available in English and in Spanish; however, no Spanish surveys were completed.

Both parent surveys were pilot-tested using three parents of school-aged children who are

familiar with the WhyTry for Parents program. Feedback was sought regarding their

understanding of the items (what they thought each question meant), the wording of the items,

and any other general feedback they might have about the surveys. As a result of this feedback,

some changes were made to the surveys. These were primarily changes in wording meant to

clarify survey items, as well as make them more parent-friendly. For example, the wording of

the phrase "My child was referred to WhyTry for specific issues" was changed to "specific

concerns," based on feedback that the word "concern" might be considered less judgmental than

the word "issue." Another example includes one of the open-ended questions on the non-

participating parent survey, which originally asked, "What would encourage you to use the

online parent program?" Based on feedback, the word "encourage" was replaced by "motivate"

because it was felt that this word was easier to respond to and understand.

Coordinator interviews. In order to gain insight into the vast majority of parents who

did not respond to the initial invitation to participate in the study, online and telephone

interviews were conducted with WhyTry coordinators who assisted in data collection. Most

coordinators had direct contact with parents and could share their perceptions regarding why

many parents chose not to participate. Ten coordinators assisted with parent recruitment (the

lead researcher coordinated recruitment efforts at the eleventh school), and each of them was

invited to participate in an online group interview, along with a personal phone interview.

Ultimately, seven coordinators participated in the interview process.

Among the participating coordinators were two special education teachers, two mental health clinicians, two school social workers, and one school counselor. All seven coordinators implemented WhyTry as an intervention program: six in secondary schools, and one in an elementary school. One participating coordinator utilized WhyTry in individual counseling, and the other six coordinators utilized the program in small groups.

Coordinators were asked a series of open-ended questions designed to elicit their opinions and observations regarding parent participation and WhyTry for Parents. Questions included: What do parents know about WhyTry? What are the reasons parents did not participate? What would you do to increase parent participation? What are your views about online parent participation? How do you think the WhyTry for Parents curriculum could be improved?

Description of WhyTry for Parents

WhyTry for Parents is an online resource for parents of students enrolled in the WhyTry program that allows parents to see what their children are learning, gives them a forum to share ideas with other parents, and encourages parents to talk to their children about SEL skills. The curriculum consists of 10 units based on each of the visual analogies contained in the WhyTry program (plus one introductory unit). Each unit utilizes the same teaching philosophy espoused by the WhyTry program, namely using music, videos, discussions, and activities to capture the parents' attention and bolster their learning. Each unit is made up of four different sections: watch, share, discuss, and practice.

The watch section contains a short written explanation and a visual walk-through of the analogy for that unit. These explanations are included to help parents understand the analogy without relying on their child's explanation or needing to attend a WhyTry group. The share

section encourages parents to share music, YouTube videos, or descriptions of other media related to the analogy. This is an attempt to stay true to WhyTry's philosophy of using a multisensory approach to learning ("WhyTry: Resilience Education," 2011). The discuss section contains one or two questions meant to start a discussion among parents enrolled in the online parent course about the main concept of the unit. Parents are encouraged to think about how they can help their children apply these concepts to their own lives. Participants are also encouraged to post at least one comment or question and then respond to at least one other parent comment. The practice section contains one activity that parents can do with their children to reinforce the main concept of the analogy and open a dialogue between parents and children

In addition to the online curriculum, parents received an email every two weeks from a WhyTry trainer. This email contained a reminder to log in to WhyTry for Parents, along with one or two news stories, YouTube links, or other videos or media that related to one of the 10 visual analogies. The primary reason for this email was to encourage parents to log in and participate, as well as to provide them with examples of media they could share with other parents.

The WhyTry for Parents website was monitored by the primary researcher, who is a Licensed Clinical Social Worker (LCSW) and works for WhyTry as a trainer and research consultant, and moderates the site as part of her duties at WhyTry. She responded to parents' questions and comments, monitored the time parents spent on the website, and tracked what assignments and units were completed. No psychological advice was given to parents.

Data Analysis

An analysis of parent responses to Likert scale items addressed the first research question regarding the social validity of the goals, effects, and procedures of WhyTry for Parents.

Multiple survey items corresponded to each goal, each effect, and each procedure. These items were summed and averaged to obtain an individual parent's overall score for each goal, effect, and procedure. Means and standard deviations for all participating parents and all non-participating parents were then calculated and used to describe the results. For this study, mean scores between 4.5 and 5 indicated a strong agreement with survey items and provided clear evidence of social validity, scores from 3.8 to 4.5 indicated a moderate agreement with survey items and evidence of moderate social validity, and scores below 3.8 indicated neutral parent responses and weak social validity. A two-sample t-test compared the means between participating and non-participating parents, and Cohen's d was used to measure whether the effect size for each program goal and each program effect was large (0.8), moderate (0.5) or small (0.2) (Cohen, 1988).

Parents' responses to open-ended survey items and coordinators' responses to interview questions addressed research questions two and three regarding reasons for parents' levels of participation and their suggestions for program improvement. Open coding identified concepts and themes in parent and coordinator responses. Themes in the data were established if two or more respondents mentioned a specific concept or issue. Axial coding was used to explore relationships between themes as well as between themes and participant demographics.

APPENDIX C: IRB APPROVAL

Institutional Review Board
for Human Subjects

Brigham Young University
A-285 ASB Provo, Utah 84602
(801) 422-3841 / Fax: (801) 422-0620

July 29, 2015

Gina Hales

945 W 400 N

Provo UT 84601

Re: E 15169

    The Social Validity of an Online Parent Involvement Program: WhyTry for Parents

Dear Gina Hales

This is to inform you that Brigham Young University's Institutional Review Board has reviewed your Amendment dated 7-20-2015 for the above captioned study. The changes to the study have been approved.

The enclosed recruitment advertisement has been approved. Advertisements, letters, Internet postings and any other media for subject recruitment must be submitted to IRB and approved prior to use.

The approved period for the study ends on 4-14-2016. Any additional modifications in the research protocol, study site, personnel, or consent form during this time period must first be reviewed and approved by the IRB.

If you have any questions, please let us know. We wish you well with your research.

Sincerely,

Robert Ridge, PhD., Chair
Sandee M.P. Munoz, Administrator
Institutional Review Board for Human Subjects

Institutional Review Board
for Human Subjects

BYU

Brigham Young University
A-285 ASB Provo, Utah 84602
(801) 422-3841 / Fax: (801) 422-0620

April 14, 2016

Gina Hales
945 W 400 N
Provo UT 84601

Re: E 15169
       The Social Validity of an Online Parent Involvement Program: WhyTry for Parents

Dear   Gina Hales

This is to inform you Brigham Young University's IRB has renewed its approval of the above noted research study.

The approval period is from 4-14-2016 to 4-14-2017. Your study number is E15169. Please be sure to reference either this number and/or the study title in any correspondence with the IRB.

All conditions for continued approval during the prior approval period remain in effect. These include, but are not necessarily limited to the following requirements:

A copy of the Informed Consent Document, approved as of 4-14-2016 is enclosed. No other consent form should be used.

All protocol amendments and changes to approved research must be submitted to the IRB and not be implemented until approved by the IRB.

The enclosed recruitment advertisement has been approved. Advertisements, letters, Internet postings and any other media for subject recruitment must be submitted to IRB and approved prior to use.

Sincerely,

Robert Ridge, PhD., Chair
Sandee Aina, Administrator
Institutional Review Board for Human Subjects

DISSERTATION REFERENCES

Acuna, A., Vega, L., Meza, J., Marqez, M., & Vera, D. (2008). *Outcome evaluation methods and results for the South Los Angeles Resiliency (SOLAR) project*. Presented at the School Social Work Association of America, Los Angeles, CA.

Albright, M. I., & Weissberg, R. P. (2010). School-family partnerships to promote social and emotional learning. In S. L. Christenson & A. L. Reschly (Eds.), *Handbook of School-Family Partnerships* (pp. 246–264). New York, NY: Routledge.

Altschul, I. (2011). Parental involvement and the academic achievement of Mexican American youths: What kinds of involvement in youths' education matter most? *Social Work Research*, *35*(3), 159–170.

Alvarez, M. E., & Anderson-Ketchmark, C. (2009). Review of an evidence-based school social work intervention: WhyTry. *Children & Schools*, *31*(1), 59–61.

Askins, M. A., Sahler, O. J. Z., Sherman, S. A., Fairclough, D. L., Butler, R. W., Katz, E. R., … Phipps, S. (2009). Report from a multi-institutional randomized clinical trial examining computer-assisted problem-solving skills training for English-and Spanish-speaking mothers of children with newly diagnosed cancer. *Journal of Pediatric Psychology*, *34*(5), 551–563.

Baggett, K. M., Davis, B., Feil, E. G., Sheeber, L. B., Landry, S. H., Carta, J. J., & Leve, C. (2010). Technologies for expanding the reach of evidence-based interventions: Preliminary results for promoting social-emotional development in early childhood. *Topics in Early Childhood Special Education*, *29*(4), 226–238. https://doi.org/10.1177/0271121409354782

Baker, C. N., Arnold, D. H., & Meagher, S. (2011). Enrollment and attendance in a parent training prevention program for conduct problems. *Prevention Science*, *12*(2), 126–138. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11121-010-0187-0

Baker, D. (2008). *Examining the effectiveness of the Why Try program for children receiving residentially based services and attending a non-public school* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Southern California, Los Angeles, CA. Retrieved from http://gradworks.umi.com/33/31/3331194.html

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Bandura, A., Grusec, J. E., & Menlove, F. L. (1966). Observational learning as a function of symbolization and incentive set. *Child Development*, *37*, 499–506.

Barlow, J., Coren, E., & Stewart-Brown, S. (2002). Meta-analysis of the effectiveness of parenting programmes in improving maternal psychosocial health. *British Journal of General Practice*, *52*(476), 223–233.

Beaumont, R., & Sofronoff, K. (2008). A multi-component social skills intervention for children with Asperger syndrome: The Junior Detective Training Program. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, *49*(7), 743–753. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7610.2008.01920.x

Belfield, C., Bowden, A. B., Klapp, A., Levin, H., Shand, R., & Zander, S. (2015). The economic value of social and emotional learning. *Journal of Benefit-Cost Analysis*, *6*(03), 508–544.

Bert, S. C., Farris, J. R., & Borkowski, J. G. (2008). Parent training: Implementation strategies for Adventures in Parenting. *The Journal of Primary Prevention*, *29*(3), 243–261. https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org.erl.lib.byu.edu/10.1007/s10935-008-0135-y

Bierman, K. L., Coie, J. D., Dodge, K. A., Foster, E. M., Greenberg, M. T., Lochman, J. E., … Pinderhughes, E. E. (2004). The effects of the Fast Track Program on serious problem outcomes at the end of elementary school. *Journal of Clinical Child & Adolescent Psychology*, *33*(4), 650–661. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15374424jccp3304_1

Bierman, K. L., & Motamedi, M. (2015). Social-emotional programs for preschool children. In J. A. Durlak, C. Domitrovich, R. P. Weissberg, T. P. Gullotta, & J. P. Comer (Eds.), *Handbook of Social and Emotional Learning: Research and Practice* (pp. 131–151). New York, NY: Guilford.

Bird, B. (2010). *WhyTry Evaluation Report 2006-2010* (Churchill County Probation Report, Field Research). Churchill County, NC. Retrieved from https://www.whytry.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=109

Blom-Hoffman, J., Wilcox, K. R., Dunn, L., Leff, S. S., & Power, T. J. (2008). Family involvement in school-based health promotion: Bringing nutrition information home. *School Psychology Review*, *37*(4), 567–577.

Blum, R. W., Libbey, H. P., Bishop, J. H., & Bishop, M. (2004). School connectedness–Strengthening health and education outcomes for teenagers. *Journal of School Health*, *74*(7), 231–235.

Bornstein, P. H., & Rychtarik, R. G. (1983). Consumer satisfaction in adult behavior therapy: Procedures, problems, and future perspectives. *Behavior Therapy*, *14*(2), 191–208. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0005-7894(83)80110-5

Breitenstein, S. M., Gross, D., & Christophersen, R. (2014). Digital delivery methods of

    parenting training interventions: A systematic review. *Worldviews on Evidence-Based*

    Nursing, *11*(3), 168–176. https://doi.org/10.1111/wvn.12040

Breitenstein, S. M., Schoeny, M., Risser, H., & Johnson, T. (2016). A study protocol testing the

    implementation, efficacy, and cost effectiveness of the ezParent program in pediatric

    primary care. *Contemporary Clinical Trials*, *50*, 229–237. Retrieved from:

    http://www.sciencedirect.com.erl.lib.byu.edu/science/article/pii/S1551714416302555

    https://doi.org/10.1111/wvn.12040

Brestan, E. V., & Eyberg, S. M. (1998). Effective psychosocial treatments of conduct-disordered

    children and adolescents: 29 years, 82 studies, and 5,272 kids. *Journal of Clinical Child*

    Psychology, *27*(2), 180–189.

Buchanan, R., Gueldner, B. A., Tran, O. K., & Merrell, K. W. (2009). Social and emotional

    learning in classrooms: A survey of teachers' knowledge, perceptions, and practices.

    Journal of Applied School Psychology, *25*(2), 187–203.

    https://doi.org/10.1080/15377900802487078

Bushnell, B., & Card, K. (2003). *Alpine School District longitudinal study* (Field report).

    Pleasant Grove, UT: Alpine School District. Retrieved from:

    http://whytry.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=251

Calam, R., Sanders, M. R., Miller, C., Sadhnani, V., & Carmont, S.A. (2008). Can technology

    and the media help reduce dysfunctional parenting and increase engagement with

    preventative parenting interventions? *Child Maltreatment*, *13*(4), 347–361.

Caldarella, P., Christensen, L., Kramer, T., & Kronmiller, K. (2009). Promoting social and

    emotional learning in second grade students: A study of the Strong Start curriculum.

Early Childhood Education Journal, *37*(1), 51–56. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10643-009-0321-4

Campbell, M. L., Helf, S., & Cooke, N. L. (2008). Effects of adding multisensory components to a supplemental reading program on the decoding skills of treatment resisters. *Education & Treatment of Children*, *31*(3), 267–295.

Caprara, G. V., Barbaranelli, C., Pastorelli, C., Bandura, A., & Zimbardo, P. G. (2000). Prosocial foundations of children's academic achievement. *Psychological Science*, *11*(4), 302–306.

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Routledge.

Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning. (n.d.). Retrieved June 4, 2014, from http://www.casel.org/

Conduct Problems Prevention Research Group. (1999). Initial impact of the Fast Track prevention trial for conduct problems: II. Classroom effects. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, *67*(5), 648–657.

Conduct Problems Prevention Research Group. (2010). Fast Track intervention effects on youth arrests and delinquency. *Journal of Experimental Criminology*, *6*(2), 131–157.

Conduct Problems Prevention Research Group. (2011). The effects of the Fast Track preventive intervention on the development of conduct disorder across childhood. *Child Development*, *82*(1), 331–345. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.2010.01558.x

Cooke, M. B., Ford, J., Levine, J., Bourke, C., Newell, L., & Lapidus, G. (2007). The effects of city-wide implementation of "Second Step" on elementary school students' prosocial and aggressive behaviors. *The Journal of Primary Prevention*, *28*(2), 93–115. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10935-007-0080-1

Cowen, E. L., Pederson, A., Babigian, H., Isso, L. D., & Trost, M. A. (1973). Long-term follow-up of early detected vulnerable children. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, *41*(3), 438–446. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0035373

Cunha, D. B., Souza, B. da S. N. de, Pereira, R. A., & Sichieri, R. (2013). Effectiveness of a randomized school-based intervention involving families and teachers to prevent excessive weight gain among adolescents in Brazil. *PLoS ONE, 8*(2). Retrieved from: http://journals.plos.org/plosone/article?id=10.1371/journal.pone.0057498 https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0057498

Daneback, K., & Plantin, L. (2015). Research on parenthood and the internet: Themes and trends. *Cyberpsychology: Journal of Psychosocial Research on Cyberspace*, *2*(2). Retrieved from https://journals.muni.cz/cyberpsychology/article/view/4213

DeGarmo, D. S., Eddy, J. M., Reid, J. B., & Fetrow, R. A. (2009). Evaluating mediators of the impact of the Linking the Interests of Families and Teachers (LIFT) multimodal preventive intervention on substance use initiation and growth across adolescence. *Prevention Science*, *10*(3), 208–220.

Denham, S. A., Ji, P., & Hamre, B. (2010). Compendium of preschool through elementary school social-emotional learning and associated assessment measures. Chicago, IL: Collaborative Communications Group, University of Illinois at Chicago. Retrieved from http://www.isbe.net/learningsupports/pdfs/sel-compendium.pdf

Dryfoos, J. G. (1997). The prevalence of problem behaviors: Implications for programs. In R. P. Weissberg, T. P. Gullotta, R. L. Hampton, B. A. Ryan, & G. A. Adams (Eds.), *Healthy children 2010: Enhancing children's wellness. Issues in children's and families' lives* (Vol. 8). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Dumas, J. E., Nissley-Tsiopinis, J., & Moreland, A. D. (2007). From intent to enrollment, attendance, and participation in preventive parenting groups. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, *16*(1), 1–26.

Durlak, J. A., Weissberg, R. P., Dymnicki, A. B., Taylor, R. D., & Schellinger, K. B. (2011). The impact of enhancing students' social and emotional learning: A meta-analysis of school-based universal interventions. *Child Development*, *82*(1), 405–432.

Durlak, J. A., Weissberg, R. P., & Peterson, T. K. (2013). Afterschool programs that follow evidenced-based practices to promote social and emotional development are effective. In *Expanding minds and opportunities: Leveraging the power of afterschool and summer learning for student success* (pp. 194–198). Washington, D.C.: Collaborative Communications Group.

Eaton, D. K., Brener, N., & Kann, L. K. (2008). Associations of health risk behaviors with school absenteeism: Does having permission for the absence make a difference? *Journal of School Health*, *78*(4), 223–229. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1746-1561.2008.00290.x

Eggett, G. D. (2003). *An intervention to mediate motivational shortcomings caused by childhood maltreatment* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Nova Southeastern University, Ft. Lauderdale, FL.

Eisner, M., & Meidert, U. (2011). Stages of parental engagement in a universal parent training program. *Journal of Primary Prevention*, *32*(2), 83–93. https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org.erl.lib.byu.edu/10.1007/s10935-011-0238-8

Elias, M. J., Gager, P., & Leon, S. (1997). Spreading a warm blanket of prevention over all children: Guidelines for selecting substance abuse and related prevention curricula for use in the schools. *Journal of Primary Prevention*, *18*(1), 41–69.

Elias, M. J., Parker, S. J., Kash, V. M., Weissberg, R. P., & O'Brien, M. U. (2008). Social and emotional learning, moral education, and character education: A comparative analysis and a view toward convergence. In L. P. Nucci, T. Krettenauer, & D. Narvaez (Eds.), *Handbook of moral and character education* (pp. 248–266). New York, NY: Routledge.

Elias, M. J., Weissberg, R., Frey, K. S., Greenberg, M. T., & Haynes, N. M. (1997). *Promoting social and emotional learning: Guidelines for educators*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Enebrink, P. (2013). Online program improves parenting skills and decreases early-childhood disruptive behavior. *The Journal of Pediatrics*, *162*(3), 651–652. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpeds.2012.12.061

Enebrink, P., Högström, J., Forster, M., & Ghaderi, A. (2012). Internet-based parent management training: A randomized controlled study. *Behaviour Research and Therapy*, *50*(4), 240–249. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.brat.2012.01.006

Fabiano, G. A. (2007). Father participation in behavioral parent training for ADHD: Review and recommendations for increasing inclusion and engagement. *Journal of Family Psychology*, *21*(4), 683–693. https://doi.org/10.1037/0893-3200.21.4.683

Fawcett, S. B. (1991). Social validity: A note on methodology. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis*, *24*(2), 235–239.

Finn, C. A., & Sladeczek, I. E. (2001). Assessing the social validity of behavioral interventions: A review of treatment acceptability measures. *School Psychology Quarterly*, *16*(2), 176–206. https://doi.org/10.1521/scpq.16.2.176.18703

Fishel, M., & Ramirez, L. (2005). Evidence-based parent involvement interventions with school-aged children. *School Psychology Quarterly*, *20*(4), 371–402. https://doi.org/10.1521/scpq.2005.20.4.371

Fukkink, R. G. (2008). Video feedback in widescreen: A meta-analysis of family programs. *Clinical Psychology Review*, *28*(6), 904–916. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2008.01.003

Funderburk, B. W., Ware, L. M., Altshuler, E., & Chaffin, M. (2008). Use and feasibility of telemedicine technology in the dissemination of parent-child interaction therapy. *Child Maltreatment*, *13*(4), 377–382.

Gall, M. D., Gall, J. P., & Borg, W. R. (2007). *Educational research: An introduction* (8th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.

Gee, E. J. (2003). *Report to Granite School District on the WhyTry program*. Salt Lake City, UT: Granite School District. Retrieved from www.whytry.org/research.php

Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional Intelligence*. New York, NY: Bantam Books.

Gonzalez, L. M., Borders, L. D., Hines, E. M., Villalba, J. A., & Henderson, A. (2013). Parental involvement in children's education: Considerations for school counselors working with Latino immigrant families. *Professional School Counseling*, *16*(3), 185–193.

Graf, F. A., Grumm, M., Hein, S., & Fingerle, M. (2014). Improving parental competencies: Subjectively perceived usefulness of a parent training matters. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, *23*(1), 20–28.

Greenberg, M. T., Weissberg, R. P., O'Brien, M. U., Zins, J. E., Fredericks, 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.

Gresham, F. M. (1998). Social skills training: Should we raze, remodel, or rebuild? *Behavioral Disorders*, *24*(1), 19–25.

Gresham, F. M., & Lopez, M. F. (1996). Social validation: A unifying concept for school-based consultation research and practice. *School Psychology Quarterly*, *11*(3), 204–227. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0088930

Griffiths, F., Lindenmeyer, A., Powell, J., Lowe, P., & Thorogood, M. (2006). Why are health care interventions delivered over the Internet? A systematic review of the published literature. *Journal of Medical Internet Research*, *8*(2). http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC1550698/ https://doi.org/10.2196/jmir.8.2.e10

Hawkins, J. D., Catalano, R. F., & Miller, J. Y. (1992). Risk and protective factors for alcohol and other drug problems in adolescence and early adulthood: implications for substance abuse prevention. *Psychological Bulletin*, *112*(1), 64–105.

Hawkins, J. D., Kosterman, R., Catalano, R. F., Hill, K. G., & Abbott, R. D. (2005). Promoting positive adult functioning through social development intervention in childhood: Long-term effects from the Seattle Social Development Project. *Archives of Pediatrics & Adolescent Medicine*, *159*(1), 25–31. https://doi.org/10.1001/archpedi.159.1.25

Hawkins, J. D., Kosterman, R., Catalano, R. F., Hill, K. G., & Abbott, R. D. (2008). Effects of social development intervention in childhood 15 years later. *Archives of Pediatrics & Adolescent Medicine*, *162*(12), 1133–1141.

Heinrichs, N., Bertram, H., Kuschel, A., & Hahlweg, K. (2005). Parent recruitment and retention in a universal prevention program for child behavior and emotional problems: Barriers to research and program participation. *Prevention Science*, *6*(4), 275–286.

Henderson, A. T., & Berla, N. (1994). *A new generation of evidence: The family is critical to student achievement*. Washington, D.C.: National Committee for Citizens in Education. Retrieved from http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED375968

Howell, A., Caldarella, P., Korth, B., & Young, K. R. (2014). Exploring the social validity of teacher praise notes in elementary school. *Journal of Classroom Interaction*, *49*(2), 22–32.

Huitt, W. (2004). Moral and character development. *Educational Psychology Interactive*, 1–10. Retrieved from: http://www.edpsycinteractive.org/topics/morchr/morchr.html

Kaminski, J. W., Valle, L. A., Filene, J. H., & Boyle, C. L. (2008). A meta-analytic review of components associated with parent training program effectiveness. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, *36*(4), 567–589.

Kazdin, A. E. (1977). Assessing the clinical or applied importance of behavior change through social validation. *Behavior Modification*, *1*(4), 427–452. https://doi.org/10.1177/014544557714001

Kazdin, A. E., & Mazurick, J. L. (1994). Dropping out of child psychotherapy: Distinguishing early and late dropouts over the course of treatment. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, *62*(5), 1069–1074. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-006X.62.5.1069

Kennedy, C. H. (1992). Trends in the measurement of social validity. *The Behavior Analyst*, *15*(2), 147–156.

Kramer, T. J., Caldarella, P., Young, K. R., Fischer, L., & Warren, J. S. (2014). Implementing Strong Kids school-wide to reduce internalizing behaviors and increase prosocial behaviors. *Education & Treatment of Children*, *37*(4), 659–680.

Loeber, R. (1990). Development and risk factors of juvenile antisocial behavior and delinquency. *Clinical Psychology Review*, *10*(1), 1–41.

Lonczak, H., Abbott, R., Kosterman, R., Catalano, R., & Hawkins, J. (2002). Effects of the Seattle Social Development Project on sexual behavior, pregnancy, birth, and sexually transmitted disease outcomes by age 21 years. *Archives of Pediatrics & Adolescent Medicine*, *156*(5), 438–447.

Lundahl, B., Risser, H. J., & Lovejoy, M. C. (2006). A meta-analysis of parent training: Moderators and follow-up effects. *Clinical Psychology Review*, *26*(1), 86–104. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2005.07.004

Mackert, M., Kahlor, L., Tyler, D., & Gustafson, J. (2009). Designing e-health interventions for low-health-literate culturally diverse parents: Addressing the obesity epidemic. *Telemedicine and E-Health*, *15*(7), 672–677.

MacLeod, J., & Nelson, G. (2000). Programs for the promotion of family wellness and the prevention of child maltreatment: A meta-analytic review. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, *24*(9), 1127–1149.

Marchant, M., Heath, M. A., & Miramontes, N. Y. (2013). Merging empiricism and humanism role of social validity in the school-wide positive behavior support model. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions*, *15*(4), 221–230. https://doi.org/10.1177/1098300712459356

Marshall, S. P., & Price, H. B. (2007). *The learning compact redefined: A call to action*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Mendez, J. L., Carpenter, J. L., LaForett, D. R., & Cohen, J. S. (2009). Parental engagement and barriers to participation in a community-based preventive intervention. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, *44*(1-2), 1–14.

Merrell, K. W. (2010). Linking prevention science and social and emotional learning: The Oregon Resiliency Project. *Psychology in the Schools*, *47*(1), 55–70.

Merrell, K. W. (2011). *Social Emotional Assets and Resilience Scales (SEARS)* [Assessment instrument]. Lutz, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources (PAR). Retrieved from http://www4.parinc.com/Products/Product.aspx?ProductID=SEARS

Merrell, K. W., Juskelis, M. E., Tran, O. K., & Buchanan, R. (2008). Social and emotional learning in the classroom: Evaluation of Strong Kids and Strong Teens on students' social-emotional knowledge and symptoms. *Journal of Applied School Psychology*, *24*(2), 209–224. https://doi.org/10.1080/15377900802089981

Mitchem, K. J., & Young, K. R. (2001). Adapting self-management programs for classwide use acceptability, feasibility, and effectiveness. *Remedial and Special Education*, *22*(2), 75–88. https://doi.org/10.1177/074193250102200202

Moore, C. (2008). *The WhyTry Program*. Salt Lake City, UT: WhyTry, Inc.

Nakayama, N. J. (2008). *An investigation of the impact of the Strong Kids curriculum on social-emotional knowledge and symptoms of elementary aged students in a self-contained special education setting* (Doctoral dissertation). University of Oregon. Retrieved from http://pages.uoregon.edu/strngkds/researchPDFs/Nakayama2008.pdf

Nelson, L. L. (2011). Social and Emotional Learning. In D. J. Christie (Ed.), *The Encyclopedia of Peace Psychology*. Oxford, England: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

Nieuwboer, C. C., Fukkink, R. G., & Hermanns, J. M. A. (2013). Online programs as tools to improve parenting: A meta-analytic review. *Children and Youth Services Review*, *35*(11), 1823–1829. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2013.08.008

O'Donnell, J., Hawkins, J. D., Catalano, R. F., Abbott, R. D., & Day, L. E. (1995). Preventing school failure, drug use, and delinquency among low-income children: Long-term intervention in elementary schools. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, *65*(1), 87–100. https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/h0079598

Orrell-Valente, J. K., Pinderhughes, E. E., Valente, E., Laird, R. D., Bierman, K. L., Coie, J. D., … Pinderhughes, E. E. (1999). If it's offered, will they come? Influences on parents' participation in a community-based conduct problems prevention program. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, *27*(6), 753–783. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1022258525075

Oyserman, D., Brickman, D., & Rhodes, M. (2007). School Success, Possible Selves, and Parent School Involvement*. *Family Relations*, *56*(5), 479–489. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3729.2007.00475.x

Pacifici, C., Delaney, R., White, L., Nelson, C., & Cummings, K. (2006). Web-based training for foster, adoptive, and kinship parents. *Children and Youth Services Review*, *28*(11), 1329–1343.

Panter-Brick, C., Burgess, A., Eggerman, M., McAllister, F., Pruett, K., & Leckman, J. F. (2014). Practitioner review: Engaging fathers – recommendations for a game change in parenting interventions based on a systematic review of the global evidence. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, *55*(11), 1187–1212. https://doi.org/10.1111/jcpp.12280

Payton, J., Weissberg, R. P., Durlak, J. A., Dymnicki, A. B., Taylor, R. D., Schellinger, K. B., & Pachan, M. (2008). *The positive impact of social and emotional learning for kindergarten to eighth-grade students: Findings from three scientific reviews (Executive Summary)*. Chicago, IL: Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning. Retrieved from http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED505370.pdf

Piotrowska, P. J., Tully, L. A., Lenroot, R., Kimonis, E., Hawes, D., Moul, C., … Dadds, M. R. (2016). Mothers, fathers, and parental systems: A conceptual model of parental engagement in programmes for child mental health—Connect, Attend, Participate, Enact (CAPE). *Clinical Child and Family Psychology Review*, 1–16. Retrieved from: http://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s10567-016-0219-9 https://doi.org/10.1007/s10567-016-0219-9

Plato. (1980). *Plato: The Republic*. Norwalk, CT: Easton Press.

Poulou, M. (2007). Social resilience within a social and emotional learning framework: The perceptions of teachers in Greece. *Emotional & Behavioural Difficulties*, *12*(2), 91–104. https://doi.org/10.1080/13632750701315482

Reid, J. B., Eddy, J. M., Fetrow, R. A., & Stoolmiller, M. (1999). Description and immediate impacts of a preventive intervention for conduct problems. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, *27*(4), 483–518.

Reid, M. J., Webster-Stratton, C., & Baydar, N. (2004). Halting the development of conduct problems in Head Start children: The effects of parent training. *Journal of Clinical Child & Adolescent Psychology*, *33*(2), 279–291.

Reid, M. J., Webster-Stratton, C., & Hammond, M. (2007). Enhancing a classroom social competence and problem-solving curriculum by offering parent training to families of

moderate- to high-risk elementary school children. *Journal of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology*, *36*(4), 605–620.

Reinke, W. M., Stormont, M., Webster-Stratton, C., Newcomer, L. L., & Herman, K. C. (2012). The Incredible Years teacher classroom management program: Using coaching to support generalization to real-world classroom settings. *Psychology in the Schools*, *49*(5), 416–428. https://doi.org/10.1002/pits.21608

Ritterband, L. M., Gonder-Frederick, L. A., Cox, D. J., Clifton, A. D., West, R. W., & Borowitz, S. M. (2003). Internet interventions: In review, in use, and into the future. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, *34*(5), 527–534. https://doi.org/10.1037/0735-7028.34.5.527

Roeser, R. W., Eccles, J. S., & Sameroff, A. J. (2000). School as a context of early adolescents' academic and social-emotional development: A summary of research findings. *The Elementary School Journal*, *100*(5), 443–471.

Roff, M. (1963). Childhood social interactions and young adult psychosis. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, *19*(2), 152–157.

Roff, M., & Sells, S. B. (1968). Juvenile delinquency in relation to peer acceptance-rejection and socio-economic status. *Psychology in the Schools*, *5*(1), 3–18.

Roff, M., Sells, S. B., & Golden, M. M. (1972). *Social adjustment and personality development in children*. Minneapolis, MN: Univesity of Minnesota Press.

Rones, M., & Hoagwood, K. (2000). School-based mental health services: A research review. *Clinical Child and Family Psychology Review*, *3*(4), 223–241.

Sanders, M. R., Baker, S., & Turner, K. M. (2012). A randomized controlled trial evaluating the efficacy of Triple P Online with parents of children with early-onset conduct problems. *Behaviour Research and Therapy*, *50*(11), 675–684.

Schinke, S. P., Fang, L., & Cole, K. C. (2009). Preventing substance use among adolescent girls: 1-year outcomes of a computerized, mother–daughter program. *Addictive Behaviors*, *34*(12), 1060–1064.

Schwartz, I. S., & Baer, D. M. (1991). Social validity assessments: Is current practice state of the art? *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis*, *24*(2), 189–204. https://doi.org/10.1901/jaba.1991.24-189

Sklad, M., Diekstra, R., Ritter, M. D., Ben, J., & Gravesteijn, C. (2012). Effectiveness of school-based universal social, emotional, and behavioral programs: Do they enhance students' development in the area of skill, behavior, and adjustment? *Psychology in the Schools*, *49*(9), 892–909. https://doi.org/10.1002/pits.21641

Spoth, R., & Redmond, C. (2000). Research on family engagement in preventive interventions: Toward improved use of scientific findings in primary prevention practice. *Journal of Primary Prevention*, *21*(2), 267–284.

Spoth, R., Redmond, C., Hockaday, C., & Shin, C. Y. (1996). Barriers to participation in family skills preventive interventions and their evaluations: A replication and extension. *Family Relations*, *45*(3), 247–254.

Stormshak, E., Dishion, T., & Falkenstein, C. (2010). Family-centered, school-based mental health strategies to reduce student behavioral, emotional, and academic risk. In S. L. Christenson & A. L. Reschly (Eds.), *Handbook of School-Family Partnerships* (pp. 228–245). New York, NY: Routledge.

Taking SEL to the next level: The WhyTry Program. (2017, February 2). Retrieved February 2, 2017, from http://whytry.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=674

Taylor, T., & Biglan, A. (1998). Behavioral family interventions for improving child-rearing: A review of the literature for clinicians and policy makers. *Clinical Child and Family Psychology Review*, *1*(1), 41–60.

Taylor, T., Webster-Stratton, C., Feil, E. G., Widdop, C., & Severson, H. H. (2008). Computer-based intervention with coaching: An example using the Incredible Years program. *Cognitive Behaviour Therapy*, *37*(4), 233–246. https://doi.org/10.1080/16506070802364511

Tiano, J. D., & McNeil, C. B. (2005). The inclusion of fathers in behavioral parent training: A critical evaluation. *Child & Family Behavior Therapy*, *27*(4), 1–28. https://doi.org/10.1300/J019v27n04_01

Tobler, N. S., Roona, M. R., Ochshorn, P., Marshall, D. G., Streke, A. V., & Stackpole, K. M. (2000). School-based adolescent drug prevention programs: 1998 meta-analysis. *Journal of Primary Prevention*, *20*(4), 275–336.

Townsend, B. L. (1994). Involving families of at-risk and normally achieving children in social skill instruction. *Preventing School Failure: Alternative Education for Children and Youth*, *39*(1), 31–36.

Van Houten, R. (1979). Social validation: The evolution of standards of competency for target behaviors. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis*, *12*(4), 581–591.

Wade, S. L., Carey, J., & Wolfe, C. R. (2006). The efficacy of an online cognitive-behavioral family intervention in improving child behavior and social competence following pediatric brain injury. *Rehabilitation Psychology*, *51*(3), 179–189.

Wade, S. L., Oberjohn, K., Burkhardt, A., & Greenberg, I. (2009). Feasibility and preliminary efficacy of a Web-based parenting skills program for young children with traumatic brain injury. *The Journal of Head Trauma Rehabilitation*, *24*(4), 239–247.

Webster-Stratton, C. (2004). The Incredible Years: Parent, teacher, and child training series (IYS). In *Preventing Violence and Related Health-Risking Social Behaviors in Adolescents: An NIH State-of-the-Science Conference*. Bethesda, MD: National Institute of Health. Retrieved from http://consensus.nih.gov/2004/2004YouthViolencePreventionSOS023Program.pdf#page=77

Webster-Stratton, C., & Reid, M. J. (2003). Treating conduct problems and strengthening social and emotional competence in young children the Dina Dinosaur treatment program. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders*, *11*(3), 130–143.

Webster-Stratton, C., Reid, M. J., & Hammond, M. (2001). Preventing conduct problems, promoting social competence: A parent and teacher training partnership in Head Start. *Journal of Clinical Child & Adolescent Psychology*, *30*(3), 283–302. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15374424JCCP3003_2

Weissberg, R. P., Kumpfer, K. L., & Seligman, M. E. (2003). Prevention that works for children and youth: An introduction. *American Psychologist*, *58*(6-7), 425–432.

Whitcomb, S. A., & Merrell, K. W. (2013). *Behavioral, social, and emotional assessment of children and adolescents*. New York, NY: Routledge.

WhyTry: Resilience Education. (2011). Retrieved March 31, 2011, from http://whytry.org/

Wilhite, S., & Bullock, L. M. (2012). Effects of the WhyTry social skills program on students with emotional and/or behavioral problems in an alternative school. *Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties*, *17*(2), 175–194. https://doi.org/10.1080/13632752.2012.675135

Wolf, M. M. (1978). Social validity: The case for subjective measurement or how applied behavior analysis is finding its heart. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis*, *11*(2), 203–214. https://doi.org/10.1901/jaba.1978.11-203

Wymore, S. (2007). WhyTry? A report of an after-school tutoring program. *The Counseling Interviewer*, *39*(2), 9–13.

Yauman, B. E. (1991). School-based group counseling for children of divorce: A review of the literature. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling*, *26*(2), 130–138.

Zins, J. E., & Elias, M. J. (2007). Social and emotional learning: Promoting the development of all students. *Journal of Educational & Psychological Consultation*, *17*(2/3), 233–255. https://doi.org/10.1080/10474410701413152

Zinsser, K. M., Shewark, E. A., Denham, S. A., & Curby, T. W. (2014). A mixed-method examination of preschool teacher beliefs about social-emotional learning and relations to observed emotional support. *Infant & Child Development*, *23*(5), 471–493. https://doi.org/10.1002/icd.1843