The purpose of this study was to review the articles published in major school psychology journals from 2000-2003 for diversity-related literature. It is a follow-up to a study originally conducted by Wiese Rogers (1992) and extended by Miranda and Gutter (2002) that examined the diversity literature in major school psychology journals. Each of these articles called for more diversity-related literature to be published in major school psychology journals. Results indicate that 16.9% of all the articles are diversity-related, an increase from Miranda and Gutter’s findings of 10.6% of all articles. The greatest number of diversity-related articles had an intervention/prevention focus, a change from previous findings of assessment being the dominant focus. Breakdowns of demographic information of the articles will be provided, as well as other areas that have improved and areas that need improvement. Progress the field has or has not made in this area will be discussed.
DIVERSITY LITERATURE IN MAJOR SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY JOURNALS: 2000-2003

A Thesis

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INTRODUCTION

By the year 2050, minority populations in the United States (Hispanic, Black, American Indian, and Asian and Pacific Islander) are projected to include 47.2% of the total population of the country (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000). More importantly for school psychologists, the school age (ages 5-17) minority population will comprise an even larger percentage of the total school-age population, 53.7%, by the year 2050 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000). However, it is unlikely that the diversity of the school psychologists will increase to a proportional level with their clientele in the near future (Fagan & Wise, 2000), but the field still very much demands that its practitioners be culturally proficient (Ysseldyke, Dawson, Lehr, Reschly, Reynolds, & Telzrow, 1997; Bradley-Johnson & Dean, 2000; Thomas & Grimes, 2002). Neville, Heppner, Louie, Brooks, Thompson, & Baker (1996) found that one way for practitioners to become more culturally proficient is by being exposed to readings about diverse populations. One place practitioners can find such diversity-related readings is in five school psychology journals, Journal of School Psychology, Psychology in the Schools, School Psychology Review, and School Psychology Quarterly, and Journal of Applied School Psychology.

Miranda and Gutter (2002) investigated the number of diversity-related articles in the four major school psychology journals from 1990-1999 and found that there was an increase in the percentage of diversity-related articles in these journals, as compared to an original study done by Wiese Rogers (1992), looking at the journals from 1975-1990. Although there was an increase in the number of diversity-related articles, Miranda and Gutter (2002) called for more diversity-related articles to be included in school psychology journals.

The present study is a continuation of Miranda and Gutter’s study. It looks at the number of articles related to diversity in the major school psychology journals from 2000-2003. The minority population in the United States is growing rapidly, while the diversity of school psychologists is not (Curtis, Grier, & Hunley, 2004). School psychologists need to be able to get empirically-based information on how to best work with the diverse populations they will undoubtedly come in contact with, and the field has a responsibility to hold itself accountable for providing this type of information. The present study attempted to measure the progress the field has or has not made in this area.
LITERATURE REVIEW

Demographic Information: Race/Ethnicity

The demographics of the United States are changing rapidly. By the year 2050, minority populations in the United States (Hispanic, Black, American Indian, and Asian and Pacific Islander) are projected to include 47.2% of the total population of the country (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000). More specifically, Hispanic populations will comprise 24.3% of the total population, Blacks (non-Hispanic) will comprise 13.2% of the total population, American Indian (non-Hispanic) will comprise 0.8% of the total population, and Asian and Pacific Islander (non-Hispanic) will comprise 8.9% of the total population.

More importantly for school psychologists, the school-age (ages 5-17) minority population will comprise an even larger percentage of the total school-age population, 53.7%, by the year 2050 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000). More specifically, school-age Hispanic children will comprise 30.1% of the total school-age population, school-age Black (non-Hispanic) children will comprise 13.4% of the total school-age population, school-age American Indian (non-Hispanic) children will comprise 0.9% of the total school-age population, and school-age Asian and Pacific Islander (non-Hispanic) children will comprise 9.3% of the total school-age population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000).

Clearly, the demographics of the school-age population of the United States will be very different than they have been in the past.

Projections for the year 2050 might seem like a long way away, but data from the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) showed that in 1999 there was already a good number of families with school-age children (16.7% of all families with a 5-17 year old child in the home) in the United States that spoke another language besides English, showing that there is already a great deal of diversity among school-age children in the United States today. This data shows that 4.5% of all African-American families, 3.9% of all White families, and 70.9% of all Hispanic families, the fastest growing minority population (NCES, 2002), in the United States with a 5-17 year old child speak another language besides English in the home. Many children in the schools must deal with two very different cultures every day, one at home using one language and another at school using another language.

Demographic Information: Socioeconomic Status
In addition to the racial/ethnic diversity of school-age children, there is also a great deal of diversity of socioeconomic status of children today. Data from the National Center for Educational Statistics show that in 2001 16.7% of all children ages 5-17 in the United States were from families classified as poor and 20.7% of the children ages 5-17 in the United States were from families classified as near-poor (100-199% of the poverty level). 9.7% of White children were classified as poor and 15.4% of White children were classified as near-poor, while 30.5% of African-American children were classified and poor and 28.1% of African-American children were classified as near-poor, and 28.2% of Hispanic children were classified as poor and 33.5% of Hispanic children were classified as near-poor. The minority school-age populations are suffering more from poverty and near-poverty than are White children, but children of all races and ethnicities comprise these lower socioeconomic statuses. Children from low socioeconomic statuses are another diverse population in the schools today.

Demographic Information: School Psychologists

Despite the vast diversity among school-age children in the United States, similar projections for school psychologists in the future do not show the same kinds of trends. Reschly (2000) pointed out that despite increases in the diversity of school psychology graduate students and faculty, the composition of school psychology will remain “overwhelmingly Caucasian” for the next ten years. Based on the results of a nationwide survey of school psychologists, Curtis, Grier, and Hunley (2004) estimated that in 1999-2000 92.8% of school psychologist were White, and 70% of school psychologists were women. These demographics of school psychologists are very different than the demographics of school-age children mentioned above, and Fagan and Wise (2000) write that it is unlikely that school psychology will increase the numbers of practitioners to a proportional level with their clientele in the near future. That is, no time in the near future will the field of school psychology reflect the vast diversity of the students they serve.

Cultural Proficiency in School Psychology

Despite the underrepresentation of minorities in school psychology, the field still very much demands that its practitioners be culturally proficient. The National Association of School Psychologists’ (NASP) Guidelines for the Provision of School
Psychological Services require that school psychologists “have the sensitivity, knowledge, and skills to work with individuals and groups with a diverse range of strengths and needs from a variety of racial, cultural, ethnic, experiential, and linguistic backgrounds” (National Association of School Psychologists, 2002, p.1640). That is, the National Association of School Psychologists requires that school psychologists be able to effectively work with all of the diverse children in the schools today. In addition, Ysseldyke, et al. (1997), in *School Psychology: A Blueprint for Training and Practice II*, a publication of NASP written for the purpose of driving the training and practice of school psychology, also point out that proficiency in working with culturally diverse students is a skill that all school psychologists must have. Children in the schools today are very diverse and will only become more so in the future; school psychologists must be proficient in working with these diverse groups of students. Knoff, Curtis, & Batsche (1997) write, “Clearly we are living in a multicultural world with many important, related psychological and educational issues . . . While students may enter a program with well-developed interpersonal skills, they must learn how to use such skills in working with people of differing perspectives, backgrounds, and cultures” (p. 96-99). Although the lack of diversity in the field of school psychology does not reflect the diverse school-age populations that school psychologists work with, school psychologists must have proficiency in working with people of different cultures and backgrounds to be able to effectively work with all children in the schools. In addition, Bradley-Johnson & Dean (2000) point out that while school psychologists try to build their cultural proficiency, they should keep in mind a broad definition of diversity that includes not only race and ethnicity but also urban-rural residence, geographic location in the United States and other countries, age, gender, socioeconomic status, sexual orientation, and specific family traditions. Children in today’s schools are diverse in a number of different ways. School psychologists should keep all of these factors in mind while working with children in the schools.

Empirical Practices in School Psychology

Another standard set forth by NASP in the *Guidelines for the Provision of School Psychological Services* is that school psychologists should be knowledgeable about current empirically based theory and be able to apply it (National Association of School
Psychologists, 2002). That is, school psychologists should be proficient at consuming current research and being able to apply the research to their work in their own schools. School psychologists should also be able to use research effectively to guide assessment and intervention (Knoff, Curtis, & Batsche, 1997). With scientific knowledge, school psychologists can use data-based and proven methods of working with children in the schools (Bradley-Johnson & Dean, 2000). With access to empirically based theory and the ability to use and apply these theories school psychologists should be able to use scientifically demonstrated ways of helping children in their schools, not just techniques and treatments proven only by anecdotal evidence. Chambless and Hollan (1998) point out that practitioners can only benefit from knowing which treatments are effective with which clients. Because the population of the United States is changing rapidly and becoming more diverse while the field of school psychology is not, access to empirically based techniques with different school-age populations is important. School psychologists need to have access to scientific information that speaks to which techniques and treatments are most effective with which populations. Having access to this type of empirical information will help the field of school psychology become more culturally proficient and more effectively help the diverse school-age population of this country.

Knoff, Curtis, and Batsche (1997) point out that training programs should foster their students’ ability to analyze critically and apply empirically-based research and information. They write that this empirically-based research and information should be based on the most up-to-date empirical literature possible. In addition, the authors suggest that once students become practitioners, they should continue to be life-long learners by continuing the professional activities of staying current with research and applying it in the schools (Knoff, Curtis, & Batsche, 1997). School psychology students should start out by studying the most up-to-date empirically-based research in order to inform their practice later on, and when school psychologists start practicing in the field they should continue to read current empirically-based research and literature to be able to use the most effective techniques in the schools.
Empirically-Based Cultural Proficiency

The two previously mentioned standards set forth by NASP, those of becoming culturally proficient and analyzing and applying empirically-based research and information can go hand in hand. Neville et al. (1996) found that one way that students found helpful in achieving desired changes in multicultural competencies, including skills working with diverse populations, was exposure to readings. Students reported that reading information about diverse populations’ cultures and life experiences helped them develop their multicultural competencies. It follows then that school psychology students and school psychologists that are not yet culturally proficient could become more competent at helping the diverse school-age population by reading the diversity-related empirical research and information. They could then apply the empirically-based practices to their own practices in the nation’s increasingly diverse schools. Reading empirically-based research and information about diverse populations can help school psychologists achieve the two aforementioned NASP standards and become more culturally proficient and effective practitioners in schools with increasing numbers of minority students.

Diversity Research in the Field of Psychology

One place to acquire the most recent data- and empirically-based theories to apply in practice is from scholarly journals. However, the next question remains: Is there enough diversity literature being published to help school psychologists become culturally proficient? Sue (1999) writes that there is a lack of psychological research on minority populations. Graham (1992) also found that there is a shortage of articles related to diverse populations in psychology literature. He found that articles in which African-Americans were the population of interest only accounted for 3.6% of the total published in several psychology journals from 1970-1989 (Graham, 1992). Iwamasa and Smith (1996) also found a shortage of literature in this area. They found that only 1.3% of the treatment or assessment-oriented articles in three behavioral psychology journals focused on diverse populations (Iwamasa & Smith, 1996). Padilla and Lindholm (1995) also found that few articles focused on diverse populations in major psychology journals. Sue (1999) writes that issues related to race and intelligence, test bias, equivalence of measures across different ethnic groups, deficit model theories, the design and
interpretation of research on ethnic minority groups, stereotyping, focus on social structure versus the individual, and the influence of culture continue to be prominent and contentious themes debated in American psychology due to the lack of research in the area of ethnic minorities. Some possible reasons he gives for the lack of research in this area are: a lack of understanding of the field by the reviewer, a desire to have the work demonstrate greater generality than the targeted population, uncertainty as to the theoretical rationale for the research, or that there are few researchers interested in the topic (Sue, 1999). Whatever the reason, studies have consistently found that there is a lack of research on diverse populations in the field of psychology.

Diversity Research in the Field of School Psychology

In 1992 Wiese Rogers published a study that looked at the racial/ethnic minority research in school psychology. She investigated the amount of articles from 1975-1990 in three major school psychology journals, Journal of School Psychology, Psychology in the Schools, and School Psychology Review, that focused on minority populations. In this article she defined a minority topic article as “any investigation in which persons from diverse racial/ethnic, linguistic, or cultural groups within the U.S. were the main focus” (Wiese Roger, 1992, p. 268). Articles selected for the study either focused exclusively on African Americans, Hispanics, Native Americans, Asian American, Pacific Islanders, or linguistically different groups or included samples of diverse populations in addition to nonminority groups. She did not include any articles with an international focus. In addition to investigating which minority group the articles focused on, Wiese Rogers also looked at whether the articles were empirical studies or not, the focus of the articles (e.g. academic achievement, behavior, intellectual assessment, training, the school psychologist’s role, and intervention), the geographic location the sample was taken from, and the age group of the sample.

Wiese Rogers (1992) found that 11% of all articles published in Psychology in the Schools, 9.2% of all articles published in Journal of School Psychology, and 5% of all articles published in School Psychology Review had a minority-related focus. She also found that the number of minority-related articles published increased from 1975 to 1990. She found that 7.6% of all articles published from 1975-1979 in these three journals were minority-related; 8.9% of all articles published from 1980-1984 in these three journals
were minority-related, and 9.2% of all articles published from 1985-1990 in these three journals were minority-related. Despite the increase in the number of minority-related articles published in these three journals, Wiese Rogers called for more research to be done in this area so that school psychologists can become culturally proficient.

Miranda and Gutter (2002) did a continuation of the Wiese Rogers study. They investigated the amount of diversity-related literature in four major school psychology journals, *Journal of School Psychology* (JSP), *Psychology in the Schools* (PIS), *School Psychology Review* (SPR), and *School Psychology Quarterly* (SPQ) from 1990-1999. In this study Miranda and Gutter used the original definition of a culturally diverse article used by Wiese Rogers, “any investigation in which persons from diverse racial/ethnic, linguistic, or cultural groups within the U.S. were a main focus” (Wiese Rogers, 1992, p. 268), but they also added socioeconomic status and sexual orientation to the definition. Miranda and Gutter did not include articles that only had a paragraph that discussed cultural content in an article that otherwise discussed general content. They also did not include articles that had minorities in their samples but did not mention diversity as part of the written content. Miranda and Gutter, in addition to investigating whether the articles had diversity-related content, also examine categories such as empirical versus nonempirical, minority socioeconomic status, topical content of the article, population studied, geographic area, and setting (public versus private schools).

Miranda and Gutter (2002) found that although there was an increase in the percentage of articles related to diversity in major school psychology journals published between 1990-1999, as compared to major school psychology journals published from 1975-1990 examined by Wiese Rogers, there was still a lack of research devoted to diverse populations. They found that overall, 10.6% of all articles in the four school psychology journals were diversity-related. 9.6% of articles in *Journal of School Psychology*, 10.7% of articles in *School Psychology Quarterly*, 12% of articles in *School Psychology Review*, and 9.8% of articles in *Psychology in the Schools* were diversity-related. Miranda and Gutter called for more research to be done in this area and for editors of school psychology journals to increase publications of this type.

The purpose of the present study is to follow-up the two initial studies done in this area by Wiese Rogers (1992) and Miranda and Gutter (2002). Since issues of cultural
competence are still a focus of NASP, it is important to see if the field of school psychology has made progress in publishing more diversity-related articles. The present study reveals if between 2000-2003 the major school psychology journals have increased the number of diversity-related articles being published, as compared to 1975-1999.

**METHOD**

*Materials*

All articles published in the school psychology journals, *Journal of School Psychology* (JSP), *Psychology in the Schools* (PIS), *School Psychology Review* (SPR), and *School Psychology Quarterly* (SPQ), from 2000-2003, and all of the articles published in *Journal of Applied School Psychology* (JAS) (started in 2002) from 2002-2003 were used in this study. The articles were coded using the coding sheet found in Appendix A.

*Procedures*

The present study utilized the qualitative research method of content analysis. Content analysis is defined as “a quantitatively oriented technique by which standardized measurements are applied to metrically defined units and these are used to characterize and compare documents” (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p. 464). That is, content analysis is a research method that is used to identify the topics and themes of a document and weigh these topics and themes against the topics and themes of similar documents. In the present study the diversity content of school psychology journal articles was examined and compared to the diversity content of similar school psychology journal articles that have previously been examined using similar methods.

Content analysis is done by first establishing categories for coding. Titscher, Meyer, Wodak, and Vetter (2000) write that the categories “endeavor to operationalize the variables of the particular research question and thereby focuses on the research question or the hypotheses derived from it” (p. 59). In the case of the present study, the categories were established to address the diversity content of the school psychology journal articles being coded. Titscher, Meyer, Wodak, and Vetter (2000) also state that:
In order to ensure that a coder is using the same criteria for allocation of units of analysis and categories throughout the operation, and is not modifying the definitions of categories (intra-coder reliability), it is advisable that regular operational discussions are held, . . . [and] there also need to be explicit definitions of the categories based on numerous examples and coder-training sessions, using material related to the text to be analyzed. (p. 60)

This was achieved in the present study by using the definitions and procedures for training the coders described below. Finally, for analyzing the coded data, “the simplest type of evaluation consists of counting the number of occurrences per category: here some relationship is assumed between frequency and meaning” (Titscher, Meyer, Wodak, & Vetter, 2000, p. 60). This type of frequency count was used to analyze the data in the present study.

All of the articles in the school psychology journals, *Journal of School Psychology* (JSP), *Psychology in the Schools* (PIS), *School Psychology Review* (SPR), and *School Psychology Quarterly* (SPQ), from 2000-2003, and all of the articles from *Journal of Applied School Psychology* (JAS) from 2002-2003 were manually reviewed to determine if they had articles that were related to diverse populations, topics, or issues. Only articles that focus on diverse populations, topics, or issues were coded and included in the data. The criteria to determine if an article focused on a diverse population, topic, or issue, was similar to the previous two studies done in this area, Miranda and Gutter (2002) and Wiese Rogers (1992). As defined in the original study done by Wiese Rogers (1992), a culturally diverse article was defined as “any investigation in which persons from diverse racial/ethnic, linguistic, or cultural groups within the U.S. were the main focus” (p. 268). Miranda and Gutter (2002) added the categories of socioeconomic status and sexual orientation as categories of diverse populations, and these categories were included in the present study, as well. In addition, the present study also examined the university (or other) affiliation of the author to examine whether a few authors or universities are generating most of the diversity-related research or if this type of research is being done across the country. Overall, the categories that were included in the analyses were: population studied (African American, Native American, Hispanic, Asian American or Pacific Islander, international population, or other if the diverse population
was not specified or if it was a population not previously mentioned such as a multicultural population), geographic region of the study (Northeast, Southeast, Midwest, Northwest, or Southwest), an empirical versus a nonempirical study, socioeconomic status (low, middle, high, or other if another category was used), topic of article, setting (public or private school and rural, urban, or suburban setting), age of population studied (preschool, primary, secondary, college, or other if another category was used), sexual orientation, and university (or other) affiliation of the author. Also, any article that had an overall general focus but included a small paragraph on a diverse population will not be included because the main focus of the article was not the diverse population.

Articles were independently reviewed by three reviewers, the present researcher and two research assistants. The research assistants were two senior undergraduate students majoring in psychology recruited from the same university as the researcher. A training session was done before the actual review to teach the research assistants how to code the articles. Twenty articles from the previous decade were reviewed until consensus (above 90% interrater agreement, calculated as number of agreements over number of agreements and disagreements) was achieved among the reviewers. Then all of the articles from the major school psychology journals from 2000-2003 were independently reviewed and coded as mentioned above using the coding sheet in Appendix A. If there was any uncertainty regarding the diversity content, all three reviewers discussed the article until they came to a consensus about the contents of the article. When all of the articles were reviewed, the articles were looked over a second time by the present researcher to make sure the first reviews were accurate. If there were still disagreements, the article was reviewed again.

For the analysis the total number of articles in each of the major school psychology journals were counted, and the number of diversity-related articles, as determined according to the criteria mentioned above, were also counted. The percentage of diversity-related articles appearing in each of the four journals was then calculated and compared to the data collected from the two previous studies in this area. Additional analyses also included looking at the number and percentage of diversity-related articles appearing in the school psychology journals each year of the study, 2000-2003.
Each of the above-mentioned categories was examined by showing a frequency count and percentage of representative articles by journal. Minority representation in diversity articles was examined by counting how many articles focused on each minority group, African American, Hispanic, Asian American/Pacific Islander, or Native American. The geographic region, methodology, socioeconomic status of the population, topic of article (e.g. assessment, counseling, consultation, etc.), setting, age, and sexual orientation, and author’s university (and other affiliations) were also examined using frequency counts and percentages. The content of each article was listed on the coding sheets. Then the present researcher went back and reviewed the content included and devised categories into which the contents of the articles were categorized. If an article represented more than one diverse group or more than one geographic region, this was indicated on the coding sheet by marking each of the categories that applied to the article. That is, more than one choice in each category on the coding sheet was marked, if they applied to the journal article. If 15% or more of the sample population belonged to a certain minority group or geographic region, it was counted. Tables of the data are included in Appendix B.

RESULTS

The major school psychology journals had a total of 610 articles published from 2000-2003. There were a total of 103 articles, or 16.9% of all of the published articles, that were diversity-related. This represents an increase of over 6% from Miranda and Gutter’s 2002 study and an increase of 8%, or almost double, from Wiese Roger’s original 1992 study of the number of diversity-related articles being published in the major school psychology journals. The individual journals’ percentage of diversity-related articles ranged from 8.2% in SPQ to 23.7% in JSP (See Table 1). JSP published the fewest number of diversity-related articles in Miranda and Gutter’s (2002) study (9.6%) but were the clear leader in publishing diversity-related articles in the past four years with 23.7% diversity-related articles, an increase of a little over 17%. SPR and JIS also increased the number of published diversity-related articles since Miranda and Gutter’s (2002) study, increasing from 12% to 19.4% and from 9.8% to 15.3%, respectively. That represents an increase of 7.4% and 5.5%, respectively, from their 1990-1999 rates. SPQ was the only journal to decrease the amount of diversity-related
articles published in the past four years, moving from 10.7% in Miranda and Gutter’s (2002) study to 8.2% in the present study, a decrease of 2.5%. JAS was not included in the previous two studies.

Dividing the data among years showed some differences. The total number of diversity-related articles published in all of the major school psychology journals ranged from 19 (13.9%) in 2001 to 31 (20.8%) in 2002 (See Table 2). JSP had the most consistent number of diversity articles published per year, with a range of 6 to 8. PIS, SPQ, and JAS were all fairly consistent in publishing diversity related articles, with ranges of 6 to 10, 0 to 4, and 0 to 4, respectively, and SPR was the least consistent in publishing diversity-related articles, with a range of 2 to 15. SPQ and JAS were the only two journals that had one year with 0 diversity-related articles published.

Table 3 depicts the representation of various minority groups included in the study. As in Miranda and Gutter’s (2002) study, African Americans were the leading minority group to be represented in diversity-related articles (40.1%), and Hispanics were the second-highest group (25.2%), just as in Miranda and Gutter’s (2002) study. There was a slight decrease (about 3%) in the representation of African-Americans and a slight increase (about 2%) in the representation of Hispanics in diversity-related articles. Asian Americans/Pacific Islanders and Native Americans continue to have the lowest representation in diversity-related articles, both actually decreasing since Miranda and Gutter’s (2002) study, from 3% to 1.9% and from 5% to 2.9%, respectively. An “Other Non-White” category was also included in this study, as it was in Miranda and Gutter’s (2002) study, due to the amount of articles that generally address diverse populations or include more than one ethnic group in a sample, and this category also decreased in representation since Miranda and Gutter’s (2002) study, from 29% to 19.4%. Another minority group included in this study was populations from low socioeconomic statuses (SES). The number of articles that included low SES samples increased greatly from Miranda and Gutter’s (2002) study, rising from 25% to 52.4%. Articles focusing on sexual orientation also rose since Miranda and Gutter’s (2002) study from only 1 article in the previous study to 9 articles (8.7%) in the present study.

An additional analysis of the number of articles focused on different diverse populations as compared to the total number of all articles included in the major school
psychology journals is also useful to see if the representation of the different diverse populations is increasing overall in the major school psychology journals. Articles focusing on African Americans comprised 4.6% of all articles in the Miranda and Gutter (2002) study. This percentage increased to 6.9% of all articles in the present review. 2.5% of all articles in the Miranda and Gutter (2002) study focused on Hispanic populations, and 4.3% of all articles in the present review focused on Hispanic populations. Both Miranda and Gutter (2002) and the present review found the same representation of Native Americans and Asian Americans/Pacific Islanders in all articles: .5% and .3%, respectively. Miranda and Gutter (2002) found that 3.1% of all articles focused on “other non-white” populations, and the present review found that 3.3% of all articles focused on this population. 2.8% of all articles focused on low SES populations in the Miranda and Gutter (2002) study. This increased to 8.9% in the present review. Finally, Miranda and Gutter (2002) found that .08% of all articles focused on gay/lesbian and/or bisexual populations, and the present review found that 1.5% of all articles focused on this population.

An analysis of the various settings of the samples used in the diversity-related articles is shown in Table 4. The Midwestern (13.6%), Southwestern (15.5%), and Northwestern (14.6%) regions of the country had about equal representation in the samples of the diversity-related articles. The Southeastern region had a little higher representation (18.4%), and the Northeastern region had the highest representation (25.2%) in the samples of the diversity-related articles. This represents a large increase in representation for the Southeastern region (an increase of 5.4%), the Northeastern region (an increase of 7.2%), and the Northwestern region (an increase of 12.6%) from Miranda and Gutter’s (2002) study. The Midwestern and Southwestern regions maintained about the same representation from Miranda and Gutter’s (2002) study. However, the distribution of research being published from different regions of the country does not match the population distribution of the different region of the country, as reported by the 2002 census, where the Northeastern region represented 19.0% of the population, the Midwestern region had 22.9% of the population, 27.0% of the population lived in the Southeastern region, the Southwestern regions contained 11.1% of the
population, and 20.0% of the population lived in the Northwestern region of the country (U. S. Census Bureau, n.d.).

Unlike the previous study, many diversity-related articles did not specify the public vs. private setting of the study. Only 16.5% of all of the articles specified that the sample was from a public school, and 2.9% specified that sample was from a private school. Most articles provided no information on sites. Also unlike the Miranda and Gutter (2002) study, the geographic setting, urban, rural, or suburban, was also analyzed in the present study. Urban settings were represented most in the diversity-related articles (41.7%), followed by rural settings (16.5%) and suburban settings (11.7%).

Table 5 shows an analysis of the age group of the samples in diversity-related articles. Similar to the Miranda and Gutter (2002) study, primary grades were represented most (58.3%), with secondary grades as the next highest represented age group (20.4%), followed by preschool age samples (17.5%), and with college age samples the least represented (3.9%).

Articles in this study were also classified as either empirical or nonempirical. Nonempirical was defined the same as in the Miranda and Gutter (2002) study: “those articles that did not have a research design” (p. 601). Many times these pieces were discussions or descriptions of services. Of the articles analyzed, 72, or 69.9%, of the diversity-related articles were empirical, and 31, or 30.1%, of the articles were nonempirical. This represents a slight increase in the percentage of diversity-related articles that were empirically-based from the Miranda and Gutter (2002) study, where 62% of the articles were classified as empirical.

The articles were also analyzed from the perspective of content studied in these articles (See Table 6). One of the greatest changes in content of articles was the change from assessment articles being the leader in number of articles in the Miranda and Gutter (2002) study to intervention/prevention articles leading the number of diversity-related articles in the present study. Assessment articles included intellectual, achievement, behavioral, mental health, and curriculum-based assessment. Intervention/prevention articles included a focus on any academic or behavioral intervention or prevention program. Assessment articles decreased in amount from 38% in the Miranda and Gutter (2002) study to 20.4% of articles in the present study. Intervention/prevention articles...
accounted for 22.3% of all diversity-related articles, an increase of a little over 9% from the previous study. The next largest category was mental health (18.4%), which included such topics as treatment of aggression and victimization, effects of body-image, social support and competence, and resilience, and the mental health needs of gay, lesbian, and bisexual youth. General education issues, which included such issues as effects on school achievement, school mobility and dropping out, and gifted education issues, accounted for 15.5% of all diversity-related articles. Consultation articles was the category that had the fewest articles (8.7%). An “other” category was created to account for any article that did not fit into one of the categories listed above. Other articles included topics such as cultural competence, parent involvement, and advocating for gay, lesbian, and bisexual youth. These articles included 14.6% of diversity-related articles.

One last analysis looked at the university affiliations of the authors of the diversity-related articles. A total of 80 universities were represented, across all of the geographic regions, but only seven universities had four or more citations: University of Pennsylvania (7 citations), University of Washington (7 citations), University of Wisconsin (including various branches) (5 citations), University of Virginia (4 citations), Pennsylvania State University (4 citations), University of California (including various branches) (4 citations), and University of Texas (including various branches) (4 citations).

Finally, because the definition of a diversity-related article used in the previous two studies did not include articles with a focus on international populations, the present study did not include articles with an international focus either. However, the present author realizes that school psychology is not just growing in the United States but is growing in many other countries across the globe, so a count of articles with a focus on international populations was kept, as well. Overall there were 38 articles with such a focus. PIS had the most internationally-focused articles, publishing 19 such articles. JSP published 11 internationally-focused articles. JAS and SPR published three such articles each, and SPQ published two articles that focused on international populations.

**DISCUSSION**

The purpose of this study was to follow up two other studies, one by Wiese Rogers (1992) and one by Miranda and Gutter (2002), that investigated the amount of
diversity-related literature being published in the major school psychology journals. Miranda and Gutter (2002) found a slight increase of almost 2% in the amount of diversity-related literature being published from 1990-1999 from the original study by Wiese Rogers (1992) that looked at the major school psychology journals from 1975-1990. However, Miranda and Gutter (2002) did express some dissatisfaction with this minimal increase, stating that “a stronger call and commitment for research in this area” (p. 603) is needed. The purpose of the present study was to see if the field of school psychology has increased the amount of diversity-related literature being published in the major school psychology journals since the last analysis was done by Miranda and Gutter (2002).

The present study found that 16.9% of all published articles in five major school psychology journals were diversity-related, an increase of over 6% from Miranda and Gutter’s (2002) study. This increase in the amount of diversity-related literature is very encouraging. Miranda and Gutter (2002) made a call to the field of school psychology to increase the diversity literature base, and it seems that this call is being answered. The United States is becoming increasingly more diverse (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000), yet the field of school psychology continues to be dominated by white women (Curtis, Grier, & Hunley, 2004). However, more diversity-related literature is being published by professionals in the field. It seems that the field of school psychology has realized that more research focusing on working with diverse populations needs to be published so that school psychologists can continue to be effective in the schools. NASP has even included competence in working with diverse populations as one of the training standards outlined in the Guidelines for the Provision of School Psychological Services (National Association of School Psychologists, 2002). It appears that the field has finally started focusing more attention on the diversity of the population with whom school psychologists work, and this is a positive step towards becoming a culturally responsive field.

Increasing the overall number of diversity-related articles published in the major school psychology journals was not the only accomplishment of researchers in the field over the past four years. There was a large increase, from 25% to 52.4%, in the number of diversity-related articles that were published that focused on low SES populations and
an increase from 2.8% to 8.9% of all articles published that focused on low SES populations. This increase in the knowledge of how to work with low SES populations is very important considering that in 2001 16.7% of all children ages 5-17 in the United States were from families classified as poor and 20.7% of the children ages 5-17 in the United States were from families classified as near-poor (100-199% of the poverty level) (National Center for Educational Statistics, n.d.). Children from low SES backgrounds comprise a large portion of the school-age population, and school psychologists must be proficient at working with this population.

Another accomplishment of researchers over the past four years is that among the diversity-related literature published in the major school psychology journals, there was a good representation of different geographic locations, school settings, and age populations. No one region of the country dominated the publishing of diversity-related literature, and although urban settings and primary grades comprised the majority of the diversity-related literature, the other settings and grades had good representation, with the exception of college age students. However, school psychologists do not typically work with the college age population. This representation of these different areas of the countries and groups of students is important so that school psychologists working in all different types of settings are able to find information that would apply to their particular setting.

In addition to a wide range of settings for the diversity-related articles, there was also representation from many universities. In all, 80 universities contributed to the diversity-related literature in the major psychology journals from 2000-2003, and no university was cited more than seven times. This is positive that many ideas and opinions are represented from across the country and that many institutions contributed to this literature.

One last improvement since the previous studies done in this area is the change in content of the diversity-related literature in the major school psychology journals. In the previous study by Miranda and Gutter (2002) assessment was the focus of most of the articles, 38%. This number has dropped to 20.4% in the present study, and intervention and prevention-focused articles now have the highest representation in the diversity-related literature, accounting for 22.3% of such articles. This change in content in
diversity-focused articles is encouraging because it reflects the changes that are presently taking place in the field and the practice of school psychologists. As school psychologists continue to take more of an intervention-focused role, as opposed to an assessment-focused role, they will have a broader base of culture-specific research to pull from.

Although the results of the present study are very positive, there is still some room for further improvement. One other standard outlined by the *Guidelines for the Provision of School Psychological Services* (National Association of School Psychologists, 2002) is that school psychologists must be proficient at applying empirically-based research. 16.9% of all of the articles published in the major school psychology journals from 2000-2003 were diversity-related, and 72, or 69.9%, of those articles were empirical studies. This does represent an increase in the percentage of empirical diversity-related articles that were found in the Miranda and Gutter (2002) study, 62%, but if school psychologists are to be culturally proficient using empirically-based practices, more diversity-related articles in the form of empirical studies need to be published.

Another improvement that could be made in the future is the inclusion of more information on some diverse populations that are underrepresented in the literature. Asian Americans/Pacific Islanders and Native Americans had the lowest representation in the diversity literature, actually decreasing in representation of diversity-related articles since the previous study done by Miranda and Gutter (2002). Although these populations do not comprise the majority of diverse populations, there are school psychologists that work with children from these ethnic groups on a daily basis. School psychologists in these situations need to have empirical information on which they can base their practice. A conscious effort to investigate and publish more information about these populations should be made.

A limitation of the present study is that it only took into account four years of school psychology literature. The two previous studies done by Wiese Rogers (1992) and Miranda and Gutter (2002) reviewed 15 and 10 years of school psychology literature, respectively. The numbers that are presented in this study could be inflated or deflated and may not be appropriate to compare to the two previous studies because of the shorter
time period studied. An additional review of the literature should be done in another five or six years and should include the articles that were reviewed in the present study to not only continue to monitor the field’s progress in this area but to also make a more appropriate comparison to the two previous studies done in this area.

Another limitation is that the present study included a count of studies that focused on international populations but did not look at these articles in detail. Perhaps if these studies were investigated in detail more information could be gained about how to apply these practices in the United States. Future studies should do a similar investigation to the present one but should focus on the international populations to learn more about the literature being published in that area, and such a study should include the *School Psychology International*.

One last limitation is that the present study only takes into account diversity-related literature published in journals with a specific focus on school psychology. Many studies pertinent to school psychology that are diversity-related are published elsewhere. More information should be gained and shared about other resources besides the major school psychology journals examined in this study. In addition, the present study only investigated published articles. There might be studies being done that are not being published. Future studies should query journal editors about article submissions and whether more diversity-related articles are being submitted but not published. Perhaps some unpublished studies are not rigorous enough to be published, or maybe certain journals do not feel that some diversity-related articles are relevant and therefore do not publish them. All of these factors should be investigated to gain a complete picture of the diversity-related research being done in the field.

Although there is still some room for improvement in the area of diversity-related literature in the major school psychology journals, there have been numerous positive changes since the last study done by Miranda and Gutter (2002). The inclusion of more diversity-related literature in the major school psychology journals is important because of the aforementioned changes in the demographics of the country towards a more diverse nation (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000) and the standards of practice written by NASP, that school psychologists should be culturally competent and should use empirically-based practices in the schools (National Association of School Psychologists,
2002). The results of the present study are encouraging, and researchers in the field should strive to continue building a literature base that includes studies done with diverse populations.
References


APPENDIX A

Rater: _________

Article Title: ___________________________________________________________

Author(s): ____________________________________________________________

University (or other) affiliation of author: __________________________________________

Journal: JSP SPQ SPR PIS JAS Date:______ Vol.:_____ Pages:_________

Content/Topic of Article: ____________________________________________________

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Population Studied:</th>
<th>Geographic Region:</th>
<th>SES:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>1. Northeast</td>
<td>1. Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Native American</td>
<td>2. Southeast</td>
<td>2. Middle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pacific Islander</td>
<td>5. Southwest</td>
<td>5. Other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. White</td>
<td>6. NS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. NS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. International Population</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Other___________</td>
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<td>3. NS</td>
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<th>Location:</th>
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</thead>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Primary</td>
<td>2. Urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. College</td>
<td>4. NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. NS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Other:___________</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix B

Table 1

*Number of Diversity-Related Articles in Major School Psychology Journals*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Journal</th>
<th>Total No. of Articles</th>
<th>Diversity Articles (n)</th>
<th>Diversity Articles (%)</th>
<th>M&amp;G’s Articles (%)</th>
<th>Wiese’s Articles (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JSP</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>23.7</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPQ</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPR</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PIS</td>
<td>209</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>11.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JAS</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>610</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2

*Diversity-Related Articles by Year and Title*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>JSP (n)</th>
<th>SPQ (n)</th>
<th>SPR (n)</th>
<th>PIS (n)</th>
<th>JAS (n)</th>
<th>Total (n)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>28 (18.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>19 (13.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>31 (20.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25 (14.5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Population</th>
<th>JSP (n)</th>
<th>SPQ (n)</th>
<th>SPR (n)</th>
<th>PIS (n)</th>
<th>JAS (n)</th>
<th>Total (n)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>African American</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>42 (40.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>26 (25.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native American</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3 (2.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian American/Pacific Islander</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2 (1.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Non-White</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20 (19.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low SES</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>54 (52.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gay/Lesbian</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9 (8.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bisexual</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9 (8.7%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: If the totals are less than the total number of diversity-related articles, it is due to the fact that some articles did not specify specific minority groups.

Table 4

*Various Settings of the Diversity-Related Articles by Journal*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>JSP (n)</th>
<th>SPQ (n)</th>
<th>SPR (n)</th>
<th>PIS (n)</th>
<th>JAS (n)</th>
<th>Total (n)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Northeast</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>26 (25.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southeast</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>19 (18.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Midwest</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14 (13.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northwest</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15 (14.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southwest</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16 (15.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>17 (16.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>43 (41.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suburban</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12 (11.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private School</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3 (2.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public School</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>17 (16.5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: If the totals are less than the total number of diversity-related articles, it is due to the fact that some articles did not specify a setting.

Table 5

*General Age Population Represented by Journal*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>JSP (n)</th>
<th>SPQ (n)</th>
<th>SPR (n)</th>
<th>PIS (n)</th>
<th>JAS (n)</th>
<th>Total (n)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preschool</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18 (17.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60 (58.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>21 (20.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4 (3.9%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: If the totals are less than the total number of diversity-related articles, it is due to the fact that some articles did not specify age.

Table 6

*General Content of Articles Represented by Journal*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content Area</th>
<th>JSP (n)</th>
<th>SPQ (n)</th>
<th>SPR (n)</th>
<th>PIS (n)</th>
<th>JAS (n)</th>
<th>Total (n)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Consultation</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9 (8.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>21 (20.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intervention/Prevention</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>23 (22.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental Health</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>19 (18.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Education</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16 (15.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15 (14.6%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>