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This dissertation, PREPARING EFFECTIVE URBAN PRACTITIONERS: THE STUDY OF TWO URBAN-FOCUSED SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY GRADUATE TRAINING PROGRAMS, by KIRNEL DANIEL GRISHBY, was prepared under the direction of the candidate's Dissertation Advisory Committee. It is accepted by the committee members in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree, Doctor of Philosophy, in the College of Education & Human Development, Georgia State University.

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PREPARING EFFECTIVE URBAN PRACTITIONERS: THE STUDY OF TWO
URBAN-FOCUSED SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY GRADUATE TRAINING PROGRAMS

by

KIRNEL GRISHBY

Under the Direction of Dr. Stephen Truscott

ABSTRACT

For decades, school psychologists have been trained to obtain professional proficiency in competencies that address a broad spectrum of needs at the individual student and school-wide levels. However, urban education researchers posit that serving students from diverse backgrounds presents unique challenges not targeted specifically by traditional school psychology training programs. Limited research focuses on effective urban school psychology practice (USPP) and more specifically, practitioners serving schools that enroll predominantly minority students (Graves et al., 2014). As a result, there are gaps between what is needed to effectively serve students in high need urban schools and what most school psychologists are trained to do. Chapter One of this dissertation reviews the literature on USPP using an adaptation of Haberman's (1987) framework

for recruiting, selecting, and training effective urban teachers. Chapter Two is a mixed-methodology sequential explanatory design (SED) study to analyze four main components of two urban-focused school psychology training programs (UFSPTP) as they relate to effectively serving high need schools and student populations. It is guided by the following research questions: (1) How do urban-focused school psychology training programs prepare their students for effective urban practice? (2) In what ways do their programs of study compare to Haberman's (1987) framework for effective urban teacher training?

INDEX WORDS: High need urban schools, urban school psychology practice, urban-focused school psychology training programs, mixed-methodology, sequential explanatory design

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by

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A Dissertation

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Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in

School Psychology

in

Department of Counseling and Psychological Services

in

the College of Education & Human Development

Georgia State University

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2020

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1: URBAN SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY PRACTICE: ADAPTED FRAMEWORK FOR SELECTING AND TRAINING EFFECTIVE URBAN PRACTITIONERS

The percentage of culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) members of the United States (U.S.) population has increased markedly over the past several decades (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). While many members of CLD groups succeed and prosper, a disproportionate percentage of the CLD population faces daunting challenges including poverty, substance abuse, immigration, and neighborhood violence (Frankenberg, 2009; Hannon, 2016; Truscott & Truscott, 2005). Research indicates that these challenges are linked to inordinate societal and economic disadvantages affecting these communities (Lewis & Moore, 2008), which are often paralleled in the local schools (Hannon, 2016).

Urban educators employed in high need schools, including school psychologists (Graves, Proctor, & Aston, 2014; Truscott & Truscott, 2005), often work with student populations that are largely disenfranchised, and who, in addition to all the typical demands of academic and social growth, experience the daily challenges of poverty (Boutte, 2012; Graves et al., 2017). Effectively serving and managing the obstacles facing these high need students, their schools, and their communities is critical to the field, and in particular, to urban school psychology practice (USPP: Graves et al., 2014; Lopez & Bursztyn, 2013; Truscott & Truscott, 2005).

Considerable information is available regarding the general state of school psychology practice (e.g., Fagan & Wise, 2007; Jimerson, Oakland, & Farrell, 2006), as well as the mandates of national accrediting boards for school psychology training programs (American Psychological Association [APA], Division 16, 2017; National Association of School Psychologists [NASP], 2010; O'Donnell & Dunlap, 2014). However, we know little about the core skills, knowledge, personal demographic characteristics, or professional dispositions required for effective USPP.

Similarly, although some theoretical literature exists, we find no empirical research focused on how training programs should select graduate students with these personal background experiences and professional dispositions linked to effective urban practice, nor how programs should prepare students for successful USPP (Grishby, Williams, Kearney, & Truscott, 2016).

The lack of evidence about USPP and training is perplexing given that over 30% of the nation's school-age students attend schools in large urban centers (NCES, 2013) and that many of these students require extra support and guidance (Boutte, 2012; Graves et al., 2014; Stoiber & Vanderwood, 2008; Truscott & Truscott, 2005). This lack of evidence directly and negatively impacts the profession's ability to successfully serve urban high need schools (Lopez & Burszty, 2013; Milofsky, 1989; Newell et al., 2010; Truscott & Truscott, 2005). Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to: (a) review the literature on the challenges school psychologists and teachers encounter in high need urban schools; (b) review Haberman's (e.g., 1987) seminal work on recruiting, selecting, and training effective urban teachers, and (c) present an initial proposal to consider adapting Haberman's (1987) model to guide the selection and training of effective urban school psychologists, including careful attention to dispositions that may be associated with effective USPP.

Defining Urban

Defining urban communities. Urbanized communities are often characterized by a demographic makeup comprised of ethnic, socioeconomic, racial, cultural, and linguistic diversity (Howard & Milner, 2014). As defined by the U.S. Census Bureau (2010), urban regions contain at least 50,000 residents, house at least 1,000 people per square mile, and are bordered by areas with a minimum of 500 people per square mile. Data from the 2010 U.S. Census reveal that ap-

proximately 80.7% of the U. S. population is urban, with 71.2% of those inhabitants living in urbanized areas (as defined by the U.S. Census Bureau : 2013), many of which have high proportions of racial/ethnic minorities and immigrants (Boutte, 2012; Lee, 2005; Truscott & Truscott, 2005). For the purposes of this paper, minorities students include students who are Black, Hispanic, Asian, Pacific Islander, American Indian/Alaska Native, and of Two or more races (NCES, 2019).

Vibrant social and economic exchanges and frequent cross-cultural interactions are common in urban communities (Wilczenski, Cook, & Hayden, 2011), and can provide urban community members with opportunities resulting from rich contact with multiple racial/ethnic groups (Hannon, 2016; Lee, 2005; Wilczenski et al., 2011). However, these societal opportunities can be counter-balanced by socio-political challenges sometimes present in densely-populated communities (i.e., elevated crime and substance abuse, limited healthcare, tense cultural interfaces, increasing immigration, and varying property values; Frankenberg, 2009; Hannon, 2016; Holcomb-McCoy, 2005; Lee, 2005; Lewis & Moore, 2008; McCormick, Turbeville, Barnes, & McClowry, 2014; Truscott & Truscott, 2005).

Defining urban schools. Education researchers historically described urban schools as “inner city education... for predominantly poor communities populated chiefly by people of color” (Truscott & Truscott, 2005, p. 124). Many researchers continue to associate such schools with economic disadvantage, high population density, and racially and ethnically diverse populations of under-privileged students (Batts, 2012; Howard & Milner, 2014). For example, the University of Michigan’s Urban Education program found that urban schools are likely to enroll more than 25% of students who live in poverty and have higher rates of students from immigrant and CLD backgrounds when compared to suburban and rural schools (University of Michigan

Urban Education, 2015). More specifically, NCES (2019) reported that, in the Fall of 2015, “approximately 30 percent of public school students attended schools in which minority students comprised at least 75 percent of total enrollment. Over half of Hispanic, Black, and Pacific Islander students attended such schools”. Figure 1 shows the racial/ethnic percentage distribution of public elementary and secondary students enrolled in schools with at least 75 percent minority enrollment, by student race/ethnicity in the Fall of 2015 (NCES, 2019).

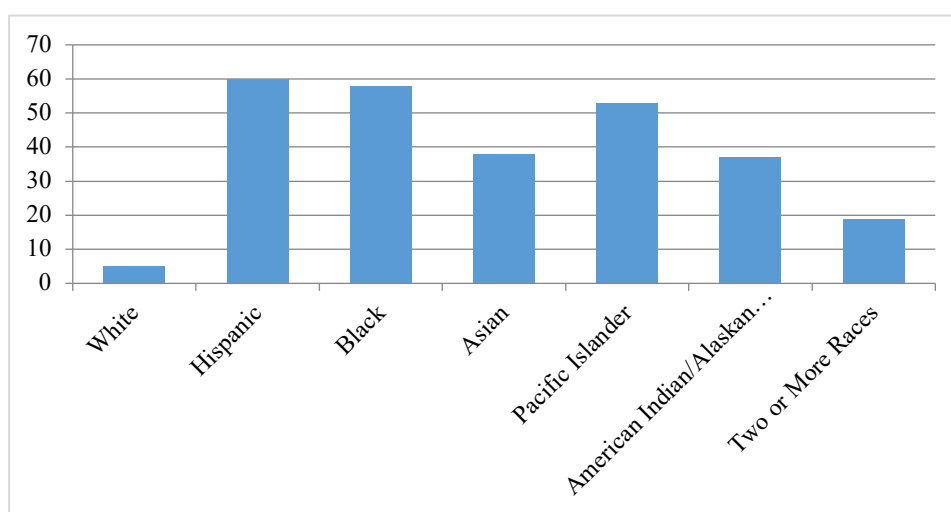


Figure 1. Race/Ethnicity of Public Elementary and Secondary Students

Source: NCES, 2013

Operationalizing urban schools. Despite the literature’s reliance on negative characteristics when describing urban schools, it is inaccurate to apply these reports broadly. Urban education researchers have found distinctive within-group differences regarding the configurations of urban school (Milner, 2012). For example, Milner’s (2012) typological framework operationalized urban schools into three subgroups; urban intensive, urban emergent, and urban characteristic. Milner (2012) defines urban intensive schools as those which are “concentrated in large, metropolitan cities across the United States, such as New York, Chicago, Los Angeles, and Atlanta (p. 559)”. These schools are nested in communities whose population exceeds 1 million

residents, and, subsequently, struggle to adequately meet the needs of their robust and diverse student populations. Urban emergent schools are those located in large cities (e.g., Nashville, Tennessee; Austin, Texas), but whose residential capacity is not as dense as those listed in the urban intensive subgroup. Such contexts share similar disparities, but at a lesser magnitude of need when compared to their more densely populated counterparts. Urban characteristic schools are defined as those not located in a densely or moderately populated communities, but which appear to experience numerous challenges commonly associated with urban schools located in larger communities. Milner (2012) attempted to delineate definitions of urban schools to better reflect the notion that environmental factors, such as housing, poverty, and transportation directly impact urban communities and their schools, in particular, those schools' ability to serve high percentages of impoverished and diverse learners. Therefore, for the purposes of this review, high need urban schools are operationally defined as those serving high populations of impoverished students who identify as racially, ethnically, and/or linguistically diverse (i.e., at least 50%) (Boutte, 2012; Milner, 2012; Moore & Lewis, 2012).

Impact of institutionalized oppression on urban communities and schools. Any thoughtful examination of urban education in the U.S. must consider the impact of institutionalized oppression on urban communities and schools, in particular, for minority and CLD student populations. One clear theme across the urban school literature is appropriately serve child populations with the most need but whom have access to the least resources (e.g., Jacob, 2007; Truscott & Truscott, 2005). Addressing this fundamental problem may begin by analyzing the complex societal and environmental influences currently facing urban communities and schools (Hannon, 2016; Howard & Milner, 2014; Milner, 2012) and the longstanding inequity and institutional oppression of minority and marginalized groups who live in urban communities (i.e.,

economic disadvantage, political marginalization, racism, classism) (Carroll Massey, Vaughn Scott, & Dornbusch, 1975). For example, research established the historic injustice and discrimination regarding African Americans' access to education (Carroll Massey et al., 1975). This injustice dates to slavery when the ruling White society feared that educating African slaves would encourage their consciousness and independence. Slave masters and plantation owners feared that such shared knowledge would empower slaves to revolt (Carroll Massey et al., 1975). Anyone, particularly Black teachers and preachers, who promoted reading and writing among slaves was subjected to public persecution (including whipping and torture). This doctrine persisted past the Civil War and later led to deliberately inadequate (i.e., *Plessey v. Ferguson*, 1896) access to education. Thus, inadequate education for minorities has permeated American society for centuries and contributed to keeping marginalized populations, their communities, and their schools at the bottom of the socio-economic ladder (Boutte, 2012; Hodgkinson et al., 2017).

Despite the long and established history of oppression, descriptions of urban communities and their marginalized inhabitants have long been “deficit-based,” implying that the minority groups themselves are at fault for the economic disenfranchisement and academic underachievement they experience (Barton, 2001; Gorski, 2008). However, this attribution is inaccurate, simplistic, and inequitable. Centuries of systemic and institutionalized oppression have manifested as well-documented challenges facing the student populations served in many urban schools and the professionals who work in these settings (Batts, 2012; Blanchett, 2010; Boutte, 2012; Graves et al., 2014; Moore & Lewis, 2012; Popp, Grant, & Stronge, 2011; Truscott & Truscott, 2005). But correlation is not causation, and the solutions do not rest entirely in urban residents “pulling themselves up by their bootstraps.”

Urban education researchers have repeatedly documented issues related to working in urban school districts with limited resources (Graves et al., 2014; Howard & Milner 2014; Milofsky, 1989; Truscott et al., 2014). In fact, the literature boasts many excellent reviews of the challenges facing urban education in the U.S. based on large data sets, research reviews, and compelling qualitative descriptions (e.g., Boutte, 2012; Darling-Hammond, 2000; Howard & Milner, 2014; Ladson-Billings, 2009). Some of these are specific to school psychology (e.g., Graves et al., 2014; Milofsky, 1989; Truscott & Truscott, 2005). It is not our intention to review that information in its entirety. However, because this manuscript focuses on the practice of urban school psychology, it is important that we provide a brief review of some key challenges facing urban schools impacted by longstanding systemic oppression and serving populations that are marginalized and disenfranchised. These include, but are not limited to (a) understanding poverty and its impact on the education of impoverished students of minority backgrounds, (b) acknowledging immigration in urban communities, and the complexities of educating large populations of CLD/Limited-English Proficient (LEP) students, and (c) understanding the bureaucratic nature of large school districts that are chronically underfunded. After some relevant definitions, we will present information on all three issues.

Poverty

Impoverished students. Data show that urban students experience higher rates of poverty compared to their suburban and rural peers (Batts, 2012; Graves et al., 2014). The proportion of urban school-aged children living with economic disadvantage is even higher using the guidelines for government assistance (U.S. Department of Agriculture, 2017). Eligibility for many government assistance programs (i.e., National School Breakfast and Lunch Program) is determined by the Federal income poverty guidelines, which vary based on household size (U.S.

Department of Agriculture, 2017). For example, in 2017, to meet the federal poverty guidelines, a family of four could earn no more than \$24,600.00 before taxes (U.S. Department of Agriculture: USDA, 2019). Based on this annual household income, students receive free or reduced-price meals if their families earn at or below 130% (\$31,980) and 185% (\$45,510) of the official poverty income threshold, respectively (U.S. Department of Agriculture, 2017).

The National School Breakfast and Lunch Program is a federally funded government assistance program available to poor children and families that is utilized by a disproportionate number of urban students (U.S. Department of Agriculture, 2017). This program aims to fight hunger and obesity by providing healthy meals to qualified children. According to the NCES (2011), in general, approximately 48% and 43% of the nation's elementary and middle school students, respectively, receive free or reduced meal services. Yet, data show that between 47% and 100% of minority students attending urban school districts receive free or reduced-priced school breakfast and lunch (NCES, 2011).

Figure 2 presents free and reduced lunch eligibility data reported by five of the largest public urban school districts for the Fall 2013 school year. These data indicate that a substantial majority (i.e., at least 50%) of urban students and their families experience significant financial difficulty. Further, based on their annual household incomes, a sizable proportion qualify for other services (U.S. Department of Agriculture, 2017) such as Head Start, some parts of Medicaid/Medicare, the Children's Health Insurance Program (U.S. Department of Health & Human Services, 2017), and low-income government-supported housing (e.g., Section 8 low-income housing assistance) (U.S. Department of Health & Human Services, 2017).

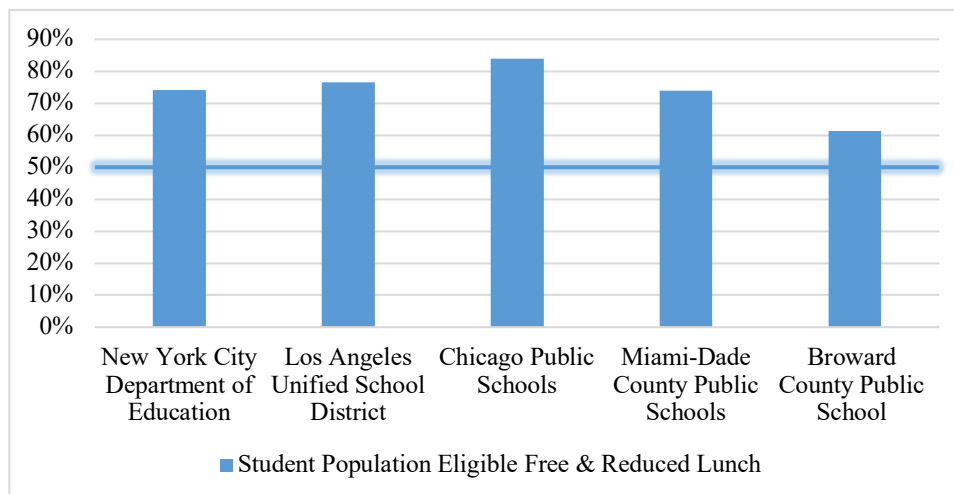


Figure 2. Percentage of Free & Reduced Lunch Eligibility for Five of the Largest Public Urban School Districts

Source: NCES, 2015

1. http://www.nyskwic.org/get_data/indicator_profile.cfm?subIndicatorID=52
2. <http://www.ed-data.org/district/Los-Angeles/Los-Angeles-Unified>
3. <http://medasf.org/chicago-public-school-students-get-free-meals-school/>
4. <http://oada.dadeschools.net/SH1314.pdf>
5. <http://education-places.startclass.com/l/1276/Broward-County-FL>

According to Julius and Bawane (2011), poverty is not only “the absence of financial resources, it is also the lack of capability to function effectively in society” (p. 72). As previously discussed, the economic disadvantage experienced by many minority populations can be linked directly to the longstanding systemic and institutionalized oppression (i.e., racism) present in urban communities, which in-turn directly impacts the quality of life afforded to marginalized youth (e.g., Gorski, 2013). For example, data show that high proportions of impoverished urban students are raised in under-resourced and single-parent homes (U.S. Census Bureau, 2017), lack adequate nutrition, have limited access to books and leisure equipment/activities, have inconsistent internet connections, wear ill-fitting clothing and shoes, experience fewer opportunities to participate in school/leisure trips and events (Healey, 2014), receive inadequate prenatal care, have higher exposure to pollutants, and receive limited child-development resources (e.g., child care centers, playgrounds, parks: Blazer, 2009).

Compared to suburban students, many impoverished urban students are also more likely to experience negative social-emotional outcomes. For example, many racial/ethnic minority youth living in low-income communities experience at least one potentially traumatic event (PTE) prior to adulthood (Finkelhor, Ormrod, & Turner, 2009; McLaughlin et al., 2013), and experience high rates of interpersonal PTEs such as family violence, physical assault, physical abuse, sexual assault, and neglect (Crouch et al., 2000; Drake & Pandey, 1996; Turner, Finkelhor, & Ormrod, 2006). Yet, despite high rates of PTE in low-income areas, when compared to their suburban counterparts, urban youth are less likely to receive appropriate treatment for such social-emotional difficulties by a mental health service provider because of challenges such as inconsistent transportation and inadequate medical insurance (Hodgkinson, Godoy, Beers, & Lewin, 2017; National Advisory Mental Health Council Workgroup on Child and Adolescent Mental Health Intervention Development and Employment, 2001; New Freedom Commission on Mental Health, 2003).

Academic performance of impoverished students. The multifaceted challenges of poverty require many urban students and their families to prioritize basic needs over education (Blazer, 2009; Truscott & Truscott, 2005). Because their basic needs are often unmet, impoverished minority students are more likely to move throughout the school year (Blazer, 2009), be absent due to poor health and the lack of adequate and affordable healthcare, (Hodgkinson et al., 2017; University of Michigan Urban Education, 2015), and be disengaged due to low teacher expectations and a perceived lack of parental involvement (Boutte, 2012). The need for these families to prioritize basic needs begins before formal education and can result in urban children who enter school lacking the necessary skills to be successful in structured educational settings (NCES, 2017).

These challenges directly impact education. More specifically, although some minority students who experience significant economic disadvantage are resilient and rise above such financial difficulties (Brown & Tylka, 2011; Petty, Fitchett, & O'Connor, 2012), the majority of underserved and marginalized minority children have less favorable outcomes. For example, research conducted with the National Assessment of Educational Progress data (NAEP) found that “half of public-schooled eighth-grade students in large central city areas score below basic level in mathematics (compared with one third nationwide)” ... and that “two thirds or more of urban students score below basic level in Atlanta, Los Angeles, and the District of Columbia” urban areas with large racial ethnic minority populations (U.S. Census Bureau, 2013). MacIver and MacIver (2009) reported that “a gap of 30–40% exists between these [urban] students and their more advantaged counterparts” (p. 223). Research also shows that children living in poverty are less likely to be proficient in reading by 8th grade, compared to children who are not poor (Murnane & Steele, 2007).

Further, data on early literacy rates reveal that, in some cases, environmental stress in impoverished urban neighborhoods can cause slow cognitive, social, and emotional development (Potts, 2014). Diminished development exacerbates achievement gaps between poor and more affluent children; gaps that increase over time. These deficits often manifest in an array of unfavorable outcomes, including student disengagement, academic failure, and increased rates of drop-out, unemployment, and generational poverty (Christofferson & Callahan, 2015; National Center for Education Statistics, n.d.). Such inadequacies are linked to achievement gaps between high need urban students and their higher performing peers (Wright, 2012), and leave many urban students with an education that is many ways inferior to that of their suburban counterparts (Batts, 2012; Truscott & Truscott, 2005).

Immigration in Urban Communities

Immigration is increasing in urban communities (Department of Homeland Security, 2017; U.S. Census Bureau, n.d.). For example, in 2016 alone, 753,060 people became naturalized U. S. citizens, many of whom now live in metropolitan areas with large minority and CLD populations (Department of Homeland Security, 2017). Like various other financially challenged groups, many newly naturalized citizens are attracted to metropolitan areas that offer employment opportunities, accessible public transportation, and affordable housing (Haberman, 2003; Truscott & Truscott, 2005).

Linguistic diversity in urban communities. Increased immigration in densely populated metropolitan areas has resulted in many residents whose native or primary language is not English (U.S. Census Bureau, 2013). For example, data show that many metropolitan areas have high percentages of Spanish-speaking residents (e.g., Los Angeles, Long Beach, New York, New Jersey, Long Island, Miami: U.S. Census Bureau, 2013). Figure 3 shows the percentage of residents ages five and older that spoke a language other than English at home between 2009-2013 in five of the largest metropolitan areas (U.S. Census Bureau, 2015).

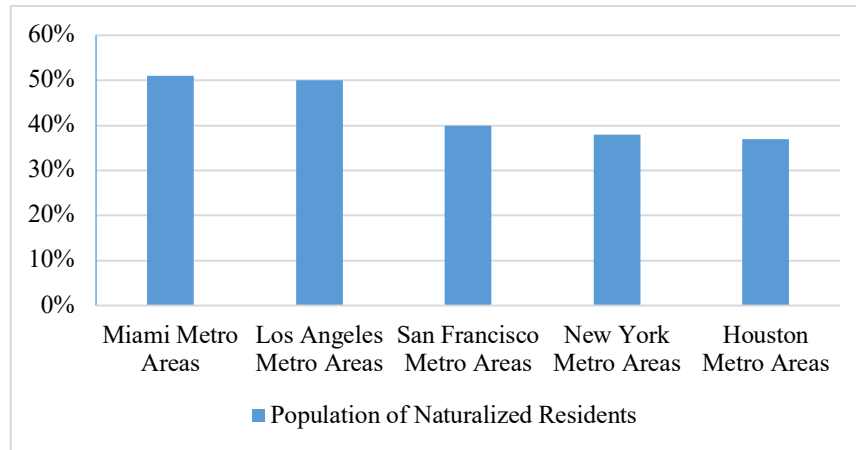


Figure 3. Percentage of Population Ages Five and Older that Speak a Language other than English at Home from 2009-2013 in Five of the Largest Metropolitan Areas
Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 2015

Educating English language learners and limited-English proficient students. Urban schools now serve increasingly high proportions of immigrant students who are also English Language Learners (ELL), with percentages rising from 8% in 2008 to 10% in 2010 (NCES, 2012). The 2010 U.S. Census found that over six million school-aged children ages 5-14 spoke Spanish at home, with approximately 23.8% of these respondents speaking English less than “very well” (U.S. Census Bureau, 2013). As a result, many ELL students have trouble learning academic content when presented primarily in English, which is often the case (Hachfeld et al., 2015).

ELL students entering urban schools are often labeled as Limited-English Proficient (LEP) (NCES, 2012), which NCES defines as “those students whose native or dominant language is other than English and who have sufficient difficulty speaking, reading, writing, or understanding the English language as to deny them the opportunity to learn successfully in an English-speaking only classroom” (NCES, 1996 p. 1). Figure 4 shows the percentage, by region, of public-school students from urban, suburban, and rural school districts with LEP in the 2011-

2012 school year (NCES, 2012). As is evident in Figure 4, LEP student populations have a substantial impact on urban schools in every region of the US.

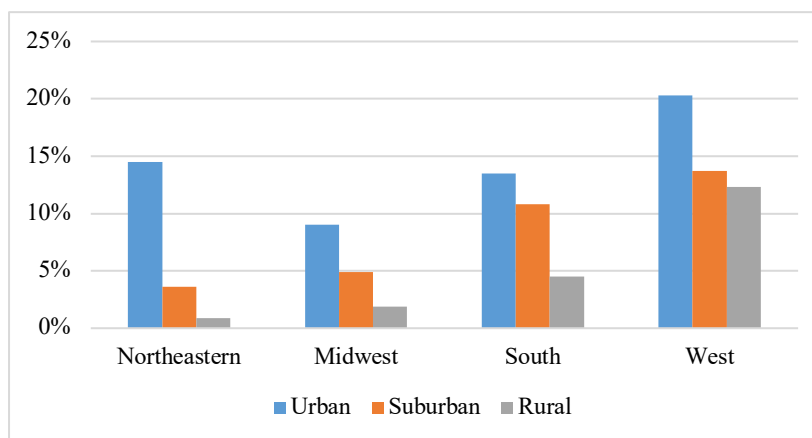


Figure 4. Percentage of LEP Students Enrolled in Urban, Suburban, and Rural Schools by Region
Source: NCES, 2012

Acculturation and academic performance of ELL/LEP urban students. ELL/LEP students must learn cultural, social-emotional, and behavioral norms and expectations to be successful in school. They often must learn these expectations from school personnel (i.e., teachers, school psychologists) who represent the dominate U.S. societal norms, but who may neither know much about their students' respective cultures (Leon, 2014) nor be trained in accommodating students whose native language is not English (Hachfeld et al., 2015). In addition to the pressures of acculturating into a new country and community, many ELL/LEP students are evaluated using standardized tests that are presented in a language that they do not speak fluently (Hachfeld et al., 2015; U.S. Census Bureau, 2013).

The challenge of having to learn academic behaviors and expectations from school personnel who are not well equipped to teach them results in many ELL/LEP students who fall behind their English-speaking peers (Hachfeld et al., 2015; NAEP, 2013). For example, in 2013, only 31% of fourth and eighth grade ELL students obtained reading and math scores at or above

the basic level, compared to 72% and 75% of their non-ELL fourth and eighth grade peers, respectively (NAEP, 2013). Figures 5 and 6 show the percentages of ELL versus non-ELL students who attended school in eight states with the largest urban student populations (U.S. Census Bureau, 2013), and who scored at or above the basic level for 4th grade reading and 8th grade math, respectively in 2013 (NAEP, 2013).

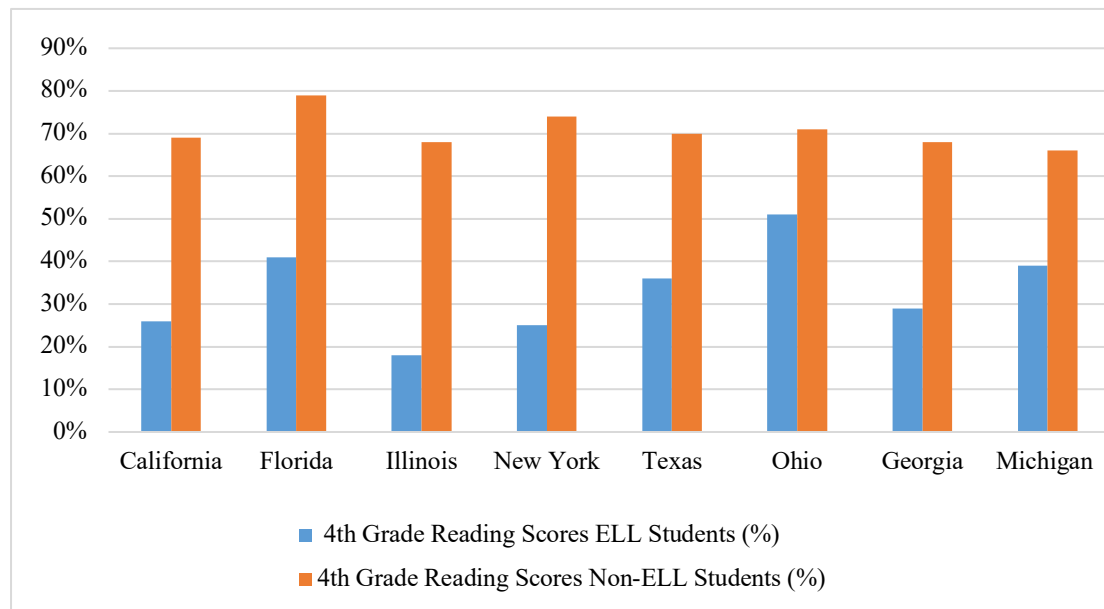


Figure 5. Percentage of ELL -vs- Non-ELL 4th Grade Reading Scores At or Above Basic Level in Eight States with the Largest Urban Populations
Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 2010; NAEP, 2013

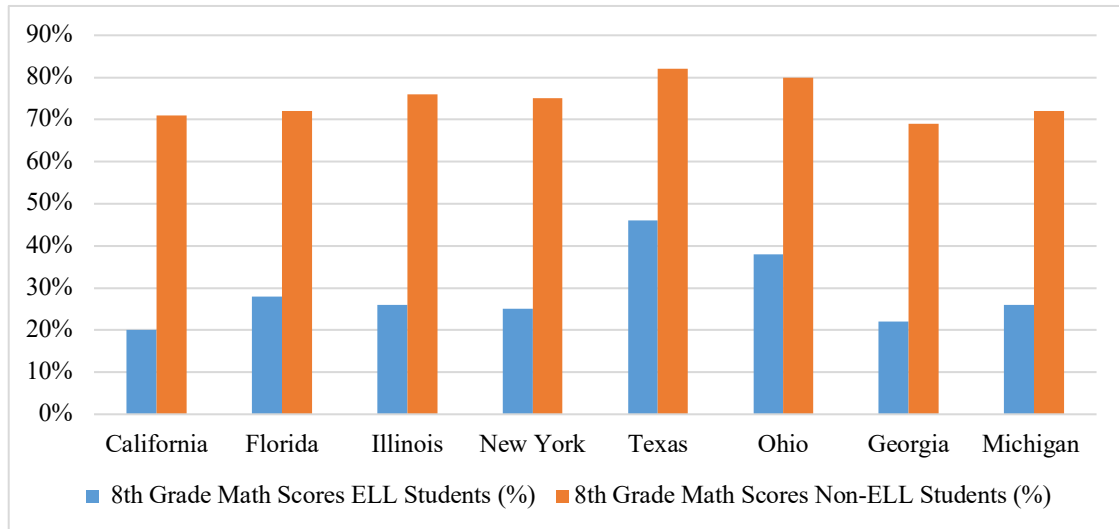


Figure 6. Percentage of ELL -vs- Non-ELL 8th Grade Math Scores At or Above Basic Level in Eight States with the Largest Urban Populations
Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 2010; NAEP, 2013

NAEP (2013) and NCES (2012) statistics demonstrate that many ELL/LEP students struggle to succeed in U.S. schools, particularly those located in urban areas with substantial populations of impoverished, immigrant, and CLD students (Department of Homeland Security, 2017; NCES, 2015; U.S. Census Bureau, 2013). Such deficits are exacerbated by the expanding variety of languages spoken in urban communities (U.S. Census Bureau, 2013), which further stresses the quality and efficacy of available ELL supports. Further, despite a push to integrate the linguistic and cultural diversity evident for many ELL students (Iddings, Combs, & Moll, 2014), data continue to raise concerns regarding ELL/LEP students' ability to succeed academically; particularly, in high need and culturally diverse schools that lack the resources and personnel to provide access to culturally-relevant education (Hachfeld et al., 2015). This combination of schools with limited resources, few high-quality educational opportunities, and student populations with multiple environmental challenges (i.e., limited parental involvement due to language barriers and lower levels of education, poverty, immigration status) hinders the academic progress of many ELL students (Hachfeld et al., 2015).

Funding in Urban Schools

There are many ways to investigate funding disparities in public education. Federal funding provided per pupil is often examined, but Jacob (2007) posits that researchers who consider only federal funding per student are misled because they discount that the majority of public school funding comes from state and local sources. Relying on federal funding data alone “mask[s] the extent of the disparities [in high need urban areas] because they do not account for regional differences in the cost of living. They also fail to distinguish between the most and least under-resourced urban schools” (Jacob, 2007, p. 133). Further, although federal funding is important, data show that it only accounts for a small portion of the overall budget for public schools (Lee, 2012; Musu-Gillette & Cornman, 2016). For example, in the 2012-2013 school year, federal, local, and state funding accounted for 9%, 46%, and 45% of all public-school budgets, respectively (NCES, 2015).

Chronically under-funded urban schools. An established body of research documents the needs of impoverished and immigrant students attending public urban schools (summarized above. See Batts, 2012; Newell et al., 2010 for extended discussion), as well as the challenges such schools face when attempting to adequately educate these student populations (Boutte, 2012; Graves et al., 2014; NCES, 2013). Despite the known and critical levels of need, data continue to show that inadequate funding is available for public urban schools compared to many public suburban and rural schools (Carey, 2004; Lee & Wong, 2004; Lee, 2012; NCES, 2016; Smart Prosperity Institute, 2017). Specifically, many urban schools face significant difficulty obtaining sufficient local funding (Jacob, 2007; Truscott & Truscott, 2005).

Consequently, the perpetual deficit in local funding causes urban schools to rely heavily on federal and state funding (Jacob, 2007), which many researchers contend should be, but is not, increased to be commensurate with the needs of impoverished urban student populations

(e.g., Lee, 2012). Data on state expenditures for the 2012 fiscal year indicated that there was little difference in the amount of state funding provided to low-minority (i.e., comprised of greater than 50% White enrollment) compared to high-minority (i.e., comprised of greater than 50% minority enrollment) school districts (Klein, 2017; NCES, 2012). Figure 7 shows the 2012 fiscal year state expenditures per pupil (excluding federal sources) in the four states with the largest urban school districts.

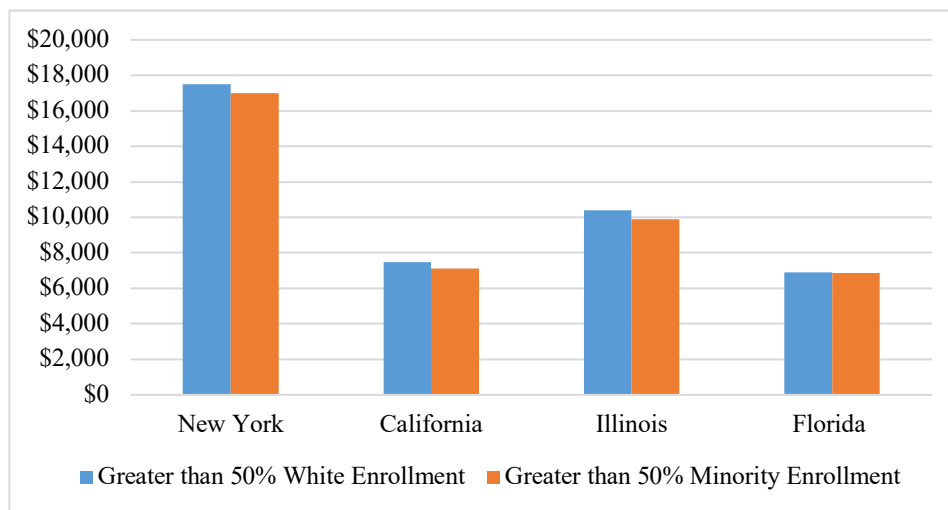


Figure 7. State Expenditures Per Pupil in Four States with the Largest Urban School Districts, Fiscal Year 2012
Source: NCES, 2012

Impact of chronic underfunding on urban students. Essentially equivalent state funding for high and low minority school districts is particularly disconcerting considering that racial or ethnic minority students are more likely to live in poverty (Batts, 2012; Graves et al., 2014), more likely to need educational supports, and more likely to attend over-crowded and under-resourced urban schools (NCES, 2013; University of Michigan Urban Education, 2015). Unfortunately, an inadequate allotment of funding in urban schools has been evident for decades (Wright, 2012), and such deficits continue to disadvantage urban schools by limiting the resources available to make meaningful differences in their students' lives (Turner, NPR, 2016).

For example, chronically underfunded urban schools are often unable to hire and retain enough certified core subject teachers (Jacob, 2007), which forces them to rely heavily on long-term substitutes and/or under-qualified teachers. These unprepared teachers must then teach overcrowded classrooms of students who experience ever increasing rates of academic, behavioral, and social emotional concerns (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Durham-Barnes, 2011; Jacob, 2007; Petty, Fitchett, & O'Connor, 2012).

Limited state and local funding also negatively impacts the quality of education provided to impoverished and CLD students by causing many high need urban schools to forgo other educational support personnel, such as nurses, custodians, school counselors, school psychologists, and non-core subject teachers (e.g., art, music, foreign language: Jacob, 2007; Turner, NPR, 2016), all of whom deliver necessary support services to their high need students (e.g., mentoring, counseling, coaching, supervising extracurricular activities). Therefore, one can posit that inadequate funding for high need urban schools directly impacts urban educators' ability to address the unique challenges of their impoverished and CLD student population (Batts, 2012; Boutte, 2012; Graves et al., 2014), and further exacerbates the achievement gap between high need urban students and their more affluent peers (MacIver & MacIver, 2009; Murnane & Steele, 2007; Wright, 2012).

Impact of Urban Schools on Urban Teachers and School Psychologists

To be effective, urban teachers and school psychologists serving predominantly impoverished and CLD student populations must be prepared to address students with high levels of need in schools with limited resources (Batts, 2012; Graves et al., 2014). Researchers support the notion that student achievement is often a direct reflection of the quality of education that is af-

forded (e.g., Lee, 2012). Yet, the bureaucratic and chronically underfunded nature of urban education in the current climate of outcome-driven educational reform (i.e., demands for increasing standardized test scores with limited resources) often leads to unfavorable outcomes for urban students and schools (Haberman, 2003; Lee, 2012; Leon, 2014; Petty et al., 2012; Truscott & Truscott, 2005; Wright, 2012).

Challenges in urban teaching. Urban teachers experience distinct challenges unfamiliar to their suburban and rural counterparts (Boutte, 2012). Among other things, researchers report that urban teachers regularly face large class sizes of high need students, persistent behavior problems, and high rates of student absenteeism (Batts, 2012; Boutte, 2012; Dorman, 2012; Durham-Barnes, 2011; Holcomb-McCoy, 2005; Howard & Milner, 2014; Leon, 2014; Milner, 2012; Petty et al., 2012). Many of these challenges can be traced to historic, systemic, and institutionalized oppression (Carroll Massey et al., 1975), and make facing such situations day-to-day very daunting. Yet, the challenges have been documented for decades (e.g., Haberman, 1987), and remain salient as researchers attempt to better understand the impacts of poverty, immigration, and chronic underfunding on urban teachers. Table 1 presents a list of the most common urban teaching challenges identified in the literature. This list is subjective rather than exhaustive, as additional challenges may exist.

Table 1
List of Challenges Commonly Reported in Urban Teaching Literature

-
- Impoverished students
 - High rates of trauma and violence in students' home/neighborhoods
 - High rates of student absenteeism
 - Low student graduation rates
 - Large class sizes
 - Under-resourced schools
 - Lack of support from other school personnel and parents
 - Frequent hiring of un-certified and/or long-term substitute teachers
 - Inadequate training in best practices for teaching CLD students
-

Note. Batts, 2012; Boutte, 2012; Howard & Milner, 2014; Leon, 2014; Milner, 2012

Effective Urban Teaching (Haberman, 1987; 1995; Haberman & Post, 1998)

Haberman, a pioneer in urban education research, conducted an in-depth analysis of education in the 1980s, including a mixed-method investigation of effective urban teaching practices linked to whether teacher training programs included attention to those practices (Haberman, 1987). Although his initial findings are decades old (i.e., 1987) and have evolved (e.g., 1995, 1998), they remain relevant today (Boutte, 2012) and have resulted in substantive efforts to improve the quality of teachers serving impoverished youth. One of Haberman's key conclusions was that effective urban teachers possessed dispositions comprised of personal demographic characteristics (see Table 3 below) that linked directly to professional values, beliefs, behaviors, and experiences (see Table 2 below) needed to negotiate the challenges encountered in high need schools.

As a result of this work, Haberman (1987) posited that teacher preparation programs should adopt criteria to recruit and select teacher-trainees who embodied the personal dispositions of effective urban teachers (Haberman & Post, 1998). Programs could then cultivate these teacher-trainees' understanding and execution of their professional dispositions and practices. For the purposes of this paper, dispositions of effective urban teaching practice are defined as the

“attributes and behaviors [used in daily practice] of successful practicing urban teachers” (Haberman, 1987, p. 48), as well as their beliefs and values, which are willful, not forced, and lead to action on the behalf of children (Carroll, 2007; Katz, 1993, 2002). We contend that Haberman’s findings about urban teachers and urban teacher training programs are relevant to school psychology. In particular, we will focus on three key elements that Haberman (1987) and Haberman and Post (1998) identified (see Figure 8), which include: (a) defining dispositions, (b) recruiting and selecting suitable applicants, and (c) implementing critical graduate level training components for effective urban teaching practice. Each element is discussed below.

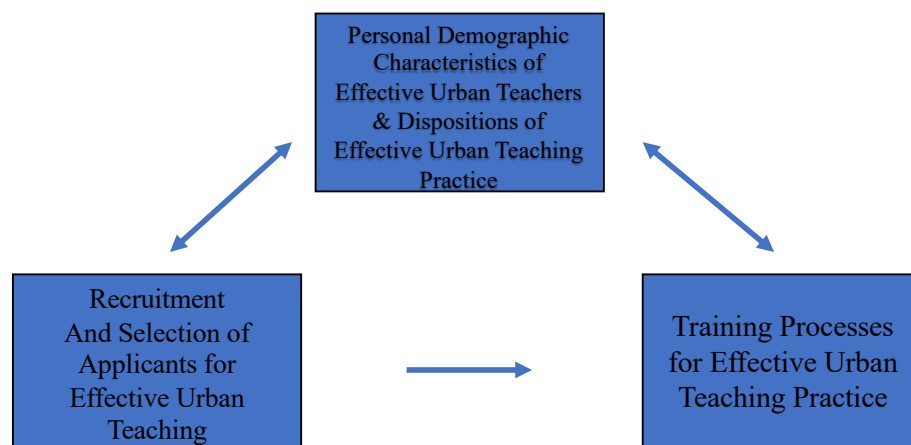


Figure 8. Three Key Elements of Effective Urban Teaching Practice
Source: Haberman, 1987

Dispositions of effective urban teaching practice. Haberman’s findings included a comprehensive qualitative analysis of practicing urban teachers and revealed several key dispositions linked to effective practice: (a) the will and ability to continuously plan new and/or improve instructional activities, (b) the will to work in, with, and around school authorities, (c) the ability to apply research generalizations, principles, and findings to their classrooms, (d) the acceptance of and respect for at-risk students, and (e) the understanding of why they sought to teach urban children and youth (Haberman, 1987). Haberman’s theoretical framework (e.g.,

1987) included applied and observable descriptions of daily behaviors and practices linked to these dispositions (e.g., Haberman, 1995; Haberman & Post, 1998). In turn, this work sparked additional research on the role of dispositions in successful urban teaching (e.g., Freeburg & Workman, 2010; Misco & Shiveley, 2007; Ritchhart & Perkins, 2000; Strickland et al., 2003).

Currently, most researchers agree that attention to dispositions is relevant to effective teaching in high need schools (Bogges, 2010; Hollins, Kolis, McIntyre, Stephens, & Battalio, 2010), and that operationalizing these behaviors and beliefs into observable and replicable behaviors yields improved instruction for urban students (Bonner, 2014; Denton, Foorman, & Mathes, 2003; Dorman, 2012; Gay, 2002; Ladson-Billings, 1995; 2009). Students of teachers displaying these characteristics exhibit increased reading and mathematics skills, and minority students exhibit positive perceptions of their self-identity (Bonner, 2014; Denton et al., 2003; Ladson-Billings, 2009). Table 2 includes a list and brief definitions of specific dispositions now associated with effective urban teaching practice. This list is not exhaustive, as additional dispositions may exist (see Carr & Claxton, 2002; Haberman & Post, 1998; Usher, 2002; 2004; Usher, Usher, & Usher, 2003 for more comprehensive descriptions of each disposition listed).

Table 2
List of Dispositions Associated with Effective Urban Teaching Practice

Article	Dispositions
Carr & Claxton, 2002	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resiliency: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Teacher persists, tolerates frustration, and recovers from setbacks and disappointments • Playfulness: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Teacher uses mindfulness, imagination, and experimentation
Haberman, 1995	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Persistence: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Teacher continues to find new or different ways to solve seemingly unending problems • Response to Authority: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Teacher demonstrates composure when criticized by his/her principal (or other authority), and can reconcile differences to effectively advocate for the needs of his/her students • Application of Generalizations: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Teacher derives meaning from their teaching to move between the general and the specific, and vice versa • Approach to “At-Risk” Youth: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Teacher acknowledges the societal conditions that contribute to students' problems with school, and bears a primary responsibility for sparking their students' desire to learn • Professional Versus Personal Orientation to Students: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Teacher separates personal feelings, particularly towards students who exhibit negative/difficult behaviors, from his/her belief that these students can/will learn • Burnout: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Teacher knows how to protect themselves from an interfering bureaucracy • Fallibility: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Teacher accepts their own mistakes, and the mistakes of students
Haberman & Post, 1998	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-knowledge: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Teacher has a thorough understanding of his/her own cultural roots and group affiliations • Self-acceptance:

- Teacher fosters self-confidence and pride of group identity by demonstrating a confident acceptance of their own
- Relationship Skills:
 - Teacher works with diverse children and adults who are different from his/herself respectfully and caringly
- Community Knowledge:
 - Teacher is knowledgeable of the cultural heritages of his/her students and their families
- Empathy:
 - Teacher has a deep and abiding sensitivity and appreciation of their students' perception, understanding, and explanation of their world
- Cultural Human Development:
 - Teacher understands how the local community influences development
- Cultural Conflicts:
 - Teacher understands and deals with issues regarding the discrepancies between values of local community groups and the traditional American values espoused in schools
- Relevant Curriculum:
 - Teacher is knowledgeable of connections between general societal values and culture groups in the community, and the skills needed to implement this knowledge
- Generating Sustained Effort:
 - Teacher has a knowledge and set of implementation skills that will engage his/her students from the local community to persist with schoolwork
- Coping with Violence:
 - Teacher has skills for preventing and de-escalating violence, and demonstrates forms of conflict resolution based on criteria other than power
- Self-analysis:
 - Teacher engages in systematic self-reflection, and develops and implements plans for professional development that impact their classrooms
- Functioning in Chaos:
 - Teacher possess skills to cope with a disorganized environment, and can function effectively despite the irrationality of his/her school bureaucracies

Usher, 2002; 2004;
Usher, Usher, & Usher,
2003

- Empathy:
 - Teacher respects perspective of the learner
 - Positive Views of Others:
 - Teacher believes in the worth, ability and potential of others
 - Positive View of Self:
 - Teacher possesses a fundamentally positive sense of self-adequacy, capability and dependability
 - Authenticity:
 - Teacher melds personal uniqueness with culturally responsive interactions
 - Meaningful Purpose and Vision:
 - Teacher commits to growth for all learners
-

Personal demographic characteristics of effective urban teachers. Haberman's & Post's (1998) work focused on effective teachers' personal experiences and demographic characteristics. They recruited experienced teachers who were successful in diverse schools with the most challenging conditions (e.g., academic underperformance, limited resources, overcrowding, gang violence). In other words, Haberman & Post (1998) studied what they described as "the best and the brightest [teachers] for culturally diverse children in urban poverty (p. 101)." One critical finding was that these educators possessed similar personal demographic characteristics *prior* to entering the field (see Table 3). Haberman & Post (1998) argued that these traits were correlated directly with the dispositions listed in Table 2, and that all of them worked together to enable urban teachers' success. Table 3 lists the personal demographic characteristics that Haberman and Post (1998) identified, however, this list is not exhaustive, as other background experiences may exist.

Table 3
Personal Demographic Characteristics of Effective Urban Teachers

An individual who:

- Did not decide to teach until after graduation
 - Tried (and succeeded) at several jobs or careers
 - Is between 30 and 50 years of age
 - Attended an urban high school
 - Has raised several children, is a parent, or has had close, in-depth, meaningful relations with children and youth
 - Currently lives in the city and plans to continue to do so
 - Teaches in an urban school system
 - Does not believe “kids are kids” but comprehends and appreciates how cultural forces impact human development
 - Has had personal and continuing experiences with violence and of living “normally” in a violent community and city
 - Majored in just about anything at the university
 - May or may not have had an above-average grade point average
 - Expects to visit the home of the children
 - Has some awareness of or personal experience with a range of health and human services available in the urban area
 - Expects that the school bureaucracy will be irrational and intrusive
 - Is likely not to be of Euro-American background, but a person of color
 - Is likely to be sensitive to, aware of, and working on ones’ own racism, sexism, classism, or other prejudices
-

Note. Haberman & Post, 1998

Urban teacher recruitment and selection. In contrast to these identified demographic characteristics conducive to effective urban education (Haberman & Post, 1998), Haberman (1987) found that the majority of first year teaching applicants were female (74%) and Caucasian (94%), had originated from rural and suburban areas, had little to no experience in urban schools, and had no initial desire to work with impoverished and CLD student populations (Haberman, 1987). Haberman (1987) believed that these applicant characteristics were “irrelevant to practice” in high need schools (p. 26), and contrary to effective urban teachers’ distinctive and identifiable dispositions. He also argued that applicants with these characteristics yielded a significant racial/ethnic mismatch between prospective urban teachers and students (Haberman, 1987),

which persists in most inner-city schools today (Department of Education [DOE], 2016). For example, recent data showed that new classroom teachers are predominately White (67%), with relatively little representation of Blacks (14%) and Hispanics (14%: DOE, 2016). This high percentage of White teachers is incongruent to the approximately 70% CLD student population attending urban schools (23.9% Black, 35% Hispanic; see Figure 1: NCES, 2013).

Haberman’s recommended initial applicant selection procedure. Haberman and Post (1998) proposed that urban teacher preparation programs focus less on accepting traditional applicants (e.g., young, White, high GPA, rural or suburban origin) and much more on intentionally recruiting applicants who, prior to applying, bring relevant background experiences listed in Table 3, and who are racially and ethnically representative of urban student populations. Haberman (1987) further suggested that selecting appropriate applicants for urban teacher preparation programs must be viewed as “... a process which occurs over a period of time and permits a continuous reevaluation of candidates, rather than be viewed as a single decision which occurs at one point in time” (p. 26). Table 4 lists the *initial* interview procedures Haberman (1987) recommended to screen applicants for relevant background experiences and dispositions (see Table 3).

Table 4

Procedures for Initial Recruitment and Selection of Urban Teacher Preparation Program Applicants

Selection and Interview Procedures for Accepting Candidates into Urban Teacher Preparation Programs

- Create effective systems for recruiting, selecting, and inducting minorities into urban teacher education programs.
- Enlist master urban classroom teachers in the interview and selection process.
- Use the list of personal demographic characteristics of effective urban teachers (see Table 3) as preliminary criteria for initial admission.
- Include a personal interview, which is possible to fail, as part of every admission decision.
- Include observations of candidates interacting with urban children and youth.

Note. Haberman, 1987; Haberman & Post, 1998

Training for effective urban teaching. Haberman (1987) believed that urban-focused teacher preparation programs should be “carefully developed” (p.3) and intentional about improving the professional readiness of their students. However, he found few urban teacher preparation programs or curricula that met these goals. Instead, he identified two primary aspects of existing teacher training that led to unprepared urban teachers, including: (a) little transferability of preservice training to daily urban practice, and (b) little direct exposure to teaching in high need and diverse classrooms prior to graduation. Haberman (1987) further argued that the disconnect between training and practice transpired because very few university professors could apply their pedagogical theories and techniques to practical urban school settings, sentiments that remain prevalent in more current research on urban teacher training programs (Lane, 2017; Milner, 2012; Proctor, Rentz, & Jackson, 2001).

Thus, Haberman (1987; 1995) called for urban-focused teacher preparation programs to train prospective teachers using a curriculum tailored to the needs and challenges present in high need schools. That curriculum should highlight selected applicants’ unique personal demographic characteristics, and help them appreciate the positive impact that these characteristics can have on urban students. That curriculum must also include coursework relevant to serving CLD and academically underperforming students, including delivering and assessing culturally appropriate content and implementing evidence-based interventions proven effective in urban settings.

Further, Haberman (1987) recommended that prospective urban teachers should participate in practicum and internship experiences in high need urban school districts exclusively, giving them the opportunity to apply their graduate training, and more importantly their pertinent

personal experiences, to practice directly. Implementing such a curriculum would also be enhanced if it was taught by professors who were knowledgeable about practice in urban schools and could be facilitated by integrating training from current effective urban teachers. Table 5 provides a summative list of Haberman's (1987) critical components for training tailored for effective urban teaching in more detail.

Table 5
Critical Components for Effective Urban Teacher Training

Faculty familiar with urban issues, schools, and methods deliver the teacher preparation curriculum.

- Rigorous first course determines candidates' continuation.
- Instructors are faculty and effective urban teachers who: (a) serve as teacher educators, mentors, and instructional leaders to candidates, and (b) also work directly with high need students.
- Extensive and on-going in-service training required for faculty.
- Functional partnerships with urban parent and community groups to give these constituencies voice in the curriculum.
- Emphasis and assessment of the dispositions of effective urban teaching practice (see Table 2).

Training situated in urban schools.

- Most training is conducted in urban schools with high need students.
- Includes in-depth mentoring and supervision from effective urban teachers who: (a) work in urban schools, (b) model the dispositions of effective urban teaching practice, and (c) are trained to assess prospective students' competence and mastery of these dispositions.

Incorporate explicit urban education targets.

- Increase the number adequately trained urban teachers.
- Improve the conditions of teaching in urban schools.

Incorporate a full year of fully supervised intern teaching in high need schools leading to a modified certification in urban education.

Note. Haberman, 1987

Ongoing evaluation of accepted candidates. Haberman (1987) also suggested ongoing evaluation of prospective urban teachers' reasons for and readiness to teach in high need schools (see Table 6). He suggested that these procedures be incorporated throughout training to assess trainees' desire, dispositions, and skill acquisition.

Table 6
Procedures for Ongoing Assessment of Urban Teacher Preparation Program Candidates

Continual assessment and self-assessment of desire to:

- Relate to high need urban students. Are these the children/youth I want to teach?
- Evaluate one's feelings, perceptions, and understanding of urban teaching. Do I want to be doing this? Is this a job I am interested in and capable of?
- Understand urban children/youth. Am I gaining a more accurate view of their total life experiences?
- Orient to high need urban schools. Am I reorienting my prospective of urban teaching into views of schooling in high need communities, and deciphering similarities, differences, and solutions, which may be quite different from my experiences as a student?

Continual assessment of understanding and execution of the dispositions of effective teaching practice, and readiness to teach in high need schools:

- Observe candidates' understanding and execution of the dispositions of effective urban teaching practice during class discussions, practicum, and internship.
 - Observe candidates' understanding and integration of new developments in curricula appropriate for high need student populations (i.e., culturally-relevant computer assisted programs, evidence-based interventions).
 - Assess candidates' improvement in observing, tutoring, and organizing culturally-relevant activities for high need urban students.
-

Note. Haberman, 1987

For at least the past 30 years, considerable attention has been paid to the challenges of teaching in high need urban schools (e.g., Boutte, 2012; Haberman, 1987; Leon, 2014; Petty et al., 2012). Ongoing research, informed by Haberman (1987; 1995), continues to examine the core personal demographic characteristics of teachers who succeed in urban settings (Diez & Murrell, 2010; Lane, 2017; Miller, 2016; Milner, 2012; Proctor et al., 2001), to operationally define these critical dispositions (Damon, 2007), and to measure the impact that they have on teacher-trainees' ability to persist in challenging situations and overcome difficulties (Norris, 2008; Talbert-Johnson, 2006). This body of research continues to evolve, resulting in competing findings, some of which suggest that there is "no universal list of teacher dispositions for educational programs to follow" (Notar, Riley, & Taylor, 2009, p. 6), and concluding that there is

“[l]ittle or no empirical evidence that any particular set or collection of desired teacher dispositions can be somehow linked to effective teaching across the board” (Norris, 2008, p. 9). Researchers have also disputed the longstanding notion that dispositions are fixed (Combs et al., 1969; Haberman, 1995; Osguthorpe, 2008; Wasicsko, 2007), and contest that teacher-trainees can possess various perspectives on urban student populations which are malleable and highly influenced more-so by the quality of training and field-experience afforded to them (Misco & Shiveley, 2007).

Nonetheless, despite these and other controversial findings, there is no dispute that teacher dispositions have solidified a permanent dwelling in the urban teacher training literature. This commitment is evidenced by the sustained interest of various professional accreditation organizations within the field (e.g., the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Programs, the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education). This impact is also seen in the overwhelming number of urban teacher training programs that continue to incorporate preliminary assessments of effective teacher dispositions, like that of Haberman (1995), during their recruitment and interview process in order to screen teacher-trainees prior to admission (Diez & Murrell, 2010). Further, research suggests that assessing teacher-trainees’ mastery and acquisition of effective teacher dispositions remains fundamental throughout urban teacher training programs (Hollins et al., 2010), as these characteristics are often deemed favorably among many urban school districts looking to hire adequate teachers for their high need student populations (Bogges, 2010).

The literature on effective urban teaching training, in particular, the established research on teacher dispositions, much of which is rooted in Haberman’s (1987; 1995) and Haberman and Post’s (1998) preliminary findings, appears to hold strong relevance to the daily experiences of

urban school psychologists who face similar contextual challenges when serving high need schools and student populations (Boutte, 2012; Graves et al., 2014; Haberman, 1987; Milofsky, 1989; Truscott & Truscott 2005). Yet research exploring such parallels within the urban school psychology literature is limited. As such, it appears that there is a substantiated opportunity to adapt aspects of Haberman's (1987; 1995) and Haberman and Post's (1998) seminal work to guide urban school psychology research in identifying unique personal demographic characteristics for candidate selection, and also in developing graduate training designed specifically for urban schools and student populations.

Urban School Psychology Practice (USPP)

Urban school psychologists also serve schools that are disproportionately impacted by poverty, immigration, and chronic underfunding, and that enroll predominantly minority students (Graves et al., 2014; Truscott & Truscott, 2005). However, much less information is available about urban school psychology practice (USPP: Milofsky, 1989; Stoiber & Vanderwood, 2008; Truscott & Truscott, 2005). Though limited, the existing research on USPP has yielded important information on the reality of urban work. For example, Milofsky (1989) conducted an ethnographic study of USPP in the high need schools of Chicago in the 1970s. Graves et al. (2014) and Truscott et al. (2014) further expanded this literature using surveys and semi-structured interviews to explore the perceptions of urban practitioners. All three studies identified similar challenges of USPP. Taken together, the findings suggest that many of the pressures and problems facing urban practitioners have not changed much over the past 35 years.

Challenges in USPP. For example, Milofsky (1989) reported "rapid fire testing" of large numbers of students, which is consistent with Graves et al.'s (2014) report of high student-to-psychologist ratios; with more than 40% of their sample serving over 2000 students, and more

than 10% serving over 3000. In contrast, the NASP recommended ratio is 1 school psychologist per 500 to 700 students (<http://www.nasponline.org/standards-and-certification/nasp-practice-model>). Truscott et al. (2014) found that such unfavorable ratios often meant participants struggled to meet the expectations of their professional organizations and graduate training programs.

Large ratios also mean that most urban practitioners spend the majority of their time in special education classification activities (e.g., psychoeducational assessments, eligibility meetings: Proctor, 2009), leaving little to no time to employ other skills such as intervention design, consultation with teachers, data-based decision making, or counseling that might help high need students make academic, behavioral, and social-emotional progress, and support teachers and families (Fagan & Wise, 2007; Milofsky, 1989; Ysseldyke et al., 1997). Table 7 includes a list of the most commonly identified challenges in USPP research. This list of not exhaustive, and additional challenges may exist.

Table 7

List of Challenges Commonly Reported in Urban School Psychology Literature

- Impoverished students
- High rate of trauma and violence in student home/neighborhoods
- Overwhelming psychologist to student ratios
- Unrealistic timelines
- Under-resourced schools
- Lack of support other school personnel and parents
- Inadequate training in best practices for CLD students
- Racial/ethnic incongruence to student populations

Note. Graves et al., 2014; Lopez & Bursztyn, 2013; Milofsky, 1989; Newell et al., 2010; Truscott & Truscott, 2005; Truscott et al., 2014

Applying Elements of Effective Urban Teaching Practice to Urban School Psychology Practice (USPP)

Thus far, we have summarized several challenges present in urban education (e.g., poverty, immigration, chronic under-funding), and examined the existing literature on how these factors impact urban teachers and school psychologists in high need and under-resourced schools (see Tables 1, 7). As is evident, many of the concerns and challenges reported for urban teachers parallel those reported for school psychologists (see Figure 9). This makes perfect sense, as urban school psychologists work with the same children and families in the same school systems, bureaucracies, and communities as their teacher colleagues. To further outline these parallel findings, the remainder of this manuscript will present some ways that the literature on urban school teacher recruitment, selection, and training could inform effective preparation for urban school psychologists.

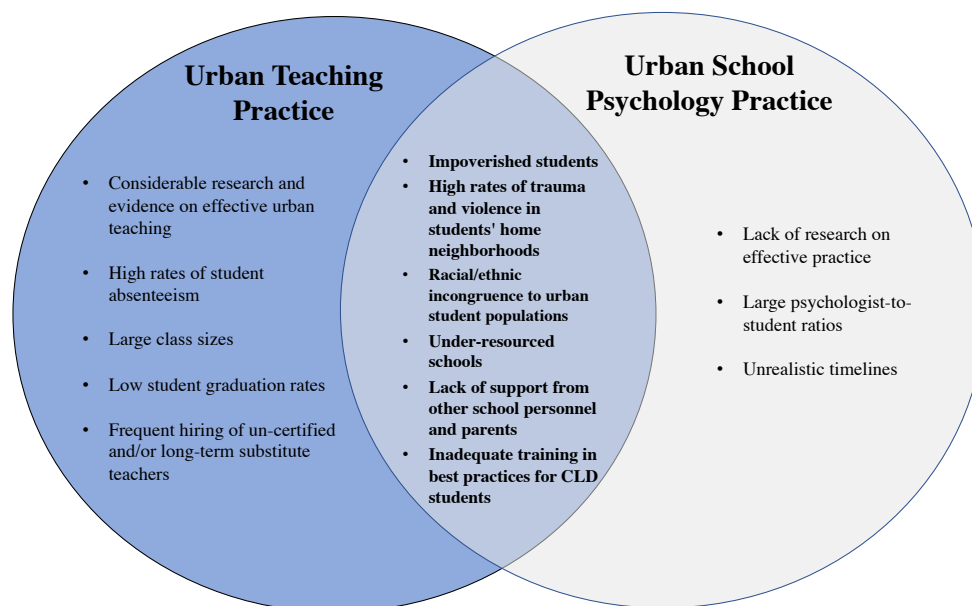


Figure 9. Parallel Challenges Commonly Reported Across Urban Teaching and School Psychology Practice

Source: Boutte, 2012; Boutte & Johnson, 2014; Carroll Massey et al., 1975; Durham-Barnes, 2011; Graves et al., 2014; Holcomb-McCoy, 1998; 2005; Jacob, 2007; Leon, 2014; Lopez & Bursztyrn, 2013; Milofsky, 1989; Newell et al., 2010; Petty et al., 2012; Truscott & Truscott, 2005; Truscott et al., 2014

Existing literature on effective USPP. Considering the similar teacher and school psychologist work contexts, one might anticipate that an analogous body of research targeting effective USPP exists. This is not the case. In fact, very few school psychology studies specifically address the personal demographic characteristics and professional dispositions linked to effective USPP in high need schools (see Table 8) (Grishby et al., 2016; Milofsky, 1989; Truscott et al., 2014). This surprising lack of research is a critical concern to the field, as children educated in urban centers are disproportionately CLD (70%: NCES, 2013), impoverished (47-100%: NCES, 2011), and underfunded (Jacob, 2007; Lee, 2012). Table 8 provides a summative review of the existing school psychology literature relevant to effective urban practice, and serves as a starting point to consider the additional areas of research that need to be addressed.

Table 8
Effective Urban Practice: Parallels in Urban Teaching and School Psychology Literature

	Challenges serving schools and students	Professional Dispositions of effective practice	Personal demographic characteristics of effective educators	Racial/ethnic mismatch between students and educators
Teaching Literature				
Carr & Claxton, 2002	X	X		
Haberman, 1987	X	X	X	X
Haberman & Post, 1998	X	X	X	
Usher, 2002; 2004; Usher, Usher, & Usher, 2003		X		
School Psychology Literature				
Graves et al., 2014	X			X
Grishby et. al, 2016	X	X	X	
Milofsky, 1989	X	X		
Truscott & Truscott, 2005	X			X
Truscott et al., 2014	X	X		X

NASP professional domains compared to Haberman's dispositions. Most urban-focused school psychology training programs, including those that are NASP accredited, must integrate NASP's Domains of Practice in their coursework and experiential learning opportunities (i.e., practicum/internship) (NASP, 2010). These domains, like those of many teacher education training guidelines (e.g., the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Programs, the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education), are universal in nature and practice oriented, with little distinct reference to the background experiences or professional dispositions relevant to effectively serving urban schools and students, specifically. NASP domains include: (a) data-based decision making and accountability, (b) consultation and collaboration, (c) interventions and instructional support to develop academic skills, (d) interventions and mental health services to develop social and life skills, (e) school-wide practices to promote learning, (f) preventive and responsive services, (g) family–school collaboration services, (h) diversity in development and learning, (i) research and program evaluation, and (j) legal, ethical, and professional practice (NASP, 2017; see Appendix A for description of each domain).

Table 9 presents a comparison of the NASP Domains of Practice with a summary of Haberman's Dispositions for Effective Urban Teachers. Although an extensive exploration of these two subject matters is beyond the scope of this paper, comparing the professional expectations emphasized in the NASP Domains of Practice with Haberman's (1995) professional dispositions (see Table 2) reveals two clear distinctions; NASP's Domains of Practice are broad in scope and emphasize universal skills and competencies, whereas Haberman's (1995) professional dispositions are specific to urban practice and focus on unique characteristics of successful urban teachers.

In contrast, Haberman's (e.g., 1987; 1995) findings on effective urban-focused teacher preparation programs are specific to urban practice and directly reflect the dispositions (as opposed to pedagogical competencies) of successful urban educators by identifying their distinctive professional characteristics and operationalizing these traits into observable and replicable behaviors for effective daily practice. Haberman's (1995) identified dispositions included: (a) persistence, (b) response to authority, (c) application of generalizations, (d) approach to "at-risk" youth, (e) professional versus personal orientation to students, (f) burnout, and (g) fallibility (Haberman, 1995; see Table 2 for description of each disposition).

Haberman's and subsequent researchers' findings (e.g., Carr & Claxton, 2002; Haberman & Post, 1998; Usher, 2002; 2004; Usher, Usher, & Usher, 2003) pertain specifically to effective urban teachers. Little comparable research exists in the urban school psychology literature. As a result, Table 9 serves only as an initial comparison of these two descriptions of professional dispositions. Much remains to be researched. As is evident, there is a substantial disconnect between the two descriptions. The NASP domains focus on universal competencies and skills, with little attention to professional dispositions and a priori beliefs. In other words, the NASP domains focus on "what" to do rather than the "how." The urban educator literature focuses much more on the attitudes and beliefs surrounding pedagogical skills (e.g., Haberman, 1995). Most NASP domains focus on universal technical skills (i.e., intellectual assessments, data-based decision making, special education placement: Fagan & Wise, 2007) and superficially on skills relevant to serving high need schools and students specifically (i.e., multicultural assessments, culturally appropriate practices in assessment, individual and group counseling and therapy, community outreach and engagement, increasing parental involvement, addressing substance-abuse, community violence, and immigration) (Lopez & Bursztyn, 2013).

Although this brief comparison is interesting and provocative, reaching any conclusion is premature. There is a critical need for empirical inquiries on how to operationalize effective USPP, and further inform or expand NASP's guidance for both training and practice. Nonetheless, emerging research suggests that Haberman's (1995) dispositions may be relevant for USPP. We suggest that Haberman's (1995) findings on dispositions of effective urban teaching can inform empirical investigations of best practices while serving under-represented and CLD populations (see Table 9), and training/supporting urban practitioners (Milofsky, 1989).

Table 9
Parallels in NASP's Domains of Practice and Haberman's Dispositions of Effective Urban Teaching

	Persistence	Response to Authority	Application of Generalizations	Approach to "At-Risk" Youth	Professional Versus Personal Orientation to Students	Burnout	Fallibility
NASP Domains of Practice							
Data-Based Decision Making and Accountability							
Consultation and Collaboration		X					
Interventions and Instructional Support to Develop Academic Skills							
Interventions and Mental Health Services to Develop Social and Life Skills							
School-Wide Practices to Promote Learning							
Preventive and Responsive Services							
Family-School Collaboration Services							
Diversity in Development and Learning					X		
Research and Program Evaluation			X				
Legal, Ethical, and Professional Practice	X						

Note. Haberman, 1995; NASP, 2010

Adapting Haberman's framework for Urban School Psychology Practice (USPP)

There is limited research on NASP's Domains of Practice (2010) and we found none that links those domains to effective urban teaching (e.g., Haberman, 1995; Haberman & Post, 1998) or urban school psychology practice. To address this void, we propose adapting Haberman's (1987; 1995) and Haberman and Post's (1998) findings on dispositions and training to serve as a starting point in developing a useful framework for understanding effective USPP (see Tables 1-7). Our adapted framework includes: (a) attention to the personal demographic characteristics and professional dispositions of effective urban school psychologists, (b) training program recruitment and selection procedures linked to background experiences of effective urban practitioners, and (c) training experiences and structures that foster dispositions and competencies of effective urban practice. Figure 10 presents a preliminary adapted framework that could guide research efforts focused on USPP. However, due to limitations in the existing urban school psychology literature, we focus the remainder of this paper on identifying the parallels between personal dispositions of effective urban school psychologists, which we argue will drive the research on the selection and training of urban practitioners. Our proposal is discussed in further detail below.

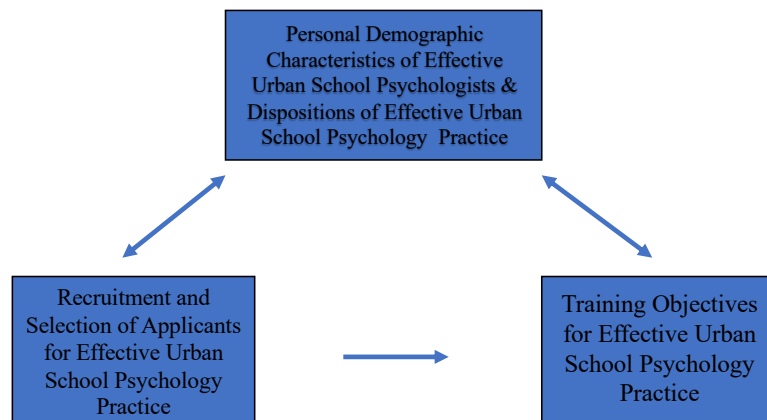


Figure 10. Adapted Framework: Key Elements of Effective Urban School Psychology Practice
Source: Haberman, 1987

Evidence of dispositions in existing USPP research. Haberman and Post's (1998) description of the personal background experiences of effective urban teachers (see Table 3) can inform our understanding of what intrinsic demographic characteristics may be present in effective urban school psychologists. Milofsky (1989) initiated research in the school psychology literature on this notion. He identified two primary approaches to USPP, administrative and active, when serving low-income student populations. Milofsky (1989) described the administrative practitioner as one who perceives his/her role as supporting the school bureaucracy by placing students into the correct classes. This role is disconnected from the outcomes resulting from placement based on rigid procedures and rapid-fire testing. This administrative approach aligns with what Reschly (2008) identified as the correlational model of school psychology. Contrastingly, Milofsky (1989) depicted the activist school psychologist as an aspirational practitioner, who is aware of their school's organizational climate and is cognizant of culturally biased assessments and uses them cautiously, and is creative in the assessment process. Activist school psychologists are focused on addressing student problems. This aligns most closely with what Reschly (2008) identified as experimental school psychology.

Milofsky (1989) further argued that the administrative school psychology approach was much more prevalent in the most underserved and high need schools, despite its limited impact and ineffectiveness. Consequently, he argued that the predominately African American students in the urban schools he studied received inferior school psychology services that simply reinforced the negative stereotypes of urban students and schools. To change these self-fulfilling practice loops, he charged that urban practitioners needed to adopt active approaches that not only recognize the longstanding systemic and institutionalized oppression prevalent in urban environments (Carroll Massey et al., 1975) but also prioritize attempts to identify and cultivate the

often untapped potential of urban students, seeing each child as a unique puzzle within their urban context (Milofsky, 1989).

Truscott et al.'s (2014) study added to the literature on dispositions of urban school psychologists, and found that being an African American practitioner posed several benefits when serving CLD students. For example, their participants stated that they were afforded unique opportunities to connect to, help, and advocate for students, parents, and colleagues of color, and to provide a positive representation of people of color. Grishby et al.'s (2016) inquiry further investigated the characteristics of effective urban practitioners specifically. Their participants reported that having prior experience in urban settings, acknowledging culture and diversity and their impact on urban schools, and understanding oppression and marginalization all contributed to their effectiveness in daily practice. Generalizing any of these findings to all USPP is premature. However, as is evident in Figure 11, such findings appear to align with Haberman's extensive work, particularly several of the identified professional dispositions (Haberman, 1995) and demographic characteristics (Haberman & Post, 1998), and suggests that certain personal traits, life experiences, and behaviors may make certain individuals better suited for effective urban practice in high need schools.

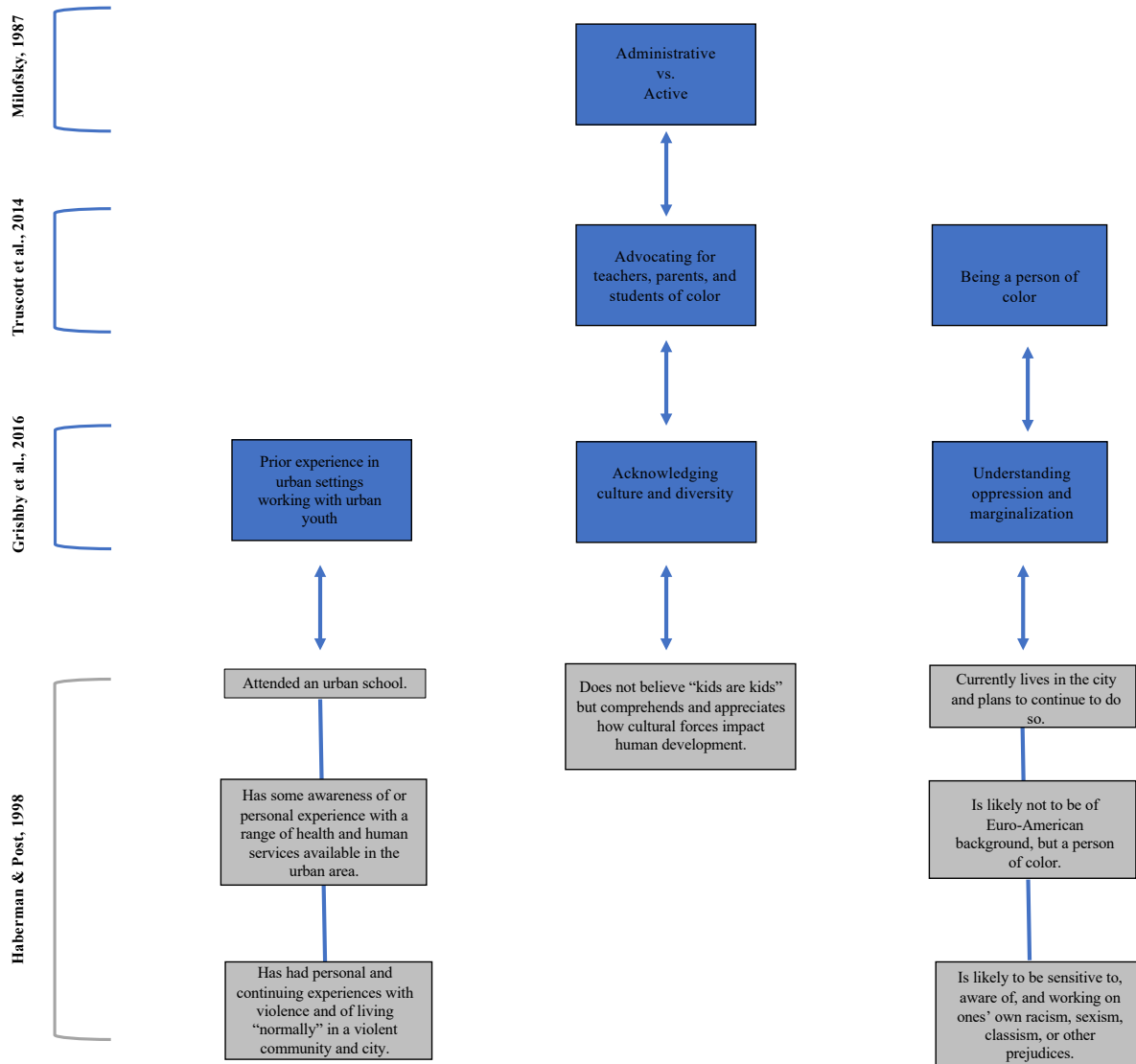


Figure 11. Parallels Across Literature on Personal Demographic Characteristics of Effective Urban Teachers and School Psychologists

Source: Grishby et al., 2016; Haberman & Post, 1998; Milofsky, 1989; Truscott et al., 2014

Implications. The challenges present in urban schools affect teaching and school psychology practice (see Table 8), and large percentages of our nation’s children (NCES, 2013). Reducing the disadvantages and negative outcomes that affect many children in urban schools is possible but will require research at multiple levels of the system, including USPP (Boutte, 2012; Truscott & Truscott, 2005). Our paper aims to inform the emerging body of literature focused specifically on effective USPP (Grishby et al., 2016; Milofsky, 1989; Truscott et al., 2014) by

arguing that the existing research on urban teachers is relevant to our field and deserves the attention of school psychology researchers and trainers. The field need not start completely from scratch. In examining the existing literature, we found emerging evidence that certain personal demographic characteristics, which are parallel to those reported for effective urban teachers (Haberman & Post, 1998), are relevant to urban school psychologists (see Figure 11).

This is a promising vein for researchers and training programs interested in preparing practitioners to work in urban school districts, many of which serve impoverished, CLD, and immigrant student populations directly impacted by longstanding systemic and institutionalized oppression (Carroll Massey et al., 1975). We propose that Haberman and Post's (1998) work can guide urban-focused school psychology training programs as they consider integrating attention to the personal demographic characteristics of effective urban practitioners into their selection criteria. We believe that doing so is critical to improving the quality of prospective practitioners trained at the graduate level to work specifically in the most underserved, under-resourced, and diverse schools. Furthermore, ongoing research on professional organizations (i.e., NASP) standards of practice, and their direct relation to urban training programs and USPP may be necessary to begin removing the negative connotations that have long been associated with serving impoverished and CLD students.

Conclusions

Many urban school psychologists and teachers struggle to meet the needs of impoverished and CLD students attending chronically under-funded urban schools. Despite these unique challenges, efforts to improve the recruitment, selection, and training of prospective urban teachers have yielded success in many high need schools. Such research is lacking in the urban school psychology literature, and contributes to the disconnect between school psychology training and

the daily experiences and needs of urban practitioners. We presented research on the personal demographic characteristics, professional dispositions, graduate training, and governing standards of effective urban teachers as a guide for urban school psychology researchers. Further, our adapted framework also provides some guidance relevant to the recruitment, selection, and training of prospective urban practitioners. However, future research is necessary to explicate and extend our understanding of the personal demographic characteristics of effective urban practitioners, as well as how urban-focused school psychology programs can select and train well-suited candidates ready to maneuver through the challenges while simultaneously emphasizing the promise of urban schools, thereby, improving the overall trajectory of urban students, families, and communities.

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2: PREPARING EFFECTIVE URBAN PRACTITIONERS: THE STUDY OF TWO URBAN-FOCUSED SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY GRADUATE TRAINING PROGRAMS

School psychologists are highly skilled professionals trained at the graduate level to “help children and youth succeed academically, socially, and emotionally” (Fagan & Wise, 2007, p.2). These practitioners are proficient in a wide-range of skills, including, but not limited to: research and program evaluation, socialization and development of life skills, data-based decision making and accountability, prevention, crisis intervention, and mental health, (Fagan & Wise, 2007; National Association of School Psychologists [NASP], 2010; Ysseldyke et al., 1997). School psychologists proficient in these skills are expected to effectively serve students from any geographical location, socioeconomic status, and racial/ethnic composition (NASP, 2010). However, whether generic skills training is sufficient for all geographic/socio-cultural contexts is an untested assumption. We focused this research on how two graduate training programs prepare students to be effective school psychologists serving diverse students in high need urban schools. High need urban schools are operationally defined as those serving high-density populations (i.e., at least 50%) of impoverished students who identify as racially, ethnically, culturally, and/or linguistically diverse (Boutte, 2012; Moore & Lewis, 2012).

Urban Schools and Communities

Urban schools are commonly depicted as overcrowded and under-resourced, with run-down facilities (Boutte, 2012; Lewis & Moore, 2008). They serve large numbers of culturally and linguistically diverse students (CLD) (i.e., approximately 70%: National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2013), whose families often experience limited opportunity and generational poverty (Children’s Defense Fund, 2012; Graves, Proctor, & Aston, 2014; Moore & Lewis, 2012; University of Michigan Urban Education, 2015; Truscott & Truscott, 2005). Urban

schools are located in communities that present numerous socio-political challenges (e.g., elevated rates of reported crimes and substance abuse, unsatisfactory healthcare accessibility, tense cultural interfaces, increasing rates of immigration, and varying property values) (Frankenberg, 2009; Hannon, 2016; Holcomb-McCoy, 2005; Lee, 2005; Lewis & Moore, 2008; McCormick, Turbeville, Barnes, & McClowry, 2014; Truscott & Truscott, 2005), many of which stem from longstanding inequity and institutional oppression of minority and marginalized groups (i.e., economic disadvantage, political marginalization, racism, classism: Carroll Massey, Vaughn Scott, & Dornbusch, 1975). The well-documented effects of systemic oppression manifest daily as challenges facing students and the professionals who work in urban schools (Batts, 2012; Boutte, 2012; Graves et al., 2014; Moore & Lewis, 2012; Popp, Grant, & Stronge, 2011; Truscott & Truscott, 2005). They are also fundamentally unfamiliar to most people from suburban and rural communities (Grunewald et al., 2014; University of Michigan Urban Education, 2015).

Urban Student Populations

While many urban students obtain academic success (Bonner, 2014; Denton, Foorman, & Mathes, 2003), studies have long documented that living in impoverished and disenfranchised communities can cause significant difficulties (Christofferson & Callahan, 2015). For example, urban students are less likely to be proficient readers by 8th grade (Murnane, 2007; National Assessment of Educational Progress [NAEP], 2013) and are more likely to underperform on standardized tests compared to their suburban counterparts (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010; 2013). These students are also more likely to be absent due to poor health and inadequate or inaccessible healthcare, to move during the school year, and to appear disengaged due to a perceived lack of parental involvement and low teacher expectations (Batts, 2012; Blazer, 2009; Boutte, 2012; Healey, 2014; Milner, 2012).

Further, many urban students are also at an increased risk of experiencing social-emotional difficulties due to high rates of potentially traumatic events [PTE] (e.g., family violence, physical assault, physical abuse, sexual assault, and neglect: Crouch, Hanson, Saunders, Kilpatrick, & Resnick, 2000; Drake & Pandey, 1996; Turner, Finkelhor, & Ormrod, 2006), prior to adulthood (Finkelhor, Ormrod, & Turner, 2009; McLaughlin et al., 2013). These and other challenges associated with high need schools and student populations are longstanding problems (Boutte, 2012; Graves et al., 2014; Milofsky, 1989; Levin, 2013). Consequently, as the nation's student population continues to diversify (Council of Great City Schools, 2010; Hannon, 2016; U.S. Census Bureau, 2015) and urbanize (NCES, 2013; University of Michigan Urban Education, 2015) the complexity and frequency of urban student needs will likely intensify. Such factors directly impact school psychologists' roles in high need schools, yet research targeting the recruitment, selection, and training of urban practitioners is limited.

Current Urban School Psychology Practice (USPP) Literature

Milofsky's (1989) ethnographic study of USPP in the high need schools of 1970s Chicago initiated this emergent body of research. He interviewed and observed urban practitioners and concluded that, despite their similar graduate training, skill sets, and years of experience, there are distinct differences in their approaches to serving high need students. Milofsky (1989) described one common professional orientation as an "administrative" approach to USPP, which focused on perfunctory testing of large numbers of students and sorting them into special education categories. Contrastingly, Milofsky (1989) depicted a more "activist" approach, which included viewing each child as a unique puzzle within their context. Activist practitioners used formal and informal assessments to gather information for intervention rather than solely to determine student placement (Milofsky, 1989). Milofsky (1989) endorsed an activist approach, but

argued that, despite the intense level of need in under-served urban schools, the administrative approach was more common among urban practitioners and negatively impacted their effectiveness.

Challenges in USPP. Graves et al. (2014) and Truscott et al. (2014) expanded the USPP literature using surveys and semi-structured interviews to explore the perceptions of urban practitioners. Overall, the crux of their findings mirrored those of Milofsky (1989), suggesting that many of the challenges facing urban practitioners have not changed much over the past 35 years. For example, a handful of researchers concluded that urban practitioners commonly reported serving large numbers of impoverished students in under-resourced schools with overwhelming psychologist-to-student ratios, unrealistic timelines, a lack of support from administration, teachers, and parents, and inadequate training in best practices for serving CLD students (i.e., culturally appropriate assessment) (e.g., Graves et al., 2014; Lopez & Bursztyjn, 2013; Milofsky, 1989; Newell et al., 2010; Truscott & Truscott, 2005; Truscott et al., 2014). Urban practitioners also reported spending most of their time completing special education classification activities (e.g., psychoeducational assessments, eligibility meetings: Proctor, 2009), with little to no time remaining to use their skills towards effective change with their students, teachers, and families (Milofsky, 1989). Further, research reported that urban practitioners are primarily female (82.4%) and most often Caucasian (54.8%) (Graves et al., 2014) and, therefore, racially/ethnically incongruent to the 70% minority student population they serve (Department of Education [DOE], 2016; Graves et al., 2014; Lewis, Truscott, & Volker, 2008; Truscott et al., 2014; NCES, 2013).

National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) Standards of Practice

Despite the well-documented challenges of USPP, the literature on school psychology training specific to effective urban practice is scarce. Prospective urban practitioners generally receive training heavily influenced by the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) Standards of Practice (2010). NASP leads a national training program approval process [i.e., accrediting] leading to graduates who can become Nationally Certified School Psychologists. The majority of school psychology training programs are NASP-approved, and in turn, integrate NASP Standards of Practice (2010) in their coursework and experiential learning opportunities (i.e., practicum, internship). These standards include: (a) data-based decision making and accountability, (b) consultation and collaboration, (c) interventions and instructional support to develop academic skills, (d) interventions and mental health services to develop social and life skills, (e) school-wide practices to promote learning, (f) preventive and responsive services, (g) family-school collaboration services, (h) diversity in development and learning, (i) research and program evaluation, and (j) legal, ethical, and professional practice (NASP, 2017; see Appendix A for description of each standard).

Discrepancies between NASP Standards of Practice and USSP. NASP (2010) believes that mastering the practice standards adequately prepares practitioners to execute their roles in any setting. However, USPP researchers argue that training in skills and competencies alone is insufficient for practitioners who serve impoverished and CLD students (Grishby, Williams, Kearney, & Truscott, 2016; Truscott et al., 2014). For example, the majority of NASP-approved school psychology training programs focus on obtaining proficiency in universal skills (i.e., intellectual assessments, data-based decision making, special education placement; Fagan & Wise, 2007), while providing substantially less training in areas relevant to serving high need

students (i.e., multicultural assessment, culturally appropriate individual and group therapy, community outreach and engagement, increasing parental involvement: Lopez & Bursztyn, 2013). Similarly, school psychology research includes relatively few studies focused on multicultural topics salient to urban school psychology (Noltemeyer, Proctor, & Dempsey, 2013).

Some researchers argue that NASP Standards of Practice (2010) are generally constructed based on the needs of White-middle class students attending fully staffed and well-resourced suburban school districts because this student population comprises the majority of study samples in education and school psychology research (Henrich, Heine, & Norenzayan, 2010; Li, Ni, & Stoianov, 2015; Stoiber & Vanderwood, 2008). As a result, the literature used to train practitioners and inform school psychology's best practices continues to be derived from contexts most relevant to suburban schools rather than urban communities. This phenomenon may result in practitioners with limited tools to tackle the unique needs and demands of their urban high need schools (Graves et al., 2014).

Training effective urban teachers. The urban teaching literature documents similar challenges in training effective educators to serve high need schools and student populations. Haberman (1987) conducted a noteworthy investigation of urban education in the 1980's, with specific attention to the state of urban teacher preparation programs during that time. He concluded that most first-year teaching applicants were female (74%), Caucasian (94%), from rural or suburban origin, and possessed little to no experience in urban schools nor any prior desire to work with impoverished and CLD student populations (Haberman, 1987). Haberman (1987) also found that these common applicant characteristics were often coupled with training curricula that embodied little transferability from preservice training to daily urban practice, and

little direct exposure to teaching in high need and diverse classrooms prior to graduation. He argued that the combination of uncommitted applicants and unfocused curricula led to an overwhelming number of unprepared urban teachers. As such, Haberman (1987) focused his early efforts on targeting the selection, recruitment, and training of urban teacher-trainees to align with the personal dispositions of effective urban educators (Haberman, 1995).

The crux of Haberman's (1987) conclusions was that improving urban teacher efficacy would require recruiting racially and ethnically diverse candidates with a commitment to urban work, and intentionally training them for effective urban teaching practice. He described effective urban-focused programs as those using a curriculum designed to address the identified challenges of urban schools and professional dispositions relevant to serving CLD and academically underperforming students (Haberman, 1995). See Appendix B for descriptions of each of disposition. Haberman (1987) suggested that prospective urban teachers should complete practicum and internship experiences in high need urban school districts exclusively, giving them opportunities to apply their graduate training directly to practice. He further argued that implementing such a curriculum would be enhanced when taught by professors who were knowledgeable about effective teaching practices in urban schools and could be facilitated by integrating training from current effective urban teachers.

Although Haberman's initial findings are decades old and have evolved (e.g., 1995; Haberman & Post, 1998), they remain relevant today (Boutte, 2012; Bonner, 2014). Currently, most urban education researchers and professional accreditation organizations (e.g., the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Programs, the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education) agree that the general attention to dispositions, like those described by Haberman (1995), is relevant to effective teaching practice in high need schools (Bogges, 2010; Hollins,

Kolis, McIntyre, Stephens, & Battalio, 2010). The impact of Haberman's (1987; 1995) findings remains evident in that most urban-focused teacher training programs now screen teacher-trainees prior to admission using assessments of teacher dispositions during their recruitment and interview processes (Diez & Murrell, 2010). Such assessment of teacher-trainees' mastery and acquisition of effective teacher dispositions remains a fundamental element of urban teacher training programs (Hollins et al., 2010).

Moreover, urban school districts prioritize dispositions like those identified by Haberman (1995) when hiring prospective teachers because they believe such traits are essential to successful learning and effective teaching (Boggess, 2010). Researchers and teacher-trainers further posit that operationalizing these behaviors and beliefs into observable and replicable practices yields improved instruction for urban students (Bonner, 2014; Denton et al., 2003; Dorman, 2012; Gay, 2002; Ladson-Billings, 1995; 2009). For example, data show that students of teachers displaying these characteristics, which align with the literature on culturally responsive teaching (CRT: Gay, 2002; 2010; 2013; Warren, 2013), exhibit increased reading and mathematics skills, and positive academic and social-emotional self-concepts (Bonner, 2014; Denton et al., 2003; Ladson-Billings, 2009).

For example, Bonner (2014) found that African American students made significant social/emotional and academic gains when taught using culturally responsive mathematics teaching (CRMT). CRMT is comprised of five foundational categories: (a) relationships/trust, (b) communication, (c) knowledge, (d) reflection/revision, and (e) pedagogy/discipline, which align closely with Haberman's (1995) professional dispositions of resiliency, persistence, approach to "at-risk" youth, and fallibility. Additionally, Denton et al. (2003) investigated five elementary schools significantly impacted by poverty, yet consistently achieving notable success in reading.

Their data suggested that student resiliency was cultivated by teachers whose pedagogical dispositions, like those of Haberman (1995), targeted the specific needs of their impoverished student population. For example, these unique pedagogical dispositions included the relentless implementation of empirically supported and culturally appropriate reading instruction and interventions, as well as a school-wide “no excuses policy”, which increased academic and behavioral expectations for students and teachers, and also incorporated a culturally responsive disciplinary protocol (Denton et al., 2003).

Purpose of the Study

Given what we know about effective urban teaching practice and training and how little is known about urban school psychology practice (USPP) and training, there is a critical need to examine whether and how school psychology programs focused on urban practice have been influenced by urban teacher training, as well as how such programs incorporate training elements thought to be effective and relevant for training urban practitioners. Further, there is a need to begin to examine whether and how urban-focused training programs adapt, augment, and modify the NASP Standards of Practice (2010) to better align with their missions. This research aimed to address those needs by specifically investigating two urban-focused school psychology training programs (UFSPTPs) (i.e., programs that self-identify as committed to urban work) using a mixed-methods design comprised of surveys, document-review, and semi-structured interviews. The study included UFSPTPs that: (a) were nested in urban centers, (b) NASP-approved, (c) offered the specialist degree (Ed.S.) in school psychology, and (d) self-identified as committed to urban work. This study analyzed four main components of these programs related to effectively serving high need schools and student populations by exploring the two primary research questions: (1) How do these UFSPTPs prepare their students for effective urban practice? (2) In what

ways do the programs' main components compare to Haberman's (1987) framework for effective urban teacher training?

Method

Research Design

This mixed methods study utilized a sequential explanatory design (SED: Ivankova, Creswell, & Stick, 2006). SED is a commonly used mixed method design that allows researchers to implement two consecutive phases of data collection and analysis in one study (Creswell et al., 2003). These two distinct phases include quantitative (numeric) followed by qualitative (narrative) data collection and analysis (Ivankova et al., 2006). Quantitative data collection included: a survey, relevant course syllabi, and student practica placement data, which were analyzed for content and response frequency. The findings from the quantitative data analyses were further explored during the qualitative data collection and analysis process.

Qualitative data were collected using two semi-structured interviews, which were analyzed using a phenomenological research method (i.e., Creswell, 2007; Moustakas, 1994; Seidman, 2006). Creswell (2007) argued that phenomenological methods are particularly appropriate when studying small groups of people experiencing a similar phenomenon. The qualitative portion of this study explored the perceptions of UFSPTP faculty members and internship-level graduate students to identify within- and between-group perceptions associated with their common experiences. Phenomenological methods are designed to explore unique and uncommon research topics (Hoyt & Bhati, 2007).

Research team. The research team consisted of the lead researcher who is an African American doctoral student, one male Caucasian faculty member, and two female African

American doctoral school psychology graduate students at a southeastern university. All research team members were Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative (CITI) trained.

Participants.

Program participants. UFSPTP 1 is program housed in a public coed university. The university is ranked as a Carnegie Doctoral University – Higher Research Activity, the second level of the classification system. It is located in the northeastern region of the U.S. and is nested in a large city in a diverse and urbanized metropolitan area. This program offers NASP-approved specialist (Ed.S.) and APA-accredited doctoral (Ph.D.) degrees. It self-identifies as having an urban focus, with special attention to social justice, multicultural competence, and diversity. The university Office of Institutional Research (2019) reported that Ed.S. level student enrollment in Fall 2019 was predominantly female (87.5%), and Caucasian (62.5%), with 37.5% of 2019 Ed.S. students identifying as minorities. Faculty demographics include six faculty members, one of whom identifies as a minority.

UFSPTP 2 is also a long-standing school psychology graduate training program housed in a public coed university. The university is a ranked as a Carnegie R1: Doctoral Universities – Very high research activity. It is located in the midwestern U.S in a medium-sized city within a metropolitan area. This program offers NASP-approved specialist (Ed.S.) and APA-accredited doctoral (Ph.D.) degrees. It self-identifies as having an urban focus, with special attention to understanding and working with diverse students and schools. Program demographics were not published, but NASP (2019) reported that at least 25 % of graduate students come from traditionally underrepresented groups. Faculty demographics include four faculty members, three of whom identify as African American.

Faculty and student participants. Participation in this study was voluntarily, as detailed in the participant recruitment letter and waiver of documentation of consent forms. Five faculty members (UFSPTP 1 $n = 3$, UFSPTP 2 $n = 2$) participated in this study. All five completed the online survey and four (UFSPTP 1 $n = 2$, UFSPTP 2 $n = 2$) participated in two semi-structured interviews. Ten internship students were recruited from these UFSPTPs, of which seven (UFSPTP 1 $n = 4$, UFSPTP 2 $n = 3$) completed the online survey, six of whom (UFSPTP 1 $n = 3$, UFSPTP 2 $n = 3$) completed two semi-structured interviews. Demographic information for faculty and student participants is provided below in Table 1 and 2, respectively.

Table 1
Faculty Participant Demographic Frequencies: Survey Data

Demographics	UFSPTP 1 ($n = 3$)	UFSPTP 2 ($n = 2$)
Gender		
Female	3	2
Male	0	0
Age		
31-35	1	0
36+	2	2
Racial/Ethnic Identification		
Asian	1	0
Black/African American	0	2
White	2	0
Current Title		
Assistant Professor	1	0
Associate Professor	1	2
Lecturer	1	0

Table 2
Student Participant Demographic Frequencies: Survey Data

Demographics	UFSPTP 1 ($n = 4$)	UFSPTP 2 ($n = 3$)
Gender		
Female	4	3
Male	0	0
Age		
20-25	2	0
26-30	1	2
31-35	0	1
Prefer not to answer	1	0
Racial/Ethnic Identification		
Black/African American	1	1
White	3	1
Prefer not to answer	0	1
Primary Language		
Arabic	0	1
English	4	2

Sampling. Criterion sampling was utilized to identify eligible programs. The criteria for participating programs included having: (a) at least two faculty members who were willing to participate, (b) an internship supervision course, (c) the ability to provide syllabi for the following classes: assessment series, consultation, intervention, practicum and/or internship supervision, and multicultural competence/culturally appropriate practice (or relevant course), and (d) the willingness provide practica and internship student placement history for the previous five academic years (2013-2014 through 2017-2018). Upon creating a list of eligible ($n = 9$) UFSPTPs, one round of criterion sampling was conducted. The first two eligible UFSPTPs' respective program directors were contacted via email and provided a brief description of the study and a detailed participant recruitment letter. Both agreed to participate in this study.

Faculty and internship student participants were recruited from the two participating UFSPTPs. The criteria for faculty members included being: (a) a current faculty member, (b)

willing to communicate via phone/email, (c) willing to complete an online survey and two semi-structured interviews (in-person or telephone), and (d) be the instructor of at least one of the following courses (assessment series, consultation, intervention, practicum and/or internship supervision, and multicultural competence/culturally appropriate practice [or similar course]). The criteria for students included: (a) currently completing a full-time internship, (b) being willing to communicate via phone/email, and (c) being willing to complete an online survey. One round of faculty member criterion sampling conducted at each university resulted in a total sample of five full-time faculty participants, three of whom self-identified as a racial/ethnic minority and/or linguistically diverse. Three rounds of student criterion sampling were conducted at each university resulting in seven internship-level graduate student participants, three of whom self-identified as a racial/ethnic minority and/or linguistically diverse.

Procedures and Instruments

Survey development. This study used an expansion of Tarquin and Truscott's (2006) survey of school psychology practicum students. It added questions adapted from Haberman's (1987) research exploring the characteristics of urban teacher preparation programs that lead to successful teaching practices in high need schools. Haberman's work served as a schema for conceptualizing effective characteristics of USFPTPs. As such, survey questions were informed by Tarquin and Truscott (2006) and Haberman's (1987) findings and specifically investigated the personal, educational, and professional backgrounds of UFSPTP faculty members and students.

After constructing draft faculty and internship student surveys, research team members reviewed the survey questions and refined question wording and formatting (e.g., multiple-choice, Likert scale, open-ended). The survey questions were then inputted into Google Forms, a free online research tool that creates web surveys and exports survey responses to Microsoft

Excel. The primary researcher and one research team member generated and tested both survey links for accessibility and accuracy. The surveys are available in Appendices C and D.

Participant surveys. Both faculty and internship student surveys took approximately 30 minutes to complete, began with a description of study procedures, and asked all participants to agree to participate before completing the survey (waiver of document of consent). Participants completed a 24-question (i.e., Faculty) or 28-question (i.e., Internship Student) online survey via Google Forms (see Appendix C and D). Faculty survey questions included descriptions of their personal, educational, and professional backgrounds (i.e., racial/ethnic identity, education, prior experiences in urban settings) and current school psychology training program (i.e., courses, student practicum/internship placements) relevant to serving under-represented student populations. Similarly, internship student survey questions included descriptions of their personal and educational backgrounds (i.e., racial/ethnic identity, prior experiences in urban settings) and school psychology training (i.e., coursework and school-based practicum/internship placement) relevant to their level of preparedness to serve under-represented students. Survey links were distributed to participants via their university email.

Survey administration. Surveys were completed electronically via Google Forms to provide an efficient user-friendly experience and increase legibility and response accuracy. Hard copies of the survey questions were available, but none were requested. Survey links were emailed to faculty participants in February, March, and July of 2019, and to internship student participants in February, March, May, and June of 2019. Follow-up reminder emails (Fowler, 1993) were sent weekly to participants with incomplete submissions.

Quantitative course syllabi rubric. A syllabus rubric was constructed by the research team and quantified the following information: (a) total number of readings listed on syllabus,

and (b) total number of readings related to urban schools, urban and/or CLD student populations, urban school psychology practice. Keywords often associated with urban education were utilized to determine relevance, which included: *urban school(s)*, *urban student population(s)*, *high need*, *at-risk*, *culturally and linguistically diverse (clد)*, *inner-city*, *multicultural competence*. After constructing a draft syllabus rubric, research team members reviewed the keywords and cross-referenced them with those listed in Haberman's (1987) findings, as well as in the urban education literature. The refined rubric criteria were then inputted into Microsoft Excel, and the primary researcher and one research team member then separately analyzed one syllabus from their UFSPTP and then discussed frequency discrepancies to establish the final syllabus rubric.

Participant interviews. To participate in the study, two faculty members from each university had to agree to participate in the interviews. The faculty members self-identified and volunteered. Altogether, four faculty members, two from each university, completed the interview protocol. At least two faculty interviewees, one from each participating program, further identified as a racial/ethnic minority and/or linguistically diverse.

Student interviewees were recruited via the survey distributed in their internship class, which included a request to participate and the researchers contact information. The first six internship students, three from each participating UFSPTP, who volunteered and provided their contact information also completed the interview protocol. Two interviewees, one from each participating program, identified as a racial/ethnic minority and/or linguistically diverse.

General interview format. A series of two semi-structured interviews were completed to address the research questions: (1) How do these UFSPTPs prepare their students for effective urban practice? (2) In what ways do the programs' main components compare to Haberman's

(1987) framework for effective urban teacher training? Both structured and open-ended questions we utilized to facilitate natural conversation while ensuring that the research questions were appropriately addressed (see Appendix E and F). Query prompts gathered general and specific information throughout the conversations.

Interview One served as an introduction and opportunity to explore each participant's survey responses in more detail, including their personal, educational, and professional background information regarding prior experience in urban settings. Questions in Interview One also focused on understanding participants' perceptions of their programs' courses and practicum/internship placement opportunities related to effective USPP.

Interview Two asked participants to reflect on their answers in Interview One and provide any additional information they deemed necessary. Questions in Interview Two also explored the perceived impact of their respective UFSPTPs on internships students' level of preparedness when serving high need schools and students. Further, researchers asked each participant about their overall opinion of the current study and solicited suggestions for future research.

Faculty interviews. All faculty participants completed two semi-structured interviews (see Appendix E). Each interview was audio-recorded and took approximately 90 minutes total (60 for interview one, 30 for interview two). The interviews took place via phone at an agreed upon time, with both interviewer and interviewee sitting in a private office space that allowed uninterrupted conversation, obtaining and maintaining the basic conditions for privacy. Each interview was transcribed verbatim. Each participant was asked to verify the accuracy of their transcribed interviews.

Internship student interviews. Internship student interviewees were recruited via the student survey and provided their contact information to participate in two semi-structured

interviews (see Appendix F). Seven participants expressed initial interest and six were selected (i.e., three from each participating UFSPTP). Each interview was audio-recorded and took approximately 90 minutes total (60 for interview one, 30 for interview two). The interviews took place via phone at an agreed upon time. Both interviewer and interviewee sat in a private office space that allowed uninterrupted conversation, obtaining and maintaining the basic conditions for privacy. All interviews were transcribed verbatim by the primary researcher and verified for accuracy by each respective participant.

Pilot administration. The pilot survey link and draft of interview questions were sent via email to one school psychology professor and one internship student who met participant criteria (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016). They completed the pilot survey and interviews and provided feedback about the question formatting, clarity, flow, etc. Pilot data were not included in the results of this study. However, feedback on the accessibility and face validity of the survey and interview questions were considered, and the questions were revised accordingly. Once revised, a final version of the survey and interviews were updated in electronic form and saved (see Appendix C, D, E, and F). Electronic versions of the survey questions and interview scripts are available upon request.

Data Analysis and Interpretation

Quantitative data. Quantitative data from the surveys and course syllabi were collected via Google Forms and email (i.e., syllabi provided at attachments by program directors), respectively. Survey data were analyzed for response frequency using Microsoft Excel. Course syllabi were analyzed for frequency and document analysis using the syllabi rubric, and resulted in a percentage of course content specifically related to urban schools, urban and/or CLD student

populations, and/or urban school psychology practice for each syllabus provided (i.e., total relevant readings divided by total readings). All quantitative data results are reported below (see Tables 3 through 9).

Qualitative data. Qualitative data were collected from the interviews. The primary researcher compared the audiotaped interviews with all transcriptions for accuracy. Each participant also reviewed their transcripts for accuracy. Once member checking was complete, the initial coding process began. All data were de-identified and categorized by school and participant role (i.e., faculty member or internship student) and prepared for analysis. Once prepared, the research team formed two coding teams, each including two research team members. Each member utilized a constant comparative method data analysis technique that included open, axial, and selective coding (Kolb, 2012; Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Open and axial coding were utilized to address research question one. These two stages of coding were influenced by Haberman's (1987) components of effective urban teacher training, and were primarily constructed from an internal data analysis of interview transcripts. Selective coding was then utilized to address research question two. This phase of coding included an external data analysis that was guided generally by Haberman's (1987) findings on effective urban teacher training and focused specifically on identifying how the categories and themes that were identified during open and axial coding aligned with Haberman (1987) and Haberman and Posts' (1998) findings (i.e., participant demographics, institutional characteristics).

During open coding, team members read participants' interview responses line-by-line searching for any information related to the research questions. Coding teams labeled, via track changes in Microsoft Word, any identified responses (i.e., key words, phrases, sentences, etc.). Data saturation, which refers to the point at which no new information emerged from the data

(Creswell, 2007), occurred at the third (faculty) and fourth (student) participant interviews, respectively, which is consistent with Boyd's (2001) finding that two to 10 participants are sufficient for reaching data saturation in phenomenological studies. Bi-weekly research team meetings allowed an opportunity for coders to discuss individual findings during open coding, including resolving disputes in the data, checking for accuracy of the intended meaning units, and eliminating irrelevant and repetitive statements.

Axial coding consisted of combining open codes into significant and nonrepetitive statements and making sure that responses were triangulated across multiple participants (Creswell, 2007; Moustakas, 1994). These statements were then grouped into categories (i.e., statements with comparable content), and then placed into a table. Research team members then developed names and definitions for each category to represent participant responses from interview transcripts. This phase of the coding process aided in establishing an understanding of participants' experiences and perceptions. Research team members then formed themes (subcategories that offered more specific information relevant to overarching categories) by re-analyzing and connecting the categories identified during open coding (Creswell, 2007). A recursive process was employed during bi-weekly research team meetings to discuss and revise the resulting categories and themes and to reach consensus on their names, definition, and examples (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Selective coding and coding manual development was executed simultaneously by combining all the agreed upon categories, full definitions, and exemplars from the participant transcripts. The primary researcher then sent a preliminary draft to the research team to reach consensus on the coding manual's usability and accuracy, and all feedback was included. The re-

vised coding manual was used to determine inter-coder agreement (ICA), which provided a percentage that represents the level of agreement between researchers on codes and subcodes (Schensul, LeCompte, Nastasi, & Borgatti, 1999). The primary researcher and one research team member then separately coded one faculty member and one internship student's interview (four total interviews, 18%) and then discussed coding discrepancies to establish consensus of coding. An ICA goal of 85% (Bakeman & Gottman, 1997) was established.

The coders reached 70% ICA on this first set of interviews and discussed code definitions and discrepancies in applying the codes to the data (Schensul et al., 1999). The coding manual was revised to reflect the consensus. The coders continued the ICA process until reaching 86% ICA, which occurred on the second round. Each coding team then coded all remaining participant interviews separately using the revised coding manual and discussed their independent findings together for clarity and consensus. During this time, the coders addressed any coding discrepancies and made necessary corrections to the coding manual (Schensul et al., 1999). For the purposes of this study, major themes were determined by codes stated by the majority of participants (i.e., three or more faculty members, four or more internship students). Minor themes were determined by responses from at least one quarter of the participants (i.e., one or two faculty members, two or three internship students).

Ensuring trustworthiness. Lincoln and Guba (1985) define trustworthiness as the ability to confidently accept the findings of a qualitative study. This study attempted to ensure trustworthiness through research meetings, member checking, and use of a triangulation method, which research describes as a technique of cross-checking multiple sources of data for regularities in the research data to ensure the fidelity of research findings (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992; O'Donoghue & Punch, 2003).

Bi-weekly research team meetings addressed researcher bias through use of a constant comparative method (Kolb, 2012; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Member checking was completed with each participant once all data were collected and transcribed. Member checking was conducted by sending each participant their respective first interview transcription via email. Member checking allowed participants to review their transcription for accuracy, and to provide the research team with any necessary edits (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Each participant verified that the collected data accurately represented their perceptions and responses.

This study utilized a triangulation method, both individually and as a team, to review and compare quantitative and qualitative data for clarity and consistency of interpretation. An auditor was also utilized throughout the data analysis process to review the team's work. The auditor reviewed all transcripts and ensured that team members accurately identify labels, categories, and themes (Hill et al., 1997). The auditor also provided feedback that was considered during data analysis and accepted or rejected based on group consensus. A record of auditor feedback was maintained throughout the data analysis process.

Results

This mixed methods study utilized a sequential explanatory design (SED: Ivankova et al., 2006) to gain an in-depth understanding how two UFSPTPs prepared their graduate students to work in urban schools and effectively serve high need students. The research (see Figure 1) sought to answer the following research questions: (1) How do these UFSPTPs prepare their students for effective urban practice? (2) In what ways do the programs' main components compare to Haberman's (1987) framework for effective urban teacher training?

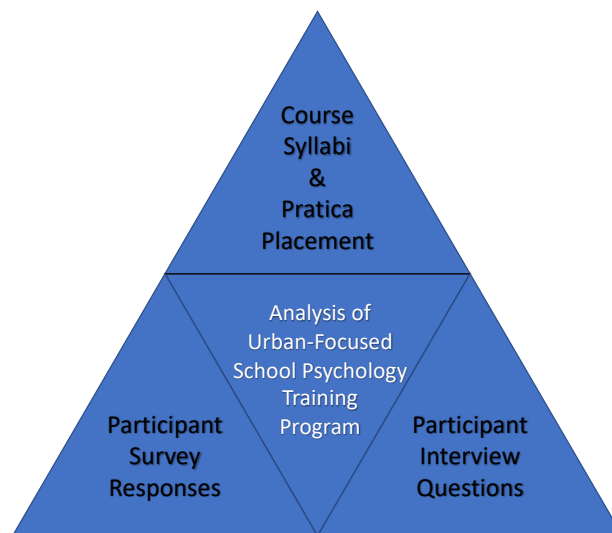


Figure 1. Analysis of UFSPTP: Triangulation of Quantitative and Qualitative Data

Quantitative data consisted of student practica placement data and participants' survey responses, which were analyzed for frequency of responses, as well as relevant course syllabi, which were examined using document analysis. Tabulated quantitative data are presented in Tables 3-9. Semi-structured interviews comprised the qualitative data. These data were analyzed and categorized into major and minor themes, each of which were substantiated by consensus among participant responses, and aligned with the guidelines of Haberman's (1987) framework.

Research Question 1: How do these UFSPTPs prepare their students for effective urban practice?

Figure 2 presents the sources and systematic alignment of all quantitative and qualitative data collected in this study. Four categories and 10 themes emerged, each of which are discussed in further detail below.

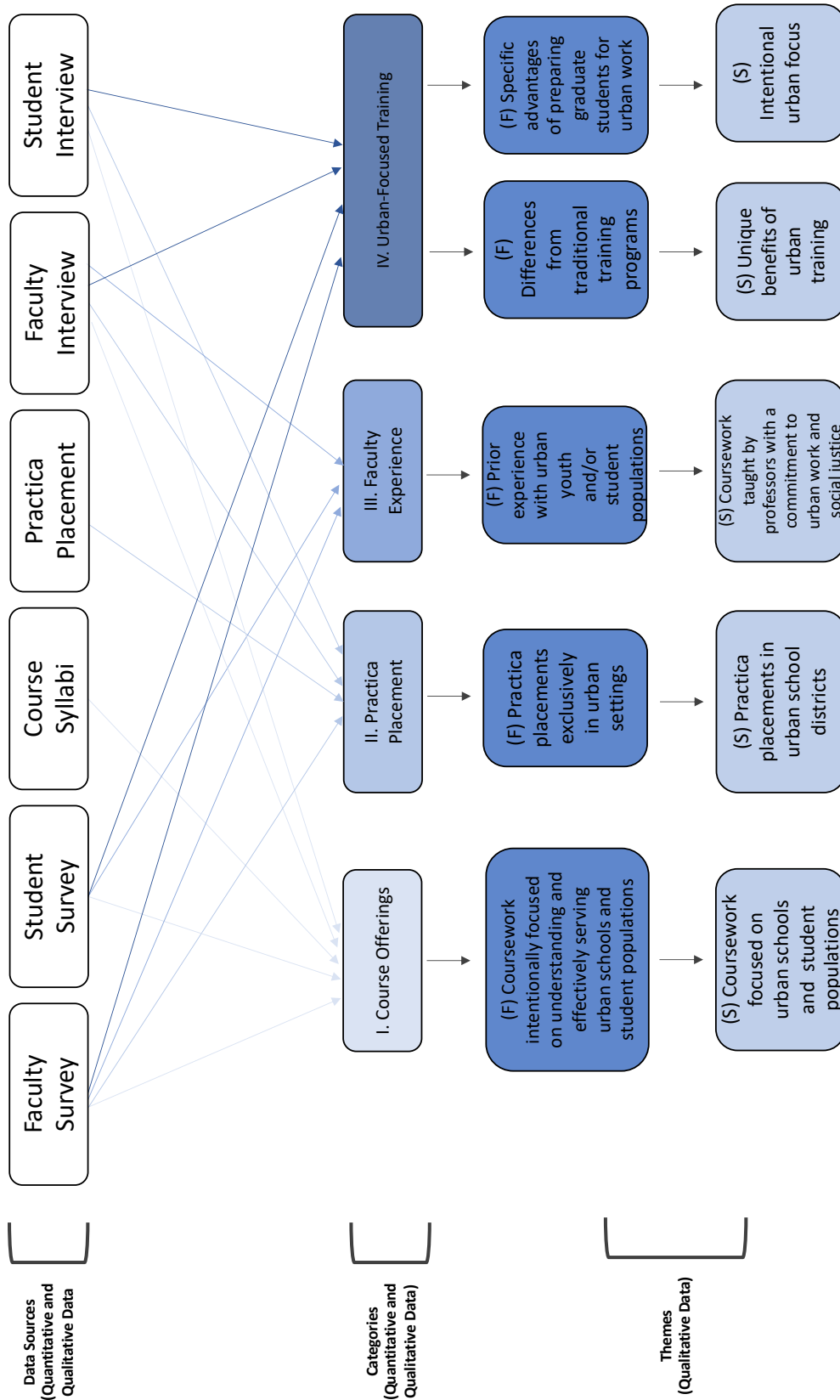


Figure 2. Research Question One: Visual Depiction of Quantitative and Qualitative Data

Category I: Course Offerings

Syllabi data. Table 3 presents the percentage of course readings related to urban schools, urban and/or CLD student populations, and/or USPP. Assessment, consultation, intervention, practicum and/or internship supervision, and multicultural competence/culturally appropriate practice course syllabi were analyzed to determine how these UFSPTPs prepared their students. We used course readings as a proxy for course content by searching each reading's title and abstract for keywords often associated with urban education: *urban school(s)*, *urban student population(s)*, *high need*, *at-risk*, *culturally and linguistically diverse (cld)*, *inner-city*, *multicultural competence*. We then calculated the percentage of readings focused on these issues.

Table 3
Percent of Course Readings with Relevance to USPP and High Need Students

Course	UFSPTP 1	UFSPTP 2
Assessment	17% (<i>n</i> = 52)	18% (<i>n</i> = 60)
Consultation	15% (<i>n</i> = 33)	N/A*
Evidence-based Intervention	5% (<i>n</i> = 44)	30% (<i>n</i> = 33)
Multicultural Competence/ Culturally Appropriate Practice	42% (<i>n</i> = 52)	100% (<i>n</i> = 13)
Practicum Supervision	0% (<i>n</i> = 24)	N/A*
Internship Supervision	3% (<i>n</i> = 36)	N/A*

Note. *Syllabus not provided.

Survey data. Tables 4 and 5 list survey questions and tabulations for questions that elicited data on the relevance of course offerings specific to serving high need schools and student populations from faculty members and students, respectively.

Table 4
Frequency of Relevant Courses: Faculty Survey

Faculty Responses	UFSPTP 1 (<i>n</i> = 3)	UFSPTP 2 (<i>n</i> = 2)
Consultation with high need urban students?	(2) One Course (1) Two Courses	(2) Two Courses
Intervention with high need urban students?	(1) No Courses (1) One Course (1) Two Courses	(1) Two Courses (1) Four + Courses
Multicultural Issues in USPP?	(1) One Course (1) Three Courses (1) Four + Courses	(1) Two Courses (1) Four + Courses
Systemic Challenges of USPP?	(1) One Course (2) Four + Courses	(2) One Course
School psychologist role in high needs urban schools?	(1) One Course (2) Four + Courses	(1) Two Courses (1) Three Courses
Extent to which these courses prepared students for USPP.*	(1) 3 out of 5 (1) 4 out of 5	(2) 4 out of 5

*Note. *0 = Not at all prepared, 5 = Completely prepared*

Table 5
Frequency of relevant courses: Student Survey Responses

Student Responses	UFSPTP 1 (<i>n</i> = 4)	UFSPTP 2 (<i>n</i> = 3)
Include extensive information on norm-based assessment?	(1) None (2) One Course (1) Three Courses	(2) One Course (1) Three Courses
Include extensive information on other kinds of assessment?	(1) None (1) One Course (1) Three Courses (1) Four + Courses	(2) None (1) One Course
Include extensive information on consultation?	(1) None (2) One Course (1) Two Courses	(3) One Course
Include extensive information on interventions?	(1) None (1) One Course (1) Two Courses (1) Four + Courses	(3) One Course
Include extensive information on multicultural issues?	(1) None (2) One Course (1) Four + Courses	(2) Two Courses (1) Three Courses
Course(s) that address the systemic challenges of USPP?	(4) Four + Courses	(1) One Course (1) Two Courses (1) Four + Courses
Course(s) that include information about the school psychologist role?	(1) None (2) Two Courses (1) Four + Courses	(1) None (1) One Course (1) Four + Courses
Extent to which these courses prepared you for USPP.*	(4) 4 out of 5	(2) 4 out of 5 (1) 5 out of 5

Note. * 0 = Not at all prepared, 5 = Completely prepared

Interview data. In the category “**Course Offerings**”, *Coursework intentionally focused on understanding and effectively serving urban schools and student populations* emerged as a major theme from the faculty interviews, and *Coursework focused on urban student populations* emerged as a minor theme from the student interviews. These themes represent the participants’ perceptions of their UFSPTP’s course offerings directly related to effective USPP.

Category one: Course offerings. All four faculty members endorsed *Coursework intentionally focused on understanding and effectively serving urban schools and student populations*, resulting in a major theme. This theme was defined as mention of courses that deliberately included literature, assignments, and/or class discussion linking general school psychology graduate training to USPP. For example, one faculty member expressed her commitment to providing her students with an urban lens. She stated:

I think you have to be really intentional to teach about these other [urban] populations and understanding what are some of the things they [urban students] experience, what is the trauma that they've experienced, and how does that impact behavior? How does it impact academics?

Another participant expressed similar sentiments, stating:

I do specifically include lots of empirical articles about these various [urban] practices in schools, in urban communities, and in urban context. In that way, I think that it's helpful for students to kind of read about these things so that when they're experiencing them, it kind of normalizes it a little bit so they feel like, "Okay, so this is just a challenge that sometimes this setting has, so what can I do about it? Other people have been successful in overcoming this and being creative with resources, how can I do that as a school psychologist?"

Similarly, three of six interviewed internship students reported that their programs included *Coursework focused on urban student populations*, which was defined as mention of readings, assignments, and/or class discussions related directly to understanding urban students and how to best serve them in USPP. For example, one internship student reported that this theme was present in many of her courses, stating:

I think that our assessment courses, all the cognitive, the academic, and the social-emotional courses have incorporated lessons where we talk about high need urban students and how we address the common challenges that they've faced, and how to tackle those.

Another participant reported that her program “does a pretty good job with incorporating conversations about race and diversity and working with underserved populations throughout their courses.”

Category one: Course offerings findings. Triangulating across data from the course syllabi, survey responses, and interviews suggests that both programs demonstrate intentional efforts to incorporate readings, activities, and discussions about USPP. Clearly, faculty members report this intention, and there is evidence of relevant readings in most of the syllabi. However, despite the clear intention by program faculty, it is less clear that students recognize their coursework as being tailored toward effective USPP. For example, participant reports of the number of course offering addressing the systemic challenges of USPP, specifically, were inconsistent, ranging from one to four or more courses for faculty ($M =$ two courses) and student ($M =$ three courses) survey responses. Further, some students reported that no courses, or no courses within specific categories (e.g., assessment $M =$ one course) included activities or readings focused on USPP. The frequency of readings focused on USPP-related issues also varied considerably (faculty $M =$ two courses, student $M =$ two courses).

As one might predict, multicultural courses included substantial USPP-related content (42% and 100%, respectively), but other core school psychology training domains often had fewer relevant readings (e.g., EBI= 5% and 30%, respectively; little evidence of such readings in practicum and internship classes). Overall, less than half of relevant course offerings (UFSPTP 1,

two out of six provided syllabi; UFSPTP 2, one out of three provided syllabi) included 50% or more USPP-related readings (see Table 3). However, counting course readings probably underrepresents how much these programs focus on USPP content as faculty and student interviewees referenced that their course discussions and activities often centered around understanding the impact that these conventional practices have on urban schools, student populations, and practitioners. Importantly, when asked to rate how prepared students were for USPP, by far the most frequent rating by both groups was four out of five, with five being “completely prepared.”

Category II: Practica Placement

Program data. Both participating universities provided student practica placement data for the last five academic school years (2013-2014 to 2017-2018). Data reported that 100% of all practicum students completed fieldwork assignments in urban school districts. For the purposes of this study, urban schools were operationally defined as those serving high rates of racially and ethnically diverse students, (Boutte, 2012; Moore & Lewis, 2012).

Survey data. Faculty members’ survey responses were reviewed to analyze student practica placement in an urban school district (see Table 6).

Table 6
Frequency of Practica Placement: Faculty Survey Responses

Faculty Responses	UFSPTP 1 (<i>n</i> = 3)	UFSPTP 2 (<i>n</i> = 2)
Percentage of practica placements in urban school district.	(3) 76-100%	(2) 76-100%
Practica and internship tailored for effective USPP?	(3) Yes	(2) Yes
Extent to which the practica/internship prepares internship students?*	(2) 4 out of 5 (1) 5 out of 5	(1) 4 out of 5 (1) 5 out of 5

Note. * 0 = Not at all prepared, 5 = Completely prepared

Interview data. In the category “**Practica Placement**”, *Practica placements exclusively in urban settings*, and *Practica placements in urban school districts* emerged as major themes

from faculty and student interviews, respectively. These themes represent the participants' perceptions of their UFSPTP with regard to the fieldwork experiences that they completed in local urban school districts. Example interview questions that elicited such data included:

Faculty Member Interview Script:

- What impacts do placements in urban schools have on your students?

Internship Student Interview Script:

- How does your placement in urban schools impact your level of preparedness when serving high need urban students?

Category two: *Practica placement.* Faculty member interview data from all four participants indicate that *Practica placements exclusively in urban settings* emerged as a major theme. This theme was defined as placing second year graduate students in local high need urban schools, exclusively. More specifically, one participant celebrated the benefits of having their practica students working solely with urban student populations, stating, “It has been a huge transition for our program and it's also helped build the capacity of the district for training our students in best practices and really getting to partner with the most diverse district in our metro area.”

Likewise, *Practica placements in urban school districts*, emerged as a major theme among internship students, and was endorsed by five out of six students as a critical element of their UFSPTP. One participant spoke to the influence that her placement had on her level of familiarity with the systemic challenges present in urban schools, stating:

I would say I'm pretty familiar [with systemic challenges] mainly because of the field experiences I've had throughout the program... I've been involved in an urban setting...

through practicum and advanced practicum... I think I'm pretty familiar [and] definitely aware of the issues of urban psychology or urban school psychology.

Another internship student expressed similar sentiments regarding her program's intention when placing practica students in local urban school districts. She stated:

Essentially, they've put us into that [urban] experience so that we can bring that knowledge back with us into our courses so that it's more than just someone reading from a lecture; it's taking our real life experiences and what challenges that we see and what struggles that our supervisors are facing, and incorporating that into the lesson.

Category two: Practica placement findings. Triangulated data review support that both programs employ intentional efforts to place all practica-level students in high need urban school districts, exclusively. This finding is consistent across data from participating programs' reported placement data, faculty survey responses (see Table 2.6), and faculty and student interviews. Notably, internship students' interview data and faculty survey responses both conclude that exclusive practica placement in urban school districts is critical in preparing prospective urban practitioners for effective USPP, with the majority of faculty survey endorsing a rating of at least four out of five, with five being "completely prepared."

Category III: Faculty Experience

Survey data. Quantitative data analysis indicated that both participating UFSPTPs have faculty members with experience in urban settings and/or with serving high need student populations. Survey questions that elicited such data, as well as participant responses, are included below in Table 7.

Table 7
Frequency of Faculty Experience: Faculty and Student Survey Responses

Faculty Responses	UFSPTP 1 (<i>n</i> = 3)	UFSPTP 2 (<i>n</i> = 2)
Current urban resident?	(3) Yes	(2) Yes
Experience as urban practitioner prior to professoriate role?	(2) Yes (1) No	(1) Yes (1) No
How long?	(2) 8-12 Years (1) Not Applicable	(1) 0-3 Years (1) Not Applicable
Extent that faculty members focus on USPP?*	(1) 3 out of 5 (2) 4 out of 5	(2) 4 out of 5
Impact of prior experiences on current professoriate role.**	(3) 5 out of 5	(1) 2 out of 5 (1) 5 out of 5
Internship Student Responses	UFSPTP 1 (<i>n</i> = 4)	UFSPTP 2 (<i>n</i> = 3)
Extent to which faculty members focus on USPP?*	(2) 3 out of 5 (1) 4 out of 5 (1) 5 out of 5	(1) 3 out of 5 (1) 4 out of 5 (1) 5 out of 5

Note. * 0 = Not focused at all, 5 = Completely focused; **0 = Not significant, 5 = Extremely significant

Interview data. In category three, “**Faculty Experience**”, *Prior experience with urban youth and/or student populations*, and *Coursework taught by professors with a commitment to urban work and social justice*, emerged as major themes within the faculty and student interviews, respectively.

Category three: Faculty experience. In the interviews, all faculty members endorsed *Prior experience with urban youth and/or student populations* as a major theme, which was defined as exposure to and/or experience working with urban youth populations before entering their role as a school psychology professor. For example, one participant self-identified as a White female with no prior experience in urban settings. She stated that, as a graduate student, she completed home tutoring for predominantly African American students, which she described as her “...first real introduction to kids doing life in an urban community and school”. Another

participant, who self-identified as an African American female, reported that she worked in a residential treatment facility with minority females, an experience that she states, “really helped me build my empathy”.

Similarly, *Coursework taught by professors with a commitment to urban work and social justice* was endorsed by all six of our interviewed internship students. This theme was defined as reports that professors had experience and continued engagement with urban student populations, which they integrated directly into their teaching. For example, one student discussed the importance of her professor’s ability to tailor general school psychology training to urban populations. She stated:

We learned not only...the kind of technical piece of the class, but also the personal piece where they [professors with urban experience] bring in [their] experiences.... I think it's prepared us to have an idea of how we could approach an issue if it arises for us in the future.

Another participant also reported that one of her most impactful professors possessed a long history in the field of USPP, stating:

... in addition to her [graduate professor] previous experience as a school psychologist in an urban setting, she also does consultation work with a lot of districts. A lot of them are urban as well. So, she really has a really good perspective on systems level issues and how the best way to approach those issues.

Category three: Faculty experience findings. Faculty and internship students’ survey responses and interview data indicate that faculty members possess unique personal and professional commitment to urban work. For example, faculty survey responses indicate that 100% of faculty members currently reside in urban areas. Faculty interview data indicate that all

four faculty members have prior experience working with minority populations, with experiences ranging from residential treatment facilities to home tutoring programs. Faculty survey data further indicate that at least half of faculty participants (UFSPTP 1, two out of three faculty participants; UFSPTP 2, one out of two faculty participants) previously worked as school psychologists in urban districts. Most faculty members (four out of five) identify their prior urban experience as extremely significant in shaping their role as urban school psychology professors.

Category IV: Urban-Focused Training

Survey data. Quantitative data analysis indicated that both participating UFSPTPs tailored their programs to focus on effective service with high need urban schools and student populations within the context of the NASP Standards of Practice. Survey questions that elicited such data, as well as participant responses are included below in Tables 8 and 9.

Table 8
Urban-focused Training: Faculty Survey Responses

Faculty Responses	UFSPTP 1 ($n = 3$)	UFSPTP 2 ($n = 2$)
Tailor NASP Standards of Practice specific to USPP?	(3) Yes	(2) Yes
Tailor NASP Standards of Practice to address systemic challenges of USPP?	(3) Yes	(2) Yes
Extent to which courses prepare students for internship.*	(2) 3 out of 5 (1) 4 out of 5	(2) 4 out of 5
Extent to which hat practica/internship experiences prepare graduates.*	(2) 4 out of 5 (1) 5 out of 5	(1) 4 out of 5 (1) 5 out of 5

Note. * 0 = Not at all prepared, 5 = Completely prepared

Table 9
Urban-Focused Training: Student Survey Responses

Internship Student Responses	UFSPTP 1 (<i>n</i> = 4)	UFSPTP 2 (<i>n</i> = 3)
Extent of preparedness in assessments?*	(4) 4 out of 5	(2) 4 out of 5 (1) 5 out of 5
Extent of preparedness in consultation?*	(2) 3 out of 5 (2) 4 out of 5	(2) 4 out of 5 (1) 5 out of 5
Extent of preparedness in implementing EBIs?*	(2) 3 out of 5 (1) 4 out of 5 (1) 5 out of 5	(3) 4 out of 5
Extent to which courses prepared you for USPP?*	(4) 4 out of 5	(2) 4 out of 5 (1) 5 out of 5
Program's impact on ideas about USPP?***	(1) 2 out of 5 (3) 4 out of 5	(1) 3 out of 5 (1) 4 out of 5 (1) 5 out of 5

Note. *0 = Not at all prepared, 5 = Completely prepared; ***0 = Not significant, 5 = Extremely significant

Interview data. In category four, “**Urban-Focused Training**”, faculty member data identified one major theme, *Differences from traditional training programs*, and one minor theme, *Specific advantages of preparing graduate students for urban work*. In addition, two major themes, *Unique benefits of urban training* and *Intentional urban focus* emerged within the internship student data.

Category four: Urban-focused training. *Differences from traditional training programs* was endorsed by all four faculty members, and was defined as aspects of their UFSPTPs specific to effective urban practice that are different from traditional school psychology training programs. For example, one faculty member reported that her program's admission process attempts to screen for students who have a genuine passion for urban work, stating, “We're trying to get at, “are these students really wanting this urban piece, this social justice piece?”

Another faculty member endorsed similar sentiments and expanded upon the need to adapt NASP Standards of Practice for effective work with urban schools and student populations, reporting that programs with an urban focus must be intentional in addressing as many aspects of USPP as possible. She stated:

So, for us, we felt it [urban-focused training] had to be at all levels. So, it was about recruiting diverse students so that the students learn from each other. It was about having diverse faculty. It was about having all of our practicum in [local urban] schools in an urban environment. It's about trying to infuse things into the curriculum. It was about having our [student] organization have a social justice chair. It's about doing research to the extent that we can on minority populations.

When considering practica and internship field experiences, one participant reported that providing their graduate students with a more comprehensive urban experience required a commitment to program-level change. She stated:

In 2012, we started our partnership with [local urban] Public Schools and with [local urban] Children's Hospital to support the school psychologists because they took on a more comprehensive role. That was the grounding of our comprehensive behavioral health models. Part of that was expanding the role of the school psychologist... so we changed our entire practicum...[and] started putting all of our practicum students in the [local urban] Public Schools.

Additionally, both faculty members from UFSPTP 1 endorsed *Specific advantages of preparing graduate students for urban work* as a minor theme, which was defined as distinct characteristics of urban-focused school psychology training intended to improve the effectiveness of prospective urban practitioners. For example, one participant stated:

I think its commendable that the faculty and the program have done a nice job of really knowing what are the needs in urban schools...and being sure that we incorporate that into our conversations in the classroom, the readings, and the assignments.

Similarly, four of six interviewed internship students endorsed *Unique benefits of urban training*, which was defined as school psychology training exclusive to an UFSPTP with a distinct urban relevance. More specifically, internship students explained that their UFSPTP cultivated their preparedness for urban work. For example, one participant stated:

I feel equipped to work in an urban setting. I don't feel like I'm going to get a culture shock or anything if I go into an urban setting, like I'm not going to know what to do. I feel like I'm pretty prepared.

Another participant expressed similar sentiments regarding the impact that her urban-focused training had on her level of preparedness when serving urban schools and student populations. She stated:

I think it's just given me the tools necessary to face adversity because no matter where you go, it's going to have specific challenges, whether those are systemically urban challenges or not, but I think it just showed me how to assess a situation as a big picture, address what we can do as school psychologists, as practitioners, and as members of a school community.

Additionally, five of six interviewed students reported that their program has an *Intentional urban focus*, which was defined by internship students as their program's intentional commitment to effectively serve urban schools, student populations, and families. For example, two participants praised their program's commitment to urban practice, one stating, "I wouldn't be

where I am if it hadn't been for everything my program entailed". The other participant expressed similar sentiments regarding her UFSPTP, stating, "They walk the walk. They don't just say, "Oh we're urban-focused." They actually really are...I would say they [professors] really did a good job of incorporating it [the urban focus] throughout the program". Similarly, another participant spoke to the significance of her program's infused urban focus, stating, "I think it has a huge impact because they [professors] are doing the work [in urban settings] while we are doing it [urban work] as well".

Category four: Urban-focused training findings. Data analysis across faculty and student survey responses and interviews supports the notion that participating UFSPTPs offer unique experiences when compared to traditional school psychology training. These experiences subsequently appear to result in students who feel better prepared for effective USPP. Findings are particularly relevant to NASP training standards (i.e., assessment, consultation, evidence-based interventions) as 100% of participants reported that their programs intentionally tailored NASP Standards of Practice to address systemic challenges in USPP. Student survey data indicate that the vast majority of surveyed students endorsed very prepared (four out of five) regarding their level of preparedness for USPP, specifically.

Data analysis across survey responses and interviews also support faculty and student participants' reports of their training program's urban focus. For example, a quantitative (see Table 3) and qualitative analysis of student placement data indicate commensurate findings regarding the importance of embedding the needs of urban schools and student populations into as much of the course offerings, class discussion, assignments, field experiences, and graduate research opportunities as possible. More specifically, student participants report that this level of intentional urban focus sets their respective training program apart from more traditional school

psychology programs by offering them with the professional training, supervision, and competence necessary to effectively serve high need urban schools and student populations (see Table 9).

Research Question 2) In what ways do the programs' main components compare to Haberman's (1987) framework for effective urban teacher training? An additional review of study findings was further conducted to address the second research question. Research question two focuses specifically on identifying similarities between our study's findings and those of Haberman's (1987) critical components of effective urban teacher training. Table 10 lists Haberman's (1987) four overarching critical components with subsequent factors found to improve student success linked to our summary findings.

Table 10

Haberman's (1987) Critical Components for Effective Urban Teacher Training: In-Depth Analysis to Two UFSPTP

Component	UFSPTP 1	UFSPTP 2
Faculty familiar with urban issues, schools, and methods deliver the teacher preparation curriculum	X	X
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rigorous first course determines candidates' continuation. • Instructors are faculty and effective urban teachers who: (a) serve as teacher educators, mentors, and instructional leaders to candidates, and (b) also work directly with high need students. • Extensive and on-going in-service training required for faculty. • Functional partnerships with urban parent and community groups to give these constituencies voice in the curriculum. • Emphasis and assessment of the dispositions of effective urban teaching practice (see Table 2). 	X	X
Training situated in urban schools	X	X
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Most training is conducted in urban schools with high need students. • Includes in-depth mentoring and supervision from effective urban teachers who: (a) work in urban schools, (b) model dispositions of effective urban teaching practice, and (c) can assess mastery of these dispositions. 	X	X
Incorporate explicit urban education targets		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase the number of adequately trained urban teachers. • Improve the conditions of teaching in urban schools. 	X	X
Incorporate a full year of fully supervised intern teaching in high need schools leading to a modified certification in urban education.		

Note. Haberman, 1987

Research question 2: Findings. Our data reveal that both participating UFSPTPs incorporate several aspects of Haberman's (1987) critical components of effective urban teacher training in their respective programs. Such findings include hiring faculty with a clear interest in urban work and experience serving high need student populations prior to entering the professoriate (see Table 7). Data also indicate that these faculty prioritize the need to tailor traditional NASP Standards of Practice to their program's emphasis on effective USPP (see

Table 6) and that begins specifically during the applicant interview process. For example, both faculty members from UFSPTP 2 reported that their program's interview process included urban-focused case studies and questions tailored to explore prospective candidates' perspectives and understanding of systemic factors that directly impact minority and disadvantaged students. More specifically, one faculty member reported that the interview process allows faculty to "...see how they're [prospective candidates] thinking about social justice" because social justice "...is what we're all about." Data analysis further shows the programs emphasize training situated in urban schools, exclusively (see Table 6). As such, triangulated data reveal that the programs provide practicum supervision by current urban school psychologists to increase students' levels of preparedness and competence when entering the field as urban practitioners (see Tables 8 and 9).

Discussion

This study of UFSPTPs employed a multi-method sequential explanatory design (Ivankova et al., 2006) using surveys, interviews, and document-review to examine: (1) How these UFSPTPs prepare their students for effective urban practice, and (2) The ways the programs' main components compare to Haberman's (1987) framework for effective urban teacher training. The study is the first of its kind and makes a unique contribution to the literature by establishing notable parallels between training for urban school psychologists and the literature on training urban teachers, including substantial alignment between the two studied programs and Haberman's (1987) criteria for effective urban educator preparation. Commensurate findings from both programs establish that both faculty and student participants identified distinct characteristics as unique to their UFSPTPs, which may be different from those found in school psychology training programs without an urban focus.

Specifically, these two programs intentionally incorporate readings, content, and class discussion related to urban practice in key required courses such as: assessment, consultation, and intervention. The programs deliberately require direct urban school experiences by placing students in high need urban schools for practica. Program faculty and field supervisors have deep experience in and continued commitment to effective USPP and the communities they serve. Finally, the programs are deliberately urban focused as is evident in their program materials, coursework, faculty interests, and applicant selection procedures.

Unique characteristics of UFSPTPs. These UFSPTPs' intentional focus on urban schools and communities begins with hiring faculty members who are committed to urban work, who have experience with urban high need students prior to entering the professoriate, and who work to infuse their coursework with relevant content. All faculty participants with prior and ongoing experiences serving urban schools and student populations find that these experiences directly drive their efforts to tailor traditional NASP Standards of Practice to meet the unique needs of urban practitioners, specifically. This was evident in the faculty interviews (e.g., "So, for us, we felt it [urban-focused training] had to be at all levels") and in virtually all aspects of the programs. Their website materials also made the urban-focus and diversity initiatives clear to prospective students, and their applicant selection processes intentionally select students who are interested in urban schools, diverse students, and social justice.

Once enrolled, students take classes that include readings and content focused on USPP. The students reported that their "...courses have incorporated lessons where we talk about high need urban students and how we address the common challenges that they've faced..." and generally endorsed that much of their coursework included content relevant to urban practice. Data

from the syllabi suggest that the assigned readings also include articles specific to high need urban schools and student populations, but the percentage of that content varies from a high of 100% in the Multicultural Competence course at UFSPTP 2 to lows in the single digits for the Evidence-Based Interventions and Practicum Supervision courses at UFSPTP 1 (5% and 0%, respectively). These seemingly low percentages for readings specific to urban schools and student populations may seem contradictory to these programs' emphasis on urban work. However, the findings are not surprising, given how little school psychology literature addresses racial/ethnic groups specifically (Noltemeyer et al., 2013), or that makes mention of best practices specific to high need urban schools and student populations (Lopez & Bursztn, 2013). This is especially true for the evidence-based intervention literature, which is most often based on students who attend suburban school districts (Henrich et al., 2010; Li et al., 2015; Stoiber & Vanderwood, 2008).

Despite limited research specific to effective urban school psychology training and practice, both UFSPTPs reported purposefully assigning readings relevant to effective urban practice and high need student populations, particularly in courses recognized by NASP as essential to effective daily practice (i.e., Fagan & Wise, 2007; NASP, 2010; Ysseldyke et al., 1997). Student participants further endorsed that they believe their faculty members' also make concerted efforts to bridge the gaps between school psychology literature and USPP by incorporating previous and ongoing experiences working with urban youth in classes. This was evident in the student interviews (e.g., "... in addition to her [graduate professor] previous experience as a school psychologist in an urban setting, she also does consultation work with a lot of districts. A lot of them are urban as well. So, she really has a really good perspective on systems level issues and how the best way to approach those issues."), and further emphasizes the need for faculty members who

not only can teach general professional skills listed in the NASP Standards of Practice (2010), but also have the conviction to intentionally tailor these skills for effective urban work.

Moderating the deficits in the literature on effective urban school psychology training and practice is a weighty responsibility for UFSPTPs. The need to do so highlights voids in the current general school psychology literature and training guidelines, which often fail to adequately recognize the systemic and institutionalized oppression (i.e., economic disadvantage, political marginalization, immigration, chronic under-funding, racism, classism) facing the students in many urban communities (Batts, 2012; Blanchett, 2010; Boutte, 2012; Graves et al., 2014; Moore & Lewis, 2012; Popp et al., 2011; Truscott & Truscott, 2005). This lack extends to neglecting how such injustices directly influence the content and processes of school psychology graduate training needed for professionals who work in these settings. Thus, the national literature and guidelines may not address the needs of the expanding and increasingly diverse urban student population (NCES, 2013; University of Michigan Urban Education, 2015; U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).

One might wonder if all this emphasis on urban practice and multicultural competence matters. Perhaps having a program's course scope and sequence follow NASP Standards of Practice (2010) and practicum placements aligned with NASP recommendations would produce graduates who could work effectively in any school. Studies to test that hypothesis have not been conducted, but the specific urban-focused applicant selection processes, course content, practica placements, and faculty experience adopted by the programs we studied seems to make a difference. For example, 100% of faculty participants indicated that "...getting to partner with the most diverse district in our metro area" and establishing functional partnerships with local urban

school psychologist directly informed their program's ability to be aware of the ongoing systemic challenges that impact urban schools and students, as well as the pertinent needs of urban practitioners.

Faculty and student participants also thought completing practica placements in urban schools and being supervised by effective urban practitioners was important. All student participants endorsed their practicum placement as critical in increasing their awareness of how longstanding and current systemic challenges impact urban education. One stated, "I would say I'm pretty familiar [with systemic challenges] mainly because of the field experiences I've had throughout the program." Furthermore, one student reported "...it's taking our real life experiences and what challenges that we see and what struggles that our supervisors are facing, and incorporating that into the lesson..." It is through this process that students feel prepared for urban practice so much that all seven endorsed being "very" or "completely" prepared for urban school psychology practice. One student succinctly reported "I feel equipped to work in an urban setting."

Parallels across these UFSPTPs and Haberman's effective urban teacher training.

This study began by examining Haberman's seminal work on the recruitment, selection, and training of effective urban teachers (Haberman, 1987; 1995), which has informed the urban teaching training literature (Diez & Murrell, 2010; Lane, 2017; Miller, 2016; Milner, 2012; Proctor, Rentz, & Jackson, 2001). Haberman (1987) argued that graduate training delivered by faculty familiar with urban issues, situated in urban schools, focused intentionally of urban contexts, and modified specifically to meet the needs of urban schools and student populations was critical for effective urban educator preparation. The current urban teacher training literature continues to support many of Haberman's key observations (Diez & Murrell, 2010; Hollins et al., 2010).

The literature also provides empirical evidence that minority students who have urban teachers with the critical dispositions and targeted urban-focused training (Diez & Murrell, 2010; Haberman, 1995; Hollins et al., 2010) are more likely to increase their reading and mathematics skills, and positive self-identities (Bonner, 2014; Denton et al., 2003; Dorman, 2012; Gay, 2002; Ladson-Billings, 1995; 2009). These academic and social-emotional gains are critical in improving long-term outcomes and fostering upward trajectories of many high need urban students who may encounter longstanding socio-political challenges (i.e., elevated crime and substance abuse, limited healthcare, tense cultural interfaces, increasing immigration, and varying property values: Frankenberg, 2009; Hannon, 2016; Holcomb-McCoy, 2005; Lee, 2005; Lewis & Moore, 2008; McCormick et al., 2014; Truscott & Truscott, 2005) that can lead to student disengagement, academic underachievement, and a lack of financial advancement (Christofferson & Callahan, 2015; Lopez & Burszty, 2013). Furthermore, well-prepared and explicitly trained urban educators are more likely to offer counterpoints to “deficit-based” perceptions of urban students (Barton, 2001; Gorski, 2008).

Improving the longitudinal outcomes of high need urban students is also important for school psychologists, who have been charged generally to focus more on student outcomes than special education classification (Reschly, 2008), and specifically, to attend to urban and diverse student populations (Graves et al., 2014; Truscott & Truscott, 2005). However, similar to findings from urban teacher training, it seems clear from the available research on USPP (Graves et al., 2014; Lopez & Burszty, 2013; Milofsky, 1989; Newell et al., 2010; Truscott & Truscott, 2005; Truscott et al., 2014) that training in NASP’s general skills and competencies alone may not be sufficient for effective practice in urban schools with large numbers of impoverished and CLD students (Grishby et al., 2016). The complexities of USPP may require training emphases

like those required for effective urban teachers. If that conjecture is accurate, then the two UFSPTPs that we studied are on the right track.

We found notable parallels between the two studied UFSPTPs and the foci, faculty preparation, applicant selection, commitment, coursework content, and practicum requirements described by Haberman (e.g., 1987; 1995) and others (Bonner, 2014; Denton et al., 2003; Dorman, 2012; Gay, 2002; Ladson-Billings, 1995; 2009) needed to produce effective urban teachers. This makes sense, as both teachers and school psychologists in urban settings encounter the unique and multifaceted needs of urban students (Christofferson & Callahan, 2015) while simultaneously mitigating the longstanding challenges associated with working in the most impoverished, diverse, and under-resourced schools (Batts, 2012; Blanchett, 2010; Boutte, 2012; Carroll Massey et al., 1975; Hannon, 2016; Hodgkinson et al., 2017; Leon, 2014; Lewis & Moore, 2008; Petty et al., 2012; University of Michigan Urban Education, 2015). Our results demonstrate that the studied UFSPTPs tailor the NASP Standards of Practice by integrating three specific components of Haberman's (1987) framework on effective urban teacher training. Specifically, these programs: (a) hire faculty and recruit students with prior experience with and a commitment to serve urban youth, (b) integrate intensive efforts to infuse the current realities and established effective urban school psychology practices throughout their training programs, and (c) place students in urban school districts with experienced urban practitioners, exclusively.

Intentionally selecting committed faculty and students, infusing courses with relevant urban content, and placing students in authentic urban contexts seem to result in students who are prepared and confident for urban practice. Student participants with prior experience working with minority, marginalized, and disadvantaged youth reported increased levels of perceived preparedness. This pattern of predisposition and focused training leading to effective practice and

confidence is consistent with Haberman and Post (1998), and was evident among all student participants, particularly those who self-identified as a racial/ethnic minority. Such findings further reinforce the need for increased diversity (i.e., racial, ethnic, cultural, or linguistic) among school psychology graduate students (Graves, et al., 2014), especially those attending UFSPTPs.

The notable parallels between the urban teaching training literature and these two UFSPTPs suggests that, regardless of discipline, graduate training programs targeting effective urban work with high need schools and student populations tend to incorporate similar training components in direct alignment with Haberman's (1987;1995) framework for effective urban educator preparation. This is promising empirical evidence for the field of school psychology, as established urban teaching research suggests that educators who possess the dispositions of effective urban teachers (e.g., Haberman 1995), and receive training following Haberman's (1987) framework elicit better outcomes with high need urban students (Bonner, 2014; Denton et al., 2003; Dorman, 2012; Gay, 2002; Ladson-Billings, 1995; 2009). Such successes may allow these teachers to maximize the often untapped potential of impoverished and CLD students. Our study does not establish the same outcomes for UFSPTPs, but it does establish that at least these two programs have the precursor elements in place. As such, this study elucidates promising practices for school psychology training that focuses on serving the large and growing population of students from diverse racial/ethnic backgrounds who live in urban centers and attend under-resourced schools.

Limitations

This study presents various limitations. First, this study included only two urban-focused school psychology training programs (UFSPTPs), which included a total participant sample of 12 (UFSPTP 1: $n = 3$ faculty members; $n = 4$ internship students; UFSPTP 2: $n = 2$ faculty

members; $n = 3$ internship students). Additionally, all requested syllabi were not provided for data analysis. While the mixed-methods sequential explanatory design (Ivankova et al., 2006) and triangulation across multiple sources and types of data, programs, and researchers provides confidence in the findings, it is not possible to generalize the findings beyond the extent to which other programs resemble these participating UFSPTPs. Secondly, this study's definition of "urban-focused" relied on similarities found across the programs' respective websites. As such, the criterion sampling technique used was not random, and may have limited the training programs that could participate since initial recruitment emails were only sent to the program directors whose programs: (a) were nested in an urban center, (b) were NASP-approved, (c) offered a specialist degree (Ed.S.) in school psychology, and (d) had a self-identified urban focus website endorsed an urban focus per their program's website.

Thirdly, sample bias may be present, as the initial two program directors who were contacted and consented to participate have a longstanding reputation for their urban-focus and concerted efforts to train graduate students for effective service in urban schools and with high need student populations. Furthermore, the majority of participants had prior interest in and/or experience serving minority, disadvantaged, and marginalized youth. These pre-dispositions to serving such populations may have influenced participants' experiences and perceptions.

Fourthly, data collection focused primarily on the institutional characteristics of our studied UFSPTPs (i.e., program location, course syllabi, practica placement data), which aligned with the structural components of Haberman's framework for effective training. However, additional data acknowledging the demographic characteristics and dispositions of these programs' faculty and internship students were not explored, particularly with regard how such data align with Haberman's (1987) professional dispositions and Haberman and Post's (1998)

background experiences related to effective urban teachers and training. Lastly, data collection relied heavily on retrospective reports as opposed to direct observations. It is possible that discrepancies in the participants' memories could negatively impact the integrity of these findings.

Future Research

Numerous opportunities for future research exist. First, this study only investigated the perceptions of five faculty members and seven internship students from two UFSPTPs. Similar future studies could include larger study samples of UFSPTPs, particularly in various regions of the United States, to determine if these preliminary findings represent UFSPTPs, in general. Secondly, this study aimed to understand the current state of self-identified UFSPTPs committed to urban work, and to determine how their training programs compare to Haberman's (1987) critical components of effective urban teacher training. However, no research exists that explores traditional school psychology training programs or their efforts to address urban schools and student populations. So, there are no comparisons available for such fundamental training elements as course content, course readings, or instructor experience in practice. As such, future research addressing this void in the literature is warranted.

Thirdly, most study participants self-identified as embodying a personal interest in and prior experience serving marginalized and disadvantaged youth, and, while attending their respective UFSPTPs, anticipated high levels of preparedness upon entering the field. However, we made no direct observation of their preparedness nor inquiries about their perceptions of their preparedness after several years of practice. Future studies could include longitudinal investigations of UFSPTP graduates to evaluate their perceived level of preparedness and effectiveness over time. Similarly, a comparable longitudinal study of urban school psychologists who did not

attend UFSPTPs could identify if and how their current levels of effectiveness relate to their training.

Fourthly, this study focused heavily on identifying the “countable” characteristics of the studied UFSPTPs, including the structural components of Haberman’s framework for effective training (i.e., program location, course syllabi, practica placements). Future research could look more deeply into whether and how the programs attend to the professional dispositions and background experiences identified by Haberman (1987) and Haberman and Post (1998). Specifically, future researchers could consider the impact of the identified program components on graduate students’ actual USPP. Lastly, this study utilized a mixed-methods sequential explanatory design (Ivankova et al., 2006) to collect and analyze data. Given that most self-reported data were collected retrospectively (i.e., review of course syllabi, survey responses, semi-structured interviews), future research should include an ethnographic fieldwork study that follows identified UFSPTPs’ programs of study from recruitment to graduation.

Conclusions

Approximately 70% of urban students identify as racial or ethnic minorities (U.S. Census Bureau, 2013). This percentage is projected to increase as the population continues to diversify (Council of Great City Schools, 2010; Hannon, 2016; U.S. Census Bureau, 2015) and urbanize (NCES, 2013; University of Michigan Urban Education, 2015). As a result, the multifaceted state of urban education continues to evolve as schools serve overwhelming percentages of minority, impoverished, and CLD students (NCES, 2013; University of Michigan Urban Education, 2015). Urban teacher training programs began to address these profound shifts in the demographic make-up of urban schools and student populations decades ago (e.g., Haberman, 1987).

In particular, urban teacher training programs' applicant selection and training efforts have focused on increasing the number of teacher-trainees with the professional dispositions necessary for effective urban work and then training them in the competencies needed to provide effective instruction to the children in urban schools (Boggess, 2010; Diez & Murrell, 2010; Haberman, 1987; Hollins et al., 2010).

The research on effective urban teacher training remains relevant today, particularly as recent data continues to substantiate the significant racial/ethnic mismatch between the urban student population (70% minority: U.S. Census Bureau, 2013) and that of their new classroom teachers (White, 67%; Blacks, 14%; Hispanics, 14%: DOE, 2016), many of whom may be unfamiliar with the well-documented and longstanding challenges facing urban communities and their local schools (Batts, 2012; Blanchett, 2010; Boutte, 2012; Graves et al., 2014; Moore & Lewis, 2012; Popp et al., 2011; Truscott & Truscott, 2005). Yet, despite the fact that urban school psychologists work in the same schools with the same populations as their teacher colleagues, there is very little research focused on effective urban school psychology practice (Milofsky, 1989; Stoiber & Vanderwood, 2008; Truscott & Truscott, 2005). It is our contention that the urban teacher preparation literature is relevant to school psychology and can be adapted to help mitigate the notable shortcomings noted in the urban school psychology preparation (Graves et al., 2014; Lopez & Bursztyrn, 2013; Milofsky, 1989; Newell, 2010; Truscott & Truscott, 2005; Truscott et al., 2014).

As such, this study attempts to serve as a catalyst for the expansion of the urban school psychology literature by presenting initial research that examined the current states of two UFSPTPs, and identified how they compared to the well-established literature on effective urban teacher training. We concluded that these programs intentionally incorporate explicit applicant

selection, course content, and practica experiences that align directly with Haberman's (1987) criteria for effective training of urban teachers. This urban focus is evident in their program missions, coursework, faculty member backgrounds and professional interests, applicant selection procedures, and student practica placements. However, although we have high confidence in the current results, we do not know whether the results are generalizable nor do we know whether the effects of the training persist over time, resulting in effective urban school psychology practice that is different from other training approaches.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A – NASP Domains (2010) for School Psychology Practice

NASP Domains of Practice	Skills and Knowledge Obtained in Traditional Training Programs
Data-Based Decision Making and Accountability	School psychologists have knowledge of varied models and methods of assessment and data collection methods for identifying strengths and needs, developing effective services and programs, and measuring progress and outcomes.
Consultation and Collaboration	School psychologists have knowledge of varied models and strategies of consultation, collaboration, and communication applicable to individuals, families, groups, and systems and methods to promote effective implementation of services.
Interventions and Instructional Support to Develop Academic Skills	School psychologists have knowledge of biological, cultural, and social influences on academic skills; human learning, cognitive, and developmental processes; and evidence-based curricula and instructional strategies.
Interventions and Mental Health Services to Develop Social and Life Skills	School psychologists have knowledge of biological, cultural, developmental, and social influences on behavior and mental health, behavioral and emotional impacts on learning and life skills, and evidence-based strategies to promote social-emotional functioning and mental health.
School-Wide Practices to Promote Learning	School psychologists have knowledge of school and systems structure, organization, and theory; general and special education; technology resources; and evidence-based school practices that promote learning and mental health.
Preventive and Responsive Services	School psychologists have knowledge of principles and research related to resilience and risk factors in learning and mental health, services in schools and communities to support multi-tiered prevention, and evidence-based strategies for effective crisis response.
Family–School Collaboration Services	School psychologists have knowledge of principles and research related to family systems, strengths, needs, and culture; evidence-based strategies to support family influences on children’s learning and mental health; and strategies to develop collaboration between families and schools.
Diversity in Development and Learning	School psychologists have knowledge of principles and research related to family systems, strengths, needs, and culture; evidence-based strategies to support family influences on children’s learning and mental health; and strategies to develop collaboration between families and schools.
Research and Program Evaluation	School psychologists have knowledge of research design, statistics, measurement, varied data collection and analysis techniques, and program evaluation sufficient for understanding research and interpreting data in applied settings.

Legal, Ethical, and Professional Practice	School psychologists have knowledge of the history and foundations of school psychology; multiple service models and methods; ethical, legal, and professional standards; and other factors related to professional identity and effective practice as school psychologists.
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Appendix B – Haberman’s Dispositions of Effective Urban Teaching Practice

Haberman, 1995

- Persistence:
 - Teacher continues to find new or different ways to solve seemingly unending problems.
- Response to Authority:
 - Teacher demonstrates composure when criticized by his/her principal (or other authority), and can reconcile differences to effectively advocate for the needs of his/her students.
- Application of Generalizations:
 - Teacher derives meaning from their teaching to move between the general and the specific, and vice versa.
- Approach to “At-Risk” Youth:
 - Teacher acknowledges the societal conditions that contribute to students' problems with school, and bears a primary responsibility for sparking their students' desire to learn.
- Professional Versus Personal Orientation to Students:
 - Teacher separates personal feelings, particularly towards students who exhibit negative/difficult behaviors, from his/her belief that these students can/will learn.
- Burnout:
 - Teacher knows how to protect themselves from an interfering bureaucracy.
- Fallibility:
 - Teacher accepts their own mistakes, and the mistakes of students.

Appendix C – Faculty Survey

Personal Background Information

1. What is your gender?
 - a. Female
 - b. Male
 - c. Prefer not to say

2. What is your age?
 - a. 20-25
 - b. 26-30
 - c. 31-35
 - d. 36 and above
 - e. Prefer not to answer

3. How do you identify racially/ethnically? Choose one or more.
 - a. American Indian or Alaskan Native
 - b. Asian
 - c. Black or African American
 - d. Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
 - e. White
 - f. Hispanic or Latino
 - g. Not Hispanic or Latino
 - h. Prefer not to answer

4. Did you attend an urban high school? *
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. Prefer not to answer

5. Did you attend an urban undergraduate institution? *
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. Prefer not to answer

6. Do you currently reside in an urban city?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. Prefer not to answer

Current Position at UFSPTP

1. Describe your current title. (Please type “Prefer not to answer” if applicable)

2. Which of these courses do you teach in your urban-focused school psychology training program (UFSPTP)? Select all that apply.
 - a. Assessment Series
 - b. Consultation
 - c. Intervention
 - d. Practicum Supervision
 - e. Internship Supervision
 - f. Multicultural Competence/Culturally Appropriate Practice (or relevant course)
 - g. Prefer not to answer

Training and Early Career

1. Did you pursue any other careers/jobs before entering school psychology?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. Prefer not to answer
2. If yes, was it with high need urban student populations?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. Prefer not to answer
3. Did you attend an UFSPTP? *
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. Prefer not to answer
4. Did you practice as a school psychologist in an urban school district before becoming a faculty member at your current program?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. Prefer not to answer
5. If yes, for how long?
 - a. 0-3 years
 - b. 4-7 years
 - c. 8-12 years
 - d. 13 or more years
 - e. Prefer not to answer
6. How long have you been a faculty member at your training program?
 - a. 0-3 years
 - b. 4-7 years
 - c. 8-12 years
 - d. 13 or more years
 - e. Prefer not to answer

Perceptions of Urban School Psychologists as Faculty Members

1. What percentage of this program's faculty identify as a racial/ethnic minority?
 - a. 0-25%
 - b. 26-50%
 - c. 51-75%
 - d. 76-100%
 - e. Prefer not to answer

2. What percentage of this program's faculty currently practice in urban school districts?
 - a. 0-25%
 - b. 26-50%
 - c. 51-75%
 - d. 76-100%
 - e. Prefer not to answer

3. What percentage of courses offered in your program are instructed by urban school psychologists who are currently working in urban schools (i.e., adjunct)?
 - a. 0-25%
 - b. 26-50%
 - c. 51-75%
 - d. 76-100%
 - e. Prefer not to answer

Courses at your Urban-Focused Training Program

1. Which, if any of the following courses are taught by faculty who have previously and/or currently practice as school psychologists in high need urban schools? Select all that apply.
 - a. Assessment Series
 - b. Consultation
 - c. Intervention
 - d. Practicum Supervision
 - e. Internship Supervision
 - f. Multicultural Competence/Culturally Appropriate Practice (or relevant course)
 - g. Prefer not to answer

2. How many courses does this program offer that includes information on Consultation in high need urban schools?
 - a. None
 - b. One Class
 - c. Two Classes
 - d. Three Classes
 - e. Four Classes
 - f. Other _____
 - g. Prefer not to answer

3. How many courses does this program offer that includes information on Interventions specifically for high need urban student populations?
 - a. None
 - b. One Class
 - c. Two Classes
 - d. Three Classes
 - e. Four Classes
 - f. Other _____
 - g. Prefer not to answer

4. How many courses does this program offer that includes information on Multicultural Issues (i.e., Equity, Inclusiveness, Cultural Diversity, Culturally Sensitive Pedagogy/Practice)?
 - a. None
 - b. One Class
 - c. Two Classes
 - d. Three Classes
 - e. Four Classes
 - f. Other _____
 - g. Prefer not to answer

5. Which course(s) does this program offer that address the systemic challenges of urban school psychology practice (USPP) as identified in the literature? (i.e., Large Caseloads, Limited Resources, Overcrowding, High need Students, Heavy Assessment Load, Lack of Parental Involvement, Teacher Turn-over)? (Please type "Prefer not to answer" if applicable)

6. Which course(s) does this program offer that include information about the school psychologist role in a high need urban school? (Please type "Prefer not to answer" if applicable)

Tailoring NASP Standards of Practice

1. Does this program tailor NASP Standards of Practice to include information (i.e., course topics, readings, assignments) about specific effective urban school psychology practices?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. Prefer not to answer

2. Is there any aspect(s) of USPP specifically that is not addressed by NASP's current Standards of Practice?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. Prefer not to answer

3. Does this program tailor NASP Standards of Practice to address systemic challenges in USPP, as identified in the literature? (i.e., Large Caseloads, Limited Resources, Overcrowding, High need Students, Heavy Assessment Load, Lack of Parental Involvement, Teacher Turn-over)?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. Prefer not to answer

Practicum/Internship Placement

1. What percentage of your graduate students complete practica placements in urban school districts?
 - a. 0-25%
 - b. 26-50%
 - c. 51-75%
 - d. 76-100%
 - e. Prefer not to answer

2. What percentage of your graduate students complete internship placements in urban school districts?
 - a. 0-25%
 - b. 26-50%
 - c. 51-75%
 - d. 76-100%
 - e. Prefer not to answer

3. Does the program tailor its students' practica and internship experiences to include experiences specific to effective USPP?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. Prefer not to answer

Evaluative Questions

The following questions require you to make some judgments about your training program, particularly how it prepares its practicum and internship students to work in high need urban schools. Please remember that your responses are anonymous, so no one will know who you are or be able to connect your responses back to you. Please also remember that you can decide not to answer any of the questions.

1. To what extent do you feel that the courses in your training program prepare internship students to serve high need urban student populations? (Please type "Prefer not to answer" if applicable)

(not prepared at all)	0	1	2	3	4	5 (completely prepared)
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2. To what extent do you feel that the practica/internship experiences provided to graduate students prepares them to serve high need urban student populations? (Please type “Prefer not to answer” if applicable)
 (not prepared at all) 0 1 2 3 4 5 (completely prepared)
3. To what extent do you feel that the faculty members of this program are focused on the specific needs of urban schools and urban school psychology practitioners? (Please type “Prefer not to answer” if applicable)
 (not focused at all) 0 1 2 3 4 5 (completely focused)
4. If applicable, how would you describe the impact that your personal experiences as a member of an underrepresented group have had in shaping your role as an urban school psychology professor? (Please type “Prefer not to answer” if applicable)
 (not significant) 0 1 2 3 4 5 (extremely significant)
5. If applicable, how would you describe the impact that your prior experiences with urban students have had in shaping your role as an urban school psychology professor? (Please type “Prefer not to answer” if applicable)
 (not significant) 0 1 2 3 4 5 (extremely significant)
6. Please include any additional information, questions, or concerns that you feel was not asked but is relevant to the present study. These questions/concerns will be revisited during your two audio-recorded semi-structured interviews.

Appendix D – Internship Student Survey

Personal Background Information

1. What is your gender?
 - a. Female
 - b. Male
 - c. Prefer not to say

2. What is your age?
 - a. 20-25
 - b. 26-30
 - c. 31-35
 - d. 36 and above
 - e. Prefer not to answer

3. How do you identify racially/ethnically? Choose one or more.
 - a. American Indian or Alaskan Native
 - b. Asian
 - c. Black or African American
 - d. Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
 - e. White
 - f. Hispanic or Latino
 - g. Not Hispanic or Latino
 - h. Prefer not to answer

4. What is your primary language? (Please type “Prefer not to answer” if applicable)

5. Did you attend an urban high school?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. Prefer not to answer

6. Did you attend an urban undergraduate institution?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. Prefer not to answer

7. What was your undergraduate major? (Please type “Prefer not to answer” if applicable)

8. Did you pursue any other careers/jobs before entering your school psychology training program?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. Prefer not to answer

9. If yes, was it with high need urban student populations?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. Prefer not to answer

10. Describe the racial/ethnic make-up and geographical location of the school psychology training program that you currently attend. (Please type "Prefer not to answer" if applicable)

11. Why did you select your graduate training program? Select all that apply.
 - a. Faculty Research Interest
 - b. Funding
 - c. Location
 - d. Program's Urban Focus
 - e. Reputation/Ranking
 - f. Prefer not to answer

Perceptions of Courses at your Urban-Focused Training Program

1. How many courses have you had that includes extensive information on norm-based assessment with high need urban students?
 - a. None
 - b. One Class
 - c. Two Classes
 - d. Three Classes
 - e. Four Classes
 - f. Other _____
 - g. Prefer not to answer

2. How many courses have you had that includes extensive information on other kinds of assessment (i.e. Curriculum Based Assessment, Functional Behavior Assessment) for high need urban student populations?
 - a. None
 - b. One Class
 - c. Two Classes
 - d. Three Classes
 - e. Four Classes
 - f. Other _____
 - g. Prefer not to answer

3. How many courses have you had that includes extensive information on consultation in high need urban schools?
 - a. None
 - b. One Class
 - c. Two Classes
 - d. Three Classes
 - e. Four Classes

- f. Other _____
 - g. Prefer not to answer
4. How many courses have you had that includes extensive information on interventions for high need urban student populations?
- a. None
 - b. One Class
 - c. Two Classes
 - d. Three Classes
 - e. Four Classes
 - f. Other _____
 - g. Prefer not to answer
5. How many courses have you had that includes extensive information on multicultural issues (i.e., Equity, Inclusiveness, Cultural Diversity, Culturally Sensitive Pedagogy/Practice)?
- a. None
 - b. One Class
 - c. Two Classes
 - d. Three Classes
 - e. Four Classes
 - f. Other _____
 - g. Prefer not to answer
6. Which course(s) does this program offer that address the systemic challenges of urban school psychology practice (USPP) as identified in the literature? (i.e., Large Caseloads, Limited Resources, Overcrowding, High need Students, Heavy Assessment Load, Lack of Parental Involvement, Teacher Turn-over)? (Please type "Prefer not to answer" if applicable)
7. Which course(s) does this program offer that include information about the school psychologist role in a high need urban school? (Please type "Prefer not to answer" if applicable)

Internship Experience

1. Why did you choose your internship placement? Select all that apply.
- a. I did not choose, it was assigned
 - b. Location
 - c. Student demographics
 - d. Supervisor
 - e. Recommendation from classmate
 - f. Compensation
 - g. Other _____
 - h. Prefer not to answer

Perceptions of Your Role as an Internship-Level Student in a High need Urban School(s)

Regarding your Psych-educational Assessment Experience

1. To what extent do you feel prepared to administer assessments and interpret tests scores for your high need urban students? (Please type “Prefer not to answer” if applicable)
(not prepared at all) 0 1 2 3 4 5 (completely prepared)

Regarding your Consultation Experience

2. To what extent do you feel prepared to participate in consultation in your high need urban schools? (Please type “Prefer not to answer” if applicable)
(not prepared at all) 0 1 2 3 4 5 (completely prepared)

Regarding your Experience Implementing Evidence-based Interventions (EBI)

3. To what extent do you feel prepared to implement EBI in your high need urban schools? (Please type “Prefer not to answer” if applicable)
(not prepared at all) 0 1 2 3 4 5 (Completely prepared)

Evaluative Questions

The following questions require you to make some judgments about your training program, particularly how it prepared you for practicum and internship. Please remember that your responses are anonymous, so no one will know who you are or be able to connect your responses back to you. Please also remember that you can decide not to answer any of the questions.

1. To what extent do you feel that the courses in your training program prepared you to serve high need urban students? (Please type “Prefer not to answer” if applicable)
(not prepared at all) 0 1 2 3 4 5 (completely prepared)
2. To what extent do you feel that the faculty members of this program are focused on the specific needs of urban schools and urban school psychology practitioners? (Please type “Prefer not to answer” if applicable)
(not focused at all) 0 1 2 3 4 5 (completely focused)
3. How would you describe your program’s impact in shaping your own ideas about your role as an urban school psychologist? (Please type “Prefer not to answer” if applicable)
(not significant) 0 1 2 3 4 5 (extremely significant)
4. If applicable, how would you describe the impact that your personal experiences as a member of an underrepresented group have had in shaping your role as an urban school psychologist? (Please type “Prefer not to answer” if applicable)
(not significant) 0 1 2 3 4 5 (extremely significant)
5. If applicable, how would you describe the impact that your prior experiences with urban students have had in shaping your role as an urban school psychology practitioner? (Please type “Prefer not to answer” if applicable)
(not significant) 0 1 2 3 4 5 (extremely significant)

6. If you are interested in participating in two audio-recorded semi-structured interviews to further discuss your survey responses, please provide us with your email address.

Appendix E – Faculty Interview Script (1 and 2)

Interview 1

DO NOT TAPE

“My research team and I are interested in studying urban-focused school psychology training programs (UFSPTP) and how they prepare prospective urban practitioners to work successfully with high need urban schools and student populations. We hope that conducting this study will highlight practical implications for the provision of training programs of rising school psychologists, and professional development programs for existing practitioners. For this research we are asking participants to complete a survey and two-series semi-structured interview. We are interested in your participation because your program is approved by the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) and endorses a commitment to urban service. The interviews will be conducted over two consecutive weeks, with one session taking place per week. Each session will last about 35-60 minutes long. During the interviewing, I will briefly ask some basic questions about your personal and professional life as it relates to your school psychology program and career. We will later delve into your perceptions of your UFSPTP. The interviews will take place at an agreed upon location that is convenient for both of us. Additionally, a second and final interview will take place via telephone to validate the information you provided during the first interviews.

SPI- Do you have any questions about the interview or the research?” (Answer any questions individual may have regarding the interview or research.)

SPI- I am now going to begin recording the interview. I will turn the tape recorder off any time you ask me to.

Personal/Professional Background Information

1. What, if any, specific personal and/or professional experiences influenced your decision to pursue school psychology?
 - a. In high need urban schools?
2. Briefly describe your experience as a practicing school psychologist in high need urban schools.
3. Describe how your graduate training informed your practice as an urban school psychologist.

Current Position at UFSPTP

1. What current professional experience(s) do you have with underrepresented and/or culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) groups (e.g., race, language, religion, sexual orientation, disability, nationality)?
 - a. If applicable, do these experiences inform your teaching, and if so, how?
2. How familiar are you with the systemic challenges in USPP? (i.e., Large Caseloads, Limited Resources, Overcrowding, High need Students, Heavy Assessment Load, Lack of Parental Involvement, Teacher Turn-over)?

Urban Focus

1. We selected your program because it has an urban focus. What does that mean to you? How might that differ from a traditional school psychology training program?
 - a. How applicable is traditional school psychology training to urban school psychology practice (USPP)?

Courses/Syllabi

1. How are practicing urban school psychologists incorporated in this program?
 - a. Would there be any benefit to having practicing urban school psychologists as faculty members?
 - b. Would there be any challenges to having practicing urban school psychologists as faculty members?
2. In what ways are urban schools and/or student populations incorporated in the course readings and/or assignments for the following courses:
 - a. Assessment Series
 - b. Consultation
 - c. Intervention

- d. Practicum Supervision
- e. Internship Supervision
- f. Multicultural Competence
- g. Culturally Appropriate Practice

Tailoring NASP Standards of Practice

1. How does this program tailor NASP Standards of Practice to include information specifically on effective USPP?
2. Are any aspects of USPP not addressed by the current NASP Standards of Practice?
 - a. In what way(s) does this program address this deficit(s)?
3. How does this program tailor NASP Standards of Practice to address systemic challenges in USPP, such as, large caseloads, limited resources, overcrowding, high need students, heavy assessment load, lack of parental involvement, and teacher turn-over?
4. Describe the significance of this program's commitment to preparing effective urban school psychologists?

Student Placement

- How does the program tailor practica and internship experiences for effective USPP?
 - a. Are there any benefits to placing students in urban school districts?
 - b. Are there any challenges to placing students in urban school districts?
- What criteria does this program use to select school/district placements for practicum and internship students?
- What criteria does this program use to select supervisors for practica and internship students?
- What impacts do placements in urban schools have on your students?

Interview 2

Might want to take 2 weeks between interview one and interview two

SPI- Hello again (Participant Name), thank you for your time today. In our first interview we discussed in detail your UFSPTP, and in particular how it prepares graduate students for urban school psychology practice (USPP). We also discussed your role as a faculty member, and how you feel your program tailors NASP standards for effective urban practice.

In this second and final interview, we will focus our conversation on reflecting on the questions I posed in interview 1, your answers on the survey, and our overall study. We will begin with the debriefing.

1. Based on our first interview, you stated that...(debrief first interview)...
2. Are there any comments or questions you may have related to this study?
3. What, if any, are some areas that you believe we should address in a future study?

SPI- Thank you again for your time.

Appendix F – Internship Student Interview Script (1 and 2)

DO NOT TAPE

“My research team and I are interested in studying urban-focused school psychology training programs (UFSPTP) and how they prepare prospective urban practitioners to work successfully with high need urban schools and student populations. We hope that conducting this study will highlight practical implications for the provision of training programs of rising school psychologists, and professional development programs for existing practitioners. For this research we are asking participants to complete a survey and two-series semi-structured interview. We are interested in your participation because your program is approved by the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) and endorses a commitment to urban service. The interviews will be conducted over two consecutive weeks, with one session taking place per week. Each session will last about 35-60 minutes long. During the interviewing, I will briefly ask some basic questions about your personal and professional life as it relates to your school psychology program and career. We will later delve into your perceptions of your UFSPTP. The interviews will take place at an agreed upon location that is convenient for both of us. Additionally, a second and final interview will take place via telephone to validate the information you provided during the first interviews.

SPI- Do you have any questions about the interview or the research?” (Answer any questions individual may have regarding the interview or research.)

SPI- I am now going to begin recording the interview. I will turn the tape recorder off any time you ask me to.

Personal/Professional Background Information

1. What, if any, specific personal and/or professional experiences influenced your decision to pursue school psychology?
2. What influenced you to attend an UFSPTP?
3. What, if any, personal experiences did you have with underrepresented and/or culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) groups (e.g., race, language, religion, sexual orientation, disability, nationality) prior to entering your school psychology program?
4. How familiar are you with the systemic challenges in USPP? (i.e., Large Caseloads, Limited Resources, Overcrowding, High need Students, Heavy Assessment Load, Lack of Parental Involvement, Teacher Turn-over)?

Courses

1. What, if any, courses are taught by faculty who have previously and/or currently practice as school psychologists in high need urban schools?
2. In what ways has your program prepared you to effectively assess high need urban students?
 - a. What, if any, aspects of assessing high need urban students need to be covered more?
3. In what ways has your program prepared you to effectively participate in consultation in your high need urban schools?
 - a. What, if any, aspects of consulting in high need schools need to be covered more?
4. In what ways has your program prepared you to implement Evidenced-based Interventions (EBI) in high need schools?
 - a. What, if any, aspects of implementing EBI in high need schools need to be covered more?

Tailoring NASP Standards of Practice

1. How does this program tailor NASP Standards of Practice to include information specifically on effective USPP?
 - a. Which standards are the most relevant to USPP?
 - b. Which standards are the least relevant to USPP?
2. Are any aspects of USPP not addressed by the current NASP Standards of Practice?
 - a. In what way(s) does this program address this deficit(s)?
3. How does this program tailor NASP Standards of Practice to address systemic challenges in USPP, such as, large caseloads, limited resources, overcrowding, high need students, heavy assessment load, lack of parental involvement, and teacher turn-over?

Student Placement

1. How does the program tailor practica and internship experiences for effective USPP?
 - a. Are there any benefits to completing practica and internship in urban school districts?
 - b. Are there any challenges to completing practica and internship in urban school districts?
2. What is your role in selecting your placement for practicum and internship?
3. What is your role in selecting your site supervisor for practicum and internship?
4. How does your placement in urban schools impact your level of preparedness when serving high need urban students?

Evaluative Questions

1. Describe the significance of your previous experiences as a member of, or working with underrepresented and/or CLD groups (i.e., race, religion, sexual orientation, disability, nationality) prior to entering your program on your level of preparedness?
2. Describe the significance of this program's commitment to preparing effective urban school psychologists on your level of preparedness?
3. Describe the significance of having faculty members who have had experience working as urban school psychologists on your level of preparedness?

Interview 2

Might want to take 2 weeks between interview one and interview two

SPI- Hello again (Participant Name), thank you for your time today. In our first interview we discussed in detail your UFSPTP, and in particular how it prepares graduate students for urban school psychology practice (USPP). We also discussed your personal and educational background, and how you feel your program tailors NASP standards for effective urban practice.

In this second and final interview, we will focus our conversation on reflecting on the questions I posed in interview 1, your answers on the survey, and our overall study. We will begin with the debriefing.

1. Based on our first interview, you stated that...(debrief first interview)...
2. Are there any comments or questions you may have related to this study?
3. What, if any, are some areas that you believe we should address in a future study?

SPI- Thank you again for your time.

Appendix G - Faculty Survey Responses

Faculty Participant Response Frequencies: Survey Data

<u>Survey Question</u>	<u>UFSPTP 1 (n = 3)</u>	<u>UFSPTP 2 (n = 2)</u>
Gender?		
Female	3	2
Age?		
31-35	1	0
36+	2	2
Racial/Ethnic Identification?		
Asian	1	0
Black/African American	0	2
White	2	0
Current Title?		
Assistant Professor	1	0
Associate Professor	1	2
Lecturer	1	0
Attended Urban High School?		
Yes	0	1
No	3	0
Prefer not to answer	0	1
Attended Urban Undergraduate?		
Yes	0	1
No	3	1
Live in Urban City?		
Yes	3	2
Relevant Courses Taught?		
2 Courses	1	0
3 Courses	3	1
4 or More Courses	0	1
Pursued another Career?		
Yes	1	0
No	2	2
If so, with Urban Youth?		
Yes	1	0
No	0	0

<u>Survey Question</u>	<u>UFSPTP 1 (n = 3)</u>	<u>UFSPTP 2 (n = 2)</u>
Attended an UFSPTP?		
Yes	1	0
No	2	2
Urban Practitioner (Prior)?		
Yes	2	1
No	1	1
If so, How Long?		
0-3 Years	2	0
8-12 Years	0	1
13 or More Years	1	1
% of Minority Faculty?		
0-25%	3	2
% of Courses Taught by Current Urban Practitioners?		
0-25%	3	2
Courses Taught by Faculty with Urban Experience?		
2 Courses	1	0
3 Courses	1	0
4 or More Courses	1	2
Consultation with high need urban students?	(2) One Course (1) Two Courses	(2) Two Courses
Intervention with high need urban students?	(1) No Courses (1) One Course (1) Two Courses	(1) Two Courses (1) Four + Courses
Multicultural Issues in USPP?	(1) One Course (1) Three Courses (1) Four + Courses	(1) Two Courses (1) Four + Courses
Systemic Challenges of USPP?	(1) One Course (2) Four + Courses	(2) One Course
School psychologist role in high needs urban schools?	(1) One Course (2) Four + Courses	(1) Two Courses (1) Three Courses

<u>Survey Question</u>	<u>UFSPTP 1 (n = 3)</u>	<u>UFSPTP 2 (n = 2)</u>
Tailor NASP Standards of Practice specific to USPP? Yes	3	2
Tailor NASP Standards of Practice to address systemic challenges of USPP? Yes	3	2
% Practica Placement in Urban School Districts? 76-100%	3	2
% Internships in Urban School Districts? 0-25%	0	1
26-50%	1	1
51-75%	2	0
Practica and internship tailored for effective USPP? Yes	3	2
Extent that the practica/internship prepares internship students?	(2) 4 out of 5 (1) 5 out of 5	(1) 4 out of 5 (1) 5 out of 5
Extent that faculty members focus on USPP?	(1) 3 out of 5 (2) 4 out of 5	(2) 4 out of 5
Impact of prior experiences on current professoriate role.	(3) 5 out of 5	(1) 2 out of 5 (1) 5 out of 5
Extent to which these courses prepared students for USPP.	(1) 3 out of 5 (1) 4 out of 5	(2) 4 out of 5

Appendix H – Internship Student Survey Responses

Student Participant Response Frequencies: Survey Data

<u>Survey Question</u>	<u>UFSPTP 1 (n = 4)</u>	<u>UFSPTP 2 (n = 3)</u>
Gender?		
Female	4	3
Male	0	0
Age?		
20-25	2	0
26-30	1	2
31-35	0	1
Prefer not to answer	1	0
Racial/Ethnic Identification?		
Black/African American	1	1
White	3	1
Prefer not to answer	0	1
Primary Language?		
Arabic	0	1
English	4	2
Attended Urban High School?		
Yes	0	2
No	4	1
Attended Urban Undergraduate?		
Yes	0	1
No	4	2
Undergraduate Major?		
Biology	0	1
Early Childhood Education	0	1
Psychology	3	1
Sociology	1	0
Pursued another Career?		
Yes	1	0
No	1	2
If so, with Urban Youth?		
Yes	1	0
No	0	2

<u>Survey Question</u>	<u>UFSPTP 1 (n = 4)</u>	<u>UFSPTP 2 (n = 3)</u>
Racial/Ethnic Makeup of Graduate Program? Diverse, Majority White	4	3
Include extensive information on norm-based assessment?	(1) None (2) One Course (1) Three Courses	(2) One Course (1) Three Courses
Include extensive information on other kinds of assessment?	(1) None (1) One Course (1) Three Courses (1) Four + Courses	(2) None (1) One Course
Include extensive information on consultation?	(1) None (2) One Course (1) Two Courses	(3) One Course
Include extensive information on interventions?	(1) None (1) One Course (1) Two Courses (1) Four + Courses	(3) One Course
Include extensive information on multicultural issues?	(1) None (2) One Course (1) Four + Courses	(2) Two Courses (1) Three Courses
Course(s) that address the systemic challenges of USPP?	(4) Four + Courses	(1) One Course (1) Two Courses (1) Four + Courses
Course(s) that include information about the school psychologist role?	(1) None (2) Two Courses (1) Four + Courses	(1) None (1) One Course (1) Four + Courses
Extent that these courses prepared you for USPP.	(4) 4 out of 5	(2) 4 out of 5 (1) 5 out of 5
Extent of preparedness in assessments?	(4) 4 out of 5	(2) 4 out of 5 (1) 5 out of 5
Extent of preparedness in consultation?	(2) 3 out of 5 (2) 4 out of 5	(2) 4 out of 5 (1) 5 out of 5

<u>Survey Question</u>	<u>UFSPTP 1 (n = 4)</u>	<u>UFSPTP 2 (n = 3)</u>
Extent of preparedness in implementing EBIs?	(2) 3 out of 5 (1) 4 out of 5 (1) 5 out of 5	(3) 4 out of 5
Extent that faculty members focus on USPP?	(2) 3 out of 5 (1) 4 out of 5 (1) 5 out of 5	(1) 3 out of 5 (1) 4 out of 5 (1) 5 out of 5
Extent that courses prepared you for USPP?	(4) 4 out of 5	(2) 4 out of 5 (1) 5 out of 5
Program's impact on ideas about USPP?	(1) 2 out of 5 (3) 4 out of 5	(1) 3 out of 5 (1) 4 out of 5 (1) 5 out of 5
Impact of prior experiences on USPP.	(1) 2 out of 5 (1) 3 out of 5	(1) 3 out of 5 (2) 5 out of 5