
A History of School Psychology in Australia

Marilyn Campbell and Kevin Glasheen

Introduction

To understand the state of school psychology in Australia at present and to be able to adapt to future trends, it is important to understand the origins and history of the profession which have been shaped by the special Australian context as well as international events. It is essential to critically analyse the current practice of school psychology in Australia to ascertain which activities are anarchistic, i.e., we do what we do because we have always done it that way, and which can limit adaptation to current circumstances, as well as which activities are essential for positive outcomes in students' social, emotional, and educational development. Secondly, it is important to understand the origins of the profession and how it was shaped in order to plan effectively for change, as changing the practices of a profession is inherently difficult because of the unique distinctive role school psychologists have had in the past which Farrell argues has made the professional victims of that history (Farrell, 2010). In looking backwards, we therefore hope to be able

to move forward in a proactive, planned way to respond effectively to the challenges ahead.

Before we begin we need to note two things; first, the different titles used for school psychologists in Australia, and second, the Australian division of federal and state responsibilities for education.

Different Titles

The term guidance officer is an Australian term for school psychologists (Whitla, Walker, & Drent, 1992). The original term guidance was used by an American, Sarah Sturtevant, to describe a movement in American education in the first half of the twentieth century, which was about psychology in education to manage students' development and guide them towards the future (Wright, 2012b). Guidance officer was used initially in Victoria as a neutral term in the post-WWII era, as it was regarded as more socially acceptable due to the fact that psychologists were often identified with those who were involved in the recruiting process for servicemen (Thielking, 2006). There were also some industrial issues related to the choice of term guidance 'officer' for the Victorian education Department (Faulkner, 2000). As Michael Faulkner (1999) describes it, the term officer denoted "the 'holder of office' within a bureaucracy" (p. 103). The title has been used at times in all states except

M. Campbell • K. Glasheen (✉)
Faculty of Education, Queensland University of
Technology, GPO Box 2434, Brisbane, QLD 4001,
Australia
e-mail: ma.campbell@qut.edu.au;
k.glasheen@qut.edu.au

New South Wales and the Australian Capital Territory. It is still the designation used in Queensland to indicate those who are in the role of school psychologists in that state's government schools (Whitla et al., 1992).

Today across Australia, three main names, school counsellor, guidance officer, and school psychologist, are used, with similar, but not identical, academic and training requirements across and within states and territories (Australian Psychologists and Counsellors in Schools (APACS), 2013). For example, in NSW most school counsellors are psychologists, although they are called school counsellors (Campbell & Colmar 2014). In this chapter, the term "school psychologist" will be used to include all types of professionally qualified psychologists and counsellors working in school contexts. Although at this time, the roles and functions of school psychologists and counsellors in Australia are broadly similar, there are distinct differences across the six states and two territories, reflecting the nation's cultural and historical regionality (Faulkner, 2007).

Different States

Politically, Australia is divided into six states (NSW, Victoria, Queensland, Western Australia, South Australia, and Tasmania) and two territories (the Australian Capital Territory and the Northern Territory). As compulsory schooling began when the states were separate colonies, education is a state and territory government responsibility (Commonwealth of Australia Constitution Act, 1900. s.5.107). There has been and remains diversity between state systems with respect to schooling, and consequently, in school psychology and counselling. Age of compulsory schooling is similar across states with most students attending preschool or kindergarten for a year prior to starting school. Six years of primary schooling is followed by 6 years of secondary schooling. Students with disabilities are mostly catered for in segregated special schools and special classes, although there is some integration into mainstream classes (Ashman & Elkins, 2005).

In every state, there are three different schooling systems: schools that are provided free by the state government (servicing 63 % of students), schools that are provided by a Catholic archdiocese (22 % of students), and other independent, usually religious affiliated schools (15 % of students) (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2012). Since Federation in 1901, the Commonwealth or Federal government has been increasingly involved in education and now has considerable influence, both economically and educationally. Economically, the Federal government provides funding for government-controlled schools and is also the major provider of public funds for non-government schools. This enables the Federal government to specify certain conditions that schools are required to meet. As schooling becomes more nationalised with, for example, the introduction of the national curriculum, national testing and accountability, national teacher registration, and professional standards (Wiltshire & Donnelly, 2014), school psychology could also be evolving in this direction. One example of this trend is the national registration and accreditation of all psychologists, including school psychologists, that was introduced in 2010 (Australian Department of Health, 2010).

The history of how each of the Australian states has responded to the need for psychological support in schools is idiosyncratic and reflects the specific issues, government policy, and events in that state. The diversity and distances reflect the geographical realities of the nation. However, even though the evolution of school psychology differs from state to state, there are similarities.

How School Psychological Services Began in Australia

The emergence of the discipline of psychology in the late part of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth had a significant influence on education, both in Australia and in other western countries. Psychology previously was considered more to be a kind of philosophy, which by mental introspection came to an understanding of the soul. The emphasis was on cognition

and normality, while the 'new psychology' examined emotions and behaviour and was more interested in abnormality (Wright, 2012b). This new psychology was therefore thought to have tremendous practical applications to education. School psychology's origins and development is also closely related to the changing educational philosophy in Australia (Oakland, Faulkner, & Annan, 2005).

The new psychology coincided with the provision of universal mass primary education, which was achieved in Australia by 1910 (Shorten, 1996). As some students were found not to cope with school, segregated special schools and special classes in regular schools were established (Ashman & Elkins, 2005). In Victoria, the education department authorised "special schools" for handicapped children in 1890, and thus required psychologists to perform a psychometric role, testing children for selection for such schools (Thielking, 2006). The first of these schools was established in 1913 on Bell St in Fitzroy, named the Bell Street School for Subnormal and Maladjusted Children with Stanley Porteus, a former country school teacher, as the inaugural head teacher. Porteus adapted the Binet-Goddard intelligence scale to identify children with suspected mental retardation for his school (Faulkner, 2007) and thus has been credited by some as being Australia's first school psychologist (Porteus, 1969). Thus, psychology was first applied in a practical application of intelligence testing for identifying children who it was thought would benefit from this segregated education. Just as Binet had envisaged, his intelligence scale published in 1905 with revisions in 1908 and 1911 was used by the staff at the NSW Teacher Training College with R.G. Cameron and Elizabeth Skillen from the Sydney Teachers College, both separately published Binet test results on Australian students in 1913 following Victoria (Wright, 2012b). However, it was not until the 1920s that the Binet scale was revised and normed for Australian use (Turtle, 1988). Such testing, however, was not widespread and, with the interruption of the First World War, there was not much progress in Australian school psychology until the 1920s.

The Period After World War I

Assessment. The period after World War I was a time of international study tours by several education authorities and the exchange of ideas at international conferences (McLeod & Wright, 2013). These study tours were supported by travel grants, often with financial support from the Carnegie Corporation. Most people studied in Britain and the USA, disseminating their ideas when they returned to Australia through publishing travel grant reports by the Australian Council for Educational Research (White, 1997). This council also provided a broad range of psychological and educational tests. One result of these study tours was a training facility set up in 1923 at the Melbourne Teachers' College where a 'psychological laboratory' trained a small number of teachers as assessors of children's mental capacity and as educational advisors to the public school system (Faulkner, 2006).

During the 1920s, there was considerable excitement about the contribution that psychology could make to improve social, economic, and educational problems (Wright, 2012b). Australia benefited from the fact that transportation and communication were reasonably well-developed in the early part of the twentieth century, so ideas were disseminated quite quickly throughout the country. The value of intelligence testing to enable the classification of individual differences was thought to enhance the goal of individualised education for all. The intelligence tests were not only to segregate children with mental retardation to special schools, but also for teachers to divide large classes into ability groups based on IQ scores (McCallum, 1990). Consequently in 1922, Henry Parker was appointed to the special education system in Tasmania (Hall, 1977). He is claimed by some therefore to be the first Australian school psychologist as Porteus was headmaster for his own school as well as testing children for that school. However, Lorna Hodgkinson was also appointed in 1922 by the NSW Department of Education as Superintendent of the Education of Mental Defective (Turtle, 1990). Her duties were to test cases of mental defectiveness and diagnose all subnormal children. Hodgkinson trained

as a pupil-teacher from 1903 to 1906, and in 1920, studied at Harvard graduating in 1922 with a doctorate in education on the diagnosis and treatment of atypical children. However, Hodgkinson was regarded by the Education Department as troublesome as she publically disparaged the Department's provision for 'feeble-minded' children and was dismissed after just 18 months (Turtle, 1990). Despite this setback, by 1936, all final year primary students in NSW were administered intelligence tests to assign them to secondary schools (Hughes, 2002).

The need for a psychological service in schools in Adelaide was recognised by Dr Gertrude Halley who advocated for it from 1915 as she felt that the medical profession was not equipped to deal with the psychological problems of children (Shearer & Seliga, 1968). In 1924, Constance Davey, a teacher and doctoral student of Charles Spearman, joined the South Australian Education Department Medical Branch as a psychologist. Her role was to psychologically examine both educationally 'retarded' children and problem and delinquent ones; organise special classes for these children; train teachers for them as well as provide vocational and school guidance and conduct research (Shute, 1995). In 1926, in Western Australia, Ethel Stoneman was employed with the Education Department as a psychologist to support intellectually retarded children in school (Nixon, 1977). She was the director of the State Psychological Clinic from 1926 to 1930. With a change of state government and societal distrust of testing the feeble-minded, however, her position was terminated in 1930 (Turtle, 1990).

The importance of conducting cognitive assessments for the purpose of identifying and diagnosing intellectual disability has therefore been a hallmark of school psychology. The growth of the profession has been due to the pivotal and historical role of IQ testing for the identification of students with special needs and has assumed a medical model that focused on the problem within the child (Farrell, 2010).

Vocational guidance. Guidance in the period between the world wars was not only concerned with practices, such as intelligence testing and

ability grouping, but was also being embraced as an educational philosophy (Sturtevant, 1937). Education was seen as an investment in the social and economic future and guidance was a philosophy and set of practices to assist schools to achieve this. Psychological testing was thought to be able not only to individualise educational provision, but also to solve social problems such as unemployed youths. The prevailing philosophy expressed by K.S. Cunningham in 1925 was to "make educational facilities fit the ability of all children" (Argus, 1925, p. 8) so that there would be no 'misfits' as every child would be educated for the work he was best fitted. This notion of assisting children to 'fit' into the right job led in this period to the promotion of vocational guidance to assist students.

The basis of vocational guidance using intelligence testing and assessment of skills and aptitudes was to find boys and girls suitable vocations (Wright, 2012b). Not only was educational achievement noted for students in NSW, but also emotional traits, assessment of personality, and details of home were compiled and these together with the Cumulative School History cards for each pupil aided the school psychologists to give vocational guidance (NSW Department of Public Instruction, 1929). In 1926, a vocational guidance bureau was established in the NSW Education Department with Victoria following suit in 1929. In Queensland, vocational services were very limited in the interwar period (Williams, 1967).

Educational guidance. Linked to school vocational guidance for advising students on jobs and careers post-school was the provision of educational advice for boys on selecting suitable courses of study for professional, commercial, industrial, and rural occupations, or for girls, home management (Giles, 1932). To enable educational guidance in schools in NSW in 1935, school counsellors were introduced (Hughes, 2002). This service was comprised of teachers with psychological qualifications who were in charge of educational guidance. Educational guidance was deemed essential to reduce unemployment among youth in these depression years, together with the prevailing view that all adoles-

cents went through a tumultuous, rebellious time during which they needed guidance. Thus, psychological, vocational, and intelligence testing were viewed with great optimism. They contributed greatly to individualised instruction and educational guidance to assess students' skills and aptitudes to gain them meaningful employment according to their capabilities.

Child guidance. In the 1930s, the psychology of young people in general and delinquent and problem children in particular were of great concern to educationalists. At the 1937 New Education Fellowship Conference held in Australia, Susan Isaacs, an educational psychologist, estimated that 25–30 % of school children needed psychological guidance and 5 % definitely required psychotherapy (McLeod & Wright, 2013). Advocacy for child-centred learning informed by concerns for children's emotions was promulgated at the same time as mental testing and the categorisation that followed it. Thus, another area that was deemed to benefit from the new 'scientific' direction of psychology applied to youth in schools was mental health.

In the 1930s, with the increased concern about children's welfare and the view that society was changing rapidly, many were worried about juvenile delinquency and maladjustment and mental disease in youth. Following the lead of America, where child guidance clinics had been set up in the 1920s to diagnose and treat emotional and behavioural problems in students, a clinic was established in Melbourne in 1934 with schools, parents, and the courts referring children for a fee-for-service. This clinic would also provide vocational guidance. However, by 1936, the child guidance work could not be sustained economically and the clinic only then provided vocational guidance (Wright, 2012a).

However, in 1936, a child guidance clinic was established in Sydney as part of the School Medical Service in the Department of Education, funded by the NSW government. The first clinic was a two-storey house near Parramatta Road set up by Dr Irene Seibre, the first woman in Australia to obtain the Degree of Psychological Medicine (Dawson, 1949). Head teachers referred students

for both internalising disorders such as fears, shyness, and unsociability and externalising disorders such as disobedience, tantrums, lying, stealing, and over-activity (Burton, 1939). Thus, the child guidance clinic added to the school as a site not only for educational learning and vocational guidance, but also for recognising and treating child problems. The claim was that the child guidance clinics, which numbered four by 1949 in NSW and saw an average of 700 children annually, reduced child delinquency and enabled problem children to enjoy a healthy adulthood (Dawson, 1949). In Queensland, the first child guidance clinic was established much later in 1959 (Williams, 1967). The clinics demonstrated the optimism that educationalists held for the role of scientific psychology to help reform society (Thomson, 1995).

Impetus of School Psychology After World War II

The dawn of the second half of the twentieth century was a bright one for Australia. The launch of the iconic Snowy Mountains Scheme in 1949 (creation of a massive hydroelectricity and irrigation system and remains the largest engineering project in Australia) and the coronation of a 25-year-old Princess Elizabeth in 1953 epitomised the youthful enthusiasm of a modern post-war nation. Expanded secondary education was achieved in the 1950s, which increased the demand for more practitioners who could administer cognitive assessments for the purposes of optimising students' educational success in secondary school (Hughes, 2002). The eventual achievement of secondary education for all was linked inextricably to the task of reconstructing Australia after World War II (Faye, 1998). However, states differed in the use of group IQ testing to classify students for selection to certain high schools (Hall, 1977). It was estimated that prior to 1950, there were only 20 school psychologists in Australia (Korniszewski & Mallet, 1948). At this time, a 1948 United Nations Education and Scientific Organisation (UNESCO) survey noted that the aims of applied educational

psychology were still contained in the three broad areas of recognising “backward” children, educational guidance, and vocational guidance, as they were in the inter-war period.

In Victoria in 1947, a Psychology Branch was established with the Primary Division of the Victorian Education Department. This branch was the result of a commissioned visit to the US and the UK and subsequent report by Jack Cannon and Ken Cunningham (Faulkner, 2000). The branch was staffed by guidance officers (school psychologists), support teachers, and social workers. Initially, the school psychologists were returned servicemen who were either university graduates or ex-teachers with additional training (Thielking, 2006). In 1949, there were five psychologists in the branch including the first graduates from the Melbourne University School of Psychology. In 1955, the branch name was changed to the Psychology and Guidance branch (Jacobs, 1986). During this time, the role of the guidance officer was to administer test batteries to selected students to attend secondary school. This directive from the educational employer did not sit well with most guidance officers who saw themselves more as reformists in the educational progressive movement (Faulkner, 2000). This belief was epitomised and advocated by John McLeod who served with the Victorian Psychology and Guidance Branch for 29 years from 1947 to 1978. McLeod did not ascribe to the narrow view of testing, but rather emphasised the “interrelationships between social structures, educational processes, and psychological functioning in school children” (Faulkner, 2000, p. 122). In the 1950s, in NSW the school counselling service had “become a service of general practitioners in educational, vocational and all kinds of psychological guidance” (Verco, 1958, p. 56).

Immigration. The period after World War II was also a time of increased exposure to other cultures in Australia, and with the establishment of the Federal Department of Immigration by Prime Minister Ben Chifley, a large-scale immigration program from Europe commenced. Melbourne welcomed international sporting teams to the

Olympic Games in 1956 and this could be regarded as symbolic of post-war Australia welcoming the waves of immigration that would continue to the present time when 24 % of Australians have been born overseas (Frisby & Reynolds, 2005). Immigration contributed to the rapid expansion of Australia’s secondary system (Oakland et al., 2005) and the need for more school psychologists. Each new wave of immigrants also brought challenges to school psychologists who have faced difficulty in assessing culturally and linguistically diverse students fairly, especially with respect to difficulties in learning (Frisby & Reynolds, 2005). Added to this problem was the fact that most Australian-based psychologists were and still are only competent in English (Jimerson, Oakland, & Farrell, 2007). In the early 1970s, in Victoria, school psychologists lobbied for language interpreters and also other forms of support for newly arrived immigrant students (Faulkner, 1993). This situation of providing adequate support remains today with many immigrant children arriving traumatised and without having had adequate schooling (Boston, 2014). With 24 % of the Australian population born overseas and 3 % being of the Islamic tradition as well as 4 % of school-aged children being from the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander culture (Preston, 2013), there is an urgent need for school psychologists to undertake training in multicultural counselling and assessment.

Distance gives rise to innovation. The Australian educational landscape of the 1950s nurtured the development of a uniquely Australian character, which impacted the developing profession of school psychology. When a prominent educationist Miss Adelaide Miethke had the idea to adopt the pedal-powered radios used by the Royal Flying Doctor Service for the delivery of school lessons, the School of the Air was born and its introduction provided a solution to the tyranny of distance and education became available to those in remote areas (Edgar & Jones, 1986). Providing psychological services to students in these isolated areas presented a special challenge. The vast distances encountered by many who worked in the rural and outback areas of the state education systems

limited the ability of school psychologists to have frequent consultations with students, and as a result, innovative strategies were needed to support these young people. Observers of Australian school psychology suggest that this remoteness motivated the development of indirect services where school psychologists developed step by step programs explained in clear language for parents to implement (Ritchie, 1985). Rural school psychologists are still difficult to recruit and many country areas are under-served by qualified personnel (Oakland et al., 2005).

Academic expectations. Student pastoral care became more prominent in the 1950s and during the two decades post-war. In Victoria, school guidance services were being considered to be delivered in homes and neighbourhoods as well as schools (Faulkner, 2000). However, intelligence testing for educational placement and vocational counselling still took precedence.

The launch of Sputnik in 1957 by Russia was a catalyst for emphasising science education in the United States and the associated need for students to strive for excellence in the field (Wissehr, Concannon, & Barrow, 2011). This global event coincided with a change in emphasis of the role of school psychologists, which started to expand from screening individuals for special education programs to the vocational guidance of mainstream students into the most appropriate post-secondary school courses and occupations. Entry requirements to universities exerted academic pressures on the curriculum of schools, and with the introduction of quotas for some university courses in the 1960s, increased the competition for places (Mossenson, 1981). The advent of the Commonwealth Schools Commission in 1973 led to an increase in funding for education and a high priority was placed on combating the effects of socio-economic disadvantage (Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER), 1998). This in turn required school psychologists to increasingly consider the social welfare of students.

By the 1960s, intelligence testing for innate ability to determine a child's placement in ability groupings in either different schools or within a school or even classroom was being replaced by

McLeod's view that educational difficulties can be caused by various factors including parental treatment and expectation as well as by teaching styles, the curriculum, and school climate (Jacobs, 1986). This view led to the development of school psychologists working in a more collaborative and consultative way with staff in schools (Thielking, 2006). The role expanded by the 1970s to accommodate some of the welfare functions, previously undertaken by the family or church. This more pastoral focus included providing individual and group counselling to students with social-emotional difficulties as well as in-service to teachers and assistance to parents (Jacobs, 1986). In the 1970s, there was a perceived increase in student violence and aggression and calls for more psychologists (Department of Education Victoria, 1973). By the mid 1970s, there was another name change for the Victorian Branch to "Counselling Guidance and Clinical Services". This service was staffed by guidance officers (dual qualified teachers and psychologists) and psychology officers (psychologists without teaching experience) as well as social workers, speech therapists, welfare officers, and interpreters (Thielking, 2006).

In the mid 1980s, in Victoria with 330 school psychologists employed, the centralised state-wide branch was disbanded and local centres, Student Service Centres, were established where managers were not psychologists (Jacobs, 1986). More restructures occurred in the Victorian Education Department and many roles became blurred with low morale for school psychologists in this period (Burden, 1988). This situation was exacerbated in the 1990s with the system of psychological services to school described as being stretched since the abolition of the centralised branch and years of cost cutting and restructuring. Psychologists in schools were employed in administrative and policy implementing activities that did not allow time for student counselling (Whitla et al., 1992). By 1997, the number of school psychologists was reduced to 130 in Victoria with an enrolment of 514, 805 students in government schools (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1997). This was largely due to the Victorian government's policy shift that saw many

students with disabilities attending mainstream schools as well as the assessment of children for special education services contracted out to private psychology organisations (Faulkner, 2006). However, this trend to outsource the cognitive assessment role has not occurred in other states. The rate of youth suicide, however, increased at this time, which promoted an injection of money to schools to fund student welfare co-ordinators, school nurses as well as school psychologists to provide support for student well-being (Thielking, 2006). At the beginning of the new century, the ratio of school psychologists to students in Victoria was the lowest in the country. This, together with the fact that the service was decentralised so there was no centralised support, further added to the low morale in government schools.

Career Guidance

Career development in Australian schools has continued to evolve from its vocational guidance beginnings in the interwar years. Many practitioners in the school psychology role have continued to provide career guidance in schools and one third of the membership of the Australian Association of Career Counsellors work in education (McMahon, 2006). University fees were abolished by the Whitlam government in the 1970s, and together with a concerted effort by the federal government to increase the number of places at university in the 1980s, there was an increased need for career guidance. The role of assisting students to apply for courses at tertiary institutions was successfully met by school counsellors (Pascoe, 1999). The establishment of the state-based university admission centres in the 1990s led to school psychologists and counsellors being responsible for coordinating the process of tertiary admissions at the school level. In Queensland, secondary school guidance officers were expected to provide counselling services at the local district office during the admission period that occurred in the summer vacation. For most of the 1990s and continuing to this day, assisting students with the tertiary entrance process was an accepted responsibility of the sec-

ondary school's guidance counsellor and was regarded as a priority from a principal's perspective (Dickinson, 1995), though the introduction of online application processes has reduced much of the manual data collection. The role of career advisor and school counsellor is separated in some states; however, in Queensland government schools, both functions are still included in the role description of the guidance officer (Education Queensland, 2012).

Development of training, qualifications, and accreditation. As mentioned previously, the first training school for school psychologists was conducted at the Melbourne Teachers' College in 1923. In universities, however, psychology was taught in departments of philosophy in the beginning of the twentieth century and it was not until the 1930s that separate psychology departments were established at Sydney University and the University of Western Australia (Turtle & Orr, 1990). The University of Melbourne followed suit in 1946 with the University of Adelaide and the Australian National University in the 1950s (O'Neill, 1977). However, at this time most psychologists completed their training in either the United States or in the United Kingdom (Ritchie, 1985). The rise in empirical and applied psychology in the early twentieth century coincided with the interest in the psychological and pedagogical practices of Dewey and Montessori (Oakland et al., 2005). The fact that, from 1913, teachers in Victoria were provided with in-service psychological courses attested to the growing interest of educationalists in psychology.

In the mid-1970s, Master's degree programs in educational or school-related psychology were being offered in universities, mainly within education faculties (Faulkner, 2007). In at least two states of Australia, Queensland and Victoria, a partnership model of training was instituted, with universities offering training in postgraduate studies, and the state education employing authority training in practical and institutional imperatives. In Queensland, this model was in place from 1975 to 1992, and in Victoria, from 1972 to 1993 (Faulkner, 1999). To cope with the increase in the number of types of service

provision that society and schools were demanding from school psychologists and counsellors, university course offerings have expanded since the 1980s (Ritchie, 1985). It is interesting to note the impact of government policy in restructuring the state educational systems as it has similarities in the different states, for example, the disbanding of the specific departments catering for school psychology at similar times with the abolition of the Department of Special Education in Queensland in 1991 and the abolition of the position of Guidance Officer Training Coordinator in Victoria at the same time.

In 1993, the state education employers withdrew and the universities took over the pre-service training of school psychologists and counsellors. NSW still offers retraining in partnership with universities, with another unique program at The University of Sydney, which trains students with psychology honours degrees, who are eligible for provisional registration as psychologists, in a post-graduate teaching and school counselling Master's degree (Campbell & Colmar 2014).

In Australia, at present there is dual training for most school psychologists and counsellors in education and psychology. There are various pathways, with most people training as teachers and undertaking mid-career training as school psychologists (Burnett, 1997). However, some take a dual degree in education and psychology, while a very few initially work as psychologists and subsequently take an education degree. Queensland is the only state that has historically employed teachers with postgraduate training in school guidance and counselling rather than teachers who are also psychologists.

Development of clinical supervision. The origins of clinical supervision can be traced to the Freudian era when small groups of practitioners met informally to discuss each other's work. Supervision was only made a formal requirement of training for psychologists and counsellors in the 1920s by Max Eitington (Carroll, 2007). Carroll identified these early years as being characterised by reflecting on the practice of colleagues as the first of three stages in the development of supervision. The second stage

began in the 1950s when other counselling and psychotherapy orientations were introduced and which have been called 'counselling-bound or psychotherapy-bound' models of supervision (Carroll, 2007, p. 34). The 1970s signalled the third stage when the focus moved from the practitioner to the work done in the counselling interaction resulting in developmental frameworks centred on practice. As the emphasis of supervision became focused on the improvement of the counselling interaction, supervision beyond training became a priority for school psychologists and counsellors. Those who are fully or provisionally registered psychologists have specific supervisory needs; however, since school counsellors represent less than 1 % of the workforce in schools, their minority status within the education system presents many issues, both for organisations and practitioners, in terms of clinical supervision (Magnuson, Norem, & Bradley, 2000). The importance of clinical supervision for this professional group has not been fully appreciated by those in educational management; thus, employer-provided supervision has been less than adequate (Barletta, 1996).

The nature of schools and the responsibilities of those in educational leadership may result in focusing on the managerial aspect of supervision for school psychologists, with a focus on the organisation's goals rather than clinical supervision aimed at best practice for clients. The organisational culture of schooling is usually based on defensive styles, in which feedback is primarily negative, and mistakes are to be avoided rather than viewed as learning opportunities (Cooke & Lafferty, 2000). The connotation of using the term supervision within the educational context implies a hierarchy of power where school administrators monitor and evaluate staff. As most school psychologists have transitioned from a teaching role, this is the concept of supervision that many have when they enter their new role. As clinical supervision differs from a managerial model, school principals may not readily appreciate the specific nature and importance of clinical supervision and may regard it as taking time away from client services (McMahon, 1998).

Even though senior psychologists and guidance officers are required to provide clinical supervision for practitioners in schools, there is typically no training provided to them by the employers. As a result, the quality and consistency of supervision varies and the practice of providing supervision to school-based personnel can be limited and delivered in an ad hoc manner (Campbell & Wackwitz, 2002). Unfortunately, Thielking's (2006) study showed that the situation has not improved in the past 20 years since Barletta's investigation, and considering the increasing challenges such as the rise in mental health issues confronting today's school psychologist, the lack of supervision continues to be a crucial requirement for practitioners and an essential aspect of the profession.

History of Professional Associations

In Australia, there are two major professional associations catering for school psychologists and counsellors. One is the Australian Psychologists and Counsellors in Schools (APACS), which is a national body of various state associations, such as the Queensland Guidance and Counsellors Association and School Psychologists in Western Australia. Membership to APACS is by state affiliation. APACS was formed in 1985 and named the Australian Guidance and Counselling Association. It was an amalgamation of state-based organisations that still retain their own independence (Prescott, 1995). The association publishes the Australian Journal of School Psychologists and Counsellors (formerly the Australian Journal of Guidance and Counselling) and an email newsletter, holds a biannual conference, and advocates at a national level for its members (www.apacs.com.au). In 1995, the association affiliated with International School Psychology Association (Faulkner, 2006).

The other association is the Australian Psychological Society. This association was established in 1965 and was formerly a branch of British Psychological Society from 1945. It has

nine colleges, one of which is the College of Educational and Developmental Psychologists, which requires psychologists to have specified qualifications and experience in this area. There is also an interest group of school psychologists, only recently formed in 2012 by Thielking, which any member of the APS can join, and a School Psychology Reference group, established since 2005, for which membership is invited (Australian Psychological Society, 2014). Furthermore, a Psychologists in Schools Advisor position at the APS was created in 2005, providing professional advice to school psychologists; however, this is only staffed by one person on a part-time basis and is therefore limited in its capacity. Both associations (APS and APACS) provide a code of ethics for their members and vie for membership; both also claim to be the peak body for school psychologists and/or counsellors.

Reflection

It is prudent to reflect on the history of school psychology in Australia at this point. Farrell (2010) argues cogently that, as an emerging profession, school psychology was firmly rooted in the medical model of looking within the child to find the problem, by testing children's IQ to assess whether they needed special educational provisions. As IQ testing was exclusively reserved for the profession of psychology, it is no wonder that teachers, administrators, and parents came to see that as the dominant task for school psychologists as no other professional claimed to have this expertise. Many school psychologists, such as the previously mentioned John MacLeod, did not adhere to this narrow conception of assessment, nor that assessment was the only role of a school psychologist. However, many surveys conducted in Australia have shown that individual IQ testing is still the most prevalent activity of school psychologists (Faulkner, 2006; Thielking, 2006). Farrell (2010) argues that school psychology is a distinctive profession, but that does not mean its only uniqueness is based on giving individual IQ assessments to children. It is inter-

esting to note this same sentiment in the Victorian John Hall's writing in 1977.

It must be acknowledged that the intelligence testing and the categorisation of children which psychologists have practised for so long has reinforced attitudes in teachers antithetical to change, and has supported psychologically indefensible practices. Some 20 years ago, the institutional stereotype of the psychologist was that of mental tester of children who did not meet the school's intellectual or behavioural demands and the teachers' perception of the psychologist's role was the he should place the child elsewhere, or restore the child to conformity. (pp. 169–170)

We can see therefore that IQ testing might be an historical hindrance in progressing the field of school psychology if, for the last 50 years, the perception is so entrenched. One arcane practice in Queensland school counselling in the Education Department is the requirement to write a 'guidance' report as soon as an intelligence test is carried out; this is whether the diagnosis has been reached or not. Historically, this comes from guidance officers travelling by train around the state in the 1970s and 1980s, to primary schools to test referred children. Each guidance officer conducted two individual IQ tests per day, interviewed the parents, sometimes saw the teacher briefly, and wrote a 'guidance report' for each child. Copies were distributed to the teacher, the parent, and the child's file. There was no follow-up. Depending on the size of the school, a return visit was conducted in 6 months for new referrals. Given the limited resources, this model may have been appropriate at the time. However, the practice seems to be unnecessary in the present model of service delivery where most primary schools are serviced for 2 or 3 days a week.

School Psychology Today

Roles and responsibilities. The role of the school psychologist or counsellor today is to assist students, teachers, parents, and school communities to enable students to reach both educational and social-emotional outcomes through proactive and reactive strategies. It is an ever-expanding role,

which means that school psychologists not only assist students with mental health concerns, but also provide psychological assessment, career and personal counselling, behaviour management interventions, consultation, and professional development for teachers and parents (Thielking, 2006). Given this variety of professional duties, it seems, as Bardon (1983) stated, that instead of developing as a profession, educational guidance and psychology in Australia has, along with schools generally, accumulated tasks. The trend that Bardon identified continued over the next 30 years with additional roles, skills, and competencies expected of school psychologists (McKie & Colmar, 2013). Not only are school psychologists increasingly positioned within a school-based multidisciplinary team, they are often required to support government initiatives designed to increase the capacity of schools and teachers to cater for the mental health needs of the school community (Stafford, 2007). The implementation of MindMatters (Mason, 2009) which focuses on developing the understanding and capacity of secondary schools to address mental health issues, together with KidsMatter (Fasano & Cavanagh, 2009; Graetz et al., 2008) which paralleled this innovation in primary schools, demonstrates this increasing need for practitioners to possess collaborative leadership skills when facilitating such whole school-based initiatives.

To provide information about the role of a school psychologist for those working in education, the Australian Psychological Society produced a paper entitled "Framework for the Effective Delivery of School Psychological Services" (2013). The document advocates for practice standards to be met by all school psychologists and provides a national and unified approach to the practice of school psychology in Australian schools. The framework also provides a model of school psychological service delivery, using a domain and sub-domain approach, with the integration of roles, activities, and tasks, involving personal attributes and contexts. Practical advice and information is provided for many of the challenging areas of school psychology practice (McKie & Colmar, 2013).

In this framework, the main roles, activities, and tasks of a school psychologist are described as prevention (e.g. information and psycho-education for students, student programs for well-being, information to parents and teachers, and health promotion), assessment (e.g. educational, psychological, or diagnostic), intervention (e.g. counselling, mental health service provision, and intervention for learning and behaviour), collaboration (e.g. consultation, critical incident management, and referral to community agencies), and management (e.g. administration, record keeping, research and evaluation, and supervision and mentoring).

Not only have school psychology services been widened to focus on the increasing needs of young people, but they have also been influenced by their strong relationship with educational public sector organisations. As a minority profession in a large educational bureaucracy, school psychology has been subject to and influenced by the many changes in organisational restructuring and policy initiatives (Faulkner, 1993; McKie & Colmar, 2013).

Service delivery models. There are many different service delivery models that school psychologists and counsellors operate in Australia. For most secondary schools practitioners, usually service one school (Rice & Bramston, 1999) and the ratio of practitioners to enrolments has remained relatively stable over recent years. In primary schools, practitioners usually service multiple sites. In some states, there is a combination of servicing both a secondary school and the primary feeder schools. Some psychologists are physically based at a school site, while in other places, they are based at a district office and go out to schools on an as-needed basis. Although the as-needed basis has some benefits of equity, these practitioners are not able to work systemically to influence the climate and practices of the school.

Thielking (2006) investigated school psychologists' service delivery models in Victoria and found that they were working systemically as part of a school team as well as providing traditional services such as counselling and assessment. Those practitioners who worked in government schools and/or serviced multiple

sites reported that they participated in more psycho-educational assessments and undertook less program development and delivery than those working in nongovernment schools and/or on one site. Those working in one site had more time to deal with matters that were not driven by some level of crisis. The multi-site practitioners were also less professionally satisfied with their office spaces, file security, access to technology, and psychosocial resources.

With community agencies such as Headspace (www.headspace.org.au), Kids Help Line (www.kidshelp.com.au), and Reachout (<http://au.reachout.com>), providing web-based support to young people, school psychologists are challenged to adapt their service delivery systems to incorporate technology and the internet. For example, the provision of online counselling in schools may increase the help-seeking behaviours of at-risk young people (Campbell & Glasheen, 2012).

Numbers of school psychologists. In some states in Australia, there is an oversupply of personnel who are qualified to be school counsellors and who still work in the classroom, especially in Queensland. There has been a slight increase in the last 20 years in the number of school psychologists with 1400 in government schools across Australia in 1992 to over 2000 in 2013. There has been a consequent slight reduction in psychologist-to-student ratios in this period with 1:1544 in NSW and 1:4200 in South Australia in 1992 and 1:1050 in NSW and 1:3500 in South Australia in 2013. It is interesting to note that the ratios in NSW and South Australia remained the lowest and highest, respectively.

Gender, age, remuneration. School counselling remains a female-dominated profession in Australia, given that three of the first school psychologists were women. The proportion of female counsellors is 89 % (NSW Department of Education and Communities, 2011), which is similar to the proportion of primary school teachers but higher than that of high school teachers. It appears that there has been a substantial decline in the proportion of men, relative

to women, working as school guidance officers in Queensland since 1999, when 44 % were men, dropping to 28.2 % in 2010 (Anderson et al., 2010; Bramston & Rice, 2000; Rice & Bramston, 1999). This mirrors a similar decline in the number of men in the general teaching population throughout Australia and worldwide (Martino & Kehler, 2006; Mills, Martino, & Lingard, 2004), which has occurred in spite of state governments' campaigns to increase the proportion of male teachers.

Most school psychologists and counsellors are over 45 years old (NSW Department of Education and Communities, 2011), with a median age of 52 years. This is slightly older than the teaching population, as psychologists may have completed several years of teaching and further postgraduate studies. Approximately 40 % of NSW counsellors are over the national retirement age, but still are employed. There also appears to have been a substantial increase in the age of school counsellors in Queensland—from 37.5 % who were aged over 50 in 1999 to 56.4 % in 2010.

The future. Even though the roles adopted by school psychologists have varied in response to societal and educational demands over the twentieth and early twenty-first century, there has been a consistency in the core responsibilities of those providing psychological services within the education sector. The influence of educational philosophy has determined the level of psychometric assessment that was required either for identification of individuals for special programs or for providing universal programs. The motivation of educational systems to assess students has varied as a response to social pressures; however, cognitive assessment still remains a key function of school psychologists and there is no indication that this will change significantly.

The manner in which educational philosophy can impact educational psychology is highlighted by the increased demand for accountability in educational practices, and where in the past the emphasis was on the child and their inadequacies, such developments as the Response to Intervention initiative which has recently become popular in the United States as a means

of identifying learning disabilities has yet to have a major impact on the Australian educational landscape. However, with the advent of national educational assessment models such as NAPLAN (National Assessment Program-Literacy and Numeracy), these movements, which focus more on the effectiveness of the pedagogy, could require school psychologists to work in an educational leadership and collaborative role with teachers rather than identifying the limitations of students (Hempenstall, 2012). This may challenge the school psychologist to be more closely associated with the teaching process rather than the learning response. Given this potential change for the future development of the profession, Farrell (2010) suggests that there is a need to invest in research that explores and evaluates other approaches to the psychological assessment of students with learning difficulties.

The necessity to prepare students for life pathways began with the need for vocational guidance and continues with the demands of career development in secondary schools. As young people strive to navigate the pathways of secondary and tertiary education, there will be a continued need for guidance services to assist the young people as they assess their life goals and appreciate the career opportunities to achieve these which in turn impacts the young people's state of well-being. It could be questioned if career counselling will continue to be a role of school psychologists as other school personnel become responsible for School-Based Apprenticeships and work placements as part of their role. However, this is unlikely as there remains the need to counsel young people as they clarify their personal goals, which are intricately linked to their career aspirations.

Thus, while the role description of the school psychologist in Australia varies across the country, if we are to consider the future role it can still be summarised as it was at an earlier time

"The task of school psychologists is to assist students, teachers, parents and school communities to solve and ameliorate a very wide range of educational problems. School psychologists apply their knowledge of psychology as a behavioural science to the presenting school situation, in both proactive and reactive approaches." (Whitla et al., 1992, p. 2)

Of course history is still being made—legislation about psychological services in Medicare, national accreditation for psychologists, and national initiatives to target students' mental health (Department of Health and Ageing, 2010) are some of the issues confronting school psychologists today. The twenty-first century poses new challenges for the school psychologist. Their role has evolved to that of a mental health worker whose goal is often to support students experiencing depression and anxiety and whose educational progress is being impeded by such disabilities. The need for more school psychologists to deal with issues such as anger management, cyberbullying, self-harm, and suicide has been acknowledged in the popular media (RTT News, 2013, Mar 27; Gold Coast Bulletin, 2009, Oct 08; Stirling Times, 2012, Jul 03).

The profession is changing and is faced by a number of challenges as it evolves from a 'mid-career' profession to one that is increasingly being revitalised by 'first-career' psychologists (Faulkner, 2006). The role increasingly demands collaborative and collegial skills as they work ever more closely with other professionals based in community health and human services. School psychologists are increasingly part of a school support team, which may consist of youth workers, nurses, police officers, and members of other training organisations that have the young person's well-being as their focus. Technology will play a larger role in the provision and access to school psychological services in the remotest areas of Australia. The role is no longer narrowly focused on the educational outcomes, but now is challenged by the contributing factors of mental health, family structure, and financial and social pressures. Research on the positive impact of school-wide programs and interventions will also broaden the role considerably and school psychologists have a major role to play in facilitating students' access to psychological support.

Test Yourself Quiz

1. How has educational philosophy impacted the practice of school psychology?
2. Why do you think that school psychology is still dominated by individual IQ testing?
3. Interview some experienced school psychologists and ask them how has school psychology changed during their time.
4. What do you consider to be the most important challenge facing school psychologists?
5. How would you describe the value of a school psychologist to an employing school principal?

References

- Anderson, D., Campbell, M., Gillies, R., McMahon, M., O'Brien, P., & Pagliano, P. (2010). *The training of guidance officers in Queensland*. Unpublished manuscript.
- Argus. (1925, 18 February). Misfits in life: How to avoid them. *The Argus*, p. 8.
- Ashman, A., & Elkins, J. (2005). *Educating children with diverse abilities*. Sydney: Pearson Education Australia.
- Australian Bureau of Statistics. (1997). *Victorian year book 1997*. Retrieved from [http://www.ausstats.abs.gov.au/ausstats/free.nsf/0/408AA2D9DDF9C54DCA257AFD001596C9/\\$File/13012_1997.pdf](http://www.ausstats.abs.gov.au/ausstats/free.nsf/0/408AA2D9DDF9C54DCA257AFD001596C9/$File/13012_1997.pdf)
- Australian Bureau of Statistics. (2012). Education and training—Primary and secondary education. *Year book Australia 1301.0*. Retrieved from <http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/Lookup/by%20Subject/1301.0~2012~Main%20Features~Primary%20and%20secondary%20education~105>
- Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER). (1998). Schools in Australia: 1973–1998 The 25 years since the Karmel report. *Conference Proceedings*. Retrieved from http://research.acer.edu.au/research_conference_karmel/1
- Australian Department of Health. (2010). *National registration and accreditation scheme*. Retrieved from <http://www.health.gov.au/internet/main/publishing.nsf/Content/work-nras>
- Australian Psychological Society. (2013). *Framework for the effective delivery of school psychological services*. Public Sector and Non-Government Organisations Reference Group. Retrieved from <https://www.psychology.org.au/Assets/Files/2013-APS-psychological-services-framework-for-public-sector-NGO%20.pdf>
- Australian Psychological Society. (2014). Psychologists in Schools Reference Group. Retrieved from <http://www.psychology.org.au/practitioner/groups/PSRG>
- Australian Psychologists and Counsellors in Schools (APACS). (2013). *An Australia wide comparison of school counsellor/psychologist guidance services*. Australian Guidance and Counselling Association.

- Retrieved from http://www.agca.com.au/a_docs/An_Australian_Wide_Comparison_of_School_Counsellor_Psychologist_and_Guidance_Services_2008.pdf
- Bardon, J. (1983). Psychology applied to education: A specialty in search of an identity. *American Psychologist*, 38, 185–196. doi:10.1037/0003-066X.38.2.185.
- Barletta, J. (1996). Supervision for school counsellors: When will we get what we really need? *Australian Journal of Guidance and Counselling*, 6, 1–7.
- Boston, K. (2014, March). *Gonski: Re-imaging Australian education*. Melbourne: Victorian Association of Secondary School Principals Conference.
- Bramston, P., & Rice, D. (2000). Generalists or specialists? Guidance officers in Queensland schools. *Australian Journal of Guidance and Counselling*, 10, 27–34.
- Burden, R. L. (1988). Stress and the school psychologist. *School Psychology International*, 9, 55–59. doi:10.1177/0143034388091009.
- Burnett, P. (1997). The face of guidance and counselling, what will it look like in 25 years? *Australian Journal of Guidance and Counselling*, 7, 23–34.
- Burton, N. W. (1939). *The child guidance clinic*. Unpublished Ph.D. thesis, The University of Sydney, Sydney.
- Campbell, M. A., & Colmar, S. (2014). Current status and future trends of school counselling in Australia. *Journal of Asia Pacific Counselling*, 4, 181–197. doi:10.18401/2014.4.2.9.
- Campbell, M. A., & Glasheen, K. J. (2012). The provision of online counselling for young people. In B. I. Popoola, & O. F. Adebawale (Eds.) *Online guidance and counselling: Toward effectively applying technology* (pp. 1–13). Information Science Reference (an imprint of IGI Global), Hershey, PA.
- Campbell, M. A., & Wackwitz, H. (2002). Supervision in an organization where counsellors are a minority profession. In M. McMahon & W. Patton (Eds.), *Supervision in the helping professions: A practical guide* (pp. 313–324). Sydney, Australia: Pearson Education Australia.
- Carroll, M. (2007). One more time: What is supervision? *Psychotherapy in Australia*, 13(3), 34–40.
- Commonwealth of Australia Constitution Act. (1900). s.5.107. Retrieved from http://www.aph.gov.au/About_Parliament/Senate/Powers_practice_n_procedures/~link.aspx?id=6ED2CAE61E7742A1B2C42F95D4C05252&z=z
- Cooke, R. A., & Lafferty, J. C. (2000). Exploring Education Queensland's culture. *Education Views*, 9(22), 18–19.
- Dawson, E. (1949). Australian child guidance clinics. *Understanding the Child*, 18, 17–18.
- Department of Education Victoria. (1973). *Report of the minister for education 1972–1973*. Melbourne: Government Printer.
- Department of Health and Ageing. (2010). *Mindmatters—Heading mental health and wellbeing*. Canberra, Australia: Author.
- Dickinson, K. (1995). An investigation of perceptions of guidance officers and secondary principals as to present and preferred level of guidance officer practice in secondary school. *Australian Journal of Guidance and Counselling*, 5, 21–30.
- Edgar, S., & Jones, H. (1986). *Miethke, Adelaide Laetitia (1881–1962)*. Australian Dictionary of Biography, National Centre of Biography, Australian National University. Retrieved from <http://adb.anu.edu.au/biography/miethke-adelaide-laetitia-7571/text13215>
- Education Queensland. (2012). *Guidance officers*. Retrieved from <http://education.qld.gov.au/hr/recruitment/teaching/guidance-officers.html>
- Farrell, P. (2010). School psychology: Learning lessons from history and moving forward. *School Psychology International*, 31, 581–598. doi:10.1177/0143034310386533.
- Fasano, B., & Cavanagh, S. (2009) KidsMatter national expansion: A partnership between education and health. *The Bulletin of the Australian Psychological Society Ltd*, 31(3), 35. Retrieved from <https://www.kidsmatter.edu.au/sites/default/files/public/kidsmatter-national-expansion.pdf>
- Faulkner, M. (1993, September). *Paradigm and contestation in school psychology within the Victorian Education Department*. Paper presented at the Fourth National Conference of the Australian Guidance and Counselling Association, Adelaide.
- Faulkner, M. (1999). Inside the vortex: School psychology and the dynamics of public sector transformation. *Australian Journal of Guidance and Counselling*, 9, 93–118.
- Faulkner, M. (2000). J.R. McLeod: An innovating school psychologist in Victorian government schools. *Melbourne Studies in Education*, 41(1), 115–136. doi:10.1080/17508480009556346.
- Faulkner, M. (2006). School psychology in Australia. In S. Jimerson, T. Oakland, & P. Farrell (Eds.), *Handbook of international school psychology* (pp. 15–28). London: Sage.
- Faulkner, M. (2007). School psychologists or psychologists in schools? *InPsych*, 9(4), 10–13.
- Faye, E. (1998). Growing up 'Australian' in the 1950's: The dream of social science. *Australian Historical Studies*, 29(111), 344–365. doi:10.1080/10314619808596077.
- Frisby, C., & Reynolds, C. (Eds.). (2005). *The handbook of multi-cultural school psychology*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- Giles, G. R. (1932). Vocational guidance in Australia. *International Labour Review*, 26, 530–543. doi:10.1080/00048403208540974.
- Graetz, B., Littlefield, L., Trinder, M., Dobia, B., Souter, M., Champion, C., ... Cummins, R. (2008). KidsMatter: A population health model to support student mental health and wellbeing in primary schools. *International Journal of Mental Health Promotion*, 10(4), 13–20. doi:10.1080/14623730.2008.9721772
- Hall, J. (1977). Educational psychology in public service. In M. Nixon & R. Taft (Eds.), *Psychology in Australia: Achievements and prospects*. Sydney: Pergamon Press.

- Hempenstall, K. (2012). Response to intervention: Accountability in action. *Australian Journal of Learning Difficulties*, 17(2), 101–131. doi:10.1080/19404158.2012.704879.
- Hughes, J. P. (2002). Harold Wyndham and educational reform in Australia 1925–1968. *Education Research and Perspectives*, 29(1), 1–268.
- Jacobs, A. (1986). *A history of the psychology, guidance and welfare work of counselling, guidance and clinical services (formerly the Psychology Branch and the Psychology and Guidance Branch) 1947–1985*. Unpublished Master of Education thesis, University of Melbourne, Melbourne.
- Jimerson, S. R., Oakland, T. D., & Farrell, P. T. (2007). *The handbook of international school psychology*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Korniszewski, P., & Mallet, J. (1948). *A survey of educational psychology services in 41 countries*. Paris: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation.
- Magnuson, S., Norem, K., & Bradley, L. J. (2000). Supervising school counsellors. In L. J. Bradley & N. Ladany (Eds.), *Counsellor supervision: Principles and process, and practice* (pp. 207–221). Philadelphia, PA: Brunner-Routledge.
- Martino, W., & Kehler, M. (2006). Male teachers and the “boy problem”: An issue of recuperative masculinity politics. *McGill Journal of Education*, 41, 113–132.
- Mason, J. (2009). MindMatters, leadership and community partnerships. *Independent Education*, 39, 24–25.
- McCallum, D. (1990). *The social production of merit: Education, psychology, and politics in Australia, 1900–1950*. London: Falmer Press.
- McKie, W. D., & Colmar, S. (2013, July). *Effective school psychological practice*. Paper presented at the National Conference of the Australian Guidance and Counselling Association, Sydney.
- McLeod, J., & Wright, K. (2013). Education for citizenship: Transnational expertise, curriculum reforms and psychological knowledge in 1930s Australia. *History of Education Review*, 42, 170–184. doi:10.1108/HER-09-2012-0029.
- McMahon, M. (1998). *Perceptions of clinical supervision in school guidance and counselling*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Queensland University of Technology, Brisbane, Australia.
- McMahon, M. (2006). Career counselling in Australia. *International Journal of Psychology*, 41(3), 174–179. doi:10.1080/00207590544000167.
- Mills, M., Martino, W., & Lingard, B. (2004). Attracting, recruiting and retaining male teachers: Policy issues in the male teacher debate. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 25, 355–369. doi:10.1080/0142569042000216990.
- Mossenson, D. (1981, August). *Legitimizing provision for gifted children: An Australian perspective*. Paper presented at the Fourth World Congress on Gifted and Talented Children, Montreal, Canada.
- Nixon, M. (1977). Educational psychology in Australia. In C. Catterall (Ed.), *Psychology in the schools in international perspectives* (Vol. 2, pp. 15–23). Columbus, OH: International School Psychology Steering Committee.
- NSW Department of Education and Communities. (2011). *Paper 1. The school counselling workforce in NSW Government Schools*. School Counselling Services Review Taskforce. Retrieved from <http://www.dec.nsw.gov.au/about-us/statistics-and-research/public-reviews-and-enquiries/school-counselling-services-review>
- NSW Department of Public Instruction. (1929). *Report of the Minister of Public Instruction for the year 1928*. Sydney: Government Printer.
- O'Neill, W. (1977). Teaching practice in psychology in Australia in the first phase. In M. Nixon & R. Taft (Eds.), *Psychology in Australia: Achievements and prospects*. Sydney: Pergamon Press.
- Oakland, T., Faulkner, M., & Annan, J. (2005). School psychology in four English-speaking countries: Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the United States. In C. L. Frisby & C. R. Reynolds (Eds.), *Comprehensive handbook of multicultural school psychology* (pp. 1081–1106). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- Pascoe, R. (1999). Admission to Australian Universities. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 21(1), 17–31.
- Porteus, S. (1969). *A psychologist of sorts*. Palo Alto, CA: Pacific Books.
- Prescott, K. (1995). History of the Australian Guidance and Counselling Association. *Australian Guidance and Counselling Association Newsletter*, 3, 9–12.
- Preston, B. (2013). *The social make-up of schools: Family income, indigenous status, family type, religion and broadband access of students in government, Catholic and other non-government schools*. Australian Capital Territory: Barbara Preston Research.
- Rice, D., & Bramston, P. (1999). The guidance role in Queensland. *Australian Journal of Guidance and Counselling*, 9, 25–37.
- Ritchie, M. (1985). School psychology in Australia. *Journal of School Psychology*, 23(1), 13–18. doi:10.1016/0022-4405(85)90030-5.
- Shearer, J., & Seliga, L. (1968). *First psychology department: Developments in education in South Australia*. Adelaide: South Australian College of External Studies.
- Shorten, A. R. (1996). The legal context of Australian education: An historical exploration. *Australia New Zealand Journal of Law Education*, 1(1), 2–32.
- Shute, A. (1995). Inaugural Constance Davey memorial lecture. *Australian Journal of Guidance and Counselling*, 5, 49–58.
- Stafford, K. (2007). Mental health promotion in schools. *Issues*, 80, 4–6. Retrieved from <http://search.informit.com.au.ezp01.library.qut.edu.au/documentSummary;dn=200710381;res=IELAPA>
- Sturtevant, S. (1937). Some questions regarding the developing guidance movement. *The School Psychology Review*, 45, 346–357.
- Thielking, M. (2006). *An investigation of attitudes towards the practice of school-based psychological*

- services. Unpublished Professional Doctorate in Counselling Psychology, Swinburne University of Technology, Melbourne.
- Thomson, M. (1995). Mental hygiene as an international movement. In P. Weindling (Ed.), *International health organisations and movements, 1918–1939* (pp. 283–304). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Turtle, A. M. (1988). Education, social science and the commonwealth. In R. M. MacLeod (Ed.), *The commonwealth of science* (pp. 222–246). Melbourne: Oxford University Press.
- Turtle, A. M. (1990). The first women psychologists in Australia. *Australian Psychologist*, 25, 239–255. doi:10.1080/00050069008260019.
- Turtle, A. M., & Orr, M. (1990). *The psyching of OZ*. Melbourne: Australian Psychological Society.
- Verco, D. J. (1958). Psychological services in education departments. *Australian Journal of Psychology*, 10(1), 19–29. doi:10.1080/00049535808255951.
- White, M. (1997). Carnegie philanthropy in Australia in the nineteen thirties: A reassessment. *History of Education Review*, 26, 1–24.
- Whitla, M., Walker, G., & Drent, A. (1992). School psychological and guidance services in Australia: Critical issues and implications for future directions. *Australian Journal of Guidance and Counselling*, 2, 1–16. doi:10.1017/S1037291100002223.
- Williams, C. (1967). Child guidance and psychological services in Queensland. *Applied Psychology*, 16(1), 8–11. doi:10.1111/j.1464-0597.1967.tb00617.x.
- Wiltshire, K., & Donnelly, K. (2014). *Review of the Australian curriculum*. Canberra: Department of Education.
- Wisehr, C., Concannon, J., & Barrow, L. (2011). Looking back at the sputnik era and its impact on science education. *School Science and Mathematics*, 111, 368–375. doi:10.1111/j.1949-8594.2011.00099.x.
- Wright, K. (2012a). “Help for wayward children”: Child guidance in 1930s Australia. *History of Education Review*, 41, 4–19. doi:10.1108/08198691211235545.
- Wright, K. (2012b). ‘To see through Johnny and to see Johnny through’: The guidance movement in inter-war Australia. *Journal of Educational Administration and History*, 44, 317–337. doi:10.1080/00220620.2012.713928.

<http://www.springer.com/978-3-319-45164-0>

Handbook of Australian School Psychology
Integrating International Research, Practice, and Policy
Thielking, M.; Terjesen, M.D. (Eds.)
2017, LVI, 799 p. 840 illus., 829 illus. in color.,
Hardcover
ISBN: 978-3-319-45164-0