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Page 2 By the end of this section you will have the opportunity to: the importance of Wundt and James in the development of psychology Appreciate Freud's influence on psychology Understand the basic tenets Gestalt psychology Appreciate the important role that behavior played in the psychology history of Understanding the basic tenets of humanism Understand how cognitive revolution shifted psychology is brought back to mind psychology's relatively new science with its experimental roots in the 19th century, comparing, for example, human physiology, which dates much earlier. As already mentioned, anyone who wants to explore issues related to the mind usually did in a philosophical context before the 19th century. Two 19th-century scientists, Wilhelm Wundt and William James, are usually credited as the founders of psychology as a scientific and academic discipline that differed from philosophy. This section will provide an overview of the paradigm shifts that have affected the psychology of Wundt and James through today. Wilhelm Wundt (1832–1920) was a German scientist who was the first to be called a psychologist. His famous book, titled Principles of Physiological Psychology, was published in 1873. Wundt considered psychology as a scientific study of conscious experience, and he believed that the purpose of psychology was to identify the components of consciousness and how these ingredients combined to create our conscious experiences. Wundt uses self-pection (he called it inner perception), a process by which someone examines their conscious experience as objectively as possible, making the human mind just like any other aspect of the character that a scientist observed. He believed in the madness of volunteering that people were will and know about the psychological experiment if they participated in intentions (Danziger, 1980). Wundt believed that his version of experimental u.s. aspect; he used instruments such as those that measure response time. He also wrote volkpsychologie in 1904, in which he suggested that psychology should be included in the study of culture, because it involves a study of humans. Edward Titchener, one of his students, continued to develop structuralism. Its focus was on the content of the spiritual process rather than their function (Pickren & Rutherford, 2010). Wundt established his psychology laboratory at the University of Leipzig in 1879 (Figure 1.2). In this laboratory, Wundt and his students conducted experiments, for example, in reaction times. The subject, sometimes in a room isolated from a scientist, could get a boost, such as light, image or sound. The subject's reaction to the stimulus would be to press the button, and the apparatus would record the time for the reaction. Wundt was able to measure the response time to one thousandth of a second (Nicolas & Ferrand, 1999). Figure 1.2 (a) Wilhelm Woodst is credited as one of the founders of psychology. He set up the first laboratory of psychological research. b) This photo shows him sitting and surrounded by researchers and equipment in his laboratory in Germany. However, despite his efforts to train individuals in the introspection process, this process was still very subjective and there was very little agreement between the individuals. William James (1842–1910) was the first American psychologist to change his vision of how a psychologist should work (Figure 1.3). James was introduced to Darwin's theory of evolution in natural selection and accepted it as an explanation of the characteristics of the organism. The key to that theory is the idea that natural choice leads to organisms that are adapted to their environment, including their behavior. Adaptation means that the body's trait has a function in terms of the individual's survival and reproduction because it is naturally chosen. As James saw it, the purpose of psychology was to study the function of behavior in the world, and as such his perspective was known as functionalism. Functionalism focused on how mental activity helped the body fit into its environment. Functionalism is second, subtle means that functionalists were more interested in the functioning of the entire mind than in its individual parts, which were the focus of structuralism. Like Wundt, James believed that self-examinations could serve as a single means for someone to study mental activities, while James also relied on objective measures, including the use of various recording devices and tests of certain mental activities and anatomical and physiological products (Gordon, 1995). Figure 1.3 William James, here self-portrait, was the first American psychologist. Perhaps one of the most influential and well-known indicators in the history of psychology was Sigmund Freud (Figure 1.4). Freud (1856–1939) was an Austrian neurologist fascinated by patients suffering from hysteria and neurosis. Hysteria was an ancient diagnosis of the disorder, mainly in women with a variety of symptoms, including physical symptoms and emotional disorders, none of which were an obvious physical cause. Freud needs to see that many of his patient problems arose from the subconscious mind. According to Freud, the unconscious mind had a sense and an encouraged repository of which we have no understanding. Access to the unconscious, then, was crucial to successfully solving the patient's problems. According to Freud, the unconscious mind could be accessed through dream analysis, examining the first words that came to people's minds, and with seemingly innocent slips of the tongue. Psychoanalytical theory focuses on the role of human unconscious as well as early childhood experience, and this particular perspective was dominated by clinical psychology for several decades (Thorne & Henley, 2005). Figure 1.4 a Sigmund Freud was a very influential figure in the history of psychology. (b) One of his many books, General Introduction to Psychoanalysis, shared his ideas on psychoanalysis therapy; it was published in 1922. Freud's ideas were influential, and you'll learn more about them as you study life-long development, personality, and therapy. For example, many therapists strongly believe in the effects of unconscious and early childhood experiences on the rest of a person's life. The psychoanalysis method, which involves patients talking about their experiences and themselves, but not invented by Freud, was definitely popularized by him and still used today. However, many of Freud's other ideas are controversial. Drew Westen (1998) argues that many criticisms of Freud's ideas are misplaced because they attack his older ideas without taking into account later writings. Westen also argues that critics are unable to consider the success of broad ideas that Freud introduced or developed, such as the importance of childhood experiences in adult motivation, unconscious versus conscious motivation driving our behavior, the fact that motivation can lead to conflicts that affect behavior, mental representation of ourselves and other influences drive our interactions, and personal development over time. Westen identifies further research support for all these ideas. More modern iterations of Freud's clinical approaches have been empirically proven to be effective (Knekt et al., 2008; Shed, 2010). Some current psychotherapy practices include aspects of themselves and relationships, often with the relationship between the therapist and the client. Freud's historical importance and contribution to clinical practice deserves his inclusion in the discussion of historical movements in psychology. Max Wehrheimer (1880–1943), Kurt Koffka (1886–1941) and Wolfgang Keeler (1887–1967) were three German psychologists who immigrated to the United States in the early 20th century to escape the Nazis in Germany. These scientists are credited with introducing psychologists in the United States to a variety of Gestalt principles. The word Gestalt roughly translates to the whole; the main emphasis of gestalt psychology is that while sensory experiences can be divided into separate parts, how these parts relate to each other in general is often what an individual responds to perception. For example, a song can consist of separate notes played by different instruments, but the true essence of the song is perceived in combinations of these notes because they form a melody, rhythm, and harmony. In many ways, this particular perspective would directly contradict Wundt's ideas of structuralism (Thorne & Henley, 2005). Unfortunately, when they moved to the United States, these scientists were forced to abandon much of their work and were unable to continue their research on a large scale. These factors coupled with the rise of behaviorism (described next) in the United States prevented the principles of Gestalt psychology from being as influential in the United States as they were in their native Germany (Thorne & Henley, 2005). Despite these issues, several Gestalt principles remain very influential today. Considering the amount of human individuals in general, rather than as individually measured parts, became an important basis in the humanitarian theory of the late century. Gestalt's ideas continued to influence research into feeling and perception. Structuralism, Freud, and Gestalt psychologists were all connected in one way or another by describing and understanding the inner experience. But other researchers were concerned that internal experience might be a legitimate topic of scientific inquiry and chose not only to study behaviors that objectively observed outcomes of mental processes. Russian physiologist Ivan Pavlov (1849–1936). Pavlov studied a form of learning behavior called a conditioned reflex, in which an animal or human produced a reflex (unconscious) reaction to the stimulus and over time was conditioned to create a response to another stimulus that the experimenter associated with the initial stimulus. The reflex Pavlov worked with was salivation in response to the presence of food. Salivation reflexes can be caused by the use of a second stimulus, such as presented in the context of the initial food stimulus several times. Once the response to the second stimulus was learned, the food stimulus could be missed. Pavlov's classical conditioning is just one type of behavioral learning behavior studied by behaviorists. John B. Watson (1878–1958) was an influential American psychologist whose most famous work took place at Johns Hopkins university in the early 20th century (Figure 1.5). While Wundt and James were concerned with understanding conscious experiences, Watson thought that the consciousness study was flawed. Because he believed that objective analysis of the mind is impossible, Watson prefers to focus directly on observable behavior and try to get that behavior under control. Watson was a key proponent of shifting the focus of psychology from mind to behavior, and this approach to adhering and controlling behavior was known as behaviorism. The main object of the study behaviorists had learned the behavior and its interaction with the born organism's characteristics. Behaviorism is commonly used in experiments in animals under the assumption that what was gained using animal models could to some extent be applied to human behaviour. Indeed, Tolman (1938) stated: I believe everything important in psychology (except... issues such as public and word involvement) can be investigated in substance by continuing an experimental and theoretical analysis of rat behavior at the selected point of choice in the labyrinth. Figure 1.5 John B. Watson is known as the father of behaviorist psychology. Behaviors have dominated experimental psychology for several decades, and its effects can still be felt today (Thorne & Henley, 2005). Behaviorism is largely responsible for establishing psychology as a scientific discipline through its objective methods and especially experimentation. In addition, it is used in behavioral and cognitive behavioral therapy. Behavior modification is typically used in class settings. Behaviorism has also led to research into the effects of the environment on human behavior. B. F. Skinner (1904–1990) was an American psychologist (Figure 1.6). Like Watson, Skinner was a behaviorist, and he focused on how the behavior affected its effects. That's why Skinner talked about stepping up and punishment as key factors in driving behavior. As part of his research, Skinner developed a camera that allowed a thorough study of the principles of transforming behavior through reinforcement and punishment. This device, known as the operant conditioning chamber (or more familiar, Skinner box), has remained an essential resource for researchers researching behavior (Thorne & Henley, 2005). Figure 1.6 (a) B. F. Skinner is renowned for his research on the conditioning of the operata. (b) modified versions of a work-conditioning chamber or skin care system; still widely used in research settings today. (credit: change in work with Silly Rabbit/Wikimedia Commons) The Skinner box is a camera that issues an object from the external environment and has a behavioral indicator such as a lever or button. When an animal pushes a button or lever, the box is able to provide positive amplification behavior (e.g. food) or a penalty (such as noise) or token conditioner (such as light) that is associated with either positive reinforcement or punishment. Skinner's focus on positive and negative reinforcement learned behaviors had a lasting effect in psychology, which has diminished somewhat since research into the rise in cognitive psychology. Nevertheless, conditioned learning is still used for human behavior modification. Skinner's two widely read and controversial folk science books about the value of operant conditioning to create a happier life remain as thought-provoking arguments about his approach (Greengrass, 2004). At the beginning of the 20th century, behaviorism and psychoanalysis dominated American psychology. However, some psychologists were embarrassed by what they considered to be a limited perspective to be so influential on the field. They objected to Freud's pessimism and determinism (all actions driven by the unconscious). They also disliked reductionism, or simplifying the nature of behavior. Biheicism is also deterministic at its core because it believes that human behavior is fully defined by the combination of genetics and the environment. Some psychologists began to shape their ideas that emphasized personal control, intentional, and true predisposition to good, which is important to our self-concepts and our behavior. Thus, humanism appeared. Humanism is a perspective in psychology that emphasizes the potential for good that is innate for all people. Two of the best known supporters of humanistic psychology are Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers (O'Hara, n.d.). Abraham Maslow (1908–1970) was an American psychologist best known for initiating a hierarchy of human needs in motivational behaviour (Figure 1.7). Although this concept will be discussed in more detail in the following chapter, a brief overview will be provided here. Maslow argued that while the basic needs needed for survival were met (e.g. food, water, shelter), higher levels of needs (e.g. social needs) would begin to motivate behavior. According to Maslow, the highest level of needs are related to self-assessment, a process by which we reach our full potential. Apparently, the focus on the positive aspects of human nature inherent in the humanitarian perspective is obvious (Thorne & Henley, 2005). Humanitarian psychologists in principle rejected a research approach based on editorial experimentation in physical and biological because it missed the whole man. Starting with Maslow and Rogers, there was an insistence on a humane research program. This program is largely qualitative (not measurement-based), but there are several quantitative research strains in humanistic psychology, including studies of happiness, self-conception, meditation, and results in humane psychotherapy (Friedman, 2008). Figure 1.7 is shown. Carl Rogers (1902–1987) was also an American psychologist who, like Maslow, emphasized the good opportunities that exist for all people (Figure 1.8). Rogers uses a therapeutic technique known as client-centered therapy to help his clients cope with problematic issues that lead to their search for psychotherapy. Unlike the psychoanalytic approach, in which the therapist plays an important role in interpreting what conscious behavior reveals on the unconscious mind, client-centered therapy involves a patient who takes the lead in a therapy session. Rogers believed that the therapist needed to show three functions to increase the effectiveness of this particular approach: unconditional positive consideration, sincerity and empathy. An unconditional positive account refers to the fact that a therapist accepts his client for who they are, no matter what he or she might say. If these factors were, Rogers believed that people were more than capable of coping with and working with their issues (Thorne & Henley, 2005). Image 1.8 Carl Rogers, seen in this portrait, developed a client-centered therapy method that is influential in clinical conditions. (credit: Didius/Wikimedia Commons) Humanism is influential in psychology in general. Both Maslow and Rogers are well-known names among students of psychology (you read more about both later in the text), and their ideas have influenced many scientists. In addition, Rogers' client-centered approach to therapy still commonly uses psychotherapeutic settings today (O'hara, n.d.) Behaviorism's emphasis on objectivity and focus on external behavior had pulled psychologists' attention away from the mind for a long time. Early-working humanist psychologists diverted attention to individual people in general, and as a conscious and self-confident being. By the 1950s, new disciplinary perspectives in linguistics, neuroscience, and computer science had arisen, and these areas revived interest in the mind as the focus of scientific investigations. This particular perspective has come to be known as the cognitive revolution (Miller, 2003). By 1967, Ulric Neisser published the first textbook entitled Cognitive Psychology, which served as the main text of cognitive psychology courses across the country (Thorne & Henley, 2005). Although no person is fully responsible for the Noam Chomsky was very influential in the early days of this movement (Figure 1.9). Chomsky (1928-A), an American linguist, was dissatisfied with the impact that behavior was on psychology. He believed that psychology's focus on behavior was short-sighted and that the field was to re-incorporate spiritual activity into his perspective if it were to offer a significant contribution to understanding behavior (Miller, 2003). Figure 1.9. Noam Homsky was very influential at the beginning of the cognitive revolution. In 2010, this wall honored him, was put up in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. (credit: Robert Moran) European psychology has never really been as influencing a second time as it was in American psychology; and thus the cognitive revolution helped to restore the lines of communication between European psychologists and their American counterparts. In addition, psychologists began to cooperate with scientists in other fields, such as anthropology, linguistics, computer science and neuroscience, among other things. This interdisciplinary approach was often referred to as cognitive science, and the impact and importance of this particular perspective resonate in modern psychology (Miller, 2003). Psychology science has influenced the well-being of both positive and negative people. The predominant influence of Western, white and male academics in the early history of psychology meant that psychology developed with the inherent prejudices of these individuals, which often had negative consequences for members of society who were not white or male. Women, members of ethnic minorities in both the United States and other countries, as well as non-straight individuals, had difficulties in getting into psychology and thus influenced its development. They also suffered from the treatment of white male psychologists who were not immune to the nonscientific attitudes prevalent in the society in which they developed and worked. By the 1960s, the science of psychology was largely womanless psychology (Crawford & Marecek, 1989), meaning that some women were able to practice psychology, so they had little influence on what was studied. In addition, experimental subjects of psychology were mainly men, which stemmed from the underlying assumptions that gender did not affect psychology and that women were not sufficiently interested in studying. Naomi Weisstein's article, first published in 1968 (Weisstein, 1993), promoted a feminist revolution in psychology, showing criticism of psychology as science. She also specifically criticized male psychologists for creating the psychology of women entirely out of their cultural prejudices and without thorough experimental tests to test any of their characteristics in women. Weisstein used, as examples, important psychologists' statements in the 1960s as this Bruno Bettelheim quote: We have to start with the insights that as far as women want to be good scientists or engineers, they want first and foremost to be feminine companions of men and be mothers. Weisstein's criticism formed the basis for the further development of feminist psychology, which tried to be without the influence of male cultural prejudices about our knowledge of the psychology of women. Crawford & Marecek (1989) identify several feminist approaches to psychology that can be described as feminist psychology. These include re-evaluating and detecting women's contribution to the history of psychology, studying psychological gender differences, and questioning male bias present in the practice of scientific approach to knowledge. Culture has an important impact on individuals and social psychology, but the impact of culture on psychology has been under-studied. There is a risk that psychological theories and data derived from white, American settings could be assumed to refer to individuals and social groups from other cultures, and this is unlikely to be true (Betancourt & López, 1993). One weakness in the field of intercultural psychology is that when looking for differences in psychological attributes in all cultures, it is still necessary to go beyond simple descriptive statistics (Betancourt & López, 1993). In this respect, it has remained a descriptive science, not one that seeks to determine the cause and consequences. For example, a study of the characteristics of individuals seeking treatment for the onslation of eating disorders in Hispanic American, African American, and Caucasian American individuals found significant differences between groups (Franco et al., 2012). The study concluded that the results studied in one of the groups were not attributable to other groups and, however, the possible causes of the differences were not measured. Multicultural psychologists develop theories and carry out research with different populations, usually in the same country. Intercultural psychologists compare the population in different countries, such as participants from the United States, compared to Chinese participants. In 1920, Francis Cecil Sumner was the first African American to receive a PhD in psychology in the United States. Sumner created a psychology degree program at Howard University as a result of the education of a new generation of African American psychologists (Black, Spence, and Omari, 2004). Much of the work of early psychologists from different backgrounds was devoted to promoting reconnaissance tests and promoting innovative educational methods for children. George I. Sanchez challenged such testing with Mexican American children. As a Mexican heritage psychologist, he pointed out that language and cultural barriers in tests were the holding of children from equal opportunities (Guthrie, 1998). After the he taught with a PhD at the University of Texas at Austin and was challenging educational practice (Romo, 1986). Two famous African American explorers and psychologists are Mamie Phipps Clark and her husband, Kenneth Clark. They are best known for their research, conducted on African American children and doll preference, studies that were useful in Brown v. Desegregation case of the Supreme Court of the Council of Education. Clarks applied his research to social services and opened the first children's management center in Harlem (American Psychological Association, 2019). The listen to the podcast below describes Clarks' research and impact on the Supreme Court's decision. The American Psychological Association has several ethnically based organizations for professional psychologists that facilitate interactions between members. Since psychologists belonging to specific ethnic groups or cultures are most interested in studying psychology in their communities, these organizations provide an opportunity for growth in research on the interaction between culture and psychology. Although rarely credited, women have promoted psychology since its inception as a study. In 1894, Margaret Floy Washburn was the first woman to be awarded a PhD in psychology. She wrote Animal Mind: The Textbook of Comparative Psychology, and it was the standard in the field for over 20 years. In the mid 1890s, Mary Whiton Calkins completed all claims against a PhD in psychology, but Harvard University refused to award her this degree because she was a woman. She was taught and mentored by William James, who tried and failed to convince Harvard to award her a Doctorate. Her memory studies studied superiority and recency (Madigan & O'Hara, 1992), and she also wrote about how structuralism and functionalism both explained self-chemistry (Calkins, 1906). Another influential woman, Mary Cover Jones, conducted a study she considered a continuation of John B. Watson's study of Little Albert (you'll learn about this research in a chapter on teachings). Jones unconsciously fear little peter, who was afraid of rabbits (Jones, 1924). Minority women who promote psychology are Martha Bernal and Inez Beverly Prosser; their studies were related to education. Bernal, the first Latina to earn her PhD in psychology (1962), conducted much of her research with Mexican American children. Prosser was the first African-American woman to be awarded a Doctorate in 1933 at the University of Cincinnati (Benjamin, Henry, & McMahon, 2005). 2005).

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