The Internationalization of School Psychology

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Abstract

This literature search explores the status of School Psychology as a discipline and profession. We first cover the history of the discipline from its inception in the 1890s to present. Both relevant legislation and trends in the field are discussed, with special focus on the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child. Not only do we discuss the status of School Psychology in the United State but take a global view as well. We find the roles and functions of School Psychologists vary country to country depending on such things as cultural appropriateness, budgetary constraints, and national legislation. The literature leads us to advocate for a stronger and more robust role for School Psychologists with greater collaboration not only within the school context but in the broader communities schools serve.

Introduction

School psychology is a field that has gained much attention as it has gained maturity and multifaceted applications and usage over time. According to Merrell, Ervin, and Peacock, (2012), school psychology is a crucial player in the educational and mental health processes of various stakeholders, children, and their families, seeking to affect positive change. The role of the school psychologist has transitioned from an initial philosophical base to an evolving scientific database. School psychology originated in the 1890s and soon became a subfield under the American Psychological Association (APA); by 1896, the University of Pennsylvania had established the first psychological clinic for assessing the learning differences and behavioral difficulties of children. In 1899, the first school-based psychological clinic was created in the Chicago public schools (Tharinger, Pryzwansky, & Miller, 2008). As a result, school psychology emerged to aid with the identification and placement of students though the development of achievement tests. Proven to be beneficial to the health and educational field, school psychology became a means for the U.S. government to reinforce children's rights for health, education, protection, and safeguarding, as articulated by United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child; in fact, 2014 was the 25th anniversary of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child.

As the field has evolved, a chief mission of psychology, and school psychology in particular, is to build a strong foundation for children's rights for education and safeguarding. In the U.S., two organizations, the American Psychological Association (APA), the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP), campaign for children's rights to education and safety through designing school curricula to increase attention to children's rights to fulfill their potential, follow their academic aspirations, and become competent and responsible citizens.

This study outlines the evolving role of school psychology around the globe. In addition, this study brings to light the need for school psychology as an essential field for the promotion of academic, intellectual, social and mental health. It argues that the role of school psychologist is evolving, albeit slowly, in order to meet the needs of students, parents, local, national and international institutions, such as the United Nations. As more information comes to light about the links between mental and physical health, school psychologists will broaden their work environment to include health care professionals, community activists, and anyone else interested in improving the outlook for all children.

Who Needs School Psychologists, and Why?

To place the evolving field of school psychology in context, especially as it develops in highly varying cultures around the world, a brief examination of the definition and role of school psychology will be helpful. In the United States, where school psychology services in public school systems have been established for some time, several professional organizations offer definitions and guidance in the field. For example, the American Psychological Association defines school psychology as follows:

> School psychology is a general practice and health service provider specialty of professional psychology that is concerned with the science and practice of psychology with children, youth, families; learners of all ages; and the schooling process. The basic education and training of school psychologists prepares them to provide a range of psychological assessment, intervention, prevention, health promotion, and program development and evaluation services with a special focus on the developmental processes of children and youth within the context of schools, families, and other systems.
>
> School psychologists are prepared to intervene at the individual and system level, and develop, implement, and evaluate preventive programs. In these efforts, they conduct ecologically valid assessments and intervene to promote positive learning environments with which children and youth from diverse backgrounds have equal access to effective educational and psychological services to promote healthy development (Merrell, Ervin, & Peacock, 2012, pp. 2-3).

Similarly, the U.S.-based National Association of School Psychologists has described the role of school psychologists in this way:

> School psychologists help children and youths succeed academically, socially, behaviorally, and emotionally. They collaborate with educators, parents, and other professional to create safe, healthy, and supportive learning environments that strengthen connections between home, school, and the community for all students.
>
> School psychologists are highly trained in both psychology and education, completing a minimum of a specialist-level degree program (at least 60 graduate semester hours) that includes a yearlong supervised internship. This training emphasizes preparation in mental health and education interventions, child development, learning behavior, motivation, curriculum and instruction, assessment, consultation, collaboration, school law, and systems. School psychologists must be certified and/or licensed by the state in which they work. They also may be nationally certified by the National School Psychology Certification Board (NSPCB). The National Association of School Psychologists sets ethical and training standards for practice and service delivery
> (Merrell, Ervin, & Peacock, 2012, p. 2).

As a profession, school psychology is a field that has gone through and will continually go through metamorphosis. Zimbardo (2004) maintained that psychology and its applied fields such as school psychology have transcended an era of skepticism and entered a new era of validation for societal values.

Historically, school psychologist practice was grounded in clinical psychology and oriented toward the assessment of intelligence or IQ tests. Typically, the school psychologist held the role of the gatekeeper within the educational system and "became inextricably linked to intelligence testing and individual assessment and classification" (Merrell et al., 2012, p. 27). Traditionally, IQ assessment has been a major activity for school psychologists. For example, the Binet-Simon test was originally developed in France in 1905 to determine whether students were capable of following the regular school curriculum. This test was assumed to be valid at measuring intelligence and detecting "mental retardation." The Binet-Simon IQ test has paved the way for a multitude of intelligence tests.

Today, educational assessment has turned into a billion-dollar industry that can influence college placement, affect workplace job skills assessments, validate program funding, monitor students on a local, state, national and global level, and aid in the detection of learning deficiencies/disabilities and mental illness.

Psychological assessments are not the only areas where the field of school psychology has evolved. Slowly, the field has shifted from IQ assessment to the proactive advancement of a healthy environment and the well-being of individuals. School psychology has shifted from a study of the limited and impaired (i.e., treatment to fix that which is broken) to the integration of professional service delivery that emphasizes "improved academic competence, social and emotional functioning, family-school partnership, classroom instruction, and school-based child and family health and mental health services for all learners" (Ysseldyke et al., 2006, p. 40).

Bagnato (2006) notes that the role of school psychologists in recent years has evolved to include approaches to early intervention, prevention, and providing students with diverse needs, thus strengthening communication skills and relationships with students. The field has also seen shifts to address prevention, intervention, and early screening for children and adolescents – important steps for the improvement of schools' mental health programs as well as the field's transition from epistemology to practicality. Today, school psychologists are more and more involved in providing psychological therapy, which is essential in modern schools. With mental disorders developing from genetic and environmental stimuli, there has been more of a need for school psychological treatment. Phobias, traumatic events, anxiety disorders, panic attacks, and drugs are a few examples of stimuli that have been influencing mental illnesses, and school psychologists are becoming a more effective in building treatment for these concerns (Zimbardo, 2004).

In response to changing laws, shifting demands by governing organizations, expanding desires of school districts, and the growing desire by school psychologists themselves to shed their gatekeeper image, the field of school psychology has evolved over the last three decades, and is projected to continue to change in regard to the number of school psychologists, their roles, functions, and characteristics. According to Merrell et al. (2012), school psychology has struggled, yet has managed to arrive at a place of credibility as a scientific discipline. Even as a small discipline, school psychology has made an oversized impact on educational practice, policy, and science.

As the field of school psychology evolves, school psychologists will increasingly be called upon to: (a) focus on prevention and youth development in place of assessment or diagnosis; (b) increase collaboration with educators and other child services specialties; (c) integrate computerized technology into prevention and intervention activities; (d) increase home–school collaboration; (e) develop culturally sensitive and culturally appropriate services; (f) focus on problem-solving models and professional flexibility; (g) focus on indirect psychological service models; (h) work to enhance the development, health, and mental health of all children; (i) decrease special education service involvement and increase regular education service participation; (j) become educational curriculum and program evaluation experts; (k) serve as safe school initiative coordinators; (l) serve as performance assessment and outcome specialists; (m) develop self-reflection and recursion; and (n) become proactive in place of being reactive (Sheridan & D'Amato, 2003). Farrell (2010) recommends highlighting the wide array of skills school psychologists have so that they can continue to promote the distinctive roles they could play at a school. Listing several skills besides assessment (such as interviewing children and parents, counseling, researching, report writing, and facilitating meetings), he concludes "It is hard to conceive that any professional, other than a school psychologist, could possess this broad range of skills and knowledge" (p. 592).

School Psychology and Relevant Legislation

Proven to be beneficial to the educational field, school psychology became a means for the U.S. government to make critical decision regarding the educational process of children of various abilities. As early as 1973, the U.S. Rehabilitation Act required schools to afford accommodations to students with disabilities, even if they do not fit the legal definition of handicapped as outlined in the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 1997. With the inception of the Handicapped Children Act of 1975, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 1997 (IDEA), and the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEIA) of 2004, there has been a significant increase in psychological services in the schools (Tharinger et al., 2008). The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (also known as the IDEIA) help to assess and bring to light "the social and conditions regarding people with disabilities" in the U.S. (Merrell et al., 2012, p. 277).

The Rehabilitation Act of 1973, Handicapped Children Act of 1975, IDEA 1997, and IDEIA 2004 were all preambles for the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB), which requires that students included in the earlier legislation must be included in the NCLB's calculation for adequate yearly progress (AYP) (http://www.asha.org/uploadedFiles/advocacy/federal/nclb/1percentruleanalysis.pdf). The implications of these laws have called on the field of school psychology to become better organized, while anchoring the means for which children and adults are assessed and diagnosed. Other implications of these laws include methods for school-based reforms, in the form of student engagement and motivation for professional development.

In an effort to improve guidance and exercise in the field of school psychology, the National Association of School Psychologists released "A Blueprint for Training and Practice" in 1984, with a revised version issued in 1996 and yet again in 2006 creating the third edition, commonly known as Blueprint III. The National School Psychology Certification System (1988) was created to improve and promote continual professional development by means of standardized state licensure and certification (Ysseldyke et al., 2006). According to Ysseldyke et al. (2006), the Blueprint III revision aims to promote the future of school psychology starting with the novice skills of graduate students and the knowledge, skills, and competence they will achieve at the internship level, and progressing to the knowledge of experts who possess years of practical experience.

Blueprint III addresses training for data-based decision making and accountability; diversity awareness and sensitive service delivery; enhancing the development of cognitive and academic skills; enhancing the development of wellness, social skills, life skills, interpersonal skills, and collaborative skills; professional, legal, ethical, and social responsibility; system-based services delivery; and lastly, technological application. All these components should be utilized to enhance the skills necessary to foster proper behavior, mental health, and public health (Ysseldyke et al., 2009). The evolving definitions of school psychology, then, have led to the understanding that the profession is concerned with the development, education, health, and mental health of children and youths, not merely with assessment or other more limited approaches. In an effort to provide quality of care, school psychologists are service providers to families, children, and youth within educational settings and the home and community setting in which these stakeholders reside. School psychologists must provide a wealth of informational resources to these various stakeholders, requiring a connection to the field of education and a multitude of other professional fields.

In recent years there has been a significant shift in addressing the mental health of school-aged children in the U.S. Professionals in the field recognize that the complexities of mental health issues among the nation's youth vary, but often include failure to complete high school, substance abuse, inability to live self-sufficiently, poor academic achievement, association with the correctional system, lack of job-related success, health problems, bullying behavior, and suicidal acts or thoughts.

In response, the field of school psychology has evolved over the last three decades, and is projected to continue to change in regard to the number of school psychologists, their roles, functions, and characteristics. According to Merrell et al. (2012), school psychology has struggled, yet has managed to arrive at a place of credibility as a scientific discipline. As a small discipline, school psychology has made an impact on the level of practice, policy, and the level of science. The number of school psychologists has tripled, and the field's growth has had an enormous impact on the level of research, training, and professional practice (Merrell et al., 2012).

The field of school psychology continues to grow and change, at least in part in response to changes in public and private educational systems and curricula around the globe. Yet addressing the need for psychological services in schools is also imperative for the broader field of psychology as a whole. School psychology has proven to be an effective entry point for providing much-needed psychological services for children who are enrolled in school, parents who have children in school, teachers working in school systems, and school administrators.

As the field of school psychology evolves, school psychologists will increasingly be called upon to: (a) focus on prevention and youth development in place of assessment or diagnosis; (b) increase collaboration with educators and other child service specialties; (c) integrate computerized technology into prevention and intervention activities; (d) increase home–school collaboration; (e) develop culturally sensitive and culturally appropriate services; (f) focus on problem-solving models and professional flexibility; (g) focus on indirect psychological service models; (h) work to enhance the development, health, and mental health of all children; (i) decrease special education service involvement and increase regular education service participation; (j) become educational curriculum and program evaluation experts; (k) serve as safe school initiative coordinators; (l) serve as performance assessment and outcome specialists; (m) develop self-reflection and recursion; and (n) become proactive in place of being reactive (Sheridan & D'Amato, 2003).

Through the scholarship advanced in professional journals such as the *Journal of School Psychology, School Psychology Review, School Psychology Quarterly, School Psychology International, the Handbook of International School Psychology*, and others, it is clear that there are many scientists who want to impact schools on a national and an international approach, while also ensuring that school psychology benefits individuals. For example, for administrators who need to maintain order among their students and in their programs, school psychology benefits both the administration and individual students. For the teacher who needs a better approach o classroom management, school psychology benefits both teacher and individual students. For parents who need a better way to connect with their sons and daughters, school psychology can benefit both parent and child. Finally, for the student who is having trouble adjusting in school, community, and society, a caring school psychologist can be of great benefit as someone to talk with and turn to.

In summary, "School psychology" and "intelligence testing" were wed "for better or worse" in the very early 20th century when both were in their infancy. Many of the early pioneers of school psychology had backgrounds in empirical science and psychology and brought their love of assessment with them when they began their work with school-age children. For the past several decades, school psychology has tried to break with its "intelligence testing" roots, yet the marriage of the two—weaker though it may be—continues to this day. Nonetheless, the future of school psychology, at least in the abstract, continues to pull toward a different model that would include testing and assessment but only as one small part of its overall function. Indeed, as Matarazzo (1987), Bardon (1983, 1994), and others have argued, there is no such thing as school psychology, just "*one* psychology, with no specialties but many applications." If current trends in school psychology continue, Matarazzo's vision may one day hold true as school psychologists expand their work beyond the walls of schools into community centers, homes, hospitals, and wherever else psychological services may be needed to help children achieve their full academic and personal potential.

School Psychology: A Global View

Internationally, the field of school psychology faces similar barriers to those in the United States when it comes to defining itself and evolving beyond simply assessing students for special needs programs (Lebeer, Birta-Szekely, & Demeter 2012). According to *The Handbook of International School Psychology,* the "specialty of school psychology has been characterized as one that collectively provides individual assessment of children who may display cognitive, emotional, social or behavioural difficulties; develops and implements primary and secondary intervention programs; consults with teachers, parents and other relevant professionals; engages in program development and evaluation; conducts research and helps prepare and supervise others" (Jimerson et al., 2007, p. 1).

Oakland (1997) reported that a survey of test resources and practices in 44 countries identified 455 separate test titles used with children and youth. Among them, 290 tests were developed domestically (i. e., in the country in which they were used) and 165 tests were imported (p. 4). Almost 40% of these tests measured intelligence.

As with legislation in the U.S. that mandated special education, similar legislation in Europe had a comparable impact there. While giving a nod to critics of testing, Oakland (1997) concludes that "both external and internal conditions impact the nature of assessment practices. In brief, nations must value the use of tests and other forms of assessment data, and professionals must be ready to provide needed services," that is, mandated tests (p. 6).

In addition to writing about the international focus on testing, Oakland cites five further external conditions that can also impact the role of school psychologists:

1) economy;
2) national priorities;
3) culture;
4) language; and
5) geography (cited in Forlin, 2010)

Through a survey of Thai and American students, Archwamety, McFarland, and Tanghanakonond (2009) provide a good example of how cultural expectations can impact the role of school psychologists. Thai students rated the assessment role higher and the intervention role lower than their U.S. counterparts. Thai students would assign the intervention role to peers and older siblings in the absence of school psychologists, whereas U.S. students would assign it to other school personnel. Thai students also saw parents and older siblings in a counseling role in absence of school psychologists, whereas American students saw priests, monks, and ministers as more appropriate counselors in the absence of a school professional.

An interesting international example of the tension between a case-based, individual model and a collaborative whole-school and community-based prevention and intervention model comes from Hong Kong. According to Forlin (2010), school psychology developed in the 1960s with its own identity that reflected the local culture and is closely aligned to parental and teacher expectations. The first department of psychology at the University of Hong Kong was developed at that time, although it was not until 1981 that training for school psychologists became available locally (p. 623), making Hong Kong the first region with Asia to provide local training opportunities for school psychology. Even with the education department adopting an inclusion model in the early 21st century that would educate all learners regardless of special education needs, the first task on the list provided by Education Bureau in 2008 was to provide assessment of students; the fourth, to develop assessment tools. Supporting a whole school approach (inclusion) was listed third (Forlin, 2010). As Hong Kong moves toward a system of inclusion for all students, dealing with depression and suicide (already one of the leading causes of death in Hong Kong among 15- to 24-year-olds and made even worse by the recent economic recession) will take even more effort as mainstreamed students report poor relationships with their peers and teachers (Forlin, 2010).

Mainstreaming/inclusion, in fact, is one of three movements involving children that have the potential to re-shape the identity of school psychology in the United States and around the world. The other two are the quest for children's rights and the integration of school psychology into a model that addresses both the physical and mental health needs of children and adolescents.

Inclusion is a natural progression of the "least restrictive environment" legislation of the 1990s and even earlier "mainstreaming" movements. The shift in vocabulary from "mainstreaming" to "inclusion" is meant to indicate a focus on the *quality* of the mainstreaming experience (Anderson, Klassen, & Georgious, 2007). In the best possible world, an inclusive educational environment allows all students, regardless of special education needs, to enjoy full participation not only in school, but in their communities, work places, recreational opportunities, and home activities, a goal of the Hong Kong education department beginning in 2000 (Forlin, 2010). School psychologists can help by implementing training programs, disseminating researching that shows inclusion is good for everyone, developing school-wide plans, and advocating for teachers (Anderson, Klassen, & Georgious, 2007).

After Australia adapted "least restrictive student-centered environments" for all its students in 2003, only 10% of teachers mentioned school psychologists as part of the inclusion structure, and just 4% indicated they had requested help from school psychologists (Anderson, Klassen, & Georgious, 2007). Hong Kong teachers had rather poor attitudes about the inclusion movement because of the "examination-oriented approach" in the school system (Forlin, 2010). As schools move from a case-based, individual model toward a more collaborative whole-school model along with community-based prevention and early intervention models, school psychologists may also show some reluctance, given their fears of an increased workload and "greater accountability for rather nebulous outcomes" (Forlin, 2010, p. 627). Canadian school psychologists expect that "integration"– their term for mainstreaming or inclusion – will continue; however, some of the workload will be mitigated as assessment duties normally overseen by school psychologists will be contracted out due to budgetary constraints (Janzen, Peterson & Paterson, 1994).

To help the profession in the quest for more inclusive educational opportunities, research has been and will continue to be conducted. For example, because of an increasing number of students with autism and an emphasis on inclusion, Williams, Johnson, and Sukhodolsky (2005) have undertaken research to help school psychologists share strategies to manage disruptive behaviors, to promote academic competencies, and to encourage social integration. Even in this case, however, the authors see the critical first step as assessment.

Regarding the United Nations Convention of the Rights of the Child, Woods, Bond, Tyldesley, Farrell, and Humphrey (2011) see it as a "major international commitment to protecting children from harm" (p. 361). However, in a 2010 survey, the authors found just 33% of the 42 countries surveyed had basic child protection services. Some countries are utilizing the skills of school psychologists to help with the goal of keeping children safe. In the United Kingdom, for example, school psychologists play a role in creating multi-tiered preventative and reactive strands in the school's organizational structure, as well as work as a bridge between social workers and education or the health department and education (Woods, Bond, Tyldesley, Farrell, & Humphrey, 2011). These types of services broaden the role of school psychologists in the U.K. beyond the traditional school-focused work.

The Convention, which entered into force in September 1990, goes beyond simple protection, however. Article 12, for instance, states that all children have a right to be heard in any proceeding affecting them. The right extends to criminal, civil, and administrative proceedings. According to the Convention, it is up to adults to create opportunities and methods for children to express themselves; however, their concerns must be given due weight. Article 29, focused on education, emphasizes that "children do not lose their human rights by virtue of passing through the school gates" (United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child, 2001, p. 9). In consequence, the Convention "challenges the concept of school as a one-way process of disseminating information" (Gerison, Jimerson, & Shahroozi, 2014, p. 8), thus forcing educators to become more child-centered.

Gerison, Jimerson, and Shahroozi (2014) understand the power of the conviction across societies that adults know best (p. 11), but the authors view the goal of the Convention as "helping each child acquire the values, skills, and confidence necessary to contribute to democratic life." The authors feel school psychologists should champion the creation of a child-centered education system by "advocating and actualizing the Convention in schools throughout the world" (p. 3). They note that "many children fail or drop out of school because of a pedagogical environment that ignores their views and denies them opportunities for participation" (p. 3). Percy-Smith and Thomas (2010) reached a similar conclusion about the Convention and summarize studies that indicate valuing children's rights accomplishes several things:

1) helps children develop personally and raises self-esteem, which lessens abuse and discrimination
2) improves decision-making to improve educational outcomes
3) cuts down on aggression and disruption
4) makes teachers feel better about themselves

In addition, Lansdown (2011a) adds that recognizing the right of children to express views and to participate in various activities, according to their evolving capacities, has been reported to be beneficial for the child, the family the community, the school, the state, and for democracy.

In a separate but similar initiative to the United Nations Convention, Division 16 (school psychology) of the American Psychological Association established a social justice and child rights working group in 2008 to facilitate the professional development of school psychologists in the promotion of social justice and child rights, including contributions to a child's rights curriculum for school psychologists (Division 16 [School Psychology] Social Justice and Child Rights Working Group, 2013).

McLoughlin and Hart (2014, p. 1) have stressed the important contributions of school psychologists in "actualizing the Convention on the Rights of the Child": "The primary purpose of the profession of school psychology is to improve the development and quality of life of children. This purpose is given more specific direction by concepts of what is right for children and by the rights of children" (as cited in Jimerson, 2014, p. 4). Jimerson (2014) agrees that "psychology and particularly school psychology have been strong supporters of children's rights in words and deeds" (p. 4). Cook, Jimerson, and Begeny (2010) echo these sentiments, suggesting that school psychologists "represent vital members of a country's school system and help improve the fair treatment and overall quality of life for students" (p. 440).

Ysseldyke et al. (2006) conclude that "school psychologists should be mental health practitioners who can guide parents and teachers in learning how to create an environment where ALL children and youth feel protected" (p. 13).

These affirmations do not mean there is no more room for improvement. Gerison, Jimerson, and Shahroozi (2014) write that school psychologists – "within their individual practice and within the systems, institutions, and agencies in which they work" (p. 8) – can play a major part in contributing to the realization of children's participation rights at all levels of the education system. Likewise, the National Association of School Psychologists (2012) has recognized that "school psychologists play a pivotal role in promoting respect for and the realization of child rights, and that their contributions are best made in partnership with parents, educators, schools, and their communities" (p. 3).

Garbarino and Briggs (2014) make clear that the goals of school psychology and the Convention are not at cross purposes. The authors argue that the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child and the NASP's Principles for Professional Ethics support one another. Article 3 of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child states: "Those responsible for children must make the best interests of the child a primary consideration." Similarly, NASP's Principles for Professional Ethics states, "School psychologists consider the interests and rights of children and youth to be their highest priority in decision making, and act as advocates for all students" (p. 30). Consequently, the authors suggest that school psychologists can help assess how well schools are supporting the Convention by comparing local measurements to state and national standards, with the caveat that a school could do well overall but have a subgroup perform poorly.

One way to show success, the authors contend, is by "reducing to zero the correlation between family/parental financial resources and child opportunities" (p. 31). To accomplish this, school psychologists could compare and contrast the outcomes of the students who qualify for the U.S. education system's "free and reduced lunch" program with those who do not. The assessed outcomes depend upon the wealth of data collected by the school, but at a minimum, attendance, behavior, and academic achievement should be examined (Garbarino & Briggs, 2014).

Although family income and wealth can often determine the success of children, Garbarino and Briggs (2014) cite studies to show that increasing the number of developmental assets can improve children's academic achievement and quality of life, despite parental income gaps. With little or no increase in spending, "a school could influence several assets, including positive and supportive relationships with adults, a caring, safe, and predictable school environment, parental involvement in schooling, engagement in community service, and involvement in extracurricular activities" (p. 32). School psychologists can work as "part of a multi-tiered team by, at the very least, serving as advocates for the interventions and resources that a child needs" (p. 35). While admitting that none of their ideas are revolutionary, the authors show a practical course that would probably not force too many school psychologists out of their comfort zones.

A final way school psychology could change is to become more involved in promoting the overall health of children. The 1986 World Health Organization Ottawa Charter views health as "a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not simply the absence of illness or disease" (cited in De Jong, 2008, p. 339). Tharinger, Miller, and Pryzwansky (2008) point out that "schools are increasingly singled out as settings for health and mental health care delivery," especially given that 10% of children experience serious mental health problems and another 10% moderately serious problems, including poor academic achievement, failure to graduate from high school, substance abuse, health problems, and suicide (p. 530).

De Jong (2000) contends that school psychologists "need to embrace health promotion as a major focus of their work particularly since schools are such potent sites of psycho-social development" (pp. 348-49). The author envisions a healthy school will

1) take a holistic approach in which school psychologists can help with procedures, planning, technical support, etc.
2) be free of physical barriers, availability of ramps, etc.
3) embrace values which are accepting of diversity
4) create a flexible curriculum which provides appropriate assistive devices, possibly time and place, and adaptable assessment practices.
5) champion a health promotive approach, healthy building, safety, prevention programs integrated into the school's curriculum

In order to do this, the author argues, the school psychologist must work to develop the school as an organization that will work toward the following objectives:

1) a safe and secure physical environment with intact and clean buildings
2) respectful, caring, and friendly relationships between all stakeholders with processes for expressing feelings
3) a decentralized, innovative, participatory management with clear structures and procedures
4) opportunities for self-reflection for all parties
5) development of problem-solving skills
6) shared philosophy
7) inclusive strategic planning
8) sufficient resources
9) on-going staff development and an appraisal program for all parties (DeJong, 2000, p. 351)

Nastasi (2000) agrees that school psychology practitioners must assume an active role in addressing both the physical health and mental health needs of children and adolescents (p. 540). To support her view, she cites many articles on the connection between physical and mental health. She envisions a partnership between public education, public health, and an expanded role for school psychologists to deal with such chronic diseases as cancer, asthma and allergies, diabetes, HIV/AIDS, fetal alcohol syndrome, psychiatric disorders, and social morbidities such as drug abuse, sexually transmitted diseases, suicide, and violence.

Support for school psychologists playing a more robust role in the physical health of children goes back to the beginning of the profession. Schoolchildren in the early part of the 20th century were more likely to evidence physical problems such as speech, sensory, and health impairments (especially respiratory disorders) than the kinds of mental health problems early school-related clinics were created to treat. Thus, many early psychological referrals for academic and behavioral problems were complicated by problems of physical health. Service provision often necessitated consultation with other “experts” in vision, speech and hearing, and medicine, and it was common for large districts to employ a school physician in addition to psychologists. The extent of these mental and physical health problems is described by King (1993), Safford and Safford (1996), and Wallin (1914), and they are evident in the case records of Witmer’s clinic (Levine & Wishner, 1977). Many diseases were life threatening, and some school districts published a necrology identifying the children who had died and the cause of death (Fagan, 2000).

Nastasi (2000) outlines steps a 21st-century team could take to improve the overall physical, and, by extension, mental, ecology of schools. The first would focus on prevention by identifying critical health issues and writing grants to fund programs to inhibit them. The programs could be culture-specific and aimed at the schools, families, and communities of the affected children. The next step would be risk reduction, the creation of programs that target students at high risk of suffering from a malady or environment that decreased their ability to be successful in school. The third step would include early intervention. At this level, the team would create programs to treat mild cases of social and physical problems. The final step is consistent with current programs for which practitioners address the needs of individual students diagnosed with specific physical or mental health disorders.

Nastasi (2000) acknowledges that such a plan would require expansion of the knowledge base of practitioners and would change the view of school psychologists from scientists-practitioners to team members who take “a leadership role in the integration of theory, research, and practice related to comprehensive health care of children and adolescents” (p. 552). In any event, the author expects school psychologists to “assume a central position in orchestrating necessary systems changes and sustaining the health-care process” (p. 542).

Indeed, some communities are already undertaking such multi-level approaches. In Malta, school psychologists have been influenced by sociological approaches to the physical health issue of disability. More than 20 years ago, the sociologist Len Barton (1993, p. 20) argued that the issue of disability should be recognized “as a human rights issue and not one which relies on charity or favours of powerful groups” (as cited in Bartolo, 2010, p. 574).

In the U.K., community psychology is partnering with the longer established socially focused work of systemic therapy under the umbrella of "multi-systemic therapy," which is currently indicated to compensate for social exclusion:

> Multi Systemic Therapy (MST) is a family and community-based treatment programme for young people with complex clinical, social, and educational problems such as violent behaviour, drug abuse and school expulsion. MST therapists work in close partnership with the young person's family and community to strengthen protective factors known to reduce the risk of future offending and anti-social behaviour. (as cited in Bartolo, 2010, pp. 571-572).

Although a shift from a focus on individual assessment toward a more community-oriented approach for school psychologists may be slow in coming, some indicators do appear. For example, the locations from which school psychological services are delivered have shifted according with their missions. In those countries in which school psychologists provide services in both the community and schools (e. g., Ireland, Denmark, and the United Kingdom), they tend to maintain their offices in the community. In contrast, in countries that believe the missions of school psychology are principally restricted to education (e. g., France and Germany), their offices typically are located within schools (Oakland, 1997).

There has also been a shift in language. For example, within the European meta-code for psychologists (EFPA, 2005), the word "community" is used only once (and that in reference to a "psychological community") and the terms "social" or "society" do not occur at all. The Universal Declaration of Ethical Principles for Psychologists makes "society" a part of the title of one of its principles, referring to society as "collective peoples" as different from the individual (Gauthier, 2008, p. 6).

Cook, Jimerson, and Begeny (2010) indicate that school psychology gained international momentum in 1972 when the International Committee of School Psychologists was formed. The Committee formed the International School Psychology Association (ISPA) in 1982 (p. 440). Oakland and Cunningham (1992) estimated there were 87,000 school psychologists in more than 54 countries, including all countries in Western Europe and some in Eastern Europe (as cited in Oakland, 1997). At that time, the largest percentage was found in the United States, with large percentages also found in Denmark, France, Germany, Norway, Spain, Switzerland, Sweden, and the United Kingdom.

Sixteen years later, Jimerson, Skokut, Malone, and Stewart (2008) found that out of 192 countries in the United Nations, 83 showed some evidence of the existence of school psychologists (p. 135). This change indicates a better than 50% increase in the number of countries having school psychologists over the period from 1992 to 2008. Although the researchers used different methods to measure the presence of school psychology, the increase is significant. Nonetheless, the increasing number of countries with evidence of school psychology does not tell the entire story.

To begin with, the total number of school psychologists dropped to 76,100 in a more recent study (Jimerson, Stewart, Skokut, Cardenas, & Malone, 2009, p. 555). Also of concern, in 2008 Jimerson, Skokut, Malone, and Stewart found that the majority of the 2.2 billion children in the world do not have access to school psychology services. The following year, Jimerson, Skokut, Cardenas and Malone (2009) were more specific: "Of the 1.89 billion school-age children in the world (considering 12 years of education as the basis for school-age), 379 million children live in countries that do not have access to a school psychologist." Furthermore, approximately 939 million children in the world live in countries that have ratios of school psychologists to students greater than 1: 10,000, as compared to 572 million children living in countries with a ratio less than 1: 10,000 (pp. 562-563).

Also of interest is the observation that although the United States has the most school psychologists of any country, with 32,300 school psychologists (accounting for 42% of the total worldwide), Turkey, with 11,327 school psychologists, had the best student-psychologist ratio, with one school psychologist for every 1,267 students. The United States was second, with one practitioner for every 1,506 schoolchildren. Japan was third. These were the only three countries with ratios smaller than 1 to 5,000 (Jimerson, Stewart, Skokut, Cardenas, & Malone, 2009, p. 562).

In addition, the quality of the services can vary from country to country. In some countries, "the specialty of school psychology is robust and well established, with a long history of having school psychologists practicing in the schools.

In other countries, school psychology is in its infancy, becoming increasingly more established and visible every year. School psychology is yet to emerge in many other countries" (Cook, Jimerson, & Begeny, 2010, p. 440). For example, there are no school psychologists in Thai schools because there is not legal mandate for them, although there was a brief period in the 1980s when universities tried to offer school psychology programs (Tangdhanakanond & Dong, 2014). School psychology had a starting point in Korea in the 1980s, when U.S.-trained school psychologists helped create the country's first graduate level school psychology programs. However, as in Thailand, Korea has no working school psychologists because the title does not exist (Tangdhanakanond & Dong, 2014). Perceptions about the role of school psychology in both countries are also complicated by the fact that psychiatrists do assessments usually relegated to school psychologists in other countries.

Even in countries where the title exists, confusion about roles can continue. In a 1994 study in Greece, teachers did not think role of school psychologist was well articulated (Farrell, Jimerson, Kalambouka & Benoit, 2005, p. 529).

Regarding the increase in the number of countries with school psychology programs, Cook, Jimerson, and Begeny (2010) found a correlation between the evolution of school psychology around the world and the increasing number of countries that are becoming economically stable. The socioeconomic development of a country, according to the authors, accounted for 30% of the variance in the presence of school psychology. Another important factor was the weaving of human rights issues into "the cultural fabric of nations" (p. 458).

One way to assess the strength of school psychology outside the United States is to look at the research that school psychologists have been doing around the world. Jimerson (2014) noted, for instance, that of the 27 manuscripts published in the *School Psychology Quarterly* during 2013, four manuscripts were from authors outside of the United States (p. 2).

Earlier summaries of research from various countries published in *Professional School Psychology* indicate in an unscientific way the particular areas in which school psychologists from those countries might be interested. For example, while Chinese, Canadian, and German research tended to focus on assessment, researchers at Tel Aviv University and American University of Beirut had done studies on intelligence testing and validation. They also published research on crisis intervention and posttraumatic stress disorder, areas of concern that should come as no surprise given the troubled conditions in that part of the world.

In Australia, school psychology has experienced steady growth since the first psychologists were hired by education districts in south Australia in 1924 and in western Australia one year later (Anderson, Klassen, & Georgious, 2007). Recent research shows that school psychologists in western Australia are more consultation-focused and less assessment focused than most school psychologists in North American settings, and "more reluctant than their American counterparts to recommend special education placement" (Saigh, 1989, p. 128). Perhaps for that reason, Australian research also tends to focus less on assessment (Saigh, 1989).

Despite these perceived differences in focus among countries, Oakland (1997) stresses that the scope of services provided by school psychologists tends to be extensive within countries and relatively similar between countries (p. 2).

Other articles in publications devoted to school psychology have been devoted to a single country. For example, Jimerson, Alghorani, Darweish, and Abdelaziz (2010) published "School Psychology in Egypt" in *School Psychology International.* Egypt, with one of the densest populations in the world (2,000 persons per habitable square kilometer), established educational psychology services in 1929. Education legislation in the 1950s and 60s provided free compulsory education for all children between 6 and 12 years of age, lowering illiteracy from more than 70% in 1966 to 29% in 2006.

A school psychology training program was established in Egypt in 1934, and currently there are 44 educational psychology training programs in the country. Of particular interest is that research teams led by Jimerson in 2009 and 2010, respectively, showed a 2009 ratio of one school psychologist for every 5,000 students, but approximately 6,500 psychology specialists providing services to school age youth in 2010 — a ratio of one practitioner for every 3,080 students. One reason for such rapid growth could be that "the vast majority of school psychology specialists have bachelor degrees. The greatest proportion of their work involved counselling students, providing direct services to students, and providing primary prevention programs" (p. 219).

In fact, no respondents reported having a Ph.D. and only 19% indicated having a master's degree. Unlike their counterparts in other countries, the Egyptian school psychologists spend a lot less time with psychoeducational evaluations and more with counseling.

Looking to eastern Europe, a paper on school psychology in Estonia suggested the first psychologists did not begin to work in schools until 1975, due to a poorly developed applied psychology framework in the Soviet Union, of which Estonia was a part (Kikas, 1999). Independence in 1991 did not change the situation that much since the role of school psychologists was not well defined in the schools. The Ministry of Culture and Education set out new rules in regulations in the late 1990s, outlining the most ambitious service ration in the world at one school psychologist per 600 pupils (Kikas, 1999). The perception of school psychology services in Estonia dramatically changed in the 1990s, given that older pupils can refer themselves to school psychologists without any filtering by other school personnel (Kikas, 1999). Kikas (1999) concludes that the Estonian psychologists "work with pupils, as repairers mainly, but also as good friends" (p. 362). Ironically, Estonian school psychologists would like to perform more indirect kinds of services (Kikas, 1999, p. 363), the kind that a majority of school psychologists across the world are trying to reduce in their work schedules.

In summary, recent academic publications have highlighted an increased awareness of the globalization or internationalization of school psychology. However, while school psychology services appear to emerging to a limited degree in many countries around the globe, the majority of the world's 2.2 billion children do not have access to school psychology services (Oakland & Jameson, 2008). Based on data from a 2008 study by Jimerson, Skokut, Cardenas, Malone, and Stewart, among the 192 member states of the United Nations, 109 countries (57%) showed no evidence of school psychologists, compared to 83 countries (43%) that did. However, among the 43% countries that did show evidence of having school psychology professionals, only 29 (35%) required "school psychology" to be licensed; 56 countries (67%) had university programs that prepared school psychologists, and only 19 countries (23%) had university programs providing doctoral level preparation in the field. In some countries, the preparation of professionals who provide services characteristic of the profession of school psychology was clearly delineated, and the curriculum was focused on knowledge that was specific to fulfilling the responsibilities of school psychologists. In other countries, however, preparation appeared to be much broader, emphasizing basic foundations of psychology, with little emphasis on knowledge considered essential to the practice of school psychology. Some countries provided teachers with additional training in psychological foundations, such that these professionals served as mental health educators. Indeed, around the world the breadth of knowledge necessary for school psychologists relies upon contributions of child psychologists, developmental psychologists, cognitive psychologists, and other education-related doctoral scholars. It is clear that in many countries, few if any specifically trained school psychology scholars provide the knowledge that informs the practice and advances the field of school psychology (Jimerson et al., 2007).

Nonetheless, there is a clear need for school psychologists in the international arena. Globally, there are far too few school psychologists to serve potentially needy populations. For example, among the 20 nations with the world's largest populations, 80% do not offer any form of school psychological services. As of 2008, these countries were identified as China, India, Indonesia, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Russia Nigeria, Japan, Mexico, Philippines, Vietnam, Egypt, Ethiopia, Iran, Thailand, and the Democratic Republic of Congo (Thomas & Grimes, 2008). As stated earlier, globally an estimated 2.2 billion children lack access to school psychological services (Thomas & Grimes, 2008).

Conclusion

In order for the profession of school psychology to develop successfully, barriers must be overcome to assist students to actualize their potential. Any moves toward reforming the educational system to include more assessment of students, mainstreaming of students with cognitive and physical problems, prevention of problems that can lead to difficulties in school, and intervention for students who need special help will require psychologists to perform core responsibilities that are similar and shared throughout most countries, despite their different names or terms for the profession (Merrell, Ervin & Peacock, 2012).

As many scholars have documented, internal conditions within countries may influence the development of school psychology. Cook, Jimerson, and Begeny (2010) stated that cultural history, current economic conditions, geographic location, language, and national need can help determine the rate of progress.

Given the significant rate of its student population with learning disabilities, mental health concerns, autism, hearing impairments, and visual impairments, the promotion of health could benefit by a greater presence of school psychology as it reforms its educational system to serve these populations and integrate those with disabilities with their non-disabled peers (Rugh, 2002).

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