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School Psychology

Professional Issues and Practices

Sally L. Grapin • John H. Kranzler
Editors

School Psychology

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To my wonderful parents, Julie and Larry Grapin, who were my first and most influential examples of what it means to be a compassionate advocate for children.

To my brother, Scott Grapin, whose zest for the field of education inspires me every day.

To my husband and the love of my life, Peter Nurnberg, whose insight, empathy, and kindness to everyone around him will always amaze me.
—Sally L. Grapin

To the next generation of school psychologists—it has been my privilege to help in some small way with your training – you will make a difference.
—John H. Kranzler

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Foreword

OPPORTUNITIES ABOUND FOR SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGISTS

This book, *School Psychology: Professional Issues and Practices*, offers valuable information and insights regarding the profession of school psychology, with particular emphasis on social justice in preparing school psychologists who are effective advocates for children and families. It is important to highlight that there are tremendous opportunities for school psychologists in the United States and around the world. For instance, considering multiple factors, including salary, job market, future growth, and work life balance, the profession of School Psychologist was recently ranked #1 among the *Best Social Service Jobs in the United States* (U.S. News & World Report, 2017). While there are over 30,000 school psychologists in the United States (Jimerson, Stewart, Skokut, Cardenas, & Malone, 2009), there are documented shortages, highlighting the need for more school psychologists across the United States (National Association of School Psychologists, 2017). Thus, individuals interested in pursuing a career that contributes to supporting: (a) the education and development of children, (b) teachers and school staff, (c) families and communities, and (d) social justice, will find this book and the job of school psychologist to be both informative and rewarding. The following paragraphs highlight important emphases and contributions featured within *School Psychology: Professional Issues and Practices.*

SOCIAL JUSTICE AND SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY

As the roles and functions of school psychologists continue to evolve, a social justice perspective provides a framework to guide their efforts (Shriberg, Song, Miranda, & Radliff, 2013). Considering the diversity of children, families, and communities throughout the United States, this book emphasizes the importance of the practice and profession of school psychology through a social justice lens. The editors, Grapin and Kranzler, describe and emphasize a broad view of social justice that incorporates concepts of equity, advocacy, and fairness, noting; "*When applied to the field of school psychology specifically, social justice work involves building safe, supportive, and welcoming environments that promote the healthy*

development and educational success of all students" (Chapter 1). Furthermore, as Grapin and Kranzler highlight; "*In the context of school psychology, promoting social justice involves advocating for the well-being of all children and families and fostering school communities that reflect diverse values*" (Preface). Each of the chapters featured in this book emphasizes that social justice considerations should be prominent and intentional in all areas of school psychology service delivery.

THE PROFESSION OF SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY

The editors have compiled an excellent collection of informative chapters that provide a foundation for fully considering a career as a school psychologist, including chapters addressing the breadth of professional activities that many school psychologists are commonly engaged in. As described in the chapters of this book, the specialty of school psychology has been characterized as one that collectively provides individual assessment of children who may display cognitive, emotional, social, or behavioral difficulties; develops and implements primary and secondary intervention programs; consults with teachers, parents and other relevant professionals; engages in program development and evaluation; conducts research; and helps prepare and supervise others (Jimerson, Oakland, & Farrell, 2007, p. 1). Professional associations such as the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) in the United States and the International School Psychology Association (ISPA) provide comprehensive descriptions and standards of preparation for school psychologists. Around the world, professionals who provide these services use a variety of titles, including counselor, educational psychologist, professional of educational psychology, psychopedagog, psychologist, psychologist in education, psychologist in the schools, or school psychologist. In most countries throughout Europe, the term educational psychologist is most commonly used to describe these professionals. The term *school psychologist* is used throughout this book to refer to these professionals.

FOUNDATIONS OF SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY

The first five chapters included in the foundations of school psychology section provide valuable information regarding the profession of school psychology, including important information pertaining to the historical foundations of the field and the essential aspects of the training and credentialing of school psychologists. The chapters include important information highlighting the professional preparation standards delineated by national and international school psychology associations. In addition, important topics such as multicultural, legal, and ethical foundations are also reviewed in this section. Each of the chapters in this section provide thoughtful summaries of key considerations relevant to the profession and practice of school psychology. Given the increasingly diverse populations of students and families in communities across the United States and around the world, it is imperative that school psychologists are knowledgeable of these important

considerations. For those considering or preparing for a career as a school psychologist, this foundational knowledge will be very valuable to informing your understanding of the profession.

SERVICE DELIVERY IN SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY

As previously described, the roles and responsibilities of school psychologists vary across contexts. One role that is often included among the roles of most school psychologists is using assessments to inform interventions to support students and teachers at school. The importance of assessment and intervention are reflected in the contemporary emphasis on implementing multi-tiered systems of support (MTSS) for students (see for instance, Jimerson, Burns, & VanDerheyden, 2016). This section of the book highlights the importance of assessment and intervention and offers important information to understand the breadth of knowledge that is needed for school psychologists to fulfill these responsibilities. For instance, assessment includes applications for planning (before intervention), monitoring (during intervention), and evaluating (after intervention) services, and there is a breadth of domain-specific assessments and interventions (e.g., academic, behavioral, social, and emotional). Furthermore, consistent with an MTSS emphasis, there are interventions that aim to support all students in a classroom setting, some students in smaller groups, and also individual students. The importance of consultation for supporting teachers and families, as well as program evaluation and systems reform, are also topics featured in this section. The chapters in this section of the book discuss each of these topics and also highlight the importance of school psychologists advocating for the use of evidence-based interventions (i.e., those strategies that have empirical evidence to support their effectiveness for supporting specific needs).

THE FUTURE AND PREPARING FOR A CAREER IN SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY

The chapters in this final section of the book provide valuable information and insights regarding what may be on the horizon in the field of school psychology (e.g. personnel shortages, virtual psychological service delivery, and the evolution of professional organizations and standards) and also delineate a range of career options in school psychology. As discussed in each of these chapters, there is a tremendous need for school psychologists, including: those who will work as practitioners in the schools; those who will become faculty in programs that prepare the next generation of practitioners and scholars; those who will engage in scholarship to advance knowledge, science, and practice relevant to school psychology; and those who will work in other settings to help support children and families (e.g., hospital systems, juvenile justice systems, community agencies, military schools, international schools). The chapters in this section offer readers knowledge and insights that will inform their understanding of how they may pursue a career as a school psychologist.

Overall, *School Psychology: Professional Issues and Practices* provides a contemporary resource to introduce the field of school psychology. For those currently considering or pursuing a degree in school psychology, this book offers extensive information to enhance your understanding of the history, roles, responsibilities, preparation, and opportunities for school psychologists. This book also highlights a range of social justice considerations relevant to the field of school psychology. Grapin and Kranzler have carefully selected important topics to facilitate further understanding, and the chapters are authored by many leading experts in the field of school psychology. As highlighted throughout this book, the breadth of knowledge, roles, and responsibilities among school psychologists provides an incredible opportunity to contribute to the well-being of children, families, schools, and communities. For those who share a commitment to understanding, advocating, and helping others, school psychology presents a wonderful career opportunity.

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Preface

This book provides a comprehensive introduction to the practice and profession of school psychology through a social justice lens. The term *social justice* has been defined in many ways by different scholars. In the context of school psychology, promoting social justice involves advocating for the well-being of all children and families and fostering school communities that reflect diverse values. We join many others in affirming that the goals of social justice and school psychology are inextricably linked. School psychologists strive to promote the welfare of all children and families, and in the absence of socially just learning environments, this goal cannot be fully achieved. Therefore, social justice issues must be studied in tandem with all areas of school psychological service delivery.

We believe that both *infusion* and *intentional* approaches are essential to the study of social justice. *Infusion* refers to the teaching of multicultural and social justice principles throughout the curriculum rather than as separate modules (Newell et al., 2010). In infusion approaches, social justice principles are integrated as core concepts across all areas of psychoeducational service delivery. We believe that an infusion approach is essential for encouraging students to draw clear connections between practice and advocacy across the curriculum.

Intentionality refers to the deliberate and visible emphasis of social justice issues in school psychology curricula. All too often, these issues are discussed as an afterthought, which reinforces a passive approach to addressing injustice. As we state in Chapter 1, continuing with routine practices is always easier and more comfortable than challenging the status quo. Thus, school psychologists must deliberately identify practices and policies that marginalize diverse students and take steps to challenge these practices and policies in an intentional manner.

We believe that employing a combination of infusion and intentional approaches is the best way to prepare effective advocates for children and families. The structure of this book reflects these two approaches. Specifically, social justice principles are *infused* throughout the chapters as well as addressed clearly and explicitly (i.e., with *intentionality*).

ORGANIZATION AND CONTENT

This book is organized into three main sections: *Foundations of School Psychology* (Section I), *Service Delivery in School Psychology* (Section II), and *Looking Ahead* (Section III). The goals and rationale for each of these sections are described below.

Section I: Foundations of School Psychology

This section describes the foundations of school psychology, including the field's historical, multicultural, legal, and ethical foundations. These areas are described first because they permeate all areas of practice and therefore are integral to understanding the roles and functions of school psychologists. By covering multicultural issues within the first few chapters, we frame them as a primer for subsequent reading. Similarly, studying legal and ethical issues early on allows the reader to consider the many ways in which school psychologists protect the rights and dignity of all children and families.

In Chapter 1, we present a general overview of the field of school psychology by introducing readers to the National Association of School Psychologists' Model for Comprehensive and Integrated School Psychological Services (NASP Practice Model). We also describe the meaning of the term *social justice* and the value of studying school psychology through a social justice lens. Chapter 2 describes the history and development of the field. Only a little more than a century old, school psychology continues to be heavily influenced by its historical foundations. Knowledge of these foundations is critical for understanding contemporary practice and anticipating future directions. Recognizing that school psychology has undergone significant paradigm shifts in recent years, this book not only covers the field's early history but also advances and trends of the last 20 years (i.e., the early 2000s onward). To provide a comprehensive overview, this section of the book also includes chapters on graduate preparation and credentialing (Chapter 3), multicultural foundations (Chapter 4), and legal and ethical foundations (Chapter 5).

Section II: Service Delivery in School Psychology

Whereas Section I describes the broad foundations of school psychology, Section II centers on the specific roles and functions of school psychologists. This section begins with an overview of two types of services that permeate all major areas of practice: *assessment* and *intervention*. Chapter 6 assumes a broad approach to conceptualizing assessment by considering its applications for planning (before intervention), monitoring (during intervention), and evaluating (after intervention) services. Chapter 7 describes foundational concepts in intervention, which we believe are important prerequisites for understanding domain-specific interventions (e.g., academic, behavioral, social, and emotional interventions). Thus, Chapter 7 describes a number of essential terms, including *evidence-based interventions*, *randomized controlled trials*, and *random assignment*.

Chapter 8 describes academic assessment and intervention, and Chapter 9 describes social, emotional, and behavioral (SEB) interventions. These two chapters are written in similar formats (describing universal, targeted, and indicated interventions) to assist the reader in understanding how multi-tiered systems of support (MTSS) are applied in both academic and SEB domains. Chapter 10 describes intellectual assessment in school settings. The latter chapters of this section describe services for empowering school personnel and systems to better serve children. These services include consultation (Chapter 11), program evaluation and systems-level reform (Chapter 12).

Section III: Looking Ahead

This section discusses the future of school psychology as well as considerations for preparing for a career in the field. Unlike similar books, the chapters in this section consider not only future directions for the field but also future professional pathways for the reader. Chapter 13 describes emerging issues and anticipates future directions for the field. Topics include personnel shortages, virtual psychological service delivery, and the evolution of professional organizations and standards. Chapter 14 describes considerations for pursuing a career in school psychology. It covers topics such as choosing specialization coursework, selecting mentors, and identifying potential career paths. It also includes resources such as a curriculum vitae (CV) development checklist and graduate planning worksheet.

UNIQUE FEATURES

Social Justice Orientation

The social justice orientation of this book is one of its most essential features. In Chapter 1, we provide a rationale for studying social justice and school psychology in tandem. By explicitly communicating this rationale at the beginning of the book, we reinforce the idea that social justice considerations should have a prominent and intentional presence in all areas of service delivery.

This book addresses a range of social justice issues related to school psychology practice, including discriminatory assessment and disciplinary practices and the implementation of MTSS to promote equity in educational access. Such topics are featured in "Social Justice Connections" boxes, which appear in all of the book's chapters (with the exception of Chapter 1, which introduces key concepts in social justice). Each box poses a question related to the chapter's content and offers a thoughtful response. These responses are designed to provide concrete, actionable recommendations for aspiring advocates.

In line with its social justice focus, this book emphasizes the research and practice contributions of racial, ethnic, and linguistic (REL) minority scholars. All too often, the history of psychology is told from a predominantly White, Eurocentric perspective that obscures the contributions of diverse scholars. One of our goals in developing this book was to illustrate the rich intellectual legacy of REL minority scholars who shaped the field of school psychology. This legacy is most clearly illustrated in Chapter 2, which describes the revolutionary contributions of scholars

such as Albert Sidney Beckham, Kenneth and Mamie Clark, Beverly Inez Prosser, Ena Vazquez-Nuttall, and Deborah Crockett. By featuring these individuals, we paint a more comprehensive picture of school psychology's past, present, and future.

Voices of Experts

Most introductory school psychology books are authored rather than edited books, meaning that they are written by, at most, several authors. This book, however, is an edited one and comprises chapters from nearly 30 different contributing authors. There are two primary advantages to the edited book format. First, producing an edited book allowed us to leverage the wide range of backgrounds and orientations represented in school psychology. Our field is a complex one that thrives on this diversity of perspectives. School psychologists may approach service delivery in many different ways, and it is important for readers to understand how different perspectives shape both research and practice.

Second, an edited format allows readers to learn about theory, research and practice in school psychology directly from experts in those areas. As illustrated in the brief biographies of contributors (presented in the frontmatter), we have recruited a group of highly regarded, accomplished, and prolific scholars to develop the various chapters of this book. The authors represented in this group include journal editors and editorial board members, principal investigators of major research grants, and leaders in school psychology's primary professional associations. Rather than summarizing their work, we connect readers directly to the experts.

Clear Connections to the NASP Practice Model

At this time, the most prominent and widely regarded model of school psychological service delivery is the NASP Practice Model. As described in Chapter 1, this model comprises 10 domains that illustrate the diverse roles and services that school psychologists perform.

The content of this book is designed to align with the Practice Model. In some cases, entire chapters are dedicated to single domains, including *Consultation and Collaboration* (Domain 2; Chapter 11), *Interventions and Instructional Supports to Develop Academic Skills* (Domain 3; Chapter 8), and *Interventions and Mental Health Services to Develop Social and Life Skills* (Domain 4; Chapter 9). Other domains, such as *Preventive and Responsive Services* (Domain 6), *Family-School Collaboration Services* (Domain 7), and *Data-Based Decision Making and Accountability* (Domain 1), are integrated across several chapters. For example, *Preventive and Responsive Services* are addressed extensively in Chapter 7 as well as in Chapters 8 and 9. By drawing clear connections to the NASP Practice Model, we provide a comprehensive overview of the roles and functions of school psychologists as well as introduce readers to a widely accepted framework of service delivery.

LEARNING TOOLS AND RESOURCES

One goal of this book is to make school psychology accessible to a wide range of audiences. Its intended audiences are undergraduate and graduate students, related school personnel, caregivers, and others who wish to explore the field. Thus, we have included a number of features that are designed to facilitate the accessibility of content. Each chapter includes four to five chapter objectives as well as a brief introduction section to orient readers to its main ideas. The chapters also incorporate bold and italicized key terms, which are accompanied by clear and concise definitions in text. Similar to the chapter objectives, these key terms are designed to orient readers to the book's main ideas.

One important feature of the book is that it takes care to review prerequisite concepts in psychological research and practice that are essential for understanding service delivery in school psychology. For example, terms such as *reliability* and *validity* (introduced in Chapter 6) are important for understanding concepts in assessment and intervention. To bridge concepts from previous coursework (e.g., introductory psychology and research methodology courses), we clearly define these terms and describe their relevance for school psychology practice and research. These bridges allow learners to better contextualize and integrate new concepts with previous learning.

For instructors who wish to use this book as the core text for an introductory school psychology course, a number of resources are available. At the end of each chapter, discussion questions are included, which can be used to facilitate both face-to-face and online discussion. These questions involve summarizing key concepts from the text and then applying those concepts to extend learning. Other resources include materials for fostering students' professional development, such as the CV development checklist and the graduate planning worksheet included in Chapter 14. Instructors can encourage students to use these resources in class or during independent assignments. Finally, sample syllabi are available to potential and current course instructors. **For more information regarding instructor resources, qualified adopters should contact textbook@springerpub.com.**

It has been a tremendous privilege to work with all of the book's contributing authors to portray the landscape of school psychology practice in the United States. We hope that this book will serve as a resource for undergraduate and graduate students, school personnel, caregivers, and other stakeholders who are invested in protecting the welfare of youth.

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—Sally L. Grapin and John H. Kranzler

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—Sally L. Grapin

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School Psychology: Professional Issues and Practices

SECTION I

Foundations of School Psychology

CHAPTER 1

Introduction to School Psychology

SALLY L. GRAPIN ■ JOHN H. KRANZLER

CHAPTER OBJECTIVES

- Define *school psychology*
- Describe the primary roles and employment contexts of school psychologists
- Define *social justice* and *multiculturalism*
- Describe the rationale for studying school psychology through a social justice lens

As compared with other areas of applied psychology, the profession of school psychology is relatively lesser known. For example, school psychology is less widely represented in introductory psychology books than areas such as clinical, counseling, and industrial/organizational psychology (Haselhuhn & Clopton, 2008; Lucas, Raley, Washington, & Blazek, 2005). In some cases, even school staff, such as general and special education teachers, lack knowledge about the precise roles and job responsibilities of their school psychologist colleagues. As a result, they may infrequently call upon these colleagues to deliver essential services such as individual counseling, group counseling, and crisis intervention (Gilman & Medway, 2007). Overall, there is a considerable need to educate school personnel, parents, legislators, and the general public about the value of school psychological services.

We begin this book on school psychology by providing a general orientation to the field. Although school psychology is widely represented internationally, this book specifically addresses the practice of school psychology in the United States. First, we examine contemporary definitions of *school psychology*. Next, we provide a brief description of school psychologists' primary roles and employment contexts as well as the ways in which their roles differ from those of other related professionals (e.g., school counselors). Finally, we discuss the meaning of social justice and its relevance to the study of school psychology.

DEFINING SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY

Although the field of ***school psychology*** has been defined in different ways over the years, definitions provided by the two most prominent national organizations representing school psychologists—the American Psychological Association and the National Association of School Psychologists—are particularly important. The ***National Association of School Psychologists*** (***NASP***) is a U.S. professional organization that represents school psychologists. As of the writing of this chapter, NASP comprises more than 25,000 members, including practitioners, graduate educators, graduate students, and others. Presently, it is the largest association of school psychologists in the United States and the world (NASP, n.d.-a). In response to the question "Who are school psychologists?" NASP (2017b) provides the following answer on its website:

> School psychologists are uniquely qualified members of school teams that support students' ability to learn and teachers' ability to teach. They apply expertise in mental health, learning, and behavior, to help children and youth succeed academically, socially, behaviorally, and emotionally. School psychologists partner with families, teachers, school administrators, and other professionals to create safe, healthy, and supportive learning environments that strengthen connections between home, school, and the community.

Unlike NASP, the ***American Psychological Association*** (***APA***) is a professional organization that represents many different types of psychologists, including social, clinical, health, counseling, cognitive, and forensic psychologists. In 2015, APA (2016) reported 117,575 members (most of whom were not school psychologists), including faculty, practitioners, and student members. At this time, APA comprises more than 50 divisions, each of which represents a different area of psychology. Division 16 represents the profession of school psychology.

The APA recognizes school psychology as one of 15 approved specialty areas in professional psychology. A ***specialty*** is a defined area of psychological practice that requires advanced knowledge and skills acquired through an organized sequence of education and training (APA, 2011). On its website, the APA (n.d.) defines the specialty area of school psychology as follows:

> School Psychology is a general practice and health service provider specialty of professional psychology that is concerned with the science and practice of psychology with children, youth, families; learners of all ages; and the schooling process. The basic education and training of school psychologists prepares them to provide a range of psychological diagnosis, assessment, intervention, prevention, health promotion, and program development and evaluation services with a special focus on the developmental processes of children and youth within the context of schools, families and other systems.
>
> School psychologists are prepared to intervene at the individual and system level, and develop, implement, and evaluate preventive programs. In these efforts, they conduct ecologically valid assessments and intervene to promote positive learning environments within which children and youth from diverse backgrounds . . . have equal access to effective educational and psychological services that promote healthy development. (APA, n.d., paragraphs 1 and 2)

What do the definitions provided by NASP and APA have in common? First, both definitions focus on the essential characteristics of school psychology rather than on specifying what school psychologists actually do or ideally should do. They state that school psychology is a profession whose activities facilitate the development of healthy environments to promote the psychological and educational well-being of children and youth. In addition, they state that school psychologists collaborate with professionals in schools and other settings to provide a range of direct and indirect psychological services.

One of the main differences between these two definitions concerns the context within which school psychologists work. Although both emphasize the delivery of psychological services within educational systems, the NASP definition mentions only that school psychologists work as members of school-based teams. In contrast, the APA definition indicates that these services are delivered in settings beyond schools as well (e.g., clinics and hospitals). Despite their differences, however, both definitions describe school psychology as involving the delivery of psychological services that promote positive academic and mental health outcomes for youth.

SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGICAL PROFESSIONAL PRACTICES

As already stated, school psychologists work in schools and a variety of other settings. Within each of these settings, their professional practices are likely to vary as a function of the context in which they work. One widely accepted framework for describing the delivery of school psychological services is NASP's *Model for Comprehensive and Integrated School Psychological Services,* also known asthe ***NASP Practice Model*** (NASP, 2010). The Practice Model is NASP's official policy statement on comprehensive service delivery in school psychology. It is meant to serve as a guide for the organization and delivery of services, with an emphasis on the delivery of school psychological services in the context of educational programs and settings.

The NASP Practice Model comprises two major parts: (1) Professional Practices and (2) Organizational Principles. The Professional Practices delineate the domains of knowledge and skills in which all school psychologists are expected to have competency. The Organizational Principles describe the structures and support systems that need to be in place in school systems to facilitate effective service delivery. Because the purpose of this chapter is to describe the professional roles and functions of school psychologists, it focuses specifically on the Professional Practices part of the PracticeModel.

Figure 1.1 displays a graphic representation of the Professional Practices of the NASP Practice Model. The model includes 10 practice domains that are organized into three major areas: (1) *Foundations of School Psychologists' Service Delivery*, (2) *Practices That Permeate All Aspects of Service Delivery*, and (3) *Direct and Indirect Services for Children, Families, and Schools*. In the following section, we briefly describe each of the domains within these three areas of practice.

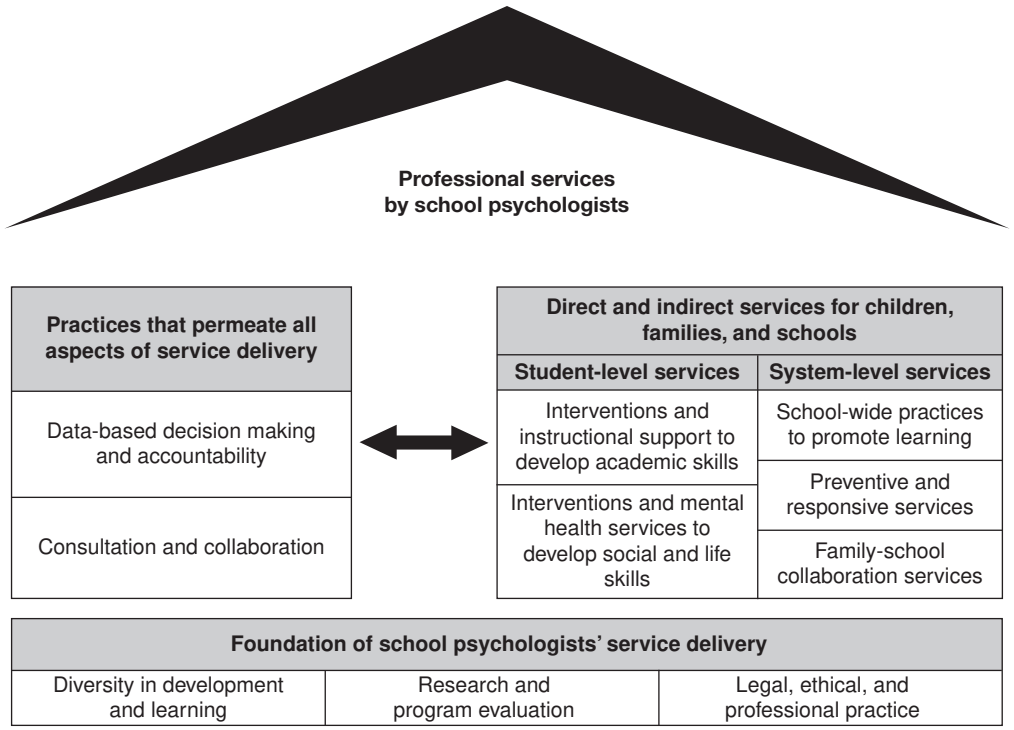

FIGURE 1.1 NASP MODEL FOR COMPREHENSIVE AND INTEGRATED SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGICAL SERVICES.

Source: **National Association of School Psychologists. (2010).** ***Model for comprehensive and integrated school psychological services*****. Bethesda, MD: National Association of School Psychologists. Reprinted/Adapted with permission of the publisher. www.nasponline.org**

Practices That Permeate All Aspects of Service Delivery

The first two domains of the Practice Model are categorized as *Practices That Permeate All Aspects of Service Delivery*. Specifically, the two domains that constitute this area are *Data-Based Decision Making and Accountability* (Domain 1) and *Consultation and Collaboration* (Domain 2). These domains fall under this category because they are critical for providing a wide variety of direct and indirect services to students, families, and school systems.

Data-Based Decision Making and Accountability (Domain 1)

Data-based decision making involves the use of individual, group, or school-wide data to make informed decisions regarding educational and psychological service delivery. According to the Practice Model, "School psychologists have knowledge of varied models and methods of assessment and data collection for identifying strengths and needs, developing effective services and programs, and measuring progress and outcomes" (NASP, 2010, p. 4). Examples of practices in this area include (a) using "valid and reliable assessment techniques to assess progress toward academic and behavioral goals" and (b) systematically

collecting "data from multiple sources as a foundation for decision-making" (NASP, 2010, p. 4).

Consultation and Collaboration (Domain 2)

Domain 2 refers to school psychologists' knowledge and skills in collaborating and communicating effectively with teachers, caregivers, administrators, community members, and others to facilitate positive outcomes for youth. The Practice Model states that "school psychologists have knowledge of varied models and strategies for consultation, collaboration, and communication applicable to individuals, families, groups, and systems and methods to promote effective implementation of services" (NASP, 2010, p. 4). Examples of practices in this area include (a) using "a consultative problem-solving process as a vehicle for planning, implementing, and evaluating academic and mental health services" and (b) consulting and collaborating "at the individual, family, group, and systems levels" (NASP, 2010, pp. 4–5).

Direct and Indirect Services for Children, Families, and Schools: Student-Level Services

School psychologists may provide a variety of student-level services. ***Student-level services*** are those that involve working with individuals or groups of students. Student-level services may be either direct or indirect. ***Direct services*** are those in which the provider has firsthand client contact (typically face-to-face contact, although some services may be provided through other media). Common examples of direct services include individual and group counseling, in which the school psychologist interacts *directly* with the client. ***Indirect services*** are those in which the provider does not have firsthand contact with the client, but rather supports the client's functioning through contact with a third party. Common examples of indirect services include consultation with teachers and administrators, in which school psychologists provide support to staff who subsequently deliver services to students. The following subsections describe the domains in this area of the Practice Model.

Interventions and Instructional Support to Develop Academic Skills (Domain 3)

Domain 3 includes knowledge and skills related to supporting the academic success of students (e.g., success in areas such as reading, writing, math, and science). According to the Practice Model, "School psychologists have knowledge of biological, cultural, and social influences on academic skills; human learning, cognitive, and developmental processes; and evidence-based curricula and instructional strategies . . . to implement and evaluate services that support cognitive and academic skills" (NASP, 2010, p. 5). Examples of practices in this area include (a) using "assessment data to develop and implement evidence-based instructional strategies that are intended to improve student performance" and (b) working with "other school personnel to develop, implement, and evaluate effective academic interventions for increasing the amount of time students are engaged in learning" (NASP, 2010, p. 5).

Interventions and Mental Health Services to Develop Social and Life Skills (Domain 4)

Domain 4 describes school psychologists' role in supporting the social, emotional, and behavioral well-being of students. The Practice Model states that

> School psychologists have knowledge of biological, cultural, developmental, and social influences on behavior and mental health, behavioral and emotional impacts on learning and life skills, and evidence-based strategies . . . to promote social–emotional functioning, and mental and behavioral health to implement and evaluate services that support socialization, learning, and mental and behavioral health. (NASP, 2010, p. 5)

Examples of practices in this area include (a) facilitating the "design and delivery of curricula to help students develop effective behaviors, such as self-regulation and self-monitoring, planning/organization, empathy, and healthy decision-making," and (b) providing "a continuum of developmentally appropriate mental health services, including individual and group counseling, behavioral coaching, classroom and school-wide social-emotional learning programs, positive behavioral support, and parent education and support" (NASP, 2010, pp. 5–6).

Direct and Indirect Services for Children, Families, and Schools: Systems-Level Services

School psychologists also provide a variety of systems-level services. Unlike student-level services, ***systems-level services*** involve working with organizations (or specific organizational levels, such as a grade level) to impact client outcomes on a larger scale. Systems-level services may also be either direct or indirect. The following describes each of the domains included in this section of the Practice Model.

School-wide Practices to Promote Learning (Domain 5)

Domain 5 describes school psychologists' knowledge and skills in fostering respectful, supportive, and high-quality learning environments for all students. According to the Practice Model,

> School psychologists have knowledge of school and systems structure, organization, and theory; general and special education; technology resources; and evidence-based school practices that promote learning and mental and behavioral health . . . to develop and implement practices and strategies to create and maintain effective and supportive learning environments for children and others. (NASP, 2010, p. 6)

Examples of practices in this area include (a) promoting "high rates of academic engaged time" and (b) working collaboratively "with other school personnel to create and maintain a multi-tiered continuum of services to support all students' attainment of academic, social, emotional, and behavioral goals" (NASP, 2010, p. 6).

Preventive and Responsive Services (Domain 6)

Domain 6 refers to competencies in identifying and promoting protective and adaptive factors that influence student functioning. The Practice Model states that

> School psychologists have knowledge of principles and research related to resilience and risk factors in learning and mental health, services in schools and communities to support multi-tiered prevention, and evidence-based strategies for effective crisis response . . . to promote services that enhance learning, mental and behavioral health, safety, and physical well-being through protective and adaptive factors and to implement effective crisis preparation, response, and recovery. (NASP, 2010, p. 6)

Examples of practices in this area include (a) promoting "recognition of risk and protective factors that are vital to understanding and addressing systemic programs such as school failure, truancy, dropout, bullying youth suicide, or school violence," and (b) participating "in the implementation and evaluation of programs that promote safe and violence-free schools and communities" (NASP, 2010, p. 7).

Family—School Collaboration Services (Domain 7)

Domain 7 refers to school psychologists' knowledge and skills in understanding, supporting, and communicating with diverse families. According to the Practice Model, "School psychologists have knowledge of principles and research related to family systems, strengths, needs, and culture; evidence-based strategies to support family influences on children's learning and mental health; and strategies to develop collaboration between families and schools" (NASP, 2010, p. 7). Examples of practices in this area include (a) using "effective evidence-based strategies to design, implement, and evaluate effective policies and practices that promote family, school, and community partnerships to enhance learning and mental health outcomes for students" and (b) promoting "strategies for safe, nurturing, and dependable parenting and home interventions to facilitate children's healthy development" (NASP, 2010, p. 7).

Foundations of School Psychological Service Delivery

At the base of the NASP Practice Model are the *Foundations of School Psychological Service Delivery* (see Figure 1.1). The domains within this section represent core areas of knowledge and skill that are essential for high-quality, ethical, and effective practice. The three domains in this section are *Diversity and Development in Learning* (Domain 8), *Research and Program Evaluation* (Domain 9), and *Legal, Ethical, and Professional Practice* (Domain 10).

Diversity in Development and Learning (Domain 8)

Domain 8 of the Practice Model refers to school psychologists' knowledge and skills in serving multicultural student and family populations. Specifically, the model states that

> School psychologists have knowledge of individual differences, abilities, disabilities, and other diverse characteristics; principles and research related to diversity factors for children, families, and schools, including factors related to culture, context, and individual and role differences; and evidence-based strategies to enhance services and address potential influences related to diversity. (NASP, 2010, p. 7)

Examples of practices in this area include (a) providing "culturally competent and responsive services in all areas of service delivery and in the contexts of diverse individual, family, school, and community characteristics" and (b) promoting "fairness and social justice in educational programs and services" (NASP, 2010, p. 8). Because school psychologists work with a diverse range of students, families, and school personnel, knowledge and skills in this area are critical for effective service delivery.

Research and Program Evaluation (Domain 9)

Domain 9 refers to knowledge and skills in conducting research and assessing program outcomes through the use of sound analytic tools. According to the model,

> School psychologists have knowledge of research design, statistics, measurement, varied data collection and analysis techniques, and program evaluation sufficient for understanding research and interpreting data in applied settings. School psychologists demonstrate skills to evaluate and apply research as a foundation for service delivery and, in collaboration with others, use various techniques and technology resources for data collection, measurement, and analysis. (NASP, 2010, p. 8)

Examples of practices in this area include (a) using "techniques for data collection, analysis, and accountability in evaluation of services at the individual, group, and system levels" and (b) providing "support for classroom teachers in collecting and analyzing progress monitoring data" (NASP, 2010, p. 8).

Legal, Ethical, and Professional Practice (Domain 10)

Finally, Domain 10 encompasses professional behaviors, knowledge of the field of school psychology itself, and skills in applying legal and ethical principles to practice. Specifically, the Practice Model states that "school psychologists have knowledge of the history and foundations of school psychology; multiple service models and methods; ethical, legal, and professional standards; and other factors related to professional identity and effective practice as school psychologists" (NASP, 2010, p. 8). Examples of practices in this area include (a) practicing "in ways that are consistent with ethical, professional, and legal standards and regulations" and (b) using "supervision and mentoring for effective practice" (NASP, 2010, p. 8).

Summary of the NASP Practice Model

The NASP Practice Model provides a comprehensive framework for conceptualizing service delivery in school psychology. Collectively, the domains in this model

describe the range of knowledge and skills that school psychologists use to support the well-being of children and families, especially in educational settings. Although this model illustrates the many services that school psychologists can provide, roles and responsibilities may vary considerably across employment contexts throughout the United States, as discussed in the next section.

PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES AND EMPLOYMENT OF SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGISTS

It has been estimated that more than 32,000 school psychologists are practicing in the United States (Jimerson, Stewart, Skokut, Cardenas, & Malone, 2009). These individuals work in a variety of school and nonschool settings, including K–12 public and private schools, colleges and universities, independent practice, and hospital and medical settings. Some data have been published on the demographics, qualifications, and professional activities of school psychologists. Typically, these data are collected by individual research teams (e.g., scholars collaborating across higher education institutions) or professional organizations (e.g., NASP). For example, every 5 years, NASP surveys a random sample of its members across the United States regarding their training and professional activities. The most recent of these membership surveys was conducted in 2015 (Walcott, Charvat, McNamara, & Hyson, 2016). Notably, NASP's survey includes only data from organizational members (and. therefore. is not necessarily representative of school psychologists who are not NASP members). Nevertheless, it provides some of the most comprehensive data on the practice of school psychologists nationwide.

Employment Contexts

The 2015 NASP membership survey indicated that school psychologists serve in a variety of roles, including practitioners (approximately 83%), university faculty (approximately 7%), administrators (approximately 5%), and other roles (approximately 5%) (Walcott et al., 2016). They also work in a variety of settings, including public schools, private schools, higher education institutions, and independent (private) practice. Table 1.1 displays the percentage of school psychologists who worked in various primary full-time employment settings (according to the results of the NASP membership survey). As seen in the table, the majority of school psychologists were employed full-time in some type of pre-K–12 school setting, with more than 80% working in the public schools. Among those school psychologists employed in pre-K–12 settings, many worked in suburban school systems (43.4%), whereas others were employed in urban (26.5%) and rural (24.0%) settings.

Professional Activities of School Psychologists

Professional activities vary significantly among school psychologists depending on the individual's job title (e.g., practitioner and faculty member) and employment context. Figure 1.2 displays the professional activities of school psychologists, as indicated by the 2015 NASP membership survey results. Respondents were asked

TABLE 1.1 Employment Settings of NASP Members

Employment *Setting*	Percentage of NASP Members
Public school	86%
College/university	10%
Private school	8%
Independent (private) practice	7%
Faith-based school	7%
State department of education	2%
Hospital/medical setting	2%

Source: Adapted from Walcott, C. M., Charvat, J., McNamara, K. M., & Hyson, D. (2016). *School psychology at a glance 2015, member survey results.* Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the National Association of School Psychologists, New Orleans, LA. Copyright (as applicable) by the National Association of School Psychologists, Bethesda, MD. Reprinted/Adapted with permission of the publisher. www.nasponline.org

to rate the frequency with which they participated in a variety of psychological and educational practices. Frequency ratings were based on a scale of values ranging from 0 to 4, with a value of 0 indicating no involvement in the activity and a value of 4 indicating a great deal of involvement. Mean ratings for each activity are displayed in Figure 1.2.

On average, NASP members reported spending a considerable amount of time conducting assessments to determine students' eligibility for special education services. They also devoted considerable time to developing Individualized Education Programs (IEPs), which are formal, individualized plans that specify the range of services to which a student with a disability is entitled. (IEPs are described in Chapter 5.) Collectively, these data suggest that many school psychologists spend a significant amount of time in activities related to special education eligibility and services, meaning that they work frequently with students with disabilities.

Conversely, NASP members reported spending less time in activities such as promoting family–school collaboration and developing school-wide strategies and programs to support learning. Notably, these roles are integral functions of the school psychologist, according to the NASP Practice Model. For many years, professional organizations and leaders in the field have advocated for the expansion of the school psychologist's role to include not only special education assessment activities but also a wide range of systems-level prevention and intervention activities (Dawson et al., 2004). Despite the findings of this survey, the roles of school psychologists vary considerably across settings, and many do engage in a variety of systems-level activities to promote positive academic, behavioral, social, and emotional outcomes for students.

SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY AND RELATED PROFESSIONS

How does school psychology differ from other related fields in psychology? What makes the profession of school psychology unique? To some extent, the roles of school psychologists and other mental health providers overlap. For example,

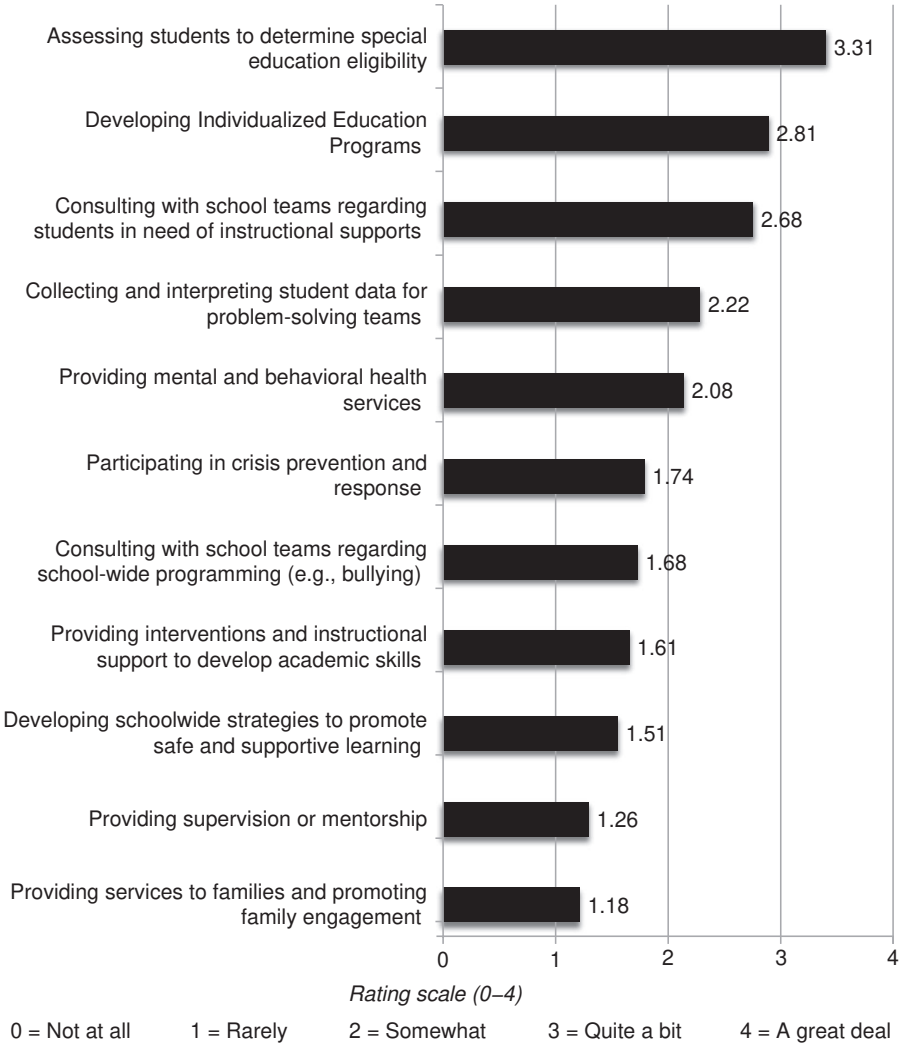

FIGURE 1.2 PROFESSIONAL PRACTICES OF SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGISTS.

Source: **Adapted from Walcott, C. M., Charvat, J., McNamara, K. M., & Hyson, D. (2016). *School psychology at a glance 2015, member survey results.* Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the National Association of School Psychologists, New Orleans, LA,. Copyright (as applicable) by the National Association of School Psychologists, Bethesda, MD. Reprinted/Adapted with permission of the publisher. www.nasponline.org**

school psychologists, school counselors, and clinical psychologists are similar in that all three groups of professionals can provide counseling services to children and adolescents. Nevertheless, the training, credentialing, expertise, and roles of these professionals also differ in important ways. This section describes these differences.

How Is School Psychology Different From School Counseling?

School psychology and ***school counseling*** differ in several ways. First, school counselors typically require only 2 years of graduate education (including a 600-hour supervised internship), whereas school psychologists typically require 3 years

of training (including a 1,200-hour supervised internship). Moreover, school counselors typically do not practice outside of school settings, while school psychologists may practice in a variety of settings (depending on their degree and training), including private practice, mental health clinics, and hospitals (NASP, n.d.-b).

In K–12 public schools, the roles of school counselors and school psychologists overlap to some extent but also differ in significant ways. Both school psychologists and school counselors are trained in mental health counseling, crisis prevention, and other intervention activities. In addition to these activities, school counselors typically work with all students in a school to assist with course scheduling, career planning, and family and academic problems. Although school psychologists also provide supports to all students in a school building, they spend a considerable amount of time providing assessment and intervention services to students with disabilities. Generally, school psychologists are more likely to have training in the areas of behavioral analysis, mental health diagnosis, and research methods (NASP, n.d.-b).

How Is School Psychology Different From Child Clinical Psychology?

One of the primary distinctions between ***child clinical psychology*** and school psychology concerns the degrees required to practice in these fields. Whereas school psychologists may practice at either the doctoral or the non-doctoral level, the entry-level degree for independent practice as a child clinical psychologist is the doctoral degree. The majority of school psychologists are employed in K–12 school settings, although some are employed in hospitals, mental health centers, and other clinical settings. In contrast, clinical psychologists are less likely to be employed in elementary and secondary school settings and more likely to be found in hospitals, mental health clinics, private practice, and other settings (NASP, n.d.-b).

While both clinical and school psychologists have training in child development, psychopathology, and other areas of psychology, school psychologists have expertise in issues that concern the intersection of education and psychology. Thus, as compared with clinical psychologists, school psychologists are much more likely to have skills in facilitating school change and organizational development, consulting with educators, and promoting students' academic success. School psychologists also are more likely to be knowledgeable about instruction, curriculum, and classroom behavior management (NASP, n.d.-b).

SOCIAL JUSTICE AND SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY

As mentioned earlier, this book describes the practice and profession of school psychology through a social justice lens. We believe that all school psychologists must be well versed in the pervasive social, cultural, and political issues that impact children, families, teachers, special services staff, and the settings in which these individuals interact. These issues should be discussed in relation to all areas of practice, including each of the 10 domains of the NASP Practice Model. Why is it important to study school psychology through a social justice lens? To answer this question, we must first define the term *social justice*.

Defining Social Justice

Broadly, Bell (2013) defined ***social justice*** as the "full and equal participation of all groups in a society that is mutually shaped to meet their needs" (p. 21). This term has been defined in many ways by a number of different scholars, but there are commonalities among these definitions. For example, Shriberg et al. (2008) investigated the meaning of social justice by surveying a panel of cultural diversity experts. In two rounds of feedback, the panelists were asked to define the term *social justice*, identify topics salient to this term, and describe the ways in which school psychologists can promote social justice. Experts most frequently generated definitions aligned with two primary categories: (a) ensuring the protection of rights and responsibilities for all and (b) assuming an ecological/systemic view (i.e., moving beyond the immediate school context to consider the larger impact of educational decision making). Moreover, when asked to rank the salience of various topics to social justice work, participants generally assigned the highest rankings to topics such as institutional power (e.g., dynamics of privilege and oppression in government) and advocacy. Generally, Shriberg's experts believed that social justice work is best characterized by a focus on issues of power, privilege (which is described in Chapter 4), equity, and advocacy. ***Advocacy*** refers to the practice of proactively representing and supporting a cause or group of individuals. More specifically, social justice advocacy involves empowering and promoting the well-being of traditionally marginalized individuals and groups.

In this book, we embrace a broad view of social justice that incorporates concepts of equity, advocacy, and fairness. When applied to the field of school psychology specifically, social justice work involves building safe, supportive, and welcoming environments that promote the healthy development and educational success of all students. From this perspective, we acknowledge that pervasive injustices permeate the larger contexts in which schools are situated, including their cultural, social, economic, and political environments. Social justice advocacy involves recognizing and proactively addressing these injustices, rather than simply accepting the status quo. Presently, a number of social injustices impact children and families in schools, including the over- and under-representation of racial and ethnic minority students in certain categories of special education and related services (e.g., intellectual disability and giftedness), discrimination against gender and sexual minority youth, and disparities in disciplinary practices between racial and ethnic minority and non-minority students. This book describes many of these social justice issues in the context of school psychology practice.

Social Justice and Multiculturalism

To understand social justice, it is important to understand how this concept differs from ***multiculturalism***. Multiculturalism is described extensively in Chapter 4. For now, however, we provide a basic definition of the term: a worldview that acknowledges and values diverse individuals and cultural backgrounds (Carroll, 2009). Multicultural knowledge, awareness, and skills are undoubtedly critical to effective psychological service delivery. Although inextricably linked, the terms *social justice* and *multiculturalism* have somewhat different meanings. More specifically, social justice is often described as the latest development in multicultural

psychology (Ratts, 2011). Whereas multicultural competence generally refers to the awareness, knowledge, and skills needed to work effectively with diverse populations, social justice competencies center on skills in recognizing and challenging systemic inequities, which often transcend the school context (Shriberg et al., 2008). Promoting social justice involves taking proactive measures to rectify pervasive societal inequalities and to promote equal access to educational opportunity for diverse groups (Shriberg et al., 2008).

To illustrate the differences between the terms *social justice* and *multiculturalism*, recall Shriberg and colleagues' (2008) findings regarding the meaning of *social justice*. Now, consider a similar study by Rogers and Lopez (2002), who also surveyed a panel of experts in providing culturally competent services to racial, ethnic, and linguistic minority populations. After conducting a comprehensive literature review of cross-cultural competence research and soliciting feedback from panelists, they identified 102 critical competency items across 14 major categories (e.g., *Assessment, Consultation, Counseling, and Organizational Skills*). Panelists were asked to rate competencies based on perceived importance, and average ratings for items were calculated for each category. Of the 14 categories, panelists assigned the highest mean ratings to competencies in the *Assessment* and *Report Writing* categories. Examples of highly rated items in these categories included the following: (a) "using instruments sensitive to cultural and linguistic differences"; (b) possessing "knowledge about non-biased assessment"; and (c) "incorporating information about family origins . . . into report." Conversely, *Working with Organizations* (i.e., competency related to organizational change) was ranked the second least important of the 14 categories. Overall, the multicultural experts in this study generally rated skills in culturally responsive service delivery (e.g., providing assessment and counseling services to diverse populations) as more central to cultural competence than skills in advocacy and facilitating organizational change.

Undoubtedly, Rogers and Lopez's (2002) and Shriberg and colleagues' (2008) studies suggest that there is considerable overlap in the meaning of the terms *multiculturalism* and *social justice*. For example, Rogers and Lopez's participants endorsed competencies in facilitating organizational change. Likewise, many of the experts in Shriberg and colleagues' (2008) study acknowledged the central role of cultural competence in social justice advocacy. Nevertheless, these studies also suggest that there are fundamental nuances that differentiate the two terms.

Despite their differences, multiculturalism and social justice clearly are inextricably linked. Concepts such as oppression and discrimination cannot be properly understood without first understanding multicultural principles. In fact, Ratts (2011) cautioned that engaging in social justice advocacy in the absence of multicultural competence may result in the selection of advocacy strategies that disregard important cultural variables. Developing multicultural competence is an essential prerequisite for promoting social justice; however, the latter term generally places greater emphasis on advocacy within and beyond school walls, as compared with the former.

Why Study School Psychology and Social Justice in Tandem?

Returning to our earlier question, why is it important to study school psychology through a social justice lens? Issues in school psychology and social justice should

be studied in tandem for many reasons. In the following list, we enumerate several of these reasons, which provide an underlying rationale for the orientation and content of this book.

1. ***Social justice advocacy is being increasingly prioritized in school psychology.*** As described in Chapter 13, professional organizations that represent school psychology are increasingly emphasizing the importance of social justice work. For example, in Domain 8 (*Diversity in Development and Learning*) of its Practice Model, NASP states that "an understanding and respect for diversity in development and learning and advocacy for social justice are foundations for all aspects of service delivery." As is discussed in Chapter 13, NASP (2017a) will explicitly recognize *social justice* as one of its strategic goals through at least 2022. Generally, social justice principles are embedded in the core training and practice standards of school psychology's major professional organizations. By embracing a social justice orientation, school psychologists will be better prepared to align themselves with future directions for the field.
2. ***Social justice issues must be studied with intentionality.*** Social justice advocacy involves challenging both the overt and covert injustices that impact students and their families. Some injustices are seemingly less conspicuous, because they are part of the status quo, or the existing state of school affairs. For example, we noted earlier that, on average, assessment activities (typically special education assessments) consume more than half of school psychologists' daily routines. When school psychologists spend a great deal of time in assessment activities, they have less time to engage in prevention and intervention activities, which may be vital for supporting our nation's most vulnerable youth. Without these services, such youth are likely to fall even further behind their peers. The assessment-laden routine of the school psychologist can easily be overlooked, because it is simply part of the typical practitioner's day (and ultimately, part of the status quo). As for all social justice issues, changing the status quo requires careful and intentional scrutiny of one's own practices and their impact on others. Thus, social justice issues must be studied with intentionality.
3. ***We have a long way to go before the aspirational goals of social justice are realized.*** This means that taking immediate steps to educate oneself about social justice issues is an imperative for all practitioners. As described in Chapter 12, systems-level change in schools is a slow and painstaking process. As an example, the landmark court case that led to the racial integration in public schools (i.e., *Brown v. Board of Education*) was decided more than half a century ago (in 1954). However, well into the 21st century, the public school system continues to proliferate many forms of racial injustice. For example, African American students are more likely to be subject to harsher disciplinary action in schools than their White peers (Skiba et al., 2011). Promoting social justice is a slow and laborious undertaking that will require the commitment and collaboration of a variety of stakeholders. School psychologists are among these stakeholders.

4. ***School psychologists must possess knowledge and skill in the area of social justice advocacy to be effective in their work.*** One of the authors of this chapter (SLG) often asks her students, "Is it necessary for school psychologists to become social justice advocates to be effective in their roles?" Most often, this question is met with a long, thoughtful pause followed by slow, tentative head nodding that gradually becomes more vigorous and self-assured. We believe these students are correct in answering this question affirmatively. As Shriberg (2012) contended, the goals of social justice are integrally linked with the goals of school psychology. School psychologists are ethically responsible for acting in the best interest of all students. At this time, many school-age youth face a range of injustices that compromise their overall well-being and opportunities for success. If school psychologists do not advocate vigorously for these students, they cannot fulfill their ethical and professional obligation to act in the best interest of all children.

For all of these reasons and others, this book describes the practice of school psychology through a social justice lens. To highlight social justice applications in each area of practice, every chapter includes a section on "Social Justice Connections." The purpose of these sections is to encourage readers to consider the pervasive social justice issues that permeate school systems and to provide concrete strategies for addressing these issues.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter provided an overview of the field of school psychology. In particular, it defined the profession, described the ways in which school psychology differs from other related professions, presented the 10 domains of the NASP Practice Model, and described the typical roles and functions of school psychologists in the schools. The NASP Practice Model is referenced frequently throughout the remainder of the book; thus, the figure provided in this chapter may assist readers in understanding how various components of practice are interrelated. Finally, this chapter defined the term *social justice* and presented a rationale for the orientation of this book. It is our sincere hope that readers will reflect on the social justice concepts presented throughout the remaining chapters and consider them in their future professional development and practice.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. What is school psychology? What makes the profession of school psychology unique?
2. What is the significance of the NASP Practice Model for the field of school psychology?
3. What are direct and indirect psychological services? Why are both types necessary for comprehensive school psychological service delivery?

4. Shriberg (2012) contended that the goals of school psychology and social justice are integrally linked. Do you agree or disagree? Why?
5. Identify three domains of the NASP Practice Model. How might each of these domains intersect with social justice principles?

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CHAPTER 2

Historical Foundations

DAN FLORELL

CHAPTER OBJECTIVES

- Define and describe the major epochs of school psychology's history (i.e., Hybrid and Thoroughbred Years)
- Describe foundations in psychology and education that prompted the inception of the field
- Describe the development and contributions of school psychology's major professional associations
- Describe influential legislation and court cases that shaped the development of school psychology
- Describe the contributions of diverse individuals to the development of the field

Although relatively brief, the history of school psychology is brimming with innovation, missteps, successes, and challenges. Over the past 120 years, the profession of school psychology has been shaped by a number of influences, including developments in the fields of psychology and education, the changing sociopolitical environment of the United States, and, ultimately, the evolving contexts and needs of public schools. Many of these influences continue to be evident in contemporary practice.

Studying the history of school psychology is essential for understanding the current status of the field. In particular, knowledge of school psychology's history allows current scholars, practitioners, and graduate educators to avoid repeating past mistakes and to capitalize on opportunities for rectifying past injustices. This chapter describes important events and trends that contributed to the development of the field.

OVERVIEW OF SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY'S HISTORY

According to Fagan (1986a), school psychology's roots can be traced back to the 1890s. The history of school psychology has been described as two periods: the ***Hybrid Years*** (1896–1969) and the ***Thoroughbred Years*** (1970–present). The term *hybrid* is used to describe a time in school psychology's history when the profession comprised a diverse range of practitioners in psychology and education who were loosely organized around the mission of providing psychoeducational services to school-aged youth (Fagan & Wise, 2007). For the most part, these services centered on assessing children for the purpose of educational "sorting" or placement. The term *thoroughbred*, however, refers to the period of time in which school psychology's professional identity became more cohesive and established. In particular, this time period saw a growing number of graduate preparation programs, school positions, and publication outlets specifically devoted to the practice and profession of school psychology. The turning point marking the transition from the Hybrid Years to the Thoroughbred Years was the formation of the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP), the profession's first national organization devoted specifically to the practice of school psychology. This chapter describes both time periods and the events and trends that shaped them.

THE HYBRID YEARS

The Emergence of Psychology in Europe and the United States

The foundations of school psychology began to take root only a fewdecades after the larger field of psychology was established. The field of psychology itself was a mixture of medicine and philosophy that emerged in Germany in the late 1800s. German pioneers of psychology, such as Herman von Helmholtz and Wilhelm Wundt, focused their work on understanding the human mind through ***introspection*** (i.e., the observation of one's own mental state and conscious thoughts) and the measurement of physiological reactions. In England, individuals such as Francis Galton also experimented with methods of mental measurement as a means for understanding individual differences (Fancher, 1990).

Not long after the roots of psychology took hold in Europe, the United States began to contribute to the field as well. For example, William James, who studied under von Helmholtz in the late 1860s and later came to be regarded as "the Father of American Psychology," wrote one of the profession's most influential books, *The Principles of Psychology* (Angell, 1911; Evans, 1990). This work sparked great interest in the field of psychology among U.S. scholars. Inspired by James and his contemporaries, students in the United States and abroad began to specialize in the field of psychology.

The Changing Landscape of the Labor Force and Education

As the larger field of psychology began to take shape, the U.S. education system experienced significant changes as well. In the mid- to late 1890s, relatively few individuals enjoyed full access to formal education. The country was only a few

decades removed from the Civil War, and racial and ethnic discrimination was rampant. For example, mandated racial segregation in public spaces resulted in Black students attending under-resourced, inferior schools or their exclusion from public education altogether. Native Americans also were marginalized by the U.S. education system during this time. When Native American youth were included in schooling, it was often for the purpose of forced assimilation (Noltemeyer, Mujic, & McLoughlin, 2012). Regardless of cultural background, financial circumstances prevented many children who worked in factories, mines, and other labor-intensive jobs from attending school (Rury, 2016).

As poor work conditions continued and concerns for children's rights mounted, social movements advocating for the formal education of youth gained momentum. According to Field (1976), these social movements were motivated by the desire for an educated workforce and the preservation of society's character and moral structure. State legislators became increasingly aware that child labor negatively impacted the workforce and therefore needed to be regulated. Organized labor unions and other social organizations were instrumental in many states to ban child labor. Early on, however, these laws often were not enforced (Siegel & White, 1982).

As various industries began to require a more highly skilled and educated workforce, states began to pass compulsory schooling legislation, which was more successful in removing children from the labor force. ***Compulsory schooling*** refers to the legal requirement that children of particular ages attend school for a designated period of time. The surge in compulsory schooling legislation between 1870 and 1890 was a major driving force in the development of school psychology, as it resulted in an influx of youth with diverse characteristics and needs into the U.S. public school system (Braden, DiMarino-Linnen, & Good, 2001; Kaplan & Kaplan, 1985). With the welfare and needs of children rising to the forefront of the American conscience, a child study movement began.

Child Study Movement

Among the many social movements of the late 1800s, the ***child study movement*** was the one that most directly facilitated the birth of school psychology (Fagan, 2000). During this time, scholars became increasingly aware that children were not simply "miniature adults," but rather were distinctly different in their mental and behavioral functioning. As a result, greater numbers of people and organizations committed to working with children. This increased interest was motivated by four primary goals: (1) the need to teach children about a community's shared beliefs and values; (2) the desire for partial regulation of the labor market; (3) the need to prepare children for adult economic roles; and (4) the desire to provide services and support for at-risk children (Siegel & White, 1982). These goals significantly influenced the development of social institutions that continue to serve and impact children.

The increasing diversity of the student population in public schools initially presented a number of new challenges for school personnel (Fagan, 1992; Hildreth, 1930). Many children who came to school were coping with a range of issues, including malnutrition, economic hardship, learning problems, and chronic disease. Whereas such problems previously had deterred these students from

enrolling in public schools, compulsory schooling laws paved the way for their attendance. In response, schools developed special programs to address the needs of students who were experiencing learning problems (Siegel & White, 1982).

A number of psychologists contributed to the study of children's abilities, needs, and development. For example, Granville Stanley Hall was instrumental in drawing attention to the need for school-based services for children and adolescents. In 1880, Hall presented a series of lectures at Harvard University on the applications of psychology to education. Moreover, he studied the use of questionnaire methodology as a means for assessing the "common problems of school children" (Fagan, 1992, p. 238). Although Hall's questionnaire methodology was later discredited, he inspired other psychologists, such as Edward Thorndike, to pursue more scientifically rigorous studies of children (Ross, 1972). Ultimately, Hall's goal was to understand the basic nature of children and to apply this knowledge to the development of school programs (White, 1992).

Inspired by the child study movement, Lightner Witmer also made significant contributions to the study of children and schooling. In 1892, Witmer began teaching at the University of Pennsylvania, where he established the world's first applied psychological clinic in 1896 (Tulchin, 1956). Witmer focused on the assessment of schoolchildren who were referred by teachers, parents, and local community agencies (Fagan, 1992). Witmer's assessment techniques included interviews, naturalistic observations, record reviews, physical exams, and mental testing, all of which he used to ascertain the client's functioning while noting relevant environmental and social influences (Baker, 1988). He promoted a multidisciplinary approach centered on high-quality communication with parents and teachers to develop effective interventions (McReynolds, 1996; Routh, 1996). At the fifth annual meeting of the American Psychological Association (APA), Witmer (1897) emphasized the need for psychological experts "who [were] capable of treating the many difficult cases that resist the ordinary methods of the school room" (p. 117). Lightner Witmer is regarded as the founder of both school psychology and clinical psychology (Fagan, 1996; McReynolds, 1996).

Intelligence-Testing Movement

Interest in the measurement of individual differences in physiological and mental functioning significantly shaped the development of school psychology. Although many scholars contributed to the early development of intelligence testing, Alfred Binet, Victor Henri, and Theodore Simon are credited with the breakthrough in this area that most directly influenced school psychology. Commissioned by the French government to develop a measure that would identify students with intellectual disabilities, Binet, Henri, and Simon constructed the first modern intelligence test, the *Binet-Simon Intelligence Scale*, which was published in 1905 (Kaufman, 2000). As part of the development of this intelligence scale, Binet and colleagues identified age-related differences in children's cognitive development (Sattler, 2001).

Soon after the *Binet-Simon Intelligence Scale* was published in France, it was translated into English and distributed in the United States. Henry Goddard was the first to translate the test in 1908, and Lewis Terman followed with his own version in 1916. In his 1916 version, Terman introduced the concept of the intelligence

quotient (which is described in Chapter 10; Braden et al., 2001; Kehle, Clark, & Jenson, 1993). Between 1910 and 1920, other psychologists began to develop aptitude and achievement tests (Fagan, 2000; Kehle et al., 1993). Even though some school districts and child study bureaus embraced these tests, they were not well known by the general public.

Recognition of intelligence testing increased when the United States entered World War I. At the time, the U.S. military was relatively small and searching for a way to screen the intellectual and emotional functioning of soldiers. In response to this need, Robert Yerkes, who was the president of the APA at the time the United States declared war, recruited several prominent psychologists, including Henry Goddard, to develop a group-administered intelligence test (Boake, 2002; Kaufman, 2000). These psychologists developed the Army Alpha intelligence test. They quickly realized, however, that not all recruits would be able to complete the test, due to cultural barriers, limited English proficiency, or illiteracy. Subsequently, the committee developed the Army Beta test, which emphasized nonverbal items to increase accessibility (Kaufman, 2000). The widespread use of the Army Alpha and Beta tests contributed to the legitimization of psychological testing in the public eye (Fagan, 1985). As these tests began to enter schools, they gradually ushered school psychologists into an assessment-focused role (Fagan & Wise, 2007).

The advent of intelligence testing legitimized the need for school staff with psychological training; however, it also introduced a number of controversial social issues. Results from the Alpha tests indicated that, on average, Whites performed better than members of other racial groups (e.g., African Americans) did. Some scholars used these findings as a vehicle for suggesting that Whites were intellectually superior to African Americans. In response, several African American psychologists, including Horace Mann Bond, Herman Canady, Martin Jenkins, and Albert Beckham, set out to debunk these claims (Graves & Mitchell, 2011; Urban, 1989). For example, Albert Sidney Beckham, the first African American school psychologist, examined the impact of environmental variables (e.g., socioeconomic status) on intelligence test scores (Graves, 2009). Debate regarding the use of intelligence tests with diverse populations intensified in subsequent decades and would eventually become a source of heated controversy in state and federal courts.

An Emerging Profession

The confluence of sociopolitical forces and advances in child studies, intelligence testing, and other areas made it increasingly clear that school psychological services were necessary for supporting a diverse student body. As student populations continued to grow, public schools began conducting health screenings and providing preventive care to students. Many schools focused on assisting children with disabilities, including students with visual, auditory, physical, and intellectual impairments. These services required the expertise of specialists with multidisciplinary skill sets, and, consequently, laid the foundations of school psychology.

Organizations devoted to the welfare of children, such as the Illinois Society for Child Study (ISCS; established in 1894), contributed to the development of school-based services. For example, W. S. Christopher, who was a member of the Chicago Board of Education and the ISCS, assisted the Chicago Board of Education in establishing the nation's first ***child study bureau*** in 1899 (Slater, 1980). These

child study bureaus conducted research on students to establish typical development and then identify students who were atypically developing so as to provide more appropriate educational services. Over the next few decades, the developments in Chicago began to spread to other urban school districts, which formed their own child study bureaus. Subsequently, child study bureaus were founded in major cities such as St. Louis, Baltimore, Cleveland, Los Angeles, New Haven, Louisville, and Detroit (Fagan, 1985; Hildreth, 1930; Wallin, 1920). Many of the psychologists in these bureaus devoted their time to measuring the physiological characteristics and mental aptitude of children (Gesell, 1921; Mullen, 1981; Slater, 1980). Employees in these bureaus also embraced the topic of teaching pedagogy, as teachers were becoming increasingly interested in learning effective techniques for educating students with a wide range of abilities.

Although pedagogical innovations were emerging, many students continued to struggle in the classroom. As a result, some school districts developed classification systems that would allow children to be targeted for specialized services. Parents and teachers referred students with a range of difficulties, including behavior problems and intellectual disabilities, for consideration for these services. Some districts even developed the earliest forms of special education services (Fagan, 2000).

The expansion of the child study bureaus and various student services led to an increase in the number of psychologists working with children in school settings. This trend eventually prompted the Connecticut State Board of Education to hire Arnold Gesell as the first school employee to hold the title of *school psychologist*. Gesell's role was to assist in mental examination case studies and to conduct survey research with students attending public schools. He also provided consultative services and in-service trainings to school staff (Fagan, 1987).

Growth of Training

Although increasing numbers of school psychologists were being hired by school districts, there was little consensus regarding the professional preparation necessary to serve in this role. Advances in training gained momentum in the 1920s, when New York University became the first higher education institution to offer a school psychology program (Trachtman, 1987). Other institutions began to offer specialized courses for students who were training to be school psychologists, and in the late 1930s, Pennsylvania State University established the first doctoral program in school psychology (Reynolds & Clark, 1984).

As more universities began offering courses related to school psychology, the need for literature and textbooks in this area arose. In 1930, Gertrude Hildreth wrote the first book on school psychology, *Psychological Service for School Problems*. This book presented a model of school psychological services and described the roles and functions of school psychologists. Additionally, Hildreth described the typical daily schedule of school psychologists, which included conferencing with staff and parents, conducting in-service trainings, and testing individual students. In many respects, the various activities described by Hildreth are similar to those performed by contemporary practitioners. Hildreth's textbook would stand alone for 25 years before the next book written specifically for school psychologists appeared, which was a summary of the Thayer Conference of 1954

(French, 1986). Ultimately, the availability of training programs and textbooks paved the way for the first state credentialing systems for school psychologists in New York and Pennsylvania. These systems were in place by the mid-1930s (Fagan & Wise, 2007).

Professional Organizations

As training programs and state credentialing systems populated the nation, professional organizations were slowly developing as well. Even though APA was established in 1893, it primarily emphasized academic psychology (i.e., research and scholarship) and placed relatively less emphasis on applied psychology (i.e., practice). As the number of applied psychologists grew, other psychological associations began to form. One of the most notable of these organizations was the American Association of Applied Psychologists (AAAP), which emerged in 1937 as APA's most significant competitor. The AAAP represented four broadly defined specialties (i.e., clinical, educational, consulting, and business and industrial psychology), with school practitioners belonging predominantly to the clinical or educational sections. Despite the existence of these two national psychological associations, most school practitioners did not belong to either (Fagan & Wise, 2007).

APA and AAAP merged into one organization in 1945, and APA's subsequent reorganization led to the formation of its current division system. One of the original divisions established in 1945 was the Division for School Psychologists (Division 16). This was the first national organization devoted specifically to school psychologists. The division struggled to maintain a consistent membership for several years thereafter, but its establishment marked an important milestone in the formation of school psychology's professional identity (Fagan & Wise, 2007).

On the Brink of a Professional Identity

Impact of World War II

Similar to World War I, World War II had a significant impact on the development of the broader field of psychology. Whereas World War I introduced psychological assessment to the public, World War II increased public awareness of the ability of psychologists to provide counseling services. The atrocities of World II and the Holocaust (in which millions of Jews, racial and ethnic minorities, people with disabilities, sexual minorities, and many others were executed in concentration camps) left many witnesses and victims deeply traumatized. It was at this point that applied psychologists began to focus on counseling as one of their primary functions.

Following World War II, the United States experienced a spike in its population as a result of the "baby boom." Between 1945 and 1961, more than 60 million children were born in the United States (Colby & Ortman, 2014) and flooded into the public school system. Consequently, even more psychologists were needed in schools to meet this demand. In response to the baby boom, the profession of school psychology experienced reciprocal growth, with the number of practitioners increasing from 500 to 5,000 between 1940 and 1970. There also was a corresponding increase in training programs from merely a handful to more than 100

programs that collectively enrolled over 3,000 graduate students (Batsche, Knoff, & Peterson, 1989; Reynolds & Clark, 1984). During this time, more states began to recognize the need for professional certification systems for school psychologists. The number of states implementing credentialing systems increased from 13 in 1946 to 23 in 1960. By 1970, the majority of states (approximately 40) had established credentialing systems for school psychologists.

Impact of the Civil Rights Movement

Beginning in the early 1950s, simmering tensions regarding the education of racial and ethnic minority students came to a boil. During the first half of the 20th century, U.S. public schools operated in accordance with the doctrine "separate but equal," which emerged in 1896 from the infamous court case known as ***Plessy v. Ferguson***. This landmark ruling upheld state laws requiring the racial segregation of public facilities (including schools) under the premise that "separate but equal" facilities would be provided to individuals from White and non-White backgrounds. As a result of this ruling, African American and other non-White students frequently were educated in schools with fewer resources and less qualified teachers than White students (Benjamin, Henry, & McMahon, 2005). When such schools were not accessible, many non-White students were excluded from the public school system all together.

The *Plessy v. Ferguson* ruling sparked considerable debate among educators and psychologists regarding the best way to educate students from racial and ethnic minority backgrounds. In the 1930s, psychological research made a notable shift from focusing on racial differences (as a means of asserting superiority) to exploring the impact of racial prejudice (Samelson, 1978). For example, Inez Beverly Prosser, one of the first African American women to earn a doctorate in psychology, examined the relationship between school environment (i.e., racially segregated or mixed) and nonacademic variables (e.g., family relationships, personality characteristics, and social participation) in African American students. She found that African American students in racially mixed schools experienced higher levels of social maladjustment as well as less security and satisfaction in their social relations. Based on these findings, Prosser argued that segregated environments were preferable for supporting the healthy development of African American children, although she believed some students (depending on personality type) would fare well in mixed schools (Benjamin et al., 2005).

Others argued that school segregation would justify segregation in other aspects of society and would perpetuate misguided beliefs about African American inferiority (Benjamin et al., 2005). Advocates of this viewpoint included Kenneth Clark and Mamie Phipps Clark, a married couple who were among the first African American scholars to receive doctoral degrees in psychology. The Clarks studied African American children who attended either segregated or integrated schools and found that the students who attended segregated schools were more likely to internalize negative racial stereotypes (Gibbons & Van Nort, 2009).

In 1954, the U.S. Supreme Court rendered a decision in the landmark ***Brown et al. v. Board of Education of Topeka*** case that overturned the "separate but equal" doctrine that had emerged from *Plessy v. Ferguson* more than 50 years earlier. The 1954 ruling declared that state laws establishing separate schools for

White and African American students were unconstitutional. This case was not only a significant victory for the public education system, but also a major milestone for the field of psychology. The research of Kenneth and Mamie Clark played a key role in the decision rendered in *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) and was one of the first pieces of psychological research to be incorporated in a Supreme Court decision that effected monumental social change (Benjamin & Crouse, 2002; Jackson, 1998). The importance of this case cannot be overstated, as it not only desegregated schools but also incited a variety of subsequent lawsuits advocating for the rights of other marginalized populations (e.g., children with disabilities). The *Brown v. Board of Education* case and others would lead to immense change in the practice of school psychology, as described later in this chapter.

Thayer Conference

Following World War II and with the emerging need for diagnostic and therapeutic services, leaders in clinical psychology training and practice convened to discuss the roles, functions, and training standards for clinical psychologists. This meeting became known as the Boulder Conference of 1949 (held at the University of Colorado Boulder). At this conference, participants discussed specific directions for the proper training of clinical psychologists. These discussions led to the development of the ***scientist-practitioner model*** of training, which called for an emphasis on training in both research and clinical practice (Baker & Benjamin, 2000).

Unfortunately, the Boulder Conference was primarily focused on serving the adult population and provided little guidance on training standards for psychologists who specialized in serving children and schools. This omission prompted the organization of the ***Thayer Conference***, which took place in West Point, New York, in 1954 (French, 1992). The Thayer Conference was one of the first professional gatherings exclusively focused on the professional practice of school psychologists. The main goals of the conference were to define the roles and functions of school psychologists and to specify training standards for the field. The proceedings of this conference were recorded in the second school psychology book to be published (25 years after Hildreth's book), *School Psychologists at Mid-Century: A Report of the Thayer Conference on the Functions, Qualifications, and Training of School Psychologists* (Cutts, 1955). Shortly following the publication of this book, several other school psychology books were published, including Stanley Marzolf's (1956) *Psychological Diagnosis and Counseling in the Schools* and W. D. Wall's (1956) *Psychological Services for the Schools* (French, 1986).

Formation of NASP and State Associations

Throughout the 1940s and 1950s, professional organizations representing school psychology continued to develop. Membership in APA Division 16 rose to 601 members in 1956. Moreover, a number of state school psychological associations were formed throughout the 1950s and into the 1960s. In 1943, Ohio became the first state to develop an association for school psychologists (*School Psychologists of Ohio,* which was renamed the *Ohio School Psychology Association* in the early 1960s). California, Illinois, Massachusetts, New York, and New Jersey all followed