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OUTGOING EDITOR'S MESSAGE

Dear Colleagues,

This issue (Vol. 72, Issue #4) of *The School Psychologist* (*TSP*) marks my last as Editor. I would like to take a minute to express my appreciation for the support I have received, describe some of the accomplishments over the last few years, and briefly discuss the future of the publication.

I will start by saying that it has been a pleasure to be able to contribute to our field and Division 16, in particular. The amount of support from Division 16 colleagues has been critical. Unfortunately, I cannot thank every person who has offered their services to *TSP,* but will highlight a few with apologies to others for not deservedly identifying them. First, Dr. Linda Reddy and Dr. James DiPerna (D16 past presidents) offered critical vision and advice during an important transition period for the publication. Dr. Rosemary Flanagan, past Editor of *TSP*, whom I worked alongside as an Associate Editor, was also instrumental in guiding the publication through format changes and sharing her knowledge of the editorial process. The publication's editorial board, as well as our ad hoc editors, cannot be thanked enough for their critical perusal of submissions. Collectively, the D16 executive board has been essential in the on-going operations of the *TSP*, with Dr. Michelle Perfect taking the lead as Vice President of Publications and Communication. In terms of the ongoing, hands-on operations of *TSP*, Dr. Andy Pham, Associate Editor, has been critical to the publication's success

over the last few years. I cannot thank him enough for his excellent work and I am confident that *TSP* is in wonderful (better) hands as he steps into the Editor role and moves forward.

Over the past few years, *TSP* has continued to tweak its look and content. For example, Wade George, Division 16's Director of Communications, has done a terrific job in transforming the formatting, layout, and design of *TSP*, and he has been a regular source of support for many technical decisions. I hope you have appreciated the new look as much as I have. We have also had success in reintroducing advertisement spots within each issue. These ads help to defray the overall costs of D16 publication operations, and when done as part of corporate sponsorships, are a source of income for D16 as a whole. Last year, Dr. Pham and I proposed a "Special Issue" of *TSP*. The topic was "The Role of the School Psychologist in Postsecondary Education: Psychoeducational Services to Support College Students." With the leadership and expertise of guest editors, Dr. Diana Joyce-Beaulieu and Dr. Michael L. Sulkowski, the Special Issue was a great success; so successful that we had enough high

quality content to offer two issues (Vol. 71, No. 3 in Fall of 2017 & Vol. 72, No 2 in Spring of 2018).

I believe that *The School Psychologist* occupies a worthy niche among the newsletters and journals in our field, and it has the potential to continue to attract and disseminate excellent content. I look forward to more special issues (please send in your topical ideas), and I hope for a modest expansion in the amount of content that the *TSP* can support, per issue. I encourage all of you to consider submission of your work to facilitate *TSP*'s success in the future. I wish the incoming Editor and Associate Editor the best of luck and encourage Division governance to continue to support their efforts and decisions.

I will end by extending my gratitude to all of the contributors of excellent content, including the authors of empirical manuscripts as well as our Student Corner, People & Places, and Early Career contributors. Without you, *TSP* does not exist.

Greg R. Machek, PhD

VIDEO SELF-MODELING INTERVENTIONS IN THE SCHOOLS:
IMPLEMENTATION THROUGH TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND SUPPORT

By Michelle G. La Spata, Texas Woman's University
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School psychology has been described as "the art and science of influence" (A. Coulter, personal communication, July 5, 2017). One way in which school psychologists influence key stakeholders within the schools is through consultation. Consultation broadly entails a helping relationship in which specialists (i.e., consultants) help individuals and groups (i.e., consultees) improve their effectiveness at solving problems with a client system (Dougherty, 2014). The school psychologist often assumes the role of consultant, whereas consultees may include but are not limited to teachers, administrators, parents, or school systems. The client system may include the student or an organization. By engaging in consultation, the school psychologist does not work directly with any students but strives to help the consultee(s) support the student(s).

Many consultative models exist, including behavioral consultation (see Kratochwill & Bergan, 1990) and instructional consultation (see Rosenfield, 2008), where consultants

may work with individual consultees (typically teachers when in the schools). Consultation can also occur at an organizational level, where consultants work with multiple consultees within a given grade, department, or school in order to solve problems related to an organization (Erchul & Sheridan, 2014). Organizational consultation can be very beneficial in situations when the desired outcome is for all of the teachers and staff members to uphold and enforce the expectations of a school system (e.g., universal behavioral support). Purchase of expertise consultation is one subtype of organizational consultation (Schein, 2010) in which the consultant, regarded as an "expert," is expected to share content and information with the consultees (Robertson, Deck, & Isenhour, 2014).

Within the school setting, the purchase of expertise model of consultation is often illustrated through professional development activities. Guskey (2002) indicated that while teachers are contractually required to engage in professional development activities, many teachers also looked to professional development to increase their knowledge and skills that would ultimately improve student outcomes. Thus, professional development may entail consultative and collaborative relationships in which teachers share their personal knowledge and also receive knowledge from experts, including school psychologists (Bryant, Linan-Thompson, Ugel, Hamff, & Hougen, 2001).

Effective professional developmental activities can facilitate teacher change; however, some characteristics of professional development activities are more likely to lead to change. For instance, teachers often want specific and practical ideas that they could directly apply to their day-to-day classroom activities (Guskey, 2002). Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman, and Yoon (2001) found that sustained and intensive professional development was more likely to influence teacher change than shorter professional development. Furthermore, professional development that provided active learning opportunities, and was integrated into the school culture through the collective participation of teachers, was more likely to generalize beyond the professional development activity. Guskey and Yoon (2009) indicated that professional development workshops that focused on implementation of evidence-based practices, provided active learning experiences, and offered opportunities for teachers to adapt these practices to their unique classroom situations were most likely to facilitate teacher change. Furthermore, teacher change in practice was more likely to be fostered by professional development efforts that included ideas provided by outside experts (Guskey & Yoon, 2009). Therefore, these recommendations were incorporated by providing professional development in order to teach teachers how to implement video self-modeling interventions.

Video Self-Modeling

Video self-modeling (VSM) is a strength-based intervention where the individual learns to perform a desired target behavior or skill by viewing him- or herself "modeling" that skill through a video medium (Dowrick, 1999; Hitchcock, Dowrick, & Prater, 2003). The development of VSM as an intervention modality was primarily influenced by social learning theory, formulated by Albert Bandura. Bandura and

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colleagues conducted a series of studies in the 1960s famously known as the Bobo doll experiments, and found that children interacted with Bobo dolls in much the same way that they viewed adult models interacting with the Bobo dolls. In other words, children who observed adults behaving aggressively with the Bobo dolls were themselves aggressive with them, and children who observed adults behaving non-aggressively with the dolls were not aggressive as well (Bandura, Ross, & Ross, 1961). Thus, Bandura used the results of his studies to develop social learning theory, which posited that behavior could be learned through watching and imitating a model of the behavior performed (Bandura & Walters, 1963). In addition, Bandura (1969) noted that observational learning was more effective when the learner observed the model being reinforced for performing the behavior, and when he or she was self-motivated and believed in his or her capability in performing the behavior (Bandura, 1977). Lastly, Bandura (1969) noted that real or perceived observer-model similarity influenced the probability of imitating behavior; specifically, models more similar to the learner were more likely to be imitated. The model most similar to the learner is him- or herself, so it would stand to reason that learners would be most motivated to imitate themselves, or to be their own self-models.

Although Bandura's social learning theory has been applied to role-playing intervention strategies, early studies investigating self-modeling via a video medium (e.g., Creer & Miklich, 1970; Davis, 1979) found that a video-based intervention was more effective at addressing behavioral and emotional problems than role playing desired behaviors alone. However, in the 1970s, video technology was less sophisticated. The participants in the studies conducted in the 1970s were asked to participate in role-playing activities and their behavior was caught on tape. However, these studies did not disclose whether extensive editing was needed to create the final videos. In the 1980s, a study was conducted by Kehle, Clark, Jenson, and Wampold (1986) in which participants exhibiting behavioral and emotional problems viewed edited videos because the researchers were not able to spontaneously capture the desired behavior in raw footage. Kehle and colleagues compared the behavior of the participants with edited videos to a control participant who watched raw footage, and found that VSM was more effective for those watching edited videos that showed them exhibiting their best behavior.

Although more and more research throughout the 1980s, 1990s, and early 2000s provided support for the viability of VSM, school personnel did not immediately incorporate VSM into their toolbox of interventions because the technology remained elusive. Video footage was captured through videotape, and most school personnel did not have the training or the time to edit videotaped footage. However, in the 2000s, technology evolved so that videos could be digitally created, edited on a computer, and burned onto a DVD using software such as iMovie (found on Macintosh programs) and Movie Maker (within Windows), both of which are free and accessible to the mainstream (Buggey, 2007). Concurrently, VSM research exploded in the 2000s, particularly with populations with autism spectrum disorder (ASD). Bellini and Akuillan (2007) conducted a meta-analysis of VSM studies with students with ASD and found that VSM yielded the highest intervention effects for students who were learning functional skills. In the late 2000s and 2010s, technology continued to advance such that in addition to digital video cameras and computers, individuals purchased tablets and smartphones which contained applications ("apps") for filming and editing videos. For example, iMovie was created into a free app that

could be downloaded onto iPads or iPhones. Compared to video cameras, tablets and smartphones are even more portable, thus enabling the movie making process to become more efficient and user friendly.

In most, if not all, VSM studies, the teachers who participated had been primarily involved in identifying the behaviors of concern, supporting the school psychologist or interventionist in the video creating process, and providing a space and time for the students to view the final products. However, a current literature review revealed no studies had been conducted that investigated whether teachers could directly implement VSM with their students, with school psychologists assuming more of an indirect role as consultants.

Therefore, in this project one primary research question was addressed: Could effective professional development with ongoing consultative support enable teachers to implement VSM interventions directly with their students? It was hypothesized that teachers would be at varying stages regarding their receptiveness to training and in their work with the consultants, depending on their prior experiences and needs. Nevertheless, it was also hypothesized that teachers could receive benefit from professional development if the consultants included practical, experiential learning activities as a means of teaching VSM. Although most teachers were expected to have had experience and access to smartphones and/or tablets and understand the tools needed to practice making VSM movies, it was hypothesized that teachers who were more comfortable using the technology were more likely to implement VSM interventions than teachers less comfortable with technology.

Method

Participants

Twenty-one teachers who comprised the faculty of a school serving students with special needs within an urban school district were recruited to participate in professional development through the school's principal. The principal and school psychologist at that campus sought out the university trainer requesting the in-service training. All teachers were certified in special education and taught a variety of academic, social, and vocational skills classes. Of the 21 teachers who participated, 17 teachers provided demographic information. Three teachers (17%) reported they taught pre-kindergarten through eighth grades; six teachers (35%) taught ninth through twelfth grades; seven teachers (41%) taught post-secondary students; and one teacher (6%) reported she worked with students in all grades (pre-kindergarten through post-secondary education). Teachers' caseloads varied widely from a low of five to a high of 52 students. The disabilities within the student body included Autism Spectrum Disorder (AU), Emotional Disturbance (ED), Intellectual Disability (ID), Other Health Impairment (OHI), Specific Learning Disabilities (SLD), Speech and Language Impairment (SLI), Traumatic Brain Injury (TBI), and Vision Impairment (VI).

Procedures

Phase I: In-service. The consultation process began with a full day in-service presentation which occurred the week before the school year commenced. Four doctoral school psychology students and the research team faculty leader facilitated the presentation. All of the teachers above attended and brought their own iPads equipped with iMovie software.

The presentation was divided into four segments. In the early morning session, the consultants and the teachers completed an interactive pre-assessment activity to evaluate teachers' prior knowledge of VSM and behavior assessment and intervention. In this activity, multiple choice questions were created using a website entitled Kahoot, and teachers were provided a login code to access the activity and answer the multiple choice questions. After completing the quiz, the consultants discussed each of the questions and answers. The remainder of the early morning session entailed providing an overview of VSM and its theoretical basis, and of functional behavioral assessment and behavior intervention. After a 15-minute break, the late morning session discussed when to implement VSM, strategies for measuring outcomes, and an overview of editing VSM videos using Windows Movie Maker (for PC users) and iMovie.

After lunch, the teachers spent the afternoon in experiential learning activities where they were divided into groups of three, and each group was given a vignette of a student behaving inappropriately. The groups were tasked with developing a VSM based on the vignette, engaging in both the filming and editing process to develop the VSM intervention movie using the iPad software. Faculty and graduate student support was providing during this hands-on learning activity. After a short break, the groups watched all of the final VSM products and provided constructive feedback on each other's VSM videos during the late afternoon session. The group deemed to have the best VSM movie won a prize. At the end of the in-service, the teachers evaluated the presentation in terms of the training, the ease of using VSM, and the ease of using the iPad technology.

Phase II: Consultation Follow-up. After the in-service, the teachers who provided consent to continue with consultation were asked to provide demographic information (i.e., name, grades taught, subjects taught, caseload size, and disability categories represented on their

caseload). Based on the information provided, teachers were grouped by grades taught because they were deemed more likely to encounter similar issues or behavior concerns. Thus, one consultant was assigned to four teachers who taught elementary and middle school grades (pre-K through 8th); another consultant was assigned to five teachers who taught high school (9th through 12th); and the remaining two consultants were each assigned to four teachers who taught post-secondary education, which included subjects such as life skills, vocational skills, travel training, citizenship, social skills, home management, and functional academics.

Each consultant was required to contact their consultees in November, February, and April to check in and offer services to assist consultees with VSM interventions as needed. If consultees wanted support services, consultants would opt to work with consultees either via phone or video conference, or offer in-person meetings if requested. These guidelines were set due to the consultants' external status and due to their proximity to the consultees. During the spring semester, consultees completed a follow-up survey to evaluate their current thoughts about using VSM and the iPad technology.

Materials and Data Analysis

Teachers completed two surveys constructed by the authors. The first survey was completed at the beginning of the school year and included eight items assessing teachers' impressions of the efficacy of the in-service presentation, on a 10-point Likert scale (1 = not at all; 10 = all the time/very much so). In addition, teachers had the opportunity to provide qualitative information regarding their perceptions of the strengths and weaknesses of the presentation. The second survey was completed in the spring semester and included six items also presented on a 10-point Likert scale (same guidelines as in the first survey), as well as three short answer items where teachers could provide qualitative information.

Descriptive statistics were obtained on the teacher feedback obtained during the in-service as well as the mid-year feedback. Given the survey items were on a Likert scale, those items repeated on both surveys were compared using a Wilcoxon signed rank test to determine where there were any statistically significant differences in teachers' perceptions of VSM and the use of iPad technology at the beginning and end of the school year.

Results

Table 1 provides the descriptive statistics for each of the survey items completed immediately after the in-service presentation. Twenty-one participants completed this survey. Participants' average scores ranged from a low of 6.13 to a high of 9.63 ($M = 8.23$). A Wilcoxon signed rank test demonstrated that among the two items related to technology (i.e., "How comfortable did you feel with the technology components prior to this VSM training?" and "How comfortable did you feel with the technology after this VSM training?"), participants indicated that they felt significantly more comfortable with utilizing iPads and other technology after completion of the training ($M = 8.14$, $SD = 1.39$) than before ($M = 4.76$, $SD = 2.26$), $z = -4.04$, $p < .001$.

TABLE 1: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR FIRST SURVEY ITEMS

Item	Mean	SD
1. I will use information gained in this training with my students.	8.93	1.10
2. The use of multiple learning formats such as discussions, didactic, video example, and small group activities have been helpful in my learning of VSM.	9.41	0.98
3. Would you recommend this training for other teachers, administrators, or school practitioners?	9.62	0.80
4. How likely are you to implement VSM in your classroom?	8.79	1.24
5. How well do you think your students are to respond to VSM interventions?	8.47	1.21
6. How likely are you to use the data graphing chart for your IEP progress monitoring?	7.62	2.58
7. How comfortable did you feel with the technology components prior to the VSM training?	4.76	2.26
8. How comfortable do you feel with the technology after the VSM training?	8.14	1.39

Table 2 provides the descriptive statistics for each of the survey items completed during the spring semester. Eleven respondents completed the survey. Two items from the first survey (i.e., "Would you recommend this training for other teachers, administrators or school practitioners" and "How likely are you to use the data graphing chart for your IEP progress monitoring") were removed as they were deemed irrelevant to the information sought in the second survey. Other items were reworded to reflect the present use of the intervention rather than its future use. In addition, one item was added to the spring semester survey to solicit information about the number of students involved with VSM. On average, teachers implemented VSM with just over five students, but there was wide variability, ranging from as low as zero to as high as 15 students ($M = 5.22$, $SD = 5.78$). Participants' average scores ranged from a low of 2.60 to a high of 9.17 ($M = 5.75$). Among the two items related to technology (i.e., "How comfortable did you feel with the technology components prior to this VSM training?" and "How comfortable do you feel with the technology at the present time?"), marginally significant differences in perception of comfort were found, $z = -1.74$, $p = .08$, indicating that teachers

perceived themselves as more comfortable with the technology in the spring than prior to the training, but that this difference was not as significant as it was immediately after the training.

TABLE 2: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR SECOND SURVEY ITEMS

Item	Mean	SD
1. I have utilized information gained in the VSM training with my students.	5.09	2.59
2. The use of multiple learning formats such as discussions, didactic, video example, and small group activities were helpful to my learning of VSM.	7.09	2.66
3. How often have you implemented VSM in your classroom?	4.82	2.14
4. How well do you think your students responded to VSM interventions?	6.30	2.40
5. How comfortable did you feel with the technology components prior to the VSM training?	5.27	3.17
6. How comfortable do you feel with the technology at the present time?	6.27	2.65

To compare similar items between the first and the second surveys, a Wilcoxon signed rank test was performed using the 11 participants who completed both surveys. Participants ranked the items pertaining to the training process and the ease of using VSM significantly lower at the end of the year than at the beginning of the year. There were no significant differences with regards to ranking the comfort with using technology prior to the training in the fall and ranking the comfort again in the spring. Furthermore, there were no significant differences with regards to ranking the comfort with using the technology immediately after the VSM training and ranking their current level of comfort in the spring (both $ps > .05$; see Table 3).

TABLE 3: COMPARISON BETWEEN PRE AND POSTTEST ITEMS

Item	Z	p
1. I **will utilize**/*have utilized* information gained in the VSM training with my students.	-2.71	.007*
2. The use of multiple learning formats such as discussions, didactic, video example, and small group activities **have been**/*were* helpful to my learning of VSM.	-2.01	.045*
3. How **likely are you to implement**/*often have you implemented* VSM in your classroom?	-2.95	.003*
4. How well do you think your students **will respond**/*responded* to VSM interventions?	-2.08	.038*
5. How comfortable did you feel with the technology components prior to the VSM training? (**same wording both times**)	-0.49	0.624
6. How comfortable do you feel with the technology **after the VSM training**/*at the present time*?	-0.95	0.341

P-values less than .05 were statistically significant. Bolded phrases reflect the language used on the first survey, whereas italicized phrases reflect the language used on the second survey.

Qualitative Information

A sample of the teachers provided additional feedback regarding VSM and the technology behind VSM as part of the second survey, as shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4: QUALITATIVE FEEDBACK

Question	Responses
How can we be of further assistance in VSM?	• Continuing to support us in providing VSM for our students possibly by email. • No further assistance needed. • I would like a database collecting all the VSM videos we are utilizing. This is something I could do myself, but which I have not done yet. • Maybe a quick refresher video of step by step. Think I am still doing some things wrong. • Data collection • Prior to the training, you could have asked us to provide examples of how we could use VSM and then provided us with those videos as well as how best to utilize them. It would have been beneficial to see your students utilize the videos in an actual classroom.
How can we be of further assistance in operating the technology behind VSM?	• A quick run through of how to edit the video, I struggle because of lack of consistency on my part. • No, the information received was very clear. • We may do well with a contact here at the school as a go-between to make sure we are communicating well and meeting your needs. Otherwise, a website, link, or email distribution list may be of assistance. Let me know if there is anything I can do to assist. • Editing the VSM • Provide online training that I could watch to assist me with creating VSMs.

Discussion

The purpose of this project was to examine the efficacy of professional development in teaching teachers how to implement VSM interventions using iPad technology. The teachers had very positive feedback after the in-service training and expressed they felt more comfortable using iPad technology to create and edit videos after the conclusion of the in-service than before. Furthermore, the teachers appeared enthusiastic about the benefits of VSM as an intervention and were motivated to implement the intervention with their students. However, during the year, the teachers' ratings regarding their ease of using VSM declined, although they were more "average" in the spring whereas the ratings were well above average after the in-service.

All teachers who provided feedback in the spring semester had implemented VSM with two to fifteen students, which was more than prior to the training. The qualitative feedback indicated teachers still held positive views about VSM itself, but they did not feel as confident in their own abilities to implement the intervention, particularly the editing process.   Although the teachers were provided several opportunities to interact with the consultants, only one teacher worked with a consultant on issues related to editing videos. Two teachers replied back indicating everything was going well; however, most teachers did not request additional consultative support. Since the consultants were not internal to the school system, more effort may have been needed to build that relationship to help consultees feel more at ease. According to Spratt et al. (2006), one of the challenges inherent in consultation is that teachers can have difficulty incorporating new strategies, particularly when their existing strategies are well-established, leading to change resistance (see Thornberg, 2014, for a discussion of his grounded theory of change resistance within the context of school consultation). External consultants in particular may encounter more challenges in breaking through the professional barrier to understand classroom variables and teaching situations affecting the consultation case (Slonski-Fowler & Truscott, 2004). Thus, external consultants may need to devise more creative ways to avail themselves to their consultees if they cannot physically be at the school at all times.

The teachers' perceived lack of confidence in the spring may also simply reflect accumulated experiences with VSM, which they did not yet have when they rated the in-service immediately upon its completion. Socrates shared that all he knew was that he knew nothing (Hoyt & Roberts, 1922). Thus, while favorable feedback provided immediately after professional development is desirable and a good first step in translating knowledge into practice, even high quality professional development does not automatically translate to achieving competence. The practice model established by the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP, 2010) includes ten domains in which knowledge and competency are separated within each domain. Therefore, NASP acknowledges that attaining professional development does not automatically translate into increased performance. Future studies may be warranted to explore perceptions of competency with skills learned in professional development. For example, NASP offers two-hour mini-skills sessions designed to teach skills that school psychologists can immediately use upon returning to work; future studies may explore whether that learning actually translates to practice.

This study is not without its limitations. There was wide variability in teacher responses to the second survey. Teachers who reported using VSM with many students also reported feeling very comfortable using VSM as well as the technology involved in filming and editing videos. However, no information was obtained regarding teachers' background knowledge of VSM and iPad technology that could be linked to each teacher, so it is unclear as to whether the teachers who expressed more comfort with VSM had an advantage going into the in-service. Obtaining that preliminary information could have helped determine which teachers had greater needs. In addition, the samples provided during the in-service featured elementary-aged students; given the majority of teachers taught post-secondary students, they may have had more difficulty relating to the examples provided in the training. Again, obtaining the teachers' background information about their caseload could have helped to tailor the in-service

presentation and future consultation to meet their needs. In turn, the consultants would have better understood the school culture and developed better relationships with the consultees (Thornberg, 2014).

In conclusion, this study was one of the first of its kind to explore the efficacy of training teachers to implement VSM with their students. Given the advances in video technology, VSM has been easier to implement now than in the past and can be a very useful part of a teacher's toolbox of interventions. School psychologists providing consultation to teachers through professional development can help empower teachers to address the needs of their students. In order for school psychologists to connect with teachers to provide effective professional development, it is recommended that they solicit background information and conduct a needs assessment to tailor the activities to meet their needs. Furthermore, while the presenters shared didactic information about VSM, most of the in-service activities were experiential which teachers tended to rate very favorably. Although there are many benefits to school psychologists providing consultation services to teachers through professional development, there are also challenges in forming relationships with consultees, particularly for school psychologists juggling job demands at multiple schools. Future studies may investigate how school psychologists balance these roles and their impact on effective school consultation.

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THE ROLE OF TRAINERS OF SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGISTS IN PROMOTING DIVERSITY RECRUITMENT

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The professional roles and scope of practice of school psychologists are expanding more now than ever, and demand for school psychologists continues to increase (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2015). In addition to traditional roles of student assessment within primary and secondary schools, school psychologists are increasingly providing intervention for students (i.e., academic and mental health) and consultation with teachers, administrators, and others (Ball, Pierson, & McIntosh, 2011). As the scope of practice widens, new opportunities to support children, families, and teachers emerge. Unfortunately, the expanding role of school psychologists has come up against an already problematic nationwide shortage of practitioners within the schools, a challenge that is especially acute with regard to recruiting racial, ethnic, and culturally diverse

individuals into the profession (Moorehead-Slaughter & Worrell, 2016). Trainers of school psychologists hold a critical responsibility in addressing this recruitment challenge. This paper will discuss the ongoing need for increasing graduate training and practitioner diversification and will share recruitment strategies and practices from other related disciplines to help trainers more effectively recruit racial, ethnic and linguistically diverse students.

Scope of the Challenge – The Diversity Recruitment Gap in School Psychology

The public schools are becoming increasingly diverse within the United States (Lopez & Burztyn, 2013; NCES, 2016), though diversity among practicing school psychologists continues to lag in comparison to the children and families served. The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) reported that students from racial and ethnic minority backgrounds now comprise a majority of students (50.1%) enrolled in our public schools nationally, a finding buoyed by the sharp increase in school-aged Asian/Pacific Islander and Hispanic student enrollments (NCES, 2016). The increasingly diverse school demographics also reflect similar societal demographic trends. For example, US Census projections indicate that the nation will become a majority-minority nation for the first time in 2043, at which point the non-Hispanic White population will no longer comprise a simple majority of the population. Similar data predict the non-Hispanic population decreasing from 62.6% presently to 43% and racial and ethnic minority populations

increasing from a combined total of 37.4% of the population today to 57%, by 2060 (US Census, 2012).

School psychology professionals are not representative of the present or emerging racial/ethnic diversity within the United States or its public schools. For example, the most recent demographic data available indicate that 87% of the field report a non-Hispanic White heritage (Walcott, Charvat, McNamara, & Hyson, 2016). These data demonstrate a small increase in the diversification of the profession from the prior membership data findings, which found that 90.1% of the profession reported a non-Hispanic White heritage (Curtis, Castillo, & Gelley, 2012). In contrast, racial/ethnic diversity within graduate training numbers appear promising. The 2015 NASP Graduate Education Training in School Psychology report found that 25.3% of students at the educational specialist level and 25.4% at the doctoral level of training were reported to be from racial and ethnic minority backgrounds (Gadke, Valley-Gray, & Rossen, 2017).[1] Lastly, it should be noted that the Center for Workforce Studies within the American Psychological Association (APA) releases an annual report examines racial and ethnic diversity within psychology (American Psychological Association, 2015). This report found that 16.4% of all psychologists were from racial or ethnic minority backgrounds. However, it must be noted that this report does not aggregate data in any meaningful manner (i.e., demographic data are collected and examined across psychology disciplines and degree levels, as one group). The overall lack of

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[1] These findings should be viewed in light of retention challenges inherent in the field (Grapin, Lee & Jafar, 2015) and related methodological inconsistencies in the research that has historically led to similar reports of greater diversity within graduate training programs than was later found to be the case (For a discussion on this trend going back several decades, see e.g., Curtis, Grier & Hunley, 2004). Indeed, the authors of the most recent NASP graduate education training survey themselves acknowledged that "there was considerable inconsistency in the numbers of program directors responding to each of the items in the survey," (p. 6) and that the researchers' accounted for incomplete data by extrapolating the missing data from the data that was submitted and compiled (Gadke, Valley-Gray & Rossen, 2017).

rigorous, systematic and ongoing demographic data collection and dissemination by NASP and APA makes comparisons of workforce diversity within or between graduate training sub-fields and between graduate training in school psychology and professional school psychology practice difficult to ascertain. Overall, the most recent demographic data suggests that a mismatch remains between school psychology professionals and the diverse children and families they presently serve and will serve in the future.

Rationale for Improving Diversity Recruitment Practices

A more diverse workforce provides direct and indirect benefits for children, families, and school systems. School psychology has a troubling history in terms of servicing students and families from diverse backgrounds. This includes provision of inappropriate and harmful psychoeducational services to children and systematic practices that have contributed to the overrepresentation of minority students in special education (Buss, 1996; Graves & Aston, 2016). In addition, the work of school psychologists is impacted by wider systematic inequalities inherent within mental health and education professions. This includes cultural mistrust, stigmatization, and an overall lack of access to behavioral health services (Smith & Trimble, 2016; Whaley & Davis, 2007), and systematic practices that contribute to disproportionality in school discipline and expulsion, and to the school-to-prison pipeline (Daly et al., 2016; Skiba, 2011).

These past and ongoing challenges belie the need for a more diverse workforce, to promote and provide a greater sense of equity and social justice to the public (Moorehead-Slaughter & Worrell, 2016; Shriberg & Desai, 2014). This need is also supported by a small but developing body of empirical research. In terms of individual clinical services, particularly when working with children from urban settings or at differing levels of acculturation, a racial/ethnic therapist-client match can result in an improved therapeutic alliance (Cabral & Smith, 2011; Loe & Miranda, 2005). This strengthening of the therapeutic alliance is believed to be a critical foundation in supporting engagement, compliance, and completion of treatment (Kazdin, 2007). Thus, a cultural match between school psychologists and their clients is important because, for some children and families, it increases the likelihood that a child and/or family will engage meaningfully with the school psychologist and be more likely to follow through and complete treatment and/or implement recommendations (Pham, Goforth, Chun, Castro-Olivo, & Costa, 2017).

In addition, findings suggest that school psychologists from a similar cultural background to diverse children and families may be more aware of, and better attend to, cultural nuances that even well-intentioned professionals from differing backgrounds may miss (Pollifrone, Arafet, Gubi, & Bocanegra, 2016). For example, specific behaviors that may be interpreted as problematic in a Euro-American context can be more accurately comprehended when understood within the correct cultural context (Ryder, Dere, Sun, & Chentsova-Dutton, 2014). One example is *ataque de nervios* ("attack of nerves"), a syndrome experienced by individuals of Latinx descent and recognized within the fifth edition of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of

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Mental Disorders (DSM 5), but frequently not known or understood outside of the Latinx cultural context (Sue & Sue, 2015). This syndrome is believed to be related to extremely stressful experiences within the family (e.g., death of a family member), and symptoms can be described as involving intense emotional pain characterized by symptoms of acute anxiety, anger, or grief, screaming, attacks of crying and trembling, and verbal and physical aggression. Symptoms can also include dissociative experiences (e.g., depersonalization, derealization, amnesia), fainting or seizure-like episodes, and suicidal gestures. Without knowledge of the cultural context, these symptoms (and their etiology) can result in inaccurate case conceptualization, classification and/or diagnosis, and incorrect treatment recommendations or interventions. Thus, in this example provided and in a myriad of other ways that relate to perceiving and addressing cultural differences, a diverse workforce can improve care for all children and families. Diverse school psychologists can provide direct care with populations they are knowledgeable about and can also contribute to systems change by consulting with and/or supporting school psychologists and allied educational professionals to provide culturally appropriate support and services for all children and families (Miranda, 2015).

Greater diversity within graduate training programs appears to also benefit the training experience and professional development of future

school psychologists (Proctor & Romano, 2016). Specifically, the research suggests a diverse student body provides additive benefits to the overall training experience of graduate students, including greater empathy, perspective-taking, and a more expansive understanding of alternative worldviews (Newell et al., 2010). The positive relationship between exposure to peers of different backgrounds and the development of multicultural skill development among White students has been well documented through research into intergroup dialogue (Ford, 2017). Work within this area over the past three decades has demonstrated that racially, ethnically, and culturally diverse classrooms and programs can foster greater self-awareness and a more open stance to learning about diversity in its many forms (Nagda, Yeakley, Gurin, & Sorensen, 2012; Zuniga, Nagda, Chesler, & Cytron-Walker, 2010). Furthermore, multicultural programming within graduate training programs appears to promote cultural competency best when delivered to future school psychology cohorts of mixed backgrounds (Proctor & Simpson, 2016). Thus, increasing the number of diverse students at the graduate preparation level holds the complementary benefit of improving the training experience and professional competency of all school psychologists.

School psychology training programs serve as the pipeline to future practitioners (Blake, Graves, Newell, & Jimerson, 2016). Unfortunately, the evidence suggests that school psychology, as a profession, has not engaged in intentional and sustaining practices across the graduate training level to promote a diverse workforce (Blake et al., 2016). Given the numerous benefits of increased diversity in the field, trainers in school psychology programs must take action in order to recruit, retain, and graduate qualified school psychologists who better match the diversity of students and families being served.

Recommendations for Trainers in School Psychology to Improve Diversity Recruitment

Trainers of school psychology can promote greater equity by seeking out and actively incorporating best-practice approaches to improve the recruitment of diverse students into the profession. Research into school psychology and related professions demonstrates a small but growing body of such practices, which trainers should incorporate systematically in order to address underrepresentation within the pipeline of future professionals and the workforce (Rogers & O'Bryon, 2017; Smith, Blake, & Graves, 2013). In particular, active utilization of minority-focused recruitment strategies, emphasis on fostering a diversity-affirming training climate, and strategic use of the program's website and related material to promote knowledge and awareness of school psychology are necessary elements to cultivate a more diverse future workforce.

Minority-focused Recruitment Strategies

Trainers in school psychology may benefit from incorporating an array of recruitment strategies that have been used with success within professional psychology training programs within school, clinical, and counseling psychology. Rogers and Molina (2006) examined exemplary programs within all three sub-field specialties to identify recruitment strategies and practices that these graduate training programs engaged with in an ongoing manner to maintain a diverse student body. They found that successful programs that were able to recruit a diverse student body frequently had faculty members who were actively involved in diversity related research. Such a presence was found to provide an environment that fostered an appreciation for multicultural diversity. There were other characteristics that many of these programs shared. Successful programs provided a clear

notice on the program website and promotional materials regarding a desire to recruit, prepare, and graduate a diverse student body. Moreover, the clear dissemination of financial support and minority-specific scholarship opportunities was found to be helpful. Some programs found benefits through creation and use of minority-focused admissions materials. Other programs noted success by having students and faculty from diverse racial, ethnic, linguistic and cultural backgrounds conduct outreach when appropriate, including personalized contact to racial and ethnic minority serving groups, organizations and applicants when applicable. Lastly, promotion of, and opportunities for, mentorship and collaboration with faculty from racial, ethnic, linguistic, and culturally-diverse minority backgrounds and/or with active interests in diversity-related areas (e.g., multicultural issues, social justice) was found to benefit minority recruitment within graduate training programs. Trainers in school psychology should undertake a comprehensive examination of department, college, and university resources and potential collaborators, and seek such collaborations that will enhance the multicultural environment, opportunities, and support networks that will bring in and sustain a diverse student body.

Unfortunately, a review of the literature suggests that the school psychology profession, on the whole, has not intentionally utilized recruitment strategies to diversify the field. For example, Smith and colleagues (2013) surveyed 69 graduate programs in school psychology and did not find evidence of any ongoing or sustained efforts to increase recruitment of racial or ethnic minority students within school psychology. Their findings suggest that school psychology programs rely mainly upon program websites and student organizations as the primary methods to advertise and recruit under-represented students, though little remains known as to what extent program websites and student organizations actually emphasize training, research, or professional development opportunities for racial and ethnic minority applicants (Smith et al., 2013). Findings from this study and related (though admittedly scant) research that exists, overall, suggests that trainers must engage in systematic outreach to promote familiarity with the profession (Bocanegra, Gubi, Fan, & Hansmann, 2015).

Diversity-affirming Training Climates

Diversity-affirming training programs seek to foster a training climate that recognizes, affirms, and values multicultural awareness, knowledge, and engagement. Programs that aspire to host such a training climate should be prepared to put in the necessary time and resources to demonstrate their commitment (Rogers & O'Bryon, 2017). While there is no clear consensus on what constitutes multicultural competency or a culturally competent training environment, NASP and APA have supported such an environment both within their training guidelines and ethical frameworks for several decades, (Jones, Sander, & Booker, 2013). Thus, the commitment towards a diversity-affirming training climate should be explicitly shared by the training program from the potential applicants' initial point of contact, during the admissions process, and extend throughout coursework, training and professional development opportunities provided to and made available for students throughout the duration of their graduate training experience.

For starters, a multifaceted admissions process can promote program diversity without harming retention or graduation. This process extends beyond typical reviews of grades and standardized test scores, to include greater emphasis on personal statements and essays, as

well as other indicators of student quality such as prior work experience, civic involvement, letters of recommendation, demonstrations of resiliency over adversity, program fit and additional essential but more difficult to measure contextual features (Grapin, Bocanegra, Green, Lee, & Jaafar, 2016). Educational researchers have known for many decades that standardized test scores are poor predictors of subsequent academic performance for students from diverse backgrounds and that the use of a multifaceted admissions process can contribute to greater diversity within the targeted student body (Lucido, 2018). Trainers in clinical and counseling psychology found that employing a multifaceted admission process does not harm student retention or graduation rates and can be utilized to increase the number of graduate trainees from diverse backgrounds (Grapin et al., 2016).

Beyond the admissions process itself, training programs should offer a variety of approaches through as wide an array of communication forums as possible, to convey the genuine commitment by the graduate training program towards a diversity-affirming training climate. Proctor and Romano (2016) suggest that trainers highlight diversity and multicultural competencies, diverse training experiences, and other professional development opportunities that their programs afford. They can do so through a variety of modalities (e.g., web- and print-based promotional materials, program website, social media, personal contacts, etc.), and should utilize their roles and positions to clearly communicate an explicit commitment to diversity recruitment and retention throughout all promotional materials. Graduate faculty ought to also consider the use of culturally sensitive mechanisms in the recruitment process, including the utilization of a variety of means (e.g., Skype, social media, email, text messaging) in flexible manners (e.g., day and evening communication)

to communicate with applicants, and should consider extending invitations to family members to attend open houses or orientations with the applicant (Proctor & Romano, 2016).

Training program websites. The structure of a program's website itself can serve as an important promotional medium for trainers in school psychology to promote their emphasis on promoting cultural competency and diversity in research, training and practice. Bocanegra, Newell, & Gubi (2016) found that many undergraduate minority students were concerned about their ability to (a) gain admission into and (b) to successfully complete a graduate training program in school psychology. In their study consisting of 282 minority undergraduate students, findings indicated that graduate training programs communicating a perception of having or desiring a diverse student body through their website served as an important factor in the intentions of the students to apply to specific graduate training programs in school psychology. Participants also noted a preference to be informed through the website regarding acceptance and graduation rates, broken down by racial/ethnic minority category. Program websites that depicted and shared testimonials and other personal success stories by racial/ ethnic minority students and program alumna were also favored by participants (e.g., pictures and related personal testimonies by successful minority students who attended or are attending a specific graduate program). Personalized communications with current faculty and graduate students from racial and ethnic minority background were likewise found to be important recruitment factors (Bocanegra, Newell, & Gubi, 2016). Thus, faculty must work vigorously with university relations, informational technology, other administrative units as applicable, and with their own students and colleagues to accurately depict and transmit the array of opportunities

available to diverse applicants through their graduate training programs.

Retention. Effective recruitment practices alone do not increase diversity in the workforce. Once students are accepted into school psychology training programs, trainers need to ensure culturally responsive educational practices that supports the retention and graduation of students from diverse backgrounds. While a thorough discussion on this critical topic of retention is beyond the scope of this paper, it should be noted that that many of the practices associated with strong recruitment also have an impact on retention and are mutually reinforcing. A common theme from throughout this paper has been the need for trainers to facilitate training environments that fosters appreciation of diversity. Such environments must prioritize developing the students' multicultural competencies in training, research and practice.

A structured multicultural curriculum, which includes both distinct courses in diversity as well as inclusion of multicultural competency skills throughout the training curriculum, is recommended (Rogers & O'Bryon, 2014, 2017). Another retention strategy involves trainers establishing formal relationships with broader professional scholars and professional networks that are culturally diverse or affirming (Murdock, Stipanovic, & Lucas, 2013). Such partners should be formally invited and involved with departmental functions and programming, to facilitate opportunities for mentorship and collaboration. Trainers should facilitate peer mentorship both within the department and throughout the wider university, by actively supporting multicultural student organizations and related peer mentorship opportunities at the department, college and university levels (National Association of School Psychologists, 2016). Through these and other means a strong multicultural environment can be fostered and

maintained. Trainers should be certain to highlight such retention practices within their website and other promotional material. In such manners, the engagement of trainers of school psychology in purposeful retention activities promotes a positive climate, one that supports and encourages applicants from all backgrounds.

Promoting Knowledge and Awareness within Higher Education

In spite of various recruitment strategies undertaken within school psychology, undergraduate students in a recent study noted that they most frequently gained introduction and exposure to the field of school psychology either from personal contact with a school psychologist or through the undergraduate advisement process (Bocanegra, Gubi, & Cappaert, 2016). Thus, more direct interaction between school psychologists (including trainers in school psychology) and undergraduate students from racial or ethnic minority backgrounds can serve as a notable factor in effective recruitment. Indeed, in another study, undergraduate students from racial-ethnic minority backgrounds who held higher perceptions that school psychology entailed "doing exciting work" and "doing work that is satisfying" reported higher intentions to apply to and enroll in a school psychology graduate training program (Bocanegra, Gubi, Fan, & Hansmann, 2015). Such findings suggest that undergraduate students who hold greater contextual knowledge and understanding of the profession are more likely to consider applying to graduate training programs in school psychology. Trainers in school psychology should therefore actively seek out opportunities to network and raise awareness about school psychology throughout the university setting to systematically raise the profile of school psychology within the university, across universities when applicable, and throughout the wider community. They might

do this by conducting professional outreach, creating and teaching undergraduate classes in school psychology, sharing information and presenting to different cultural, ethnic, and linguistic professional organizations across campus (Grapin et al., 2016). Trainers may also consider working with psychology departments at their respective universities to initiate undergraduate courses in school psychology. This is being done at an increasing number of universities across the country, and preliminary findings indicate that undergraduate students are gaining increasing knowledge and interest in the field as the result of these courses (Grapin, Bocanegra, & Schilling, 2016).

Recognition among minority serving institutions. Indeed, the lack of familiarity of school psychology as a viable career appears to be a great roadblock to increasing the number of diverse applicants to graduate training programs. The research suggests that this lack of knowledge regarding school psychology is an ongoing, long stemming challenge to the viability of the profession in general (Bocanegra, Rossen & Grapin, 2017; Fagan, 2008). These struggles to recruit extend into urban centers. School psychologists extensively work within urban systems to provide needed care to children and families. In spite of such valiant efforts, shortages of providers remain and extensive supports and psychoeducational services are needed within these settings (Castillo, Curtis & Tan, 2014; Jackson, 2017). The footprint of the profession should thus be closely allied with minority serving institutions, many of which graduate students that aspire to and often will go on to work and serve within marginalized urban communities (Graves & Wright, 2007; Shriberg, Song, Miranda, & Radliff, 2013).

However, research findings suggest that this relationship is not one defined by sustained

collegiality, collaboration or close cooperation. For example, Graves and Wright (2009) examined recruitment practices among historically black colleges and universities (HBCU). The investigators evaluated beliefs and interests of 165 undergraduate students with a psychology major and 14 undergraduate psychology faculty members regarding the understanding and views of school, clinical, and counseling psychology at three of the larger HBCU within the United States. Findings indicated that although more than 90% of students stated that they would attend graduate school, respondents rated counseling psychology and clinical psychology as their top two choices and rated that they were significantly more likely to apply to and seek to attend either of those sub-fields over and above school psychology. In this same study HBCU undergraduate respondents rated the (a) ability to help and contribute to the success of racial and ethnic minority populations, (b) influence public policy and (c) earn a stable and consistent income as the top three reasons for their interest in pursuing graduate training within a professional psychology sub-field. Clearly, these three attributes are all influential factors in the choice intentions and actual experiences of numerous individuals who do enter the profession. These findings indicate that trainers in school psychology need to do a better job of highlighting such opportunities within promotional outreach and professional communication with potential applicants.

Graves and Wright (2009) also queried undergraduate psychology faculty from HBCU as to their thoughts regarding the different professional psychology fields as a viable career option for their students. Findings indicated that HBCU faculty were more supportive of careers in clinical and counseling psychology than school psychology. Among faculty participants, 57% rated school psychology as holding "good" opportunities while 43% believed the opportunities to be "fair" or "poor" for African American students. This is in stark contrast to counseling psychology (79% "very good", 21% "good") and clinical psychology (71% "very good", 29% "good"). These findings suggest that colleagues who work, mentor, or teach within the undergraduate psychology level may not be aware of the diverse work roles, functions, breadth and depth of practice and professional opportunities available through a career in school psychology.

Indeed, trainers of school psychologists must seek to promote professional equity by raising awareness about the profession across HBCU and universities that enroll large minority undergraduate student populations. The findings here and in related studies (See Bocanegra, Gubi, Fan & Hansmann, 2015) belie a necessity for school psychology as a profession – and trainers in school psychology in particular – to network and communicate more proactively about the commitment of school psychology to supporting and empowering diverse children and families. They can do this by initiating contacts and communicating with Minority Serving Institutions (MSI), including HBCU but also Hispanic Serving Institutions (HSI) and other minority serving institutions, as well as with colleges and universities that do not have school psychology graduate programs. Within all universities, trainers in school psychology can work with undergraduate professional academic organizations at the university level (e.g., Psi Chi, Phi Beta Kappa, and other related student academic organizations) and tailored outreach in coordination with university and student organizations that are racially, ethnically, linguistically or culturally specific or affirming (e.g., Black Student Union, Hispanic Student Association, Muslim Student Association, and other minority-identity affirming student

organizations), as well as organizations that serve students from traditionally under-represented or disadvantaged backgrounds (e.g., McNair Scholars program, NAACP).

TABLE 1: RECRUITMENT STRATEGIES AND PRACTICES TO IMPROVE DIVERSITY RECRUITMENT

Program Website and Promotional Materials	Express a desire to recruit, prepare, and graduate a diverse student body
	Clear dissemination of financial support and minority-specific scholarship opportunities
	Clear communication of having and/or desiring a diverse student body
	Acceptance and graduation rates, broken down by racial/ethnic minority category
	Share testimonials and other personal success stories by current racial/ethnic minority students and program alumna
	Highlight multicultural training and professional development opportunities offered by the program
	Highlight the abilities of school psychologists to help racial/ethnic and minority populations, influence public policy, and earn a stable and consistent income
	Mentorship opportunity with diverse faculty and/or faculty with research interests that relate to multicultural issues
	Minority-focused admissions pamphlets and materials
	Highlight multicultural training and professional development opportunities offered by the program
Targeted Outreach	By students and faculty from diverse racial, ethnic, linguistic, cultural, sexual orientation, or disability backgrounds
	To individuals or groups. This can include personalized contact to racial and ethnic minority serving groups, related organizations, and individual applicants when applicable.
	Networking and professional outreach with different cultural, ethnic, linguistic and professional organizations across campus (i.e., Black Student Union, Buddhist Student Association, McNair's Scholar Program, Psi Chi).
	Create and teach undergraduate classes in School Psychology
	Establish professional and collegial relationships with faculty and colleagues from Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCU), Hispanic Serving Institutions (HSI), Asian American and Native American Pacific Islander-Serving Institutions and other Minority Serving Institutions (MSI) as appropriate.
	Use a variety of modalities in addition to program website (e.g., web- and print-based promotional materials, social media, Skype, personal contacts, etc.)
	Extend invitations to family members for open houses and other related events
Mentorship Opportunities	Promotion of and opportunities for mentorship and collaboration with faculty from diverse racial, ethnic, linguistic, culturally-diverse, sexual orientation, and disability backgrounds
	Mentorship and research collaboration opportunities with faculty who hold active interests in diversity-related areas
Multifaceted Admissions Process	Admission process that extends beyond a strict emphasis on grades and standardized test scores, to include greater emphasis on personal statements and essays, and other indicators of student quality such as prior work experience, civic involvement, letters of recommendation, demonstrations of resiliency over adversity, program fit and other important but more difficult to measure contextual features

Conclusion

The children and their families within our public schools remain and are becoming far more diverse than the school psychologists by whom they are served. Research has increasingly recognized the

potentially detrimental fallout from this mismatch —in terms of quality of care provided to children and families, quality of training within school psychology training programs, and a paradoxical challenge to graduate culturally competent providers without a critical mass of minority students (Newell & Chavez-Korell, 2017). Trainers hold a critical role within the profession and should utilize their influential positions to explicitly advocate for and promote school psychology as a welcoming career for individuals of all backgrounds. This may be a challenge to many trainers. School psychology graduate training programs tend to be siloed in graduate departments and within colleges of education, where they tend to frequently hold overall work responsibilities that revolve predominantly among graduate student populations (D'Amato, Zafiris, McConnell, & Dean, 2011). Thus, with many notable exceptions, school psychology faculty tend to not come into frequent contact (teaching, research, mentorship, or otherwise) with their largest potential constituency, undergraduate student populations.

Trainers in school psychology must therefore take a more intentional role to diversify the profession. The diversity recruitment strategies and practices outlined in this paper have the potential to not only increase the number of practicing school psychologists from diverse racial, ethnic and cultural backgrounds, but also to create a professional training environment that is more attuned to the diversity in schools that such professionals will encounter (Blake et al., 2016). This has multifaceted benefits at both the training and professional practice levels. Greater diversity in and of itself can bolster the quality of services diverse children and families receive within the schools. In addition, future school psychologists of all backgrounds receive training and professional development benefits through greater diversity within their graduate programs

(Proctor & Simpson, 2016). Thus, greater success at diversity recruitment ultimately results in more optimal training for graduate students and stronger provision of services to all children and families within the schools. It is incumbent upon trainers of school psychology, as leaders within the profession, to concretize the growing body of evidence-based recruitment practices to bolster the enrollment of diverse applicants into the profession of school psychology.

Recommended Resources for Trainers in School Psychology

NASP and APA Division 16 have published resources that aim to address the national shortage of school psychologists and/or to improve the recruitment and retention of students from diverse backgrounds into the profession. The following are recommended resources for trainers and professionals within school psychologists interested in promoting the diversification of our profession within their colleges, universities, or wider communities. All resources are available to trainers through the NASP website or through the internet.

• NASP position statement on Diversity Recruitment. NASP published an official position statement advocating for improvements in the recruitment, retention, and graduation of individuals from diverse cultural, racial-ethnic, and linguistic backgrounds into the profession in 2009. Available online here.
• NASP resource: Recommendations to Increase Cultural and Linguistic Diversity (CLD) in Graduate Training Programs. NASP recently released an array of recommendations that diversity recruiters and other advocates may find helpful in seeking to diversify graduate education in school psychology. Retrieved online through the NASP website, here.
• School psychology graduate training pro-

grams emphasizing a commitment to bilingual and multicultural issues. Trainers in school psychology may wish to share this list of graduate training programs with potential undergraduate students they support and work with. Alternatively, they may wish to contact NASP and see if their graduate training program warrants inclusion. It should be noted that all programs contained within this resource directory self-nominated themselves through a NASP multicultural graduate program survey, and is likely not fully representative of the many graduate programs that emphasize training and research into diversity issues within school psychology. The listing can be retrieved online through the NASP website, here.

• Developing Undergraduate School Psychology Courses and Field Experiences [Technical Assistance Brief]. This resource is available through the NASP website. Trainers and faculty may find this technical brief (linked here) helpful in creating undergraduate courses in school psychology.

• National Directory of Graduate Faculty Addressing Cultural and Diversity Issues in School Psychology. Division 16 of the American Psychological Association (Division of School Psychology) has put together a national directory of school psychology faculty who are engaging in active lines of research investigating issues related to culture, diversity and social justice. Trainers in school psychology may wish to review this resource, share it, or share specific faculty members whose interests and perspectives align well with the potential school psychology graduate program applicant. The website directory can be accessed online, here.

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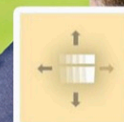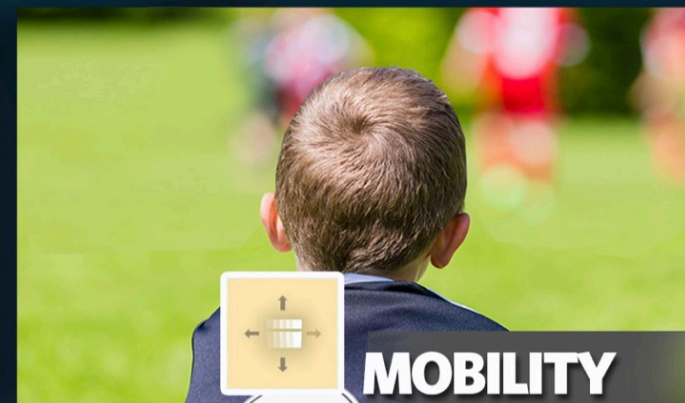
VERTICAL RESEARCH TEAMS IN SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY: A MODEL OF MENTORSHIP

By Tara C. Raines, University of Denver
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One of the most salient tasks for graduate students during their academic journey is the formation of their professional identity. As trainers of school psychologists, faculty are charged with not only teaching students the concrete skills required for professional competence, but also fostering their research, scholarship, and networking. Faculty in mentoring relationships model multiple roles (e.g., researcher, professor, clinician; Ward et al., 2004) and socialize their students to the implicit rules of the academe. However, providing students with high quality mentorship and intentional guidance can be overwhelming, particularly for junior faculty. Not only can it feel taxing due to lack of time, funding, and institutional messaging of the purpose and benefits of research teams (i.e., diverting energy away from publishing and other tenure requirements; Johnson, 2001), but it can also be confusing, since little research exists within school psychology to provide guidance on mentoring. This article recommends a specific type of mentorship in

scholarship: Vertical Research Teams (VRTs). VRTs offer scaffolded mentorship and provide students with the opportunity to cultivate their own academic skills (e.g., research, mentorship, writing) in a supportive and structured environment.

Need for Intentional Mentoring

It is widely accepted that mentoring promotes success for both students and faculty. For students, mentorship can deepen and widen skill sets that result in recognition in the field and potential job security (Clark et al., 2000; Ward, et al., 2004). For faculty, mentorship can increase scholarship and research outcomes and provide intrinsic satisfaction from collaborating with young professionals during the developmental stages of their career (Keyser et al., 2008). Indeed, research supporting the benefits of mentor relationships can be found in literature ranging from early childhood to business, with medicine providing the most comprehensive guidance. At all levels, mentorship can lead to lasting positive outcomes.

Despite the recognized benefits of mentorship programs, faculty roles in regard to mentorship vary widely across the field, and expectations are rarely defined. We know that faculty require training on research mentorship and need interpersonal skills to lead a team. (Johnson, 2002). We also recognize that aspects of research mentorship such as recruitment, cross-gender mentoring, personality matches, equity, or understanding of the developmental needs of graduate students must be addressed (Johnson & Nelson, 1999; Ward et al., 2004; Zanna & Darley, 2004). However, the literature base is relatively scant in providing frameworks for mentorship or recommendations for mentorship to operationalize on a systems level in graduate programs. Further, current policies in institutions often do not consider mentorship as heavily as research productivity or teaching in performance evaluations and promotion and tenure decision-making (Johnson, 2001). The open-endedness of this practice often leaves graduate students and early career faculty feeling neglected and can lead to a negative climate (Johnson, Koch, Fallow & Huwe, 2000, p. 331).

Overview of VRTs

In traditional research teams, graduate students work under faculty supervision to produce scholarly artifacts in a research interest fueled by the advisor (Zanna & Darley, 2004). VRTs, in contrast, emphasize intentional mentorship between students and faculty as well as between students (Ward et al., 2004). Although VRTs are born from the primary research interests of the faculty member, the team works together to build an agenda clustered around similar research interests, with graduate students increasingly assuming leadership roles within the team. Specifically, senior team members provide mentorship and guidance to incoming team members. Thus, the primary purpose of the VRT is to develop both a sense of professional identity and skills in leadership, collaboration, and supervision, while providing scholarly experiences with conducting, producing, and presenting research.

This model is also advantageous as it positions students to make a more seamless transition to faculty roles. The goals of VRTs are to submit research for publication and/or presentations and to provide supervision and socialization of students across levels. The faculty member remains aware of all tasks and serves as the primary mentor for all students. Students not only contribute to faculty projects but also simultaneously begin to develop individual projects that lay the foundation of a personal

research agenda adjacent to that of their faculty advisor. Student responsibilities within the VRT vary based on their experience and time in the graduate program. Generally, they work on tasks including but not limited to: writing annotated bibliographies, preparing Institutional Review Board (IRB) applications, collecting data, analyzing data, writing research proposals, writing manuscripts, and contributing to grant applications. These tasks are assigned based on student skill and generally are approached collaboratively. Mentees, then, become more than blank slates; they are active participants in shaping the mentoring relationship and dictating their areas of need. Students with the most experience working on the team may also delegate tasks and support newer students in understanding the research process. Often, in the mentorship process, academics "clone" themselves by advising emerging academics with knowledge sharing embedded in one perspective (Ojedokun & Idemudia, 2013); VRTs, in contrast, allow for varied scaffolded experiences in academic mentoring.

Implementation of VRTs

VRTs are dynamic, collaborative, and reciprocal. They are useful for fostering the personal and professional growth of students and are ideal for early career scholars who are beginning their journey as academic mentors. Faculty members initially supervise two to three graduate students. Each year, new students are added to the research team, with the VRT eventually ranging from four to eight members (Ward et al., 2004; Zanna & Darley, 2004). Over time, a robust, consistent team of members forms, even as students begin to graduate. A steady flow of students ensures the propagation of the faculty advisor's research beliefs and values and the preservation of historical knowledge, with senior student members sharing information and key supports with newer student members. If the faculty chooses, VRT members can continue to contribute to the team as they launch their academic careers and begin to scaffold their own VRTs. This can be crucial for early career scholars who may find themselves at universities with little collaboration or with research agendas that require years to establish partnerships.

While the specific roles and responsibilities of faculty and students in VRTs are shaped by the mentoring style of the faculty advisor, there are broad goals that should be incorporated into every team. The following aims should be considered for the development and maintenance of a successful and productive VRT. First, there should be an emphasis on developing students' professional practices, as the habits developed during their time on a VRT are likely to carry over into their professional careers. Teams should meet regularly (weekly or bi-weekly). During team meetings students can (a) provide project updates, (b) report on research practices (e.g., annotated bibliography, IRB applications), (c) brainstorm ideas for funding, expansion of current projects, and new future projects, and (d) refine project proposals and manuscripts. Between meetings, students should (a) communicate with one another on the status of projects, (b) liaise with research sites, (c) collect data, and (d) clean and analyze data using varying statistical methodologies, and summarize findings. Throughout, faculty offer guidance regarding overall research directions, study methodology, ethical considerations (e.g., issues of authorship), supervision of senior to junior students, and development, refinement, and (re)submission of manuscripts, conference proposals, and grant applications (Keyser et al., 2008; Zanna & Darley, 2004). Faculty also hold the primary responsibility for reporting to funders, overseeing relationships with research partners and leading the overarching research agenda of

the team. The goal of the faculty is to demonstrate teaching, advising, supervision, and interpersonal techniques required in the professorial role (Johnson, 2002). Basic actions such as sharing responsibilities, celebrating proactive initiatives, filtering and prioritizing tasks, and maintaining a cohesive and active research agenda are all modeled. In essence, VRTs provide students with the foundational skills needed to embark on their individual research agendas, should they decide to pursue a faculty career, while promoting a collegial and scaffolded learning environment.

Second, faculty should provide opportunities for socialization between students and professionals in the field. Students should be included in presentations at professional conferences, invited to networking opportunities (e.g., social hours), and introduced to professional service requirements related to the research agenda. While it is likely inappropriate to have students engage in the service activities themselves, they should learn about relationship-building, time commitments, leadership applications, and other considerations for faculty related to service activities. In offering opportunities for professional socialization, students are able to observe how various professional settings are navigated. This also supports students in building relationships they can later leverage if they pursue an academic career.

Third, faculty should model behaviors that support a healthy and sustainable work/life balance. This is pivotal in preventing both faculty and student burnout. Faculty and student meeting times should be held within the workday, ranging from one hour per week to two hours every other week (Ward et al., 2004). Faculty should limit communication to business hours, give students sufficient time to reply to requests, and be mindful to maintain appropriate professional boundaries. Faculty expectations should be clear and should consider the student's capacity. If a senior student does not have the skills to complete a task, the faculty member should work to cultivate that skill or provide appropriate resources, such that the student can work toward independence. Consistency and accountability are also vital to the success of a VRT. Regular, specific, constructive feedback should be offered to all students. This ensures scholarly productivity for both faculty and student members. Productivity is key to the sustainability of VRTs as it provides positive reinforcement to developing professionals. Thus, evaluating and monitoring the operation of VRTs and mentoring relationships should be done on a regular basis. Some ideas include examining student satisfaction, monitoring student publications, and collecting presentation output data (Johnson et al., 2000).

VRTs are not new, however, the deliberate application of such an approach is nascent. As the expectations of early career scholars become increasingly rigorous, this model offers assistance to those beginning their academic careers as well as to established scholars. More importantly, it provides a framework for a successful research team. By taking an intentional approach to student mentoring, everyone benefits.

Conclusion

Mentorship has long been a required and lauded responsibility of faculty. It can build a sense of community and professional identity, produce strong scholars and practitioners, and instill professional values and practices that can impact others over time. Given the pivotal role of mentorship in shaping students, it is surprising that so few studies examining intentional mentorship exist.

This paper proposed one mentorship model that can be implemented across specialist and doctoral school psychology programs to empower both faculty and students. This model provides a clear method for faculty to develop a team that systematically works to support a common scholarly agenda. It also offers students the opportunity to practice conducting research, submitting manuscripts, and mentoring in a supported environment. It sets up both current and future early career scholars with a research agenda and provides them with a group of potential collaborators as they embark on their academic careers.

Academe is a profession comprised of long periods of research and writing punctuated by intense bursts of social engagement (e.g., teaching, conferences; Pannapacker, 2012). VRTs are intended to introduce students to multiple facets of the profession and to counter the belief that academia is a solitary profession. Faculty are well positioned to and develop and propagate their own scholarly agenda while also engaging in teaching, service and mentorship. Overall, VRTs facilitate transactional, open, and reflective relationships that foster professional growth and collaboration among all parties involved.

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THE PURSUIT OF FUNDING: CONSIDERING NONTRADITIONAL SERVICE-BASED GRANTS AND RESEARCH-PRACTICE PARTNERSHIPS

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Navigating sources of funding can be particularly complicated for faculty and practitioners, especially those who are early in their careers. Despite the complexities of this task, acquiring external funding is highly beneficial for program development, training, service, and research. Moreover, it is tied to tenure and promotion for many faculty members. In fact, a quick review of faculty position announcements over the past year will likely reveal many calling for evidence of external funding, which remains a career-long requirement (Lambert-Pennington, 2016).

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When considering funding sources, it is no surprise that many psychologists gravitate toward research grants from major funding agencies. Undoubtedly, there is a certain prestige associated with being awarded a National Science Foundation (NSF), Institute of Education Sciences (IES), or National Institutes of Health (NIH) grant. These awards often fund specific research projects across multiple years and may include opportunities for course buyouts and summer funding. They also typically have university-coveted indirect costs (approximately 8% - 45%) that are used to support researchers' institutions, colleges, and departments. Generally, these grants are highly competitive, require a great deal of preparation, and have relatively low award rates. Investigators may spend anywhere between 55 and 120 hours preparing a grant, with success rates ranging from 3 to 20% for major agencies such as the IES and NIH (von Hipple & von Hipple, 2015). Such prospects can be daunting, especially for early career school psychologists who have little experience with grant writing or a limited award history. Fortunately, there are other opportunities for school psychologists seeking external funding to consider, including nontraditional service grants and school-based partnerships. These opportunities are described in further detail below and are relevant for both early career researchers and practitioners alike.

Nontraditional Service Grants

One alternative to applying for traditional research grants is to pursue nontraditional service grants. These funds typically are provided by state and federal agencies whose mission is to provide service deliverables (e.g., academic and behavioral services for school-aged youth). These grants often require much less preparation, include indirect costs, and can support all of the same activities that traditional research grants can (e.g., graduate student stipends, buyout time, summer effort, and research materials). Additionally, these funds may be renewable if the grantees are good stewards of the funds and report substantive, meaningful outcomes related to the agency's goals (e.g., *x* number of students across *x* number of counties benefited). Some of these agencies include the Department of Human Services (DHS), the Department of Vocational Rehabilitation Services (DRS), the Department of Mental Health (DMH), State Departments of Education (SDE), and Councils on Developmental Disabilities (CDD). These examples represent state and/or federal agencies whose primary goal is to provide prevention and intervention services to individuals with various types and levels of need (e.g., high-risk populations and students with disabilities). For many school psychologists, reframing research, training, and practice interests to suit the goals of these agencies is likely a natural extension of their work.

While funds from service-oriented agencies may be available, a formal request for proposals (RFP) may never be distributed. As a result, interested applicants often need to reach out directly to these entities. Many of these agencies regularly partner with universities for a number of reasons. In addition to contacting members of the agency directly, applicants may investigate whether their universities have ongoing projects and relationships through which colleagues can facilitate an introduction. University-based offices of research and economic development may also provide assistance in establishing connections with the appropriate contacts.

To illustrate this process, consider the following hypothetical example involving four school psychology faculty members with interests in assessment, bullying prevention, oral reading fluency interventions, and behavioral interventions for students with various disabilities. These four faculty members are situated in a school psychology program that has a small, training/service clinic on-campus. The faculty members might reach out to DHS and indicate they are interested in: 1) offsetting the backlog of school-aged children who need assessment services in the state; 2) implementing bullying prevention programs at local schools in their surrounding counties; 3) providing individualized reading interventions in local schools and their on-campus clinic; and 4) providing individualized behavior treatment for children at the clinic. In their proposal to DHS, these faculty might request funds to: 1) support and train graduate students who provide services; 2) enable faculty to obtain course buyouts and summer compensation; 3) purchase materials to implement the services (e.g., assessment materials, data collection software, and technology); and 4) offset the cost of families receiving services at the clinic (i.e., bill against the grant, rather than the families, for services provided). In this scenario, both the experiential training provided to graduate students and the academic/behavioral services provided to school-age youth may be desirable grant deliverables for the DHS.

Before writing a proposal, the faculty would create estimates of how many state residents/children would benefit from the services and how

many graduate students would receive hands-on training (i.e., the resonate impact it would have across the state). They would also develop a mock budget to estimate requisite funds to carry out the project. After developing these materials, the faculty would then connect with a DHS representative, preferably the agency's executive or associate director and/or the accountant (i.e., individuals who manage and control the agency's money). These individuals can provide concrete feedback on what the agency can and is willing to support, thereby allowing the faculty to adapt their plans to align more closely with the agency's mission. If the agency expresses sufficient interest, the faculty would subsequently develop and submit a brief proposal to the agency.

While these types of funds are provided primarily to meet service needs, this focus does not preclude faculty from conducting research (pending Institutional Review Board [IRB] approval) related to the services being provided. For example, the faculty members in the above scenario might submit IRB applications to study long-term outcomes associated with the reading interventions or the relative efficacy of behavioral interventions in school and clinical settings, respectively. In doing so, these faculty can simultaneously generate the service deliverables specified in the grant, fund graduate students to support the work, free up faculty time to manage the projects, and purchase materials to support the project (so long as each of these activities aligns with the larger objectives of the service grant).

Funding for Research-Practice Partnerships

As noted above, school psychologists can seek funding for a range of research, training, practice, and other professional activities. Funding is also available for initiatives that blend two or more of these activities, including initiatives that stem from research-practice partnerships. Research-practice partnerships (RPPs) may be conceptualized differently by various funding agencies; however, they generally refer to long-term collaborations between researchers and practitioners that explore practice-related issues and potential solutions for improving educational systems (e.g., schools and school districts; Coburn, Penuel, & Geil, 2013; Penuel, Allen, & Finnigan, 2017). RPPs are valuable because they allow researchers and practitioners to pool their unique resources and areas of expertise to pursue more complex lines of inquiry. They also facilitate the timely implementation of potentially effective, context-appropriate solutions to pressing problems in schools (Coburn et al., 2013).

A variety of public and private agencies may provide funding for RPPs specifically. Larger, widely-known agencies that allocate funds specifically for RPP initiatives include the IES, the Spencer Foundation, the National Institute of Justice, and the William T. Grant Foundation. However, smaller, more local organizations may be especially interested in the work of RPPs as well, especially if the proposed initiative is likely to have a significant impact on the organization's surrounding community. For example, corporations that are headquartered in the area in which the proposed project will take place may be especially inclined to provide financial support. As for the aforementioned service agencies, these corporations may not necessarily disseminate a formal application or RFP but may have funds designated specifically for philanthropic purposes.

Securing funding from agencies (especially smaller, local ones) that support RPPs is an ongoing process that involves cultivating strong relationships with key personnel within these organizations. For example, researcher and practitioner partners should educate potential funders about the significance of their work by pointing to specific ways in which it will effect meaningful, observable change in policy and practice (William T. Grant Foundation, n. d.). RPP collaborators should also educate funders about the anticipated trajectory of the initiative, emphasizing the need for capacity building and general operating support, as appropriate (Coburn et al., 2013). Generally, researcher and practitioner partners should keep their sponsors updated and engaged throughout the implementation process. Ongoing updates allow funders to better understand the challenges and successes associated with RPP initiatives (William T. Grant Foundation, n. d.).

Public funds associated with federal and/or state legislation may also be a valuable source of financial support for RPPs. Penuel, Allen, and Finnigan (2017) offered suggestions for leveraging funding available through the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) to support RPP projects. For example, the ESSA calls for states to set aside funds to support struggling schools. Administrators have some flexibility in utilizing these funds to support innovative programming introduced through RPPs. The ESSA also allocates funding for rural, low-income schools that may be used to support professional development initiatives for teachers and home-school collaboration activities. In addition, Grant (2017) identified several ESSA funding streams that can be used to support social emotional learning (SEL) initiatives, including Title I (Improving the Academic Achievement of the Disadvantaged), Title II (Preparing, Training, and Recruiting High-Quality Teachers, Principals, or Other School Leaders), and Title IV (21st Century Schools) funds. Overall, RPPs should develop a diversified portfolio of short-term and long-term projects that are likely to appeal to different types of funders (William T. Grant Foundation, n. d.). Such diversity allows RPPs to secure steady, continuous funding from multiple sources over time.

Summary and Conclusions

For early career school psychologists, it is unlikely that pressures to pursue external funding opportunities will decrease anytime in the relatively near future. With demands for external funds remaining high, the availability of funds from traditional sources (e.g., IES) has become increasingly sparse. While these sources should still be considered, it is essential that school psychology faculty and practitioners consider alternative funding sources as well. Nontraditional service-based grants and RPPs are two examples of lesser known but promising alternatives for school psychologists to consider. These funding sources can be used to support

integrated training, research, and practice initiatives that benefit children, families, and the larger field of school psychology in many ways.

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ON THE EVIDENTIAL VALUE OF SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY INTERVENTION RESEARCH

By Ryan J. McGill, William & Mary,
Thomas J. Ward, William & Mary,
& Gary L. Canivez, Eastern Illinois University

There has been a longstanding debate in the field of school psychology regarding the role of research and its utility and applicability for school-based practitioners. Nevertheless, American Psychological Association and National Association of School Psychologists training and practice standards specify that practitioners should demonstrate skills to apply research findings as a foundation for service delivery regardless of their level of training, and the responsibility to acquire and apply accurate knowledge about effective practices are considered to be an epistemic responsibility of the clinician (e.g., O'Donahue & Henderson, 1999). As stated by Lilienfeld et al. (2012), "all school psychologists, regardless of the setting in which they operate, need to develop and maintain a skill set that allows them to distinguish evidence-based from non-evidence based practices" (p. 8) and this notion is a foundational principle of the broader evidence-based practice movement.

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It stands to reason that implementing this skill set requires practitioners to place a tremendous amount of faith in the accuracy of published research and the integrity of the very publication process itself. Unfortunately, over the past decade, serious questions have been raised about commonly accepted methodologies (e.g., allegiance to null hypothesis significance testing [NHST]) in scientific research and the reproducibility of many published findings in psychological science. For example, Ioannidis (2005) suggested that half of all published research findings are likely false due to the prevalence of underpowered studies and the use of questionable research practices (QRPs)[1] and the results of a highly influential study published in *Science* seemed to confirm this contention. In that study, researchers associated with the Open Science Collaboration (2015) attempted to replicate 100 experiments reported in articles published in three high-ranking psychology journals in 2008 and were able to obtain a replication rate of only 39%. These results have prompted many to conclude that psychology is in the midst of a replication crisis[2]. Though it should be noted that some catalyst scholars reject this notion (see Baumeister & Vohs, 2016) and subsequent debates on these issues have been acrimonious. Regardless of one's position on whether psychological findings are replicable, the principal takeaway from these debates is that we need to fundamentally change the way that we think about interpreting data and results.

Low Statistical Power and the Prevalence of QRPs

As noted by Nosek, Spies, and Motyl (2012), incentive structures in science prioritize novelty and a publication bias against research that reports null effects is well known. Sterling, Rosenbaum, and Weinkam (1995), examined the publication decisions for 11 major journals and found that that 94% of studies reporting statistical tests in psychology rejected the null hypothesis (H_0) casting doubt on the representativeness of those findings. That is, if consumers accept these results at face value, they must conclude that virtually all studies that are published in the professional literature are performed with high power and under conditions in which investigators have formulated true hypotheses. Accordingly, the concept of statistical power (the probability of rejecting H_0 when it is false) is critical for understanding the role that publication

[1] These are two separate but equally important confounds. The power of study is the probability that it will distinguish between a true effect and chance and is mediated by sample size and the strength of the observed effect. On the other hand, QRPs are a class of techniques in which researchers artificially increase the likelihood of rejecting the null hypothesis (i.e., data snooping, dropping cases, obtaining additional measurements until significance is obtained, etc.).

[2] Concerns about reproducibility are not limited to psychology and are widespread across scientific disciplines.

bias may play in the so-called replication crisis. In particular, troubles arise when one tries to interpret a significant result from a study with low power. As an example, suppose a researcher reports a statistically significant effect in an intervention study with power at .50. If the same study were repeated with different samples under the same conditions, that effect would be observed in only 50% of the investigations. If all of these studies were submitted and accepted for publication, a pattern of contradictory findings would emerge and school psychologists conversant with this literature would be less likely to regard the intervention as an empirically supported practice. As a result, surveys (e.g., Szucs & Ioannidis, 2017) indicating that the median estimated power in psychological research is approximately .30 are sobering and suggest that a non-trivial proportion of published studies are likely overestimating true effects or the product of a Type I statistical error.

A file drawer problem can occur when the probability of publication becomes dependent on statistical significance. In this type of culture, negative results are selectively reported or in some cases discarded entirely resulting in "a remarkable string of successes for psychological theories in published articles" (Heene & Ferguson, 2017, p. 43). In response, researchers may resort to using a number of QRPs to increase their chances of attaining significant results that are more likely to be published. These include data snooping (data mining to uncover patterns in data that can be presented as statistically significant), hypothesizing after results are known (HARKing), and *p*-hacking (exploiting researcher degrees of freedom until a significant *p*-value is obtained). How prevalent are such practices? In a survey about their involvement in QRPs, the self-admission rate among 2,000 psychologists ranged from 27% to 40% across disciplines (John, Loewenstein, & Prelec, 2012).

According to Simmons, Nelson, and Simonsohn (2011), the ubiquity of these practices make it "unacceptably easy to publish 'statistically significant' evidence consistent with *any* hypothesis" (p. 1359) resulting in an epistemological confound they termed *false positive psychology*. At the root of this dilemma is the fact that QRPs increase the maximum false-positive rate beyond conventional nominal levels (i.e., 5%). This is not a trivial statistical matter. Whereas practices that are universally regarded as unethical such as fabricating data increase Type I error by 100%, some estimates indicate that QRPs can increase the false-positive rate by up to 60% (Schimmack, 2012). Put simply, false positives are costly errors. Once published in the literature, they may be used by practitioners and researchers as evidence to support potentially ineffective practices.

Correcting for Selective Reporting

The prevalence of QRPs suggest that rather than discarding entire studies, researchers may merely eliminate (file) the subsets of analyses that produce negative findings. This selective reporting is particularly insidious because it upends assumptions about the number of failed attempts needed to produce a false-positive result and invalidates the traditional "fail-safe" calculations that are used to assess the file-drawer problem in meta-analyses. As a potential safeguard, Simonsohn, Nelson, and Simmons (2014) introduced the *p*-curve method for detecting effects associated with selective reporting. The purpose of the *p*-curve is to detect evidential value by distinguishing between sets of significant findings that are likely due to selective reporting. A *p*-curve is the distribution of statistically significant *p* values for a set of

studies and the shape of the distribution helps to uncover selective reporting versus true effects. Interpreting results is fairly straight forward: right-skewed curves may indicate evidential value (i.e., findings that are likely replicable), flat curves indicate no evidential value, and left-skewed curves may indicate the presence of selective reporting in the literature. Although *p*-curve analyses are being increasingly used by researchers to defend *and* raise concern about the quality of research evidence in allied fields, they have yet to be reported in the school psychology literature.

Purpose of the Current Investigation

Unfortunately, substantive discussions of the replication crisis in the school psychology literature have been limited save a recent commentary by Shaw and D'Intino (2017). Thus, the impact and prevalence of selective reporting in school psychology remains largely unknown. To remediate this gap in the literature, the goal of the present study was to examine the evidential value of intervention research published in nine school psychology journals over a two-year period (2016-2017) with a specific emphasis on the potential threat of publication bias using the *p*-curve method and estimating the replication rate of published research in the field. Examination of these separate, but equally important issues, is important because it can lead to over estimates of effects in the empirical literature. Although a recent article by Villarreal and colleagues (2017) examined the characteristics of intervention research in school psychology journals, the evidential value of the studies was not assessed. It is believed that the results from the present investigation will be instructive for generating a much needed discussion about the quality of research practices in school psychology.

Method

Data collection and analyses for the present study occurred in several steps. First, the archives of nine school psychology journals (*Contemporary School Psychology*, *International Journal of School and Educational Psychology*, *Journal of Applied School Psychology*, *Journal of School Psychology*, *Psychology in the Schools*, *School Psychology Forum*, *School Psychology International*, *School Psychology Quarterly*, and *School Psychology Review*) were searched for all articles published from 2016-2017. As a preliminary screening, the abstracts for the articles ($N = 689$) were reviewed to identify appropriate intervention articles. We focused specifically on locating articles that systematically evaluated intervention outcomes. That is, survey research examining the preferences and prevalence of practices among practitioners, and studies focused on the process of implementation[3] were excluded from further consideration. Intervention articles were extracted and evaluated in more detail to determine if they met *a priori* inclusionary criteria for the current study. In order to be included in the analysis, a statistical test result had to be associated with a determinable research hypothesis. In accordance with best practice, studies were not included if they were (a) commentary or editorial articles, (b) literature reviews or research summaries, (c) meta-analyses (to prevent reporting duplicate effects), (d) non-empirical case studies, or (c) reported results not compatible or able to be transformed to be compatible for *p*-curve analyses (i.e., exact *p* values). Next, we subjected the statistical effects from individual studies to *p*-curve analysis

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[3] Unless the purpose of the study was to evaluate the effect of an intervention designed to promote intervention implementation or integrity.

using the *p*-curve app version 4.06 (http://www.p-curve.com/) to determine the evidential value of the studies as a whole. In a *p*-curve analysis, the *p* values from a set of studies are plotted along a curve and then statistically evaluated for potential bias using a binomial sign test. A right-side bias in a curve is considered to be evidence for the presence of a real effect (i.e., replicable) whereas a flat curve or left side bias suggests a questionable effect that *may* be an artifact of selective reporting and/or QRPs (Simonsohn et al., 2014). Supplementary tables (see Tables X.1-X.3) containing summary information for the statistical effects that were included in the present analyses and the studies that did not meet inclusionary criteria are available in an online supplement.

Results

Descriptive statistics for the initial article search are reported in Table 1. Of the 689 articles that were published across school psychology journals from 2016-2017, 27% (*n* = 189) were intervention articles where the evaluation of outcomes was a primary objective. Among these studies, 43% (*n* = 81) disclosed the result of a statistical test(s), among which, 94% reported one or more statistically significant outcomes. The articles were also inspected to estimate the replication rate of intervention research in school psychology. Studies were coded as a *replication* if replication was noted as an explicit goal of the research within the manuscript.

TABLE 1: OUTCOME OF TESTS OF SIGNIFICANCE AND PREVALENCE OF REPLICATION STUDIES FOR INTERVENTION RESEARCH PUBLISHED IN NINE SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY JOURNALS FROM 2016-2017

Journal	*k*	Intervention Articles [a]	Articles Reporting Statistical Tests	Statistically Significant [b]	Replication Studies [c]
CSP	74	24 (32%)	9 (38%)	8 (89%)	0 (0%)
IJSEP	64	16 (25%)	1 (6%)	1 (100%)	1 (6%)
JASP	38	15 (39%)	5 (33%)	4 (80%)	1 (7%)
JSP	84	23 (27%)	18 (78%)	16 (88%)	1 (4%)
PITS	166	43 (30%)	16 (37%)	14 (88%)	2 (5%)
SPF	51	19 (37%)	6 (32%)	5 (83%)	2 (11%)
SPI	76	14 (18%)	8 (57%)	8 (100%)	0 (0%)
SPQ	85	16 (19%)	7 (44%)	7 (100%)	3 (19%)
SPR	51	19 (37%)	11 (59%)	11 (100%)	2 (11%)
Total	**689**	**189 (27%)**	**81 (43%)**	**76 (94%)**	**12 (6%)**

Note. *k* = number of manuscripts published (2016-2017). CSP = Contemporary School Psychology; IJESP: International Journal of School and Educational Psychology; JASP = Journal of Applied School Psychology; JSP = Journal of School Psychology; PITS = Psychology in the Schools; School Psychology Forum; SPI = School Psychology International; SPQ = School Psychology Quarterly, SPR = School Psychology Review.
[a] Number of articles reviewed in the present study (i.e., intervention outcomes was a primary objective).
[b] Articles reporting a statistically significant (i.e., *p* < .05) outcome(s).
[c] Studies were coded as replication attempt if it was noted as an explicit goal of the research project.

The resulting replication rate among the school psychology journals that were reviewed (~6%) over this time period is relatively consistent with published estimates in other fields (e.g. Makel, Plucker, & Hegarty, 2012). Of the journals examined in the present study, *School Psychology Review* was the only journal that posted a replication policy on its website. That policy statement indicated that replication studies would be considered for publication as a part of a special section of the journal.

Table 2 reports the results of *p*-curve analyses across the nine journals. Not surprisingly, the power estimates and percentage of statistically significant effects indicating evidential value (i.e., *p* < .025) varied significantly across the journals. Nevertheless, the Z-test for each *p*-curve was statistically significant indicating evidential value. The results of the omnibus *p*-curve analysis across journals is presented graphically in Figure 1[4]. Among the 242 total effects that were extracted from 71 different intervention studies (*M* = 3.40 effects per study), 160 were statistically significant (i.e., *p* < .05) and 122 (76%) were indicative of evidential value (i.e., *p* < .025). Visual inspection of the graph in Figure 1 reveals the desired right side bias in the curve resulting in a statistically significant binomial sign test (*p* < .05, one-tailed) indicating that effects associated with the present set of studies are not likely the result of selective reporting in the literature. To wit, the estimated power associated with the statistically significant effects included in the *p*-curve is .81 (90% CI [.74, .86]).

TABLE 2: RESULTS OF P-CURVE ANALYSES OF INTERVENTION RESEARCH PUBLISHED IN SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY JOURNALS FROM 2016-2017

Journal	% Evidential Value [a]	Z-Test of Half *P*-Curve	Power Estimate [90% CI]	Evidential Value Based on *P*-Curve	Evidential Value Based on Power
1. CSP	56%	-2.71*	.46** [.07, .82]	Yes	Yes
2. IJSEP		Insufficient Data to Calculate Independent *P*-Curve			
3. JASP	64%	-4.79*	.64** [.31, .86]	Yes	Yes
4. JSP	69%	-5.72*	.55** [.34, .73]	Yes	Yes
5. PITS	83%	-3.49*	.55** [.34, .73]	Yes	Yes
6. SPF	87%	-5.25*	.91** [.73, .97]	Yes	Yes
7. SPI	83%	-9.44*	.92** [.82, .97]	Yes	Yes
8. SPQ	84%	-15.72*	.99** [.99, .99]	Yes	Yes
9. SPR	77%	-4.96*	.56** [.31, .76]	Yes	Yes
Total	76%	-18.41*	.81** [.74, .86]	Yes	Yes

Note. CSP = Contemporary School Psychology; IJESP: International Journal of School and Educational Psychology; JASP = Journal of Applied School Psychology; JSP = Journal of School Psychology; PITS = Psychology in the Schools; SPF = School Psychology Forum; SPI = School Psychology International; SPQ = School Psychology Quarterly, SPR = School Psychology Review. Continuous test of the half *p*-curve based on the Stouffer method. As per Simonsohn, Simmons, & Nelson (2015), half curve values that *p* < .05 indicate the absence of right-side bias and thus evidential value. Conversely, evidential value is absent if the power test is *p* < .05 for the half-test.
[a] Outcomes *p* < .025.
* *p* < .05.
** *p* > .05.

Discussion

Due to a host of high-profile failures to replicate studies in social and experimental psychology, methodologists are in the early stages of examining the credibility of traditional scientific practices in the discipline. Although we contend that school psychology has much to learn from these conversations, the field remains insulated from on-going efforts to improve the state of psychological science (Tackett et al., 2017). In an effort to broaden the replicability conversation, the present study utilized the *p*-curve method to examine the evidential quality of intervention research published in several school psychology journals in order to determine the degree to which statistically significant
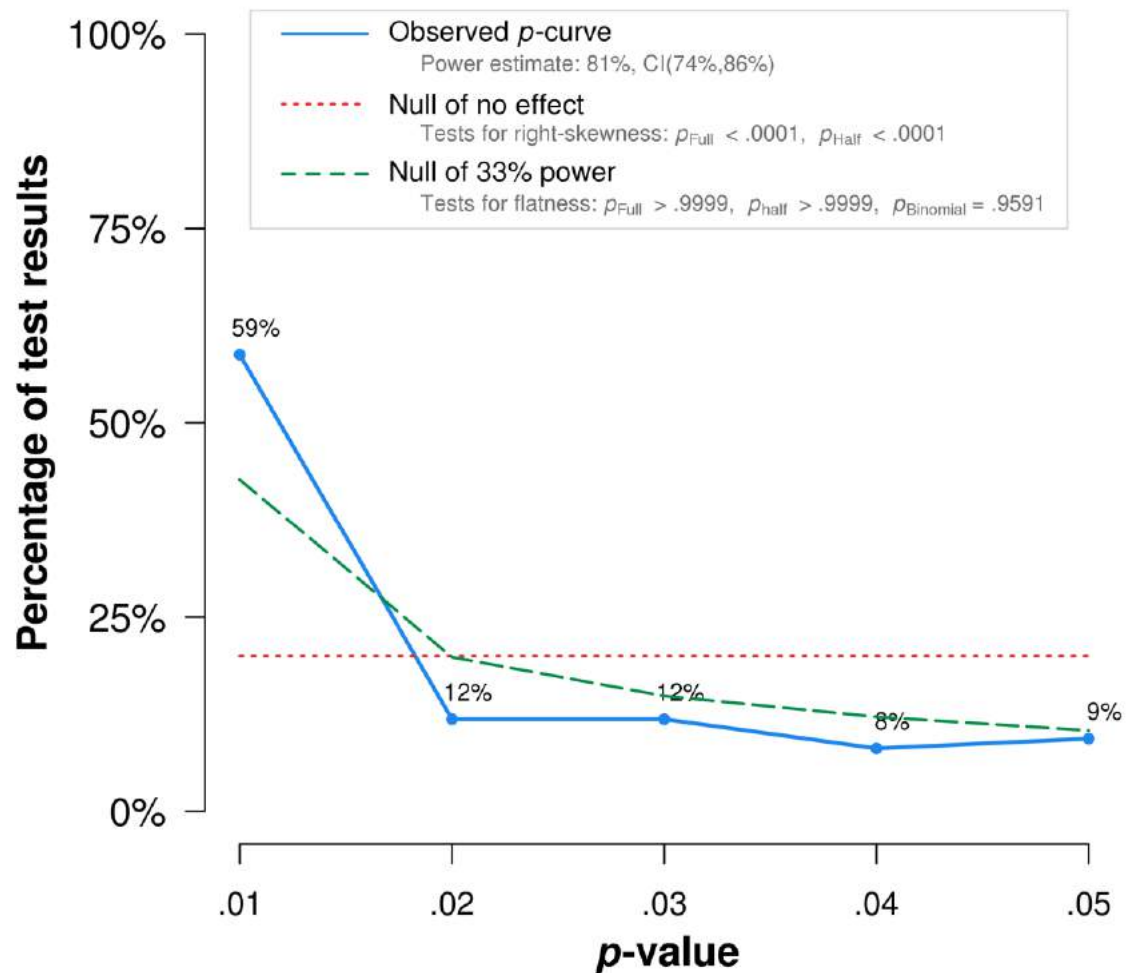
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[4] Independent p-curve graphs for each journal are provided in the online supplement.

findings reflected selective reporting rather than true effects. To our knowledge, this is the first application of *p*-curve analyses reported in the school psychology literature.

The present results are virtually identical to estimates furnished previously by Sterling, Rosenbaum, and Weinkam (1995). We found that the publication decisions in nine peer reviewed school psychology journals appear to disproportionality favor studies that observe effects that have a low value of incorrectly rejecting the null hypothesis. Of the studies that disclosed the results of a statistical test(s), 94% concurrently reported the results of at least one statistically significant finding. Although these results would seem to implicate the presence of publication bias, this hypothesis was not supported by results of the *p*-curve analyses.

FIGURE 1: RESULTS FROM A P-CURVE ANALYSIS EXAMINING THE EVIDENTIAL VALUE OF INTERVENTION RESEARCH PUBLISHED IN NINE SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY JOURNALS FROM 2016-2017.

Note: The observed *p*-curve includes 160 statistically significant (*p* < .05) results, of which 122 are *p* < .025. There were 82 additional results entered but excluded from *p*-curve because they were *p* > .05.

With regard to the issue of replication, our examination of 189 intervention articles across the school psychology journals indicated a relatively low percentage of replication studies. While this rate is not considerably different from other disciplines, it suggests that published intervention findings in school psychology are rarely subjected to systematic replication. Although we stipulate that the operational definition employed in the current study is likely a conservative estimate of the actual replication rate given the fact that many intervention studies could be classified as *conceptual* replications of previous work, the fact that so few authors reported replication as being an explicit goal in the studies suggests that the rate of *direct* replications, which has been regarded by some as the cornerstone of science

(e.g., Coyne, Cook, & Therrien, 2016), in our field is likely quite low.

Nevertheless, *p*-curve results indicated that the overwhelming majority of results reported in the intervention studies that were analyzed from 2016-2017 were of evidential value and the estimated power in the overall sample (.81) far surpasses median estimates that have previously been reported in the literature (e.g., Suzcs & Ionnidis, 2017). As a result, it is unlikely that these results are artifacts of selective reporting. Despite these positive findings, it is important to note that the *p*-curve method focuses only on the effects of selective reporting in the literature and is not useful for identifying other important QRPs such as HARKing, which may be of greater concern to

the field given the fact that school psychologists frequently have access to large datasets and samples of participants when conducting studies. In contrast to *p*-hacking, HARKing and data snooping are almost impossible to identify absent study pre-registration as readers only see the final results in a published article and have no way of knowing how those results were *actually* produced (Schimmack, 2012). Pre-registration is usually accomplished by posting research plans in an independent registry prior to data collection so that consumers are better able to distinguish exploratory from confirmatory research. Unfortunately, research pre-registration in school psychology is virtually nonexistent.

Study Limitations

In spite of these results, the *p*-curve method has several limitations. Most notably, it is not possible to include studies that do not report results produced from alternative to exact tests. Accordingly, many single-case designs and studies primarily reporting effect sizes are not able to be included in the online app at the present time. In the current study, 57 studies reporting intervention outcomes were unable to be included in the *p*-curve analyses because the statistical information necessary for extracting exact *p* values was not available. Of the aforementioned studies, 82% employed single-case design (SCD). Given the prevalence of SCD research in the school psychology literature, this limitation is particularly notable.

Additionally, the *p*-curve method is most often applied to investigate the quality of focal research programs and, in some cases, the results furnished by specific researchers and teams. Future investigations along these lines would be instructive. In doing so, it is important to keep in mind that selective reporting and other related QRPs are likely not the by-product of malicious

intent and that they are a class of practices that are distinct from other behaviors such as data fabrication, which are clearly unethical (Nelson, Simmons, & Simonsohn, 2018).

Conclusion

The present study has substantive implications for school psychology research and practice. Given the recent high-profile replication failures in psychological science, efforts should be undertaken to encourage and promote a more robust culture of replication in the school psychology literature. Additionally, journal editors and reviewers can help to protect against the insidious effects of QRPs and selective reporting by giving equal consideration to high quality studies that report non-significant results and encouraging authors to pre-register their study protocols in open source forums such as the Open Science Framework (Kratochwill, Levin, & Horner, 2018). On the other hand, the issues raised in the present article suggest that practitioners should guard against overinterpreting the results from isolated intervention studies without considering the broader literature associated with the application of that intervention (i.e., literature that may report negative or in some cases contraindicated effects) and the degree to which those effects have been replicated in the school psychology literature. Additionally, all school psychologists are encouraged to become conversant with the broader replication crisis literature in psychology as well as other allied fields (i.e., evidence-based medicine). We believe these efforts are crucial for advancing our science and furthering efforts to make school psychology incorruptible.

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SPONSOR A NEW MEMBER!

Although you already benefit from your Division 16 membership, perhaps there is someone you know – a colleague, early career professional, supervisee – who is not yet enrolled. As you are renewing your own commitment to the Division for 2019, we hope that you will consider "gifting" a membership to someone who is not currently a member. **As a Sponsor Member, you can purchase as many gift memberships as you wish at a discounted $20 rate!**

Giving a membership provides the recipient with access to all Division 16 resources, such as *The School Psychologist*, *School Psychology Quarterly*, and members-only LISTSERVs. More importantly, however, it shows your support of that person's professional development and helps bring more supporters of school psychology to the table. To sponsor a member, simply complete the required form here.

SASP STUDENT CORNER

NOTE FROM THE SASP EXECUTIVE BOARD

One specific opportunity for students to increase their involvement with professional associations and become leaders within the field is through Student Affiliates in School Psychology (SASP). SASP is a student-run organization under the umbrella of Division 16 in APA. In addition to aligning itself with the Division 16 objectives of promoting high quality training, research, ethical practice, and diversity within the field, SASP seeks to advocate for school psychology graduate students within APA, help graduate students stay cognizant of contemporary issues in the field, and collaborate with APA to enhance professional development opportunities for students.

Currently, SASP has 59 active affiliate chapters housed within school psychology programs around the country. Each affiliate chapter is led by a SASP chapter representative, elected by students within that program or appointed by the previous representative. SASP initiatives are driven by the SASP Executive Board, which is comprised of eleven elected representatives, serving in the following roles: president, president-elect, past president, communications chair, membership chair, convention chair, convention chair-elect, diversity chair, student interest liaison, editor, and editor-elect.

Elections occur each year in early November, and any current student member of Division 16 can run for a position or vote in the election. Nominations for all positions will be accepted until Sunday, November 4th at 11:59 pm Pacific Standard Time. Candidates interested in running should email their name, graduate program, year, expected degree, and 250-word candidate statement to president-elect, Jordan Thayer, by the indicated date.

More information about elections can be found on the SASP webpage.

LETTER FROM THE SASP STUDENT CORNER EDITOR

By Alexandria Muldrew, The University of Minnesota

Welcome!

As the incoming editor of Student Affiliates in School Psychology (SASP), I am pleased to announce our transition from the former SASP publication, *From Science to Practice/Policy* (FSPP), to an updated Student Corner column in *The School Psychologist* (TSP). The purpose of the Student Corner is to provide a platform for graduate students to share their perspectives on a variety of topics pertinent to our field. These topics can include advocacy, internships, research ethics, supervision, culture and diversity, student empowerment and more!

This inaugural publication of the Student Corner provides potential contributors a sample of what we will publish in the column. In this issue specifically, the Student Corner will focus on the importance of student leadership in professional organizations. It is my hope that this feature demonstrates the expectations of the column and encourages more graduate students to write for and submit to the Student Corner.

Graduate students are in the unique position of being surrounded by the most-up-to-date knowledge on a daily basis. This reality alone makes the graduate student perspective an important one for others to be aware of, as they can grow from the unique insights these students bring into topics surrounding school, life as a graduate student, or the field of school psychology in general.

It has been my sincere honor to be part of the team to revitalize the Student Corner in *TSP* and I want to thank everyone involved in making this publication a reality. As I look forward to reading submissions from SASP members studying around the country, I sincerely hope the Student Corner becomes a cornerstone in highlighting the perspectives of graduate students in school psychology.

Sincerely,

Alexandria Muldrew

BENEFITS OF STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

By Aria E. Fiat, The University of Minnesota
& Andrew J. Thayer, The University of Minnesota

The role of school psychologists can vary greatly depending on their position and the setting where they work. However, a common thread across all school psychology roles and functions is leadership. School psychologists lead school-based teams, coordinate evaluations, direct implementation initiatives in collaboration with administration, oversee research projects and lab groups, and sit on faculty committees. Additionally, many school psychologists advance the profession through leadership roles within

professional associations such as the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) or the American Psychological Association (APA). However, involvement in these organizations is not relegated to certified school psychologists; a large contingency of students actively participates in the governance of these organizations as well. In this brief article, we argue that professional service, in the form of fulfilling a leadership role within a professional association, not only promotes the field of school psychology broadly but offers unique benefits for students who choose to be involved.

The Importance of Professional Organizations

Professional associations such as NASP or APA occupy an important position within the field of School Psychology. Graduate students especially benefit from these organizations, as they offer funding, professional development opportunities, a context to consume and disseminate research, and receive mentorship from other professionals. The functioning of these professional associations largely rests on the commitment of volunteers, many of whom hold positions on executive boards or sub-committees. Professionals and students who choose to volunteer for these organizations may have various motivations. Regardless of their motivation, these organizations would not survive and their influence would be unrealized without volunteers at all levels, including students.

Student Leaders as Professional Organization Change Agents

Students fill a unique position within the governance of professional associations, and their involvement benefits the field in numerous ways. First, giving students a platform to communicate their perspectives and highlight issues of importance to them can enhance models of training and professional development

when the feedback reaches trainers and those influencing decisions in the field. Professional associations also offer numerous mechanisms—from forums, newsletters, to conference events—for graduate students to share information, advice, and tools with one another. This sharing of resources is important for other graduate students, who may have unique interests or who struggle to obtain answers to research- or practice-related questions from their advisors or other students in their program. Additionally, since students across all programs obtain different training and experiences, these professional organizations enable students to communicate their unique perspectives with one another. Ultimately, students benefit both directly and indirectly from these professional organizations through improved access to information about practica/internships, professional development opportunities, research and practice tips, and funding.

These benefits need to be facilitated by students though, to ensure relevancy and utility. This is where student leaders—student volunteers holding official representative positions within authoritative, leading organizations—are critical. The continued success of school psychology as a child-service profession is predicated upon the quality of student training experiences that is directly and indirectly impacted by these professional organizations. By meeting the needs of students through information exchange, funding and policy support, training, and more, student leaders enhance the knowledge and competence of future school psychologists, thereby advancing the field in ways that would be lacking without their input.

Benefits of Student Leadership

Beyond building the future of school psychology, student leaders benefit themselves and their local programs in several ways. For instance, students

who serve on executive boards of professional organizations gain insight and knowledge into organization operations. This core knowledge can make future involvement simpler and can enhance one's likelihood of getting elected to leadership positions within those organizations where students—now professionals—can continue progressing the field. Second, deep involvement can help students learn about various roles and functions within the field of school psychology and expand their conceptualizations of the field. Working closely with other professionals can make students privy to the wealth of the possible roles a school psychologist can fulfill, making them feel more attainable and concrete. In this regard, participation in professional organizations can profoundly shape graduate students' professional trajectories.

Along similar lines, working within professional organizations enables students to expand their professional network, which provides a major return-on-investment regarding career opportunities and mobility. For example, students are likely to encounter individuals with similar research or practice interests, who may wish to collaborate on future research or professional initiatives, or who may be privy to specialized professional roles or training opportunities. Moreover, many students in leadership roles may receive formal or informal mentoring from early to mid-career professionals from their organization. Developing mentor networks that include but are not limited solely to a primary advisor is critical for students and professionals alike (Sorcinelli & Yun, 2007). Mentors can offer guidance about how to navigate work-related challenges, as well as tips for having a successful career or achieving work-life balance. They can also offer valuable constructive feedback, a cornerstone for professional growth and development (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). In addition to linking up with professionals, student leaders within professional organizations form connections with other students from different programs across the continent or globe. Again, these connections can snowball into future research- or practice-focused partnerships, in addition to helping students access valuable information or resources that they may not have learned about within their own programs. Consequently, a major benefit of serving in leadership positions is that it enables students to construct a solid professional network before leaving graduate school.

Finally, an intangible but nevertheless invaluable consequence of gaining leadership experience within professional organizations is the acquisition of soft leadership skills, which invariably enhance future job performance and success (Mitchell, Skinner, & White, 2010). For example, working on an executive board or committee is likely to improve communication, project-management, delegation, and problem-solving skills. It can also increase confidence, motivation, initiative, collaboration, and personal effectiveness. Regardless of one's career path, it is not inaccurate to say school psychologists, as change agents, are leaders at all levels of the school system (Pearrow, Snyder, & Kaye, 2017). In fact, most students will notice that developing and refining their leadership skills will result in greater success in graduate school, internship, and their ultimate career.

Considering the many benefits of leadership within professional organizations, we highly encourage students to seek out positions on boards or committees at local, national, or international levels. There are dozens of available positions each year geared specifically for students. In the absence of posted positions, students might consider emailing leadership of an organization they are interested in to inquire about opportunities to volunteer in different capacities.

Conclusion

The impact of student leadership participation and their unique perspective within professional organizations is far reaching, both for individual students and the field. Specifically, they play an important role in advocating for resources, supports, and experiences that help graduate students thrive and become more effective professionals. In this way, student leaders provide a service that fulfills an ethical responsibility of school psychologists to enhance professional excellence, while building important skills and valuable networks that will facilitate a successful school psychology career.

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PEOPLE & PLACES

Edited By Ara J. Schmitt
Duquesne University

Texas A& M is pleased to announce that Drs. Kirsten Newell and Leann Smith have joined the School Psychology Program faculty. Dr. Newell is a graduate of the University of Minnesota and Dr. Smith is a graduate of the University of Texas.

The Fordham University School Psychology Program is delighted to announce that Dr. Alea Holman has joined our faculty as an Assistant

Professor. She earned her PhD from UC Berkeley and an MA in Public Health from NYU.

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Dr. Ethan Van Norman has joined the school psychology program at Lehigh University this fall. He comes to Lehigh after working for three years as an assistant professor at Georgia State University. Dr. Van Norman's research centers on data-based decision making and, specifically, progress monitoring and universal screening within multi-tiered systems of support. He will join current faculty members of the school psychology program Christine Cole, Bridget Dever, George DuPaul, Robin Hojnoski, and Patricia Manz.

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Last spring Gonzaga University hired Dr. Joseph Engler as the director of its newly developed Ed.S. School Psychology program. The School Psychology program features two pathways towards degree completion. The first pathway is a traditional 68 credit hour program for those who have previously completed a bachelor's degree. The second pathway requires a minimum of 44 credit hours for those who have previously completed a relevant master's degree. Both pathways require a 1200-hour internship and are designed to lead to state-level licensure and national certification. This fall, the first cohort for the post-bachelor's pathway was admitted and applications are currently being received for the first post-master's cohort. The post-master's cohort will begin coursework the summer of 2019. Upon successful implementation of the Ed.S. program, Dr. Engler anticipates the development of an additional Psy.D. pathway.

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Dr. Brenda Huber (Illinois State University) was awarded APPIC's Service Award at their bi-annual meeting in San Antonio earlier in May. Congratulations Brenda!

The Northern Illinois University School Psychology Program is excited to announce the hiring of Dr. Kara Styck as an assistant professor. Kara received her Ph.D. from Arizona State University and comes most recently from her time as a faculty member at the University of Texas – San Antonio. Kara joins colleagues Michelle Demaray, Christine Malecki, and Julia Ogg.

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The doctoral course of Dr. Frank Farley (Temple University) on the topic "History & Systems of Psychology/Know the Profession/The Great Psychologists" is compiling an extensive analysis of the characteristics of professional leadership in School Psychology, examining relevant publicly available demographics of all presidents of Division 16 since its founding, identifying the universities most productive of Div 16 leadership, the nature of degrees earned, age at time of degree and time of presidency, gender, etc. In addition to Dr. Farley and the students, Dr. Tom Fagan, renowned School Psychology historian, is contributing to the study which will be made available to Division 16 members upon completion.

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Fredrick A. (Fred) Schrank, PhD, ABPP, has been named a J. William Fulbright Specialist by the US Department of State, Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs. Fred is hosted by the School/Applied Child Psychology program of McGill University in Montreal, Quebec.

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The School Psychology Program at the University of California, Riverside, is pleased to announce that Wes Sims, a 2016 graduate of the University of Missouri, will be joining its faculty this fall. Dr. Sims will be welcomed by current faculty members Cat Geraghty, Austin Johnson, Rondy Yu, and program director Bill Erchul. UCR

also bids farewell to Kerri Knight-Teague, valued lecturer for the program for the past four years, who will be seeking another position in the L.A. area.

Dr. Robert Walrath, Associate Professor, Division of Education, and Director of Clinical Training for the Rivier PsyD Program in Counseling and School Psychology, was recently nominated by Gov. John Sununu and confirmed by the NH Executive Council to serve a 3 year term as a psychologist member of the New Hampshire Board of Psychology. The Board's mission is protection of the public as well as the licensing and regulation of the psychology profession. The Board of Psychologists is an eight member board appointed by the Governor. There are five Psychologists and three Public Members.

The Board of Psychologists is responsible for assuring that applicants are qualified to practice in the State of New Hampshire and that they adhere to professional and ethical standards once they are licensed. The psychology profession in the State of New Hampshire is regulated by RSA 329-B and the Board's Administrative Rules. Complaint investigations are conducted by the Board's Investigative Subcommittee consisting of experienced licensed Doctors of Psychology.

The Board of Psychologists regulates the practice of psychology by practitioners in New Hampshire to assure that the services provided are of a quality consistent with the standard of care within the profession, and to safeguard the public against harm which may be caused by untrained, unskilled, or unlicensed practitioners.

Dr. Kasee Stratton, Ph.D., NCSP, an Assistant Professor of School Psychology at Mississippi State University, recently won our 2018 College of Education Research award. The Herb Handley Research Award is awarded to a faculty member whose research and publications have brought significant acclaim to the College of Education during the last three year period. In other news, Dr. Tawny McCleon, Ph.D., NCSP, was recently promoted to the role of Program Coordinator.

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Dr. Prerna G. Arora has been hired as an Assistant Professor of School Psychology in the Department of Health and Behavior Studies at Teachers College, Columbia University. Her research focuses on issues of access and quality of care for underserved youth and adolescents. Dr. Arora's work uses mixed methodology and participatory research methods to develop and examine school- and community-based culturally-tailored interventions for immigrant populations. She is also interested in international school psychology and disparities in health care use. Dr. Arora earned her Ph.D. in School Psychology from the University of Texas at Austin, completed her pre-doctoral clinical internship at the Children's Hospital of Philadelphia, and served as a postdoctoral research and policy fellow at the University of Maryland, School of Medicine. She has previously served as an Assistant Professor of Psychology at Pace University, as well as a Visiting Assistant Professor at the University of Maryland, School of Medicine.

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The School Psychology program at the University of Northern Colorado is excited to announce that we have been joined by a new faculty member, Dr. Erin Yosai. She completed her PhD. in School Psychology at the University of Montana, and her internship and post-doc at the University of Illinois' Disability Resources and Educational Services center in Champaign-Urbana. In this position, she provided therapy and other support services for undergraduate and graduate students with disabilities. Her research interests include understanding the effects of mindfulness-based interventions on attentional control and working memory, wellness ecology in multi-tiered systems of school psychology, post-secondary school psychology, and diversity and intersectionality in graduate students in school psychology. Dr. Yosai is pursuing her licensure as a psychologist in Colorado.

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The University of Minnesota is thrilled to welcome Dr. Elyse Farnsworth and Dr. Jessie Kember who join School Psychology faculty members Amanda Sullivan, Ted Christ, Robin Codding, Clay Cook, Faith Miller, and Annie Hansen-Burke.

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The faculty of the University of Nevada, Las Vegas is happy to welcome Dr. Patrice Leverett to the PhD Program in School Psychology. She is a graduate of the University of Wisconsin, Madison and studies student views of school discipline and culturally relevant interventions. Dr. Leverett joins Drs. Loe, Lee, and Song as program faculty that emphasize a Cultural Ecological framework.

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The PsyD and PhD School Psychology Programs at Duquesne University are pleased to welcome Dr. Susan Loftus-Rattan to the faculty.   Her primary research interests involve prevention and early intervention of academic difficulties. She joins Drs. Laura Crothers, Tammy Hughes, Elizabeth McCallum, Kara McGoey, Jeff Miller, Yadira Sánchez, and Ara Schmitt as program faculty members.

Happy 50th! Twice NASP president, former NASP and APA Division 16 historian, and the only person to receive a Lifetime Achievement Award from both APA Division 16 and NASP, Dr. Tom Fagan reached a milestone in his academic career at the start of this past fall semester: his 50th year as a university educator of school psychologists. Tom was director of the school psychology program at Western Illinois University for seven years and has been director of the school psychology program for 43 years in his current position at the University of Memphis. Congratulations and thank you, Tom, for your career long contributions to NASP and the field of school psychology.

See Yourself & Colleagues Here!

Please send items for next issue's "People & Places" to Ara Schmitt. Suitable information includes personal accomplishments within the field, such as hires, professional awards, and other recognitions. Similarly, let us know about the accomplishments of your program or institution (e.g., gaining accreditation status). Finally, please let us know about relevant program creations—such as training programs, internship sites, post-doctoral positions, and so forth.
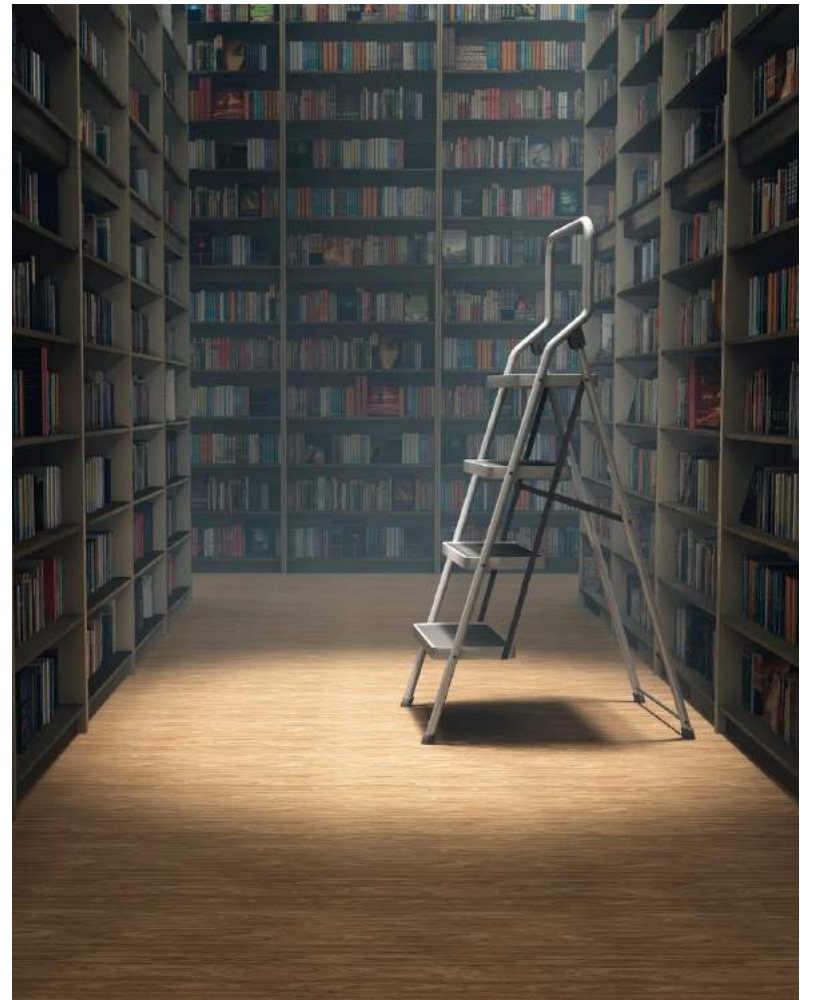
DIVISION 16 EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

The following elected officials have been selected by Division 16 membership to serve leadership roles for the specified terms.

Office	Term	Name	Contact Information
President	2017-19	Cathy Fiorello	Temple University Email: catherine.fiorello@temple.edu
Past-President	2017-19	Lea Theodore	College of William & Mary Email: ltheodore@wm.edu
President-Elect	2018-19	Melissa A. Bray	University of Connecticut Email: melissa.bray@uconn.edu
Vice President for Convention Affairs & Public Relations (VP-CAPR)	2017-19	Rik Carl D'Amato	The Chicago School of Professional Psychology Email: rdamato@thechicacgoschool.edu
Vice President for Professional Affairs (VP-PA)	2018-20	Janine Jones	University of Washington Email: jjones@uw.edu
Vice-President for Membership	2018-20	David Hulac	University of Northern Colorado Email: david.hulac@unco.edu
Vice-President for Education, Training, & Scientific Affairs (VP-ETSA)	2017-19	Franci Crapeau-Hobson	University of Colorado Denver Email: franci.crepeau-hobson@ucdenver.edu
Vice-President of Publications and Communication	2016-18	Michelle M. Perfect	University of Arizona Email: mperfect@email.arizona.edu
Vice-President for Social, Ethical, and Ethnic Minority Affairs (VP-SEREMA)	2016-18	Yadira Sanchez	Academia Maria Reina Email: yadirav33@gmail.com
Treasurer	2017-19	Cyndi Riccio	Texas A & M University Email: criccio@tamu.edu
Secretary	2016-18	Prerna G. Arora	Columbia University Email: arora23@tc.columbia.edu
Council Representative	2017-19	Tammy Hughes	Duquesne University Email: hughest@duq.edu
Council Representative	2016-18	Bonnie K. Nastasi	Tulane University Email: bnastasi@tulane.edu
Council Representative	2016-18	Samuel Y. Song	University of Nevada, Las Vegas Email: sam.song@unlv.edu

AUTHOR'S INSTRUCTIONS & PUBLICATION SCHEDULE

Division 16 of the American Psychological Association publishes *The School Psychologist* as a service to the membership. Three PDF issues are published annually. The purpose of TSP is to provide a vehicle for the rapid dissemination of news and recent advances in practice, policy, and research in the field of school psychology.

Article submissions of 12 double-spaced manuscript pages are preferred. Content of submissions should have a strong applied theme. Empirical pieces conducted in school settings and that highlight practical treatment effects will be prioritized. Other empirical pieces should have a strong research-to-practice linkage. Non-empirical pieces will also be reviewed for possible publication, but are expected to have a strong applied element to them as well. Briefer (up to 5 pages) applied articles, test reviews, and book reviews will also be considered. All submissions should be double-spaced in Times New Roman 12-point font and e-mailed to the Editor. The manuscript should follow APA format and should identify organizational affiliations for all authors on the title page as well as provide contact information for the corresponding author. Authors submitting materials to *The School Psychologist* do so with the understanding that the copyright of published materials shall be assigned exclusively to APA Division 16.

For more information about submissions and/or advertising, please e-mail or write to:

Andy Pham, PhD
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Florida International University, ZEB 360B
avpham@fiu.edu

To be considered in an upcoming issue, please note the following deadlines:

Winter Issue: Approximate publication Date - February 15th; Submission Deadline - December 15th
Spring Issue: Approximate publication Date - June 15th; Submission Deadline - April 15th
Fall Issue: Approximate publication Date - October 15th; Submission Deadline - August 15th