



**Doctorate in Educational and Child Psychology**

## **RESEARCH THESIS**

### ***SUBMISSION DECLARATION (Required)***

- (a) I confirm that the work presented in this thesis is my own.
- (b) Where information has been derived from other sources, I confirm that this has been indicated in the thesis. I understand that anti-plagiarism software may be used to check for appropriate use of referencing.
- (c) I confirm that the Word Counts stated below are accurate

### ***WORD COUNT***

**Total (excluding references & appendices): 29,342**

Introduction: 2,613

Review Paper: 9,503

Empirical Paper: 11,545

Dissemination & Impact: 5,099



# **Educational psychologists' views on white privilege**

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## **Abstract**

There is an identified need for more race-focused research in the field of educational psychology. 'White privilege' is a key concept often raised in connection with critical race theory and anti-racist practice which has not been previously explored in this profession. This thesis examines the concept of white privilege as it relates to educational psychology practice.

The review paper assesses the effectiveness of educational diversity interventions in raising awareness of white privilege. A systematic search identified 15 papers which were evaluated rigorously using a weight of evidence framework. The review concludes that, despite their heterogeneity, educational diversity interventions are effective in raising awareness of white privilege. The strength of this evidence is however limited, for example by methodological weaknesses and the fact that all 15 studies were US-based. Implications for educational psychologists, limitations and suggestions for future research are discussed.

The empirical paper narrows in on the UK context by exploring UK educational psychologists' views on white privilege. An online survey gathered both quantitative and qualitative data from 101 participants to answer four research questions. Reflexive thematic analysis explored five themes relating to how educational psychologists define white privilege. Quantitative data indicated that the majority of participants agree that there is evidence white privilege manifests within the educational psychology profession, and participants perceived that it is important for educational psychologists to understand white privilege. A second reflexive thematic analysis of qualitative data built on these quantitative findings by exploring

the reasons why participants held these views. Implications and recommendations are discussed.

This research makes a distinct contribution to the evidence-base on the topic of anti-racism in educational psychology, and has implications for research, policy and practice. The final chapter of this thesis discusses the research impact in depth and outlines a plan for disseminating the findings to both academic and non-academic audiences.

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## **Chapter 1: Introduction to the Thesis**



## **1.1 Introduction**

The first chapter of the thesis orients the reader to the topic and outlines the rationale for topic selection. Philosophical considerations including epistemology and ontology are discussed. Finally, an overview is given of each chapter and the conceptual links between the review paper and empirical paper are discussed.

## **1.2 Rationale for Topic Selection**

Educational Psychologists (EPs) registered with the Health and Care Professions Council (HCPC) must demonstrate an understanding of issues relating to culture, diversity and equality, and a commitment to non-discriminatory practice (HCPC, 2015). Indeed, under the Equality Act (2010) it is unlawful to discriminate against a person on the basis of protected characteristics, of which race is one. The educational psychology profession has arguably been complicit in racist and discriminatory practices in the past, for example, the psychometric tests commonly used by EPs to this day have a history of cultural bias, and have been implicated in the eugenics movement (CNPAAEMI, 2016; Yakushko, 2019), as well as in the disproportionate placing of Black children in schools which were at the time described as being for the 'educationally subnormal' (Coard, 1971).

The need to address racial inequity in educational psychology practice is therefore a long-standing issue. 'Educational and Child Psychology', the academic journal published by the British Psychological Society's (BPS) Division of Educational and Child Psychology (DECP) published editions in 1999 and 2015 which focused on challenging racism, and research on the topic of race, culture and ethnicity in relation to educational psychology

practice (M'gadzah & Gibbs, 1999; Williams et al., 2015). A DECP working party on anti-racism was formed in 2001 and produced a report in 2006 which discussed racial inequity in educational psychology practice and this included a self-assessment checklist for services to audit their own practice (BPS, 2006). Networks and forums have formed such as the Educational Psychologists' 'Race' and Culture Forum (EPRCF), The Black and Minority Ethnic Educational Psychology (BEEP) network and the Trainee EPs' Initiative for Cultural Change (TEPICC) (Ginn et al., 2022). Within practice there have been calls to move towards more culturally sensitive forms of assessment, for example dynamic assessment (e.g., Lauchlan, 2001), and more systemic ways of working (Gillham, 1978). Meanwhile in education more broadly there are ongoing initiatives seeking to diversify the British National Curriculum, for example The Black Curriculum (Arday, 2021). My embarkment on the educational psychology doctorate coincided with the murder of George Floyd and the Black Lives Matter Movement in 2020, shining a spotlight once again on racial inequity and how this remains widespread in both the United States (US) and the United Kingdom (UK). At this time the DECP pledged a renewed commitment to promoting racial justice in both research and practice (Miller et al., 2021; Murphy, 2020). On a personal level I recognised the need to further educate myself, become more actively engaged and less 'blind' to race-related issues. One concept I have become increasingly conscious of is white privilege. Considering my own background and positioning, viewing myself as someone who benefits from white privilege, I felt compelled to reflect on the impact of this on my own developing practice, and wondered what other EPs' views were on this topic.

Stimulated further by thesis project ideas proposed by course tutors, I began exploring the existing literature and found few mentions let alone explorations of white privilege in previous research with UK EPs.

Targeted searches of the existing evidence-base have exposed a lack of research focusing on race in the top educational psychology journals (DeCuir-Gunby & Schutz, 2014). The authors of this paper argued that there is a need for more race-focused research in this field, and more research drawing on critical approaches such as Critical Race Theory (DeCuir-Gunby & Schutz, 2014). Given this gap in the literature, it was considered that a thesis on the topic of white privilege would therefore offer a distinct and valuable contribution to the knowledge base of educational psychology.

### **1.3 Language and Terminology**

It is important to acknowledge that language evolves over time and the terms used in this thesis may be defined differently by different people, change in meaning over time, or be replaced by different preferred terms in the future.

The intention in offering simple definitions of these concepts is to increase the clarity and accessibility of writing, however it is recognised that in doing so this also risks diminishing the nuance and complexity of these terms.

The terms 'race' and 'ethnicity', which are often used interchangeably, are distinct concepts that can be understood as socially constructed forms of categorisation, on the basis of perceived distinctive physical and cultural characteristics respectively (Schiebinger et al., 2020). 'Race science' and attempts to find biological or genetic differences on the basis of race have been widely discredited (e.g., Saini, 2019).

One way of defining 'racism' is when a person or people are "treated worse, excluded, disadvantaged, harassed, bullied, humiliated or degraded because of their race or ethnicity" (Brighton & Hove City Council, n.d., para. 1). Wider definitions of racism emphasise its systemic nature, describing racism as being embedded within the fabric of society and how it includes not only overt acts of discrimination, but also covert and unconscious attitudes and behaviours. Within a structurally racist system, anyone who is not actively anti-racist might be considered complicit and contributing to its maintenance (Eddo-Lodge, 2018).

It is generally recommended to use the most specific terms possible when describing a person's race or ethnicity (Flanagin et al., 2021). A range of terms have been used within the literature, and by participants in this thesis, to describe people who do not identify as White, including Black and Minority Ethnic (BAME), People of Colour (POC) and Black, Indigenous and People of Colour (BIPOC). While the limitations of any term which may encourage categorisation and generalisation are acknowledged, where appropriate the term People of the Global Majority (PGM) is used in this thesis as this may be considered more inclusive language that decentres whiteness (Ahsan, 2020; Campbell-Stephens, 2020).

Equity is defined in this research to mean a type of fairness that differs from equality as it recognises that people do not all start life in the same circumstances and therefore resources and support need to be distributed proportionally according to need, in order to provide equal opportunities (RISE, 2022).



## **1.4 Philosophical Considerations**

Researchers are advised to identify the philosophical perspectives and assumptions underlying their research, define these and explain how these beliefs influenced the approaches and decisions taken (Creswell, 2018).

Epistemology and ontology are two strands of philosophy which should be considered when conducting social science research (Moon & Blackman, 2014). Although ontology and epistemology are often conflated and considered together (Crotty, 1998), they will be discussed in turn in this section. Inconsistencies and contradictions within the literature can cause confusion, therefore the current research is framed predominantly within Moon and Blackman's (2014) framework for social science research.

However, it is acknowledged that there are numerous other ways of framing one's philosophical considerations.

### **1.4.1 Ontology**

Ontology in research refers to one's beliefs about the nature of existence of the objects or concepts that are being researched (Moon & Blackman, 2014).

This can be understood as a spectrum; at one end the researcher believes there is one true reality that exists in the world. This position is one of 'realism'. At the other end of the spectrum is relativism, where the researcher believes there is not one true reality, and reality is instead a construction in the mind of the interpreter (Moon & Blackman, 2014). Between these two extremes lie different ontological positions which reflect varying levels of realism and relativism. The position taken in the current research is a more central, realist ontology, defined as 'critical realism' (Moon & Blackman, 2014). The focus of the current research is furthering knowledge around the

concept of white privilege. The researcher took a critical realist ontology by viewing white privilege as something real that does indeed exist in some form, but that we need to be critical in our examination of this reality.

#### **1.4.2 Epistemology**

Rather than the nature of reality, epistemology is concerned with our beliefs about “how we come to know things” (Barker et al., 2016, p. 10). A researcher’s epistemological position is important because acquiring knowledge is arguably the purpose of research, therefore our beliefs about how knowledge is acquired will impact the approach taken (Moon & Blackman, 2014).

Objectivism is an epistemological position which posits that objects carry intrinsic meaning, and we can discover this meaning objectively and free from bias if we measure it in the right way. On the other hand, there is subjectivism, which is the belief that meaning is created entirely by the subject and imposed on the object (Crotty, 1998). Viewing epistemology again as a spectrum, we can conceptualise between these a third epistemological position, constructionism. Rather than meaning being discovered or created, as postulated in objectivism and subjectivism respectively, a constructionist believes that meaning is constructed, through an interaction between subject and object (Crotty, 1998; Moon & Blackman, 2014).

Epistemology and ontology are often conflated because they tend to go hand in hand, with realism considered most compatible with objectivism and relativism associated more with subjectivism (Crotty, 1998).

The current research is informed by a constructionist epistemology, which is compatible with a critical realist ontology (Moon & Blackman, 2014).

Especially when designing the empirical study, the researcher took the view that “different people may construct meaning in different ways, even in relation to the same phenomenon” (Crotty, 1998, p. 9), and recognised that the meaning constructed by both participants and researcher will be to an extent influenced by each individual’s unique circumstances, identity and experiences (Moon & Blackman, 2014).

### **1.4.3 Theoretical perspective**

Theoretical perspectives stem from epistemology and ontology, and these refer to the belief systems and assumptions which guide the actions and methods used within research. A range of perspectives exist and it is possible for a researcher to identify with more than one theoretical perspective, or for these to fluctuate over time (Moon & Blackman, 2014).

As an example, positivism is a perspective concerned with gathering accurate scientific knowledge of the world, typically through empirical methods (Crotty, 1998). It is consistent with the belief that meaning exists inherently and can be discovered objectively, thus stemming from a realist ontology and objectivist epistemology (Moon & Blackman, 2014).

Alternatively, pragmatism is a theoretical perspective which prioritises the usefulness of the research, with the goal of developing practical outcomes (Moon & Blackman, 2014). This allows for flexibility in research design as researchers are encouraged to use or combine different methods when this is helpful and appropriate for answering the research questions (Creswell, 2018). The current research was informed by a pragmatist perspective. A

purely quantitative approach was taken in the review paper as this was considered most appropriate for answering the review question, however the researcher chose to combine quantitative and qualitative methods in the empirical paper. Including a complimentary qualitative element here aimed to add richness to the data gathered and attain more complete answers to the research questions, which the researcher felt could not be achieved through quantitative methods alone. In the empirical paper, a flexible research design was used (Robson & McCartan, 2015), and it was a pragmatist worldview which guided the decision to remove an element of the research design (semi-structured interviews), after considering the data already gathered and weighing up the practical value this additional element would add to the research.

In the empirical paper particularly, the researcher also identified to an extent with the theoretical perspective of constructivism (Creswell, 2018; Moon & Blackman, 2014). This was reflected in the reflexive stance taken by the researcher throughout, remaining mindful about how interpretations of meaning may be influenced by one's own cultural experiences, identity and positioning. Moreover, participants were encouraged to offer their unique perspectives, in the context of their professional identity as EPs, through broad and open-ended questions.

## **1.5 Thesis Overview**

The thesis is made up of four chapters in total with the current introductory chapter forming chapter one.

Chapter two is a review paper of existing literature, assessing the effectiveness of educational diversity interventions in raising awareness of

white privilege. A systematic search strategy including searches across five databases identified 15 papers meeting the inclusion criteria. The diversity interventions varied in content and length, with the shortest lasting three days and others spanning across a whole semester. The studies were assessed for methodological quality, methodological relevance and topic relevance according to a weight of evidence framework (Gough, 2007). Every study found increases in measures of white privilege awareness from pre to post intervention. Effect sizes were considered alongside evidence weightings, to conclude that educational diversity interventions are effective in raising awareness of white privilege. However, limitations in the evidence-base are acknowledged. For example, as every study was conducted in the United States (US) with students or pre-service learners as the participant group, there are limitations in the generalisability of these findings. Implications of the review and suggestions for future research are also discussed in this chapter.

Chapter three is an empirical paper exploring educational psychologists' views on white privilege. A mixed methods online survey was distributed to EPs and trainee EPs in the UK, yielding both quantitative and qualitative data. Quantitative data were analysed descriptively and visually, while the researcher engaged in the process of reflexive thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006, 2019, 2021) to develop themes from the qualitative data. The majority of participants indicated quantitatively that they feel white privilege does manifest within the educational psychology profession, and that it is important for EPs to understand white privilege in their role. These perceptions were explored in greater depth through analysis of the qualitative

data, with themes capturing some of the reasons why EPs held these views. Implications for the profession and future research based on these findings are discussed.

Chapter four focuses on the value of this research for future research, policy and practice. A distinction is drawn between evidence-based practice and practice-based evidence, and the research impact is discussed, with reference to academic, economic and societal beneficiaries. Finally, a dissemination plan is outlined, considering both academic and non-academic dissemination pathways to impact.

## **1.6 Themes and Interconnections**

The review paper in chapter two and the empirical paper in chapter three are conceptually linked. Both chapters have a primary focus on the same concept, white privilege, and have implications for educational psychology practice. Chapter two views white privilege from a multi-professional, international perspective. The fact that all studies were conducted in the US illustrates how US-dominated the evidence base is at present, reinforcing the need to do more research on the concept of white privilege in the UK context, and narrowing down to more specific professional groups. This therefore strengthens the rationale for conducting the research outlined in the empirical paper.

The two chapters are also conceptually linked in the opposite direction.

Chapter three finds that, overall, EPs think white privilege is a concept that has relevance to the educational psychology profession and that it is an important concept for EPs to be aware of. This makes the review question in chapter two even more relevant; if we recognise that white privilege

awareness is important, we need to know how effective previous attempts and existing interventions seeking to raise awareness of white privilege have been. While repetition of overlapping literature within the two chapters has been kept to a minimum, much of the literature and rationale described in chapter two remains relevant to hold in mind for the reader throughout chapter three, and vice versa. Therefore, whilst chapter two and three are capable of standing alone, they can be viewed as complementary to one another.

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## **Chapter 2: Review Paper**

**A systematic review assessing the effectiveness of  
educational diversity interventions in raising awareness of  
white privilege**



## 2.1 Abstract

This systematic literature review investigates the effectiveness of educational diversity interventions in raising awareness of white privilege. Due to the educational psychologist's role in promoting principles of equality, diversity and inclusion (HCPC, 2015), informed by research evidence, this question is relevant to educational psychology practice. Educational diversity interventions are a common strategy used within organisations to promote equality, diversity and inclusion principles (Esen, 2005), and one concept that can be addressed within them is 'white privilege'. While the effectiveness of these interventions more broadly has been assessed previously by reviews and meta-analyses (Bezrukova et al., 2012, 2016; Kalinoski et al., 2013; Kulik & Roberson, 2008), this is the first quantitative synthesis of studies specifically focusing on white privilege awareness as an outcome. A systematic search of the literature identified 15 studies and these were critically reviewed using Gough's (2007) Weight of Evidence framework. One study was rated high, three were rated low and the remaining 11 were rated medium. Despite the heterogeneity within the interventions used, this review concluded that educational diversity interventions are effective in raising awareness of white privilege. However, there are methodological weaknesses in the current evidence base which limit the strength of these findings and their generalisability to different contexts and populations. Suggestions for future research which may overcome some of these limitations, and other more conceptual limitations, are given.



## **2.2 Introduction**

### **2.2.1 What are Educational Diversity Interventions?**

Developing intercultural or cultural competence can be understood as a lifelong process of learning, where one acquires the knowledge, skills and attitudes to interact appropriately and effectively with individuals from different cultures (Deardorff, 2006). One way in which organisations strive to improve the cultural competence of their members is through educational diversity interventions. 'Educational diversity interventions' in this review can be understood, with reference to Kulik and Roberson's (2008) definition, to mean any intervention with an educational, training or teaching element which aims "to increase knowledge about diversity, to improve attitudes about diversity, and to develop diversity skills" (Kulik & Roberson, 2008, p. 310).

This broad definition means there is scope for wide variation in educational diversity interventions in terms of: the length of the intervention; the content and instructional approach used; the context they are delivered in; and the outcomes measured (Kulik & Roberson, 2008). They may focus primarily on raising awareness, encouraging behaviour change, or both (Bezrukova et al., 2016).

'Diversity training' is one approach commonly used by companies and organisations as a way of improving relationships and increasing cultural competence, utilised by as many as two thirds of organisations in the United States (US) (Esen, 2005) and four fifths of those in the United Kingdom (UK) (CIPD, 2010).

Another commonly used approach within educational diversity interventions is inter-group dialogue, where small groups of people from different backgrounds meet together and learn from one another on diversity-related topics via a semi-structured discussion, directed by a trained facilitator (Schmidt et al., 2020).

Proponents of these interventions argue that they work by helping raise awareness of power dynamics and biases, and helping participants consider how these may influence their perceptions of the events around them, and their behavioural responses (Colvin-Burque et al., 2007). While the content of diversity interventions can vary widely, including those focusing on gender (e.g., Case, 2007a) and sexuality (e.g., Dessel et al., 2013), for the purpose of this review, the focus will be on diversity interventions targeting concepts relating to race.

### **2.2.2 Psychological Theories and Models**

Educational diversity interventions may draw on a range of different psychological theories and models, including but not limited to, stage models of identity development (e.g., Helms, 1990), intergroup contact theory (Allport, 1954), critical race theory (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017) and intersectionality theory (Crenshaw, 1989). Each of these theories will be outlined briefly below.

A number of stage models of racial and ethnic identity development have been proposed, for example, a model of Black racial identity development (Cross, 1978), Phinney's model of ethnic identity development (Phinney, 1993) and the White racial consciousness model (Rowe et al., 1994). One influential example which is particularly relevant to this review is Helms'



White racial identity development model (Helms, 1990; Helms, 1995). This is a six-stage model which can be used as a framework for thinking about people at different stages of White identity development. At the first stage, 'contact', an individual might give little attention to issues of racism, claiming that they do not 'see' colour and do not hold any race-based bias or prejudice. In the 'disintegration' stage, an individual becomes more aware of the differing experiences and privileges associated with race, and this can lead to uncomfortable feelings like guilt and shame. In the 'reintegration' stage, these negative feelings might lead to an intolerance of others and feelings of superiority. The final three stages represent the development of a more positive, non-racist White identity; 'pseudo-independence' is characterised by an individual starting to understand issues related to racism, and in the final two stages, 'immersion/emersion' and 'autonomy', they continue to strive toward a more actively anti-racist identity (Helms, 1990; Helms, 1995). Models such as this might be utilised when developing diversity interventions by considering the stage which is currently dominant for learners, and designing the intervention to help progress them towards a more positive racial identity (Chrobot-Mason, 2012).

Intergroup contact theory states that discrimination and prejudice can be reduced by promoting contact between different groups under certain conditions. These conditions are that the groups should: have equal status; share common goals; work in a cooperative environment; and have support from someone in authority, or their institution (Allport, 1954). Empirical evidence has supported the basic premises of this theory (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006). Training developers could draw on this by giving participants

opportunities to interact with and learn from one another, and by ensuring the training environment meets the desirable conditions for contact as much as possible (e.g., Cebulak & Zipp, 2019).

Critical race theory (CRT) emerged from legal scholarship in the 1970s as a lens for studying issues of race and racism and has since been applied more broadly to fields such as education (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017). This theory has a number of key themes on which not all writers agree, however some of the central messages of CRT are: that race is socially constructed; that racism is ordinary and structurally embedded within society; that support for racial justice requires a convergence of interests; the importance of storytelling by marginalised individuals; and the critique of liberalism, for example questioning 'colour-blind' ideology (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017).

Educational diversity interventions may draw on CRT by incorporating these themes into the design or content of the intervention.

A term acknowledged within CRT is 'intersectionality', which was coined by Kimberlé Crenshaw in 1989. It describes how different aspects of a person's identity combine to produce unique experiences of disadvantage and privilege (Crenshaw, 1989). Researchers (e.g., Ehrke et al., 2020) have drawn on this theory when developing diversity interventions, for example by considering how experiences of racism differ depending on how a person's race interacts with other aspects of their identity, such as gender, class or sexual orientation.

As well as drawing on psychological theory when devising the content of diversity interventions, researchers might draw on psychological theories related to effective learning, such as experiential learning theory (Kolb,

1984). Experiential learning theory has a number of principles, notably that learning should be thought of as a process where one progresses through four different modes of learning: thinking, acting, experiencing and reflecting (Kolb & Kolb, 2005). Similarly, the Lancaster cycle (Binsted, 1980) describes different types of learning activity in the form of reception, discovery and reflection which can be combined to optimise learning. Intervention developers might draw on these theories when designing interventions by ensuring they incorporate a number of different instructional methods and activities to stimulate learning through different modes and forms.

Different interventions may draw more heavily on some of these theories than others, or different theoretical perspectives entirely, which may in part contribute to heterogeneity within educational diversity interventions.

### **2.2.3 Evidence Base**

The evidence base regarding educational diversity interventions is mixed.

One meta-analysis found that diversity training had a small to medium effect across cognitive, skill-based and affective outcomes (Kalinowski et al., 2013).

In a more recent meta-analysis, Bezrukova and colleagues (2016) conducted a wide systematic literature search to identify experimental studies evaluating diversity training interventions across a range of outcomes, including reactive, affective, cognitive and behavioural. This resulted in a review and meta-analysis of 260 diverse studies, covering trainings that ranged from 30 minutes to four years long, including both integrated and stand-alone trainings, voluntary and mandatory trainings, and employing a range of instructional methods. The meta-analysis found an overall Hedge's *g* effect size of 0.38, and larger effects for cognitive outcomes compared with

attitudinal or behavioural outcomes (Bezrukova et al., 2016). Additionally, this paper found a relationship between the effect size and intervention length, with larger effect sizes for interventions spanning a longer amount of time.

However, despite some evidence for their effectiveness, diversity interventions have also been critiqued. A recent report by the UK Behavioural Insights Team drawing on the existing evidence base criticised diversity interventions for being relatively ineffective at changing behaviour, and leading to unintended outcomes such as increased resistance or complacency. Moreover, they criticised the methodological quality of the evidence base for using ungeneralisable samples and limited study designs, with the majority of research carried out in the US (The Behavioural Insights Team, 2020).

While the evidence base for diversity intervention effectiveness more generally is mixed, to date there has been no quantitative systematic literature review of educational diversity interventions focusing specifically on white privilege awareness as an outcome.

#### **2.2.4 White Privilege Awareness**

An increasing number of Critical Whiteness Studies (CWS) are contributing to a growing body of research which assumes that considering whiteness is relevant to work on disrupting racism (Applebaum, 2016). These studies aim to “reveal the invisible structures that produce and reproduce white supremacy and privilege” (Applebaum, 2016, p.1). The term ‘white privilege’ as it is understood today is often credited to Peggy McIntosh (1989), although writing around the concept of white privilege dates back prior to this

(e.g., Du Bois, 1935). McIntosh wrote reflections on her experiences of white privilege, defining it as “an invisible package of unearned assets that I can count on cashing in each day, but about which I was ‘meant’ to remain oblivious” (McIntosh, 1989, p.10). While influential, McIntosh’s metaphor for white privilege has been criticised for narrowing focus in on the individual, when it may be better conceived as advantages afforded to individuals as a product of systemic and structural racism (Lensmire et al., 2013).

Some authors have argued that an acknowledgement and awareness of white privilege is a necessary first step in developing culturally competent practice (Ancis & Szymanski, 2001; Solomona et al., 2005). For example, Mindrup and colleagues found a significant correlation between white privilege attitudes and cultural competency in clinical psychology and social work students. They concluded from this that raising awareness of white privilege is an important consideration when training practitioners (Mindrup et al., 2011).

Abrams and Gibson (2007) also take the stance that it is important to teach trainee social workers about white privilege, as a key concept when learning about oppressive systems. They proposed a model for teaching social work students about diversity which included a focus on white privilege to help raise self-awareness and develop skills for working with culturally diverse clients. They also stressed, however, that increasing awareness of white privilege should be seen as a means to an end, as a necessary pre-cursor to behaviour change, rather than as the end goal in itself (Abrams & Gibson, 2007).

Many authors have proposed that white privilege is invisible to most people who hold it (McDermott & Samson, 2005; McIntosh, 2015). Others have argued that, rather than being inherently invisible, those who hold privilege are instead motivated to 'cloak' their privilege. Those who hold white privilege might use several strategies to do this, including to deny the existence of privilege, or to distance themselves from it by claiming that it does not apply to them (Knowles et al., 2014). Whether privilege is invisible, denied or distanced, these theories illustrate why explicitly raising awareness and acknowledgement of privilege through education or training may be necessary. As work by Layla Saad reads, with reference to learning about white privilege: "you cannot dismantle what you cannot see. You cannot challenge what you do not understand" (Saad, 2020, p. 38). On the other hand, researchers have outlined how discussions of white privilege can be met with resistance by learners (Lensmire et al., 2013). This provides further rationale for conducting a systematic analysis of how effective efforts to date have actually been in increasing understanding of white privilege.

Failure to acknowledge the existence of white privilege can also be considered a form of colour-blind racial ideology (Neville et al., 2000) which, as outlined in a previous section, is critiqued within CRT. Furthermore, a study which assessed the relationship between colour-blind racial ideology and self-reported multicultural counselling competence found a significant negative association between these even after controlling for the amount of training received and socially desirable responses (Neville et al., 2006).

The rationale for including white privilege awareness as an outcome when measuring diversity intervention effectiveness can also be understood in the

context of some of the stage models of identity development outlined in a previous section. For example, within Helms' model of White racial identity development, an important part of developing a non-racist White identity is first acknowledging that white privilege exists and then translating this understanding into action (Helms, 1990; Helms, 1995). In support of this, one study found a significant relationship between awareness of white privilege and White racial identity development, with the latter stages of Helms' model associated with greater awareness of white privilege (Hays et al., 2008). Therefore, white privilege awareness is arguably an important outcome measure to consider when evaluating the effectiveness of educational diversity interventions.

### **2.2.5 Relevance to Educational Psychology Practice**

Promoting the principles of equality, diversity and inclusion is an essential aspect of an Educational Psychologist's (EP) role. One of the standards of proficiency that practising EPs must meet is to "be aware of the impact of culture, equality, and diversity on practice" (HCPC, 2015, p. 8). This implies that concepts pertaining to issues of race and discrimination such as white privilege are inherently relevant to the EP role. Previous qualitative research with UK EPs has also supported the notion that issues of social justice are important to EPs (Schulze et al., 2019). The American Psychological Association (APA) outlined in their multicultural competence guidelines for all psychologists that "a critical part of psychologists' self-examination entails conscious and deliberate attention to privilege and its influence in their everyday work. It is important that researchers, clinicians, educators, and

consultants consider the effects of privilege on their interactions with participants, clients, students and consultees” (APA, 2017, p.33).

Moreover, the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) who are an organisation representing school psychologists in the US have described the role of privilege and its relevance to school psychology practice, stressing how important it is to understand intersecting systems of privilege more generally, as well as white privilege specifically (NASP, 2016). Whilst differences will inevitably exist between the school psychologist role in the US and the EP role within the UK, there are also parallels between them which imply that the concept of white privilege may also be highly relevant to UK EPs.

While discussions about white privilege pedagogy have been ongoing for some time in the US, the concept has been the subject of media attention and debate within the UK context more recently (e.g., Morris, 2021; Murray, 2020), especially following several controversially received reports by the UK government (Commission on Race and Ethnic Disparities, 2021) and the House of Commons Education committee (House of Commons Education Committee, 2021). In addition, guidance published by Universities UK describes how training on race issues for staff and students should include the concept of white privilege (Universities UK, 2020). Recent non-statutory guidance for nursery providers published by the Early Years Coalition mentions the benefits of educating nursery staff about white privilege, stating that “practitioner training is an important step towards opening dialogue and developing understanding about white privilege, systemic racism, and how racism affects children and families in early years settings” (Early Years



Coalition, 2021, p. 25). Bhopal (2020) has also argued that white privilege is pervasive within education systems in the UK and that there is a need for settings and institutions, through an intersectional lens, to acknowledge the existence of institutional racism and white privilege (Bhopal, 2020).

Whilst there is ongoing debate within the literature about the usefulness of white privilege pedagogy (Blum, 2008; Leonardo, 2004; Margolin, 2015), EPs certainly have a role in supporting schools and settings at a systemic level, for example through in-service training and consultation. Therefore, it is possible that EPs might be involved in discussions and consulted about initiatives for promoting equality, diversity and inclusion, which may include a focus on white privilege. By understanding the evidence base behind such interventions, EPs will be better placed to make meaningful and informed contributions to these conversations.

### **2.2.6 Review Question**

To date there has been no quantitative systematic review of studies assessing the effectiveness of educational diversity interventions, with a specific focus on white privilege awareness as an outcome. To address this gap in the literature, the review question is:

How effective are educational diversity interventions in raising awareness of white privilege?

## 2.3 Critical Review of the Evidence Base

### 2.3.1 Literature Search

A literature search of titles, abstracts and keywords was carried out on 27<sup>th</sup> July 2021 and updated on 1<sup>st</sup> August 2022 across PsycInfo, Web of Science and three EBSCO databases (Education Abstracts, ERIC, and British Education Index). Table 2.1 displays the concepts and corresponding search terms identified. The search terms in each column were combined with the Boolean operator OR and those across columns were combined with the Boolean operator AND.

**Table 2.1**  
*Concepts and Corresponding Search Terms*

1) Educational Interventions	2) White Privilege	3) Awareness
course*	“white privileg*”	Aware
intervention*	“racial privileg*”	awareness
training	“race-based privileg*”	attitud*
education*		knowledge
teaching		understan*
pedagog*		
program*		
instruction*		
learning		

This systematic search yielded a total of 691 studies. At this point, 253 duplicates were identified and removed. The titles and abstracts of the resulting 438 studies were screened and 379 of these were excluded based on the criteria defined in Table 2.2. Full text screening of the 59 studies remaining led to the exclusion of a further 49 studies according to the same inclusion and exclusion criteria. Appendix A gives the references of these 49 studies, with reasons for their exclusion. Ancestral and citation searching identified a further five studies which met the inclusion criteria. This study selection process is summarised in a PRISMA diagram in Figure 2.1; Table 2.3 lists the final 15 studies included in the review and further information about each of these is mapped in Appendix B.

After the screening process was completed and the final list of studies identified, it was realised that ‘unawareness’ would also have been a relevant search term for concept three in Table 2.1. The author ran an additional search retrospectively with “unawar\*” as the search term for concept three, to check no studies had been missed. This search did not identify any additional studies which met the inclusion criteria.

**Table 2.2**

*Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria*

Study Feature	Inclusion Criteria	Exclusion Criteria	Rationale
1 Language	Studies published in English.	Studies published in languages other than English.	Reviewer only understands English and reliable translation services were not available.

2 Study Design	Quasi-experimental or randomised control trials (RCTs) collecting primary, quantitative data both pre- and post-intervention.	Studies not collecting primary data or not collecting quantitative measures both pre- and post-intervention e.g. Meta-analyses, reviews, discussion pieces, qualitative studies, single-case experimental designs.	This review is assessing at the effectiveness of educational interventions in increasing awareness of white privilege, therefore both pre- and post-measures are required. Including studies with similar designs will aid comparison.
3 Intervention	Studies assessing the effectiveness of an intervention with an educational, teaching or training element.	Studies that are not assessing intervention effectiveness. Interventions that do not involve an educational, teaching or training element.	This review is assessing the effectiveness of educational interventions in increasing awareness of white privilege.
4 Intervention Length	Interventions that span a time-frame of more than a single session or day.	One-off sessions and interventions lasting one day or less.	Research evidence suggests that longer-term diversity interventions are more effective than short-term interventions, and that 'one-off' sessions should be avoided (Bezrukova et al., 2016; The Behavioural Insights Team, 2020).

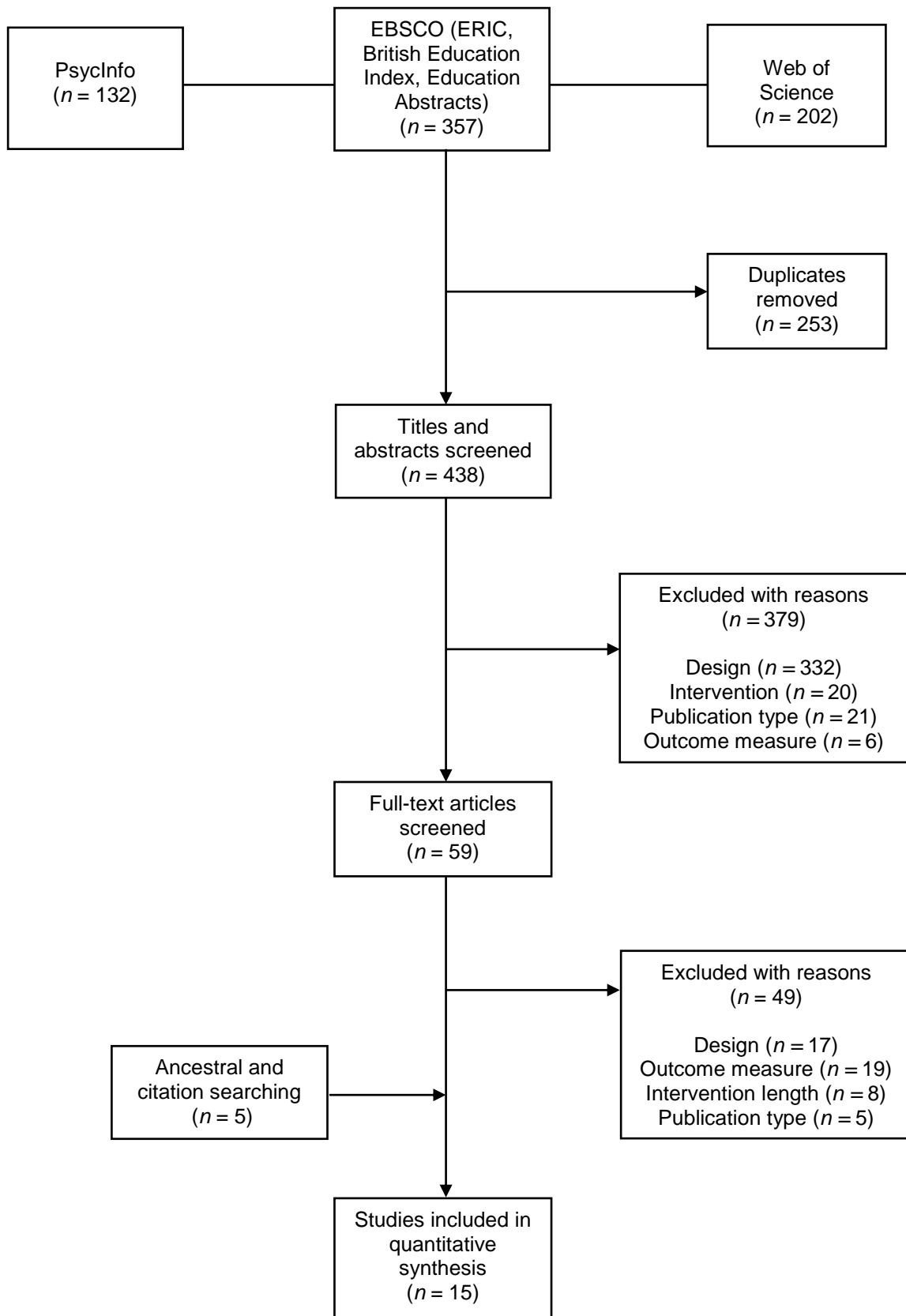
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5 Outcomes	A quantitative measure of white privilege awareness with a minimum of 4 items, administered both pre- and post-intervention.	No quantitative measure of white or race-based privilege awareness, or measures with fewer than 4 items. Measures of general privilege awareness. White privilege measure not collected both pre- and post-intervention.	A quantitative measure of white privilege is required to determine the effectiveness of the intervention. Research suggests that multi-item scales tend to be preferable to single-item scales, recommending a minimum of four items for construct measurement (Diamantopoulos et al., 2012).
6 Publication Type	Published in peer-reviewed journals.	Grey literature including dissertations, book chapters and studies not published in peer reviewed journals.	To ensure studies are of a good quality standard and have been scrutinised thoroughly by independent reviewers.

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**Figure 2.1**

*PRISMA Diagram of Study Selection Process*



**Table 2.3***Included Studies*

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#	Reference
1	Bañales, J., Hudson Banks, K., & Burke, M. A. (2021). The impact of a diversity intervention on White college students' colour-blind racial attitudes. <i>Whiteness &amp; Education</i> , 6(1), 1–18. <a href="http://10.0.4.56/23793406.2020.1867480">http://10.0.4.56/23793406.2020.1867480</a>
2	Case, K. A. (2007b). Raising white privilege awareness and reducing racial prejudice: Assessing diversity course effectiveness. <i>Teaching of Psychology</i> , 34(4), 231–235. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1080/00986280701700250">https://doi.org/10.1080/00986280701700250</a>
3	Cebulak, J. A., & Zipp, J. F. (2019). Using racial and class differences in infant mortality to teach about white privilege: A cooperative group activity. <i>Teaching Sociology</i> , 47(2), 102–115. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1177/0092055X18801060">https://doi.org/10.1177/0092055X18801060</a>
4	Chrobot-Mason, D. (2012). Developing multicultural competence to improve cross-race work relationships. <i>Psychologist-Manager Journal</i> , 15(4), 199–218. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1080/10887156.2012.730440">https://doi.org/10.1080/10887156.2012.730440</a>
5	Cole, E. R., Case, K. A., Rios, D., & Curtin, N. (2011). Understanding what students bring to the classroom: Moderators of the effects of diversity courses on student attitudes. <i>Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology</i> , 17(4), 397–405. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1037/a0025433">https://doi.org/10.1037/a0025433</a>
6	Colvin-Burque, A., Zugazaga, C. B., & Davis-Maye, D. (2007). Can cultural competence be taught? Evaluating the impact of the SOAP model. <i>Journal of Social Work Education</i> , 43(2), 223–241. <a href="https://doi.org/10.5175/JSWE.2007.200500528">https://doi.org/10.5175/JSWE.2007.200500528</a>
7	Kernahan, C., & Davis, T. (2007). Changing perspective: How learning about racism influences student awareness and emotion. <i>Teaching of Psychology</i> , 34(1), 49–52. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1080/00986280709336651">https://doi.org/10.1080/00986280709336651</a>
8	Kernahan, C., & Davis, T. (2010). What are the long-term effects of learning about racism? <i>Teaching of Psychology</i> , 37(1), 41–45. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1080/00986280903425748">https://doi.org/10.1080/00986280903425748</a>
9	Lenes, E., Swank, J. M., Hart, K. A., Machado, M. M., Darilus, S., Ardelt, M., Smith-Adcock, S., Rockwood Lane, M., & Puig, A. (2020). Color-conscious multicultural mindfulness training in the counseling field. <i>Journal of Counseling and Development</i> , 98(2), 147–158. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1002/jcad.12309">https://doi.org/10.1002/jcad.12309</a>

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- 10 Muller, J. T., & Miles, J. R. (2017). Intergroup dialogue in undergraduate multicultural psychology education: Group climate development and outcomes. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*, 10(1), 52–71. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0040042>
  - 11 Nordstrom, A. H. (2015). The voices project: Reducing white students' racism in introduction to psychology. *Teaching of Psychology*, 42(1), 43–50. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0098628314562524>
  - 12 Paone, T. R., Malott, K. M., & Barr, J. J. (2015). Assessing the impact of a race-based course on counseling students: A quantitative study. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development*, 43(3), 206–220. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jmcd.12015>
  - 13 Robey, N., & Dickter, C. (2022). Internet-based cultural competence training for White undergraduate students at a predominantly White university. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 52(9), 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jasp.12881>
  - 14 Schmidt, C. K., Earnest, D. R., & Miles, J. R. (2020). Expanding the reach of intergroup dialogue: A quasi-experimental study of two teaching methods for undergraduate multicultural courses. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*, 13(3), 264–273. <https://doi.org/10.1037/dhe0000124>
  - 15 Simons, L., Marshall, C., Blank, N., & Weaver, N. (2020). Differences in student learning outcomes that utilize high impact practices. *The European Journal of Social & Behavioural Sciences*, 27(1), 5–30. <https://doi.org/10.15405/ejsbs.266>
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### 2.3.2 Weight of Evidence

A Weight of Evidence (WoE) framework developed by Gough (2007) was used to evaluate each included study for quality and relevance to the review question. Each study received three numerical WoE ratings between zero and three based on specified criteria. WoE A ratings were assigned based on an adapted coding protocol from Gersten et al. (2005). This coding protocol was chosen as it was originally developed to evaluate the methodological quality of experimental and quasi-experimental designs. Using the same



coding protocol for each study allowed for comparisons to be made more easily between them. WoE B assessed methodological relevance to the review question. Ratings were assigned based on research by Petticrew and Roberts (2003) and Harris and colleagues (2005) who discuss best practice methodology for answering ‘effectiveness’ questions. WoE C ratings were assigned based on criteria developed by the reviewer to assess topic relevance to the review question, regarding aspects of the intervention, the participants, and the outcome measures. Further detail on how WoE A, WoE B and WoE C were calculated for each study is given in Appendix C. The coding protocols used to calculate WoE A for each study are included in Appendix D. For each study, an overall WoE D rating was calculated based on an average of their WoE A, WoE B and WoE C scores. This overall WoE D rating gives an indication of whether the study should be given high, medium or low weighting when answering the review question. WoE A to D for each study is displayed below in Table 2.4.

**Table 2.4**

*Weight of Evidence Ratings*

Study	WoE A	WoE B	WoE C	WoE D
Bañales et al. (2021)	1	1	1.5	1.17 (Medium)
Case (2007)	0	1	1.5	0.83 (Low)
Cebulak & Zipp (2019)	0	1	2	1 (Low)
Chrobot-Mason (2012)	1	2	2	1.67 (Medium)

Cole et al. (2011)	0	2	1.5	1.17 (Medium)
Colvin-Burque et al. (2007)	0	1	2	1 (Low)
Kernahan & Davis (2007)	1	2	1.75	1.58 (Medium)
Kerhahan & Davis (2010)	1	2	1.75	1.58 (Medium)
Lenes et al. (2020)	2	3	1.88	2.29 (High)
Muller & Miles (2017)	0	1	2.25	1.08 (Medium)
Nordstrom (2015)	2	2	1.5	1.83 (Medium)
Paone et al. (2015)	0	1	2.5	1.17 (Medium)
Robey & Dickter (2022)	1	1	2.25	1.42 (Medium)
Schmidt et al. (2020)	2	2	2	2 (Medium)
Simons et al. (2020)	0	1	2.25	1.08 (Medium)

*Note.* Scores  $\leq 1$  (low);  $1 < \text{score} \leq 2$  (medium) and  $> 2$  (high)

### 2.3.3 Critical Review of Included Studies

#### 2.3.3.1 Participants

All 15 studies gave sufficiently detailed descriptions of their participants.

Eight samples (Chrobot-Mason, 2012; Kernahan & Davis, 2007, 2010; Lenes et al., 2020; Muller & Miles, 2017; Paone et al., 2015; Robey & Dickter, 2022; Simons et al., 2020) were considered more relevant to the review as they involved students or pre-service learners enrolled in a field related to

educational psychology, for example psychology or counselling courses. As a result, these studies received a higher rating within WoE C than the other seven studies, where participants were students from a variety of disciplines. Three studies included only participants who identified as White (Bañales et al., 2021; Paone et al., 2015; Robey & Dickter, 2022). This is significant because research suggests that privileges are often invisible to those who hold them (McIntosh, 2015), therefore the effectiveness of the interventions might differ depending on whether the sample was selective based on ethnicity.

The reporting of attrition data and minimal attrition rates were coded for within WoE A. Nine of the included studies reported minimal attrition or attrition rates of less than 30% (Case, 2007b; Cebulak & Zipp, 2019; Cole et al., 2011; Colvin-Burque et al., 2007; Kernahan & Davis, 2007, 2010; Lenes et al., 2020; Robey & Dickter, 2022; Schmidt et al., 2020). Four studies did not report their attrition data which contributed to a lower score within WoE A (Bañales et al., 2021; Chrobot-Mason, 2012; Paone et al., 2015; Simons et al., 2020). Although Nordstrom (2015) did report attrition rates, these were high, at over 30%. Muller and Miles (2017) also reported high attrition rates (~46%), however this included participants who were enrolled on the course but did not consent to their data being collected for the study. As informed consent was considered by the reviewer to be an ethical principle rather than study attrition, this did not affect the WoE A rating for this study.

Of the nine studies that had multiple groups of participants, whether that be intervention groups, a comparison group or a control group, seven carried out appropriate procedures (e.g., matching demographics, statistical analysis) to

ensure the characteristics of the participants were comparable (Bañales et al., 2021; Chrobot-Mason, 2012; Kernahan & Davis, 2007, 2010; Lenés et al., 2020; Nordstrom, 2015; Schmidt et al., 2020), while the remaining two did not report such procedures (Cole et al., 2011; Simons et al., 2020). This affected the ratings given in WoE A.

In every study, participants were college students in the US, which is reflective of much of the research surrounding both white privilege and diversity interventions to date. This is a significant limitation of the evidence base and restricts the extent to which findings can be generalised to other populations and to other countries. Moreover, where breakdowns of demographics were given for the participants, these were overwhelmingly female-dominated, with over 75% of the participants identifying as female in the majority of studies (Chrobot-Mason, 2012; Cole et al., 2011; Kernahan & Davis, 2007; Lenés et al., 2020; Nordstrom, 2015; Paone et al., 2015; Robey & Dickter, 2022; Schmidt et al., 2020; Simons et al., 2020). Since all studies involved college students as their participant group, this meant the majority of participants were also young, aged between around 18-25. This may further limit the generalisability of the findings.

Although Lenés et al. (2020) received the highest overall rating for quality and relevance, this study did have the smallest sample size, with only 18 participants in the intervention. Four other studies had fewer than 30 participants receiving the intervention (Chrobot-Mason, 2012; Kernahan & Davis, 2007, 2010; Nordstrom, 2015) which should also be held in mind when considering how far the results may generalise.

### *2.3.3.2 Study Design*

All 15 studies were randomised control trials (RCTs) or quasi-experimental designs, as specified within the inclusion criteria of the review. Studies with control groups were given higher ratings within WoE A and B because control groups can help determine whether the change in outcomes is as a result of the intervention or another confounding factor. The term 'control group' typically indicates the absence of the intervention while 'comparison group' tends to indicate the presence of an alternative intervention or treatment (Barker et al., 2016). For the purposes of consistency within this review, 'control group' will be used to refer to both control and comparison groups, as has been done by previous authors (e.g., Barker et al., 2016). However, it is worth noting that the majority of studies that utilised control groups within this review were of a comparison nature, typically students enrolled on an alternative course, for example, statistics or research methods (Chrobot-Mason, 2012; Kernahan & Davis, 2007, 2010). Lenes et al. (2020) was the only RCT design which randomly assigned participants to an intervention or waitlist-control group. RCTs can be considered the most methodologically relevant design for answering 'effectiveness' questions (Petticrew & Roberts, 2003). Wait-list control groups are also considered a more ethical way of including a control group, as this ensures no participant misses out on the potential benefits of the intervention (Barker et al., 2016). The higher ratings this study received for WoE A and B based on the relevance and quality of the design may have contributed to it being the only study awarded a 'High' overall weighting (WoE D).

Of the 14 quasi-experimental designs, seven (Case, 2007b; Cebulak & Zipp, 2019; Colvin-Burque et al., 2007; Muller & Miles, 2017; Paone et al., 2015; Robey & Dickter, 2022; Simons et al., 2020) had no control group. Not using a control group makes it difficult to conclude with any certainty that changes in awareness can be attributed to the intervention rather than another confounding variable. Moreover, using one-group pre-post designs means the effect sizes calculated for within-subject changes may have been inflated due to correlations between the two measures (Dunlap et al., 1996). This resulted in lower ratings for both methodological quality (WoE A) and relevance (WoE B) for studies with one group pre-post designs. While Bañales et al. (2021) reported using a comparison group, this was not considered a 'true' control group as measures were only gathered from these participants pre-intervention. As a result, this study received a lower weighting for WoE B. The remaining six studies had control groups with non-random assignment (Chrobot-Mason, 2012; Cole et al., 2011; Kernahan & Davis, 2007, 2010; Nordstrom, 2015; Schmidt et al., 2020). While having a non-randomly assigned control group is preferable to no control group at all, as accounted for in WoE B, it is less favourable than the randomly allocated control group that would be used in an RCT design. This is because non-random assignment is more likely to result in uncontrolled differences between the two groups which may confound the results (Barker et al., 2016).

Only two studies (Nordstrom, 2015; Schmidt et al., 2020) gave details not only about the nature of instruction given in training conditions but also in the control conditions, and this was accounted for in WoE A.

### 2.3.3.3 Measures

Ten studies (Bañales et al., 2021; Cebulak & Zipp, 2019; Colvin-Burque et al., 2007; Kernahan & Davis, 2007, 2010; Lenés et al., 2020; Muller & Miles, 2017; Paone et al., 2015; Robey & Dickter, 2022; Simons et al., 2020) used the validated color-blind racial attitudes scale (CoBRAS) (Neville et al., 2000). This is a 26-item questionnaire with three subscales, one of which has seven items and is named 'Unawareness of Racial Privilege' (URP). The CoBRAS is a widely used and cited measure, with evidence for its internal consistency ( $\alpha = .83$ ) test-retest reliability ( $r = .80$ ), split-half reliability ( $r = .72$ ), concurrent validity, and discriminant validity (Neville et al., 2000). Paone and colleagues (2015) and Robey and Dickter (2022) were the only studies to include two validated measures of white privilege awareness, and this is reflected in a higher rating within WoE C. In addition to the CoBRAS, they also administered the White Privilege Attitudes Scale (WPAS) (Pinterits et al., 2009), a validated measure containing a four-item subscale which assesses white privilege awareness. This scale also has evidenced convergent validity, internal consistency ( $\alpha = .84$ ) and test-retest reliability ( $r = .87$ ) (Pinterits et al., 2009). Robey and Dickter (2022) administered a third relevant scale, of 5 items, The White Privilege Scale (Swim & Miller, 1999). Although the psychometric properties of this scale have not been scrutinised thoroughly in the literature, factor analysis supported the construct validity of this scale, and its internal consistency has been reported as  $\alpha = .72$  (Swim & Miller, 1999) and  $\alpha = .84$  (Robey & Dickter, 2022). Schmidt et al. (2020) used the Awareness of Privilege and Oppression Scale-2 (APOS-2) (McClellan, 2014) which has since been further validated

(McClellan et al., 2019). This has an 11-item 'Awareness of Racism' subscale which measures awareness of racial privilege and oppression. This subscale has been found to have adequate internal consistency ( $\alpha = .84$ ) as well as convergent and discriminant validity (McClellan et al., 2019).

Case (2007) used a six-item unvalidated scale developed by the author themselves, and this same scale also used by Cole et al. (2011). Another unvalidated 4-item scale measuring awareness of racial privilege was developed and used by Chrobot-Mason (2012). The use of only unvalidated relevant measures by these three studies resulted in lower ratings within WoE C.

Nordstrom (2015) used the Oklahoma Racial Attitudes Scale—Revised (ORAS-R) (Vandiver & Leach, 2005), which is a revised version of the validated Oklahoma Racial Attitudes Scale—Preliminary (Choney & Behrens, 1996). This measure has three sub-scales including the seven-item 'Reactive Racial Justice' subscale which, according to Nordstrom (2015), acknowledges white privilege awareness. However, due to this measure being an unpublished revision of the validated scale, it received a lower rating within WoE C.

Despite many of the studies using previously validated measures, none discussed the criterion or construct validity of the measures used. One study (Kernahan & Davis, 2007) reported no information about the reliability of measures used. Chrobot-Mason (2012) was the only study to report the inter-rater reliability of measures where appropriate, while two others (Colvin-Burque et al., 2007; Simons et al., 2020) discussed the test-retest reliability. The remaining 11 studies reported only the internal consistency of measures.



WoE A accounted for the extent to which studies reported the reliability and validity of measures used.

Only two studies (Kernahan & Davis, 2010; Nordstrom, 2015) gathered a follow-up measure, assessing white privilege awareness one year later as well as immediately post-intervention. Gathering follow-up data is important as it assesses whether the effect of the intervention remains or diminishes over time. This was also accounted for in WoE A.

It is important to remain mindful that all of these measures rely on self-report data and therefore have the potential for demand characteristics and socially desirable responding. Participants may have been mindful of the purpose of the intervention, and responded how they thought the experimenter might want them to respond, or in a way that might be deemed more socially acceptable, rather than responding completely truthfully.

#### *2.3.3.4 Intervention*

The inclusion criteria in Table 2.2 were relatively broad, incorporating any intervention spanning more than one day with an educational, teaching or training element. This meant there was variation in the content, delivery and intensity of the different interventions. Of the 15 studies, six were described by the authors as 'diversity courses' (Bañales et al., 2021; Case, 2007b; Chrobot-Mason, 2012; Cole et al., 2011; Kernahan & Davis, 2007, 2010), one as a 'whiteness course' (Paone et al., 2015) and one as a 'white privilege activity', which was delivered alongside weekly small group discussions (Cebulak & Zipp, 2019). Robey and Dickter (2022) adapted 'Safe Passages for U', a four-hour training package which aims to educate around diversity issues (Ong et al., 2018). Key adaptations included narrowing the

intervention to focus only on race, and online delivery of the materials spread over four weeks rather than as a one-off, face-to-face session.

Two studies assessed the effectiveness of intergroup dialogue alongside traditional lecture content (Muller & Miles, 2017; Schmidt et al., 2020). This involved small-group discussions led by a trained facilitator, where people from different backgrounds and perspectives discussed challenging topics and learnt from one another.

Simons et al. (2020) assessed and compared the effectiveness of three 'high impact practice' interventions: academic-based service learning (ABSL), cultural-based service learning (CBSL) and experiential learning (EL). The ABSL consisted of lecture and discussion content alongside 15 hours of practical application, where the students mentored children from a different background to themselves. They then completed examinations and reflective assignments. In the CBSL class, students also received some teaching input and practical placement experience, however the content addressing prejudice, cultural competence, oppression and privilege went into greater detail than in the ABSL class. Finally, the EL class consisted of teaching input and activity-based learning followed by an internship in an area related to psychology (Simons et al., 2020).

One study assessed the effectiveness of the Self and Other Awareness Project (SOAP) (Colvin-Burque et al., 2007). This is a model developed by the first author which incorporates different instructional strategies to increase learners' own cultural self-awareness and develop their knowledge and skills for working cross-culturally. In Nordstrom (2015), participants carried out 'the voices project' alongside their usual learning, which involved

interviewing volunteers from marginalised social groups to learn about their experiences. Lenes et al. (2020) assessed the effectiveness of Color-Conscious Multicultural Mindfulness (CCMM) training, which was developed by the first author and involved pairing a mindfulness activity with each multicultural learning activity.

The majority of studies clearly described and specified the intervention, with the exceptions of three of the diversity courses (Cole et al., 2011; Kernahan & Davis, 2007, 2010), where limited details were given about what the courses actually entailed. Studies that failed to provide sufficient detail about what the intervention involved received a lower score for methodological quality within WoE A. Additionally, given the importance of drawing on theory and evidence-based practice, those studies which did not clearly explain how the intervention was derived from existing theory and research evidence (Kernahan & Davis, 2007, 2010) received a lower rating as part of WoE C for topic relevance. The majority of studies, however, did identify the theoretical underpinnings of their intervention. For example, Robey and Dickter (2022) clearly outlined how their intervention drew on models of cultural competence within the literature, and Chrobot-Mason (2012) described how their intervention was informed by theories including intergroup contact and theories of identity development.

Research has suggested that learning on courses is more effective when the course incorporates different types of learning activity, including reception, discovery and reflection (Binsted, 1980). Reception refers to the teaching input itself, such as a lecture, film or reading. Discovery is more activity-based, involving some kind of interaction, discussion or task. Finally,

reflection refers to the internal process of thinking about what one has learnt. Studies which specified how their intervention involved different types of learning activity (Bañales et al., 2021; Cebulak & Zipp, 2019; Chrobot-Mason, 2012; Colvin-Burque et al., 2007; Lenes et al., 2020; Muller & Miles, 2017; Paone et al., 2015; Robey & Dickter, 2022; Schmidt et al., 2020; Simons et al., 2020) received a higher score within WoE C.

Meta-analyses suggest that longer-term diversity interventions are more effective than stand-alone or one-off interventions (Bezrukova et al., 2016). Furthermore, the UK government has recently published guidance based on the existing evidence-base, advising that stand-alone educational interventions are ineffective, are at risk of being used as a 'tick-box' exercise and should thus be avoided (The Behavioural Insights Team, 2020). As a result, brief one-off interventions were excluded from this review, and interventions spanning longer than eight weeks received a higher score for topic relevance within WoE C. The implications for EPs of this research into longer-term diversity interventions will be discussed further in section 3.5.8. One paper (Lenes et al., 2020) reported how the fidelity of the intervention was ensured, by developing a checklist and having an observer use this to monitor adherence to the intervention throughout each session. This contributed to the high WoE A score given to Lenes et al (2020). An advantage of the online delivery of Robey and Dickter's (2022) intervention was that every participant received the same input. Additionally, checks were included throughout each session to ensure participants were attending to and engaging with the material (Robey & Dickter, 2022). None of the

included studies assessed quality of implementation over and above the surface fidelity of the intervention, which is also accounted for within WoE A. All but three of the studies (Cole et al., 2011; Paone et al., 2015; Simons et al., 2020) gave sufficient information about who delivered the intervention, resulting in higher scores for methodological quality (WoE A). Only two studies (Muller & Miles, 2017; Schmidt et al., 2020) explicitly stated that the facilitators or interventionists were trained or had sufficient qualification to deliver the intervention, which was accounted for within WoE C.

#### *2.3.3.5 Findings and Effect Sizes*

Effect sizes for each study are summarised in Table 2.5. Since this review is focused on the effectiveness of interventions specifically in raising awareness of white privilege, only the findings related to this outcome are displayed. While Robey and Dickter (2022) used the validated CoBRAS, they did not split the analysis by subscale and report values for the relevant subscale (URP) in isolation. As a result, the CoBRAS findings for this study are not included in this review. To allow for easier comparison, effect sizes in the form of the standardised mean difference are given. Cohen's (1988) descriptors are used to interpret each effect size as small ( $0.2 \leq$ ), medium ( $0.5 \leq$ ) or large ( $0.8 \leq$ ). Where effect sizes were lower than 0.2, these were described as 'Very Small'.

Seven of the studies (Cebulak & Zipp, 2019; Cole et al., 2011; Lenes et al., 2020; Nordstrom, 2015; Paone et al., 2015; Robey & Dickter, 2022; Schmidt et al., 2020) reported effect sizes within their papers. Reporting effect sizes in addition to *p*-values is considered an essential marker of methodological quality, as effect sizes allow for easier comparisons across studies

regardless of sample size, and are also useful to future researchers who wish to carry out power calculations (Lakens, 2013). As a result, studies reporting these received a higher score within WoE A.

Where papers reported eta-squared ( $\eta^2$ ) or partial eta-squared, ( $\eta_p^2$ ) this was converted to Cohen's  $d$  using Psychometrica (Lenhard & Lenhard, 2016). For within-subject, repeated measures comparisons,  $d_{corr}$  was calculated (Becker, 1988) using reported descriptive statistics, and then a small sample bias correction from Lakens (2013) was applied to give Hedges  $g$ . Where authors compared change scores for intervention vs control groups, or pre-post within-subject changes and reported a one-way  $F$ -statistic, an online calculator (Wilson, n.d.) was used to calculate Hedges  $g$  from the reported  $F$ -statistic. Hedges  $g$  was calculated for post-intervention between-subject comparisons (intervention group versus control) using the same online calculator (Wilson, n.d.), with either one-way  $F$ -statistics or descriptive statistics, depending on what was reported by the author. One study (Muller & Miles, 2017) used hierarchical linear modelling, therefore Hedges  $g$  was calculated using the reported gamma coefficient in the place of an unstandardized regression coefficient (Wilson, n.d.).

Overall, every study found an increased awareness of white privilege following their intervention, with a range of effect sizes calculated, from small to large. The only study awarded a high weighting of evidence found mostly medium to large effect sizes as a result of their intervention, CCMM training. Studies who compared pre-post data for the intervention group with a control group (Cole et al., 2011; Kernahan & Davis, 2007, 2010; Lenes et al., 2020; Nordstrom, 2015; Schmidt et al., 2020) found larger effect sizes for the

intervention group than the control group. This implies that the difference in increase of white privilege awareness can be attributed to the intervention as opposed to a confounding variable. However, because participants were assigned non-randomly to groups in all but one of these studies, it is possible that there were other differences between the groups which could have contributed to this finding.

While significant effects were found from pre to post intervention, the two studies who assessed whether this effect was maintained at one-year follow up found variable results. For Nordstrom (2015), the effect was mostly maintained ( $g = -0.06$ ), however for Kernahan and Davis (2010) awareness decreased more significantly after one year ( $g = -0.34$ ). However, awareness still remained higher at follow-up than it was pre-intervention ( $g = 0.79$ ).

Although Lenés et al. (2020) reported their effect sizes, these were noticed to be very large and potentially inflated for the within-subject changes. It might be that Lenés et al. (2020) incorrectly used the standard error (SE) in calculations where they should have used the standard deviation (SD). The reviewer calculated  $d_{corr}$  (Becker, 1988) and applied the small sample bias correction using the SE and found this resulted in values very similar to those reported by the author (2.65 for the intervention group and 0.44 for the control group). When instead using the SD in these calculations, Hedge's  $g$  was 0.62 for the intervention group and 0.10 for the control group. This is still a medium-large effect size for the intervention group, yet seems more accurate given the descriptive statistics reported in the paper. Both the effect sizes reported by the author and those calculated by the reviewer are displayed in Table 2.5. The smaller effect size calculated for the intervention

vs control group comparison post-intervention could be due to the fact that awareness of racial privilege was higher for the control group to begin with. Inconsistencies were also noted in Robey and Dickter (2022). The effect size for the White Privilege Scale was reported as  $d = 0.615$  in-text, however as  $d = 1.615$  in the table of results. The reported effect size for the WPAS in the results table was  $d = 1.21$ . Given the author concluded that all effect sizes were small-medium, the reviewer hypothesised that 1 may have been mistakenly placed in front of the tabulated effect sizes. This hypothesis was supported when the reviewer calculated  $d_{corr}$  from the reported descriptive statistics and applied the small sample bias correction to give values of  $d = 0.61$  and  $d = 0.20$  for the White Privilege Scale and WPAS respectively. As a result, these reviewer-adjusted values are reported in Table 2.5.

Some studies gave a breakdown for different groups within their sample, including White students only (Cebulak & Zipp, 2019; Colvin-Burque et al., 2007) and social workers only (Colvin-Burque et al., 2007), however as the effect sizes were the same as for the entire samples, only the combined effect sizes are reported in Table 2.5. This is consistent with previous research into diversity intervention effectiveness more generally which found insignificant differences in effect sizes when comparing inclusive vs group-specific training courses (Bezrukova et al., 2016).

For three studies (Kernahan & Davis, 2007, 2010; Nordstrom, 2015), the effect size was greater for the between-subjects comparison post-intervention than for pre-post comparisons. This could be due to there already being differences at pre-intervention which became wider as a result of the intervention. Comparing the change scores for the intervention and



control group in Nordstrom (2015) provides further evidence for this, as the difference here yielded only a very small effect size ( $< 0.2$ ).

For Chrobot-Mason (2012) only the effect size for the post-intervention comparison between the intervention and control group is given, because means and standard deviations for calculating within-subject changes were not reported.

**Table 2.5***Effect Sizes for White Privilege Awareness Outcomes*

Study	Outcome Measure	Comparison	Effect Size	Method of Calculation	Descriptor (Cohen, 1988)	WoE D
Bañales et al. (2021)	CoBRAS – URP sub-scale	Repeated measures pre-post intervention				Medium
		Cohort 1	$g = 0.97$	$d_{corr}$ and small sample size correction	Large	
		Cohort 2	$g = 1.41$		Large	
		Cohort 3	$g = 0.95$		Large	
		Cohort 4	$g = 1.31$		Large	
Repeated measures pre-post intervention – all students	$g = 1.06$	Campbell Calculator using reported F statistic	Large			
Case (2007)	6-item scale developed by author	Repeated measures pre-post intervention	$g = 0.54$	$d_{corr}$ and small sample size correction	Medium	Low

Cebulak & Zipp (2019)	CoBRAS – URP sub-scale	Repeated measures pre-post intervention – all students	$d = 0.76$	Reported in paper	Medium	Low
Chrobot-Mason (2012)	4-item scale developed by the author	Intervention vs control post-intervention	$g = 0.89$	Campbell Calculator using F statistic	Large	Medium
Cole et al. (2011)	6-item scale from Case (2007)	Interaction between time (2) and group (2)	$\eta^2 = 0.03$ $d = 0.35$	Reported in paper Psychometrica conversion	Small Small	Medium
		Repeated measures pre-post intervention	$g = 0.21$ control: -0.05	$d_{corr}$ and small sample size correction	Small Very Small	
		Intervention vs control post-intervention	$g = 0.49$	Campbell Calculator using means and SD	Small	
Colvin-Burque et al. (2007)	CoBRAS – URP sub-scale	Repeated measures pre-post intervention – all participants	$g = 0.69$	$d_{corr}$ and small sample size correction	Medium	Low
Kernahan & Davis (2007)	CoBRAS – URP sub-scale	Repeated measures pre-post intervention	$g = 1.33$ control: $g = 0.25$	$d_{corr}$ and small sample size correction	Large Small	Medium

		Intervention vs control post-intervention	$g = 3.23$	Campbell Calculator using means and SD	Large	
Kernahan & Davis (2010)	CoBRAS – URP sub-scale	Repeated measures pre-post intervention	$g = 1.11$ control: $g = 0.19$	$d_{corr}$ and small sample size correction	Large Very Small	Medium
		Intervention vs control post-intervention	$g = 1.26$	Campbell Calculator using means and SD	Large	
		Repeated measures post-follow-up	$g = - 0.34$	$d_{corr}$ and small sample size correction	Small	
		Repeated measures pre-follow-up	$g = 0.79$	$d_{corr}$ and small sample size correction	Medium	
Lenes et al. (2020)	CoBRAS – URP sub-scale	Repeated measures pre-post intervention	$g = 2.84$ Control: $g = 0.47$	Reported in paper – potentially inflated by using SE rather than SD	Large Small	High
		Repeated measures pre-post intervention	$g = 0.62$ Control: $g = 0.1$	$d_{corr}$ and small sample size correction	Medium- Large Very Small	

		Interaction between time (2) and group (2)	$\eta_p^2 = 0.359$	Reported in paper	Large	
			$d = 1.50$	Psychometrica conversion	Large	
		Intervention vs waitlist control post-intervention	$g = 0.36$	Campbell Calculator using means and SE	Small	
Muller & Miles (2017)	CoBRAS – URP sub-scale	Repeated measures pre-post intervention	$g = 0.61$	Campbell Calculator using gamma coefficient	Medium	Medium
Nordstrom (2015)	ORAS-R - Reactive Racial Justice sub-scale	Repeated measures pre-post intervention	$g = 0.32$	$d_{corr}$ and small sample size correction	Small	Medium
			control: $g = 0.11$		Very Small	
		Repeated measures post-follow up	$g = -0.06$	$d_{corr}$ and small sample size correction	Very Small	
		Intervention vs control post-intervention	$g = 0.54$ (but pre differences were also high)	Campbell Calculator using means and SD	Medium	

		Change scores for intervention vs control group	$\eta_p^2 = 0.013$ $g = 0.19$	Reported in paper Campbell Calculator using F statistic	Small Very Small	
Paone et al. (2015)	CoBRAS – URP sub-scale	Repeated measures pre-post intervention	$\eta^2 = 0.28$ $g = 1.25$	Reported in paper Psychometrica conversion	Large Large	Medium
	WPAS – White Privilege Awareness sub-scale	Repeated measures pre-post intervention	$\eta^2 = 0.15$ $g = 0.84$	Reported in paper Psychometrica conversion	Large Large	
Robey & Dickter (2022)	WPAS – White Privilege Awareness sub-scale	Repeated measures pre-post intervention	$g = 0.20$	Reported in paper (adjusted with $d_{corr}$ and small sample size correction)	Small	Medium
	White Privilege Scale (Swim & Miller, 1999)	Repeated measures pre-post intervention	$g = 0.61$	Reported in paper (adjusted with $d_{corr}$ and small sample size correction)	Medium	

Schmidt et al. (2020)	APOS-2 – Racism sub- scale	Repeated measures pre-post intervention	$g = 0.40$ control: $g = 0.03$	$d_{corr}$ and small sample size correction	Small Very Small	Medium
		Interaction between time (2) and group (2)	$\eta^2 = 0.07$ $d = 0.55$	Reported in paper Psychometrica conversion	Medium Medium	
		Intervention vs control post- intervention	$g = 0.58$	Campbell Calculator using means and SD	Medium	
Simons et al. (2020)	CoBRAS – URP sub-scale	ABSL repeated measures pre-post intervention	$g = 0.39$	$d_{corr}$ and small sample size correction	Small	Medium
		CBSL repeated measures pre-post intervention	$g = 0.24$	$d_{corr}$ and small sample size correction	Small	
		EL repeated measures pre-post intervention	$g = 0.20$	$d_{corr}$ and small sample size correction	Small	
		Repeated measures pre-post intervention – All participants	$g = 0.30$	$d_{corr}$ and small sample size correction	Small	

## **2.4 Discussion, Recommendations and Conclusion**

### **2.4.1 Summary**

This systematic review assessed how effective educational diversity interventions are in raising awareness of white privilege. A systematic search yielded 15 studies meeting the inclusion criteria, and these were rigorously assessed for methodological quality, methodological relevance and topic relevance using Gough's (2007) Weight of Evidence framework. Only one study received a high weight of evidence, 11 received medium ratings, and the remaining three were rated low. All of the studies found increases in awareness of white privilege from pre-post intervention, with some finding small effects and others finding larger effects. This was the first review specifically focusing on white privilege awareness as an outcome, however the findings are consistent with previous larger reviews and meta-analyses of diversity interventions which found larger effects for cognitive-based outcomes (Bezrukova et al., 2016; Kalinoski et al., 2013). This means that, if having an awareness of white privilege is considered important for culturally competent practice (Abrams & Gibson, 2007; Ancis & Szymanski, 2001; Mindrup et al., 2011; Solomona et al., 2005), educational interventions such as the ones in this review could be an effective way of achieving this within organisations. These findings have implications for educational psychology practice due to the EP's role in promoting principles of equality, diversity and inclusion (HCPC, 2015), in a way that is informed by research evidence.

### **2.4.2 Methodological Limitations**

Despite significant findings, the current evidence-base is limited in the extent to which findings can be generalised to broader populations and contexts.



Consistent with the conclusions of more general reviews on the effectiveness of diversity interventions (e.g., The Behavioural Insights Team, 2020), the evidence base is US-centred, with every study in this review carried out in the US and with student-based populations. The reasons for there being relatively little research and discussion on white privilege in the UK compared with the US can be speculated about. For example, this could be due to there being a larger population in the US overall, and differences in demographic make-up, with more racial and ethnic diversity in the US compared with the UK. Alternatively, this may be due to different historical contexts, differences in how Britain's history of colonialism and slavery is recalled and taught, and perhaps an unrealistic perception that 'it's not as bad here'. Future research within the UK, with non-student populations would be needed to determine whether the findings of this review can be replicated in different countries among varying professions and participant groups.

Furthermore, the majority of studies utilised quasi-experimental designs either with no control group, or where participants were non-randomly assigned to conditions. Failing to use any control group makes it impossible to determine whether any change in awareness was due to the intervention itself or another factor, such as the passing of time (Barker et al., 2016). This is particularly relevant for the studies included in this review, where several of the interventions spanned a whole semester during university, which is arguably a formative time for personal and social development, where many factors might influence a person's evolving thoughts, attitudes and behaviours.

Control groups with non-random assignment to groups also provide an imperfect comparison, as there may be inherent or existing differences already between the groups (Barker et al., 2016). For example, in several of the studies, the control group was another class of students enrolled on a different course, the content of which could have also somehow influenced their white privilege awareness. On the other hand, using existing groups within the natural environment may have improved the ecological validity of these studies and helped with generalisability outside of the experimental setting (Barker et al., 2016). Future research would, however, provide a stronger evaluation of intervention effectiveness by using RCT designs wherever possible (Petticrew & Roberts, 2003), perhaps with wait-list control groups as this may be more ethical than withholding the intervention from one group completely.

Only two of the studies collected a follow-up measure one year after the intervention, and from these we can tentatively infer that the impact may begin to wane after intervention ceases. In the future, longitudinal studies are needed to build on the existing evidence-base, by assessing whether the effect of the intervention is sustained over a longer time period.

Several of the studies also had brief or insufficiently detailed explanations of what their educational intervention entailed. Related to this, many studies also failed to describe the level of training or qualifications held by the person delivering or facilitating the intervention. Given the fact that educational diversity interventions vary widely along many dimensions (Kulik & Roberson, 2008), there is a need for researchers to provide explicit descriptions of the intervention and facilitators such that they can be reproduced with replicable

precision. This would also make it easier to identify common themes across different studies which may contribute to the intervention's effectiveness. The majority of the included studies clearly explained how their intervention was grounded in psychological theory and research evidence, however it is worth noting that a diverse range of theories and models were drawn on by different researchers. A valuable direction for future research could be to categorise different educational diversity interventions according to their theoretical grounding and explore whether this has a differential impact on outcomes. Future research could also make better use of fidelity checklists such as the one developed by Lenes et al. (2020), to establish quality checks and ensure the intervention is being carried out as it was intended.

The measures used may also have been limited in that several were unvalidated, and all of the measures were self-report. This could increase susceptibility to social desirability bias. Future studies could look into implicit ways of assessing white privilege awareness and attitudes which are less reliant on participants' self-report.

### **2.4.3 Critique of White Privilege Pedagogy**

It is also important to acknowledge broader criticisms of white privilege pedagogy in the literature (e.g., Lensmire et al., 2013; Margolin, 2015) and stress that, even if interventions are effective in raising awareness, this should be considered only as a crucial first step, as awareness raising and 'confessions' of privilege in themselves may do little to contribute to any meaningful change (Applebaum, 2016). The fact that the majority of behavioural outcomes in this field are measured through subjective self-report methods (Bezrukova et al., 2012) reflects the challenges of gathering

accurate measures of behavioural change within experimental studies, and these are acknowledged. However, gathering more objective behavioural measures and investigating whether white privilege awareness mediates the relationship between the intervention and the behaviour change would provide further support for including teaching on white privilege within these interventions. One way of doing this could be to provide a situational judgement task which presents participants with a real-life situation and asks them how they would respond (Bezrukova et al., 2012).

A further criticism of attempts to increase awareness of white privilege is that they often lack a complex exploration of intersectionality (Lensmire et al., 2013). While some studies reviewed here (Bañales et al., 2021; Cole et al., 2011; Lenes et al., 2020; Paone et al., 2015; Schmidt et al., 2020) drew on intersectionality theory (Crenshaw, 1989) when designing their interventions, over half of the papers in this review did not mention how they addressed the intersection of race with other aspects of identity within their interventions.

Future research might benefit from clearly specifying how they are accounting for the complexity of intersecting identities within their teaching about white privilege. One useful tool for exploring this could be Burnham's Social GRRRAACCEESSS framework (Burnham, 2012).

Leonardo (2004) argued that any investigation of white privilege should be met with an equally strong interrogation of 'white supremacy', with a greater focus on teaching the structural and historical factors which contribute to and reinstate a system of privilege and oppression, rather than focusing only on helping individuals recognise their own privilege (Leonardo, 2004). Studies combining and/or comparing these different approaches could therefore be

another useful direction for future research. Qualitative research exploring people's views on the importance of understanding white privilege within a framework of anti-racist practice might also provide further clarity on some of these conceptual criticisms. While a review of qualitative literature exploring the concept of white privilege was beyond the scope of this review, studies of this nature were identified and excluded as part of the systematic search (e.g., Bhopal & Chapman, 2019; Case, 2012; Grindstaff & Mascarenhas, 2019; Hays et al., 2007; Lander, 2011; Manglitz et al., 2005). Future research reviews synthesising some of these qualitative findings could offer a valuable perspective to complement this quantitative review.

#### **2.4.4 Limitations of the Review**

Although every effort was made to ensure this review was conducted as transparently, systematically and objectively as possible, it is still possible that unconscious biases, and indeed, the identity of the reviewer themselves may have impacted how the review was carried out. It is also possible that some relevant studies may have been missed despite the rigorous search strategy. For example, using the broader term "privilege" in addition to the more specific terms such as "white privilege" within concept two may have yielded a few more studies which met the inclusion criteria. However, this would have resulted in more search results than could be realistically screened, and the reviewer had to balance the rigour of the search strategy with pragmatism. Moreover, while the most relevant studies to answering the research question were systematically identified, it is possible that additional studies may exist in the literature which use some of the broader measures described (e.g., CoBRAS), however these studies may have been missed if

the authors did not explicitly identify white or racial privilege awareness as a key outcome. Any potential for missing studies from the literature search was mitigated by ancestral searches within directly relevant papers.

When interpreting the results of a systematic review, it is also important to be cautious of publication bias. Historically, psychological research has a history of publishing significant over non-significant results (Rosenthal, 1979). This means that relevant studies with null findings may have been excluded from this review because they were not published in a peer-reviewed journal.

Larger meta-analyses into diversity intervention effectiveness more broadly have assessed publication bias within the field and while some evidence of publication bias was found, the overall effect size was still significant even after controlling for this (Bezrukova et al., 2016).

#### **2.4.5 Implications for Educational Psychologists**

In recent times, debates about critical race theory and white privilege have been given considerable attention in the UK, particularly relating to their application in education contexts (e.g., Morris, 2021; Murray, 2020).

Evidence suggests that issues of social justice are important for and relevant to the EP role (Schulze et al., 2017; Schulze et al., 2019), meanwhile the standards of proficiency which guide EPs' practice recognise the importance of being "aware of the impact of culture, equality and diversity on practice" (HCPC, 2015, p. 8). In addition, the work of professional psychologists should be informed by research evidence (BPS, 2017). Recent guidelines for a range of educational professionals including those in early years settings (Early Years Coalition, 2021) and higher education (Universities UK, 2020) refer to white privilege as a concept that practitioners should be aware of. As

evidence-based professionals working with and alongside different educational settings, it is therefore important that EPs have an awareness of the evidence-base surrounding the term 'white privilege', so that they can offer an evidence-informed perspective in discussions where this concept is raised. The current review provides EPs with a systematic and comprehensive synthesis of studies specifically assessing whether awareness of white privilege increased following an educational diversity intervention. EPs will be able to draw on this evidence-base in their practice, for example in the context of delivering in-service training, and use it alongside their professional expertise to form a psychological and evidence-informed view when consulted about equity and diversity issues.

#### **2.4.6 Conclusion**

In summary, educational diversity interventions can be effective in raising awareness of white privilege, with effect sizes varying from small to large. However, there are significant methodological limitations within the existing evidence base as well as conceptual limitations with interventions focused on raising awareness of privilege alone. There is a need for future research with RCT and longitudinal designs, across different contexts and with large, diverse participant groups. It would also be useful for future research to establish whether and how changes in white privilege awareness impact or moderate behavioural outcomes, as well as qualitatively exploring the utility of raising awareness of white privilege as it relates to educational psychology, investigating how this can be most usefully incorporated within broader strategies for promoting equality, diversity and inclusion.

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## **Chapter 3: Empirical Paper**

**An exploration of educational psychologists' views on white  
privilege**



### **3.1 Abstract**

'White privilege' is a key concept often raised in connection with critical race theory and anti-racist practice. The current study aims to explore educational psychologists' (EPs') views on white privilege. An online survey containing open and closed questions was distributed to EPs and trainee EPs. This yielded qualitative and quantitative data which was integrated to answer four research questions. A reflexive thematic analysis of qualitative data developed five themes exploring EPs' definitions of white privilege. Quantitative data were analysed visually and descriptively and key findings included that 82.18% of participants agreed or strongly agreed that white privilege manifests in the educational psychology profession, while 90.1% indicated that it is very important for EPs to have an understanding of white privilege. A second reflexive thematic analysis of qualitative data built on these quantitative findings by developing eight themes relating to how EPs think white privilege manifests in the profession, and why they think it is or is not important for EPs to understand the term. Implications for the educational psychology profession, limitations of the current study, and recommendations for future research are discussed.



## **3.2 Introduction**

### **3.2.1 The UK Education Context**

The Equality Act (2010) offers legal protection from discrimination for all people according to a range of protected characteristics, including race. However, there is both statistical and qualitative evidence that racism and race-based discrimination remains pervasive within the UK to the present day, including within the education system.

A report by the YMCA sharing the experiences of over 500 Black young people found that 95% of respondents reported hearing or witnessing racist language being used in school. Additionally, 49% and 50% of respondents felt that racism and teachers' perceptions, respectively, were some of the greatest barriers to their school success (YMCA, 2020). Analysis of school exclusion data has found that Black Caribbean pupils are underachieving in school and are statistically more likely to be excluded from school compared with their White British counterparts, even after controlling for other factors (DfE, 2019; Feyisa & McLean, 2017). Furthermore, a recent qualitative study exploring the experiences of a sample of ethnically diverse students found that experiences of racism continue to be prolific in higher education (Wong et al., 2021).

In 2019, only 7.3% of headteachers in UK state-funded schools reportedly identified as People of the Global Majority (PGM) (DfE, 2021), raising the question of why diversity is lacking in leadership positions within the education system. Meanwhile, a recent report by the Commission on Young Lives argued that Black children are more likely to experience 'adultification'. This means they are less likely than their White counterparts to be perceived

by others as innocent, and more likely to be treated as 'adult-like' rather than as children who need to be safeguarded and protected. The report gave the example of Child Q, a 15-year old Black girl who was inappropriately strip searched in December 2020 by London police officers while she was at school (The Commission on Young Lives, 2022). Research also suggests there are racial disparities in diagnostic rates, for example Black children displaying externalising behaviours are more likely to be diagnosed with disruptive behaviour disorders than their White counterparts (Ballentine, 2019). These highlight just a few examples of how racism continues to exist within the UK, specifically within the UK education system.

Recent survey data of Educational Psychologist (EP) participants suggests racism also continues to be an issue specifically for the educational psychology profession; of the 14.5% of respondents who reported having experienced harassment or discrimination on the basis of a protected characteristic, race was the most commonly cited characteristic upon which this discrimination was based (AEP, 2021). Moreover, a recent paper reviewed five decades of psychological research between 1974 and 2018 from six social, cognitive and developmental psychology journals. This found that publications rarely highlighted race, those which did were mostly written by White authors, and most publications also had White editors. The authors concluded that systemic inequality is evident in psychological research (Roberts et al., 2020); the research which arguably forms the evidence-base EPs practise from.

While racial injustice should arguably be of concern to all members of society, as registered professionals working within an education context and

with diverse client groups, EPs have a duty to understand issues pertaining to equity, diversity and inclusion (EDI), and must evidence non-discriminatory practice to competently fulfil their role (HCPC, 2015). This means issues relating to racism are highly relevant to EPs.

### **3.2.2 Anti-Racism in Educational Psychology**

Anti-racism can be defined as “the active process of identifying and eliminating racism by changing systems, organizational structures, policies and practices and attitudes, so that power is redistributed and shared equitably” (NAC International Perspectives: Women and Global Solidarity, as cited by CARED - ACLRC, 2009).

Following the murder of George Floyd by a police officer in the United States (US) in 2020, the Black Lives Matter movement and urgency for racial justice was propelled into the mainstream worldwide, including in the UK. While anti-racism in educational psychology practice and education more broadly has been of concern to EPs prior to this (e.g., BPS, 2006) these events sparked a renewed sense of urgency within the profession. An open letter written by the Educational Psychologists’ ‘Race’ and Culture Forum outlined a clear need for more work on anti-racism within educational psychology practice and training programmes (Williams, 2020). A recent issue of the British Psychological Society’s (BPS’s) ‘Educational and Child Psychology’ journal focused specifically on anti-racist research and practice relevant to EPs (Miller et al., 2021), while University College London’s (UCL’s) Educational Psychology Group hosted a ‘Leading Edge’ day in July 2021 with a focus on working towards anti-racist educational psychology practice, including speakers and workshops to stimulate discussion, debate and consider next

steps for the profession (UCL, 2021). Calls for action have also included initiatives such as the formation of the working group Trainee EPs' Initiative for Cultural Change (TEPICC) (Ginn et al., 2022), and individual EP services have organised events aiming to increase the transparency and accessibility of the profession, which included outlining a mentorship programme for applicants from underrepresented ethnic groups as part of a drive to increase diversity and representation within the profession itself (North London EP services, 2022).

The need for anti-racist action has also been reiterated more broadly by the BPS (Murphy, 2020) and the Health and Care Professions Council (HCPC) (Barwick, 2020).

### **3.2.3 White Privilege**

'White privilege' is a term often defined and positioned within the context of Critical Race Theory (CRT) and the connected Critical Whiteness Studies (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017). While conceptualisations of CRT, whiteness and white privilege vary, CRT can be understood as an academic perspective, proposed in the US in the late 20<sup>th</sup> century which has more recently been applied to the UK context (Gillborn, 2006). A key element of this theoretical viewpoint is the assumption that racism is endemic, pervading society not only through overt, intentional acts by individuals, but also within systems, institutions and in covert behaviours (even where intentions may be good) (Gillborn, 2006). As an offshoot of CRT, 'whiteness' can be defined as "a set of often unnamed and unmarked cultural and racial practices (e.g., customs, traditions), values, and attitudes that signify what is considered normative." (Schooley et al., 2019, p. 532). Studies of whiteness began to



grow significantly in number from the early 1990s (Leonardo, 2002). Within the context of CRT, 'white privilege' can thus be understood as the resulting "myriad of social advantages, benefits and courtesies that come with being a member of the dominant race" (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017, p. 89).

Discussions of white privilege proliferated particularly in the US literature when Peggy McIntosh, a White scholar, wrote an essay naming and reflecting on 26 examples of how she thought white privilege showed up in her own life (McIntosh, 1989). While there is a need for research to amplify the voices and experiences of those marginalised by racism, many authors have argued that dissecting whiteness and white privilege is also necessary for change (Manglitz, 2003).

### **3.2.4 White Privilege Controversy**

Cultural competence can be understood as possessing the awareness, knowledge and skills to engage sensitively and effectively with people from different cultural backgrounds (Sue et al., 1982, 1992). Some authors have stressed that, in order to be culturally competent, there is a need for educational professionals to reflect on their own identities and examine how these might impact their practice (Matias, 2013; Solomona et al., 2005).

Indeed, research has found that attitudes towards white privilege are associated with cultural competence in clinical psychology and social work students (Mindrup et al., 2011), while awareness of privilege significantly predicted cultural competence in counsellor trainees and practising therapists (Wilcox et al., 2020). Some diversity courses, which aim to increase knowledge, attitudes and skills on issues relating to diversity, have included a specific focus on white privilege and included white privilege awareness as a

key outcome when assessing intervention effectiveness (e.g., Case, 2007; Cole et al., 2011; Kernahan & Davis, 2007, 2010).

However, there is debate and critique both within mainstream media and academic literature regarding how white privilege has been studied and the importance of addressing white privilege within anti-racism work. In the UK, the topic of whether and how white privilege should be taught in school has been the subject of debate in the media ranging from podcasts (e.g., Fleming, 2022) to politics (e.g., Morris, 2021; Murray, 2020). Indeed, there is recent evidence to suggest that the affective reaction invoked in participants by simply using the term 'white privilege' can lead to greater polarisation and disengagement from conversations about racism (Quarles & Bozarth, 2022). Some authors have argued that focusing too much on white privilege can undermine conversations about anti-racism, and they question how much the 'confessions' which may result from these conversations actually contribute to anti-racist action (Applebaum, 2016). Additionally, a crude focus on white privilege might run the risk of overlooking the complexity of intersectional identities (Blum, 2008; Lensmire et al., 2013). 'Intersectionality' is another term discussed by critical race scholars and is credited to Kimberlé Crenshaw (1989). To take an intersectional perspective means considering how race (and white privilege) interact with other aspects of a person's identity, including but not limited to gender, sexual orientation and class (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017).

Some authors further argue that rather than discussing white privilege, a focus on understanding 'white supremacy', as a system of domination and oppression, would be more helpful (Leonardo, 2004), and that it is possible

for individuals to still engage in meaningful anti-racist work without addressing white privilege (Blum, 2008).

### **3.2.5 Relevance to EPs**

Self-awareness and working as a reflective practitioner represent one of the key competencies required of EPs during their training and on-going practice (BPS, 2019). EPs hold a position of responsibility and opportunity when it comes to promoting equal opportunities. Mainstream media is increasingly exposing the influence and complicity EPs can hold within discriminatory systems, for example, in a recent documentary “Subnormal: A British Scandal” (Shannon, 2021). It is therefore vital that EPs take a reflective and critical view on their professional contributions within these systems.

Previous research has explored understanding of privilege amongst various educational professionals (Allan & Estler, 2005; Crowley, 2019; McIntyre, 1997; Solomona et al., 2005) and findings from these studies have shown mixed attitudes and views. For example, one review of papers looking at white privilege in teacher education found that in 46% of the reviewed studies, participants struggled to connect the concept of white privilege with systemic inequity (Bennett et al., 2019). One study investigated white privilege qualitatively in White counselling psychology students and found varying levels of awareness, from no awareness to profound awareness with corresponding action (Ancis & Szymanski, 2001).

Recent research in the US has explored conceptions of white privilege amongst school psychology (the US equivalent of educational psychology) graduate interns, arguing that an understanding of white privilege is essential for school psychologists (Broems, 2021). This phenomenological analysis of

15 semi-structured interviews identified 21 subthemes within five themes: definitions and examples of white privilege; the importance and process of awareness of white privilege; emotions arising from confrontation with white privilege; the impact of white privilege in schools (specifically in school psychology practice); and the difficulty of challenging white privilege and racism in schools (Broems, 2021).

School psychology researchers in the US have argued that consultation and systemic work, which both school and educational psychologists are highly trained in, can be used as a tool for dismantling white privilege in educational contexts (Schumacher-Martinez & Proctor, 2020). Grapin and Fallon (2021) further emphasise the relevance of white privilege to EPs by proposing an ecological model, arguing that white privilege is not only present in the systems school psychologists work with, but in every stage of the research process which informs the evidence base they work from. Through an analysis and exploration of these processes, they provide recommendations for how white privilege can be challenged in school psychology research (Grapin & Fallon, 2021).

However, despite whiteness and white privilege being explored with school psychologists in the US, and in related professions within the UK such as the clinical psychology workforce (e.g., Ahsan, 2020; Wood & Patel, 2017), there is no existing research exploring conceptions of white privilege specifically with UK EPs, despite research suggesting issues of social justice are important and relevant to EPs (Schulze et al., 2019).

Given the pertinence of EDI issues to EPs and the attention and contrasting views surrounding white privilege in both the literature and the media, there is

therefore a strong rationale for exploring EPs' current perceptions and understanding of white privilege.

### **3.2.6 Research Questions**

In order to address this gap in the literature, the overall aim of this study is to gain a broad overview of EPs' views on white privilege. To meet this aim, the following research questions were addressed:

- RQ1: How do educational psychologists define 'white privilege'?
- RQ2: What are educational psychologists' beliefs about white privilege?
- RQ 3: How do educational psychologists think white privilege manifests within the educational psychology profession?
- RQ 4: How important do educational psychologists think it is to understand white privilege in their role, and why?

### **3.2.7 A Note on Positionality**

Before addressing these research questions, I first acknowledge my own privilege as a young, White, middle-class, female, cisgender trainee EP. I also view the EP role as having a responsibility to advocate for social justice and change. I recognise that my own positionality has inevitably shaped this research at each stage, from design, to analysis, to interpretation. It is my view that this research is itself conducted in the context of whiteness and through a lens of white privilege; a lens inevitably clouded by my own experiences and social identities. In recognition of this, from the beginning of this project I took several steps to actively develop my consciousness of different viewpoints and perspectives, including seeking other people's views

on the research proposal and analysis, and reading widely during the design stage. I realise that despite taking these steps, the limitations of my perspective make it unlikely this research will capture the full extent of the complex issues I hope to explore. However, I hope that the current research can still offer a meaningful contribution to the existing evidence-base, actively stimulate and maintain ongoing conversations on whiteness and endorse anti-racism in educational psychology practice.

### **3.3 Methods**

#### **3.3.1 Theoretical Underpinnings**

The researcher adopted an ontological position of critical realism, holding the view that white privilege is something that exists in the real world, however cannot be understood perfectly or with certainty (Barker et al., 2016; Moon & Blackman, 2014). The epistemological position taken by the researcher was of constructionism. This represents the view that knowledge and meaning is constructed through our interactions with the world around us (Crotty, 1998). Stemming from this, the decisions and actions taken were guided by the theoretical perspective of pragmatism, which recognises the various contexts (e.g., social, political etc.) within which research is situated and supports that multiple methods can be employed, providing they offer useful information or practical value (Creswell, 2018; Moon & Blackman, 2014)

#### **3.3.2 Design**

Due to the nature of the research questions, the researcher employed a convergent mixed methods design, which is when:

The researcher converges or merges quantitative and qualitative data in order to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem. In

this design, the investigator typically collects both forms of data at roughly the same time and then integrates the information in the interpretation of the overall results (Creswell, 2018, p. 27).

Closed questions and open-ended questions were incorporated within the same online survey, yielding quantitative and qualitative data. Quantitative and qualitative data were analysed separately and then integrated to answer the research questions. Although surveys have a history of being primarily quantitative in nature, the value of using survey methods for qualitative research is being increasingly recognised within the literature (Braun et al., 2021; Terry & Braun, 2017) and gathering both quantitative and qualitative data within a single data collection approach (survey) has been reported in previously published mixed methods research (e.g., Terry & Braun, 2013). This study used a fully mixed survey methodology, where “a qualitative framework may dominate, or the quantitative data might predominate, with qualitative data supporting, illustrating or expanding the quantitative evidence” (Terry & Braun, 2017, p. 18). Combining quantitative and qualitative approaches was considered advantageous as this would allow for triangulation, such that stronger inferences might be drawn from the data (Robson & McCartan, 2015).

An online survey was considered appropriate for answering the research questions for several reasons. Firstly, this allowed for a large number of responses to be collected, giving potential for a greater diversity of views and perspectives in an area that has previously been unexplored within this population. Secondly, online surveys offer participants a higher level of anonymity than other data collection methods such as face-to-face interviews

(Terry & Braun, 2017), which make them well-suited to sensitive topics such as white privilege, as this might encourage people who felt less confident expressing their views publicly to participate. On the other hand, this means an online survey carries a relative level of safety, for both the participants and the researcher. In an essentially anonymous survey, participants have the freedom to give quick, surface-level responses to the questions with no requirement to reflect more deeply. There was indeed a level of depth in the survey data, and many participants did give thoughtful responses. However, it is acknowledged on reflection that using an alternative data collection procedure, for example, face-to-face interviews, would have enabled the interviewer to ask probing and follow-up questions in a more intimate and exposing context. This may have resulted in even more vulnerable and introspective responses from participants.

Due to the exploratory nature of the research questions, a flexible research design (Robson & McCartan, 2015) was used. This means the design of the project was not fixed and evolved during the data collection phase. Prior to data collection, the researcher considered a two-phase sequential mixed methods design (Creswell, 2018) to answer the research questions, where the analysis from survey responses could be used to inform a semi-structured interview schedule. However, as recommended for flexible research designs involving qualitative data, the quality of the survey data was evaluated as it was collected (Robson & McCartan, 2015). Since the qualitative responses to the survey questions were more in-depth and varied than the researcher anticipated, within the practical constraints of the project

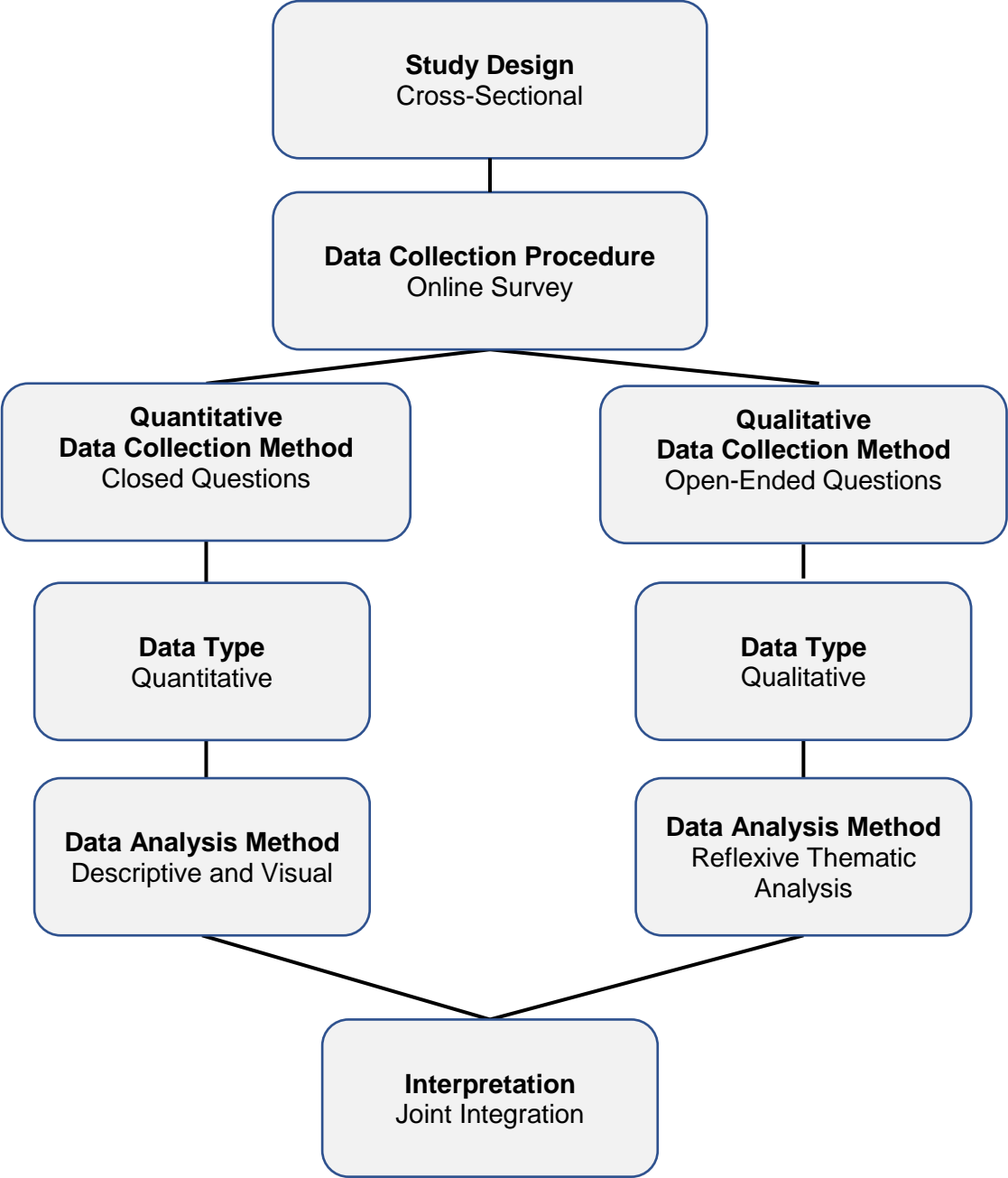


it was decided that the research questions would be best answered by a thorough and systematic analysis of the survey data alone.

Figure 3.1 shows a visual representation of the final research design. Table 3.1 outlines the four research questions and how these were addressed within the study.

**Figure 3.1**

*Research Design*



**Table 3.1***Research Questions and How They Were Answered*

Research Question	Closed Questions (Quantitative)	Open-Ended Questions (Qualitative)
RQ1: How do educational psychologists define 'white privilege'?	n/a	<b>Themes generated from qualitative responses</b>
RQ2: What are educational psychologists' beliefs about white privilege?	<b>Responses to the Privilege and Oppression Inventory</b>	n/a
RQ3: How do educational psychologists think white privilege manifests within the educational psychology profession?	Responses to Likert-scale questions	<b>Themes generated from qualitative responses</b>
RQ4: How important do educational psychologists think it is to understand white privilege in their role, and why?	EP responses to Likert scale questions	<b>Themes generated from qualitative responses</b>

*Note.* **Bold** text refers to the dominant data used in answering each research question

**3.3.3 Participants**

Participants were qualified EPs and trainee EPs in the UK, identified by a combination of purposive and snowball/network sampling (Barker et al., 2016; Robson & McCartan, 2015). The researcher used their judgement about how to reach a large number of people meeting the inclusion criteria, by advertising the research via public forums and by contacting individuals (e.g., Principal Educational Psychologists) who have the capability to share the research with a wider pool of potential participants. In the first wave of

recruitment, the researcher's placement supervisor forwarded the recruitment email (see Appendix E) to the National Association of Principal Educational Psychologists (NAPEP) mailing list, briefly outlining the research and requesting that the information sheet and survey link be distributed to any EPs or trainee EPs in their services. The inclusion criteria were clearly stated on the recruitment email and participant information sheet. At later stages, the recruitment email was also advertised through EPNET, an open forum for information-sharing relating to educational psychology practice. Additionally, educational psychology services and the Association of Child Psychologists in Private Practice (AChiPPP) were contacted directly. An independent psychologist from the organisation EdPsychEd (<https://www.edpsyched.co.uk/>) contacted the researcher directly and offered to advertise the research through their organisation's social media platforms and website blog (see Appendix F). Although the recruitment email was distributed widely, the recruitment strategy was reliant on individuals forwarding it on to members of their team, and then individuals volunteering to complete the survey. It was unknown to the researcher who chose to do this, and it is possible that people with stronger views about the topic of white privilege were more likely to participate or share the survey with their networks. This use of non-probability sampling methods (Robson & McCartan, 2015) therefore may have resulted in potential bias within the sample.

In 2019 there were 4,579 HCPC-registered EPs in the UK (HCPC, 2019). For a population of 5000, at 95% confidence intervals and a 10% margin of error, the recommended sample size is 95 (Raosoft, 2004). Guidance on qualitative

surveys suggests larger surveys may report over 100 responses (Braun et al., 2021). Therefore, a minimum of 100 respondents was aimed for. 186 people started the survey however only 101 of these went on to complete and submit their responses. This could have been due to the fact participants were required to answer each quantitative question to proceed. Although this requirement meant there was no missing data, it may have discouraged participants from continuing if they were uncertain on their responses. With respect to participants' right to withdraw, only completed and submitted survey responses were included within the final sample. Therefore, the final sample size was 101 participants. Demographic information on the final sample is shown in Table 3.2. For questions 7, 8 and 9, (geographical region, ethnicity, and gender), participants were given an open-ended 'other' option or the opportunity to self-describe. 83.17% of the sample described themselves as White. The variety of ways participants chose to describe their ethnicity is displayed in full in Appendix G.

**Table 3.2**

*Participant Demographics*

Characteristic	Option	Frequency	Percentage
Age Range	Up to 24 years	2	1.98
	25 – 34 years	37	36.63
	35 – 44 years	29	28.71
	45 – 54 years	19	18.81
	55 – 64 years	12	11.88
	65 – 74 years	2	1.98
	75+ years	0	0

Geographical Region	London	25	24.75
	Midlands and Eastern England	13	12.87
	North England	21	20.79
	South England	39	38.61
	Northern Ireland	0	0
	Scotland	1	0.99
	Wales	2	1.98
Gender	Male (including transgender men)	15	14.85
	Female (including transgender women)	83	82.18
	Prefer to self-describe	1	0.99
	Prefer not to say	2	1.98
Engagement with material related to race, racism, antiracism or privilege (in last 6 months)	Daily	7	6.93
	Several times per week	15	14.85
	Weekly	15	14.85
	Fortnightly	21	20.79
	Monthly	28	27.72
	Once every few months	14	13.86
	Never	1	0.99

### **3.3.4 Procedure**

The online survey was carried out on the UCL-approved online platform Opinio (ObjectPlanet, 2022). The front page of the survey gave its title, with a link to the participant information sheet. It then displayed a bullet pointed list of the statements the participant was consenting to by pressing 'Start'. The survey contained a total of nine questions and took no longer than 20 minutes to complete, although participants could choose to spend longer on the open-ended questions if they wished. Demographic questions were placed at the end of the survey. Due to the sensitive nature of the topic and the fact it was gathering personal views, it was considered less intrusive to gather participants' personal data after they had seen the nature of the questions. An orientation statement was also included to explain why the demographic information was being gathered. To further avoid alienating participants, they could choose to skip each demographic question or select a 'prefer not to say' option (Dobosh, 2017).

At the end of the survey, participants were thanked for their time and given the opportunity to revisit the information sheet. User experience was considered important to encourage participants to complete the full survey. Therefore, each question was presented on a separate page, with a progress bar indicating what percentage had been completed and how much was left. The final survey can be found in Appendix H. The survey was first advertised on 26<sup>th</sup> November 2021 and closed on 30<sup>th</sup> June 2022.

### **3.3.5 Measures**

Survey questions were a combination of those developed by the researcher and questions from previously validated measures, with adaptations where

necessary after piloting. Likert scales and open-ended questions provided opportunities for EPs to express their views regarding RQ1, RQ3 and RQ4. Beliefs about white privilege (RQ2) were explored using questions adapted from the 'White Privilege Awareness' (WPA) subscale of the Privilege and Oppression Inventory (POI) (Hays et al., 2007). The WPA subscale consists of 13 items, for example 'Being white and having an advantage go hand in hand'. Participants rated their responses to each item on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 'Strongly Disagree' (1) to 'Strongly Agree' (5). One item was reverse scored. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis previously revealed adequate internal consistency ( $\alpha = 0.92$ ) and test-retest reliability (0.89) for this measure. The authors report that the whole scale also has significant correlations with validated measures, indicating convergent validity (Hays et al., 2007). In the current study, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was 0.89. The full survey was piloted within a research support group of two experienced researchers and two trainee EPs. Minor amendments were made to the questions based on the feedback gathered. These amendments are outlined with rationale in Appendix I.

### **3.3.6 Data Analysis**

Visual and descriptive analysis was employed for the quantitative data from the survey, as this allowed for clear communication and interpretation of the key messages (Howell, 2011). Qualitative data were analysed by engaging with the process of reflexive thematic analysis (Braun et al., 2021; Braun & Clarke, 2006, 2013, 2019). 'Thematic analysis' encompasses a range of qualitative analysis approaches. Reflexive thematic analysis was chosen as this centres the subjectivity of the researcher in the analysis process.



Data were coded inductively, with themes generated which strongly linked to the data itself (Braun & Clarke, 2006). However, it is acknowledged that coding will not have been purely inductive, as a researcher cannot fully separate themselves from their own theoretical understanding and background reading on the topic. For example, some of the language and terminology chosen when generating codes and naming themes such as 'systemic', 'intersections' and 'cultural competence' may have been influenced by my own familiarity with these terms having come across them repeatedly throughout my training, and in my background reading on literature related to white privilege and educational psychology practice more widely.

### **3.3.7 Dependability and Credibility**

Due to the anonymous nature of the data, it was not possible to gather participants' reflections and feedback on the findings. Moreover, as the subjectivity of interpretation is considered fundamental to reflexive thematic analysis, inter-coder reliability checks were not considered appropriate, as this infers a more positivist perspective and implies that themes were pre-existing in the data and waiting to be identified, rather than developed through reflexive engagement with the data (Braun & Clarke, 2016). To increase credibility, the researcher discussed the developing themes and thematic map with trainee EP colleagues and members of the research team throughout the process to challenge her thinking and reasoning. Although this was not a participatory research project, some principles of participatory research were incorporated by involving members of the relevant population in the research process at two points in time (Cargo & Mercer, 2008).

Feedback and views were gathered at both the design stage (July 2021) and following analysis (December 2022), during two UCL Educational Psychology Group Equality Diversity and Inclusion Discussion Forum meetings. The aims, remit and composition of this group is summarised in Appendix J. A few changes were made to the research proposal based on feedback gathered during the first discussion forum. In the second discussion forum, the group expressed that the thematic maps were easy to follow and no changes to the analysis were recommended. Input from the forum therefore helped conceptualise and shape the research and supported reflection on the findings. Records from both discussions of the feedback gathered and any changes made based on this feedback are shown in Appendix K.

The researcher also aimed for increased dependability and credibility by: thoroughly reporting the research design, data collection and analysis procedures; clearly stating the philosophical and theoretical stance taken; and maintaining a reflexive stance throughout. Methodological triangulation (combination of quantitative and qualitative methods) is considered another way of increasing the validity of flexible research designs (Robson & McCartan, 2015).

### **3.3.8 Ethical Considerations**

A number of ethical issues were considered throughout the study. These are summarised in Table 3.3.

Ethical approval was received in November 2021 from the UCL Research Ethics Committee, approval ID number: 21267/002. The official letter of ethical approval can be found in Appendix L. An ethics amendment was granted in March 2022 for an element of the design (semi-structured

interviews) to be removed. Approval of this amendment is evidenced in Appendix M.

**Table 3.3**

*Ethical Considerations*

Ethical Issue	Considerations
Informed Consent	Participants were directed to read the participant information sheet (Appendix N) in full before starting the online survey. This information sheet clearly stated that by submitting the online survey, participants were consenting to the study, and this was reiterated again on the survey introduction page (see Appendix H). Participants were given several opportunities to refer to the participant information sheet before starting the survey, and then again before submitting it.
Potential for Distress	In recent years white privilege has arisen in political discussions and appeared in emotive headlines in mainstream media (e.g., Morris, 2021; Murray, 2020). Participants were asked about their views on white privilege which could therefore be considered a controversial and sensitive topic. Although this was considered unlikely to cause any distress, the ethical implications of the empirical link between discussions of white privilege and negative feelings such as guilt, shame and anger in participants (Leach et al., 2006; Swim & Miller, 1999) was considered. To mitigate this risk, the information sheet outlined the potential for uncomfortable feelings and informed the participants of the option to contact the researcher following participation to discuss these feelings confidentially. Further resources to support mental health were also signposted in the participant information sheet (see Appendix N).
Right to withdraw	The participant information sheet clearly stated that due to the anonymous nature of the survey data, it would not be possible to withdraw an individual's data once their responses were submitted. However, until the survey was

submitted, participants could withdraw from the study simply by closing their internet browser. Participants were assured that they did not need to give a reason for withdrawing from the study and that there would be no penalty to them for doing so.

#### Research in the workplace

As potential participants included the researcher's own colleagues, supervisors and peers, it was important that they did not feel pressured to participate due to knowing the researcher personally or professionally. Otherwise, this could be considered coercion. To mitigate the risks of this, the researcher avoided approaching colleagues to participate directly and participants were instead recruited via their organisations, although colleagues were encouraged to share the survey with EP contacts if this was something they felt comfortable doing. In the event colleagues did discuss personal participation with the researcher, they were reassured that participation was voluntary.

#### Data Protection

The collection of personal data was minimised as much as possible. Participants gave background information on their age range, gender, broad geographical location, and ethnicity. However, for each of these questions they could choose a 'Prefer not to say' option or leave these blank. Participants were not required to give any identifying data (e.g., name, contact details). There is a slight chance an individual could be identified through jigsaw identification, if they had a unique combination of demographic characteristics. However, as data were analysed at the level of the whole data set rather than at a participant-by-participant level, there was no way of tracing responses back to an individual's demographics. Therefore, the data can in practice be considered anonymous.

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### 3.4 Results

Quantitative results relating to RQ2, RQ3 and RQ4 are presented first. The qualitative results from two thematic analyses are then presented sequentially, with the first thematic analysis relating to RQ1 and the second thematic analysis relating to RQ3 and RQ4. Finally, quantitative and qualitative results are integrated in a joint display and interpreted to offer more complete answers to RQ3 and RQ4.

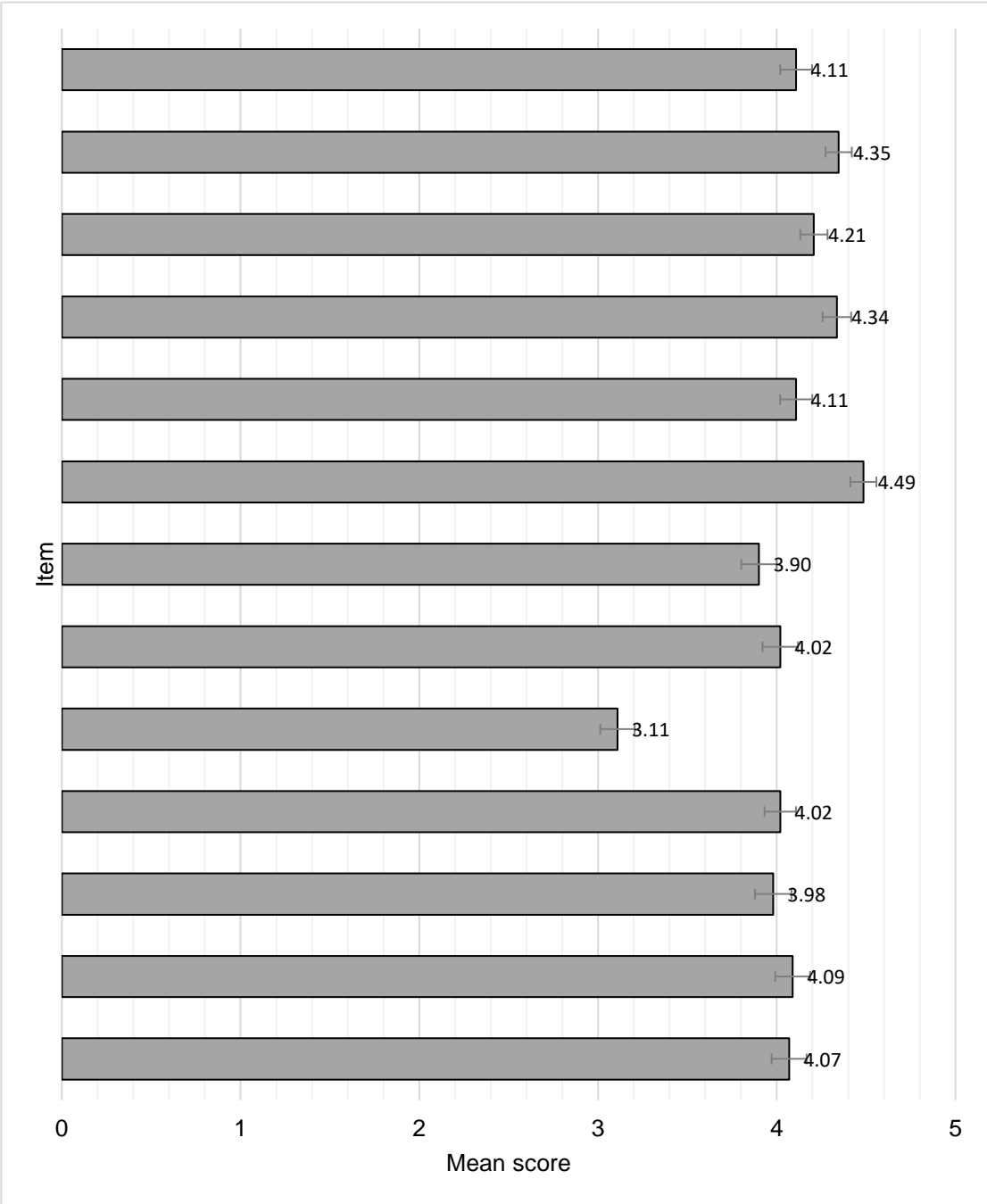
#### 3.4.1 Quantitative Results

*RQ2: What are Educational Psychologists' Beliefs about White Privilege?*

Participants completed the adapted WPA subscale of the POI (Hays et al., 2007). Each participant's score was calculated as the mean score across all 13 items. Possible scores ranged from 1-5, with higher scores indicating greater awareness of white privilege. The lowest participant score was 1.46, while the highest was 5. Overall, participants demonstrated a high awareness of white privilege ( $M = 4.06$ ,  $SD = 0.95$ ). The item which received the most agreement from participants was 'There are benefits to being white in this society' ( $M = 4.49$ ,  $SD = 0.73$ ), while the statement 'Most white high-level executives are promoted based on their race' received the least agreement ( $M = 3.11$ ,  $SD = 0.97$ ), with a high proportion of respondents neither agreeing nor disagreeing. The mean score for each question of the WPA subscale is shown in Figure 3.2, and the distribution of responses across each question is displayed in Figure 3.3. Full responses to the WPA subscale can be found in Appendix O.

**Figure 3.2**

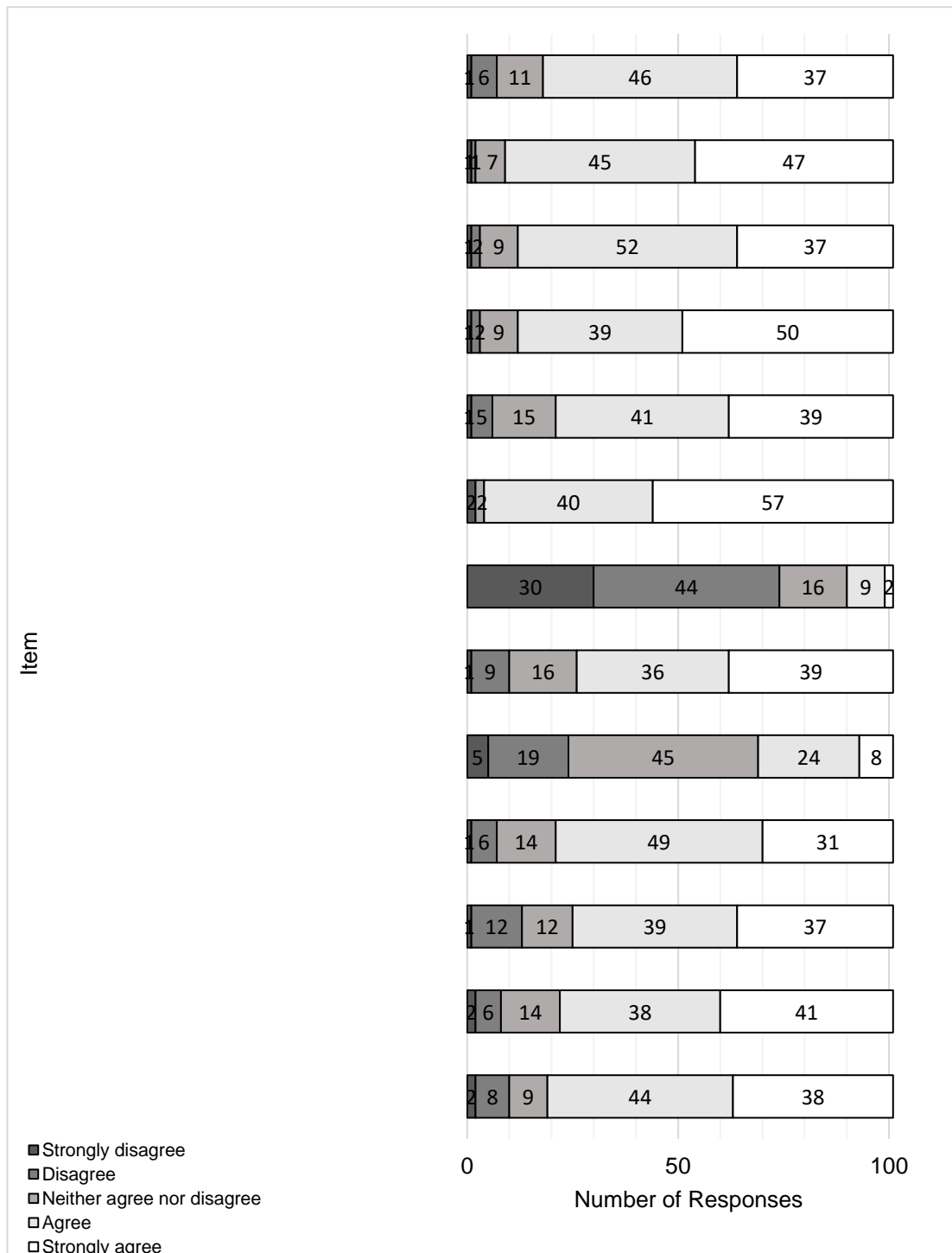
*Mean Score for Each Item on the POI's WPA Subscale*



*Note.* Items removed for copyright purposes. Error bars represent the standard error

**Figure 3.3**

*Spread of Participants' Responses to Each Item of the POI's WPA Subscale (n = 101)*



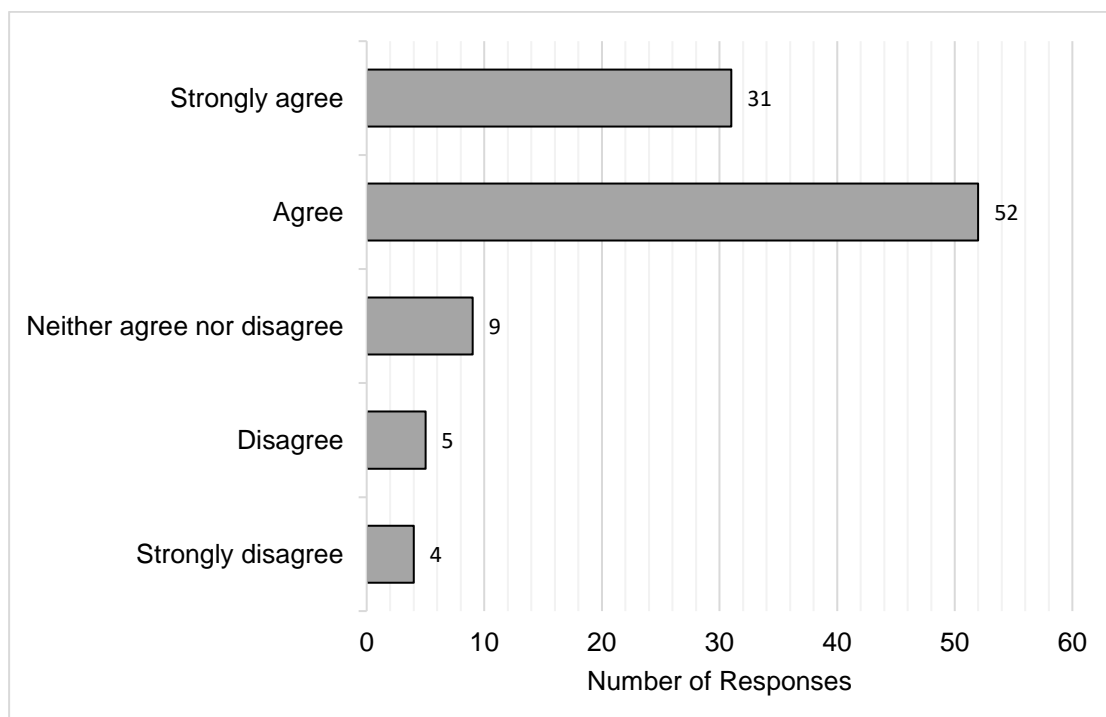
Note. Items removed for copyright purposes

*RQ3: How do Educational Psychologists Think White Privilege Manifests Within the Educational Psychology Profession?*

Participants were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed with the statement 'I think there is evidence that white privilege manifests within the Educational Psychology profession'. 51.49% of participants agreed with this statement, while a further 30.69% strongly agreed. 8.91% indicated neutrality or uncertainty, while 4.95% and 3.96% of participants disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively. The responses to this question are displayed visually in Figure 3.4.

**Figure 3.4**

*Frequency Counts Showing the Extent to Which Participants Agreed With the Statement 'I Think There is Evidence That White Privilege Manifests Within the Educational Psychology Profession' (n = 101)*



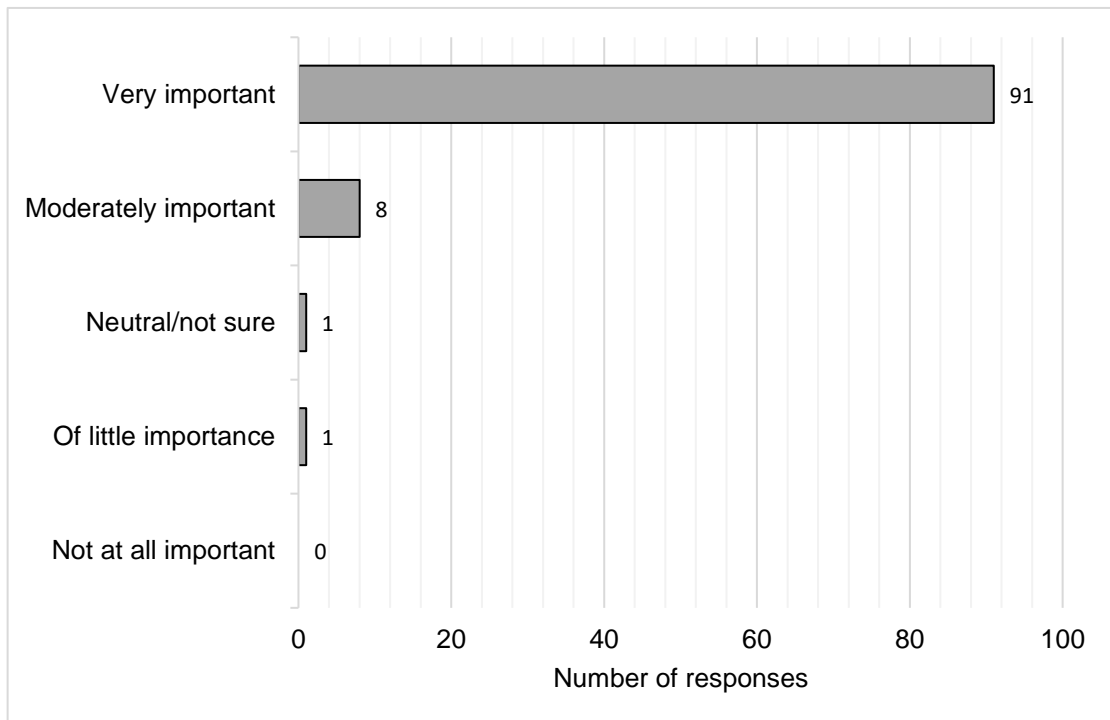


*RQ4: How Important do Educational Psychologists Think it is to Understand White Privilege in Their Role, and why?*

Finally, participants were asked to rate how important they think it is for EPs to understand white privilege. 90.1% of participants reported that they think it is very important for EPs to understand white privilege, while a further 7.92% answered that this is moderately important. Only one participant indicated that it is of little importance and one participant indicated neutrality or uncertainty. No participants responded that this is not at all important. The responses to this question are displayed visually in Figure 3.5.

**Figure 3.5**

*Frequency Counts Showing how Important Participants Think it is for Educational Psychologists to Understand White Privilege (n = 101)*



### **3.4.2 Qualitative Results**

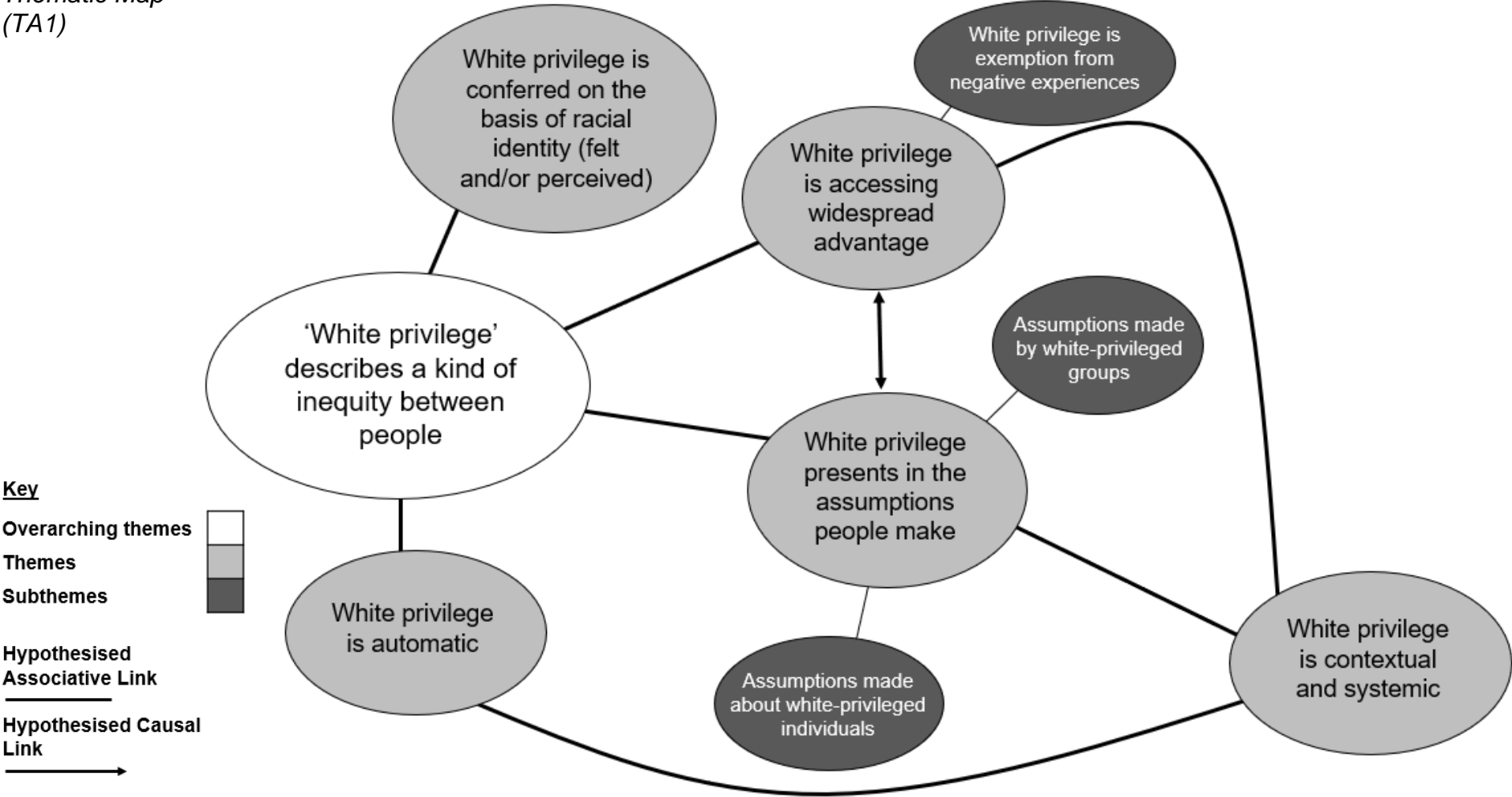
Two separate thematic analyses were carried out. The researcher decided that in answering RQ1, using responses to survey question one, a more descriptive approach to coding would be appropriate, whereas RQ3 and RQ4 would benefit from a combination of both semantic and latent coding, with a greater interpretative element applied to data from survey questions three and four. The researcher engaged with the six stages of reflexive thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Progression through the stages was non-linear and carried out over time. A description of each stage of the thematic analysis and an audit trail is displayed in Appendix P.

#### *3.4.2.1 Thematic Analysis 1 (TA1) – RQ1*

Five themes were developed in TA1. These were organised under one overarching theme, one central organising concept: that white privilege describes a kind of inequity between people. A thematic map for TA1 is displayed in Figure 3.6, which also displays hypothesised links between themes. An overview of themes and codes for TA1 can be found in Appendix Q.

**Figure 3.6**

*Thematic Map  
(TA1)*



**Theme 1: White Privilege is accessing widespread advantage**

This theme encapsulated the ubiquitous nature of white privilege, experienced across multiple levels and aspects of life. Participants described how white privilege refers to positive internal feelings and experiences, such as greater feelings of safety and a greater sense of belonging, as well as external advantages, such as experiences of preferential treatment and increased access to opportunities and resources. Within this theme, white privilege was understood to not only mean additional access to positive benefits but also exemption from negative experiences, such as the freedom of not experiencing racial stereotyping, discrimination and oppression. Examples of quotes illustrating this theme are displayed in Table 3.4.

**Table 3.4**

*Quotes From TA1 Theme 1*

Subtheme	Participant	Quote
n/a	P17	“The sum of the experiences of white people that give them a head start in life due to the ways in which the dominant culture and power structures assumes 'whiteness' and 'white experience' as a norm/ideal. This can include simply the fact of having white skin that "fits in", but also embraces cultural aspects such as an assumption of shared experience (e.g., Christmas, 'typical' family holidays, cultural knowledge); privileging of 'white' activities (e.g., violin good; steel drums less good...); access to mentors/role models who understand the system etc.; just the fact of feeling a sense of belonging in white-dominated environments. And then add on all the economic/housing/employment stuff for good measure.”
	P27	“White privilege impacts on all realms of life, from an individual to a systemic level e.g. level of feeling safe when walking down the street, accessing job opportunities, being listened to,

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		the difference in how an organisation led by a majority of white employees vs a black business might succeed in business.”
White privilege is exemption from negative experiences	P49	“This means not having to face barriers due to individual and structural racism, including negative assumptions, employment inequalities, access to resources and services”

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**Theme 2: White privilege is conferred on the basis of racial identity (felt and/or perceived)**

This theme described the perception that white privilege is connected with a specific aspect of social identity. Respondents used a number of different terms to describe this aspect of identity, upon which they felt white privilege is based, including White ethnicity, light or white skin, colour, race, and culture. This theme included the notion that individuals who hold white privilege can still experience discrimination on the basis of other aspects of their identity (e.g., class-based discrimination), and many respondents conceived white privilege relatively, defining it in the context of comparing White people with their counterparts of the Global Majority. Crucially, this theme captured how white privilege can subsist on the basis of how one is perceived by others. For example, several participants used the term ‘white passing’ suggesting white privilege can relate to one’s perceived, as well as felt, identity. Examples of quotes illustrating this theme are displayed in Table 3.5.

**Table 3.5***Quotes From TA1 Theme 2*

Subtheme	Participant	Quote
n/a	P10	“Freedoms enjoyed as a function of belonging, or being assumed to belong, to a particular race or ethnic group, who are often considered to be in the majority or to have the most power in a society.”
n/a	P40	“White people may face discrimination against other protected characteristics they have, but their skin colour is not one of them.”

**Theme 3: White privilege is automatic**

This theme captures the view that white privilege prevails whether at an individual level one chooses it or not. White privilege is not earned and may not be intentionally sought, rather, it exists inherently. Participants offered the view that, due to the automatic and ingrained nature of white privilege, it is quite possible that someone who benefits from white privilege may be oblivious to it. This notion that white privilege can be unconscious surfaced repeatedly throughout the data set. Examples of quotes illustrating this theme are displayed in Table 3.6.

**Table 3.6***Quotes From TA1 Theme 3*

Subtheme	Participant	Quote
n/a	P37	“Inherent advantages bestowed upon white individuals purely on the basis of their skin colour, whether sought or not”
n/a	P27	“The person 'holding' and using their power and privilege may not always be consciously aware of this (and likely most often people are not consciously aware of this and may deny they have this).”

#### **Theme 4: White privilege presents in the assumptions people make**

Theme 4 is organised around the central organising concept that white privilege is evident in assumptions, including both the assumptions made by white-privileged individuals, and the assumptions made about white-privileged individuals. There was the perception that white privilege is evident in privileged individuals through assumptions of superiority, assumptions that other people will have similar experiences or perspectives, and feelings of entitlement to better resources or treatment. On the other hand, more positive assumptions and expectations may also be held regarding white-privileged individuals, for example assumptions about innocence, intelligence, and ability. Examples of quotes illustrating this theme are displayed in Table 3.7.

**Table 3.7**

*Quotes From TA1 Theme 4*

Subtheme	Participant	Quote
Assumptions made by white privileged groups	P9	“The feeling that by being White one is better or best and therefore should be provided with, have access to and be given the best in terms of resources and treatment by others, in life.”
Assumptions made about white-privileged individuals	P85	“This could be in the form of (being) presumed innocent”

### **Theme 5: White privilege is contextual and systemic**

This theme encapsulates the idea that white privilege does not exist in a vacuum. Participants acknowledged the historical context including that of colonialism and slavery as well as the socio-cultural context within which white privilege exists. Moreover, multiple participants identified white privilege to be upheld by systems and a consequence of systemic racism. Examples of quotes illustrating this theme are displayed in Table 3.8.

**Table 3.8**

*Quotes From TA1 Theme 5*

Subtheme	Participant	Quote
n/a	P73	“a system which upholds white people in positions of power, and enables white people to remain as the dominant group within society. This means that if you are white you are not perceived to be 'other' within a Eurocentric society.”
n/a	P31	“My understanding of white privilege is that it is a socially constructed phenomena connected to institutional racism”

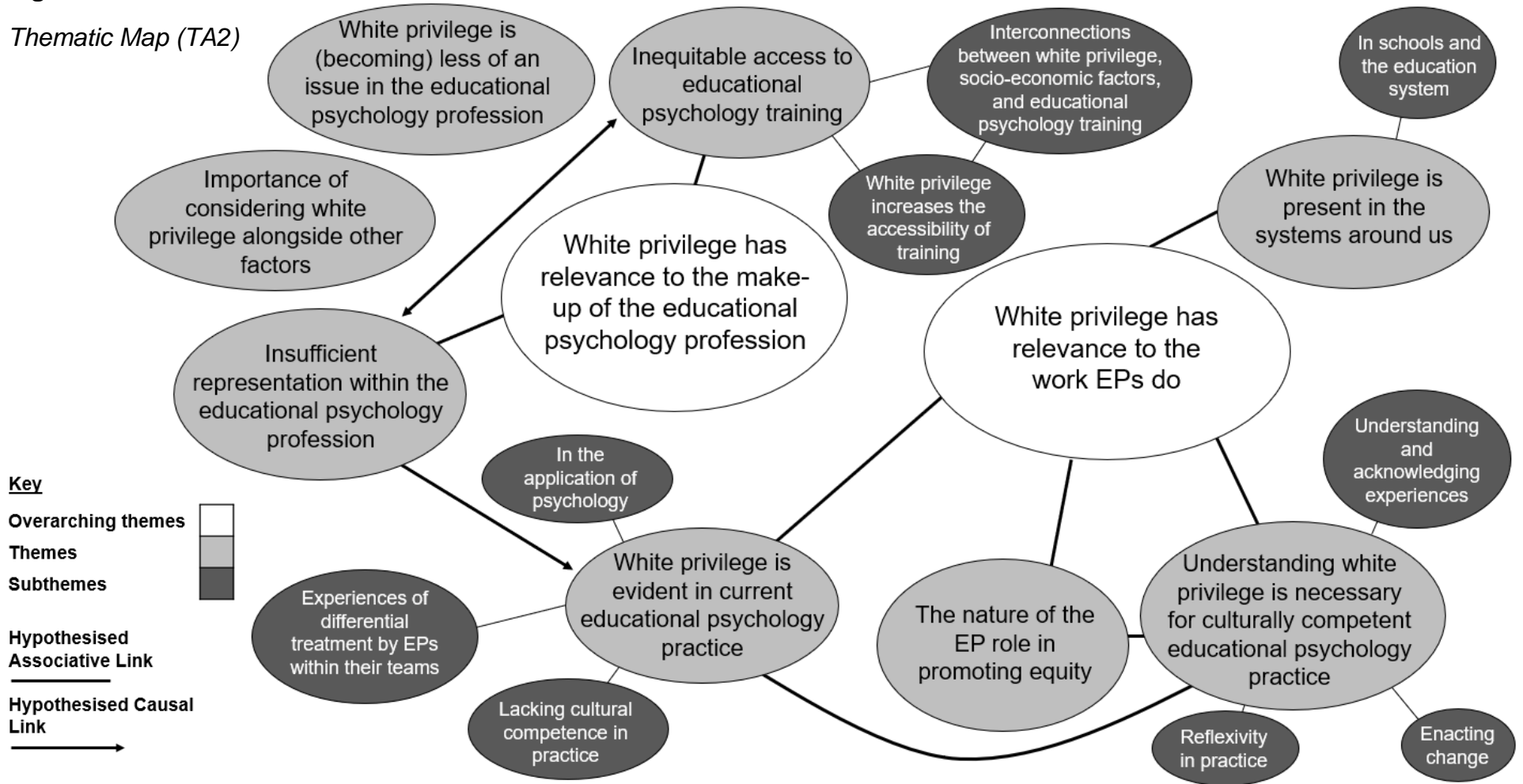
#### *3.4.2.2 Thematic Analysis 2 (TA2) – RQ3 and RQ4*

Eight themes were developed in TA2. These were organised under two overarching themes: white privilege has relevance to the make-up of the educational psychology profession; and white privilege has relevance to the work EPs do. The organisation of these themes is illustrated by a thematic map in Figure 3.7, which also displays hypothesised links between themes. An overview of themes and codes for TA2 can be found in Appendix R.



**Figure 3.7**

*Thematic Map (TA2)*



## Theme 1 – Inequitable access to educational psychology training

This theme captures the view that educational psychology training is more accessible to those who hold white privilege. Participants suggested that the impact of this is felt prior to training, due in part to the high educational requirements and academic demands of the course, and the experiences required to gain a place in a competitive application process. A second subtheme within this was that there are interconnections between white privilege, socio-economic factors and access to educational psychology training. Respondents offered the view that the training bursary is low, therefore completing the training requires considerable financial support and/or stability. Additionally, access to training is increased by having social capital, networks and social connection to the educational psychology world. Respondents explicitly stated and implied that white privilege is linked with these socio-economic factors, which in turn increase accessibility to educational psychology training. Examples of quotes illustrating this theme are displayed in Table 3.9.

**Table 3.9**

*Quotes From TA2 Theme 1*

Subtheme	Participant	Quote
White privilege increases the accessibility of training	P24	“Thinking about doctoral training programmes - I feel it is easier for white people to access opportunities or gain experience needed in order to become attractive candidates for training.”
Interconnections between white privilege, socio-economic factors, and educational psychology training	P89	“Low pay on (the) TEP course means people from lower SES status, of which Black, Asian and Minority Ethnic communities are more likely to be, may not be able to afford to train.”

## **Theme 2 – Insufficient representation within the educational psychology profession**

A causal link can be hypothesised between this and theme one, whereby inequitable access to educational psychology training is contributing to the perceived insufficient representation noticed by participants within the profession. This theme captured the view that, in participants' experience, the majority of EPs are White, and the view that White people are overrepresented within the profession, while PGM are underrepresented. A lack of diversity was noted across the entire profession, from training cohorts to leadership positions. This means that there is consequently a lack of role models for aspiring EPs of the Global Majority, and given the diverse client groups EPs work with, the educational psychology profession is therefore not representative of the communities they serve. Examples of quotes illustrating this theme are displayed in Table 3.10.

**Table 3.10**

*Quotes From TA2 Theme 2*

Subtheme	Participant	Quote
n/a	P61	"The profession is dominated by white psychologists, consequently there are fewer Black, Asian and minority ethnic role models for CYP to aspire to."
n/a	P22	"White people are over-represented in the profession, including in areas where a high proportion of clients are from ethnic minorities"

### Theme 3 – White privilege is present in the systems around us

Participants acknowledged that EPs work with and within systems, and a salient subtheme within this was the perception that white privilege is evident within schools and the education system, thereby implicating EPs as they work closely with these systems. Some participants expressed that they have noticed white privilege manifesting in the referrals they receive, and in the way different children's needs are perceived by schools, as well as in statistics on exclusion rates and academic outcomes. As well as schools and the education system, participants noted that white privilege has relevance to the work of EPs due to its presence as a reflection of wider society, and in the systems (e.g., the BPS) that set the professional standards EPs adhere to. Examples of quotes illustrating this theme are displayed in Table 3.11.

**Table 3.11**

*Quotes From TA2 Theme 3*

Subtheme	Participant	Quote
n/a	P86	"Racism is so embedded in society and its impact is significant on everyone; particularly people who are not white, naturally. Systemic work is completed by EPs; systems are imbued with white privilege."
In schools and the education system	P8	"I've also noticed the difference in the way white and non-white children and families are discussed by schools which impacts on the work we are commissioned to do. White children are more likely to be seen as suffering from difficulties which impact on their behaviour whereas non-white children are seen as naughty, with bad parents who don't set boundaries."

## **Theme 4 – White privilege is evident in current educational psychology practice**

This theme captured the perception that white privilege manifests in how EPs are currently practising. Many participants wrote about how white privilege is evident in how psychology is applied to practice, for example in the use of culturally biased assessment tools and the dominance of Eurocentric psychological theories and research applied to practice, generalising these to all children and young people. For example, one participant wrote “Research that’s all about white children is about all children; research that’s all about children of colour is just about children of colour.” Additionally, some participants expressed the view that many EPs lack cultural competence within their practice, through a lack of consideration and awareness of cultural and race-based issues. There was a perception that many EPs hold unconscious bias and stereotypical views. A few participants highlighted this by describing how they had either witnessed differential treatment of PGM within their teams or directly experienced discrimination themselves within the profession. Examples of quotes illustrating this theme are displayed in Table 3.12.

**Table 3.12**

*Quotes From TA2 Theme 4*

Subtheme	Participant	Quote
In the application of psychology	P43	“Despite efforts in reform and reconstruction, the default, primary, repeated focus within applied educational psychology is the individual child. Artefacts produced by educational psychology services, such as consultation record forms which often have 'name of the child' or 'name of child/ issue' at the top, reveal

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		<p>this assumption. However, the belief that an individual child is the most suitable level of focus where difficulties with learning, or emotions and social interaction occur, is specific to and privileged within white, Western perspectives.”</p>
Lacking cultural competence in practice	P52	<p>“White EPs fail to consider culture and racism in our formulations because we have had the privilege of never really needing to think about these.”</p>
Experiences of differential treatment by EPs within teams	P60	<p>“I feel the best example is what white EPs have done to me as a non-white person, i.e., bullied and facilitated bullying with no fear of consequence or consideration of ethics or morals. It is unspoken that white EPs do not have to answer for their actions. Justice, inclusion and support are privileges afforded to white people not people of colour. If they can do this to me, a fellow professional, how would it impact CYP and their families?”</p>

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**Theme 5 – Understanding white privilege is necessary for culturally competent educational psychology practice**

Closely linked to theme four, came through the central idea that understanding white privilege is necessary for developing as a more culturally competent practitioner. A key subtheme within this was that understanding white privilege is part of being a reflexive EP; understanding and examining one’s own beliefs, assumptions and perspectives. Participants expressed the view that by understanding white privilege, EPs can reflect on its impact on their practice and their interactions with clients. Similarly, understanding white privilege is important for interrogating one’s own bias and the lens through which they conduct their practice. A second salient subtheme was the perception that understanding white privilege is necessary

for better understanding the experiences of others, including colleagues, whose journeys to becoming an EP may have looked different as a result of (or a lack of) white privilege, as well as the client groups that EPs work with. There was a perception that to practice competently and effectively, EPs need an understanding of all factors that may contribute to a client's experiences, including white privilege. A final subtheme within this central theme was the view that understanding white privilege is a necessary step in promoting positive change, including promoting change within the schools and systems EPs support, in increasing the diversity within the profession itself, in challenging white privilege and in working towards anti-racist educational psychology practice. Examples of quotes illustrating this theme are displayed in Table 3.13.

**Table 3.13**

*Quotes From TA2 Theme 5*

Subtheme	Participant	Quote
Reflexivity in practice	P40	“(It is) essential that we understand our own biases and privilege, that has enabled us to be in the positions of power and authority we are in, and how these impact on our values and work”
Understanding and acknowledging experiences	P94	“It’s also important to acknowledge that racism is experienced by some groups and not others, and to be aware of the specific trauma this can cause, especially as it relates to learning and emotional well-being.”
Enacting change	P38	“...to be able to practice in an anti-racist way, including challenging racist assumptions in consultations and considering issues of power and intersectionality in our formulations”

## **Theme 6 – The nature of the EP role in promoting equity**

This theme told the story of the EP role in promoting equity. Some participants offered the view that EPs have a responsibility for promoting social justice, and for advocating for children, young people and others.

There was a perception that by the very nature of their role, EPs are implicated in issues of equity, diversity and inclusion. EPs were also perceived by participants to hold positions of influence, making them ideally placed to engage with and challenge issues such as white privilege.

Examples of quotes illustrating this theme are displayed in Table 3.14.

**Table 3.14**

*Quotes From TA2 Theme 6*

Subtheme	Participant	Quote
n/a	P93	“EPs have a powerful role in being advocates for social justice.”
n/a	P59	“There is a growing recognition that all roles need to have an understanding of white privilege in order to combat unconscious bias. EPs are no different, and with our role in supporting access to education and inclusion in schools it is perhaps even more important that we are both reflective of our own bias and a strong voice in helping others understand white privilege.”

## **Theme 7 – White privilege is (becoming) less of an issue in the educational psychology profession**

This theme acknowledges and captures some of the diversity of views within the data set. While the previously described themes in TA2 overall reflect the



view that white privilege does manifest in educational psychology practice, this theme highlights the perceptions of some participants that white privilege is (becoming) less of an issue within the educational psychology profession. Some participants expressed the view that, although white privilege has relevance historically to the profession, this is gradually changing, and diversity within the profession in their view is increasing. There were perceptions that EPs are trained in and aware of issues such as white privilege, and a couple of participants quoted recent survey evidence from the Association of Educational Psychologists (AEP) which they argued does not support the view discussed in theme 1, that there is inequitable access to educational psychology training on the basis of ethnicity (AEP, 2021). Examples of quotes illustrating this theme are displayed in Table 3.15.

**Table 3.15**

*Quotes From TA2 Theme 7*

Subtheme	Participant	Quote
n/a	P13	“(A) few years ago I would have agreed with this statement due to the biases noticed in the recruiting of TEPs onto courses where most, if not all, were white doctorate students in universities countrywide. However more recently in the last 5 years there has been noticeable change and we are seeing TEPS from a range of backgrounds other than white.”
n/a	P32	“AEP evidence suggests no bias or privilege in relation to training applications/places. Personal experience suggests those who are non-white EPs do very well, are well respected and some are in leadership positions.”

**Theme 8 – Importance of considering white privilege alongside other factors**

Not dissimilar to theme 7, this theme tells the story of taking a balanced and holistic perspective; the perception that EPs should not narrow their focus only on white privilege but should consider white privilege alongside a myriad of other factors. Some participants expressed wariness around focusing only on the concept of white privilege, for example one participant noted “Although we have talked a lot about white privilege over the past few years, I wonder whether this further excludes/others BAME (Black, Asian and minority ethnic) EPs from the conversation”. Additionally, some participants offered the view that white privilege is one of many issues that EPs need to be aware of. There was the perception that it is important to also consider factors such as gender, class and geography, and how these other factors should not be overlooked. Further examples of quotes illustrating this theme are displayed in Table 3.16.

**Table 3.16**  
*Quotes From TA2 Theme 8*

Subtheme	Participant	Quote
n/a	P53	“I think it is crucial for EPs to be conscious of all potential inequalities and diverse needs and experiences and what they might mean for the individuals and groups we support and work alongside and to constantly reflect on their own values and practice to combat discrimination. I don't believe that embracing the notion of white privilege is the best or only way to do so. The vast majority of children and families I have the privilege to work with are from multiply disadvantaged white backgrounds. I do not accept that they are privileged in a way that is meaningful in

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		the context of their lived experience. As an academic theory I believe CRT is useful alongside other frameworks for thinking deeply about the way our society is structured and how we can move towards greater equality. I think EPs should have an awareness of how perilous it is to embrace any single theory and apply it in the real world.”
n/a	P52	“We need to also have an understanding of white supremacy and how this has impacted the theories we draw on every day.”

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### 3.4.3 Integration of Quantitative and Qualitative Analyses

In convergent mixed methods studies, it is recommended that the different information gathered is integrated together through side-by-side comparison, data transformation or in a joint display of the data (Creswell, 2018). For RQ3 and RQ4, results from the quantitative and qualitative analyses were integrated in a joint display of the data to answer each research question. This joint display is presented in Table 3.17. The findings were integrated to identify points of convergence and divergence, and ways in which the qualitative data built on the quantitative results to provide a more complete answer to each research question.

**Table 3.17***Integration of Quantitative and Qualitative Findings*

Research Question	Quantitative Results	Qualitative Results	Interpretation
<b>RQ3:</b> How do educational psychologists think white privilege manifests within the educational psychology profession?	The quantitative results to survey question three indicated that the majority of participants (82.18%) either agreed or strongly agreed that, in their view, white privilege manifests within the educational psychology profession. A further 8.91% gave neutral responses, while 8.91% disagreed or strongly disagreed.	Relevant themes from TA2: <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Insufficient representation within the educational psychology profession</li><li>• Inequitable access to educational psychology training</li><li>• White privilege is present in the systems around us</li><li>• White privilege is evident in current educational psychology practice</li><li>• White privilege is (becoming) less of an issue in the educational psychology profession</li></ul>	The qualitative data complemented and expanded on the quantitative data by illustrating the reasons why EPs think white privilege does or does not manifest in the educational psychology profession. The first four relevant themes arguably correspond to the majority view in the quantitative data that white privilege does manifest within the educational psychology profession. The final theme offers an alternative viewpoint that may resonate more with the minority of participants who disagreed that white privilege manifests within the profession.

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**RQ4:** How important do educational psychologists think it is to understand white privilege in their role, and why?

90.1% of participants stated that, in their view, it is very important for EPs to understand white privilege. A further 7.92% stated that this is moderately important, 0.99% stated it is of little importance or indicated neutrality, while no participants indicated it is not at all important.

Relevant themes from TA2:

- The nature of the EP role in promoting equity
- Understanding white privilege is necessary for culturally competent educational psychology practice
- Importance of considering white privilege alongside other factors

The qualitative data built on the quantitative data to answer the research question by explaining why participants think it is (or is not) important for EPs to understand white privilege in their role. The high agreement by participants in the quantitative data is arguably reflected by a high level of coherence between the relevant themes. The first two themes strongly support the notion that it is important for EPs to understand white privilege. The final relevant theme also corroborates this notion while also tentatively cautioning the importance of taking a holistic view when considering white privilege.

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## **3.5 Discussion**

### **3.5.1 Introduction**

In the following discussion, the results will be interpreted according to each research question in turn, with a focus on relating findings to the existing literature. Study limitations, recommendations for future research and implications for practice will then be discussed.

### **3.5.2 RQ1: How do Educational Psychologists Define ‘White Privilege’?**

While each participant defined white privilege differently, with some people drawing on examples to illustrate their view, key patterns of meaning were drawn out which contributed to these definitions. Themes included that white privilege was conceptualised as having access to widespread advantage, including exemption from negative experiences, which is conferred on the basis of racial identity. In this sense, participants’ understanding of white privilege is arguably consistent with the definition of white privilege offered by critical race theorists (e.g., Delgado & Stefancic, 2017). Furthermore, participants’ perception that white privilege is automatic, and often unconscious, is a key aspect of Peggy McIntosh’s writings on white privilege (McIntosh, 1989). Participants’ assertions that white privilege is connected to systems and within a socio-cultural context can also be considered consistent with the premises of critical race theory that assume race is socially constructed, and that racism is an ordinary phenomenon which is deeply embedded within society (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017). The thematic map in Figure 3.6 displays the themes developed from the data as a whole, however it is worth noting that there were variations in different individuals’ definitions. While most participants alluded in some form to the idea that

white privilege is accessing widespread advantage on the basis of racial identity, the other themes applied to varying extents and combinations in participants' responses. The implication of this for EPs is to be aware that definitions of white privilege are multi-faceted, complex, and not necessarily the same for all EPs. It may therefore be important in situations where white privilege is mentioned (for example, conversations, presentations and documents) for EPs to first define the term in the context it is being used, to support clarity in meaning and a shared understanding. EPs' skills in enhancing effective communication, for example drawing on approaches such as coaching and accessible dialogue (Cameron & Monsen, 1998) make them arguably well-placed to navigate these conversations, where different understandings and definitions of white privilege may be held by different individuals present.

### **3.5.3 RQ2: What are Educational Psychologists' Beliefs About White Privilege?**

The results of the WPA subscale of the POI suggested that in the current sample there was a fairly high level of awareness of white privilege ( $M = 4.06$ ,  $SD = 0.95$ ), with the majority of participants agreeing or strongly agreeing with the majority of the belief statements. It could be hypothesised that these beliefs demonstrated by participants may reflect the increased attention that issues relating to racism have received in recent years in the educational psychology world, including initiatives (e.g., Ginn et al., 2022), calls to action (e.g., Williams, 2020), research (e.g., Miller et al., 2021) and at conferences (e.g., UCL, 2021). However, the spread of responses indicates a significant minority of participants did not agree with each of the belief

statements, and it is also worth noting that the overall mean awareness score ( $M = 4.06$ ) was lower than that calculated from the validation sample of counsellor trainees in the US ( $M = 4.32$ ) (Hays et al., 2007). The spread of responses therefore suggests EPs' beliefs about white privilege are not homogenous, and a variety of views are held across the profession.

### **3.5.4 RQ3: How do Educational Psychologists Think White Privilege Manifests Within the Educational Psychology Profession?**

51.49% of participants agreed with the statement 'I think there is evidence that white privilege manifests within the Educational Psychology profession' while a further 30.69% strongly agreed. Themes developed from the qualitative data built on this by exploring some of the ways in which educational psychologists perceived this to be the case: through insufficient representation, inequitable access to educational psychology training, in the systems EPs work with and within, and in how EPs are currently practising. However, 8.91% of participants disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement, with a further 8.91% indicating neutrality or uncertainty by indicating they neither agreed nor disagreed. This may explain the theme offering a conflicting view, that white privilege is (becoming) less of an issue in the educational psychology profession.

The perceived need for greater representation and inequitable access in the current study reflects initiatives that have been put forward within the profession such as promoting mentorship programmes for doctoral applicants from underrepresented ethnic groups (North London EP services, 2022). At present there is limited data available on the ethnic profile of EPs in the UK, however the AEP released a report in November 2021, publishing the results



of a survey of 894 AEP members, including ethnicity data. Some participants countered the view that the educational psychology profession is unrepresentative, and referenced AEP data to support their view. This AEP report was likely what participants were referring to, as this report concluded that Asian/Asian British groups were underrepresented when compared with 2011 census data, while other groups did not differ significantly from national ethnicity data (AEP, 2021).

Moreover, several participants perceived a lack of objective evidence (e.g., P80: "I don't know... I have not seen any evidence of this"). This was not developed as a theme as it was considered this may have been an artefact of the question wording: "I think *there is evidence* white privilege manifests" rather than as "I think white privilege manifests". Nevertheless, the conflicting views offered suggest there may be a need for more conclusive and effectively disseminated data on the ethnic profile and representativeness of the UK educational psychology profession to inform these discussions. This is currently being explored by a trainee EP as part of their doctoral research (Oyenola, 2021).

Some participants argued that white privilege manifests in the educational psychology profession as a reflection of inequity within schools and the education system, with whom EPs work closely. There is evidence to suggest that racial inequity is indeed pervasive throughout the UK education system (e.g., DfE, 2019; Feyisa & McLean, 2017; YMCA, 2020). Participants gave examples of racial inequity in education to support their view. For example, one participant wrote: "While individual EP practice may aspire not to be influenced by race, it is nevertheless true that we work within an education

system where statistics show that being Black you are statistically more likely to be excluded and have poorer academic achievement”. This may also suggest participants perceive racial discrimination and white privilege as concepts that are inexplicably linked.

Participants also expressed that white privilege manifests in how EPs apply psychology in their practice, for example in the inappropriate generalisation of research findings to all children and young people. Indeed, recent research has suggested there is systemic inequality in the psychological evidence-base which informs EPs’ practice (Roberts et al., 2020), and authors in the US have proposed “an ecological model for conceptualizing and dismantling white privilege in school psychology research” (Grabin & Fallon, 2021, p.1).

The dominance of individual casework and the suggestion that this is a Western approach, raised by participant 43 (see Table 3.12), relates to ongoing debate within the profession regarding the role of the EP in individual casework (Boyle & Lauchlan, 2009). Boyle and Lauchlan hypothesise that reservations about the value of individual casework could be due to implicit and historical links between individual casework and psychometric testing, which itself has had a problematic history with regard to cultural bias (CNPAAEMI, 2016). Indeed, the inappropriate use of assessment tools by EPs was identified as another recurring idea within this subtheme.

Finally, a non-thematic area considered interesting was the extent to which participants emphasised their own identity within answers; some participants made it clear the lens through which they offered their perspective (e.g., P52: “I can’t speak for my colleagues of colour but...”; P75: “as black

psychologists we...” suggesting a degree of reflexivity within some responses themselves.

### **3.5.5 RQ4: How Important do Educational Psychologists Think it is to Understand White Privilege in Their Role, and Why?**

The overwhelming majority of participants (90.1%) indicated quantitatively that understanding white privilege is very important in the EP role. The views offered were built on further by the following themes developed from the qualitative data: The nature of the EP role in promoting equity; that understanding white privilege is necessary for culturally competent educational psychology practice; and the importance of considering white privilege alongside other factors.

Previous research has explored understandings of white privilege and its relevance to school psychologists in the US (Broems, 2021) and the implications of privilege (including white privilege) for school psychologists has been addressed by the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP, 2016, 2017), however there is a lack of research exploring this topic with the UK EP population. The current research therefore builds on the existing literature to suggest that UK EPs consider an understanding of white privilege to be important in their role. One of the reasons this was considered important was implied in the theme ‘the nature of the EP role in promoting equity’, which is consistent with previous research suggesting issues of advocacy and social justice are important and relevant for educational psychologists (Schulze et al., 2019).

The view that white privilege is important for culturally competent practice is also consistent with previous research which has found privilege awareness

and white privilege attitudes are associated with cultural competence (Mindrup et al., 2011; Wilcox et al., 2020). Moreover, while awareness in itself may not result in change, previous research and psychological theory has also suggested that awareness of privilege is a prerequisite for anti-racist action and movement towards an anti-racist White identity (e.g., Case, 2012; Helms, 1990; Helms, 1995).

Some critical race theorists have suggested that considerations of white privilege should be met with an equal interrogation of white supremacy (Leonardo, 2004), a notion which perhaps surprisingly was only mentioned by one participant in this study (P52: “We need to also have an understanding of white supremacy and how this has impacted the theories we draw on every day”). Scholars have questioned the utility of focusing on white privilege in anti-racism work (e.g., Blum, 2008; Lensmire et al., 2013), and a few participants did indeed consider the limitations of a sole focus on white privilege, including the importance of considering other inequalities and aspects of identity such as class and gender. This might be considered consistent with intersectionality theory (Crenshaw, 1989), and supports the need for nuanced and complex examinations of white privilege.

### **3.5.6 Limitations and Reflections**

While a mixed method survey was considered most appropriate for meeting the overall research aims, like any data collection procedure this also came with limitations. Firstly, the researcher could not ask participants for clarification which meant there may be a greater chance of misinterpreting meaning from participants’ responses. Some responses, in the absence of further explanation, were open to multiple interpretations. For example, “I

think that this issue is only uncomfortably discussed by white colleagues” is an example of a quote that was not coded due to uncertainty about what message the participant was trying to convey. Was the participant implying that White EPs need to push through discomfort by talking about white privilege more? Or did they mean that conversations of white privilege risk excluding PGM from the conversation? Or, was there another layer of meaning that the researcher failed to consider entirely?

Additionally, while surveys are convenient and are less onerous on participants' time, some responses were non-specific and general, for example one participant commented “People who are white get more opportunities than those who are not” without specifying what kind of opportunities or giving examples to support their statement. Was this due to the survey nature allowing people to go through the questions quickly with no opportunity to ask follow-up questions, or was this an indication that people find pinning down and defining white privilege in more specific terms a challenge?

Guidance on quality reflexive thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2021) was studied and adhered to, however one potential critique could be that too many themes were developed, thus limiting the depth of reporting on each theme. However, the researcher felt that dropping or collapsing some of these themes would risk failing to capture the complexity and diversity of views offered by the 101 respondents. Moreover, previous research has modelled effective and flexible engagement in reflexive thematic analysis which exceed the suggested limit of six themes and sub-themes and

reiterates that there is no 'correct' number of themes in reflexive thematic analysis (e.g., Byrne, 2021; Romney et al., 2022).

The focus of this research in itself risks re-centring whiteness, and the importance of understanding the stories and amplifying the voices of people marginalised by racism (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017), especially as this relates to educational psychology practice, is acknowledged. It is also recognised that views on language and concepts such as white privilege are constantly evolving, therefore this research can be considered a snapshot in time. While any EP regardless of the strength of their views or confidence in the topic was encouraged to participate, it is possible that the resulting sample was still biased towards EPs who were more likely to have a certain viewpoint, or that EPs with particular views may have been put off responding. Indeed, 85 people started the survey but did not complete and submit their responses; might asking people to define white privilege as the first question have put off individuals who were less confident in their views and caused them to exit early?

Although the majority of participants were female, this is consistent with HCPC data showing around 83.4% of registered EPs identify as female (HCPC, 2019). Younger EPs were overrepresented in the sample while older EPs were underrepresented. For example, the 25-34 age range constituted 36.3% of the sample and the 65-74 age range constituted 1.98%, despite these age groups forming an estimated 12.1% and 12.8% of the population respectively (calculated from HCPC data) (HCPC, 2018).

### **3.5.7 Researcher Reflexivity**

It is vital to consider the inevitable influence of my own positioning and experiences on the research process. Experiences such as completing my educational psychology training placement in an out-of-London borough where the majority of EPs in the team are White middle-class women, will have influenced the lens through which I conducted this research. It is possible that someone else with different social identities and experiences would have approached the design and analysis differently. As an example, I am mindful of 'white fragility', a term which refers to the tendency for White people to have difficulty tolerating even low levels of race-related stress, resulting in unhelpful feelings such as defensiveness, anger, fear and guilt (DiAngelo, 2011). This is something I recognised in myself throughout this research process. A fear of mis-representing views or getting things 'wrong' may have consciously or unconsciously impacted the decisions I made at each stage of the research, from the exploratory nature of the research questions I developed to the predominantly semantic (rather than interpretative) approach I took to coding the data during the analysis phase. I hope that the use of a survey meant my identity as a researcher was less visible to participants, therefore reducing any influence this may have had on how they approached and responded to the questions, as well as minimising any participant-researcher dynamics that may be more present for example in an interview context.

I personally view the EP role as being situated within a social justice perspective which may also have impacted my approach to this research.

Conscious of my positioning, when coding the qualitative data, I endeavoured

to pay equal attention to each data item, and was mindful of not placing additional emphasis on comments that I felt aligned with my own views. For example, I was aware of my own views on the importance of geographical location, therefore I was careful to avoid potential bias by ensuring this code did not feature disproportionately within the final themes.

I also sought to represent the diversity of views offered when developing themes and selecting illustrative quotes at the later stages of analysis. For example, while Themes 7 and 8 were initially combined as one theme (“Need for balanced perspective”), I developed this over time into two separate themes to better capture the diversity of views in the data. Examples of further reflections noted throughout the project are displayed in Appendix S. I used the Social GRRRAACCEEESSS (Burnham, 2012) as a tool for reflecting on my own experiences and identity, and the influence these may have had on the research process. Some examples of these positionality reflections are displayed in Appendix T. The thesis supervisor also reflected on the research process and his positionality; these reflections are shown in Appendix U.

### **3.5.8 Implications and Recommendations**

It is suggested that the most valuable implications of this research could be drawn out by using the results themselves to stimulate discussion within EP teams and working groups, and thinking collaboratively about the implications for the profession. For example, discussion with members of the UCL Equality, Diversity and Inclusion Discussion Forum elicited possible implications from the perspectives of different individuals (See Appendix K).



Nevertheless, some potential implications and recommendations from the researcher's perspective are discussed below.

While some ideas and views surfaced repeatedly within the data, a significant minority of participants offered conflicting or alternative perspectives, suggesting some diversity in views is held by EPs on the topic of white privilege, particularly regarding RQ3. The majority of participants indicated that white privilege is evident in the educational psychology profession, however others expressed the view that things are changing and this is less of an issue for the profession. While most participants indicated that it is important for EPs to understand white privilege, one participant stated having never heard of white privilege before (P80: "Not heard of this term before...Not really thought about this before doing this survey. So perhaps (understanding white privilege is) not that important?").

The anonymous nature of the survey may have encouraged people to be more candid and open (Terry & Braun, 2017), which may be harder to replicate in real-life educational psychology services, where individuals are not anonymous within their teams and as a result may have more reservations about expressing their thoughts openly. Given the above points, it is recommended that safe and confidential spaces are made within EP teams for discussions, where different views and beliefs can be respectfully offered and challenged. Moreover, there may be a need to contextualise discussions of white privilege, drawing on a variety of frameworks, and considering how white privilege can exist alongside and intersect with other aspects of identity, to produce complex patterns of disadvantage and privilege.

White privilege can also be situated within the broader context of whiteness, which has structural and systemic dimensions (Leonardo, 2004), and one theme discussed by participants was the presence of white privilege in the systems around EPs, such as schools and the education system. As EPs work with and within systems, they will inevitably experience pressure and influence from these systems. For example, where there are expectations from colleagues in schools and SEND teams to carry out standardised assessments despite their known cultural bias. Therefore, there is a need for EPs to be alert to the systemic dimensions of whiteness and white privilege, so that they can develop policies and position statements which clearly and confidently communicate their anti-racist standpoint on issues such as culturally sensitive assessment, and stand up to these pressures even when this feels uncomfortable.

Another issue raised by participants was the lens of Eurocentric research and teaching which informs the evidence-base from which EPs practice. This is in a sense replicated within the current study itself as it could be argued that Eurocentric teaching and standards of research guided and shaped this project from design to analysis. As such, one consideration for future research is the movement towards more participatory methodologies, where knowledge is co-constructed with communities at each stage of the research process. This may offer a more empowering and anti-oppressive way of conducting psychological research, particularly that of a social justice orientation, in the future (Kia-Keating & Juang, 2022). Additionally, training courses and educational psychology services could consider ways of incorporating more continuing professional development (CPD) or teaching

sessions on alternatives to Eurocentric approaches and research methods in psychology, for example exploring literature on African psychology (e.g., Nwoye, 2022) or Indigenous psychologies (e.g., Allwood & Berry, 2006). On a related note, explicit teaching on white privilege and diversity-related topics could be embedded more deeply within the training of EPs and through CPD. At present the educational psychology training is a doctoral course spanning three years. Given research into educational diversity intervention effectiveness indicates that longer-term interventions are more effective than 'one-off' trainings (Bezrukova et al., 2016), there may be an opportunity to explicitly incorporate educational diversity interventions as part of this three-year training. As well as ensuring that teachings on topics like white privilege are not one-off sessions, this teaching would also need to be interactive and involve an element of experiential learning given the recognised importance of including different types of learning activity within training (Binsted, 1980). The impact of this teaching could then be evaluated as part of the EP training assessment framework, for example through specific reflective commentaries or annotated evidence of applying this learning during placement activities.

Many participants raised the accessibility of educational psychology training as an issue for the profession. A recommendation for training providers could be to revisit the training requirements and demands, and, using consultation and participatory approaches, consider adjustments that could be made to increase the accessibility of the training. This would need to consider not only white privilege but how this links with other factors (e.g., family commitments, financial circumstances and educational opportunities).

A couple of participants raised geographical considerations, for example one participant wrote “I think that depending on location, EPs may have different experiences or awareness of white privilege e.g., inner city vs countryside where there may be a less diverse population”. It might be an interesting avenue for future research to explore further whether experiences and views on white privilege differ in different parts of the UK, and consider how information sharing can be facilitated between educational psychology teams to ensure conversation and initiatives reach more remote teams and communities. The data gathered in the current study arguably offers the opportunity to carry out a simple comparison, as the broad geographical location of participants was gathered. However, future research gathering more specific location information and additional data such as the rural and urban make-up of each area and local demographic information would be useful to answer a research question exploring any differences between geographical locations.

Finally, due to a gap in the literature on this topic the aim of this research was to gather a broad overview of EPs views on white privilege. In order to remain close to the data and authentically represent the diversity of views given, on reflection, data were coded mostly semantically rather than through latent coding. As well as the researcher’s positioning discussed in section 3.5.7, this may have been related to the survey data collection procedure, which resulted in a large breadth of responses but perhaps more limited in depth than data that would have been gathered through alternative means. A direction for future research could therefore be to build on this broad overview by gathering more in-depth views from fewer participants, for

example using semi-structured interviews, which may better enable the researcher to go beyond the surface meaning of responses and interpret deeper underlying meaning through a more interpretative approach to coding and analysis.

### **3.5.9 Conclusion**

This research aimed to gain a broad overview of EPs' views on white privilege. While the aim of this research was not to represent the views of all EPs, it is hoped that by gathering a good number of responses, a wide-lens view on the breadth of perspectives was captured. While not unanimous, the majority of participants expressed the view that white privilege does manifest in the educational psychology profession, and that it is of high importance that EPs have an understanding of white privilege. Reflexive thematic analysis of qualitative data explored some of the reasons underpinning these views. Given the need for EPs to understand issues relating to diversity and inclusion (HCPC, 2015) these findings have direct relevance and implications for educational psychology practice.

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## **Chapter 4: Dissemination and Impact**



## **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter has three main aims. First, to give an overview of the nature of research evidence, considering what constitutes high quality evidence in educational psychology practice, and the challenges of transferring research knowledge to practice. Secondly, the potential impact of the review paper and the empirical paper will be discussed, with reference to academic, societal and economic beneficiaries. Finally, a dissemination plan will be presented, with both academic and non-academic pathways to impact discussed alongside a proposed dissemination timeline.

## **4.2 Research Evidence**

### **4.2.1 Knowledge Transfer**

Research evidence is central to the practice of applied psychologists (BPS, 2017). The Special Educational Needs and Disability (SEND) Code of Practice, which is a key statutory document of relevance to Educational Psychologists (EPs) in particular, repeatedly restates the importance of decisions, support and provisions made for children with SEND being informed by and based on the best research evidence (DfE & DoH, 2015). Moreover, the extension of the educational psychology training course to a three-year doctorate has provided more opportunities for trainee EPs to conduct and produce robust research using a range of methodologies, while also developing interpersonal skills and working closely with practitioners on the ground (Farrell et al., 1998).

In order for practice in educational contexts to be informed by research evidence, the process of knowledge transfer is required. Knowledge transfer is simply defined as “the meaningful translation of research into practical

settings” (Froese & Montgomery, 2014, p. 375). Lomas (1993) described three forms of knowledge transfer: diffusion, dissemination and implementation. Diffusion is defined as a passive process of raising awareness, for example through general publicity channels. Taking this a step further, dissemination is a more active and targeted approach, where information is shared purposefully with specific audiences, with the deeper goal of education and attitude change. The third form of knowledge transfer, implementation, is arguably the most impactful, as this aims to translate research findings into action, for example through changes made to service delivery (Lomas, 1993). EPs can be thought of as scientist-practitioners, as both the producers and consumers of research evidence, thus making them well-positioned to aid the process of knowledge transfer (Froese & Montgomery, 2014).

However, researchers have also recognised the challenges of translating research evidence into practice in the context of education (Berliner, 2008; Dunsmuir & Kratochwill, 2013), acknowledging that “the challenge is to take this evidence base and fit it into the prevailing and predominant context surrounding children with academic and mental health needs” (Kratochwill et al., 2012, p.229). Given the importance of knowledge transfer, its relevance to educational psychology practice, and the challenges of bridging the research-practice gap, how can EPs support the effective transfer of research knowledge to practice? A systematic review of health policy makers identified a number of facilitatory factors for translating research into practice, including greater contact between the researchers and policy makers, high perceived relevance of the research to practice, and results reported in an

accessible way with clearly stated recommendations (Innvær et al., 2002). In the following sections, two established research movements which aim to bridge the gap between research and practice are discussed.

#### **4.2.2 Evidence-Based Practice (EBP)**

Put simply, evidence-based practice (EBP) means “integrating individual clinical expertise with the best available external clinical evidence from systematic research” (Sackett et al., 1996, p. 71). While this movement originated in the medical field, its influence has expanded to wider professions, including educational psychology (Dunsmuir et al., 2009). In 2005, the American Psychological Association (APA) established the Presidential Task Force on Evidence-Based Practice. This task force produced a report describing a commitment to promoting EBP in psychology. They set out the aims of EBP in promoting best practice and enhancing outcomes in psychology, and described how the psychologist’s role makes them well-positioned and skilled in promoting principles of EBP (American Psychological Association Presidential Task Force on Evidence-Based Practice, 2006). The ability to engage in evidence-based practice is one of the standards of proficiency expected of UK practitioner psychologists, including EPs, by the HCPC (HCPC, 2015).

If we take Sackett and colleagues’ definition of EBP, which stresses the importance of drawing on the best available evidence, we arguably then need to define what constitutes the ‘best’ evidence. A number of tools and systems have been developed for evaluating research and determining its contribution towards EBP (Dunsmuir & Kratochwill, 2013). One proposed system for evaluating the strength of evidence is through evidence hierarchies, for

example Guyatt and colleagues proposed an influential hierarchy in 1995. This placed systematic reviews and meta-analyses at the top, suggesting that these provide the best evidence for informing practice. Randomised-control trials, which offer high levels of internal validity, are also found nearer the top of this hierarchy. At the bottom are designs considered at greater risk of bias and confounding factors, such as case reports (Guyatt et al., 1995). A limitation of these earlier hierarchies however is that the majority focused on 'effectiveness' questions, without considering how different designs may be considered best evidence depending on the type of question they seek to answer (Evans, 2003). Researchers have since proposed ways of overcoming this, for example by developing multidimensional hierarchies encompassing questions of effectiveness, appropriateness and feasibility (Evans, 2003). Others have instead advocated for more matrix-based approaches, where different study designs are matched for their methodological appropriateness to the type of research question being asked (e.g., Petticrew & Roberts, 2003). For example, while an effectiveness question may be well-suited to an RCT design, if one is asking a salience question such as "how important is this?", then qualitative or survey research would be considered better evidence for answering this type of question (Petticrew & Roberts, 2003).

While EPs are arguably well-positioned to promote the use of EBP (Dunsmuir & Kratochwill, 2013), challenges to embracing the EBP movement have also been identified. Critics of EBP also acknowledge the range of ecological factors which exist in real world settings and question the external validity of research which has been carried out in a highly controlled setting (Trinder,

2000). Fox (2003) raised a number of personal objections to EBP as an EP themselves. Firstly, that EPs may align themselves more as practitioners rather than researchers. Secondly, that different pieces of evidence often contradict one another. Thirdly, that the designs favoured in evidence hierarchies such as RCTs, which are typically considered the 'gold-standard' for EBP (Barker et al., 2016), are not always the most appropriate in educational psychology research. Finally, they argued that in the real world, educational psychology services and individual EPs' practice is more often guided by professional experience over research evidence (Fox, 2003).

#### **4.2.3 Practice-Based Evidence (PBE)**

Considering the criticisms of EBP, another movement which has sought to bridge the gap between research and practice is practice-based evidence (PBE). PBE involves collaboration between the practitioner and the researcher, and gathering evidence in natural settings, for example the context of a classroom (Barker et al., 2016). It therefore places a greater emphasis on external validity (the generalisability of findings to the real world) than internal validity (establishing causal relationships) (Barker et al., 2016). This also makes PBE arguably more culturally responsive, as interventions can be adapted to the local needs of client populations (Kratochwill et al., 2012). Rather than perceiving some study designs as superior to others, PBE values a variety of designs including qualitative and small-scale research as useful in answering certain questions (Sedgwick & Stothard, 2021). While the main goal of research in EBP is to inform practice, in PBE the relationship is bi-directional, where research is also considered valuable for informing theory development and suggesting directions for

future research (Kratochwill et al., 2012). Rather than viewing this as conflicting with EBP, PBE is best conceptualised as a complementary movement which enhances EBP, and as professionals with connections to both research and practice, EPs play a key role in realising the benefits which come from integrating these two approaches (Kratochwill et al., 2012). PBE is carried out in school settings all the time, for example when evaluating the progress of individual pupils against agreed outcomes, as part of the assess, plan, do, review process stipulated in the SEND Code of Practice (DfE & DoH, 2015). Kratochwill and colleagues outlined recommendations for high quality PBE, including: systematically searching the literature to identify evidence-based interventions; adhering to intervention fidelity; and using quality assessments and analyses to evaluate outcomes (Kratochwill et al., 2012).

The review paper in chapter two appears to sit predominantly within a model of EBP, as a systematic evaluation of intervention studies. A weight of evidence framework was used to rank studies, for example based on their methodological quality, with greater weight given to studies using a more controlled design. However, many of the studies reviewed involved evaluating diversity interventions in natural contexts with the real-world realities of confounding variables, thus arguably making the studies themselves more aligned with PBE. The empirical study in chapter three can also be conceptualised as PBE. Rather than concerning itself with inferring causality, this was an exploratory study gathering the views of practising EPs on a topic that has not been explored with this population previously, generating findings which may be used to inform theory or future research.



### **4.3 Research Impact**

The Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC) define research impact as “the demonstrable contribution that excellent research makes to society and the economy” (ESRC, 2022, para. 1). This can be further differentiated into academic impacts and societal or economic impacts. For example, academic impacts might include advancing theory, teaching or learning, while societal and economic impacts may include informing policy-making and organisational practice (ESRC, 2022).

For research to be have maximum impact, it is necessary to identify the different audiences and stakeholders who are likely to have an interest in or benefit from the research.

#### **4.3.1 Academic Beneficiaries**

Impactful research should benefit other academics and researchers. This can include others in the narrow field of research, those in wider disciplines and both UK and international academic audiences (University of Cambridge, n.d.).

The review paper in chapter two makes a distinct contribution to the evidence base by critically reviewing studies which assess the effectiveness of educational diversity interventions in raising awareness of white privilege.

While previous reviews have assessed the effectiveness of diversity interventions more broadly (e.g., Bezrukova et al., 2016; Kalinoski et al., 2013), this is the first which focuses specifically on white privilege awareness as an outcome. The inclusion criteria welcomed papers from different countries therefore an international audience of academic beneficiaries may be interested in this research. Academic beneficiaries include those

researching diversity intervention effectiveness more broadly as well as those interested specifically in whiteness and white privilege.

As well as building on the existing evidence-base, this review also suggests several avenues for future researchers to explore. For example, findings corroborated previous conclusions that the diversity intervention evidence-base is US-dominated (The Behavioural Insights Team, 2020) thus calling for more international research on diversity intervention effectiveness. The review also identified a need for more research using randomised-control trial designs, to provide stronger evidence that changes in white privilege awareness are attributable to the diversity intervention rather than another factor. Only two of the included studies assessed whether the effect of the intervention was sustained at follow-up one year later, suggesting there is also a need for future research in this field utilising longitudinal designs, to assess the long-term impact of diversity interventions on white privilege awareness.

The empirical paper in chapter three also makes a distinct contribution to the evidence base, as perceptions of white privilege have not been previously explored with UK EPs. The outcomes of this research may be of particular interest to academics in the field of educational psychology, including academic tutors and researchers on training courses who have an interest in improving the teaching and learning of trainee EPs. Academics in different but related fields such as social work or clinical psychology may also be interested in the outcomes of this study and curious about any implications or findings that may be relevant or applicable in their respective fields of study. Indeed, the current research could stimulate similar studies exploring views

on white privilege in other education, health and care professions in the UK. Academic beneficiaries may also include academics more broadly, both in the UK and internationally, who have an interest in critical race theory and whiteness studies.

Over time theories and frameworks relating to racial identity and understanding have been developed, for example Helms' model of White racial identity development (e.g., Helms, 1990; Helms, 1995) and the Six Stages Framework which was developed by an EP, Dr Shungu M'gadzah. The Six Stages Framework is presented as an assessment and intervention tool for individuals and organisations to evaluate their current engagement with race and diversity issues, with the goal of working through the stages to become more actively anti-racist (Dempsey et al., 2022). The current research has implications for the developers of theoretical frameworks such as The Six Stages as it offers evidence that developing one's understanding of white privilege as a concept may be important to include in such frameworks.

The empirical paper also adds to the growing body of literature utilising survey methods to gather qualitative data and engaging with reflexive thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006, 2019) to analyse this data. Surveys have been historically associated with gathering purely quantitative data. However, more recently the survey has been considered an effective tool for also gathering qualitative data, with reflexive thematic analysis proposed as an appropriate analysis method for the resulting data (Braun et al., 2021; Terry & Braun, 2017). Academic beneficiaries of the research in chapter

three therefore also include researchers interested in using mixed methods or qualitative surveys as part of their research design.

Implications for future research which stem from the empirical paper may also be of interest to academics and researchers in the field, for example the findings suggest a need for more research utilising alternatives to historically Eurocentric methods, to diversify the evidence-base EPs draw on. These findings may therefore be of interest to researchers in the field exploring alternatives to traditional research methods, such as participatory research approaches.

#### **4.3.2 Societal and Economic Beneficiaries**

Societal impacts are those which extend beyond academia to include “changes or benefits to the economy, society, culture, public policy and services, health, the environment and quality of life” (King’s College London & Digital Science, 2015, p. 6). The current research is particularly relevant and impactful given its timeliness and the political context, with the concept of white privilege regularly receiving attention in the mainstream media accessed by the general public (e.g., Morris, 2021; Murray, 2020).

The review paper in chapter two has implications for diversity educators and trainers. Those who consider increasing awareness of white privilege as a key outcome for their interventions will benefit from exploring the existing evidence base and understanding how educational diversity interventions have been evaluated previously. Considering the outcomes of these evaluations will help inform decisions taken by diversity educators about the content and focus of their interventions. As well as the people implementing the interventions, the findings of the review paper will be of interest to

decision-makers, for example leaders within organisations or institutions weighing up the potential costs and benefits of implementing diversity interventions as part of their broader equity, diversity and inclusion strategies. Practising EPs may also be a beneficiary of the review paper as it synthesises and evaluates a set of studies that EPs are unlikely to have come across previously, with implications for their practice.

The empirical paper in chapter two is even more directly relevant to EPs as key beneficiaries, as the findings could be used to influence policy and practice within individual educational psychology services. EPs in services that do not currently talk about race-focused issues often may benefit more from this research than services who are frequently discussing race and privilege already. This is because the current research could provide a starting point for discussion in services where individuals may be less comfortable bringing up these issues directly. However, it is intended that this research can be of benefit to EPs as more than just a talking point, or as a performative or self-congratulatory exercise for affirming one's own level of awareness, as this could lead to a sense of complacency that it is enough for EPs to only be aware of and talking about these issues. It is hoped that this research can endorse efforts to further anti-racism in educational psychology practice, by stimulating more than discussion and encouraging EPs to reflect deeply on their own positioning, challenge their perspectives and the impact of these, and provoke small but significant changes in both organisational culture and individual practice. To be maximally impactful, analyses of the current research should therefore be constructive and critical, considering how the knowledge gained can be translated into real and concrete action.

Policy-makers are another potential beneficiary of the current research. Many schools, educational psychology training providers and local authorities (where many EPs are employed) have developed policies and strategies around promoting equality, diversity and inclusion (e.g., Miah, 2021; The Education Alliance, 2021; UCL, 2020). Some of these policies and plans already include references to privilege and definitions of white privilege (e.g., Fahey, 2022; UCL, 2020). It is important that public policies are informed by research evidence (Head, 2016), and the current research could be considered evidence in support of referencing white privilege within policies, and specifying this as one concept that it is important to be aware of in policies guiding the practice of EPs and the systems EPs work within. Finally, if the current research can provide even a small piece of the jigsaw puzzle contributing to cultural competence and promoting anti-racism within educational psychology practice, then the societal beneficiaries of this research also ultimately include the children, schools and families who EPs work with and alongside.

#### **4.4 Dissemination**

Research dissemination is the active process of communicating research findings to targeted audiences (Lomas, 1993). This is therefore a key form of knowledge transfer which involves sharing research findings with the most relevant recipients. There are both personal and professional motivations for disseminating research findings. Dissemination not only helps inform future research and practice, but it also honours the time and effort offered by participants and other contributors (Cone & Foster, 2006). The previous section identified academics interested in white privilege and EPs as the

primary beneficiaries of the current research. The final part of this chapter will outline how the research findings from the review paper and empirical paper will be disseminated to these audiences. Advances in technology have led to more innovative and creative ways of disseminating research, beyond traditional publication in books and academic journals (Ross-Hellauer et al., 2020). Therefore, both academic and non-academic dissemination pathways are considered.

#### **4.4.1 Non-Academic Pathways**

For the empirical paper, a summary of the key findings will be emailed directly to participants who contacted the researcher requesting a copy of the results. A blog post will also be written containing a summary of the research and key findings. This could be disseminated widely through social media platforms, for example Twitter (<https://twitter.com/>) and EPNET. EPNET is an online forum for anyone interested in Educational Psychology including practising EPs, trainee EPs, assistant EPs and aspiring trainees. Therefore, this would be a quick and convenient way of reaching a large number of key beneficiaries of this research. While Twitter is a more general channel, many EPs who do not necessarily know one another in person are connected and communicate with one another via Twitter. Therefore, even if only a small number of EPs share the findings with their followers, this has the potential to reach a large network of EPs.

There are several organisations who publish blogs online about research relevant to educational psychology practice, for example edpsy.org.uk (<https://edpsy.org.uk/blog/>) and EdPsychEd (<https://www.edpsyched.co.uk/blog/>). These organisations will be contacted

to enquire about sharing the research findings via a blog posted on their websites. The findings will also be disseminated locally in the researcher's placement authority through a presentation at the end-of-year whole service day in December 2023, which could be recorded as a webinar to allow for future dissemination in a non-written format.

#### **4.4.2 Academic Pathways**

The findings from the empirical paper will be presented at the annual Doctorate in Educational and Child Psychology (DECPsy) Research Conference on May 3<sup>rd</sup> 2023 to research tutors and research advisors from University College London (UCL), as well as UCL trainee EPs placed in local authorities across London and the South East of England. In 2023, the topic of the Division of Educational and Child Psychology (DECP) Annual Research Conference was "The role of educational psychology in promoting social justice and positive change", which arguably aligns well with the topic of the current research. Providing the current research is again appropriate and relevant to the theme of this conference in 2024, a research poster will be prepared for submission to this DECP two-day conference. Other conferences to consider for academic dissemination include the DECP Trainee EP annual conference, and the Association of Educational Psychologists' (AEP) annual conference. While the findings from the empirical paper might be most appropriate for dissemination in the UK, the findings of the review paper may be of greater interest to an international audience. Therefore, it might be appropriate to approach international conferences, such as the National White Privilege Conference in the US, regarding dissemination of the review paper findings.



To disseminate the research widely to academic audiences, two papers will be prepared for publication. One article will be prepared from the review paper and a second will be prepared from the empirical paper. The thesis supervisor would be named as the second author on both publications. In their systematic review, Innvær and colleagues (2002) found that reporting and recommendations from research should be clear, concise and accessible to help facilitate the process of knowledge transfer and the use of research evidence in practice (Innvær et al., 2002). This will be taken into account when writing the research papers for publication. Relevant journals to approach for publication for each paper were identified by studying the reference lists of the review paper and empirical paper, and through Journal Citation Report searches on Web of Science. Several factors were considered when selecting journals for shortlisting:

1. **Journal Quality and Impact:** Only peer-reviewed journals were shortlisted as these have a rigorous review process which ensures publications are of a high quality. Journal Impact Factor (JIF) was also considered. The JIF became a popular metric for evaluating journals in the 1970s, based on the premise that the frequency of citations from a journal indicates the usefulness of the articles published in that journal (Lariviere & Sugimoto, 2018). As a consequence, journals with higher impact factors tend to be more competitive and attract higher quality research (Sharma et al., 2014). For any given year, the JIF is calculated as the average number of citations per article in the previous two years (Sharma et al., 2014). However, JIFs have also been widely criticised, from technicalities in how they are calculated to scope for journals

inflating their own JIF, for example by encouraging citations of their own material (Lariviere & Sugimoto, 2018). Therefore, although the JIF was considered it was not given more importance than other factors, particularly journal relevance.

2. **Journal Relevance:** Journals with an aim and scope well matched to the current research were considered more appropriate to approach than those with a less relevant aim and scope. The researcher considered that high journal relevance would make it more likely that the submitted paper would be accepted for publication. Titles and abstracts of recent publications were also browsed for articles of a similar topic and design to the current research. For the review paper, it was essential that journals shortlisted explicitly stated accepting review papers, or evidenced previously publishing review papers.
3. **Article Access:** Another factor considered was who would have access to published articles. Some journals require paid subscriptions for readers, while others publish articles 'open access', which means access is free and unrestricted for all, therefore the intended beneficiaries would have guaranteed access (van Dijk et al., 2021). In some journals, authors (or their institutions) can pay to make their individual publication open access, which typically leads more downloads, therefore increasing the potential reach and impact of the research (Davis et al., 2008).
4. **Speed of Review and Publication:** Publication of the empirical paper in particular will be time sensitive, as this represents views held at the time they were gathered. Where available, the speed of review and average time from submission to publication was therefore considered.

Journals considered appropriate for publication of the review paper are presented with additional information in Table 4.1.

**Table 4.1**

*Journals Considered for Publication of the Review Paper*

Journal (JIF)	Description and Suitability
Urban Education (2.684)	<p>A peer-reviewed journal established in 1965 which considers papers relevant to eight areas:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Curriculum and Instruction</li> <li>• Counselling and Social Services</li> <li>• Education Policy</li> <li>• Equity in Urban Education</li> <li>• Leadership</li> <li>• Psychology and Human Development</li> <li>• Special Education</li> <li>• Teacher Education</li> </ul> <p>Publishes both empirical papers and review papers of a high quality. Based in the United States, however welcomes papers from international authors.</p>
Training and Education in Professional Psychology (2.263)	<p>A peer-reviewed journal established in 2006 which aims to enhance supervision and training provided by psychologists. Publishes on topics relevant to the review paper including:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Training and evaluation of professional competencies</li> <li>• Justice, inclusion, diversity, and equity in education and training</li> <li>• Supporting trainees' professional development and wellness</li> </ul> <p>Publishes systematic review papers. Supports Equity, Diversity and Inclusion (EDI) in practice and welcomes papers addressing these issues.</p>
Social Issues and Policy Review (9.857)	<p>This peer-reviewed journal, established in 2007, has a focus on publishing empirical review papers which address social issues and have implications for public policy. With its high impact factor articles published here have the potential to reach a wide audience.</p>

For the review paper, the journals considered most preferable to approach were Training and Education in Professional Psychology and Urban Education. Although the impact factor for these journals were lower than for Social Issues and Policy Review, the topic relevance was considered higher therefore publication here may be more likely to reach the intended audience, educators with interests in equity and diversity issues. Therefore, guidelines for submission to these journals were studied. A title and abstract suitable for submission to Training and Education in Professional Psychology is drafted below. This follows APA guidelines, recommending an abstract of fewer than 250 words, followed by up to five keywords or phrases.

**Title:** The effectiveness of educational diversity interventions in raising awareness of white privilege: A systematic review

**Abstract:** Educational diversity interventions are a common strategy used within institutions, teaching and training courses to promote equity, diversity and inclusion principles. One concept that can be addressed within these interventions is 'white privilege'. This systematic literature review investigates the effectiveness of educational diversity interventions in raising awareness of white privilege. Due to the psychologist's role in promoting principles of equity, diversity and inclusion informed by research evidence, this question is relevant to the training of professional psychologists. A systematic search of the literature identified 15 studies and these were critically reviewed using a Weight of Evidence framework. One study was rated high, three were rated low and the remaining 11 were rated medium. Despite the heterogeneity within the interventions used, this review concluded that

educational diversity interventions are effective in raising awareness of white privilege. However, there are methodological weaknesses in the current evidence base which limit the strength of these findings and their generalisability to different contexts and populations. Suggestions for future research, conceptual limitations, and implications for psychologists and diversity educators are discussed.

**Keywords:** white privilege; whiteness; diversity education; applied psychology training; cultural competence

Using the same approach, four academic journals deemed suitable for publication of the empirical paper were identified. These are listed and described in Table 4.2.

**Table 4.2**

*Journals Considered for Publication of the Empirical Paper*

Journal (JIF)	Description and Suitability
Whiteness and Education (not known)	The sister journal of 'Race, Ethnicity and Education' (Impact Factor: 3.514), this peer-reviewed journal was established in 2016. It publishes empirical studies and critical discussions related to white identity, privilege, power and intersectionality in educational contexts.
Educational Psychology in Practice (1.094)	A peer-reviewed journal established in 1985 published by the Association of Educational Psychologists (AEP). This journal publishes research which has practical relevance and implications for practising EPs in the UK. Articles include both quantitative and qualitative empirical studies which are distributed to all members of the AEP, therefore practising EPs are the main audience.
Social Justice Research (1.700)	A multidisciplinary, peer-reviewed journal established in 1987 which publishes empirical research relating to social justice issues. Its

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	audience is predominantly social scientists including psychologists, policy scientist and sociologists.
British Journal of Educational Psychology (3.744)	This peer reviewed journal published by the British Psychological Society (BPS) was established in 1931 and publishes research related to educational psychology theory. Their audience includes both education researchers and education practitioners, and the scope of publication includes both quantitative and qualitative empirical studies.

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The journal identified as most appropriate for this paper was Educational Psychology in Practice because this directly reaches the main beneficiary and intended audience of the research, practising EPs. Although Whiteness and Education had higher topic relevance and may reach academic audiences with an interest in critical whiteness studies, the impact factor of this journal was unknown and there was a risk this would be less accessible to practising EPs. Educational Psychology in Practice is published by the AEP, the trade union and professional association for UK EPs (AEP, n.d.). This means that copies of the journal are delivered directly to the doors of over 4000 members, including practising EPs, four times a year. Educational Psychology in Practice recommends that submitted papers are no longer than 6,000 words. Therefore, only the third and fourth research questions from the empirical paper will be prepared for publication, as these findings are considered most relevant and salient for the intended audience. A draft title and 200-word unstructured abstract suitable for submission to Educational Psychology in Practice was prepared.

**Title:** Educational psychologists' views on white privilege

**Abstract:** 'White privilege' is a key concept often raised in connection with critical race theory and anti-racist practice. The current study aims

to explore educational psychologists' views on white privilege. A mixed-methods, online survey containing both open and closed questions was distributed to educational psychologists and trainee educational psychologists. This yielded qualitative and quantitative data which was integrated to answer two research questions. Key findings included that 82.18% of participants agreed or strongly agreed that white privilege manifests in the educational psychology profession, while 90.1% indicated that it is very important for educational psychologists to have an understanding of white privilege. A reflexive thematic analysis of qualitative data built on these quantitative findings. Five themes were developed relating to how educational psychologists think white privilege does or does not manifest within the profession, while three further themes explored why they think it is or is not important for educational psychologists to understand the term. Implications for the educational psychology profession, limitations of the current study, and recommendations for future research are discussed.

**Keywords:** educational psychology practice; white privilege; thematic analysis; equity, diversity and inclusion; anti-racism

#### **4.4.3 Timeline for Dissemination**


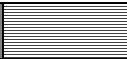
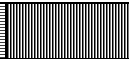
Figure 4.1 shows a Gantt chart outlining the proposed timeline for dissemination activities.

**Figure 4.1**

*Timeline for Dissemination*

Task	2023									2024			
	A	M	J	J	A	S	O	N	D	J	F	M	A
Email summary of findings to participants	Planned												
Present at DECPsy Research Conference		Planned											
Prepare manuscripts for submission to journals		Planned	Planned	Planned									
Approach websites to enquire about blog posts			Planned										
Write blog post				Planned									
Circulate blog post on social media				Planned									
Prepare poster presentation for submission to academic conferences						Planned							
Send manuscripts to supervisor for feedback						Planned	Planned						
Submit manuscripts to journals for review								Planned	Planned	Planned			
Presentation of findings to local authority EPS									Planned				
Amendments and re-submission of final manuscripts											Planned	Planned	Planned

Key:

		
Planned	Revised	Actual

#### 4.4.4 Evaluating Impact

A key step in the dissemination process is evaluating whether dissemination activities are having the desired impact, ideally utilising both quantitative and qualitative measures (Ross-Hellauer et al., 2020).



Quantitative evaluation measures could include the number of citations of any journal articles that are published from the current research, the number of 'reads' or 'hits' on blog posts, and the number of 'shares', 'comments' or 'likes' from sharing the research through social media platforms.

Qualitative comments and feedback will be gathered following any presentations to the target audience, and consumers will be encouraged to contact the researcher(s) with any reflections they have or actions they have taken or intend to take as a result of reading or learning about the research. Finally, the Gantt chart in Figure 4.1 has scope for recording revisions and actions, therefore once completed this can be used to reflect on whether the dissemination plan was indeed executed as intended.

## **4.5 Conclusion**

This final chapter concludes the thesis by considering the importance of knowledge transfer, research impact and dissemination. The implications of the review paper and empirical paper for research, policy and practice were discussed, identifying the key academic, societal and economic beneficiaries of each paper. Researchers and academics in the fields of educational psychology and critical race theory were identified as the most likely academic beneficiaries of this research, while practising EPs and diversity educators were identified as the main societal and economic beneficiaries. A plan for disseminating the research findings to both academic and non-academic audiences was presented.

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<https://www.esrcdtp.group.cam.ac.uk/system/files/documents/a-guide-to-grants-at-cambridge.pdf>

van Dijk, W., Schatschneider, C., & Hart, S. A. (2021). Open science in education sciences. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 54(2), 139–152.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0022219420945267>

## **Appendices**





## Appendix A – Excluded Studies

### *Studies Excluded at Full Text Screen with Rationale*

Reference	Exclusion Criteria Met
Anderson, A. J., & Sanchez, B. (2022). A pilot evaluation of a social justice and race equity training for volunteer mentors. <i>American Journal of Community Psychology, 69</i> , 3–17. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1002/ajcp.12541">https://doi.org/10.1002/ajcp.12541</a>	4
Boatright-Horowitz, S. L., Frazier, S., Harps-Logan, Y., & Crockett, N. (2013). Difficult times for college students of color: Teaching White students about White privilege provides hope for change. <i>Teaching in Higher Education, 18</i> (7), 698–708. <a href="http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13562517.2013.836092">http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13562517.2013.836092</a>	5
Brad, L. C. E., Spisz, T. J., & Tanega, C. G. (2019). Does “Privilege Checking” make us less racist, or more? Generation and political orientation matter. <i>Race and Social Problems, 11</i> (1), 1–14. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1007/s12552-018-9246-0">https://doi.org/10.1007/s12552-018-9246-0</a>	5
Bramesfeld, K. D., & Good, A. (2016). C’est La Vie! The game of social life: Using an intersectionality approach to teach about privilege and structural inequality. <i>Teaching of Psychology, 43</i> (4), 294–304. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1177/0098628316662758">https://doi.org/10.1177/0098628316662758</a>	5
Burke, M. A., & Banks, K. H. (2012). Sociology by any other name: Teaching the sociological perspective in campus diversity programs. <i>Teaching Sociology, 40</i> (1), 21–33. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1177/0092055X11418686">https://doi.org/10.1177/0092055X11418686</a>	5
Case, K. A., & Rios, D. (2017). Educational interventions to raise awareness of white privilege. <i>Journal on Excellence in College Teaching, 28</i> (1), 137–156.	4
Chiodo, L. N., Sonn, C. C., & Morda, R. (2014). Implementing an intercultural psychology undergraduate unit: Approach, strategies, and outcomes. <i>Australian Psychologist, 49</i> (3), 181–192. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1111/ap.12047">https://doi.org/10.1111/ap.12047</a>	2
Cooley, E., Brown-Iannuzzi, J. L., Lei, R. F., & Cipolli, W. I. I. I. (2019). Complex intersections of race and class: Among social liberals, learning about White privilege reduces sympathy, increases blame, and decreases external attributions for White people struggling with poverty. <i>Journal of Experimental Psychology: General, 148</i> (12), 2218–2228. <a href="http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/xge0000605">http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/xge0000605</a>	5

Cooney, M. H., & Akintunde, O. (1999). Confronting white privilege and the “color blind” paradigm in a teacher education program. <i>Multicultural Education</i> , 7(2), 9–14.	5
Denevi, E., & Pastan, N. (2006). Helping whites develop anti-racist identities: Overcoming their resistance to fighting racism. <i>Multicultural Education</i> , 14(2), 70–73. <a href="https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ759655.pdf">https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ759655.pdf</a>	2
Endres, D., & Gould, M. (2009). “I am also in the position to use my whiteness to help them out”: The communication of whiteness in service learning. <i>Western Journal of Communication</i> , 73(4), 418–436. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1080/10570310903279083">https://doi.org/10.1080/10570310903279083</a>	2
Fenzel, L. M., & Dean, R. J. (2019). Changes in Students’ Social Justice and Racial Attitudes in an Undergraduate Child Psychology Service-Learning Course. In V. M. Jagla & K. C. Tice (Eds.), <i>Educating Teachers and Tomorrow’s Students through Service-Learning Pedagogy</i> (pp. 89–100).	6
Garriott, P. O., Reiter, S., & Brownfield, J. (2016). Testing the efficacy of brief multicultural education interventions in white college students. <i>Journal of Diversity in Higher Education</i> , 9(2), 158–169. <a href="http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0039547">http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0039547</a>	4
Godley, A. J., Reaser, J., & Moore, K. G. (2015). Pre-service English Language Arts teachers’ development of Critical Language Awareness for teaching. <i>Linguistics and Education</i> , 32, 41–54. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2015.03.015">https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2015.03.015</a>	5
Hays, A. (2017). Authentically authored Native American Young Adult Literature (YAL) and Culturally Sustaining Pedagogy (CSP) in the preparation of preservice teachers. <i>Journal of American Indian Education</i> , 56(2), 34–56. <a href="https://doi.org/10.5749/jamerindieduc.56.2.0034">https://doi.org/10.5749/jamerindieduc.56.2.0034</a>	2
Heinze, P., & DeCandia, G. (2011). Assessing the learning of white students on themes of white privilege & racism. <i>Multicultural Education</i> , 19(1), 20–23. <a href="https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ986887.pdf">https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ986887.pdf</a>	5
Hernandez-Wolfe, P., & Mcdowell, T. (2012). Speaking of privilege: Family therapy educators’ journeys toward awareness and compassionate action. <i>Family Process</i> , 51(2), 163–178. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1545-5300.2012.01394.x">https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1545-5300.2012.01394.x</a>	2
Hochman, A. L., & Suyemoto, K. L. (2020). Evaluating and dismantling an intervention aimed at increasing White people’s knowledge and understanding of racial justice issues.	4

<i>American Journal of Orthopsychiatry</i> , 90(6), 733–750. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1037/ort0000506">https://doi.org/10.1037/ort0000506</a>	
Khanna, N., & Harris, C. A. (2015). Discovering race in a “post-racial” world: Teaching race through primetime television. <i>Teaching Sociology</i> , 43(1), 39–45. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1177/0092055X14553710">https://doi.org/10.1177/0092055X14553710</a>	2
Kindle, P. A., & Delavega, E. (2018). Increasing awareness of white privilege among social work students. <i>Multicultural Education</i> , 26(1), 24–30. <a href="https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1215234.pdf">https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1215234.pdf</a>	5
Lapierre, M. A., & Aubrey, J. S. (2022). Resisting privilege: Effects of a white privilege message intervention and conservative media use on freedom threat and racial attitudes. <i>Mass Communication and Society</i> , 25(3), 407–433. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1080/15205436.2021.1996610">https://doi.org/10.1080/15205436.2021.1996610</a>	4
Lawrence, S. M. (1998). Unveiling positions of privilege: A hands-on approach to understanding racism. <i>Teaching of Psychology</i> , 25(3), 198–200. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1207/s15328023top2503_8">https://doi.org/10.1207/s15328023top2503_8</a>	2
Littleford, L. N., & Jones, J. A. (2017). Framing and source effects on White college students’ reactions to racial inequity information. <i>Cultural Diversity &amp; Ethnic Minority Psychology</i> , 23(1), 143–153. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1037/cdp0000102">https://doi.org/10.1037/cdp0000102</a>	5
Maxwell, K. E., & Chesler, M. (2021). Learning separately, learning together: White students’ experiences in two different racial dialogues. <i>Journal of Diversity in Higher Education</i> . Advance online publication. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1037/dhe0000303">https://doi.org/10.1037/dhe0000303</a>	2
Maxwell, K. E., & Chesler, M. (2022). Learning separately, learning together: White students’ experiences in two different racial dialogues. <i>Journal of Diversity in Higher Education</i> , 15(3), 314–324. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1037/dhe0000303">https://doi.org/10.1037/dhe0000303</a>	2
McFalls, E. L., & Cobb-Roberts, D. (2001). Reducing resistance to diversity through cognitive dissonance instruction: Implications for teacher education. <i>Journal of Teacher Education</i> , 52(2), 164–172. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1177/0022487101052002007">https://doi.org/10.1177/0022487101052002007</a>	5
McGowan, S. L., & Kern, A. L. (2014). Pre-service foreign language teachers’ attitudes of privilege and oppression. <i>Journal of Education and Training Studies</i> , 2(1), 31–43. <a href="https://doi.org/10.11114/jets.v2i1.188">https://doi.org/10.11114/jets.v2i1.188</a>	4

Mulder, A., & van den Berg, B. (2019). Learning for life: A hermeneutical–communicative model for worldview education in light of white normativity. <i>Religious Education</i> , 114(3), 287–302. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1080/00344087.2019.1602465">https://doi.org/10.1080/00344087.2019.1602465</a>	2
Niehuis, S. (2005). Helping white students explore white privilege outside the classroom. <i>North American Journal of Psychology</i> , 7(3), 481–492.	5
Olson, S., Reed, K., & Schweinle, A. (2009). Human relations: Assessing the affect of cultural awareness curriculum on preservice teachers. <i>Journal of Inquiry and Action in Education</i> , 2(2), 120–139. <a href="https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1134618.pdf">https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1134618.pdf</a>	5
Patil, T., & Mummery, J. (2020). “Doing diversity” in a social work context: reflecting on the use of critical reflection in social work education in an Australian University. <i>Social Work Education</i> , 39(7), 893–906. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1080/02615479.2020.1722091">https://doi.org/10.1080/02615479.2020.1722091</a>	2
Patterson, C. A., & Domenech Rodriguez, M. M. (2019). Microaggression detection measurement impact on White college students’ colorblindness. <i>Psi Chi Journal of Psychological Research</i> , 24(2), 127–138. <a href="https://doi.org/10.24839/2325-7342.JN24.2.127">https://doi.org/10.24839/2325-7342.JN24.2.127</a>	4
Pincock, H. (2008). Teaching through talk? The impact of intergroup dialogue on conceptualizations of racism. In R. Fleishman, C. Gerard, & R. O’Leary (Eds.), <i>Pushing the Boundaries: New Frontiers in Conflict Resolution and Collaboration</i> (Vol. 29, pp. 21–53). <a href="https://doi.org/10.1016/s0163-786x(08)29002-6">https://doi.org/10.1016/s0163-786x(08)29002-6</a>	6
Reyes, C., & Bishop, P. A. (2005). Meeting in the middle: Preparing teachers on predominantly white campuses for diverse classrooms. <i>Teacher Education and Practice</i> , 18(2), 137–156.	5
Richardson, J. D. (2005). Switching social identities: The influence of editorial framing on reader attitudes toward affirmative action and African Americans. <i>Communication Research</i> , 32(4), 503–528. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1177/0093650205277321">https://doi.org/10.1177/0093650205277321</a>	5
Rothman, T., Malott, K. M., & Paone, T. R. (2012). Experiences of a course on the culture of Whiteness in counselor education. <i>Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development</i> , 40(1), 37–48. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2161-1912.2012.00004.x">https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2161-1912.2012.00004.x</a>	2

Sawrikar, P. (2020). Service providers' cultural self-awareness and responsible use of racial power when working with ethnic minority victims/survivors of child sexual abuse: Results from a program evaluation study in Australia. <i>Children and Youth Services Review</i> , 119. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2020.105641">https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2020.105641</a>	5
Scheid, A. F., & Vasko, E. T. (2014). Teaching race: Pedagogical challenges in predominantly white undergraduate theology classrooms. <i>Teaching Theology &amp; Religion</i> , 17(1), 27–45. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1111/teth.12157">https://doi.org/10.1111/teth.12157</a>	5
Seider, S., Huguley, J. P., & Novick, S. (2013). College students, diversity, and community service learning. <i>Teachers College Record</i> , 115(3).	5
Simons, L., Blank, N., Fehr, L., Barnes, K., Georganas, D., & Manapuram, G. (2012). Another look at the dissemination of the racial identity interaction model in a cultural-based service-learning course. In J. A. Hatcher & R. G. Bringle (Eds.), <i>Understanding service-learning and community engagement: Crossing boundaries through research</i> (pp. 47–71).	6
Simons, L., Russell, B., Hirschinger-Blank, N., Williams, E., & Willis, K. (2009). An exploration of the value of cultural-based service-learning for student and community participants. In B. E. Moely, S. H. Billig, & B. A. Holland (Eds.), <i>Creating Our Identities in Service-Learning and Community Engagement</i> (pp. 189–214).	6
Soble, J. R., Spanierman, L. B., & Liao, H.-Y. (2011). Effects of a brief video intervention on White university students' racial attitudes. <i>Journal of Counseling Psychology</i> , 58(1), 151–157. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021158">https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021158</a>	4
Stokke, C. (2021). Unlearning racism through transformative interracial dialogue. <i>International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education</i> . <a href="https://doi.org/10.1080/09518398.2021.1930245">https://doi.org/10.1080/09518398.2021.1930245</a>	2
Swank, E., Asada, H., & Lott, J. (2001). Student acceptance of a multicultural education: Exploring the role of a social work curriculum, demographics, and symbolic racism. <i>Journal of Ethnic &amp; Cultural Diversity in Social Work: Innovation in Theory, Research &amp; Practice</i> , 10(2), 85–103. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1300/J051v10n02_06">https://doi.org/10.1300/J051v10n02_06</a>	2
Swartz, S., Arogundade, E., & Davis, D. (2014). Unpacking (White) privilege in a South African university classroom: A neglected element in multicultural educational contexts.	2

<p><i>Journal of Moral Education</i>, 43(3), 345–361.  <a href="https://doi.org/10.1080/03057240.2014.922942">https://doi.org/10.1080/03057240.2014.922942</a></p>	
<p>Torino, G. C. (2015). Examining biases and White privilege: Classroom teaching strategies that promote cultural competence. <i>Women &amp; Therapy</i>, 38(3–4), 295–307.  <a href="https://doi.org/10.1080/02703149.2015.1059213">https://doi.org/10.1080/02703149.2015.1059213</a></p>	2
<p>Vaught, S. E., &amp; Castagno, A. E. (2008). “I don’t think I’m a racist”: Critical Race Theory, teacher attitudes, and structural racism. <i>Race Ethnicity and Education</i>, 11(2), 95–113.  <a href="https://doi.org/10.1080/13613320802110217">https://doi.org/10.1080/13613320802110217</a></p>	2
<p>Weaver, N., Simons, L., Marshall, C., &amp; Blank, N. (2019). High-impact practices: The different learning outcomes after service learning compared to practicums or internships and the different learning outcomes between underclassmen and upperclassmen. In L. G. Chova, A. L. Martinez, &amp; I. C. Torres (Eds.), <i>12th International Conference of Education, Research and Innovation (ICERI2019)</i> (pp. 8904–8908).  <a href="https://doi.org/10.21125/iceri.2019.2131">https://doi.org/10.21125/iceri.2019.2131</a></p>	6
<p>Zarate, M. E., &amp; Mendoza, Y. (2020). Reflections on race and privilege in an educational leadership course. <i>Journal of Research on Leadership Education</i>, 15(1), 56–80.  <a href="https://doi.org/10.1177/1942775118771666">https://doi.org/10.1177/1942775118771666</a></p>	5

## Appendix B – Mapping the Field

Author	N	Location	Participants	Design	Intervention	Intervention Length	White Privilege Measure	Measures taken
Bañales et al. (2021)	63	US	Incoming first-year white college students	Quasi-experimental. Control group (N = 9) at pre-intervention only	Diversity Programme	3 days	CoBRAS – Unawareness of Racial Privilege subscale	Pre-intervention Post-intervention
Case (2007)	146	US	College students	Quasi-experimental. One group pre-test post-test.	Diversity Course	15 weeks	6-item scale developed by the author	Pre-intervention Post-intervention
Cebulak & Zipp (2019)	173	US	College Students studying Introductory Sociology	Quasi-experimental. One group pre-test post-test.	White Privilege Activity	One semester: Two 50-minute classes on two days, plus regular small-group work and discussions	CoBRAS – Unawareness of Racial Privilege subscale	3 time-points; at the beginning (Wave 1), middle (Wave 2) and end (Wave 3) of the semester.

Chrobot-Mason (2012)	29	US	Students from two psychology courses	Quasi-experimental with control group ( $n = 24$ )	Diversity course	16 weeks	4-item scale developed by the author	Pre-intervention Post-intervention
Cole et al. (2011)	106	US	Students enrolled in courses across many disciplines	Quasi-experimental with control group ( $n = 67$ )	Diversity course	Across one semester	6-item scale developed by one of the authors	Pre-intervention Post-intervention
Colvin-Burque et al. (2007)	110	US	undergraduate students enrolled in an inter-disciplinary course	Quasi-experimental. One group pre-test post-test.	Self and Other Awareness Project (SOAP)	48 hours over the course of one semester	CoBRAS – Unawareness of Racial Privilege subscale	Pre-intervention Post-intervention
Kernahan & Davis (2007)	24	US	Undergraduate students enrolled in a psychology course	Quasi-experimental with control group ( $n = 15$ )	Diversity course	Across one semester	CoBRAS – Unawareness of Racial Privilege subscale	Pre-intervention Post-intervention
Kernahan & Davis (2010)	27	US	Undergraduate students enrolled in a psychology course	Quasi-experimental with control group ( $n = 20$ )	Diversity course	Across one semester	CoBRAS – Unawareness of Racial Privilege subscale	Pre-intervention Post-intervention 1-year follow-up



Lenes et al. (2020)	18	US	Pre-licenced counsellors and graduate level counselling students	Randomised Control Trial (RCT) with waitlist control group ( $n = 21$ )	Color-Conscious Multicultural Mindfulness Training	4 sessions of 3 hours each. Participants chose whether this was spread over 4 weeks or intensive across 2 days.	CoBRAS – Unawareness of Racial Privilege subscale	Pre-intervention Post-intervention
Muller & Miles (2017)	87	US	Students enrolled in a multicultural psychology course	Quasi-experimental. One group pre-test post-test.	Intergroup dialogue	8 weekly sessions of 75 minutes each	CoBRAS – Unawareness of Racial Privilege subscale	Pre-intervention Post-intervention
Nordstrom (2015)	26	US	Students from a variety of majors.	Quasi-experimental with control group ( $n = 17$ )	The Voices Project	15 weeks	Oklahoma Racial Attitudes Scale (Revised) – Reactive Racial Justice sub-scale	Pre-intervention Post-intervention 1-year follow-up

Paone et al. (2015)	121	US	White counselling students	Quasi-experimental. One group pre-test post-test.	'Whiteness Course' – experiential race-based course taught in a group format	15 weeks of 3 hours per week	White Privilege Attitudes Scale – Awareness of Privilege subscale  CoBRAS – Unawareness of Racial Privilege subscale	Pre-intervention Post-intervention
Robey & Dickter (2022)	72	US	White mono-racial undergraduate students on 'introduction to psychology' course	Quasi-experimental. One group pre-test post-test.	Adapted, online version of the Safe Passages for U programme (Ong et al., 2018)	4 weeks with one session per week, approximately one hour each.	White Privilege Attitudes Scale – Awareness of Privilege subscale  White Privilege Scale (Swim & Miller, 1999)	Pre-intervention Post-intervention

Schmidt et al. (2020)	52	US	Undergraduate students from various courses addressing diversity and multicultural education.	Quasi-experimental with control group ( $n = 57$ )	Intergroup dialogue	8 weeks with two sessions per week (one IGD, one traditional lecture)	Awareness of Privilege and Oppression Scale (APOS-2) – Racism subscale	Pre-intervention Post-intervention
Simons et al. (2020)	150 0	US	Students enrolled in psychology courses	Quasi-experimental with three intervention groups, pre-test post-test	High Impact Practices: academic-based service learning (ABSL – 57%); cultural-based service learning (CBSL – 17%) and experiential learning (EL – 31%)	Across one semester	CoBRAS – Unawareness of Racial Privilege subscale	Pre-intervention Post-intervention

# Appendix C – Weight of Evidence

## Weight of Evidence A (WoE A) – Methodological Quality

A coding protocol designed to evaluate group experimental and quasi-experimental designs was used to assess all 13 studies for methodological quality (Gersten et al., 2005). This was adapted as in Jones (2020) and Wood (2021) to make it appropriate for studies that did not use a control group and those with non-clinical populations. Table C1 details the amendments made with rationale.

**Table C1**

*Amendments to Gersten et al. (2005) and Rationale*

Original Indicator	Amended Indicator	Rationale
Was sufficient information provided to determine/confirm the participants demonstrated the disability(ies) or difficulties presented?	Was sufficient information provided to determine/confirm the population of participants to which the results can be generalised?	To be appropriate for studies with non-clinical populations. However, it is still important to understand the population characteristics when considering the extent to which results can be generalised.
Were appropriate procedures used to increase the likelihood that relevant characteristics of participants in the sample were comparable across conditions?	Were appropriate procedures used to increase the likelihood that relevant characteristics of participants in the sample were comparable across conditions, if a control group was used?	Not all studies with quasi-experimental designs included a control group.
Was sufficient information given characterizing the	Was sufficient information given characterizing the	Not all studies with quasi-experimental

interventionists or teachers provided? Did it indicate whether they were comparable across conditions?

interventionists or teachers provided?

designs included a control group.

Did the study provide not only internal consistency reliability but also test-retest reliability and interrater reliability (when appropriate) for outcome measures? Were data collectors and/or scorers blind to study conditions and equally (un) familiar to examinees across study conditions?

Did the study provide not only internal consistency reliability but also test-retest reliability and interrater reliability (when appropriate) for outcome measures?

Not all studies with quasi-experimental designs included a control group.

Studies were assigned a WoE A rating according to the criteria in Table C2. These are adapted slightly from Gersten et al. (2005) as in Wood (2021) to better differentiate between studies meeting few (< 7) and a moderate number (7-8) of essential criteria.

**Table C2**

*Criteria for WoE Ratings Adapted From Gersten et al. (2005)*

WoE A Rating	Criteria
3 (High)	Study meets at least 9 essential criteria and at least 4 desirable criteria
2 (Medium)	Study meets at least 9 essential criteria and fewer than 4 desirable criteria <b>OR</b> Study meets 7-8 essential criteria and at least 4 desirable criteria
1 (Low)	Study meets 7-8 essential criteria and fewer than 4 desirable criteria <b>OR</b>

Study meets fewer than 7 essential criteria and at least 4 desirable criteria

0  
(Very Low) Study meets fewer than 7 essential criteria and fewer than 4 desirable criteria

Table C3 displays the rating assigned to each study based on these criteria.

**Table C3**

*WoE A Ratings*

Study	Essential Criteria	Desirable Criteria	WoE A
Bañales et al. (2021)	7	1	1
Case (2007)	6	2	0
Cebulak & Zipp (2019)	6	2	0
Chrobot-Mason (2012)	8	2	1
Cole et al. (2011)	6	2	0
Colvin-Burque et al. (2007)	5	3	0
Kernahan & Davis (2007)	7	2	1
Kernahan & Davis (2010)	7	3	1
Lenes et al. (2020)	10	2	2
Muller & Miles (2017)	6	2	0
Nordstrom (2015)	9	3	2
Paone et al. (2015)	6	1	0

Robey & Dickter (2022)	8	3	1
Schmidt et al. (2020)	9	3	2
Simons et al. (2020)	6	3	0

### Weight of Evidence B (WoE B) – Methodological Relevance

Each study was assigned a rating between zero and three based on the relevance of their design to the review question. Petticrew & Roberts (2003) presented a typology of evidence for evaluating the appropriateness of different research designs for different research questions. According to this typology, randomised control trials (RCTs) are most appropriate for answering ‘effectiveness’ questions such as the one in this review, followed by quasi-experimental and cohort studies. Harris et al., 2005 argued that quasi-experimental designs which use control groups are superior to those which do not, as control groups allow you to attribute the effects to the intervention with greater confidence. Based on the rationale above, the criteria in Table C4 were developed to assign each study a WoE B rating for methodological relevance to the review question. These ratings are displayed in Table C5.

**Table C4**

*WoE B Criteria*

Rating	Criteria
3 (High)	Randomised control trials (RCTs) 1. Intervention group compared with at least one control group

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	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>2. Random assignment to intervention or control group</li> <li>3. Measures taken pre-intervention and post-intervention</li> </ol>
2 (Medium)	<p>Quasi-experimental designs with control group</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Intervention group compared with at least one control group.</li> <li>2. Non-random assignment to intervention or control.</li> <li>3. measures taken pre- and post-intervention for both intervention and control groups.</li> </ol>
1 (Low)	<p>Quasi-experimental designs, cohort studies</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Control group which is not a true control (e.g., measures only taken pre-intervention) <b>or</b> no control group</li> <li>2. Measures taken pre-intervention and post-intervention</li> </ol>
0 (Very Low)	Qualitative research, surveys, case control studies, non-experimental evaluations

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**Table C5**

*WoE B Ratings*

Study	WoE B
Bañales et al. (2021)	1
Case (2007)	1
Cebulak & Zipp (2019)	1
Chrobot-Mason (2012)	2
Cole et al. (2011)	2
Colvin-Burque et al. (2007)	1



Kernahan & Davis (2007)	2
Kernahan & Davis (2010)	2
Lenes et al. (2020)	3
Muller & Miles (2017)	1
Nordstrom (2015)	2
Paone et al. (2015)	1
Robey & Dickter (2022)	1
Schmidt et al. (2020)	2
Simons et al. (2020)	1

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### **Weight of Evidence C (WoE C) – Topic Relevance**

Criteria for assigning ratings for WoE C were developed by the reviewer and are shown in Table C6. Each study was assigned a rating between zero and three based on their topic relevance to the review question. These ratings are displayed in Table C7. Although location was considered important for generalisability, this was not included in the rating criteria as all 13 studies were carried out in the US.

**Table C6**

*WoE C Criteria*

Criteria	Scoring	Rationale
A – Intervention development and implementation	3 = Study meets all 3 criteria	Interventions are considered more relevant to the review question if they are grounded in theory and/or research evidence. Research has suggested that training is more effective when it incorporates
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Explains clearly how the intervention is grounded in theory and/or research evidence</li> </ul>	2 = Study meets 2 criteria	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Carried out by trained facilitators</li> </ul>	1 = Study meets 1 criterion	
	0 = Study meets none of the criteria	

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Includes different types of learning activity: reception, discovery and reflection</li> </ul>		<p>different learning activities of reception, discovery and reflection (Binsted, 1980)</p>
<p>B – Intervention duration</p>	<p>3 = Intervention spanning more than eight weeks</p> <p>2 = Intervention spanning between one and eight weeks</p> <p>1 = Intervention spanning up to one week</p> <p>0 = Stand-alone intervention</p>	<p>Research evidence suggests that longer diversity programmes are more effective than one-off trainings (Bezrukova et al., 2016)</p>
<p>C – Participants</p>	<p>3 = Professionals working in fields related to educational psychology practice (psychology, education, counselling, social work)</p> <p>2 = Students or pre-service learners in fields related to educational psychology practice (psychology, education, counselling, social work)</p> <p>1 = Students in any discipline</p> <p>0 = No information about participants</p>	<p>This review is intended to inform UK Educational Psychology practice therefore participants groups that EPs are more likely to work with are more relevant to the review question.</p>
<p>D – Outcome measure</p>	<p>3 = 2 previously validated measures of white privilege awareness</p> <p>2 = 1 previously validated measure of white privilege awareness</p> <p>1 = Unvalidated measure of white privilege</p>	<p>Previously validated measures of white privilege awareness are preferred as there is existing evidence that these effectively measure the intended construct.</p>

awareness (e.g., developed by the researcher or unpublished)

0 = No quantitative outcome measure of white privilege awareness

**Table C7**

*WoE C Ratings*

Study	Criteria A	Criteria B	Criteria C	Criteria D	WoE C
Bañales et al. (2021)	2	1	1	2	1.5
Case (2007)	1	3	1	1	1.5
Cebulak & Zipp (2019)	2	3	1	2	2
Chrobot-Mason (2012)	2	3	2	1	2
Cole et al. (2011)	1	3	1	1	1.5
Colvin-Burque et al. (2007)	2	3	1	2	2
Kernahan & Davis (2007)	0	3	2	2	1.75
Kernahan & Davis (2010)	0	3	2	2	1.75
Lenes et al. (2020)	2	1.5	2	2	1.88

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Muller & Miles (2017)	3	2	2	2	2.25
Nordstrom (2015)	1	3	1	1	1.5
Paone et al. (2015)	2	3	2	3	2.5
Robey & Dickter (2022)	2	2	2	3	2.25
Schmidt et al. (2020)	3	2	1	2	2
Simons et al. (2020)	2	3	2	2	2.25

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## Appendix D – Coding Protocols

**Coding Protocol:** Gersten, R., Fuchs, L. S., Compton, D., Coyne, M., Greenwood, C., & Innocenti, M. S. (2005). Quality indicators for group experimental and quasi-experimental research in special education. *Exceptional Children*, 71(2), 149-164

Date: 03.08.21

**Full Study Reference:** Bañales, J., Hudson Banks, K., & Burke, M. A. (2021). The impact of a diversity intervention on White college students' colour-blind racial attitudes. *Whiteness & Education*, 6(1), 1–18.  
<http://10.0.4.56/23793406.2020.1867480>

### Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Describing Participants

Was sufficient information provided to determine/confirm the population of participants to which the results can be generalised?

- Yes - 63 incoming first year white college students (approx. 18-19 years old)
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were appropriate procedures used to increase the likelihood that relevant characteristics of participants in the sample were comparable across conditions, if a control group was used?

- Yes - Also self-identified as white, first year college students (approx. 18-19 years) attending the same university
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was sufficient information given characterizing the interventionists or teachers provided?

- Yes - co-taught by a White American female assistant professor of sociology and an African American female associate professor of psychology. 5 or 6 junior and senior students (all self-identifying as white) as student mentors.
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Implementation of the Intervention and Description of Comparison Conditions**

Was the intervention clearly described and specified?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the fidelity of implementation described and assessed?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the nature of services provided in comparison conditions described?

- Yes - may have been exposed to diversity-related topics in general teaching
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Outcome Measures**

Were multiple measures used to provide an appropriate balance between measures closely aligned with the intervention and measures of generalized performance?

- Yes
- No – Only 1 measure - COBRAS
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention’s effect measured at the appropriate times?

- Yes - pre and post-intervention
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Data Analysis**

Were the data analysis techniques appropriately linked to key research questions and hypotheses? Were they appropriately linked to the unit of analysis in the study?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include not only inferential statistics but also effect size calculations?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Desirable Quality Indicators**

Was data available on attrition rates among intervention samples? Was severe overall attrition documented? If so, is attrition comparable across samples? Is overall attrition less than 30%?

- Yes
- No – Attrition data not reported
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the study provide not only internal consistency reliability but also test-retest reliability and interrater reliability (when appropriate) for outcome measures?

- Yes
- No – only internal consistency reliability reported
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention's effect measured beyond an immediate posttest?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was evidence of the criterion-related validity and construct validity of the measures provided?

- Yes
- No – validity of measures not reported
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research team assess not only surface features of fidelity implementation (e.g., number of minutes allocated to the intervention or teacher/interventionist following procedures specified), but also examine quality of implementation?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was any documentation of the nature of instruction or series provided in comparison conditions?

- Yes
- No – no details of nature of instruction given
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include actual audio or videotape excerpts that capture the nature of the intervention?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were results presented in a clear, coherent fashion?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code



	Total	Score
Essential Quality Indicators ≥ 9 = score 2 7-8 = score 1 < 7 = score 0	7	1
Desirable Quality Indicators ≥ 4 = score 1 < 4 = score 0	1	0
<b>Weighting of Evidence A Rating</b> Score for Essential + Desirable		1

**Coding Protocol:** Gersten, R., Fuchs, L. S., Compton, D., Coyne, M., Greenwood, C., & Innocenti, M. S. (2005). Quality indicators for group experimental and quasi-experimental research in special education. *Exceptional Children*, 71(2), 149-164

Date: 03.08.21

**Full Study Reference:** Case, K. A. (2007). Raising white privilege awareness and reducing racial prejudice: Assessing diversity course effectiveness. *Teaching of Psychology*, 34(4), 231–235.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/00986280701700250>

### Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Describing Participants

Was sufficient information provided to determine/confirm the population of participants to which the results can be generalised?

- Yes - 146 students
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were appropriate procedures used to increase the likelihood that relevant characteristics of participants in the sample were comparable across conditions, if a control group was used?

- Yes
- No
- N/A – no control group
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was sufficient information given characterizing the interventionists or teachers provided?

- Yes - Study author
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Implementation of the Intervention and Description of Comparison Conditions**

Was the intervention clearly described and specified?

- Yes - topics and nature of teaching described
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the fidelity of implementation described and assessed?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the nature of services provided in comparison conditions described?

- Yes
- No
- N/A – no control condition
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Outcome Measures**

Were multiple measures used to provide an appropriate balance between measures closely aligned with the intervention and measures of generalized performance?

- Yes - variety of measures used
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention's effect measured at the appropriate times?

- Yes - pre- and post-intervention
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Data Analysis**

Were the data analysis techniques appropriately linked to key research questions and hypotheses? Were they appropriately linked to the unit of analysis in the study?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include not only inferential statistics but also effect size calculations?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Desirable Quality Indicators**

Was data available on attrition rates among intervention samples? Was severe overall attrition documented? If so, is attrition comparable across samples? Is overall attrition less than 30%?

- Yes - attrition was reported and less than 30%
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the study provide not only internal consistency reliability but also test-retest reliability and interrater reliability (when appropriate) for outcome measures?

- Yes
- No – only Cronbach's alpha reported
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention's effect measured beyond an immediate posttest?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was evidence of the criterion-related validity and construct validity of the measures provided?

- Yes
- No – validity of measures not reported
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research team assess not only surface features of fidelity implementation (e.g., number of minutes allocated to the intervention or teacher/interventionist following procedures specified), but also examine quality of implementation?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was any documentation of the nature of instruction or series provided in comparison conditions?

- Yes
- No
- N/A – no control condition
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include actual audio or videotape excerpts that capture the nature of the intervention?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were results presented in a clear, coherent fashion?

- Yes
- No

- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

	Total	Score
Essential Quality Indicators ≥ 9 = score 2 7-8 = score 1 < 7 = score 0	6	0
Desirable Quality Indicators ≥ 4 = score 1 < 4 = score 0	2	0
<b>Weighting of Evidence A Rating</b> Score for Essential + Desirable		0

**Coding Protocol:** Gersten, R., Fuchs, L. S., Compton, D., Coyne, M., Greenwood, C., & Innocenti, M. S. (2005). Quality indicators for group experimental and quasi-experimental research in special education. *Exceptional Children, 71*(2), 149-164

Date: 03.08.21

**Full Study Reference:** Cebulak, J. A., & Zipp, J. F. (2019). Using racial and class differences in infant mortality to teach about white privilege: A cooperative group activity. *Teaching Sociology, 47*(2), 102–115.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0092055X18801060>

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Describing Participants**

Was sufficient information provided to determine/confirm the population of participants to which the results can be generalised?

- Yes - students; demographics including ethnicity, gender, age
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were appropriate procedures used to increase the likelihood that relevant characteristics of participants in the sample were comparable across conditions, if a control group was used?

- Yes
- No
- N/A – no control group used

Unknown/Unable to Code

Was sufficient information given characterizing the interventionists or teachers provided?

Yes - the first and second author

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Implementation of the Intervention and Description of Comparison Conditions**

Was the intervention clearly described and specified?

Yes

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the fidelity of implementation described and assessed?

Yes

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the nature of services provided in comparison conditions described?

Yes

No

N/A – no control condition

Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Outcome Measures**

Were multiple measures used to provide an appropriate balance between measures closely aligned with the intervention and measures of generalized performance?

Yes

No – only one subscale of COBRAS used

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention's effect measured at the appropriate times?

- Yes - 3 waves
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Data Analysis**

Were the data analysis techniques appropriately linked to key research questions and hypotheses? Were they appropriately linked to the unit of analysis in the study?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include not only inferential statistics but also effect size calculations?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Desirable Quality Indicators**

Was data available on attrition rates among intervention samples? Was severe overall attrition documented? If so, is attrition comparable across samples? Is overall attrition less than 30%?

- Yes - attrition was reported and overall attrition was less than 30%.
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the study provide not only internal consistency reliability but also test-retest reliability and interrater reliability (when appropriate) for outcome measures?

- Yes
- No – only Cronbach's alpha reported
- N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention's effect measured beyond an immediate posttest?

Yes

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Was evidence of the criterion-related validity and construct validity of the measures provided?

Yes

No – validity of measure not reported

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research team assess not only surface features of fidelity implementation (e.g., number of minutes allocated to the intervention or teacher/interventionist following procedures specified), but also examine quality of implementation?

Yes

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Was any documentation of the nature of instruction or series provided in comparison conditions?

Yes

No

N/A – no control condition

Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include actual audio or videotape excerpts that capture the nature of the intervention?

Yes

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code



Were results presented in a clear, coherent fashion?

- Yes  
 No  
 N/A  
 Unknown/Unable to Code

	Total	Score
Essential Quality Indicators $\geq 9 = \text{score } 2$ $7-8 = \text{score } 1$ $< 7 = \text{score } 0$	6	0
Desirable Quality Indicators $\geq 4 = \text{score } 1$ $< 4 = \text{score } 0$	2	0
<b>Weighting of Evidence A Rating</b> Score for Essential + Desirable		0

**Coding Protocol:** Gersten, R., Fuchs, L. S., Compton, D., Coyne, M., Greenwood, C., & Innocenti, M. S. (2005). Quality indicators for group experimental and quasi-experimental research in special education. *Exceptional Children*, 71(2), 149-164

Date: 03.08.21

**Full Study Reference:** Chrobot-Mason, D. (2012). Developing multicultural competence to improve cross-race work relationships. *Psychologist-Manager Journal*, 15(4), 199–218. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10887156.2012.730440>

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Describing Participants**

Was sufficient information provided to determine/confirm the population of participants to which the results can be generalised?

- Yes - US undergraduates enrolled on a psychology course. Demographics gathered.  
 No  
 N/A  
 Unknown/Unable to Code

Were appropriate procedures used to increase the likelihood that relevant characteristics of participants in the sample were comparable across conditions, if a control group was used?

Yes - Undergraduates at the same university. Those who had previously taken the cultural diversity class excluded from analysis. Statistical analysis indicated the two groups did not differ significantly on 7 variables.

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Was sufficient information given characterizing the interventionists or teachers provided?

Yes - racially diverse graduate student research team

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Implementation of the Intervention and Description of Comparison Conditions**

Was the intervention clearly described and specified?

Yes

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the fidelity of implementation described and assessed?

Yes

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the nature of services provided in comparison conditions described?

Yes – carried out a research methods course

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Outcome Measures**

Were multiple measures used to provide an appropriate balance between measures closely aligned with the intervention and measures of generalized performance?

- Yes - variety of measures taken
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention's effect measured at the appropriate times?

- Yes – pre- and post-intervention
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Data Analysis**

Were the data analysis techniques appropriately linked to key research questions and hypotheses? Were they appropriately linked to the unit of analysis in the study?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include not only inferential statistics but also effect size calculations?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Desirable Quality Indicators**

Was data available on attrition rates among intervention samples? Was severe overall attrition documented? If so, is attrition comparable across samples? Is overall attrition less than 30%?

- Yes
- No – attrition data not reported

- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the study provide not only internal consistency reliability but also test-retest reliability and interrater reliability (when appropriate) for outcome measures?

- Yes - interrater reliability reported where appropriate
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention's effect measured beyond an immediate posttest?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was evidence of the criterion-related validity and construct validity of the measures provided?

- Yes
- No – validity of measures not reported
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research team assess not only surface features of fidelity implementation (e.g., number of minutes allocated to the intervention or teacher/interventionist following procedures specified), but also examine quality of implementation?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was any documentation of the nature of instruction or series provided in comparison conditions?

- Yes
- No – no details given

- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include actual audio or videotape excerpts that capture the nature of the intervention?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were results presented in a clear, coherent fashion?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

	Total	Score
Essential Quality Indicators ≥ 9 = score 2 7-8 = score 1 < 7 = score 0	8	1
Desirable Quality Indicators ≥ 4 = score 1 < 4 = score 0	2	0
<b>Weighting of Evidence A Rating</b> Score for Essential + Desirable		1

**Coding Protocol:** Gersten, R., Fuchs, L. S., Compton, D., Coyne, M., Greenwood, C., & Innocenti, M. S. (2005). Quality indicators for group experimental and quasi-experimental research in special education. *Exceptional Children, 71*(2), 149-164

Date: 03.08.21

**Full Study Reference:** Cole, E. R., Case, K. A., Rios, D., & Curtin, N. (2011). Understanding what students bring to the classroom: Moderators of the effects of diversity courses on student attitudes. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 17*(4), 397–405.

<https://doi.org/10.1037/a0025433>

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Describing Participants**

Was sufficient information provided to determine/confirm the population of participants to which the results can be generalised?

- Yes – 173 first-semester students; demographics given including ethnicity, sexual orientation, gender, parental education level
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were appropriate procedures used to increase the likelihood that relevant characteristics of participants in the sample were comparable across conditions, if a control group was used?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was sufficient information given characterizing the interventionists or teachers provided?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Implementation of the Intervention and Description of Comparison Conditions**

Was the intervention clearly described and specified?

- Yes
- No – limited detail about the intervention
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the fidelity of implementation described and assessed?

- Yes
- No
- N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the nature of services provided in comparison conditions described?

Yes – enrolled on introduction to psychology course

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Outcome Measures**

Were multiple measures used to provide an appropriate balance between measures closely aligned with the intervention and measures of generalized performance?

Yes – variety of measures used

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention's effect measured at the appropriate times?

Yes – pre- and post-intervention

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Data Analysis**

Were the data analysis techniques appropriately linked to key research questions and hypotheses? Were they appropriately linked to the unit of analysis in the study?

Yes

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include not only inferential statistics but also effect size calculations?

Yes

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

**Desirable Quality Indicators**

Was data available on attrition rates among intervention samples? Was severe overall attrition documented? If so, is attrition comparable across samples? Is overall attrition less than 30%?

Yes – attrition rate was reported and was less than 30%.

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the study provide not only internal consistency reliability but also test-retest reliability and interrater reliability (when appropriate) for outcome measures?

Yes

No – only Cronbach's alpha reported

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention's effect measured beyond an immediate posttest?

Yes

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Was evidence of the criterion-related validity and construct validity of the measures provided?

Yes

No – validity of measures not reported

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research team assess not only surface features of fidelity implementation (e.g., number of minutes allocated to the intervention or teacher/interventionist following procedures specified), but also examine quality of implementation?

Yes

No



- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was any documentation of the nature of instruction or series provided in comparison conditions?

- Yes
- No – no detail given
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include actual audio or videotape excerpts that capture the nature of the intervention?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were results presented in a clear, coherent fashion?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

	Total	Score
Essential Quality Indicators ≥ 9 = score 2 7-8 = score 1 < 7 = score 0	6	0
Desirable Quality Indicators ≥ 4 = score 1 < 4 = score 0	2	0
<b>Weighting of Evidence A Rating</b> Score for Essential + Desirable		0

**Coding Protocol:** Gersten, R., Fuchs, L. S., Compton, D., Coyne, M., Greenwood, C., & Innocenti, M. S. (2005). Quality indicators for group experimental and quasi-experimental research in special education. *Exceptional Children*, 71(2), 149-164

Date: 03.08.21

**Full Study Reference:** Colvin-Burque, A., Zugazaga, C. B., & Davis-Maye, D. (2007). Can cultural competence be taught? Evaluating the impact of the SOAP model. *Journal of Social Work Education*, 43(2), 223–241.  
<https://doi.org/10.5175/JSWE.2007.200500528>

### **Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Describing Participants**

Was sufficient information provided to determine/confirm the population of participants to which the results can be generalised?

- Yes – 110 undergraduate students enrolled in a course at a US university. Demographics of participants given.
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were appropriate procedures used to increase the likelihood that relevant characteristics of participants in the sample were comparable across conditions, if a control group was used?

- Yes
- No
- N/A – no control group
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was sufficient information given characterizing the interventionists or teachers provided?

- Yes – master’s prepared social worker. Professor not associated with the class administered the measures.
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

### **Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Implementation of the Intervention and Description of Comparison Conditions**

Was the intervention clearly described and specified?

- Yes – SOAP model clearly described.
- No

- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the fidelity of implementation described and assessed?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the nature of services provided in comparison conditions described?

- Yes
- No
- N/A – no control condition
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Outcome Measures**

Were multiple measures used to provide an appropriate balance between measures closely aligned with the intervention and measures of generalized performance?

- Yes
- No – only the COBRAS was measured.
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention’s effect measured at the appropriate times?

- Yes – pre- and post-intervention
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Data Analysis**

Were the data analysis techniques appropriately linked to key research questions and hypotheses? Were they appropriately linked to the unit of analysis in the study?

- Yes
- No
- N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include not only inferential statistics but also effect size calculations?

Yes

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

### **Desirable Quality Indicators**

Was data available on attrition rates among intervention samples? Was severe overall attrition documented? If so, is attrition comparable across samples? Is overall attrition less than 30%?

Yes - drop-out is reported and this was less than 30%.

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the study provide not only internal consistency reliability but also test-retest reliability and interrater reliability (when appropriate) for outcome measures?

Yes - describes test-retest reliability of the COBRAS

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention's effect measured beyond an immediate posttest?

Yes

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Was evidence of the criterion-related validity and construct validity of the measures provided?

Yes

No – validity of measures was not reported.

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research team assess not only surface features of fidelity implementation (e.g., number of minutes allocated to the intervention or teacher/interventionist following procedures specified), but also examine quality of implementation?

Yes

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Was any documentation of the nature of instruction or series provided in comparison conditions?

Yes

No

N/A – no control conditions

Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include actual audio or videotape excerpts that capture the nature of the intervention?

Yes

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Were results presented in a clear, coherent fashion?

Yes

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

	Total	Score
Essential Quality Indicators ≥ 9 = score 2 7-8 = score 1 < 7 = score 0	5	0
Desirable Quality Indicators ≥ 4 = score 1 < 4 = score 0	3	0
<b>Weighting of Evidence A Rating</b> Score for Essential + Desirable		0

**Coding Protocol:** Gersten, R., Fuchs, L. S., Compton, D., Coyne, M., Greenwood, C., & Innocenti, M. S. (2005). Quality indicators for group experimental and quasi-experimental research in special education. *Exceptional Children, 71*(2), 149-164

Date: 03.08.21

**Full Study Reference:** Kernahan, C., & Davis, T. (2007). Changing perspective: How learning about racism influences student awareness and emotion. *Teaching of Psychology, 34*(1), 49–52.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/00986280709336651>

### Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Describing Participants

Was sufficient information provided to determine/confirm the population of participants to which the results can be generalised?

- Yes – 39 undergraduates; demographics given.  
 No  
 N/A  
 Unknown/Unable to Code

Were appropriate procedures used to increase the likelihood that relevant characteristics of participants in the sample were comparable across conditions, if a control group was used?

- Yes – analysed Time 1 data to find no significant differences between the classes  
 No  
 N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Was sufficient information given characterizing the interventionists or teachers provided?

Yes - white, female instructors

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Implementation of the Intervention and Description of Comparison Conditions**

Was the intervention clearly described and specified?

Yes

No – not clearly described

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the fidelity of implementation described and assessed?

Yes

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the nature of services provided in comparison conditions described?

Yes – students carried out a behavioural statistics course

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Outcome Measures**

Were multiple measures used to provide an appropriate balance between measures closely aligned with the intervention and measures of generalized performance?

Yes – used several quantitative measures as well as a qualitative measure.

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention's effect measured at the appropriate times?

- Yes – pre- and post-intervention
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Data Analysis**

Were the data analysis techniques appropriately linked to key research questions and hypotheses? Were they appropriately linked to the unit of analysis in the study?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include not only inferential statistics but also effect size calculations?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Desirable Quality Indicators**

Was data available on attrition rates among intervention samples? Was severe overall attrition documented? If so, is attrition comparable across samples? Is overall attrition less than 30%?

- Yes – reported and less than 30% attrition.
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the study provide not only internal consistency reliability but also test-retest reliability and interrater reliability (when appropriate) for outcome measures?

- Yes
- No – no reliability data reported



- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention's effect measured beyond an immediate posttest?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was evidence of the criterion-related validity and construct validity of the measures provided?

- Yes
- No – no validity information reported.
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research team assess not only surface features of fidelity implementation (e.g., number of minutes allocated to the intervention or teacher/interventionist following procedures specified), but also examine quality of implementation?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was any documentation of the nature of instruction or series provided in comparison conditions?

- Yes
- No – no detail given
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include actual audio or videotape excerpts that capture the nature of the intervention?

- Yes
- No
- N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Were results presented in a clear, coherent fashion?

Yes

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

	Total	Score
Essential Quality Indicators ≥ 9 = score 2 7-8 = score 1 < 7 = score 0	7	1
Desirable Quality Indicators ≥ 4 = score 1 < 4 = score 0	2	0
<b>Weighting of Evidence A Rating</b> Score for Essential + Desirable		1

**Coding Protocol:** Gersten, R., Fuchs, L. S., Compton, D., Coyne, M., Greenwood, C., & Innocenti, M. S. (2005). Quality indicators for group experimental and quasi-experimental research in special education. *Exceptional Children, 71*(2), 149-164

Date: 02.08.22

**Full Study Reference:** Kernahan, C., & Davis, T. (2010). What are the long-term effects of learning about racism? *Teaching of Psychology, 37*(1), 41–45. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00986280903425748>

### **Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Describing Participants**

Was sufficient information provided to determine/confirm the population of participants to which the results can be generalised?

Yes – US undergraduate students, gender and ethnicity statistics given

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Were appropriate procedures used to increase the likelihood that relevant characteristics of participants in the sample were comparable across conditions, if a control group was used?

- Yes – carried out multivariate analyses to check for differences between classes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was sufficient information given characterizing the interventionists or teachers provided?

- Yes – white, female instructors
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Implementation of the Intervention and Description of Comparison Conditions**

Was the intervention clearly described and specified?

- Yes
- No – intervention not clearly described or specified
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the fidelity of implementation described and assessed?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the nature of services provided in comparison conditions described?

- Yes – students in control carried out a behavioural statistics course
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Outcome Measures**

Were multiple measures used to provide an appropriate balance between measures closely aligned with the intervention and measures of generalized performance?

- Yes – used a validated measure as well as additional measures developed by researchers
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention's effect measured at the appropriate times?

- Yes – pre-intervention, post-intervention and follow-up
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

#### **Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Data Analysis**

Were the data analysis techniques appropriately linked to key research questions and hypotheses? Were they appropriately linked to the unit of analysis in the study?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include not only inferential statistics but also effect size calculations?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

#### **Desirable Quality Indicators**

Was data available on attrition rates among intervention samples? Was severe overall attrition documented? If so, is attrition comparable across samples? Is overall attrition less than 30%?

- Yes – data reported and less than 30% for main study. higher for follow-up.
- No

- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the study provide not only internal consistency reliability but also test-retest reliability and interrater reliability (when appropriate) for outcome measures?

- Yes
- No – only Cronbach's alpha reported
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention's effect measured beyond an immediate posttest?

- Yes – 1 year follow-up
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was evidence of the criterion-related validity and construct validity of the measures provided?

- Yes
- No – no validity data provided
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research team assess not only surface features of fidelity implementation (e.g., number of minutes allocated to the intervention or teacher/interventionist following procedures specified), but also examine quality of implementation?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was any documentation of the nature of instruction or series provided in comparison conditions?

- Yes
- No – no detail given

- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include actual audio or videotape excerpts that capture the nature of the intervention?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were results presented in a clear, coherent fashion?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

	Total	Score
Essential Quality Indicators ≥ 9 = score 2 7-8 = score 1 < 7 = score 0	7	1
Desirable Quality Indicators ≥ 4 = score 1 < 4 = score 0	3	0
<b>Weighting of Evidence A Rating</b> Score for Essential + Desirable		1

**Coding Protocol:** Gersten, R., Fuchs, L. S., Compton, D., Coyne, M., Greenwood, C., & Innocenti, M. S. (2005). Quality indicators for group experimental and quasi-experimental research in special education. *Exceptional Children, 71*(2), 149-164

Date: 03.08.21

**Full Study Reference:** Lenes, E., Swank, J. M., Hart, K. A., Machado, M. M., Darilus, S., Ardelt, M., Smith-Adcock, S., Rockwood Lane, M., & Puig, A. (2020). Color-conscious multicultural mindfulness training in the counseling field. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 98*(2), 147–158.  
<https://doi.org/10.1002/jcad.12309>

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Describing Participants**

Was sufficient information provided to determine/confirm the population of participants to which the results can be generalised?

- Yes – pre-licensed counsellors and graduate-level counselling students in SE US. Demographics given.
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were appropriate procedures used to increase the likelihood that relevant characteristics of participants in the sample were comparable across conditions, if a control group was used?

- Yes – random assignment to groups; statistical analysis to compare groups – no significant differences at pre-test.
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was sufficient information given characterizing the interventionists or teachers provided?

- Yes – the principal investigator.
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Implementation of the Intervention and Description of Comparison Conditions**

Was the intervention clearly described and specified?

- Yes – Color-Conscious Multicultural Mindfulness training.
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the fidelity of implementation described and assessed?

- Yes – observer evaluated adherence to a fidelity checklist during every session.
- No

- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the nature of services provided in comparison conditions described?

- Yes – waitlist control group.
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Outcome Measures**

Were multiple measures used to provide an appropriate balance between measures closely aligned with the intervention and measures of generalized performance?

- Yes – variety of measures used
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention’s effect measured at the appropriate times?

- Yes – pre- and post-intervention
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Data Analysis**

Were the data analysis techniques appropriately linked to key research questions and hypotheses? Were they appropriately linked to the unit of analysis in the study?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include not only inferential statistics but also effect size calculations?

- Yes
- No



- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

### **Desirable Quality Indicators**

Was data available on attrition rates among intervention samples? Was severe overall attrition documented? If so, is attrition comparable across samples? Is overall attrition less than 30%?

- Yes – reported that data were not missing in any systematic manner. Minimal missing data reported.
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the study provide not only internal consistency reliability but also test-retest reliability and interrater reliability (when appropriate) for outcome measures?

- Yes
- No – only internal consistency data reported
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention's effect measured beyond an immediate posttest?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was evidence of the criterion-related validity and construct validity of the measures provided?

- Yes
- No – validity not reported
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research team assess not only surface features of fidelity implementation (e.g., number of minutes allocated to the intervention or teacher/interventionist following procedures specified), but also examine quality of implementation?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was any documentation of the nature of instruction or series provided in comparison conditions?

- Yes
- No – no details given.
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include actual audio or videotape excerpts that capture the nature of the intervention?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were results presented in a clear, coherent fashion?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

	Total	Score
Essential Quality Indicators ≥ 9 = score 2 7-8 = score 1 < 7 = score 0	10	2
Desirable Quality Indicators ≥ 4 = score 1 < 4 = score 0	2	0
<b>Weighting of Evidence A Rating</b> Score for Essential + Desirable		2

**Coding Protocol:** Gersten, R., Fuchs, L. S., Compton, D., Coyne, M., Greenwood, C., & Innocenti, M. S. (2005). Quality indicators for group experimental and quasi-experimental research in special education. *Exceptional Children*, 71(2), 149-164

Date: 03.08.21

**Full Study Reference:** Muller, J. T., & Miles, J. R. (2017). Intergroup dialogue in undergraduate multicultural psychology education: Group climate development and outcomes. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*, 10(1), 52–71. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0040042>

### **Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Describing Participants**

Was sufficient information provided to determine/confirm the population of participants to which the results can be generalised?

- Yes – 87 Members of intergroup dialogue course in undergraduate multicultural psychology course
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were appropriate procedures used to increase the likelihood that relevant characteristics of participants in the sample were comparable across conditions, if a control group was used?

- Yes
- No
- N/A – no control group
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was sufficient information given characterizing the interventionists or teachers provided?

- Yes – cofacilitated by 29 graduate students enrolled in an advanced course. Received some training. Demographics of facilitators provided.
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

### **Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Implementation of the Intervention and Description of Comparison Conditions**

Was the intervention clearly described and specified?

- Yes – intergroup dialogue groups.
- No

- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the fidelity of implementation described and assessed?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the nature of services provided in comparison conditions described?

- Yes
- No
- N/A – no control groups
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Outcome Measures**

Were multiple measures used to provide an appropriate balance between measures closely aligned with the intervention and measures of generalized performance?

- Yes – range of measures administered.
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention’s effect measured at the appropriate times?

- Yes – pre-intervention and post-intervention
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Data Analysis**

Were the data analysis techniques appropriately linked to key research questions and hypotheses? Were they appropriately linked to the unit of analysis in the study?

- Yes
- No

- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include not only inferential statistics but also effect size calculations?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Desirable Quality Indicators**

Was data available on attrition rates among intervention samples? Was severe overall attrition documented? If so, is attrition comparable across samples? Is overall attrition less than 30%?

- Yes – Reported attrition and missing data. Only 54% completed both pre- and post- surveys HOWEVER some of this is due to not giving consent to participate.
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the study provide not only internal consistency reliability but also test-retest reliability and interrater reliability (when appropriate) for outcome measures?

- Yes
- No – only internal consistency reported.
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention's effect measured beyond an immediate posttest?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was evidence of the criterion-related validity and construct validity of the measures provided?

- Yes
- No – validity of measures was not reported.
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research team assess not only surface features of fidelity implementation (e.g., number of minutes allocated to the intervention or teacher/interventionist following procedures specified), but also examine quality of implementation?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was any documentation of the nature of instruction or series provided in comparison conditions?

- Yes
- No
- N/A – no control group
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include actual audio or videotape excerpts that capture the nature of the intervention?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were results presented in a clear, coherent fashion?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

	Total	Score
Essential Quality Indicators ≥ 9 = score 2 7-8 = score 1 < 7 = score 0	6	0
Desirable Quality Indicators ≥ 4 = score 1 < 4 = score 0	2	0
<b>Weighting of Evidence A Rating</b> Score for Essential + Desirable		0

**Coding Protocol:** Gersten, R., Fuchs, L. S., Compton, D., Coyne, M., Greenwood, C., & Innocenti, M. S. (2005). Quality indicators for group experimental and quasi-experimental research in special education. *Exceptional Children, 71*(2), 149-164

Date: 03.08.21

**Full Study Reference:** Nordstrom, A. H. (2015). The voices project: Reducing white students' racism in introduction to psychology. *Teaching of Psychology, 42*(1), 43–50. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0098628314562524>

### Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Describing Participants

Was sufficient information provided to determine/confirm the population of participants to which the results can be generalised?

- Yes – students at US university; demographics given  
 No  
 N/A  
 Unknown/Unable to Code

Were appropriate procedures used to increase the likelihood that relevant characteristics of participants in the sample were comparable across conditions, if a control group was used?

- Yes - carried out chi-square tests and then controlled for gender in analysis.  
 No  
 N/A  
 Unknown/Unable to Code

Was sufficient information given characterizing the interventionists or teachers provided?

- Yes – one white female instructor
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Implementation of the Intervention and Description of Comparison Conditions**

Was the intervention clearly described and specified?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the fidelity of implementation described and assessed?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the nature of services provided in comparison conditions described?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Outcome Measures**

Were multiple measures used to provide an appropriate balance between measures closely aligned with the intervention and measures of generalized performance?

- Yes – variety of measures administered
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code



Were outcomes for capturing the intervention's effect measured at the appropriate times?

- Yes – pre-intervention, post-intervention and follow-up
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Data Analysis**

Were the data analysis techniques appropriately linked to key research questions and hypotheses? Were they appropriately linked to the unit of analysis in the study?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include not only inferential statistics but also effect size calculations?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Desirable Quality Indicators**

Was data available on attrition rates among intervention samples? Was severe overall attrition documented? If so, is attrition comparable across samples? Is overall attrition less than 30%?

- Yes
- No – attrition rates were reported but these were high (over 30%).
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the study provide not only internal consistency reliability but also test-retest reliability and interrater reliability (when appropriate) for outcome measures?

- Yes
- No – only internal consistency data given
- N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention's effect measured beyond an immediate posttest?

Yes - 1 year follow-up

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Was evidence of the criterion-related validity and construct validity of the measures provided?

Yes

No – no validity data reported

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research team assess not only surface features of fidelity implementation (e.g., number of minutes allocated to the intervention or teacher/interventionist following procedures specified), but also examine quality of implementation?

Yes

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Was any documentation of the nature of instruction or series provided in comparison conditions?

Yes

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include actual audio or videotape excerpts that capture the nature of the intervention?

Yes

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Were results presented in a clear, coherent fashion?

- Yes  
 No  
 N/A  
 Unknown/Unable to Code

	Total	Score
Essential Quality Indicators ≥ 9 = score 2 7-8 = score 1 < 7 = score 0	9	2
Desirable Quality Indicators ≥ 4 = score 1 < 4 = score 0	3	0
<b>Weighting of Evidence A Rating</b> Score for Essential + Desirable		2

**Coding Protocol:** Gersten, R., Fuchs, L. S., Compton, D., Coyne, M., Greenwood, C., & Innocenti, M. S. (2005). Quality indicators for group experimental and quasi-experimental research in special education. *Exceptional Children*, 71(2), 149-164

Date: 03.08.21

**Full Study Reference:** Paone, T. R., Malott, K. M., & Barr, J. J. (2015). Assessing the impact of a race-based course on counseling students: A quantitative study. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development*, 43(3), 206–220. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jmcd.12015>

### **Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Describing Participants**

Was sufficient information provided to determine/confirm the population of participants to which the results can be generalised?

- Yes – 121 masters-level white counselling students in the US. Demographics given.  
 No  
 N/A  
 Unknown/Unable to Code

Were appropriate procedures used to increase the likelihood that relevant characteristics of participants in the sample were comparable across conditions, if a control group was used?

- Yes
- No
- N/A – no control group
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was sufficient information given characterizing the interventionists or teachers provided?

- Yes
- No – no information given on interventionists
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Implementation of the Intervention and Description of Comparison Conditions**

Was the intervention clearly described and specified?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the fidelity of implementation described and assessed?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the nature of services provided in comparison conditions described?

- Yes
- No
- N/A – no control group
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Outcome Measures**

Were multiple measures used to provide an appropriate balance between measures closely aligned with the intervention and measures of generalized performance?

- Yes – variety of measures administered.
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention's effect measured at the appropriate times?

- Yes – pre- and post-intervention
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

#### **Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Data Analysis**

Were the data analysis techniques appropriately linked to key research questions and hypotheses? Were they appropriately linked to the unit of analysis in the study?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include not only inferential statistics but also effect size calculations?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

#### **Desirable Quality Indicators**

Was data available on attrition rates among intervention samples? Was severe overall attrition documented? If so, is attrition comparable across samples? Is overall attrition less than 30%?

- Yes
- No – attrition data not reported

- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the study provide not only internal consistency reliability but also test-retest reliability and interrater reliability (when appropriate) for outcome measures?

- Yes
- No – only internal consistency reliability reported.
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention's effect measured beyond an immediate posttest?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was evidence of the criterion-related validity and construct validity of the measures provided?

- Yes
- No – validity of measures not reported
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research team assess not only surface features of fidelity implementation (e.g., number of minutes allocated to the intervention or teacher/interventionist following procedures specified), but also examine quality of implementation?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was any documentation of the nature of instruction or series provided in comparison conditions?

- Yes
- No – no control group

- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include actual audio or videotape excerpts that capture the nature of the intervention?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were results presented in a clear, coherent fashion?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

	Total	Score
Essential Quality Indicators ≥ 9 = score 2 7-8 = score 1 < 7 = score 0	6	0
Desirable Quality Indicators ≥ 4 = score 1 < 4 = score 0	1	0
<b>Weighting of Evidence A Rating</b> Score for Essential + Desirable		0

**Coding Protocol:** Gersten, R., Fuchs, L. S., Compton, D., Coyne, M., Greenwood, C., & Innocenti, M. S. (2005). Quality indicators for group experimental and quasi-experimental research in special education. *Exceptional Children, 71*(2), 149-164

Date: 01.08.22

**Full Study Reference:** Robey, N., & Dickter, C. (2022). Internet-based cultural competence training for White undergraduate students at a predominantly White university. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 1-14*. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jasp.12881>

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Describing Participants**

Was sufficient information provided to determine/confirm the population of participants to which the results can be generalised?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were appropriate procedures used to increase the likelihood that relevant characteristics of participants in the sample were comparable across conditions, if a control group was used?

- Yes
- No
- N/A – no control group
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was sufficient information given characterizing the interventionists or teachers provided?

- Yes – hired student actors for role play, research assistants from underrepresented backgrounds
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Implementation of the Intervention and Description of Comparison Conditions**

Was the intervention clearly described and specified?

- Yes – including link to open access manual
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the fidelity of implementation described and assessed?

- Yes - checks for understanding to ensure information was read and absorbed; online therefore same for each participant
- No
- N/A



Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the nature of services provided in comparison conditions described?

Yes

No

N/A – no control condition

Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Outcome Measures**

Were multiple measures used to provide an appropriate balance between measures closely aligned with the intervention and measures of generalized performance?

Yes – multiple outcomes measures

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention's effect measured at the appropriate times?

Yes – pre- and post-intervention

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Data Analysis**

Were the data analysis techniques appropriately linked to key research questions and hypotheses? Were they appropriately linked to the unit of analysis in the study?

Yes

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include not only inferential statistics but also effect size calculations?

Yes

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

**Desirable Quality Indicators**

Was data available on attrition rates among intervention samples? Was severe overall attrition documented? If so, is attrition comparable across samples? Is overall attrition less than 30%?

Yes – clearly explained attrition rates with reasons. Attrition reported as n = 8.

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the study provide not only internal consistency reliability but also test-retest reliability and interrater reliability (when appropriate) for outcome measures?

Yes

No – only Cronbach's alpha reported

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention's effect measured beyond an immediate posttest?

Yes

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Was evidence of the criterion-related validity and construct validity of the measures provided?

Yes

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research team assess not only surface features of fidelity implementation (e.g., number of minutes allocated to the intervention or teacher/interventionist following procedures specified), but also examine quality of implementation?

Yes

No – quality of the materials but not quality of implementation

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Was any documentation of the nature of instruction or series provided in comparison conditions?

Yes

No

N/A – no control condition

Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include actual audio or videotape excerpts that capture the nature of the intervention?

Yes – includes references to youtube clips from the intervention

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Were results presented in a clear, coherent fashion?

Yes

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

	Total	Score
Essential Quality Indicators ≥ 9 = score 2 7-8 = score 1 < 7 = score 0	8	1
Desirable Quality Indicators ≥ 4 = score 1 < 4 = score 0	3	0
<b>Weighting of Evidence A Rating</b> Score for Essential + Desirable		1

**Coding Protocol:** Gersten, R., Fuchs, L. S., Compton, D., Coyne, M., Greenwood, C., & Innocenti, M. S. (2005). Quality indicators for group experimental and quasi-experimental research in special education. *Exceptional Children*, 71(2), 149-164

Date: 03.08.21

**Full Study Reference:** Schmidt, C. K., Earnest, D. R., & Miles, J. R. (2020). Expanding the reach of intergroup dialogue: A quasi-experimental study of two teaching methods for undergraduate multicultural courses. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*, 13(3), 264–273.  
<https://doi.org/10.1037/dhe0000124>

### **Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Describing Participants**

Was sufficient information provided to determine/confirm the population of participants to which the results can be generalised?

- Yes – 112 undergraduate students enrolled in one of 5 courses addressing diversity and multicultural education. Demographics given.
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were appropriate procedures used to increase the likelihood that relevant characteristics of participants in the sample were comparable across conditions, if a control group was used?

- Yes – demographic profile of students in different conditions was equivalent.
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was sufficient information given characterizing the interventionists or teachers provided?

- Yes – 4 different instructors – demographics of these given. IGD courses also had 2 faculty or staff facilitators for each group. Facilitators had received training
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

### **Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Implementation of the Intervention and Description of Comparison Conditions**

Was the intervention clearly described and specified?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the fidelity of implementation described and assessed?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the nature of services provided in comparison conditions described?

- Yes - traditional methods of instruction throughout the entire semester.
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Outcome Measures**

Were multiple measures used to provide an appropriate balance between measures closely aligned with the intervention and measures of generalized performance?

- Yes – variety of measures were administered.
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention's effect measured at the appropriate times?

- Yes – pre-intervention and post-intervention
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Data Analysis**

Were the data analysis techniques appropriately linked to key research questions and hypotheses? Were they appropriately linked to the unit of analysis in the study?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include not only inferential statistics but also effect size calculations?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

#### **Desirable Quality Indicators**

Was data available on attrition rates among intervention samples? Was severe overall attrition documented? If so, is attrition comparable across samples? Is overall attrition less than 30%?

- Yes – overall attrition was reported and was less than 30%.
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the study provide not only internal consistency reliability but also test-retest reliability and interrater reliability (when appropriate) for outcome measures?

- Yes
- No – only internal consistency information was reported.
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention's effect measured beyond an immediate posttest?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was evidence of the criterion-related validity and construct validity of the measures provided?

- Yes
- No – validity of measures was not reported.
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research team assess not only surface features of fidelity implementation (e.g., number of minutes allocated to the intervention or teacher/interventionist following procedures specified), but also examine quality of implementation?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was any documentation of the nature of instruction or series provided in comparison conditions?

- Yes – details given for the control condition.
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include actual audio or videotape excerpts that capture the nature of the intervention?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were results presented in a clear, coherent fashion?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

	Total	Score
Essential Quality Indicators ≥ 9 = score 2 7-8 = score 1 < 7 = score 0	9	2
Desirable Quality Indicators ≥ 4 = score 1 < 4 = score 0	3	0
<b>Weighting of Evidence A Rating</b> Score for Essential + Desirable		2

**Coding Protocol:** Gersten, R., Fuchs, L. S., Compton, D., Coyne, M., Greenwood, C., & Innocenti, M. S. (2005). Quality indicators for group experimental and quasi-experimental research in special education. *Exceptional Children, 71*(2), 149-164

Date: 03.08.21

**Full Study Reference:** Simons, L., Marshall, C., Blank, N., & Weaver, N. (2020). Differences in student learning outcomes that utilize high impact practices. *The European Journal of Social & Behavioural Sciences, 27*(1), 5–30. <https://doi.org/10.15405/ejsbs.266>

### Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Describing Participants

Was sufficient information provided to determine/confirm the population of participants to which the results can be generalised?

- Yes – 1500 undergraduate students in the US. Demographics given.
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were appropriate procedures used to increase the likelihood that relevant characteristics of participants in the sample were comparable across conditions, if a control group was used?

- Yes
- No – 3 intervention conditions but procedures not taken to ensure comparable across conditions.
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code



Was sufficient information given characterizing the interventionists or teachers provided?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Implementation of the Intervention and Description of Comparison Conditions**

Was the intervention clearly described and specified?

- Yes – academic-based service learning (ABSL), cultural-based service-learning (CBSL) and experiential learning.
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the fidelity of implementation described and assessed?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was the nature of services provided in comparison conditions described?

- Yes
- No
- N/A – 3 intervention conditions (not control)
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Outcome Measures**

Were multiple measures used to provide an appropriate balance between measures closely aligned with the intervention and measures of generalized performance?

- Yes – variety of measures gathered.
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention's effect measured at the appropriate times?

- Yes – pre- and post-intervention
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Essential Quality Indicators – Quality Indicators for Data Analysis**

Were the data analysis techniques appropriately linked to key research questions and hypotheses? Were they appropriately linked to the unit of analysis in the study?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include not only inferential statistics but also effect size calculations?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

**Desirable Quality Indicators**

Was data available on attrition rates among intervention samples? Was severe overall attrition documented? If so, is attrition comparable across samples? Is overall attrition less than 30%?

- Yes
- No – no data reported on attrition rates.
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the study provide not only internal consistency reliability but also test-retest reliability and interrater reliability (when appropriate) for outcome measures?

- Yes – test-retest reliability reported for one measure.
- No

- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention's effect measured beyond an immediate posttest?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was evidence of the criterion-related validity and construct validity of the measures provided?

- Yes
- No – validity of measures not reported.
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research team assess not only surface features of fidelity implementation (e.g., number of minutes allocated to the intervention or teacher/interventionist following procedures specified), but also examine quality of implementation?

- Yes
- No
- N/A
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Was any documentation of the nature of instruction or series provided in comparison conditions?

- Yes
- No
- N/A – 3 intervention conditions, not control conditions
- Unknown/Unable to Code

Did the research report include actual audio or videotape excerpts that capture the nature of the intervention?

- Yes
- No
- N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

Were results presented in a clear, coherent fashion?

Yes

No

N/A

Unknown/Unable to Code

	Total	Score
Essential Quality Indicators ≥ 9 = score 2 7-8 = score 1 < 7 = score 0	5	0
Desirable Quality Indicators ≥ 4 = score 1 < 4 = score 0	2	0
<b>Weighting of Evidence A Rating</b> Score for Essential + Desirable		0

## Appendix E – Recruitment Email

Dear Colleagues

This is an invitation to participate in a doctoral research project investigating educational psychologists' views on white privilege, the first phase of which is an online survey. As such, it would be greatly appreciated if you could distribute this email to any Educational Psychologists and TEPs within your service.

Below is a brief description of the research:

This project is looking to explore educational psychologists' views on the concept of white privilege and its relevance to the EP profession. This will make a distinct contribution to discussions around promoting equality, diversity and inclusion within educational psychology practice. This research is seeking to gain a representative picture of the EP profession and your participation would help achieve this. Please consider completing this survey regardless of your stance, the strength of your views or confidence answering questions on this topic.

The first phase of this research is an online survey. The second phase will be online semi-structured interviews with a smaller number of participants. Further information is contained in the participant information sheet linked below. If, after completing the survey, you would like to participate in a follow-up interview, please contact the researcher directly by email at: REDACTED

Further information can be found in the participant information sheet:

[https://liveuclac-my.sharepoint.com/:b:/g/personal/ucjuhw2\\_ucl\\_ac\\_uk/EZLLdGdnjkNNj4rvlcp32YsBq0Z0j6r0oAWB3wpA0E\\_eUA?e=bZ8H4t](https://liveuclac-my.sharepoint.com/:b:/g/personal/ucjuhw2_ucl_ac_uk/EZLLdGdnjkNNj4rvlcp32YsBq0Z0j6r0oAWB3wpA0E_eUA?e=bZ8H4t)

Please read the participant information sheet carefully before completing the survey. The link to the survey can be found at:

<https://opinio.ucl.ac.uk/s?s=74955>

This research has been ethically approved by the UCL Research Ethics Committee, project ID number: 21267/002

Thank you for any help in sharing this research.

Kind regards,  
Helena Wood

Departmental and Principal Investigator Details:  
Dr Benjamin Hayes, Academic and Professional Tutor  
REDACTED

## Appendix F – Blog Post

**By Helena Wood, Trainee Educational Psychologist**, at University College London, currently undertaking research to explore educational psychologists' views on white privilege.

Hello! My name is Helena and I am a year 2 trainee educational psychologist, completing my training with University College London.

The summer prior to embarking on my doctoral training coincided with a number of significant and highly distressing events. The death of George Floyd on 25th May 2020 brought widespread attention to the Black Lives Matter movement on an international scale, and the Covid-19 pandemic (then in its early stages) began to further highlight existing social and health inequalities (Public Health England, 2020). On top of this, mainstream media such as the documentary “Subnormal: A British Scandal” (Shannon, 2021) is increasingly exposing the influence and complicity Educational Psychologists (EPs) can and have held within discriminatory systems. As outlined in an open letter written by the Educational Psychologists' ‘Race’ and Culture Forum, there is a serious need for more anti-racism work within educational psychology practice and training programmes (Williams, 2020), and this was reiterated also by the British Psychological Society (Murphy, 2020). One way anti-racism has been defined is as “the active process of identifying and eliminating racism by changing systems, organizational structures, policies and practices and attitudes, so that power is redistributed and shared equitably” (NAC International Perspectives: Women and Global Solidarity, as cited by CARED - ACLRC, 2009).

A concept which I noticed surface repeatedly through conversations, events and reading around this area was ‘white privilege’. With further reading, I found that previous research has explored understanding of privilege amongst various educational professionals (Allan & Estler, 2005; Crowley, 2019; McIntyre, 1997; Solomona et al., 2005) and findings from these studies have shown mixed attitudes and views. In addition, recent studies have investigated understanding of whiteness within the UK Clinical Psychology workforce (Ahsan, 2020) and conceptions of white privilege amongst school psychology graduate interns in the US (Broems, 2021). However, despite white privilege being explored in these related professions, I could not find any existing research exploring conceptions of white privilege in UK EPs, despite research suggesting issues of social justice are important and relevant to EPs (Schulze et al., 2019).

As such, I set out to carry out an exploratory piece of research as part of my thesis, to gather EPs' views on white privilege. I decided to explore these views using an online survey, as this offers greater anonymity for participants and would allow me to gather views from a larger sample of EPs (Terry & Braun, 2017). Although only a snapshot in time, I hope that this research will contribute to the crucial conversations around promoting equality, diversity and inclusion within Educational Psychology practice.

As a final note, I am conscious of how important it is that throughout this research process that I remain mindful of my own identity and perspective, and how this will undoubtedly influence and shape my research decisions at different stages. I have found the Social GRRRAACCEEESSS (Burnham, 2012) a useful tool for reflecting on different aspects of my own identity and hope to use this to support my reflexivity as I continue on my research journey.

Thank you for your time and for reading this post! If you are a qualified educational psychologist or trainee educational psychologist, based in the UK, and you would like to consider participating in this research, more information can be found in the **Participant Information Sheet**

Here is the **online survey link**.

Please note, participants are no longer needed for the semi-structured interview phase (phase 2) of the study.

## References

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Allan, E. J., & Estler, S. E. (2005). Diversity, privilege, and us: Collaborative curriculum transformation among educational leadership faculty. *Innovative Higher Education*, 29(3), 209–232. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10755-005-1937-y>

Broems, V. M. (2021). Exploring white privilege conceptions with school psychology graduate interns: a phenomenological study. Fordham University.

Burnham, J. (2012). Developments in social GRRRAACCEEESSS: Visible-invisible and voiced-unvoiced. In *Culture and Reflexivity in Systemic Psychotherapy: Mutual Perspectives* (1st ed., pp. 139–160). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429473463-7>

Calgary Anti-Racism Education - Alberta Civil Liberties Research Centre (CARED - ACLRC). (2009). Anti-racism defined. <https://web.archive.org/web/20201001093113/http://www.aclrc.com/antiracism-defined>

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Schulze, J., Winter, L. A., Woods, K., & Tyldsley, K. (2019). An international social justice agenda in school psychology? Exploring educational psychologists' social justice interest and practice in England. *Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation*, 29(4), 377–400. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10474412.2018.1531765>

Solomona, R. P., Portelli, J. P., Daniel, B. J., & Campbell, A. (2005). The discourse of denial: How white teacher candidates construct race, racism and “white privilege.” *Race Ethnicity and Education*, 8(2), 147–169. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13613320500110519>

Terry, G., & Braun, V. (2017). Short but Often Sweet: The Surprising Potential of Qualitative Survey Methods. In *Collecting Qualitative Data: A Practical Guide to Textual, Media and Virtual Techniques*. <https://doi.org/10.1017/9781107295094.003>

Williams, A. R. (2020). Editorial: the whiteness of educational psychology: colonialism, post-colonialism and racialisation in the theory, training and practice of educational psychology. *Educational Psychology Research and Practice*, 6(1), 1–8.

**If you have a research project and would like us to support and share your research (in developmental stage or post publication), then please contact us on REDACTED**



## Appendix G – Ethnicity Data

Self-Described Ethnicity	Frequency	Percentage
White British	51	50.50
White	14	13.86
White English	3	2.97
White Irish	3	2.97
Black Caribbean	2	1.98
Black African	2	1.98
White other	2	1.98
White (EU)/White European	2	1.98
Any other White background	2	1.98
White Scottish	1	0.99
White Welsh	1	0.99
White Australian	1	0.99
White British/American	1	0.99
White UK	1	0.99
White British/London Irish	1	0.99
Arab and White European	1	0.99
Any other Black, African or Caribbean background	1	0.99
Indian	1	0.99
White and Black Caribbean	1	0.99
White Euro-British	1	0.99
White and South Asian	1	0.99
North African Arab	1	0.99
Mixed Race	1	0.99
Any other Asian Background	1	0.99
Asian Chinese	1	0.99
Black British	1	0.99
Pakistani	1	0.99
Asian British	1	0.99
Not answered	1	0.99

## Appendix H – Full Survey

This study has been approved by the UCL Research Ethics Committee:  
Project ID number: 21267/002.

Thank you for considering taking part in this research. You must read the Information Sheet explaining the project before you agree to take part. If you have any questions arising from the Information Sheet or explanation already given to you, please contact the researcher before you decide whether to participate.

The Information Sheet can be found by clicking [here](#)

I confirm that by continuing through to the survey I am consenting to the following elements of the study:

- I confirm that I have read and understood the Information Sheet for the above study. I have had an opportunity to consider the information and what will be expected of me.
- I would like to participate in the study.
- I understand that by completing and submitting the online survey I have consented to participating in the study.
- I understand that if I subsequently email the researcher and provide personal information (email/contact number) that this will only be used to arrange an interview and then deleted.
- I understand that according to data protection legislation, 'public task' will be the lawful basis for processing the data and 'research purposes' will be the lawful basis for processing special category data.
- I understand that all personal information, should I choose to provide this (email/contact number) will remain confidential and that all efforts will be made to ensure I cannot be identified.
- I understand that my data gathered in this study will be stored pseudonymously and securely. It will not be possible to identify me in any publications.
- I understand that my information may be subject to review by responsible individuals from the University for monitoring and audit purposes.
- I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I can withdraw from the survey at any time.
- I understand that after I submit the survey responses, any personal data I have provided may not be able to be deleted due to responses being pseudonymous.
- I understand the potential risks of participating and the support that will be available to me should I become distressed during the course of the research.
- I understand the direct/indirect benefits of participating, and that participating may help to shape and inform future research and policy.
- I understand that the data will not be made available to any commercial organisations but is solely the responsibility of the researcher(s) undertaking this study.

- I understand that I will not benefit financially from this study or from any possible outcome it may result in in the future.
- I understand that the information I have submitted will be presented within a PhD thesis and may be published. I understand that if I wish to receive a copy of it I can email the researcher
- I hereby confirm that I understand why I have been invited to participate, as detailed in the Information Sheet.
- I hereby confirm that: I understand the inclusion criteria as detailed in the Information Sheet, and I fall under the inclusion criteria.
- I understand that other authenticated researchers will have access to my pseudonymous data.
- I am aware of who I should contact if I wish to lodge a complaint.
- I am aware that all data provided in this project will be deleted following project completion and that only the analysis will be kept.
- I voluntarily agree to take part in this study.

By clicking 'Start', you consent to the above conditions and understand that you can terminate the study at any time, simply by closing your browser

1) How would you define the term 'white privilege'?

---

2) The following questions are adapted from the Privilege and Oppression Inventory (Hays et al., 2007). For each statement please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree.

Please select one answer for each row. There are no right or wrong answers, please answer as honestly as you can.

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neither Agree nor Disagree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
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**3)** 'I think there is evidence that white privilege manifests within the Educational Psychology profession'

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree

- Agree
- Strongly Agree

Please elaborate on your answer below – why did you choose this answer?

---

**4) How important do you think it is for Educational Psychologists to have an understanding of white privilege?**

- Not at all important
- Of little importance
- Neutral/not sure
- Moderately important
- Very important

Please elaborate on your answer below – why did you choose this answer?

---

**5. In the last 6 months, how often have you engaged with material related to topics of race, racism, antiracism or privilege?**

Examples of engagement may include:

- Attending discussion groups
- Attending training or webinars
- Conversations/reflections in one's personal or professional life
- Reading or research
- Social media engagement

- Daily
- Several times per week
- Weekly
- Fortnightly
- Monthly

- Once every few months
- Never
- Prefer not to say

The final questions in this survey will be used to determine how representative the final sample is.

**6. What age range do you fall within?**

- Up to 24 years
- 25 – 34 years
- 45 – 54 years
- 55 – 64 years
- 65 – 74 years
- 75+ years
- Prefer not to say

**7. In what broad geographical area do you work?**

- London
- Midlands and Eastern England
- North England
- South England
- Northern Ireland
- Scotland
- Wales
- Prefer not to say
- Other \_\_\_\_\_

**8. How would you describe your ethnicity?**

For reference, below is a list of ethnic groups recommended for use by the UK government (retrieved October 2021 from <https://www.ethnicity-facts-figures.service.gov.uk/style-guide/ethnic-groups>)

White

- English, Welsh, Scottish, Northern Irish or British
- Irish
- Gypsy or Irish Traveller
- Any other White background

Mixed or Multiple ethnic groups

- White and Black Caribbean
- White and Black African
- White and Asian
- Any other Mixed or Multiple ethnic background

Asian or Asian British

- Indian
- Pakistani
- Bangladeshi
- Chinese
- Any other Asian background

Black, African, Caribbean or Black British

- African
- Caribbean
- Any other Black, African or Caribbean background

Other ethnic group

- Arab
- Any other ethnic group

**9. How would you describe your gender?**

- Male (including transgender men)
- Female (including transgender women)
- Prefer not to say
- Prefer to self-describe as \_\_\_\_\_

Thank you for completing this survey. Please remember to click 'Finish', or your responses will be lost.

If you would like to express interest in taking part in a follow-up one-to-one semi-structured interview, please email the researcher directly at REDACTED. The purpose of this interview will be to explore your views in greater depth. For more information on this please revisit the participant information sheet by clicking [here](#).

Thank you, your responses have been saved.

If you would like to express interest in taking part in a follow-up one-to-one semi-structured interview, please email the researcher directly at REDACTED. The purpose of this interview will be to explore your views in greater depth. For more information on this please revisit the participant information sheet by clicking [here](#).



## Appendix I – Survey Adaptations Following Piloting

Question	Original	Adaptation	Rationale
2	Whites generally have more resources and opportunities	White people generally have more resources and opportunities	This wording was deemed to be more up-to-date and reflective of the UK context.
	Whites have the power to exclude other groups	White people have the power to exclude other groups	
	Government policies favor Whites	Government policies favour white people	
	The media (e.g., television, radio) favors Whites	The media (e.g. television, news outlets, radio, social media) favours white people	
	Many movies negatively stereotype people of colour	Many movies and television series negatively stereotype people of colour	
	The majority of positive role models in the media are White	The majority of positive role models in the media are white	

2	6-Point Likert Scale	5-Point Likert Scale	in surveys it is considered good practice to offer participants the ability to choose a 'no-opinion' option (Robson & McCartan, 2015). The researcher considered it important that participants could indicate neutrality or ambivalence for each of the questions as this might be considered a view in itself. Therefore, a 'neutral/not sure' or 'neither agree nor disagree' option was included for each question.
3	'There is evidence that white privilege manifests within the educational psychology profession'	'I think there is evidence that white privilege manifests within the Educational Psychology profession'	This was important because it specifies that it wants the participant's opinion, and, as Terry and Braun (2017) effectively capture, 'omitting these words would produce quite a different expectation, and requires the participant to 'know' the answer, potentially resulting in an unhelpful 'I don't know' response' (Terry & Braun, 2017, p. 26)

4	How important is it for educational psychologists to understand white privilege?	How important do you think it is for Educational Psychologists to have an understanding of white privilege?	This was important because it specifies that it wants the participant's opinion, and, as Terry and Braun (2017) effectively capture, 'omitting these words would produce quite a different expectation, and requires the participant to 'know' the answer, potentially resulting in an unhelpful 'I don't know' response' (Terry & Braun, 2017, p. 26)
5	n/a	This question was added following piloting	This would provide additional demographic information of interest regarding engagement of the participants with this issue.
8	Closed options from the government recommended list of ethnic groups	Opportunities to self-describe ethnicity (with the government recommended list provided for reference)	To give participants the opportunity to self-describe their ethnicity, in case they felt none of the predetermined categories appropriately described them.

## **Appendix J – Equality, Diversity and Inclusion Discussion Forum: Aims, Remit and Composition**

The Equality, Diversity and Inclusion Discussion Forum is a long-standing group at UCL which grew out of a need identified by the Equality, Diversity and Inclusion Strategy Group for a safe and creative space to explore issues relating to Equality, Diversity and Inclusion. The following summary draws on the most recent guidelines, last updated in December 2021.

Meetings are held on a bi-monthly basis with around 5 or 6 meetings a year. The aim is to provide a safe and creative space for trainees, course members and tutors to reflect on their experiences, from a personal, professional and academic standpoint (e.g. to share and appraise research, blogs and other literature and sources of information).

Membership is defined as belonging to the Educational Psychology Group at UCL. This includes Trainee Educational Psychologists on the Doctorate in Educational and Psychology (DECPsy) course, course members on the CPD Doctorate in Educational Psychology (DEdPsy), all course tutors and other associates (e.g., research advisors). The EDI forum is comprised of a diverse group of individuals from a range of roles, nationalities, ethnicities and backgrounds.

### **Hopes and Aims**

Those attending the forum in the Autumn of 2021 expressed a range of hopes and aims for the group:

- To learn about and share new ideas and extend our knowledge of Equality, Diversity and Inclusion
- To help build inclusive practice in our work as EPs
- To explore practical strategies and approaches that relate to, for example, anti-racist practice
- To learn from each other's practice
- To hear about people's reading and research
- To hear about people's work, placement and personal experiences.

## **Appendix K – Equality, Diversity and Inclusion Discussion Forum: Feedback**

**July 2021**

### Introduction

My current thesis proposal is looking at exploring understanding of the concept of white privilege in white Educational Psychologists and how this understanding impacts their practice.

White privilege has been explored in previous literature, especially in the US, and however there is no research within white EPs looking at white identity.

Relevance to looking at this within EPs is our role in promoting EDI principles and reflecting on our own biases and perspectives and how these might impact our practice. The focus is currently on white EPs only, rather than re-centring white views the rationale for this is to try and challenge the assumption that it purely down to those from minority ethnic groups to think about and talk about these issues. Nature of privilege is that it's often understood as 'invisible' to those who it relates to.

5 potential research questions would be:

- What do white EPs understand the term 'white privilege' to mean?
- What are white EPs' beliefs about white privilege? – this would be a validated scale with questions about awareness of white privilege
- How do white EPs think white privilege manifests within the Educational Psychology profession?
- How important do EPs feel an understanding of white privilege is in their role as a white EP?
- How do white EPs' understanding of white privilege impact their practice?

### Feedback raised by group:

- Is there a need to consider intersectionality theory and recognising the diversity within the group of white EPs themselves?
- Potential for giving EPs resources to explore further at the end?
- How to explore different white identities?
- In terms of defining white privilege, could ask what it is, and what is it not?
- Would this be quite a self-selecting sample with potential response bias? A whole-service approach?
- Recruitment strategy with including only white EPs might be complicated – how would you do this without people feeling excluded?
- May it be better to ask everyone the same questions but ask them to state their ethnicity, then you won't need to leave anyone out and you could get views on different perspectives?

### Main changes to the proposal based on feedback:

- Changing the participant group to opening this up to all EPs regardless of ethnicity.
- Q5 might be most relevant to white EPs therefore this could be something to include in interviews for EPs who identify as holding white privilege
- Change the survey questions to account for this change
- Change the interview questions to account for this change
- Clearly articulate the value of the research – there is a need to know where we are in order to do something about it. How will it benefit children, schools and families?

## December 2022

Presentation on research project findings: exploring EP views on white privilege.

Key questions for discussion:

- Do you have any reactions to, thoughts on or reflections on these findings?
- Did anything surprise you? Was there anything you didn't see but might expect to see?
- Complexity – is it too complex or not complex enough?
- Do these findings have social validity (i.e., are they helpful in some way?)
- What are the potential implications (e.g., for us as a profession?)

### Reflections and questions; Researcher Responses

- *How might EP ethnicity play a role in white privilege – their own experiences or identity might affect how they feel about this or define it?* This was not specifically included as a research question however agree that this might have been interesting to explore or something to explore in the future?
- *Were all the EPs in the sample white? Do you have the ethnic breakdown of the EPs that responded?* Based on literature read and feedback in prior EDI forum the sample included all EPs regardless of ethnicity. Demographic information on ethnicity was gathered.
- *Reflection – it is interesting how different views of the profession come out in the qualitative data – reflecting on how there were different views/themes in the qual data compared to predominantly strong responses in the quantitative data.*
- *Where were the EPs in the sample based? Might the view of EPs in cities have been different to those in rural areas?* This is an important point - are people talking about anti-racism enough in services where white EPs are in the majority/the majority of families worked with are white?
- *Where two themes don't link to the rest of the diagram how does this work?* Hypothesised links are shown with lines however researcher's

understanding is that it is also OK in thematic analysis to have 'floating' themes which do not necessarily link to other themes.

- *Liked the thematic maps and these were really easy to follow.*
- *In terms of implications - would adding 'my' in front of the themes help make the information act like a reflective tool to reflect on in teams?*
- *Reflection that there are only a few universities which offer international places (only three) across the UK. There is some data that may suggest different acceptance rates onto the courses according to ethnicity (higher acceptance rates for white applicants).*
- *Example: when British values became part of Ofsted evaluation – some schools in less diverse areas were arguing that they didn't need to address diversity and cultural curriculum as their schools were monocultural. This meant some schools were failed or marked down on inspection. Reflection on how this can be translated to EP services. Might argue it is more important for these areas to have diversity input as there is a risk there is generally less awareness and fewer experiences to learn from.*
- *Is there a possibility that talking about issues like white privilege causes some people's views to become more entrenched? (gave other examples of where this is happening in the world).*
- *Possibility of bias in those who chose to do the survey in the first place due to the title of the work*
- *Risk that this type of research might lead to complacency and for people to think that this has been 'done' and that awareness is the ends rather than being translated into practice.*
- *Experience in one service where anti-racist practice is talked about (and cultural competence) but not white privilege. Why might that be?*
- *Thank you for bringing this back to the group and for sharing an update on the project.*

# Appendix L – Official Letter of Ethical Approval

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UCL RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE  
OFFICE FOR THE VICE PROVOST RESEARCH



17<sup>th</sup> November 2021

Dr Benjamin Hayes  
Department of Clinical, Educational and Health Psychology  
UCL

Cc: Helena Wood

Dear Dr Hayes

**Notification of Ethics Approval with Provisos**

**Project ID/Title: 21267/002: An exploration of educational psychologists' views on white privilege**

Further to your satisfactory responses to the Committee's comments, I am pleased to confirm in my capacity as Chair of the UCL Research Ethics Committee (REC) that your study has been ethically approved by the UCL REC until **31<sup>st</sup> August 2023**.

Ethical approval is subject to the following conditions:

**Notification of Amendments to the Research**

You must seek Chair's approval for proposed amendments (to include extensions to the duration of the project) to the research for which this approval has been given. Each research project is reviewed separately and if there are significant changes to the research protocol you should seek confirmation of continued ethical approval by completing an 'Amendment Approval Request Form'  
<http://ethics.grad.ucl.ac.uk/responsibilities.php>

**Adverse Event Reporting – Serious and Non-Serious**

It is your responsibility to report to the Committee any unanticipated problems or adverse events involving risks to participants or others. The Ethics Committee should be notified of all serious adverse events via the Ethics Committee Administrator ([ethics@ucl.ac.uk](mailto:ethics@ucl.ac.uk)) immediately the incident occurs. Where the adverse incident is unexpected and serious, the Joint Chairs will decide whether the study should be terminated pending the opinion of an independent expert. For non-serious adverse events the Joint Chairs of the Ethics Committee should again be notified via the Ethics Committee Administrator within ten days of the incident occurring and provide a full written report that should include any amendments to the participant information sheet and study protocol.

The Joint Chairs will confirm that the incident is non-serious and report to the Committee at the next meeting. The final view of the Committee will be communicated to you.



**Final Report**

At the end of the data collection element of your research we ask that you submit a very brief report (1-2 paragraphs will suffice) which includes in particular issues relating to the ethical implications of the research i.e. issues obtaining consent, participants withdrawing from the research, confidentiality, protection of participants from physical and mental harm etc.

In addition, please:

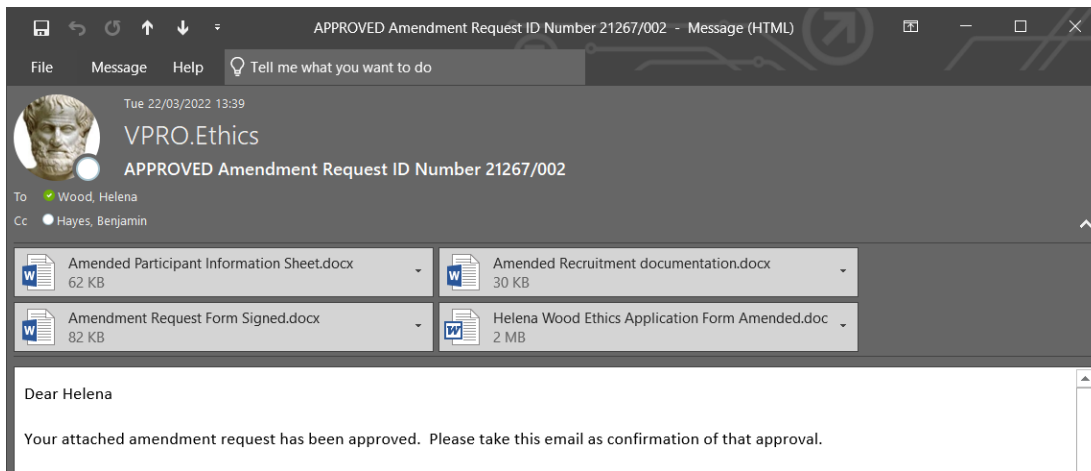
- ensure that you follow all relevant guidance as laid out in UCL's Code of Conduct for Research: <https://www.ucl.ac.uk/srs/file/579>
- note that you are required to adhere to all research data/records management and storage procedures agreed as part of your application. This will be expected even after completion of the study.

With best wishes for the research.

Yours sincerely

PLEASE NOTE – cropped for confidentiality purposes.

## Appendix M – Ethical Amendment Approval



PLEASE NOTE – cropped for confidentiality purposes.

This ethics amendment included minor amendments to the participant information sheet and recruitment documentation part-way through the data collection phase, including addition of the following sentences where appropriate:

“The participant information sheet and survey software describe how the second phase of this study will be semi-structured interviews. **Please note that participants are no longer needed for this phase of the study.**”

## Appendix N – Participant Information Sheet

### **Participant Information Sheet For Educational Psychologists and Trainee Educational Psychologists**

UCL Research Ethics Committee Approval ID Number: 21267/002

**Title of Study:** An exploration of educational psychologists' views on white privilege

**Department:** Clinical, Educational and Health Psychology

**Name and Contact Details of the Researcher(s):** Helena Wood REDACTED

**Name and Contact Details of the Principal Researcher:** Dr Benjamin Hayes REDACTED

#### **1. Invitation Paragraph**

You are being invited to take part in a research project for a doctoral student's thesis. The research project will be exploring educational psychologists' views on white privilege. Participation is voluntary, and before you decide to take part it is important that you understand why the research is being done and what participation will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. If anything is not clear or you would like more information, please contact me (Helena) using the above details. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part. Thank you for reading this.

#### **2. What is the project's purpose?**

'White privilege' is a highly researched concept within the literature on anti-racism and white identity. An example of one definition of white privilege is: "Inherent advantages possessed by a white person on the basis of their race in a society characterized by racial inequality and injustice" ([https://www.lexico.com/definition/white\\_privilege](https://www.lexico.com/definition/white_privilege)). This project aims to explore how UK educational psychologists and trainees currently define and understand this concept, and their views on its relevance and importance within the educational psychology profession. By gathering these views, this project aims to add a distinct contribution to discussions around promoting principles of equality, diversity and inclusion within educational psychology practice. As this project forms part of my doctoral studies, data collection will begin in October 2021 and conclude in November 2022.

#### **3. Why have I been chosen?**

The study is inviting any UK educational psychologist or trainee educational psychologist to take part. The study aims to recruit around 100 participants for the survey and up to 10 participants for the semi-structured interviews.

#### **4. Do I have to take part?**

It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do not want to take part then there will be no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. By completing and submitting the online survey you will have consented to the survey phase of this study. As your name is not used in the analysis or data storage once the survey is submitted you will not be able to withdraw this data from the study. If you decide to take part in the follow up interview, but then change your mind, this is okay. You can withdraw without giving a reason. You will be asked what you wish to happen to the data you have provided up to that point. You will be able to withdraw this interview data up until 31<sup>st</sup> May 2022,

after this your data will be pseudonymised and I will not be able to withdraw your data from the study.

#### **5. What will happen to me if I take part?**

If you decide to take part then you should read this participation information sheet in full and complete the corresponding consent form. As part of the project, you will be asked to complete an online survey. The survey will gather background information (age range, gender, broad geographical region and ethnicity). You will also be asked to complete some open-ended and Likert-scaled questions to gather your views on white privilege. This will include a validated subscale of the Privilege and Oppression Inventory (Hays et al., 2007). The entire survey should take no longer than 20 minutes, although there are some open-ended questions which you may choose to spend longer answering, to give more detailed responses. Once this survey is submitted it will not be possible to withdraw the data due to it being pseudonymous.

To explore these views in greater depth, the project will have a second phase where you can choose to be considered for a one to one semi-structured interview remotely via a video or audio call. If you would like to participate in the interview you can email me directly at REDACTED to express your interest. I will then contact you to gain further consent, and arrange a time and date for the interview. The interview will involve discussing your views on white privilege in greater depth. The interview will be recorded on Microsoft Teams and should take between 30 minutes to 1 hour. It will be possible to withdraw this data up until 31<sup>st</sup> May 2022. Contact details will be used only to organise the interviews and will be subsequently deleted.

#### **6. Will I be recorded and how will the recorded media be used?**

If you choose to participate in the interview, I will need to record this (audio or video recording) on Microsoft Teams and I will ask for your permission to do so. Video recordings are preferable as these are considered to offer you a better interview experience, by helping build rapport and enabling me to gather non-verbal information (e.g. facial expressions) which will be helpful in understanding and interpreting your responses. However, you will have the option of turning your video off if you do not want this recorded in addition to audio. Your interview will then be transcribed and analysed together with other participants' interviews. After it has been transcribed and checked, the recording will be deleted. It will not be shared with anyone outside of the project team. In write-up, conference presentations and lectures, examples from the interview transcripts may be used however these will be pseudonymised and no identifying information will be used.

#### **7. What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?**

I appreciate that participating in this research will take up a small amount of your time, in an undoubtedly busy schedule. I do not foresee any significant risks for taking part, however the survey and interview may bring up some uncomfortable feelings that could cause some levels of distress. If this occurs, you will have the option to contact me for further assistance. Alternatively, signposting to organisations local to you offering support for mental health can be found at <https://hubofhope.co.uk>.

**8. What are the possible benefits of taking part?**

Whilst there are no immediate benefits for those participating in this project, it is hoped that this work will provide a contribution to discussions around promoting principles of equality, diversity and inclusion within educational psychology practice. It is also possible that this work might help to shape and inform future research and policies.

**9. What if something goes wrong?**

If you are unhappy about any aspect of the project, either regarding your treatment as a participant or a serious adverse event following participation, then please speak to me in the first instance. You may also contact Benjamin Hayes if you have a more significant complaint or feel that your concern has not been heard. If you still feel that your complaint has not been handled to your satisfaction, then you can contact the Chair of the UCL Research Ethics Committee at REDACTED.

**10. Will my taking part in this project be kept confidential?**

I will not be storing or processing your data against your name, so no one will know who has taken part. You will be asked about your age range, gender, broad geographical location and ethnicity. All the information collected about you during the course of the research will be kept strictly confidential and securely. You will not be able to be identified in any ensuing reports or publications. Your views as expressed in the interviews may also be collected, however, your identity will be confidential through using a pseudonym and not your real name. At the end of the project, data will be deleted and only the analysis and transcripts will be kept. Data will be stored on a secure UCL system until this point and only members of the research team will be able to access it.

**11. Limits to confidentiality**

Please note that confidentiality will be maintained as far as it is possible, unless during our conversation I hear anything which makes me worried that someone might be in danger of harm, I might have to inform relevant agencies of this. Confidentiality will be respected unless there are compelling and legitimate reasons for this to be breached. If this was the case we would inform you of any decisions that might limit your confidentiality.

**12. What will happen to the results of the research project?**

The results of the research will be presented within a PhD thesis in June 2023 and may be published, however no individual will be identifiable in any reports or publications. If you would like a copy of the results please email me and I will provide you with a copy. The data itself will be deleted following completion of the project and only the analysis and transcripts will be retained.

**13. Local Data Protection Privacy Notice**

**Notice:**

The controller for this project will be University College London (UCL). The UCL Data Protection Officer provides oversight of UCL activities involving the processing of personal data, and can be contacted at REDACTED.

This 'local' privacy notice sets out the information that applies to this particular study. Further information on how UCL uses participant information can be found in our 'general' privacy notice:

For participants in research studies, click [here](#).

The information that is required to be provided to participants under data protection legislation (GDPR and DPA 2018) is provided across both the 'local' and 'general' privacy notices.

The categories of personal data used will be as follows:

Gender  
Age range  
Broad geographic location  
Ethnicity

If you choose to participate in the interview phase, the following additional categories of personal data used will be gathered:

Name  
Email address

The lawful basis that will be used to process your personal data are: 'Public task' for personal data and 'Research purposes' for special category data.

If you participate in the interviews, your email address and name will only be used to arrange and conduct the interviews. Following this, your contact details will be deleted and the interview transcript will be pseudonymised. Your personal data will be processed so long as it is required for the research project. If we are able to anonymise or pseudonymise the personal data you provide we will undertake this, and will endeavour to minimise the processing of personal data wherever possible.

If you are concerned about how your personal data is being processed, or if you would like to contact us about your rights, please contact UCL in the first instance at REDACTED. If you remain unsatisfied, you may wish to contact the Information Commissioner's Office (ICO). Contact details, and details of data subject rights, are available on the ICO website at <https://ico.org.uk/for-organisations/guide-to-data-protection/guide-to-the-general-data-protection-regulation-gdpr/>

#### **14. Contact for further information**

If you have any questions about the research project, please contact Helena Wood or Benjamin Hayes.

If you are happy to participate, please read the consent form and click on the following link to complete the survey: <https://opinio.ucl.ac.uk/s?s=74955>

**Thank you for reading this information sheet and for considering to take part in this research study.**

## Appendix O – Full WPA Subscale Responses

Item	Strongly disagree (Score = 1)	Disagree (Score = 2)	Neither agree nor disagree (Score = 3)	Agree (Score = 4)	Strongly agree (Score = 5)	Total	Mean Score	SD
Removed for copyright purposes	1 <sup>a</sup> 0.99% <sup>b</sup>	6 5.94%	11 10.89%	46 45.54%	37 36.63%	101 100%	4.11	0.89
Removed for copyright purposes	1 0.99%	1 0.99%	7 6.93%	45 44.55%	47 46.53%	101 100%	4.35	0.74
Removed for copyright purposes	1 0.99%	2 1.98%	9 8.91%	52 51.49%	37 36.63%	101 100%	4.21	0.77
Removed for copyright purposes	1 0.99%	2 1.98%	9 8.91%	39 38.61%	50 49.5%	101 100%	4.34	0.80
Removed for copyright purposes	1 0.99%	5 4.95%	15 14.85%	41 40.59%	39 38.61%	101 100%	4.11	0.90
Removed for copyright purposes	2 1.98%	0 0%	2 1.98%	40 39.6%	57 56.44%	101 100%	4.49	0.73
Removed for copyright purposes <sup>c</sup>	30 29.7%	44 43.56%	16 15.84%	9 8.91%	2 1.98%	101 100%	3.90	1.00
Removed for copyright purposes	1 0.99%	9 8.91%	16 15.84%	36 35.64%	39 38.61%	101 100%	4.02	1.00
Removed for copyright purposes	5 4.95%	19 18.81%	45 44.55%	24 23.76%	8 7.92%	101 100%	3.11	0.97
Removed for copyright purposes	1 0.99%	6 5.94%	14 13.86%	49 48.51%	31 30.69%	101 100%	4.02	0.88
Removed for copyright purposes	1 0.99%	12 11.88%	12 11.88%	39 38.61%	37 36.63%	101 100%	3.98	1.03

Removed for copyright purposes	2 1.98%	6 5.94%	14 13.86%	38 37.62%	41 40.59%	101 100%	4.09	0.98
Removed for copyright purposes	2 1.98%	8 7.92%	9 8.91%	44 43.56%	38 37.62%	101 100%	4.07	0.98

<sup>a</sup> Absolute frequencies

<sup>b</sup> Percentage of total responses (n = 101)

<sup>c</sup> Reverse-scored item





advantages generally skin colour

Advantages conferred to white people on the basis of colour which people of colour cannot access not accessed by POC

*cultural context assumption of shared experience*  
 The sum of the experiences of white people that give them a head start in life due to the ways in which the dominant culture and power structures assumes 'whiteness' and 'white experience' as a norm/ideal. This can include simply the fact of having white skin that "fits in" but also embraces cultural aspects such as an assumption of shared experience (e.g. Christmas, 'typical' family holidays, cultural knowledge), privileging of 'white' activities (e.g. violin good; steel drums less good - I am speaking here from my south London upbringing not an idea out of thin air), access to mentors/role models who understand the system etc, just the fact of feeling a sense of belonging in white-dominated environments And then add on all the economic/housing/employment stuff for good measure. dominant or majority belonging perception

*perception of being white*  
 Being visually identifiable as white or 'passing' as white so that you can move about your day and access things easily without any barriers being imposed by white people or white systems. access to resources support

*social advantage perception of superiority WP is unfair*  
 The advantages given to people who are perceived as 'white' by the society in which they live. access exemption from barriers. due to systemic factor

It is the social advantage afforded to people with white skin because of the inherent, but perhaps subconscious, systematic racism in society and institutions. advantages generally perception of whiteness

benefits bestowed by virtue of being white in societies where white people have claimed or do claim advantage/authority/to be better on the basis of skin colour based on skin colour

The inequitable and disproportionate better access to resources gained by persons of white European ethnicity due to unwarranted assumptions about the rightness of this disproportionate access? better access to resources perception of superiority

An experience of not having direct experience of oppression due to race. This affects all areas of life and if one is unaware of it, might lead to oppressive attitudes and behaviour. can be unaware exemption from oppression lead

Access to opportunities and freedom from barriers or restrictions attributed to race. A 'leg up' simply because of race. exemption from based on oppressive attitudes

People who are white get more opportunities than those who are not. more opportunities than non-white

the advantages which comes from having a white skin tone white skin colour

*historical*  
 White people having power and privilege over people of colour who have been oppressed over time. The person 'holding' and using their power and privilege may not always be consciously aware of this (and likely most often people are not consciously aware of this and may deny they have this). White privilege impacts on all realms of life, from an individual to a systemic level e.g. level of feeling safe when walking down the street, accessing job opportunities, being listened to, the difference in how an organisation led by a majority of white employees vs a black business might succeed in business. held over POC feeling safe

*can be unconscious or unaware*  
 can deny having it difference in success - widespread impact access to job opportunities treatment by others.

Following this initial coding on paper, the data was coded again more systematically using NVivo software (QSR International Pty Ltd., 2018). Equal attention was given to each data item and data were coded inclusively according to units of meaning the researcher interpreted from the data to be relevant in answering the research questions. An example of this coding is shown on the following page.

### Nodes

Name	Files	Reference
WP impacts our interactions with clients	2	6
White voices are louder	1	2
Valuing or prioritisation of white perspectives within practice	1	14
Use of inappropriate assessment tools	2	13
Understanding WP is important in tackling racism	1	3
Understanding WP in important for more appropriate application of psychology	1	2
Understanding WP important for increasing representation	1	5
Understanding is necessary for action	1	12
Understanding important to support systems with cultural understanding and cha	1	5
Understanding important for challenging	1	11
There is change happening in the profession	1	5
There is a need to address unconscious bias	1	6
Representation across the profession	0	0
Present in the systems we work with	2	10
Present as a reflection of wider society	1	5
Perceived lack of objective evidence	1	9
One of many concepts we need to understand	1	8
Need for it to be brought into consciousness	1	5
Nature of EP role in addressing EDI issues	1	5
Nature of EP role as influential	1	10
Lack of cultural awareness and competence	2	14
Intersections with gender and class	2	8
In the referrals we receive	1	3
In the historical roots of the profession	1	1

2 Thematic Analysis - WP in the

[Click to edit](#)

I have no evidence, however, I guess that cognitive tests are likely racial bias, most Ed Psychs are white therefore may not represent

It's very white dominated. Increasingly volunteering/low-paid exper to get on the course and that excludes lots of people. Courses are people from low-income backgrounds and who have family respon affects those who gain degrees later in life. Research that's all abo is about all children; research that's all about children of colour is ju of colour.

Our seminal literature is white, our education system is white, our p white, our EDI input is mainly white people talking about BIPOC iss white lens. The BPS is white. Our standards of proficiency value th people do. Professional conduct is prescribed as per white norms.

I think this starts with the history of the profession but is also contin barriers which are presented by entry criteria (considerable acaden for a basic level of wealth, lack of role models possibly too)

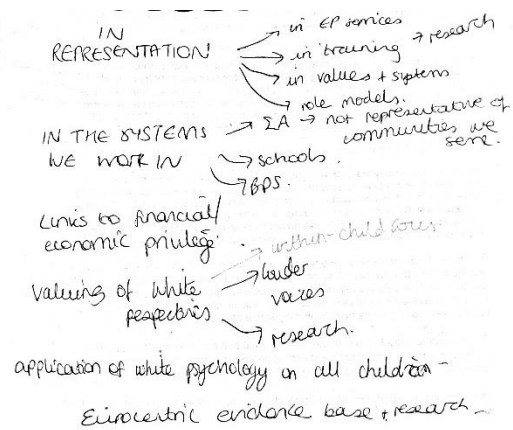
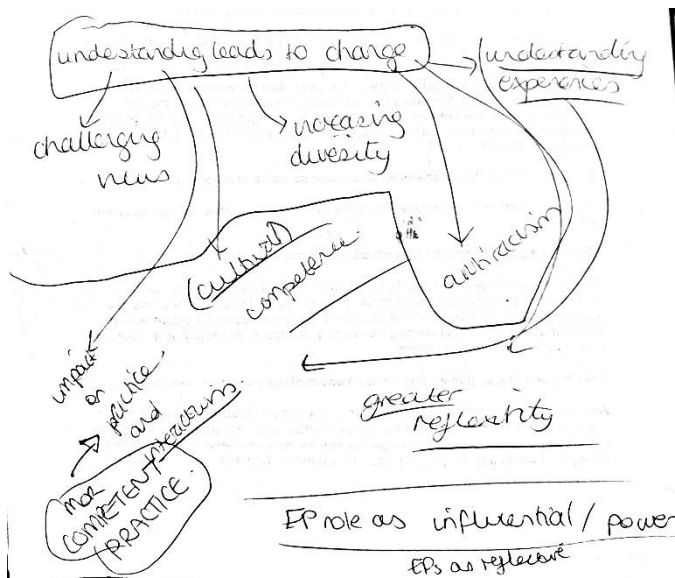
I have recently carried out some research into this area myself, and around the demographics of applicants to doctoral courses (though to DECPsych), and it was clear that even at this stage white applic advantage. My own service is predominantly white, and I wonder w more diverse team. I also think that we perpetuate the application o psychology on children, young people and families from other com Black communities, but also south east Asian, Roma, gypsy and tra communities.

Coding Density

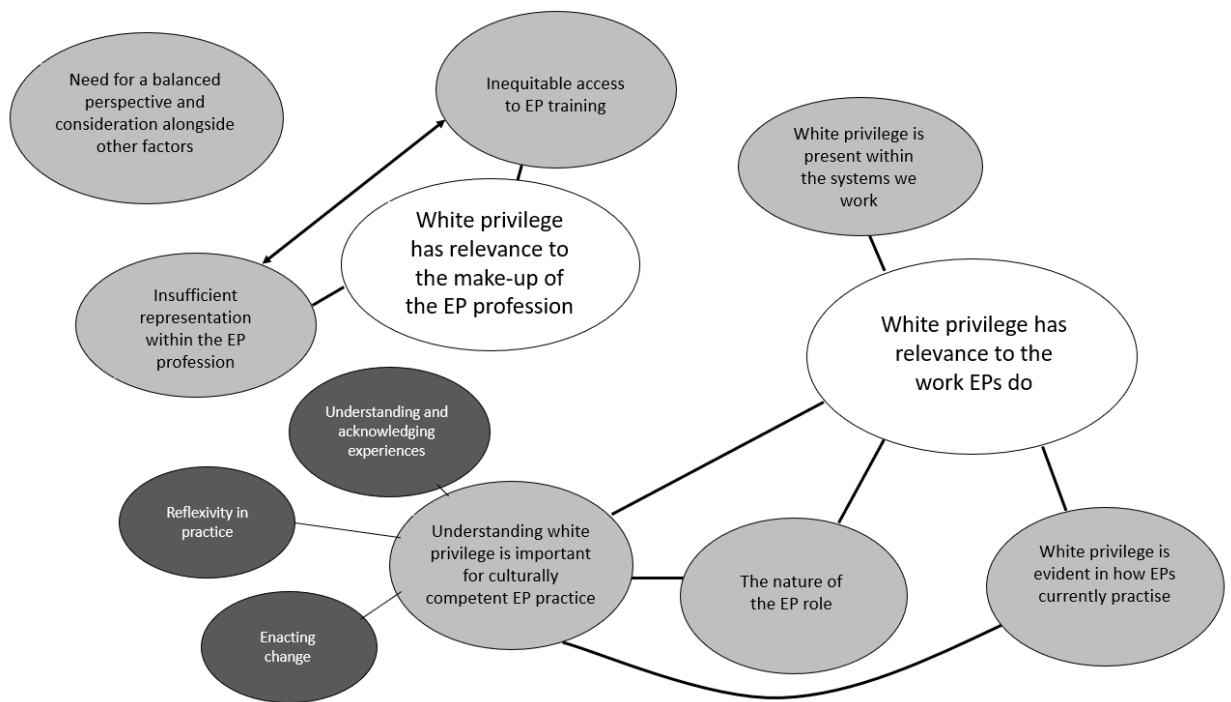
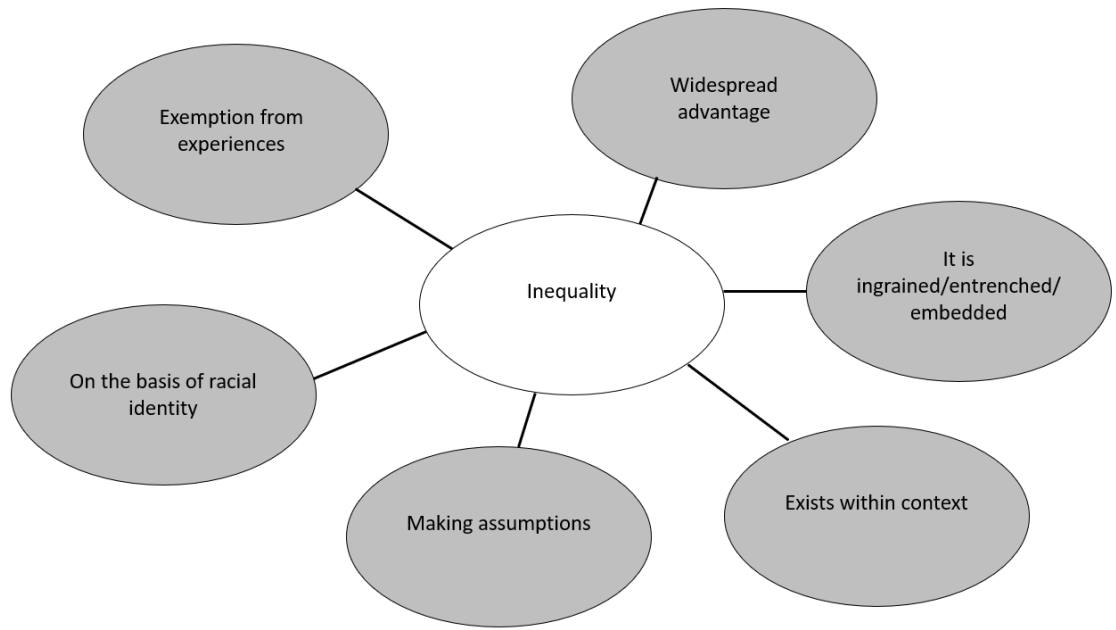
- Majority of EPs are white
- EP training more accessible with financial privilege
- White privilege is linked with economic privilege
- Lack of cultural awareness and competence
- Valuing or prioritisation of white perspectives within practice
- Generalisation of eurocentric research and literature
- Training is more accessible to wh

### Stage 3 – Generating Themes

At this stage the researcher considered how the codes could be grouped together into themes, within a central organising concept. This process was done both by hand and using NVivo software. At this stage, initial thematic maps were also developed. Examples from this process are shown below.



Name	Files	References	Created On
Superordinate Theme - Inequality		0	20/07/2022 10:29
Exemption from experiences		0	11/07/2022 17:43
Exemption from barriers based on race		1	14/07/2022 11:30
Not being negatively stereotyped		1	14/07/2022 11:24
Not facing racial prejudice, discrimination and oppress		14	14/07/2022 11:08
Not needing to think about skin colour		1	11/07/2022 17:46
Exists within context		0	14/07/2022 10:22
A consequence of systemic racism		1	11/07/2022 18:18
Embedded within a historical context		1	11/07/2022 17:41
Imposed by white systems		1	11/07/2022 18:15
In a societal and cultural context		1	11/07/2022 18:09
Related to belonging to dominant group in society		1	11/07/2022 17:58
It is ingrained - entrenched - embedded		0	20/07/2022 09:39
Can be unconscious		1	11/07/2022 17:47
It exists automatically or inherently		1	20/07/2022 09:41
It is unearned		1	20/07/2022 09:41
Making assumptions		0	11/07/2022 18:07
Assumed entitlement to better resources or treatment		1	11/07/2022 17:56
Assumptions made by others		1	14/07/2022 09:45
Assumptions of superiority		1	14/07/2022 10:47
Prioritising of Western perspectives		1	13/07/2022 17:41
On the basis of racial identity		0	14/07/2022 10:23
Afforded to white people		1	11/07/2022 18:11



**Key**

- Overarching themes
- Themes
- Subthemes

**Hypothesised Associative Link**

**Hypothesised Causal Link**



#### *Stage 4 – Reviewing Themes*

Themes were then reviewed at two levels: at the level of individual codes and at the level of the dataset. Thematic maps were finalised at this stage. Adjustments were made to coding and themes. For example, the researcher considered whether the initial theme 'need for a balanced perspective and consideration of other factors' was in fact more of a 'domain summary' than a fully realised theme. After further analysis this was developed into two separate themes: 'white privilege is (becoming) less of an issue within the profession' and 'Importance of considering white privilege alongside other factors'. Themes were also collapsed at this stage, for example the initial theme 'exemption from experiences' was re-conceptualised as a sub-theme under the theme 'white privilege is accessing widespread advantage'.

#### *Stage 5 – Defining and naming themes*

Careful thought was given to the name of each theme and the story told by each theme. For example, at this stage the subtheme 'exemption from experiences' was renamed 'white privilege is exemption from negative experiences' to better represent the story told by the data in this subtheme.

#### *Stage 6 – Producing the report*

The thematic analysis was written up recursively over time, with a narrative account of each theme and clear representative examples of data provided to illustrate each theme.

## Appendix Q – Themes, Subthemes and Codes, Thematic Analysis 1

Overarching Theme: 'White privilege' describes a kind of inequity between people		
Theme	Subthemes	Codes
White Privilege is accessing widespread advantage		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Advantage or benefits generally</li> <li>• Advantages in multiple aspects of life</li> <li>• Economic advantage</li> <li>• Experiences of success</li> <li>• Greater access to opportunities and resources</li> <li>• Greater feelings of safety</li> <li>• Greater power</li> <li>• Greater representation</li> <li>• Greater sense of belonging</li> <li>• Preferential treatment by others</li> <li>• Social advantages</li> <li>• Societal advantages</li> <li>• Things being easier</li> </ul>
	White privilege is exemption from negative experiences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Being able to choose not to consider race</li> <li>• Exemption from barriers based on race</li> <li>• Exemption from racial oppression</li> <li>• Not being negatively stereotyped</li> <li>• Not facing racial prejudice and discrimination</li> </ul>
White privilege is conferred on the basis of racial identity (felt and/or perceived)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Afforded to white people</li> <li>• Afforded to white people over people of the global majority</li> </ul>

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Intersects with other aspects of identity</li> <li>• Related to perceived identity</li> <li>• Related to race and/or ethnicity</li> <li>• Relating to skin colour</li> <li>• Unrelated to other aspects of identity</li> </ul>
White privilege is automatic		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• White privilege can be unconscious or conscious</li> <li>• White privilege is inherent</li> <li>• White privilege is unearned</li> </ul>
White privilege presents in the assumptions people make	Assumptions made by white-privileged groups	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Assumption of shared experiences or priorities</li> <li>• Assumptions of superiority</li> <li>• Feelings of entitlement to better resources or treatment</li> </ul>
	Assumptions made about white-privileged individuals	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Different expectations due to Caucasian appearance</li> <li>• More positive assumptions by others</li> </ul>
<b>Additional Themes</b>		
White privilege is contextual and systemic		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A consequence of systemic racism</li> <li>• Embedded within a historical context</li> <li>• In a socio-cultural context</li> <li>• Related to belonging to a dominant group in society</li> <li>• White privilege is upheld by systems</li> </ul>



## Appendix R – Themes, Subthemes and Codes, Thematic Analysis 2

<b>Overarching Theme: White privilege has relevance to the make-up of the educational psychology profession</b>		
<b>Theme</b>	<b>Subthemes</b>	<b>Codes</b>
Inequitable access to educational psychology training	White privilege increases the accessibility of training	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Bias towards white applicants</li> <li>• High academic requirements of the course more accessible with white privilege</li> <li>• Training is less accessible to people of the global majority</li> <li>• Training is more accessible to white candidates</li> <li>• White privilege impacts pre-training opportunities</li> </ul>
	Interconnections between white privilege, socio-economic factors, and educational psychology training	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• EP training easier to access with financial stability and social support</li> <li>• White privilege is linked with socio-economic factors</li> </ul>
Insufficient representation within the educational psychology profession		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Attempts to diversify with limited impact</li> <li>• EP teams being unrepresentative of the community they serve</li> <li>• Lack of diverse role models in EP profession</li> <li>• Lack of diversity in trainee cohorts</li> <li>• Overrepresentation of white EPs</li> <li>• Perception that majority of EPs are white</li> <li>• Perception that PGM are underrepresented in the EP profession</li> <li>• White individuals in positions of power or leadership</li> </ul>

<b>Overarching Theme: White privilege has relevance to the work EPs do</b>		
<b>Theme</b>	<b>Subthemes</b>	<b>Codes</b>
White privilege is present in the systems around us		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Present as a reflection of wider society</li> <li>• Present in the standards we follow</li> </ul>
	In schools and the education system	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Differences in how children's needs are perceived</li> <li>• Present in exclusion rates and statistics</li> <li>• Present in the referrals we receive</li> </ul>
White privilege is evident in current educational psychology practice	In the application of psychology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Dominance of Eurocentric research, psychology and perspectives</li> <li>• Generalisation of Eurocentric research, psychology and perspectives</li> <li>• Use of inappropriate assessments and interventions</li> </ul>
	Lacking cultural competence in practice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Existence of implicit bias and stereotyping</li> <li>• Lack of awareness of culture and race-based issues</li> <li>• Not enough consideration of cultural or race-based issues</li> <li>• Prioritisation of white perspectives within practice</li> </ul>
	Experiences of differential treatment by EPs within teams	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Experiencing differential treatment as an EP of the global majority</li> <li>• Witnessing discrimination within EP teams</li> </ul>
Understanding white privilege is necessary for culturally competent educational psychology practice	Reflexivity in practice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reflecting on own views and biases</li> <li>• Reflecting on the impact of white privilege on interactions with clients</li> <li>• Reflecting on the impact of white privilege on one's own practice</li> </ul>

	Understanding and acknowledging experiences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Important for understanding the factors that impact our clients</li> <li>• Important for understanding the experience of colleagues</li> </ul>
	Enacting change	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Understanding is important to promote change in systems (e.g., schools)</li> <li>• Understanding is important for challenging white privilege</li> <li>• Understanding is necessary for action and change</li> <li>• Understanding white privilege is important for increasing diversity in the profession</li> <li>• Understanding white privilege is important in striving towards anti-racist practice</li> </ul>
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Importance for competent practice in general</li> </ul>
The nature of the EP role in promoting equity		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• EP role in addressing equality, diversity and inclusion issues</li> <li>• EPs as advocates</li> <li>• EPs have a responsibility for social justice</li> <li>• EPs are in a position of influence</li> </ul>
<b>Additional Themes</b>		
<b>Theme</b>	<b>Subthemes</b>	<b>Codes</b>
White privilege is (becoming) less of an issue in the educational psychology profession		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• AEP evidence suggests white privilege is not present</li> <li>• EP profession is aware of this issue</li> <li>• Perception that there is change happening in the profession</li> </ul>

Importance of considering white privilege alongside other factors		<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Importance of considering intersections with gender and class</li><li>• Intersections with geographical location</li><li>• One of many concepts we need to understand and consider</li><li>• Wariness around focusing only on the concept of white privilege</li></ul>
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## Appendix S – Examples from Reflective Log

### *Proposal Stage*

- Feeling some anxiety at this stage as it is a big topic and I've been finding it hard to not go down total rabbit holes and get distracted or overwhelmed by the literature. Taking a lot of mental energy to think through the rationale and when I think I have it 'figured out' then I read something which throws me off and makes me doubt again – cyclic process!
- If I go ahead with proposal at present, how can I gain some other perspectives to ensure that it is thought through, e.g., by running it past some other EPs – email to TEPICC? UCL EDI forum?
- If I go ahead, would the lit review question work? Is it justified given the limitations of 'awareness raising' in the literature and criticisms of white privilege pedagogy?

### *Design Stage*

- As a white person myself it is inevitable that I am influenced by the same processes explored in the literature relating to white identity. Intersectionality – being mindful that I consider myself privileged in multiple ways, not just in being white. I am also heterosexual, come from a middle-class background, cis-gendered etc.
- Re-centring white views – inevitable in this research? Have I thought about and considered the appropriateness of asking predominantly white EPs about this topic? However, given the nature of privilege being that it is easy for people to not be aware of it – feel that including all EPs is important.
- White fragility – very conscious of this within myself and my own anxieties around causing more harm, being called out or getting things wrong. However, I also believe it is important I remain open to being challenged or called out.
- Need to avoid self-congratulation and acknowledge that this research is a small piece in the overall picture, building on the back of work of many others
- This is an uncomfortable topic, no easy or straight-forward answers and it is important to sit with that discomfort.
- I am not an expert in this field – there are limits to my understanding and knowledge and being mindful that this may impact how I have written and interpreted my research.
- Acknowledgement that white people are not a homogenous group – have different experiences and privileges (intersectionality). E.g., Gypsy Roma and traveller communities. However, it may be beyond the scope of this research to unpack this in greater depth.

### *Data collection stage*

- There is a difference between the number of complete responses and stored responses, which suggests many people opened / showed interest in the survey but didn't complete it. I can wonder about the

different reasons for this. Does this mean the views may be biased?  
how could this be avoided next time?

- I've downloaded the most recent survey data and the qualitative responses are so interesting, with so many different perspectives, my gut is telling me that it would be better to analyse this thoroughly, with a systematic and robust method (which I have taken time to understand properly), than to do the interviews too and potentially overwhelm myself with more data than I can realistically analyse well in the time allowed?
- People who have volunteered for interviews have already expressed their views within the survey. So, especially if I did end up having too much data and dropping the qualitative survey data, and choosing to only analyse the interview data, is it justified giving this smaller number of people's views more weight? Might it be better to give the broader picture of what a larger sample of EPs' views are?

#### *Data Analysis stage*

- Effective reflexive TA requires time with the data, it is a recursive process, and I need to keep retreating and revisiting it.
- I revisited the data having had a break from it for a few days and looked at it with 'fresh eyes', I wonder whether this has helped me explore new layers of meaning?
- It is frustrating not being able to clarify people's views in the moment when there is ambiguity in their response. A limitation of surveys?
- There is a lot of helpful literature and guidance on reflexive thematic analysis which has been helpful but I am finding it quite challenging to engage with while avoiding all the typical 'pitfalls'. For example, recognising the difference between domain summaries and fully realised 'themes'.

#### *Write-up stage*

- Considering lots of different ways of writing up the analysis. Having a good balance of quotes and discussion of the theme will be important (will aim for around 50:50).
- Removing pressure to complete a full day of writing (aka 9-5) has helped. For example, allowing myself to work on writing across Fri-Sun in short bursts has helped by having shorter more productive bursts of writing.

## Appendix T – Positionality Reflections

The following social GRRAAACCEEESSS (Burnham, 2012) were chosen as just a few examples of the researcher's experiences, biases, assumptions and beliefs and how these may influence the lens through which this research was conducted.

Age	REMOVED FOR SENSITIVITY PURPOSES
Education	REMOVED FOR SENSITIVITY PURPOSES

Ethnicity	REMOVED FOR SENSITIVITY PURPOSES
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### References

- Burnham, J. (2012). Developments in social GRRRAACCEESSS: Visible-invisible and voiced-unvoiced. In *Culture and Reflexivity in Systemic Psychotherapy: Mutual Perspectives* (1st ed., pp. 139–160). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429473463-7>



## **Appendix U – Supervisor Reflections**

**Reflexive statement as tutor supervising Helena’s research project exploring EP perceptions of white privilege.**

REMOVED FOR SENSITIVITY PURPOSES