

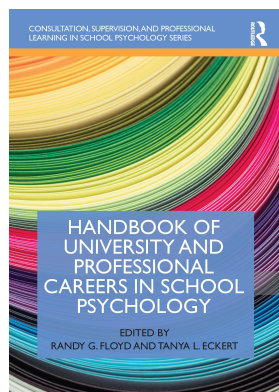
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12 Succeeding as a Person of Color in School Psychology

Sherrie L. Proctor, Tai A. Collins, Desireé Vega, Cixin Wang, and Frank C. Worrell

Higher education in the United States offers significant social and economic benefits to individuals and society as a whole (Harper, Patton, & Wooden, 2009). Historically, however, higher education was a privilege reserved largely for White men (Nash, 2016). During the late 19th century, middle- and upper-class White women gained broader access to public higher education (Nash, 2016). Around the same time, federal legislation increased access to higher education for Black people while simultaneously limiting higher education equity for them (Harper et al., 2009). For instance, the Second Morrill Act of 1890 created a dual system of public higher education that denied Black people access to publicly funded White institutions and relegated them to publicly underfunded Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs; Harper et al., 2009). Other people of color were not segregated legally from White public institutions of higher education, yet *de facto* segregation created climates at higher education institutions that were not welcoming and often alienating to people of color (Franklin, 2016). Access to higher education at Historically White Colleges and Universities¹ (HWCUs) increased for all students of color during the 1960s and 1970s, but “greater access and opportunity for students of color did not eradicate racism or racist ideologies on college campuses” (Franklin, 2016, p. 44).

The historical context of higher education in the United States may account, in part, for why there are so few people of color in school psychology—a professional field in which earning a graduate degree is the primary route to entry. Since its inception, school psychology has struggled with racial diversity, with people of color underrepresented throughout its ranks (Proctor & Truscott, 2012). Currently, the underrepresentation of racially minoritized² school psychologists is troublesome given a rapidly diversifying United States school-age population who require diverse and culturally competent educators and mental health providers (Proctor, Kyle, Fefer, & Lau, 2018). Both historically and currently, most school psychology programs are located at HWCUs, have majority White faculties, and enroll few racially minoritized students (Gadke, Valley-Gray, & Rosen, 2018; Proctor, Kyle, et al., 2018). Of the 10,2019 students enrolled in United States school psychology programs, racially and/or ethnically minoritized students consist of 28% of specialist and 25% of doctoral students (Gadke et al., 2018). In 2018, the American Psychological Association (APA) reported that racially and/or ethnically minoritized faculty made up approximately 24% of faculty in accredited school psychology doctoral programs.

There are compelling reasons for racial diversification of school psychology. First, scholars (e.g., Loe & Miranda, 2005) stress the importance of textbook knowledge coupled with experiences within a diverse academic environment for promoting cultural competency in psychological service delivery. Racial diversity in university classrooms positively impacts learning outcomes, such as the degree to which students are able to differentiate and integrate multiple

perspectives and intellectual engagement (Antonio et al., 2004). Furthermore, program accreditation and training guidelines, as well as professional organizations' position statements, recruitment and retention committees, and task forces underscore the need for racial diversity in the field (Proctor & Truscott, 2012). Finally, access and opportunity are foundational principles of social justice, which was recently adopted as one of the five strategic goals of the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP). Lack of racial diversity is reflective of the aspirational nature of social justice within school psychology at this point in time.

Given the critical need for racial diversity in school psychology graduate education programs—at both the student and faculty levels—this chapter, written by five school psychology faculty of color from diverse countries of origin, ethnicities, genders, linguistic backgrounds, races, and research interests, offers insight into the experiences of graduate students and faculty of color at HWCUs. We first review themes that connect the experiences of students and faculty of color, particularly as those experiences relate to challenges encountered at HWCUs. Next, we describe research themes that are unique to faculty of color. We then detail several of our own experiences that reflect some of the research presented. Finally, based on the research reviewed and our collective experiences navigating being former graduate students and current faculty of color in school psychology, we offer recommendations that we hope will foster success for people of color seeking to or actively engaging school psychology as graduate students or faculty at HWCUs.

Theoretical, Evidence Base, and Personal Considerations

Review of the higher education research regarding students and faculty of color experiences revealed five shared themes—*microaggressions*, *racial battle fatigue*, *impostor syndrome*, *social and academic isolation*, and *difficulty obtaining mentorship*—and two themes unique to faculty of color—*double consciousness and biculturalism* and *tenure*. In the discussion that follows, we present research on the typical challenges that people of color face when navigating spaces in higher education. However, we caution readers to keep in mind that while the findings presented are typical, they may not apply to every person of color in higher education. When evidence is available, we spotlight findings that are specific to school psychology graduate students or faculty of color.

Microaggressions

The experiences of people of color on university campuses vary; however, many students and faculty of color report being the targets of microaggressions. Coined by Chester Pierce in the 1970s, racial microaggressions (RMs) are the most prevalent type of microaggressions mentioned in higher education research related to students and faculty of color. RMs are “brief and commonplace daily, verbal, behavioral, and environmental indignities, whether intentional or unintentional, that communicate hostile, derogatory, or negative racial slights and insults to the target person or group” (Sue et al., 2007, p. 271). Solórzano, Allen, and Carroll (2002) noted the layered nature of RMs, given they attack one's race, gender, class, sexuality, language, immigration status, accent, or surname. Asian American students, for example, noted that their history and identities were either ignored or exoticized, that people did not view them as American, and that they were viewed from a deficit model if they spoke with an accent (Kwan, 2015). As another example, Black women reported feeling hypervisible (e.g., asked to speak on behalf of their entire race) at times and invisible (e.g., ignored by White professors and peers) at other times, while Black men indicated that others assumed they were less intelligent and would engage in criminal behaviors (Smith et al., 2016). A final example relates to Latinx students who experienced microaggressions characterized by others assuming they were academically

inferior as well as making racial and ethnic jokes about them (Franklin, Smith, & Hung, 2014; Solórzano et al., 2002).

Faculty of color have also reported being the targets of RMs, indicating that others assumed they were hired due to affirmative action, questioned their competence and expertise, marginalized them in social situations, and assumed that they were university staff rather than faculty (Griffin, Pifer, Humphrey, & Hazelwood, 2011). RMs perpetuate systems of superiority in higher education and result in negative consequences over time for students and faculty of color (Franklin, 2016; Shotton, 2017). For example, faculty of color indicated that experiencing RMs impacted their productivity, work satisfaction, and overall experience in higher education (Griffin et al., 2011). For some Black faculty, these microaggressions resulted in their social and psychological withdrawal, and some ultimately departed from their institutions (Griffin et al., 2011). Although we are not aware of research exclusively on the experiences of school psychology faculty of color with RMs, there is an emerging research base related to RMs and school psychology students of color.

School psychology graduate students of color who have experienced RMs report higher levels of emotional distress, lower feelings of belongingness, and thoughts of leaving their programs, with some deciding to exit the discipline entirely (Clark, Mercer, Zeigler-Hill, & Dufrene, 2012; Proctor & Truscott, 2012). An intersectional analysis found that Black male school psychology students experienced the highest frequency of RMs—particularly related to others treating them less well because of their race and assuming that they were intellectually inferior (Proctor, Kyle, et al., 2018). This same study explored the effect of students' race/ethnicity and bilingual status on the frequency of RMs they experienced, finding no difference between the frequencies of RMs reported by bilingual racially and/or ethnically minoritized students compared to monolingual ones. However, there are certainly accounts in the research where students of color have experienced RMs attacking their language, names, and accent (e.g., Hmong American college students, Kwan, 2015, and international students from China, South Korea, and Taiwan, Ee, 2013). Similar findings also hold true for faculty of color (e.g., Asian American women, Nguyen, 2016). Although the burden should never be on individuals who are victimized by racism to “fix” racist systems and structures, some faculty of color who experienced RMs engaged in additional university service to help improve the racial climate on their campuses (Griffin et al., 2011).

Racial Battle Fatigue

Racial battle fatigue (RBF) is defined as the psychological stress responses (e.g., frustration, anger, and fear), physiological stress responses (e.g., headaches and sleep disturbances), and behavioral stress responses (e.g., poor school performance and stereotype threat) due to the cumulative impact of RMs (Smith, Yosso, & Solórzano, 2006). Smith et al. (2006) noted that “the stress of unavoidable front-line racial battles in historically white spaces leads people of color feeling mentally, emotionally, and physically drained” (p. 301). For both students and faculty of color, preparing for, responding to, and defending against RMs at HWCUs can compound stress experienced from the typical academic and work-related demands of the university (Franklin, 2016).

Although we did not find any research on RBF specifically related to school psychology graduate students or faculty of color, there is evidence in the research that RBF occurs with Black and Latinx undergraduate and graduate students. For instance, Smith et al. (2016) interviewed Black male students attending six HWCUs across the United States. Their participants reported experiencing racial microaggressions that stereotyped (e.g., viewed them as criminal, owners of “ghetto specific” knowledge, and anti-intellectual) and marginalized them (p. 1197). They also experienced hypersurveillance and control (e.g., racially discriminatory run-ins with campus

police). In terms of RBF, Black male students reported psychological responses including frustration, shock, avoidance/withdrawal, disbelief, anger, defensiveness, uncertainty/confusion, resentment, anxiety, helplessness, hopelessness, and fear. Additionally, Franklin et al. (2014) examined the relationship between RMs and RBF-related stress responses with Latinx undergraduate and graduate students attending universities across the United States. The most pronounced stress responses to RMs for Latinx students were psychological, including being more aware of racism, irritability, mood changes, shock, disappointment, and agitation. Physiological and behavioral responses (e.g., inability to sleep, eating less, and neglecting responsibilities) to RMs were not as pronounced but were still statistically significant for Latinx students.

Research has found that faculty of color also experience RBF. More specifically, Arnold, Crawford, and Khalifa (2016) noted that RBF in faculty of color can be caused by experiences of marginalization, including isolation and institutional entrapments such as salary disparities and inequitable access to resources. Most recently, Gorski (2019) interviewed faculty and staff of color (who were, for example, African American, Arab American, and Latinx) who identified as racial justice activists (e.g., organized against racist institutional policies, fought for the rights of students of color, and engaged in racial justice scholarship) at Predominantly White Colleges and Universities (PWCUs) to determine how burnout experiences were informed by RBF. Gorski found that RBF exacerbated the threat of activist burnout and that institutional response to the activism of faculty of color heightened the racism they experienced, thus, intensifying RBF. For all students and faculty of color, experiencing and responding to RMs on university campuses can lead to accumulated stress that has implications for their health, well-being, lifespan, and productivity (Smith et al., 2006, 2016).

Impostor Syndrome

Impostor syndrome, or intellectual phoniness, is a psychological phenomenon that is often present among students and faculty of color as well as people from a variety of other marginalized groups. Subcategories of impostor syndrome include the feeling of being a fake in professional environments (i.e., that one does not deserve to be in certain positions), the attribution of one's personal and professional accomplishments to luck or other external factors, and the downplaying of one's accomplishments (Dancy & Brown, 2011). Attributions of inadequacy and external locus of control may cause people with impostor syndrome to self-sabotage or decline opportunities (Dancy & Brown, 2011).

Impostor syndrome can manifest in multiple ways—via the described subcategories—for both students and faculty of color at PWCUs. For many students of color, it presents as feeling that one does not deserve to be at PWCUs. This is illustrated in Burt, Knight, and Robeson (2017) who investigated the graduate experiences of foreign-born and ethnically diverse Black (e.g., Ethiopian, Jamaican, and Nigerian) male engineering students at three midwestern PWCUs. These students described interactions with peers that made them question if they were “good enough” to succeed in the classroom; they also explained that underrepresentation of people of color in their departments and in their profession made them doubt if they belonged (Burt et al., 2017, p. 935). To counteract impostor syndrome, the students reported feeling like they had to excel to prove they belonged in their graduate programs. Faculty of color can have similar experiences with impostor syndrome, questioning whether they belong in their academic units. This type of self-doubt is related to lower job satisfaction for African American, Latinx, and Asian faculty, especially in departments where affirmative action processes were perceived to be imposed rather than a voluntary priority of administrators (Niemann & Dovidio, 2005). These feelings of impostorship may impact faculty of color's teaching evaluation scores and advising relationships with students (Dancy & Brown, 2011).

Social and Academic Isolation

Both students of color and faculty of color have reported experiencing social and academic isolation at HWCUs. In fact, there is overwhelming evidence in the research that, across disciplines, graduate students of color experience social and academic isolation from peers and faculty at HWCUs. Black women doctoral students in mathematics education, for instance, described feeling like outsiders to their academic community—perceiving the need to prove their intelligence to White peers and professors (Williams et al., 2005). Similarly, Native women who obtained doctoral degrees across various disciplines (e.g., Education, Native American studies, and STEM fields) also felt isolated, unwelcomed, and excluded by White peers and faculty, as evidenced by their faculty underestimating their ability, peers challenging their knowledge, and their needing to prove they belonged in doctoral programs (Shotton, 2017). Students of other races and ethnicities report similar academic and social isolation (e.g., Asian international undergraduate and graduate students, Ee, 2013, and Latinx undergraduate and graduate students, Franklin et al., 2014).

Few studies have examined the graduate school experiences of school psychology graduate students specifically, but those that have been completed focus primarily on Black students. For example, Proctor and Truscott (2012) interviewed African American leavers of school psychology programs. These students reported either lack of relationships with their faculty or poor relationships characterized by RMs. For instance, one Black woman stated that a White male faculty declared that she would not do well academically given she attended undergraduate at an HBCU. Another student described feeling “used” by White faculty who held meetings with racially minoritized students to address diversity-related concerns prior to an APA accreditation site visit but discontinued meetings after the visit occurred (Proctor & Truscott, 2012, p. 668). Additionally, students reported strained academic and social interactions with their peers. Several described intentional disengagements with classmates; for example, one student indicated that she intentionally disengaged with White peers during classroom discussions focused on racial justice issues to avoid being viewed as an “angry Black person” (Proctor & Truscott, 2012, p. 669). Others described feeling uncomfortable at program social events held at places where people of color were not present. These negative academic and social interactions contributed to their decisions to leave their programs.

Faculty of color have also reported feeling socially isolated and “out of place” at HWCUs (Arnold et al., 2016, p. 903; Gregory, 2001). In particular, evidence suggests that differences in physical features of faculty of color are emphasized over their scholarly accomplishments and expertise, and departments may struggle to successfully integrate faculty of color into the professional and social environment of their unit (Laden & Hagedorn, 2010). Being expected to serve as a diversity expert, rather than an expert in their academic discipline, can also lead to isolation among faculty of color (Laden & Hagedorn, 2010). This can even happen at HWCUs that have explicit institutional priorities related to recruitment and retention of faculty of color when faculty with power and privilege in university departments foster cultures that marginalize faculty of color (Arnold et al., 2016).

Difficulty Obtaining Mentorship

Mentoring is a critical component to the success of people of color at all ranks in higher education (Diggs, Garrish-Wade, Estrada, & Galindo, 2009). Mentoring is “the process by which a learned person (faculty/mentor) positively socializes a novice toward learning the traditions, practices, and frameworks of a profession, association, or organization” (Dancy & Brown, 2011, p. 624). Importantly, mentoring goes beyond academic advising to include psychosocial support and mentors’ vested interest in supporting mentees’ personal and professional growth and success (Stanley, 2006).

Across fields, including school psychology, some graduate students of color have indicated difficulty obtaining faculty mentorship (Burt, Williams, & Smith, 2018; Proctor & Truscott, 2012; Shotton, 2017). Many of these students desired mentorship from a same-race faculty member but found these faculty scarce (Proctor, Nasir, Wilson, Li, & Castrillon, 2018). Many faculty of color enjoy mentoring graduate students of color and view mentoring as a way to give back to their race or cultural group and to inspire institutional change (Dancy & Brown, 2011). However, being in high demand as a mentor from same-race students and being expected by colleagues to mentor graduate students of color solely because of shared racial characteristics adds an additional service load that is often not acknowledged, valued, or compensated (Dancy & Brown, 2011; Gregory, 2001). This “invisible labor” can also be emotional work for faculty of color because as they help graduate students of color navigate challenging people and marginalizing institutional structures at HWCUs, they may be battling similar challenges themselves. Fortunately, *cross-racial mentoring* between White faculty and graduate students of color has been found successful if White faculty mentors exhibit cultural awareness and sensitivity (Proctor, Nasir, et al., 2018).

Both students and faculty of color need mentoring relationships that address their unique needs. According to research, school psychology faculty of color seek out mentors from other disciplines due to shared research and professional interests that may not be evidenced by their program faculty colleagues (Graves & Wright, 2013). Because mentors serve different purposes, school psychology faculty of color also indicated having mentors within their school psychology programs (Graves & Wright, 2013). Faculty of color and graduate students of color need genuine and culturally competent mentors. Black school psychology graduate students in Proctor, Nasir et al. (2018), who all successfully completed their programs, viewed faculty who took the time to develop positive and supportive relationships with them as mentors. These faculty mentors had “open door” policies, often checked in on graduate students of color throughout the semester, offered them opportunities to conduct research, and were culturally sensitive. In reality, however, all mentoring relationships may not be helpful to mentees.

Specifically relating to faculty of color, Diggs et al. (2009) noted that some mentoring relationships may be problematic, as they “may actually reflect the power and interests of the organization rather than the interests of the mentors and their proteges” (p. 316). It is also important to note that faculty of different ethnicities may respond to mentoring differently, as race-conscious mentoring was found to be significantly related to the job satisfaction of Black faculty but not for Latinx faculty, and Asian faculty indicated a stronger relationship between general mentoring with job satisfaction than race-specific mentoring (Niemann & Dovidio, 2005). This is consistent with research on Asian faculty being perceived as a model minority; however, Asian faculty also have racialized experiences that mentors should address, keeping in mind that Asian faculty may not describe microaggressions and other experiences in terms of race (Martinez & Welton, 2017; Nguyen, 2016).

Double Consciousness and Biculturalism

The first theme unique to faculty of color is double consciousness and biculturalism. Double consciousness refers to the “two-ness” that W.E.B. Dubois described in African Americans, who often see themselves and assess their accomplishments according to White standards (Martinez & Welton, 2017). With regard to the experiences of faculty of color, there is often a mismatch between individuals’ personal culture and the language, social norms, and expectations of their university and department cultures (Diggs et al., 2009; Nguyen, 2016). As such, faculty of color often feel the need to code-switch in different situations, having to highlight certain parts of themselves and diminish others to successfully navigate spaces dominated by White faculty (Diggs et al., 2009; Nguyen, 2016), which potentially means their

devaluing their own experiences and expertise to fit in with colleagues (Martinez & Welton, 2017). *Biculturalism* is described as “a cultural skill set that can prime FOC [faculty of color] to successfully navigate the dominant culture of academia and their self-identified cultural world” (Martinez & Welton, 2017, p. 126). Faculty of color often find it difficult to develop their bicultural skills in a way that remains authentic to their personal culture (Martinez & Welton, 2017). As such, faculty of color report more work-related stress than majority colleagues, and they often perceive having to work harder than White colleagues to get the same respect and equitable access to resources (Laden & Hagedorn, 2010; Stanley, 2006).

Tenure

The second theme that is unique to faculty relates to the tenure and promotion process. This process is commonly anxiety-provoking for all faculty; however, faculty of color often report additional anxiety around evaluation of their work across the areas of research, teaching, and service. Griffin et al. (2011) suggested that almost all faculty of color report some negative experiences related to their race or ethnicity during the promotion and tenure process. For example, White faculty have questioned the race or ethnicity of proposed external reviewers, suggesting that faculty of color limit the number of scholars of color who they nominate to complete external reviews of their tenure portfolio (Griffin et al., 2011). Faculty of color and women often put more time than White male faculty into time-consuming tasks such as teaching, mentoring, and service, which can lead to problems during the evaluation of their work because those tasks are often less valued than scholarly production (Gregory, 2001). Faculty of color often receive excessive requests for service amounting to cultural taxation, whereby they are asked to represent diversity on a variety of committees that benefit the university or department rather than the professional development of the faculty member (Dancy & Brown, 2011). There is also considerable evidence that faculty of color, especially those whose research agendas focus on populations of color, perceive that their research is undervalued, and colleagues may explicitly discourage faculty of color from engaging in scholarship focused on communities of color (Dancy & Brown, 2011; Martinez & Welton, 2017). This pattern may result in what Gregory (2001) called a revolving door syndrome, as faculty of color depart institutions during the promotion and tenure review and go to another university where the same issues occur, often resulting in them leaving the academy altogether.

Personal Considerations

In this section, we share several of our experiences that speak to some of the barriers to success discussed previously. Because the challenges previously discussed may seem overwhelming and, perhaps, insurmountable, we selected experiences that also offer solutions to barriers described. Additionally, some of the solutions will foreshadow the recommendations provided in the section that immediately follows.

To begin, one author’s experience offers insight into how international students of color can experience school psychology programs, particularly related to issues others raise about their accents. More specifically, the author’s professor expressed concern about an IQ assessment they conducted being invalid due to their accent and questioned if they should be assigned to assess a real client in a pre-practicum course. A decision was made to have the author practice with a volunteer versus a real client. Reflecting on this experience, the author noted,

As a faculty of color now, I heard about similar stories from other international students in school psychology that they had limited opportunities or experienced additional difficulties due to their accent. I believe that the program/faculty are responsible to provide

sufficient training opportunities to international students regardless of their accent, and to take additional steps to help students overcome additional challenges they experience as international students.

Another author, a full professor, has documented several challenges that he has experienced across the institutions in which he has worked (see Worrell, 2011). In his experience, challenges have involved, for the most part, individuals rather than the institutions themselves. In the next quote, he relays an experience related to barriers at the department level that he overcame by knowing his institution's policies. Additionally, his experience shines a light on the importance of tenured and promoted faculty of color mentoring and advocating for faculty of color who are seeking tenure and promotions. He explained,

Several years ago, my current institution revised its academic policy manual to include consideration of public scholarship and scholarship and other activities related to diversity as worthy of special consideration, and faculty have been given the option of submitting a statement about how their work contributes to diversity. The institution has also assigned a senior administrator to review the merit and promotion cases of faculty of color and women to ensure that they are being given fair consideration. These changes have resulted in the university overruling my department on several occasions, granting me a larger merit increase than the department recommended, and I have been able to use these policies to educate other faculty of color and to advocate for them when they are being considered for merits and promotions.

Finally, a third author experienced hostility and microaggressions from a group of students while teaching a multicultural school psychology course. When the faculty member sought support and guidance from administration, they were questioned about what they were doing to make the students feel uncomfortable in class. For the author, finding support from faculty of color outside of their department was critical in supporting their retention. Additionally, the author became involved with affinity organizations geared toward women of color faculty and faculty of color on their campus for support. Furthermore, they made efforts to connect with faculty of color at the NASP convention to build a national support network.

Unfortunately, many of the experiences we shared may also be shared by other students and faculty of color attending school psychology programs at HWCUs. However, it is important to note that there are HWCUs committed to recruiting and retaining students and faculty of color and actively implement programs toward these goals. Success as a student or faculty of color in school psychology is attainable. Despite challenges, including the ones we described previously, people of color, including us, can and do have fulfilling experiences in higher education and in the field of school psychology.

Recommendations and Suggested Readings

In this section, we offer recommendations for achieving success as students and faculty of color in school psychology at HWCUs. The recommendations flow directly from the higher education research reviewed related to students and faculty of color as well as our collective experiences learning, teaching, researching, mentoring, and providing service at a wide range of HWCUs. We believe most recommendations will be useful to many people of color across a range of programs (specialist versus doctoral) and institutions (e.g., research intensive versus teaching institution), although depending on the type of program and institution one attends or is employed at, some may be more or less applicable. Finally, in our reference section, we

placed asterisks by readings we believe will deepen readers' understanding of the issues raised in this chapter.

Graduate Students of Color

Identify programs that emphasize research and field experiences with diverse populations. Opportunities to engage in culturally relevant research and training experiences provide all students with a varied skill set compared to training programs with limited preparatory experiences. Many people of color are interested in attending programs that offer such experiences. Although this is certainly not the desire of all people of color, if it is a priority, then we recommend selecting and attending school psychology programs that value, exemplify, and enact cultural competence and social justice. Evidence of such values can be identified from programs' curricula (e.g., culturally focused courses), integration of multicultural content into courses, and field placements that provide opportunities to work with diverse students. Additionally, linguistically diverse students can identify programs with curricular opportunities that focus on bilingual training experiences. Faculty with expertise in working with diverse populations will be equipped to provide culturally relevant research opportunities and supervise field experiences with diverse populations (Vega et al., 2019).

Importantly, there is evidence that research experiences facilitate the academic integration of students of color into their programs and departments (Proctor, Nasir, et al., 2018). These types of experiences are essential for school psychology doctoral students of color because they teach skills that will make the doctoral dissertation process less nebulous while also priming the pipeline for more faculty of color. We also believe that school psychology specialist students of color benefit from research experiences, given these experiences provide natural connection to other student researchers, closer interaction with faculty, and research skill development in case one seeks doctoral training later.

Understand the difference between faculty advising versus mentoring. It is important to understand the difference between advising and mentoring as the two terms are often used interchangeably. Advising focuses on ensuring an advisee meets the requirements of their program (e.g., selecting courses and completing a dissertation) and is time limited and often structured (Jones, Perrin, Heller, Hailu, & Barnett, 2018). Advisors are typically located within students' programs. Research suggests that few graduate students complete their programs without guidance from an advisor (Jones et al., 2018). Conversely, mentoring occurs less commonly than advising (e.g., only 50–60% of clinical psychology graduate students reported being mentored), develops more organically, and is generally initiated by the mentee (Jones et al., 2018). The mentoring relationship is characterized by “a powerful emotional interaction between an older and younger person, a relationship in which the older member is trusted, loving, and experienced in the guidance of the younger” (Jones et al., 2018, p. 76).

An additional difference between advising and mentoring is that the mentoring relationship is positive, whereas advising can be positive, negative, or neutral (Schlosser, Lyons, Talleyrand, Kim, & Johnson, 2011a). Thus, the relationship with a faculty advisor can hinder or support students' progress during their graduate studies. Promising outcomes associated with positive advising relationships include research self-efficacy, research productivity, research autonomy, and publications and presentations with the advisor (Schlosser et al., 2011a). There are also long-term outcomes related to positive advising, including career prospects, promotion and tenure, licensure and certification, service to the field (e.g., reviewing for journals and serving on committees), and mentorship of others (Schlosser et al., 2011a). Positive advising relationships have the capacity to transform into mentoring relationships, with both the mentor and mentee receiving positive long-term benefits (Jones et al., 2018).

Select an advisor who understands your identities and is invested in your success. Advisors play a significant role in student success; therefore, selecting an advisor is a critical task. The ideal advisor will support the advisee, allow them to express their ideas, and provide them constructive feedback to help them grow as a professional (Schlosser, Lyons, Talleyrand, Kim, & Johnson, 2011b). The advisor will also understand the advisee's identities and seek to understand these identities as a means to provide individualized advising (Schlosser et al., 2011b). An advisor demonstrating cultural competence will reflect on their own identities, biases, and privileges and consider their impact on their advisees' identities. Additionally, the advisor will show a sincere commitment to the development of all students (Schlosser et al., 2011b).

Advisors should also help advisees network with professionals in the field, develop research ideas, and make career-related decisions (e.g., selecting work sites) as well as be available and accessible (Schlosser et al., 2011a). During admissions interviews, applicants of color should ask prospective advisors questions about their advising style to get a sense of the match between their needs and what the advisor can provide. Doctoral student applicants of color, in particular, should also identify potential advisors that align with their professional and research interests. Therefore, when researching graduate programs, applicants of color should look for faculty who conduct research in their areas of interest, who will provide the practical and professional experiences consistent with their training goals, and who are also interested in and prepared to support students of color, which may be demonstrated by a commitment to diversity and social justice. In their admissions statements and during the interview process, applicants of color should be explicit about which faculty they would like to work with.

Seek out mentors. A challenge for some graduate students of color is finding faculty mentors of the same race or ethnicity. Yet, benefits of same-race mentors for school psychology students of color include having access to practitioners and faculty who offer guidance, modeling, and connectedness (Proctor, Nasir, et al., 2018). Thus, it may be beneficial for school psychology students of color interested in same-race mentors to connect with school psychology practitioners and faculty of color outside of their universities. One recent trend we have observed is school psychology students of color reaching out to us to establish mentoring relationships. Because mentors serve different purposes, same-race mentors located outside of one's university can offer different perspectives and insight than even faculty of color located within one's university. Another route to obtaining same-race mentors is through involvement in national professional organizations such as NASP and APA. For instance, NASP offers the Find-a-Mentor Program where mentees can search a database for potential mentors who share similar racial and ethnic backgrounds (<https://apps.nasponline.org/membership-and-community/Mentoring/find-a-mentor.aspx>). Similarly, APA Division 16 (School Psychology) sponsors a diversity mentorship program that connects students and professionals who have a common interest in diversity issues (<https://apadivision16.org/sasp/diversity-mentorship-program>). Furthermore, APA divisions beyond Division 16 that may facilitate same-race mentorship include Division 45 (Society for the Psychological Study of Culture, Ethnicity and Race). A benefit to involvement in national organizations is that students of color are exposed to both practitioners and faculty of color, increasing access to potential mentors who can support growth in both professional and research skills.

When attempting to establish a same-race mentoring relationship within university settings, it is important for graduate students of color to have realistic expectations. For example, research suggests that faculty of color spend a disproportionate amount of their time mentoring students of color as well as other students but receive little university credit for the additional service mentoring entails (Dancy & Brown, 2011; Jones et al., 2018). Lack of institutional credit for mentoring is indicative of higher education systems that prioritize grants and publications over teaching and mentoring (Jones et al., 2018), and it functions as a structural barrier that may prevent some faculty of color from committing to mentoring, particularly during

their pre-tenure years. For instance, depending on the type of institution (e.g., teaching versus research intensive), junior (i.e., assistant professors) and untenured faculty of color may have intense research demands that prohibit spending substantial time on mentoring students outside of their research teams or courses. Further, tenured and more advanced professors of color may be averted from taking on additional student mentees given increased university leadership and service demands, including mentoring junior faculty of color. Thus, graduate students of color should not expect *all* faculty of color to enthusiastically respond to requests for mentorship, nor should they view a denied request as any negative reflection of themselves. When engaged in same-race mentoring relationships with faculty of color, students should be cognizant of the competing demands on faculty of color and attempt to develop mutually beneficial relationships that enhance both individuals' careers.

Finally, although graduate students of color, both in and outside of school psychology, note the value and benefit of same-race mentors (Jones et al., 2018; Proctor, Nasir, et al., 2018), White mentors can be effective as well, particularly when White mentors are culturally aware and strive for cultural competency. The available research evidence underscores the importance of academic and social integration for the retention and persistence of students of color in graduate education. Thus, we recommend school psychology students of color seek faculty mentors within their programs and departments who, regardless of race, embody an ethic of care and cultural competence.

Seek out social support. A last point of consideration for graduate students of color is the critical necessity for social support. An abundance of research describes the social isolation graduate students of color experience at PWCUs, with much of this research highlighting negative race-related interactions with White peers. Given that most school psychology programs are situated within PWCUs and have majority White students, school psychology graduate students of color will have to navigate social interactions with White peers. Further, most school psychology programs employ a cohort model, whereby one enters with a group of people who progress through the program together. Cohort models mean that most school psychology students spend significant time with their cohort, both inside and outside of the classroom.

To successfully navigate the social aspects of school psychology graduate education, we encourage graduate students of color to connect with their cohort peers outside of class (e.g., informal cohort get-togethers). Intentional engagement in social interactions was emphasized by Black specialist level school psychology students who had successful relationships with White peers in their programs who were described as supportive and caring (Proctor, Nasir, et al., 2018). However, when school psychology students of color encounter White peers who are not as welcoming, there may be an increased need to seek social support outside of their school psychology programs. In these instances, we recommend connecting with campus-based cultural affinity groups such as the Latinx Graduate Student Association or the Black Graduate Student Association. These groups often provide sanctuaries wherein students of color are centered within PWCUs. A final recommendation is to connect with other people of color in the local community through cultural organizations, religious institutions, and sororities or fraternities. Intentionality in establishing supportive relationships with those within and outside of school psychology programs—including individuals within and outside of one's racial group—represents a promising strategy for social integration and success for graduate students of color (Proctor, Nasir, et al., 2018).

Faculty of Color

Choose a university with a commitment to facilitating the success of faculty of color. One of the initial steps to navigating the academy as a faculty of color is selecting a university, department, and program that demonstrate a commitment to the recruitment and retention

of faculty of color. It is critical that faculty of color find work environments where the racial and social climates provide spaces for them to thrive as scholars, teachers, and change agents. Successful universities prioritize recruiting and retaining underrepresented minoritized faculty, which is reflected in the evaluations of deans, department chairs, and other administrators (Stanley, 2006). Success in retaining faculty of color also includes facilitating opportunities for faculty of color to network and collaborate, supporting their professional development (which often includes additional support for conferences and organizations focusing on diverse populations), supporting the leadership development of faculty of color and providing avenues for them to pursue leadership positions in the university, and protecting faculty of color from excessive requests for service (Stanley, 2006). Additionally, facilitating connections within the university for faculty of color is critical (Griffin et al., 2011). We encourage faculty of color to select universities and departments that utilize the research (see Stanley, 2006) on recruitment and retention of faculty of color to facilitate the success of faculty of color.

Develop relationships with mentors and peers. Researchers suggest that faculty of color find multiple mentors to serve different roles, such as providing institutional knowledge, being familiar with the promotion and tenure process, and having content knowledge related to research interests (Diggs et al., 2009). It is also helpful to seek out senior faculty of color to share experiences and assist in navigating the often isolating university environment (Diggs et al., 2009). When establishing mentoring relationships, faculty of color should be strategic about choosing individuals who are influential in the department and respected as scholars as well as mentors who can provide insight into written and unwritten rules and expectations (Stanley, 2006).

To combat the isolation, microaggressions, and marginalization that faculty of color often experience in the academy, Gregory (2001) suggested finding support networks within the university and community, including professional and social organizations. Outside of formal and informal mentoring relationships, relationships with peers, including other scholars of color and allies, can be essential for faculty of color to navigate the academy. Diggs et al. (2009) indicated the importance of faculty of color finding safe spaces with other faculty of color to share experiences and receive peer support.

Research: Familiarize yourself with the requirements for publication. Many individuals depend on their department heads or colleagues as sources of information for institutional standards. Although these sources are important, the information they provide is not always accurate or complete, so faculty of color should also have firsthand knowledge of the institution's requirements based on the official documents of the university and, if possible, copies of curricula vitae of faculty members who have recently been tenured, promoted, or both. Utilizing all of this information allows faculty of color to get a better sense of the types of publications that are valued and the range within which the number of publications they need to have should fall. Additionally, it is important to get a sense of the expectations with regard to preferences regarding authorship order, the value placed on independent versus collaborative scholarship (as revealed in solo-authored versus first-authored publications), whether publications with students are valued, the value of refereed articles versus book chapters, the impact of grants and contracts, and the journal outlets that are recognized (Worrell, 2011).

Research: Aim for the upper end of the distribution. Social psychological research has indicated (a) that people of color are more likely to be judged equivalently to White faculty when they are both clearly strong and clearly weak and (b) that they are more likely to be judged as less than equal when the differences are more ambiguous (Dovidio & Gaertner, 2000). Faculty of color also perceive having to achieve more to be judged as equals with White colleagues (Stanley, 2006). Thus, faculty of color should aim to be at the upper end of the distribution with regard to research, as it is the currency of the academy (Worrell, 2011), at least within research-intensive institutions. Faculty of color should embrace the unfortunate reality that

exceeding expectations allows them to overcome biases that are often inherent in the tenure and promotion process.

Research: Be unapologetic about your agenda. Faculty of color may at times feel that they have to justify the merit of their work and prove to search committees or tenure and promotion committees that their work has important value (Rooks, 2013). For example, they may have to justify why they only want to study one specific ethnic group (e.g., African American students) instead of other groups and whether doing this is self-serving (or only serving their own group). To address these concerns, Rooks (2013) suggested that faculty of color fight for their work and “care enough about their ideas to keep reaching for a solution, a conclusion, or a reason why what they think matters” (para. 8). Faculty of color may find it uncomfortable to promote their accomplishments and research agenda. As such, Morahan (2004) suggested that it is important for faculty, especially women faculty and faculty of color, to use graceful self-promotion and “view talking about yourself as educating or teaching others, rather than ‘selling’” (p. 2).

Research: Consider productive partnerships. Having like-minded and productive colleagues as collaborators can prove to be a useful strategy. For example, Black racial identity research has been advanced by the work of William Cross and his collaborators and Robert Sellers and his collaborators. We know of productive teams who write together on a variety of topics. Working on a collaborative research team has several benefits, such as division of labor and multiple sites for data collection, in addition to increased productivity. Faculty of color may also get the benefit of increased creativity from the ongoing collaboration and exchange of ideas and have a built-in support system that is readily accessible when challenges arise. Note that it is important to find colleagues who are willing to pull their own weight in terms of contributions, and it is important to negotiate authorship so that all of the members of the team have opportunities to be lead authors.

Teaching: Consider student evaluation issues. Some research suggests faculty of color, especially women faculty of color, may receive less favorable ratings in student evaluations, possibly due to unconscious bias towards faculty of color. For example, instructors who teach courses with a diversity emphasis experience greater resistance than usual and, as a result, tend to receive harsher ratings (Littleford & Jones, 2017). When receiving negative student evaluations, it is important to reflect on and utilize feedback to strengthen one’s teaching but also to consider the possible impact of bias, discrimination, or both in these evaluations. Using research findings (e.g., Littleford & Jones, 2017), faculty of color can argue that student teaching evaluations should not be the sole method to evaluate faculty teaching and assert that other methods, such as peer observation and student learning outcomes, should also be considered.

Advising: Be selective in accepting advisees. Faculty of color need to recognize that they do not have to be the advisor for every student of color in their department. Faculty of color should choose students whose interests and work styles fit well with theirs. For tenure-track faculty of color, it is critical not to let an admirable desire to mentor underrepresented students (and others who request assistance) dominate one’s time, which could impact meeting tenure and promotion standards. Tenure-track faculty of color should focus on activities that will lead to tenure, which includes strategic, productive, and efficient mentoring of students of color, thereby ensuring that they are permanently around to support students of color should they aim to do so.

Service: Prioritize requests. Faculty of color are often few in numbers in departments and universities and are often called on more frequently than White colleagues to engage in service as the institution attempts to diversify committees and work groups (Stanley, 2006). Thus, it is important to be selective when agreeing to service and to not take on so much service that it affects one’s teaching effectiveness or research productivity. When promotion and tenure come around, faculty need to have only sufficient service; in contrast, they need to have outstanding teaching and a strong record of scholarship. When considering a request regarding service

opportunities, faculty of color should consider any negative consequences of declining the request (Arnold et al., 2016). Faculty of color often feel compelled to engage in service work to “serve as a voice for communities of color on campus” (Griffin et al., 2011, p. 515); however, this type of social change may be a daunting task, especially for junior faculty of color. Faculty of color should also consider whether a service opportunity can be integrated with their research or teaching or could lead to future opportunities consistent with their career goals. In general, faculty of color should avoid taking on administrative duties before securing tenure and promotion, especially if administrative roles are not included in their goals (Stanley, 2006). It is helpful to discuss service requests with a supportive mentor, as this strategy allows faculty of color to decline service opportunities based on a mentor’s advice that this opportunity does not seem to have surfaced at the right time considering other responsibilities. Perlmutter (2008) provided some wise suggestions about how to appropriately decline service requests, such as describing reasons for saying no and maintaining a balance between saying yes and no.

Summary

This chapter focuses on succeeding as students and faculty of color in school psychology. Because most school psychology programs are located at HWCUs, the authors offer a comprehensive review of research related to students and faculty of color’s experiences at HWCUs. This research review revealed five themes demonstrating shared experiences both students and faculty of color (i.e., microaggressions, racial battle fatigue, impostor syndrome, social and academic isolation, and difficulty obtaining mentorship) and two themes that are unique to faculty of color (double consciousness and biculturalism and tenure). Based on research and their personal experiences, the authors present recommendations to facilitate success for students and faculty of color in school psychology.

Notes

- 1 Similar to Smith, Mustaffa, Jones, Curry, and Allen (2016), we use the phrase “historically White” instead of the more traditional phrase of “predominantly White” to emphasize the historical and contemporary racialized infrastructure of the institutions over the gross numbers of White students who attend.
- 2 Minoritized refers to a person being forced into a group that is mistreated, face prejudices, and/or discriminated against because of situations outside of one’s personal control.

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