TEACHING THE GRADUATE COURSE IN THE HISTORY OF PSYCHOLOGY IN APA ACCREDITED PROGRAMS

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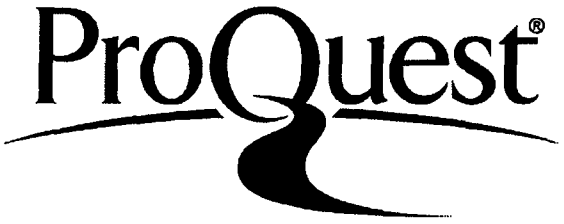

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ABSTRACT

TEACHING THE GRADUATE COURSE IN THE HISTORY OF PSYCHOLOGY IN APA ACCREDITED PROGRAMS

Nicole M. Petzolt

The history of psychology is a required area of study for accreditation by the American Psychological Association (APA). It is also required by some states in order to qualify to sit for the state licensing exam. Several reasons are typically given for the requirement. They include the belief that the study of history is a way of unifying the different branches of the field, that it helps to ground current psychological research in tradition and theory, and that it establishes a framework from which all applications can be derived. In recent decades, applied psychology has replaced research psychology as the leading force within the field, at least numerically. However, the content of the history of psychology courses has been slow to change. Many scholars argue that it is equally important to have knowledge of psychology's history for those entering into applied psychology as it is for those doing research, perhaps even more so.

This study examined the components of history courses as taught in school, clinical and counseling psychology graduate programs accredited by the American Psychological Association (APA). Although all professional psychology programs accredited by the APA require that students acquire some knowledge of the history of psychology, this may be accomplished in two ways: (1) by infusing history into all of the courses, or (2) by teaching a separate history of psychology course. Most programs choose the latter approach.

Despite the history course requirement, few guidelines exist for what should be taught in these classes. Several studies have suggested ways of organizing and teaching the course. For example, Hogan, Goshtasbpour, Laufer, and Haswell (1998) studied various common characteristics from undergraduate psychology course syllabi, such as identifying the most frequently used text, determining whether the course used an "ancient" versus a "modern" approach, noting whether a lecture or seminar format was used, determining the extent to which original sources were employed, and asking whether the course included a discussion of women and minorities. However, from a review of the literature, it appears that no such study has been conducted in graduate psychology classes.

This study gathered syllabi from a variety of APA accredited programs. After examining 103 syllabi received from these programs, several common characteristics emerged. This study examines and summarizes the data available from the graduate syllabi and makes some recommendations about the way in which the course should be taught.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

As part of its *Guidelines and Principles for Accreditation of Programs in Professional Psychology* (2008), the American Psychological Association (APA) requires that doctoral students be exposed to the history of psychology in their curriculum. A program that receives APA accreditation:

> has and implements a clear and coherent curriculum plan that provides the means whereby all students can acquire and demonstrate substantial understanding of and competence in ... the breadth of scientific psychology, its history of thought and development, its research methods, and its applications.

However, no guidelines are given as to how the history curriculum should be taught.

Hogan, Goshtasbpour, Laufer, and Haswell (1998) studied various common characteristics from undergraduate psychology course syllabi; such as the most frequently used text, a focus on ancient versus modern psychology, lecture versus seminar format, the use of original sources, and the discussion of women and minorities. Hogan, et al.'s study was confined to undergraduate courses, and from a review of the literature, it appears that no such study has been conducted for graduate psychology classes.

As there are no specific guidelines for teaching a graduate history and systems course, the purpose of this research is to compare syllabi from APA accredited school, counseling, and clinical psychology programs across the United States and determine the similarities and differences regarding how the history of psychology is taught. Although teaching the history of school psychology is the primary area of interest in this study, clinical and counseling psychology programs are included as well since their histories

overlap in many ways and students from different programs are often together in the same course.

Benefits to Studying the History of Psychology

According to Wertheimer (1984), the benefits of knowing the history of psychology include providing a way of unifying the different branches of the field and grounding current psychological research in tradition and theory. Ludy T. Benjamin, Jr., in an interview with C. James Goodwin, states that history "provides an integrative framework that connects disparate ideas in psychology with one another and with the broader sociocultural context of which psychology is part" (Goodwin, 1997, p. 221). Dagenbach (2000) argues that there are several goals that should be pursued in a graduate level History and Systems course. One of these goals is to come to a better understanding of the current direction of the field by appreciating its past. Another of Dagenbach's proposed goals is to attempt to explain all of the differences in the field by using a historical framework. Fuchs and Viney (2002) argue that studying the history of psychology will help graduate students better understand different cultures and time periods.

Buchanan (2002) believes "a historically informed perspective of psychology specifically, and the human sciences more broadly, can provide a grounding point from which to make sense of psychological theory, science, and practice" (p. 241). He argues that the history of psychology can play an important role in reconciling the professional training models in clinical psychology. The Boulder Model, used in most Ph.D. programs, is a scientist-practitioner model, while the Vail model, used in most Psy.D. programs and developed later, is a practitioner-scholar model. Buchanan states,

"Historical knowledge and understanding set a stage within which both psychological science and clinical practice play their roles" (p. 244). He suggests three active functions that history can have in the training of professional psychologists. Buchanan refers to the first of these functions as interdisciplinary, that is, in understanding both the characteristics of the individual and the broader cultural context in which they exist. The second function of history, according to Buchanan, is in understanding the diversity in the history of psychology. He writes, "By delving deep into the American story, we gain an appreciation of just how particular and non-universal psychologies are" (p. 246). By studying the history of psychology, students become aware of how limited their perspective is, and how there are many different cultures with many different histories that need to be taken into account. Buchanan's third function of history is to reduce the gap between theory and practice, and therefore reduce the tension between the two models of professional psychology practice.

Similarly, Larson (2002) argues that the critical difference between the Boulder and Vail models is "the infusion of a clinical perspective into the training program as a whole" (p. 251). Although it may seem that teaching the history of psychology is less relevant to the Vail model of psychology, some would argue that the opposite, in fact, is true. According to Hart (1986):

> I make the point that the unique contribution of this course (as I teach it) is not to provide more factual knowledge about psychology but to present a perspective for studying how other factors (e.g., the belief systems of psychologists, the spirit of the time and place, and the personality of a founder) influence and modify what is considered factual in psychology (p. 68).

In arguing for a new type of history class, Larson (2002) argues for a change in course objective as well. Instead of merely teaching factual information, his course objective is that of role induction, or preparing students for professional practice. Larson (2002) states, "The means by which role induction is achieved is through retelling the narrative of how people at different periods of history and in different cultures have managed the social role of helping and healing problems of human suffering" (p.252). He believes that students cannot feel comfortable in their professional roles until they have a full grasp of the history of the field of psychology.

Origins of School Psychology

Most psychologists agree that the formal beginning of school psychology began in 1896 with Lightner Witmer, who established the first psychological clinic at the University of Pennsylvania (French, 1984). Witmer (1907) described the purpose of his clinic in this way:

> Children from the public schools of Philadelphia and adjacent cities have been brought to the laboratory by parents or teachers; these children had made themselves conspicuous because of an inability to progress in school work as rapidly as other children, or because of moral defects which rendered them difficult to manage under ordinary discipline (p. 249).

Witmer replaced James McKeen Cattell at the University of Pennsylvania where Cattell was one of the first people to hold the title "professor of psychology" in the United States (French, 1984). Cattell had studied under Wilhelm Wundt in Leipzig, and established the laboratory at the University of Pennsylvania. He was primarily interested in testing psychological ability, and followed in the footsteps of Sir Francis Galton. When Cattell

left for Columbia University in 1891, he was eventually succeeded by Witmer, who took over the laboratory and established his clinic.

Fagan and Wise (2000) credit many child-geared efforts as the cause of the emergence of school psychology. One of these efforts was the enactment of compulsory attendance laws. By 1918, all states required school attendance for children, leading to numerous changes in the education system. According to Fagan (1992), "The meaning of children was changing from an economic source of labor to a psychological source of love and affection" (p. 261). As a result of these laws, schools were inundated with children of immigrants, including children who had never been in school before. Medical, as well as psychological, examinations and inspections became important, as many of these children had poor physical hygiene (Fagan, 1992). Schools were forced to teach children with a variety of physical and psychological handicaps. As the need for special education services increased, the need for school psychologists also increased. Once tests such as the Binet-type scales were invented, special classes based on measured intelligence of students were formed (Fagan, 2000).

Granville Stanley Hall, although often not given credit for his efforts in the field of school psychology, was critical in the development of the child-study movement. He was the principal founder of the American Psychological Association in 1892, and he argued that "education should be based on the scientific study of child development" (Hogan, 2003, p.23). Hall conducted one of the first research studies of the child-study movement and frequently offered advice to administrators, teachers, and parents (Fagan, 1992). Hall emphasized the importance of teachers in early childhood education, and even began a summer school for teachers (Hogan, 2003). As Fagan (1992) writes, "what

Hall studied normatively, Witmer tried to correct individually" (p. 238). The role of a school psychologist grew to encompass both Witmer and Hall's approaches to child psychology.

Teaching the History of School Psychology

Although APA requires exposure to history material for accredited doctoral-level programs in school psychology, NASP does not require a history class for masters-level programs. NASP Standards for Training and Field Placement Programs in School Psychology (2000) state, "School psychologists have knowledge of the history and foundations of their profession." There are no further guidelines given, however, and no specific class in history is required. Many history of psychology courses that are taught for APA accreditation may contain a combination of clinical and school psychology students. No research has been conducted on specifically how a graduate school class for school psychology students should be taught. However, some research has suggested methods for teaching a history of psychology course at the undergraduate level.

Teaching the History of Psychology

Smith (1982) suggests several different approaches for teaching the history of psychology course. One of these is a great idea approach, in which the course is focused around themes from the literature of psychology, such as the development of Gestalt psychology, or the historical development of the schools of psychology. Hart (1986) followed this model in his undergraduate history of psychology course, and focuses on the development of the schools of psychology in a historical framework.

Another method for teaching the history course, as suggested by Smith (1982), is the cross-sectional approach. In this method, the class concentrates on one specific time period that the instructor wishes to pursue. Smith suggests:

> One method that works well is to select a time period, concentrate the course on the periodicals which appeared at that time, and compare those journal articles with some recent studies that show differences in methodology, data collection, and the like (p. 181).

Smith's last two approaches for teaching the history of psychology include the biographical approach and the research approach, which maximizes student input in the class.

Another approach to teaching the history of psychology is suggested by Kushner (1980), who advocates for a prescriptive approach. He argues, "One can think of prescriptions as attitudinal perspectives, orientative assumptions, or modes of thought that play an important role in allowing psychologists to deal with the problems of subject matter and methodology" (p. 184). He believes that these prescriptions give students a framework for comparing different schools of psychology. A main component of his course, therefore, is teaching about trends in the history of psychology, including socio-economic and other factors that may have caused the field of psychology to change over time.

Other ideas for teaching the history of psychology course, suggested by Landrum (1992), include having students keep a journal in which they write their reactions to various journal articles, comparing the contents of psychology textbooks, developing a timeline, and creating an intellectual genealogy, in which students outline the major

influences in their intellectual development. The idea of creating a genealogy has also been suggested in term of having students work together to study the genealogy of psychology departments as a whole (Benjamin, 1990), or having students trace the intellectual influences of various faculty members (Terry, 1980).

Milar (1987) teaches an undergraduate course in the history of psychology by using it as a cornerstone, rather than a capstone course. The history of psychology is usually taught towards the end of the undergraduate curriculum, but Milar argues that it should be taught as an introductory course. She combines history with an introductory experimental course. Students conduct experiments while learning about the history behind them.

Many psychologists and professors have recommended essential texts for the history of psychology course (Ware & Benjamin, 1991; Nance, R.D., 1962; Sayville & Buskist, 2004). For many years, E.G. Boring's 1929 text was the primary source of reading in history of psychology courses (Nance, 1962). However, with an increase in journal development and publication, many courses now use journal articles and book chapters as opposed to one single text (Ware & Benjamin, 1991). An increase in the use of original sources also accounts for the variety in reading material in these courses (Hogan, et al., 1998).

The New History

An increase in the use of original, as opposed to secondary, sources, is one of many factors that are part of the so-called "new" history. Furumoto (1989) describes the difference between the old and new history in this way:

> The new history tends to be critical rather than ceremonial, contextual rather than simply the history of ideas, and more inclusive, going beyond the study of "great men." The new history utilizes primary sources and archival documents rather than relying on secondary sources, which can lead to the passing down of anecdotes and myths from one generation of textbook writers to the next. And finally, the new history tries to get inside the thought of a period to see issues as they appeared at the time, instead of looking for antecedents of current ideas or writing history backwards from the present context of the field (p. 18).

Important parts of this new history include incorporating the study of women and other underrepresented groups into the history (Furumoto, 1985) as well as interpreting the past in its own context, as opposed to the context of the present (Goodwin, 1997). Finison (1983) describes a new history of social psychology that is more scientific in nature. He attributes this new history to a shift from the study of consciousness to the study of behavior. This shift from a psychodynamic to an applied, experimental psychology: "reflected a change in the distribution of power and opportunity, from a predominately rural to a predominately industrial and urban culture, and from a collection of elite private colleges to a system of land grant institutions and research universities" (Finison, 1983, p. 30).

Chapter II

The Present Study

The current study reviewed syllabi from history of psychology courses in APA accredited psychology programs. Using the model set forth by Hogan, et al. (1998), the goal of this study is to determine common characteristics of history courses in APA approved programs, such as the type of reading materials assigned, the period of time covered in the courses, the incorporation of the new history of psychology, the inclusion of material on women and minorities, and a consideration of the history of applied psychology. Although there is some research on teaching the history of psychology on an undergraduate level, there is little research on teaching the history of psychology on a graduate level. A description of current trends in instruction in the history of psychology in graduate programs will emerge as a result of this study. Possible research questions include the following:

1) What do the primary reading materials in the history course consist of? For example, is there a single text, a text supplemented with articles, or only articles?
2) Does the course incorporate the "new history" of psychology?
3) To what extent is the history of applied psychology considered? Is there a difference in courses geared toward primarily clinical doctoral students as opposed to courses geared toward school psychology doctoral students?
4) Are specific approaches or schools of psychology given more coverage than others?

5) What are the course grading policies? Is there a midterm and final exam, is attendance required, and is there a term paper or other project?

6) Is there any mention of plagiarism in the course syllabus?

The goal of the study is to develop a clearer picture of the way in which the graduate course in the history of psychology is taught across various APA approved programs. It seems odd to have a requirement for such a course, yet at the same time to provide no guidelines for it. At the same time, a review of various syllabi should be able to provide some suggestions for a course outline.

Chapter III

Method

Procedures

As of March 2009, there were 56 APA accredited school psychology programs, 64 counseling psychology programs, and 220 clinical psychology programs in the United States. An updated list of programs was published in December 2009. As of that time there were 60 APA accredited school psychology programs, 65 counseling psychology programs, and 221 clinical psychology programs. An attempt was made to collect syllabi from all the APA approved school, counseling, and clinical psychology programs, as history classes are often combined and overlap between the different programs. A letter modeled after one used by Barak (2008) (see Appendix A) was electronically mailed to 323 program directors from APA accredited school, counseling, and clinical psychology programs. This letter explained the nature of the study and asked the directors to either mail or electronically mail the syllabus of their program's history course. A second email was sent out two months later. The first electronic mailing resulted in a 24 percent response rate, and the second mailing resulted in a 14 percent response rate. One hundred and three (103) syllabi were received in total, and 38 program directors reported that no separate history course was taught at their university. Two of the 103 syllabi were from introductory seminar courses; the remaining 101 were from history courses. Thirty eight schools responded that they do not teach a separate history course.

The syllabi from each of the programs were coded in order to measure certain variables (see Appendix B). These variables were mostly dichotomous and were coded based on whether or not a certain variable was present. Variables coded for included

characteristics of the university and program, characteristics of the syllabi, and course content. Two coders were used to ensure interrater reliability; the principal investigator and another individual. Differences between the two coders were discussed until an agreement was reached.

Chapter IV

Results

Description of Respondents

A complete list of the schools and programs that responded can be found in Appendix C. A list of schools that indicated no separate history of psychology course was taught can be found in Appendix D. Of the syllabi that were received, 61% were from Clinical Psychology programs, 13% from Counseling Psychology, 9% from School Psychology, 9% from Clinical and School Psychology combined, 4% from Clinical and Counseling Psychology combined, 4% from Counseling and School Psychology combined, and 1% from Clinical, Counseling, and School Psychology programs combined. The majority of the programs (78%) were geared toward the Ph.D. degree, while 16% were geared toward the Psy.D. degree, and 6% included both degrees.

Reading Materials

Sixteen percent of the courses use no textbook, 48% use one textbook, 25% use two textbooks, 10% use three textbooks, and 1% use four textbooks. A list of all of the textbooks can be found in Appendix E. Most (75%) of the courses require articles as well as or in place of a text. The most common text, used by 11 courses, was *An Introduction to the History of Psychology* (2009) by B.R. Hergenhahn. This text has extensive coverage of philosophical influences on psychology, at least as compared to many other popular texts.

Of the 46 syllabi that included bibliographies, the most commonly used articles were tabulated. All were found to be original sources and are listed in descending order. John B. Watson's *Psychology as the behaviorist views it* (1913) was used in 21% of

courses. B. F. Skinner's *Whatever happened to psychology as the study of behavior* (1987) was found in 19% of the syllabi. Sigmund Freud's *The origin and development of psychoanalysis* (1910) was cited by 13% of the syllabi. E. C. Tolman's article, *Cognitive maps in mice and men* (1948) was required reading in 9% of courses, usually under the cognitive psychology unit. Carl Rogers' article, *Significant aspects of client-centered therapy* (1946), was represented in 8% of syllabi. *Gestalt psychology today* (1959) by Wolfgang Kohler was found in 5% of the syllabi. A table listing all of these results can be found in Appendix F.

Content of Syllabi

In terms of the content of the syllabi, 83% included a course description (usually at the very beginning of the syllabus), 66% included course objectives and/or goals, 93% included a course schedule or calendar, 45% included a bibliography, 66% included a grading policy, and 38% included a policy regarding plagiarism.

Format of Course

Seventy three percent of the courses consisted of both lectures and discussion, while 26% were solely lectures. Four of the courses are taught solely online. Two programs teach the history course over two semesters.

In terms of grading, 71% of courses counted class participation in the final grade. Thirty-six percent included a midterm and 53% included a final exam. Papers were required in 77% of the courses, and presentations were required in 56% of courses.

Course Content

A majority of the courses (81%) begin with the study of the philosophical background of psychology. Only 41% of the syllabi specifically mentioned William

Wundt, and even fewer (14%) mentioned Lightner Witmer. The majority of the syllabi (90%) mentioned behaviorism; psychoanalysis was discussed in 79%, cognitive psychology in 58%, Gestalt psychology in 50%, developmental psychology in 16%, and humanistic approaches in 31%. The intelligence testing movement was present in 40% of the syllabi. The formation of APA was discussed in 16% of syllabi, and the history of training models was discussed in 11% of the syllabi. Only one syllabus mentioned a state psychological association. Fifty percent of the syllabi mentioned one or more specialty areas of psychology (clinical, counseling, school, etc.)

In terms of the "new history" of psychology, 47% of courses used at least one original source. Only 39% of syllabi discussed women in psychology, and only 36% discussed ethnic minorities. Seven percent (7%) discussed other minorities (such as individuals with disabilities, homosexuality). Only 10% mentioned international psychology. Finally, 26% of the syllabi contained a lecture about the future of psychology.

A chi-squared analysis was conducted in order to determine if school psychology programs taught certain variables more than counseling and clinical psychology programs. School psychology programs were compared to clinical and counseling psychology programs on the variables of behaviorism, psychoanalysis, and women in psychology. No statistically significant differences were found.

Chapter V

Discussion

The results of this study indicate that there is no uniform method to teaching the graduate history of psychology course. Many schools (two in this study, for example) do not teach a separate history course, but cover the history of the field in an introductory or seminar type class. Syllabi ranged in length from one page to 32 pages, and formats ranged from vague outlines to specific goals and requirements. The content taught in each course varied greatly as well. While most courses seem to begin with a discussion of philosophy, there is a great difference in the content each course covers, as well as the methods used to assess students' knowledge of that content.

Although this study examined only graduate syllabi and the study by Hogan, et al. (1998) examined only undergraduate syllabi, there were several similarities between the two studies. The study by Hogan, et al. found more than 100 different texts were used in courses, while this study found 61 different texts. The most commonly used text in the current study, *An introduction to the history of psychology*, (Hergenhahn, 2009), was the second most commonly used text in the 1998 study (20%). Hergenhahn's most recent version of the text is the sixth edition, which begins with a chapter on early Greek philosophers and ends with a chapter entitled, "Contemporary Psychology" (Hergenhahn, 2009). It also contains chapters covering the various schools of psychology (psychoanalysis, behaviorism, humanistic psychology, etc.), but contains little about the "new history" of psychology.

Hogan, et al. (1998) reported that only 23% of the syllabi they collected listed articles in addition to the text. The current study found that 74% of syllabi listed one or

more articles in addition to the text. Also, the current study found that many of the courses use more than one textbook. About half (48%) used one text, 25% used two texts, 10% used three, and 1% used four. Sixteen percent of the courses used no text at all. It seems clear that graduate courses, at the very least, tend to require students to engage in more extensive reading, whether in articles, textbook material, or both.

One difference between the two studies is the presence of applied psychology in the syllabi. Hogan, et al (1998) reported, "Freud and other psychoanalysts often appeared as representatives of the clinical movement even though they did not represent the entire area" (p. 207). Applied psychology played a marginal role in the syllabi that they collected. Although it seems that there is more of a focus on applied psychology in the syllabi collected for the current study, most courses still spend a great amount of time on the philosophical roots of psychology. Also, 79% of courses still spend one or more classes on psychoanalysis. This is somewhat surprising considering all of the advances in different therapeutic schools and techniques, such as cognitive behaviorism. However, almost all of the syllabi in the current study contained material about behaviorism (93%). Cognitive (60%), Gestalt (51%), and humanistic (32%) psychologies were also mentioned in the current syllabi.

According to the study by Hogan et al (1998), there were virtually no references to international/global psychology. The current study found that approximately 10% of syllabi mentioned an international perspective. Although a change in the proper direction, this figure still seems low in view of increased interest in international perspectives in psychology.

Course Requirements

Most (77%) of the courses required some type of term paper. A little over half (53%) required a final exam. Some courses required nontraditional assignments. For example, 11% of courses required a faculty genealogy. A faculty genealogy requires students to choose one or more faculty members and determine their academic genealogy. The student finds the mentor of the faculty member, and then finds the mentor of their mentor, etc. Most often, if traced back far enough, these genealogies lead to prominent pioneer psychologists such as Wilhelm Wundt and William James (Benjamin, 1990).

Another interesting project for the history of psychology course is the simulation of classic experiments in psychology. Boynton and Smith (2006) conducted a study in which they used a computer to reproduce five psychological experiments. Obviously the authors were limited in their choice of experiments (they chose only those experiments that were able to be simulated using a computer, pen, and paper), but this type of in-class demonstration may be more interesting to students than a lecture. Caudle (1979) also believed in using reproduced experiments as a method for teaching the history of psychology. She asked students to reproduce various historical apparatuses, such as Thorndike's puzzle box. Caudle (1979) also replicated studies conducted by Titchener, James, and Ebbinghaus.

Hart (1986) states, "I assume that the greatest contribution of the course is not to teach students more factual knowledge but to help them integrate the knowledge they already possess" (p. 67). One way to go about helping students integrate this knowledge may be by utilizing more creative assignments in history courses. Some examples of more diverse assignments discovered in this study include: having debates representing

the major psychological schools of thought; having students create a slide show depicting what psychology will be like in 25 years; having students keep a lab notebook similar to that of E.B. Titchener following his idea of systematic introspection; having students research and present on the history of their specific university; and a review of science fiction stories that are based on psychology.

Henderson (1995) has used critical thinking exercises in an attempt to engage students in the subject. One assignment he uses is having students compare and contrast an introductory text with original source material. He also has class discussions in which students reflect on critical issues in the field. Wight (1993) has sought to expand the history of psychology course by having students "toast" an often overlooked psychologist. "Students were instructed to honor the accomplishments of contributors," states Wight (1993). Each toast occurred for the first few minutes of class, and gave students a unique opportunity to become more familiar with lesser-known psychologists. Nissim-Sabat (1980) taught his undergraduate history of psychology course through the use of art and music. He used art slides and music from the time periods related to the area of psychology he was discussing.

Another way of keeping the history of psychology course engaging for students is demonstrated by Zehr (2004), who used two active learning exercises in his class. One of the exercises focused on William James, the other on applied psychology. In the first exercise, Zehr asked his students to determine whether or not James should be hired for a position as a psychology professor in the department. In the second exercise, Zehr used the modern technique of speed dating to teach students about applied psychology and famous psychologists. After reading and studying various texts and journal articles, each

student was given a card with the name of a famous psychologist. Students were asked to prepare a seven minute summary of how their psychologist influenced applied psycholsogy, and then students paired off and introduced themselves to other "psychologists." Zehr (2004) felt that both of these activities worked "exceedingly well" and the format allowed all students to make a contribution. It is understandable how this approach may be more favorable than a typical lecture-only psychology course. An avenue for future study might consider comparing student response to a more traditional lecture class versus a class such as Zehr's where each student has a distinctive role to play. This alternative way of teaching that diverges from the traditional lecture model may also be useful in teaching the "new history" of psychology, which is a shift away from, as Baker (2002) writes, "the traditional – and at times much-maligned and oft-criticized 'Whig history'" (p. 220).

Course Content

According to Furumoto (1989),

> The term 'new history' as it is currently used refers to a variety of approaches, such as social history, psychohistory, and cliometrics, that are not necessarily consistent with one another, but which have in common the fact that they all represent a challenge to traditional history. (p. 10)

This new history includes many important aspects, such as the reexamination of the work of pioneers using original sources, e.g., reexamining the work of Wundt. Many of Wundt's disciples, especially Titchener, greatly misinterpreted Wundt's work (Furumoto, 1989). This is an important aspect of the new history – the use of original, as opposed to secondary, sources. Furumoto writes that an understanding of history is best

accomplished by placing oneself in the past and seeing things through the eyes of those individuals who lived during that time period. She writes that this is accomplished by "serious and sustained immersion in published and unpublished documents of the time and in the relevant historical scholarship" (Furumoto, 1989, p. 25). Forty-seven percent of the syllabi received demonstrated the use of original sources in their classes.

Another important component of the new history is the inclusion of women and other traditional minorities in the history of psychology. A movement towards the "great women" of psychology includes a focus on the contributions of great female psychologists, such as Mary Whiton Caulkins, Helen Bradford Thompson, Christine Ladd-Franklin, and Ethel Puffer (Milar, 2000). The inclusion of women in the history course, however, can be difficult to accomplish. According to Furumoto (1985), there are two factors that can impede the inclusion of women in the history of psychology. One of these is the fact that most history of psychology textbooks have failed to recognize women. However, Furumoto's article was written 25 years ago and many new textbooks have been published since that time. Also, most syllabi in this study do not follow a single text, but rather use a combination of articles, chapters, and more than one textbook. Although some of these articles are written by women, the majority of them are still written by men.

Despite the possible change and development in history of psychology textbooks in the past 25 years, only 39% of syllabi received mention women in psychology. Therefore, it seems that many courses may be facing the second impediment Furumoto described, which is the use of a limited historiographical approach to history. According to Furumoto (1985), "The participation and contributions of women to psychology go

virtually unnoticed when the course concentrates on the development of dominant ideas" (p. 204). A history course that specifically includes lectures on the pertinent women in the field seems to be the optimal way of ensuring that women are included in the history of psychology.

International History of Psychology

Only 10% of syllabi collected specifically mentioned international psychology. Several explanations for this lack of focus on the inclusion of international psychology can be made. Adrian C. Brock has established three "rules" in order to explain this phenomenon. His first rule states, "If your work did not have a major impact on American psychology, however influential it might have been elsewhere, it does not count" (Brock, 2006, p. 3). An argument against this rule is that it cannot be applied in reverse. For example, as Brock mentions, behaviorism did not have the same impact in other countries as it did in the United States. Also, according to Danziger (1994), many other events that were important in American psychology were irrelevant in other countries, such as the cognitive revolution.

Brock's second rule posits that even if a psychologist's work had little or no impact in any other country, if it had a major impact on American psychology, it is an important part of the history of psychology. He argues that European psychologists are only included in the history of psychology if they made an impact in America. When American psychology was still in its early phases of development, psychologists such as Freud and Wundt were included in the history of psychology. Once American psychology began to mature, however, America began to produce its own psychologists and relied less on the influence of other countries. Danziger (1994) writes, "To a

significant extent the first half-century of the history of modern American psychology involved the Americanization, i.e., indigenization, of psychological concepts and practices originating in the very different social and intellectual climate of Europe" (p. 477).

Brock's third and final rule for inclusion/exclusion in the history of psychology is, "Asia, Africa, Latin America, and Oceania do not exist" (p. 4). Because these countries had little or no influence on American psychology, they are often not included in the history of psychology. Europe was solely included because of its influence during the early years of American psychology. Many of these countries, according to Danziger (1994), have been finding their own historical voices, and are beginning to develop their own psychological histories.

Brock argues for the separation of American history and world history. He believes that if the history of psychology itself is confused with the history of American psychology, that the international scope of history is limited. Admittedly, there are few experts on the history of psychology outside of the United States and Western Europe, as Brock acknowledges in his article. Therefore, he argues, "There is no reason why an international history should be focused on specific countries at all" (Brock, 2006, p. 11). However, Oakland and Jimerson (2007) argue that the reason for the focus on the United States and Europe is due to the fact that psychology developed in these countries first. They state four conditions that are required for professional practice to develop. These qualities developed in the United States and Europe in the first half of the 1900s, and include: a need for the professional services, a mature discipline based on research and theory, university-based programs to prepare practitioners, and educated practitioners that

have the knowledge to serve the public (Oakland & Jimerson, 2007). According to these authors, the presence of psychology and school psychology services in a certain country is reflective of the need for psychological services in that country, and the development of the field of psychology. Additionally, the international development of school psychology is dependent upon the presence of education for children in grades 1-12.

Limitations

There are several limitations to this study that need to be addressed. It is important to note that the sample size was limited to those schools that chose to respond to this study. The difference between schools that chose to respond versus schools that did not choose to respond is unknown. It is possible that attempting to measure these differences may have provided pertinent information.

Another limitation of this study is the ability to determine the content of the course from the course syllabi. It is possible that the syllabi that were provided were not complete, and may have been subsequently altered by the instructor. Many instructors may have chosen to send out an abbreviated syllabus prior to the start of the semester and then provide a more detailed one at the first class. It was difficult to determine which "version" of the syllabi was collected. Therefore, it was also difficult to make any narrow comparisons, as each syllabus was different and there was little uniformity to be found among them.

It was also difficult to measure whether history of psychology courses differed in school, clinical, and counseling psychology programs. The majority of programs, and respondents, were from clinical psychology programs, and many of the clinical programs taught school and or counseling students as well. It was therefore difficult to determine

whether a class geared towards only school psychology students would have differed from a class geared towards only clinical psychology students.

Although statistical analysis was limited to descriptive statistics, this study provides a good starting point for future research in this area. It provides those individuals involved in planning a history of psychology course with an opportunity to develop more similar core concepts. It also allows for directors of counseling and school psychology programs to consider whether there should be a separate history course for their departments.

Directions for Future Research

This study is the first of its kind to compare history of psychology courses in graduate school programs. The sparse research in the area of teaching the history of psychology course pertains solely to undergraduate courses. Opportunities for future study may include a deeper examination of common articles and texts used in each course. It may also be useful to survey professors to find out their background and experience in teaching history. It also would be interesting to determine when in the graduate curriculum this course is offered. Milar (1987) argues that it should be taught towards the beginning of the student's education, but many schools may teach it at the end of a student's academic career. Additionally, a deeper look into different projects and assignments might be beneficial for future instructors of the course. Finally, with the increasing use of technology and the internet, it might be useful to examine what components of the course are taught online, and how this is done.

Suggestions for Future Courses

In terms of specific content, it is recommended that syllabi include a clear course description along with a clear list of course objectives. Most of the syllabi that were collected contained a course description (86%) and course objectives (67%). However, each syllabus varied in how these were described. Some simply devoted a paragraph each to a course description and course objectives. Others provided a clearly outlined or bulleted list of course objectives. Having a list of objectives that are clearly stated seems to be ideal; it would allow students to easily discern the purpose of the course they are taking.

Almost all syllabi (96%) contained a course schedule or calendar, which listed the topics to be covered along with the due dates of any projects, papers, or exams. Having a calendar of due dates at the beginning of the semester will allow students (many of whom are taking more than one class at the same time) to plan ahead for assignments. A clearly outlined grading policy is also important in aiding students' preparation for class. A bibliography of required and suggested reading should also be included. Finally, it is recommended that a statement regarding plagiarism and its consequences be included. This seems especially important considering the increasing availability of internet sources to students. As it is virtually impossible for instructors to keep up with the publication of electronic material, it seems necessary for students to be reminded of the consequences of plagiarism.

Twenty-six percent of the courses consisted solely of lectures, while 73% consisted of lecture and discussion. This combined type of class seems to be popular and may be a good way for students to learn. Having a lecture on material and then being able to discuss what one has learned may make learning more interesting and worthwhile

than only hearing a lecture. Similarly, instructors may consider using several different measures of assessing what students have learned. Class participation should be counted as part of the course grade, and indeed it was in 71% of syllabi collected. Also, it seems in the best interest of the student to have different ways of grading them, such as by both exams and papers. A little over half of the courses (53%) included a final exam. Papers were required in many (77%) of courses, and presentations were required in 56% of courses. A combination of these different assessment tools may serve the needs of students with various learning needs and provide the best measures of one's abilities and knowledge gained in the course.

Coleman (1995) describes both a historicist and a presentist approach to teaching the course in the history of psychology. A presentist approach, "involves the assumption that the present-day framework is essentially correct" (Coleman, 1995, p. 132). In contrast, Coleman describes a historicist approach as something that tries to understand the past without taking into account present-day issues. The difference is in the selection of what is described; the historicist simply describes what happens, while the presentist describes what happens in relation to the current shape of the discipline. Therefore, a presentist approach would focus more on the history of applied psychology, such as behaviorism, while a historicist approach would focus on all aspects of the history of psychology, no matter how irrelevant. A presentist approach seems especially important given the limited time period the course is taught in, which is usually only a matter of a few weeks.

Most (81%) of courses spend one class or more discussing the philosophical roots of psychology, but little or no time is spent on the "new history" of psychology. It is

recommended that faculty consider offering more aspects of the new history of psychology in courses. This entails focusing more on the roles of women and other minorities, as opposed to teaching only the history of white men. In the same vein, faculty should consider the use of original as opposed to secondary sources for at least part of the course. With the growing interest in international psychology, the history of psychology outside of the U.S. should be of particular interest. Finally, with the increased focus on the practice of psychology, faculty should consider offering more practice-related material, e.g., the history of ethics in psychology, state associations, licensing, and a focus on the history of the specialty.

Fifty percent of the syllabi collected mentioned a focus on the specialties of either clinical, counseling, or school psychology. It is important to note that materials are increasingly being developed to make the history of applied psychology more available to teachers and students. For example, in the last decade Benjamin and Baker (2004) published a book entitled, *From Séance to Science: A History of the Profession of Psychology in America* specifically addressing the history of applied psychology. This book was mentioned in seven percent of syllabi. On another front, Pickren and Rutherford (2010) recently published *A History of Modern Psychology in Context*, which focuses more on an international history of psychology. It may be some time before these new materials filter down for use in the classroom.

Chapter VI

Implications for School Psychologists

Robinson (1979) asks, "How can the novice respect the achievements of the laboratory if he is unaware of the protracted epochs of mere speculation that had to be endured before psychology found the true light?" (p.4) Studying the history of their profession is important for school psychologists for several reasons. Knowing the setting and context of important events in psychology can help in understanding how certain psychological concepts came to develop (Raphelson, 1979). Also, knowing the history can assist in developing a sense of identity with the profession as well as increasing one's problem-solving ability by examining how problems were solved in the past (Heppner, et al., 1995). Grounding current psychological research in tradition and theory and unifying the different branches of the field are other reasons why knowing the history of psychology can be beneficial (Wertheimer, 1984). Dagenbach (2000) argues that one may come to a better understanding of the current direction of the field by appreciating its past.

Fuchs and Viney (2002) argue, "History also teaches a healthy skepticism that frees one from the persuasive influence of fads and affords a measure of humility as one encounters great minds from the past" (p.5). School psychology is a constantly evolving profession. Many treatments and theories are developed without a basis in empirical support. By understanding how to identify those theories based on empirical support and evidence based practice, school psychologists will be at an advantage when choosing interventions for the students they work with.

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Appendix A

Letter to Psychology Program Directors

Department of School Psychology
8000 Utopia Parkway
Jamaica, NY 11439

Dear Program Director:

I am a doctoral student in the school psychology program at St. John's University. I would greatly appreciate your help in completing my doctoral project. It should only take a few minutes of your time.

In cooperation with Dr. John D. Hogan, I am working on a project concerning the graduate course in the history of psychology. I am collecting as many graduate syllabi as I can to get some sense of the way in which the course is usually taught. Would you be willing to send us a recent copy of the syllabus of the history and systems course at your university? No individual courses will be identified in the study, and I would be happy to provide you with the results after the study is completed.

I would be grateful if you would email a copy of the course syllabus to one of the following addresses: either nicole.petzolt05@stjohns.edu or hoganj@stjohns.edu. If you prefer to send a hard copy, please send it to Dr. Hogan at the address below.

Mailing Address
John D. Hogan, Ph.D.
Department of Psychology
St. John's University
8000 Utopia Parkway
Jamaica, NY 11439

Thank you for any help you can provide. Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Nicole Petzolt, M.S.

Appendix B

Coding Sheet for History of Psychology Course Syllabi

School/Program Characteristics
Name of School:
State:
Type of Program: Clinical, School, or Counseling
Type of Degree: Psy.D., Ph.D., or both

Syllabi Content

Course Description? Y/N	Plagiarism Statement? Y/N
Course Objectives/Goals? Y/N	Bibliography? Y/N
Course Schedule? Y/N	Grading Policy? Y/N

Course Format and Requirements

Textbooks? Y/N How many?	Lecture only? Y/N
Articles? Y/N	Lecture and Discussion? Y/N
Original Sources: Y/N	Class Participation? Y/N
Faculty Genealogy? Y/N	Midterm? Y/N
Final? Y/N	Paper? Y/N
Presentation? Y/N	

Course Content

Philosophy? Y/N	Wundt? Y/N
Psychoanalysis? Y/N	Behaviorism? Y/N
Cognitive? Y/N	Humanistic? Y/N
Developmental? Y/N	History of Training Models? Y/N
Formation of APA? Y/N	Formation of state associations? Y/N
Intelligence Testing? Y/N	Witmer? Y/N
International Psychology? Y/N	Women? Y/N
Ethnic Minorities? Y/N	Other Minorities? Y/N
Future of Psychology? Y/N	

Appendix C

Schools from Which Syllabi Were Received

School	Program Type
Adelphi University	Clinical
Adler School of Professional Psychology	Clinical
Alfred University	School
Alliant International University—Fresno	Clinical
Alliant International University—Los Angeles	Clinical
Alliant International University—San Diego	Clinical
Alliant International University—San Francisco Bay	Clinical
American University	Clinical
Antioch University New England	Clinical
Argosy University, Atlanta	Clinical
Argosy University, Chicago	Clinical
Argosy University, Hawai'i	Clinical
Argosy University, Orange County	Clinical
Argosy University, Phoenix	Clinical
Argosy University, San Francisco Bay Area	Clinical
Argosy University, Schaumburg	Clinical
Argosy University, Tampa	Clinical
Argosy University, Twin Cities	Clinical
Argosy University, Washington, DC	Clinical
Arizona State University	Clinical, Counseling, School
Auburn University	Clinical, Counseling
Azusa Pacific University	Clinical
Ball State University	Counseling, School
Baylor University	Clinical
Binghamton University/State University of New York	Clinical
Biola University	Clinical
Boston College	Counseling
Boston University	Clinical
Bowling Green State University	Clinical

Brigham Young University	Clincal, Counseling
California Institute of Integral Studies	Clinical
Carlos Albizu University—Miami Campus	Clinical
Case Western Reserve University	Clinical
Catholic University of America	Clinical
Central Michigan University	Clinical, School
Chestnut Hill College	Clinical
Chicago School of Professional Psychology	Clinical
City University of New York	Clinical, School
Clark University	Clinical
Colorado State University	Counseling
Teachers College, Columbia University	Clinical, Counseling, School
DePaul University	Clinical
Drexel University	Clinical
Duke University	Clinical
Duquesne University	Clinical, School
Eastern Michigan University	Clinical
Emory University	Clinical
Fairleigh Dickinson University	Clinical
Fielding Graduate University	Clinical
Florida Institute of Technology	Clinical
Florida State University	Clinical
Fordham University	Clinical, Counseling, School
Forest Institute of Professional Psychology	Clinical
Fuller Theological Seminary	Clinical
Gallaudet University	Clinical
George Fox University	Clinical
George Mason University	Clinical
George Washington University	Clinical
Georgia State University	Clinical, Counseling, School
Harvard University	Clinical

Hofstra University	Clinical, School
Howard University	Clinical, Counseling
Idaho State University	Clinical
Illinois Institute of Technology	Clinical
Illinois State University	School
Immaculata University	Clinical
Indiana State University	Clinical, Counseling, School
Indiana University of Pennsylvania	Clinical
Indiana University—Bloomington	Clinical, Counseling, School
Indiana University—Purdue University Indianapolis	Clinical
Iowa State University	Counseling
Jackson State University	Clinical
John F. Kennedy University	Clinical
Kent State University	Clinical, School
La Salle University	Clinical
Lehigh University	Counseling, School
Loma Linda University	Clinical
Long Island University, Brooklyn Campus	Clinical
Long Island University, C.W. Post Campus	Clinical
Louisiana State University	Clinical, School
Louisiana Tech University	Counseling
Loyola College in Maryland	Clinical
Loyola University of Chicago	Clinical, Counseling
Marquette University	Clinical, Counseling
Marshall University	Clinical
Marywood University	Clinical
Massachusetts School of Professional Psychology, Inc.	Clinical
Miami University of Ohio	Clinical

Michigan State University	Clinical, School
Mississippi State University	School
New Mexico State University	Counseling
New York University	Counseling
North Carolina State University	School
Northern Illinois University	Clinical
Northwestern University	Clinical
Northwestern University Medical School	Clinical
Nova Southeastern University	Clinical
Ohio State University	Clinical
Ohio University	Clinical
Oklahoma State University	Clinical, Counseling, School
Our Lady of the Lake University	Counseling
Pacific Graduate School of Psychology	Clinical
Pacific University	Clinical
Pennsylvania State University	Clinical, Counseling, School
Pepperdine University	Clinical
Philadelphia College of Osteopathic Medicine	Clinical
Purdue University	Counseling
Regent University	Clinical
Roosevelt University	Clinical
Rosalind Franklin University of Medicine and Science	Clinical
Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey	Clinical, School
Sam Houston State University	Clinical
San Diego State University	Clinical
Seattle Pacific University	Clinical
Seton Hall University	Counseling
Southern Illinois University—Carbondale	Clinical, Counseling
Spalding University	Clinical
St. John's University	Clinical, School
St. Louis University	Clinical
Stony Brook University/State University of New	Clinical

York	
Suffolk University	Clinical
Syracuse University	Clinical, School
Temple University	Clinical, School
Tennessee State University	Counseling
Texas A&M University	Clinical, Counseling, School
Texas Tech University	Clinical, Counseling
Texas Woman's University	Counseling
The New School	Clinical
The Wright Institute	Clinical
Tulane University	School
Uniformed Services University of the Health Sciences	Clinical
University at Albany/State University of New York	Clinical, Counseling, School
University at Buffalo/State University of New York	Clinical
University of Akron	Counseling
University of Alabama at Birmingham	Clinical
University of Alabama at Tuscaloosa	Clinical
University of Arizona	Clinical, School
University of Arkansas	Clinical
University of California, Berkeley	Clinical, School
University of California, Los Angeles	Clinical
University of California, Riverside	School
University of Central Arkansas	School
University of Central Florida	Clinical
University of Cincinnati	Clinical
University of Colorado at Boulder	Clinical
University of Colorado at Colorado Springs	Clinical
University of Connecticut	Clinical, School
University of Delaware	Clinical

University of Denver	Clinical, Counseling
University of Detroit Mercy	Clinical
University of Florida	Clinical, Counseling, School
University of Georgia	Clinical, Counseling, School
University of Hartford	Clinical
University of Hawaii at Manoa	Clinical
University of Houston	Clinical, Counseling
University of Illinois at Chicago	Clinical
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign	Clinical, Counseling
University of Indianapolis	Clinical
University of Iowa	Clinical, Counseling, School
University of Kansas	Clinical, Counseling, School
University of Kentucky	Clinical, Counseling, School
University of La Verne	Clinical
University of Louisville	Clinical, Counseling
University of Maine	Clinical
University of Maryland—Baltimore County	Clinical
University of Maryland - College Park	Clinical, Counseling, School
University of Massachusetts—Amherst	Cl, Sc
University of Massachusetts—Boston	Clinical
University of Memphis	Clinical, Counseling
University of Miami	Clinical, Counseling
University of Michigan	Clinical

University of Minnesota	Clinical, Counseling, School
University of Mississippi	Clinical
University of Missouri – Columbia	Clinical, Counseling, School
University of Missouri-Kansas City	Clinical, Counseling
University of Missouri—St. Louis	Clinical
University of Montana	Clinical
University of Nebraska—Lincoln	Clinical, Counseling, School
University of Nevada—Las Vegas	Clinical
University of Nevada—Reno	Clinical
University of New Mexico	Clinical
University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill	Clincal, School
University of North Carolina at Greensboro	Clinical
University of North Dakota	Clinical
University of North Dakota	Counseling
University of North Texas	Clinical, Counseling
University of Northern Colorado	Counseling, School
University of Notre Dame	Counseling
University of Oklahoma	Counseling
University of Oregon	Clinical, Counseling, School
University of Pennsylvania	Clinical
University of Pittsburgh	Clinical
University of Rhode Island	Clinical, School
University of Rochester	Clinical
University of South Carolina	Clinical, School
University of South Dakota	Clinical
University of South Florida	Clinical, School

University of Southern California	Clinical
University of Southern Mississippi	Clinical, Counseling, School
University of St. Thomas	Counseling
University of Tennessee—Knoxville	Clinical, Counseling, School
University of Texas at Austin	Clinical, Counseling, School
University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center	Clinical
University of Toledo	Clinical
University of Tulsa	Clinical
University of Utah	Clinical, Counseling, School
University of Vermont	Clinical
University of Virginia	Clinical
University of Washington	Clinical, School
University of Wisconsin—Madison	Clinical, Counseling, School
University of Wisconsin—Milwaukee	Clinical, Counseling, School
University of Wyoming	Clinical
Vanderbilt University	Clinical
Virginia Commonwealth University	Clinical, Counseling
Virginia Consortium Program in Clinical Psychology	Clinical
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University	Clinical
Washington State University	Clinical, Counseling
Washington University in St. Louis	Clinical
Wayne State University	Clinical
West Virginia University	Clinical, Counseling

Western Michigan University	Clinical, Counseling
Wheaton College	Clinical
Wichita State University	Clinical
Widener University	Clinical
Wisconsin School of Professional Psychology	Clinical
Wright State University	Clinical
Xavier University	Clinical
Yale University	Clinical
Yeshiva University	Clinical

Appendix D
Schools Where No Separate History of Psychology Course Taught

School	Program Type
Argosy University, Hawai'i	Clinical
Duke University	Clinical
George Washington University	Clinical
Indiana University—Bloomington	Clinical
Marywood University	Clinical
Our Lady of the Lake University	Counseling
Pennsylvania State University	Clinical, Counseling, School
Purdue University	Counseling
Tennessee State University	Counseling
Texas A&M University	Counseling
University of California, Berkeley	Clinical, School
University of Delaware	Clinical
University of Denver	Clinical
University of Kansas	Counseling
University of Maryland—Baltimore County	Clinical
University of Maryland—College Park	School
University of Miami	Clinical, Counseling
University of Michigan	Clinical
University of Pennsylvania	Clinical
University of South Carolina	School
University of South Florida	Clinical, School
University of Tennessee—Knoxville	School
University of Texas at Austin	Counseling
University of Toledo	Clinical
University of Washington	Clinical, School
University of Wisconsin—Madison	Clinical, Counseling, School
University of Wisconsin—Milwaukee	Clinical, Counseling

University of Wisconsin—Milwaukee	Counseling
Vanderbilt University	Clinical
Virginia Consortium Program in Clinical Psychology	Clinical

Appendix E
List of Textbooks Used

Title	Author	Frequency
An introduction to the history of psychology	Hergenhahan	11
Readings in the history and systems of psychology	Brennan	9
A brief history of modern psychology	Benjamin	8
A history of modern psychology	Goodwin	7
From séance to science: A history of the profession of psychology in America	Benjamin & Baker	7
History of psychology	Hothersall	7
Even the rat was white: A historical view of psychology	Guthrie	6
A history of psychology: Main currents in psychological thought	Leahey	5
A history of psychology: Original sources and contemporary research	Benjamin	5
A history of modern psychology	Schultz & Schultz	4
A history of modern psychology	Leahey	4
Pioneers of Psychology	Fancher	4
A history of psychology	King, Viney, & Woody	3
An intellectual history of psychology	Robinson	3
The Structure of Scientific Revolutions	Kuhn	3
A history of psychology: Globalization, ideas, and applications	Lawson, Graham, & Baker	2
Connections in the history and systems of psychology	Thorne & Henley	2
Evolving perspectives on the history of psychology	Pickren & Dewsbury	2
Forty studies that changed psychology: Explorations into the history of psychological research	Hock	2
Handbook of psychology: Volume 1: History of psychology	Freedheim	2
History of psychology	Hunt	2
The principles of psychology	James	2
A brief history of psychology	Wertheimer	1
A historical introduction to the history of psychology	Morton	1
A history of psychology in letters	Benjamin	1
A history of psychology: Ideas and context	Viney & King	1
A social history of psychology	Jansz & van Drunen	1
Basic writings in the history of psychology	Watson	1
Before and after Socrates	Cornford	1

Constructing the self: Constructing America	Cushman	1
Critical Thinking: Tools for taking charge of your professional and personal life	Paul & Elder	1
Eleven blunders that cripple psychotherapy in America: A remedial unblandering	Cummings & O'Donohue	1
Essential Psychotherapies	Gurman & Messer	1
Five lectures on psychoanalysis	Freud	1
From soul to mind: The emergence of psychology from Erasmus Darwin to William James	Reed	1
Great psychologists and their times: Scientific insights into psychology's history	Simonton	1
Health and suffering in America: The context and content of mental health care	Fancher	1
Helping skills: Facilitating exploration, insight, and action	Hill	1
Historical parallels in the development of physics and psychology	Scavio & Regas	1
History of psychology: A cultural perspective	O'Boyle	1
How to think straight about psychology	Stanovich	1
Internationalizing the History of Psychology	Brock	1
Madness: A brief history	Porter	1
Metaphors of memory: A history of ideas about the mind	Draaisma	1
Minds behind the brain	Finger	1
Modernizing the mind: Psychological knowledge and the remaking of society	Ward	1
Opening Skinner's box: Great psychological experiments of the twentieth century	Slater	1
Persuasion and healing	Frank & Frank	1
Philosophic Classics: From Plato to Derrida	Baird & Kaufmann	1
Psychology in America: A historical survey	Hilgard	1
School psychology: Past, present, and future	Fagan & Wise	1
Selected readings in the history of psychology	Lawson	1
The evolution of psychology	Notterman	1
The history of psychology: Fundamental questions	Munger	1
The paradigm dialog	Guba	1
The practice of psychology in organizations	Lowman	1
The restoration of dialogue: Readings in the philosophy of clinical psychology	Miller	1
The story of psychology: A thematic history	Bolles	1
Theory and reality: An introduction to the philosophy of science	Smith	1
World hypotheses	Pepper	1
What's Behind The Research: Discovering Hidden Assumptions in the Behavioral Sciences.	Slife & Williams	1

Appendix F
List of Most Common Articles by School of Psychology

Article	**Frequency**
Watson, J.B. (1913). Psychology as the behaviorist views it. *Psychological Review,* 20, 158-177.	21
Skinner, B.F. (1987). Whatever happened to psychology as the science of behavior. *American Psychologist, 42,* 780- 786.	19
Freud, S. (1910). The origin and development of psychoanalysis. *American Journal of Psychology, 21,* 181-218.	13
Tolman, E.C. (1948). Cognitive maps in mice and men. *Psychological Review, 55 (4),* 189-208.	9
Rogers, C.R. (1946). Significant aspects of client-centered therapy. *American Psychologist, 1,* 415-422.	8
Hornstein, G.A. (1992). The return of the repressed: Psychology's problematic relations with psychoanalysis, 1909-1960. *American Psychologist, 42,* 254-263.	7
Watson, J.B. & Rayner, R. (1920). Conditioned emotional reactions. *Journal of Experimental Psychology, 3,* 1-14.	7
Köhler, W. (1959). Gestalt psychology today, *American Psychologist, 14,* 727-734.	5

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