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ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Counseling psychology in the United States of America

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ABSTRACT The profession of counseling psychology in the United States of America has evolved and developed over the last six decades. The current article provides a brief historical overview and highlights counseling psychology’s emergence in the US with particular attention to the influences surrounding the birth of counseling psychology in the 1950s. A review of major developments in counseling psychology in the US is provided along with a discussion of the current definition and description of the field; philosophy; licensure, registration and certification; professional organizations; and international linkages.

Introduction
Counseling psychology in the United States of America reflects historical and professional developments over a period of six decades. Several major works have appeared that have provided extensive and detailed accounts of the history of counseling psychology in the US (Heppner et al., 2000; Whiteley, 1980, 1984). The current article provides a brief historical overview and highlights counseling psychology’s emergence in the US and focuses primarily on counseling psychology’s development as a profession. A review of some of the major developments in counseling psychology in the US is presented along with a brief discussion of the current definition and description of the field; philosophy; licensure, registration and certification; professional organizations; and international linkages.
History of counseling psychology in the United States of America

Origins

In describing the origins of counseling psychology in the US, Donald Super (1955) reported that rather suddenly in 1951, a new job title, counseling psychologist, and a new field of psychology, counseling psychology, were born in the US. This origination was actually the result of the convergence of many unique historical, social, political, and professional influences and developments during the first half of the 20th century. Whiteley (1984) described five primary historical roots of counseling psychology: (1) the work of Frank Parsons (1909) and the development of the vocational guidance movement; (2) the mental hygiene movement of the early 20th century; (3) psychometrics and the study of individual differences; (4) the emergence of counseling and psychotherapy from non-medical and non-psychoanalytic approaches, especially the seminal influence of Carl Rogers’ classic work, *Counseling and Psychotherapy* (1942); and (5) social and economic developments in the US before, during and after World War II. After the war, millions of veterans returned home and many faced personal and vocational adjustment concerns. With the post-war responsibility of the US Veterans Administration (VA) to provide comprehensive services for veterans, the ground was fertile for the emergence and growth of counseling psychology.

Accompanying these historical influences during the first part of the 20th century, organized psychology in the US was developing and maturing. The American Psychological Association (APA), the principal organization of psychologists in the US, was founded by G. Stanley Hall in July of 1892. Over the first 40 years of the 20th century different professional interest groups, with a principal focus on basic research or applied practice, developed within and outside of APA (Dewsbury, 1999). In 1937 the American Association of Applied Psychology (AAAP) was formed when the clinical section within APA dissolved and combined with the Association of Consulting Psychologists (ACP) that had been established in 1931. The AAAP began with four sections: clinical, consulting, educational, and industrial psychology (Benjamin et al., 2003). The beginning of World War II, and accompanying efforts to coordinate psychological services for the US, highlighted difficulties presented by the absence of a single unifying organization for psychologists. Consequently, efforts were made to unify psychology into a single professional organization and the AAAP and APA merged and officially reorganized on September 6, 1945 (Dewsbury, 1999). While the original purpose of APA was to advance psychology as a science, the reorganized APA had the stated goal “to advance psychology as a science, as a profession, and as a means of promoting human welfare” (Wolfe, 1946, p. 3). A vital ingredient of this merger and restructuring was the joint emphasis on science and practice, and the planned divisions within APA intended to support diverse interest groups within the organization (Dewsbury, 1999).

In 1944, the Joint Constitutional Committee of APA and AAAP surveyed American Psychologists and inquired about interest in 19 possible divisions for APA, with the opportunity to write in the names of additional divisions not already listed. Responses from 3680 psychologists ranked clinical psychology first and personnel psychology second. With the merger of the two organizations and the reorganization of APA in 1945, Division 17, Personnel and Guidance Psychologists, was formed based on the
combination of interest in personnel psychology and write-in interest for guidance (Doll, 1946). During the early formative period of Division 17, leaders of the Division began to use the term “Counseling” instead of “Personnel” and when the initial by-laws were adopted the title became the Division of Counseling and Guidance (Scott, 1980).

Clinical psychology

The 1940s witnessed major developments in training for clinical psychology that set the stage for counseling psychology in the early 1950s. Prior to the reorganization of APA, concerns had been expressed about the training and preparation of clinical psychologists. In 1941 the AAAP Committee on the Training of Clinical Psychologists met and subsequently published a report focused on the training of clinical psychologists (Shakow, 1942). The AAAP report called for a four-year Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) program of study including a systematic foundation in psychology, courses in medical science required for clinical work, psychometric and therapeutic practices, internship, and dissertation. Although some members of the AAAP Committee had envisioned a broader view of professional psychology training that included other areas of psychology, e.g., industrial or educational (Baker and Benjamin, 2000), Shakow (1942) acknowledged in a footnote that the proposed training model was inclined towards psychopathology representative of psychiatric hospitals but suggested the model was adaptable to other fields in psychology. In 1944, the Subcommittee on Graduate Internship Training, with representatives from the AAAP and APA and chaired by David Shakow, prepared a report (Shakow et al., 1945) that recommended the doctoral degree as the standard of training for clinical psychology.

Following the war, the US Public Health Service (USPHS) and the VA appropriated funds for the training of professional psychologists, and in 1947 requested APA’s assistance in setting training standards for professional psychologists (Baker and Benjamin, 2000). The Committee on Training in Clinical Psychology (CTCP) of APA was established in 1947 and given the tasks of recommending a program of training in clinical psychology, establishing institutional training standards and accrediting doctoral training programs. The CPTC issued a 1947 report including recommendations for graduate training in clinical psychology (APA, 1947). By 1948, APA had begun visiting and evaluating programs in clinical psychology, and by 1949 the CTCP had accredited 43 doctoral programs (Baker and Benjamin, 2000). The CPTC noted that excellent progress had been made in clinical psychology training when compared to what students had received just ten years prior. However, the CPTC also observed that there was an overemphasis on clinical techniques at the expense of training in psychological theory and research methodology. Interestingly, the CPTC also reported a rather narrow focus of the scope of clinical psychology training in which the practice was primarily limited to psychiatric hospitals and clinics dealing with more seriously disturbed patients (APA, 1949). In 1949, the USPHS and APA hosted a 15-day conference on Graduate Education in Clinical Psychology, the Boulder Conference, that recommended training for clinical psychology include equal emphasis on research and practice and established the scientist-practitioner model or “Boulder model” of training.
VA influence

The VA played a seminal role in the development of clinical and counseling psychology in the US. In 1946, the VA initiated a large national training and employment program for clinical psychologists (Miller, 1946). This program established four-year paid traineeships in VA hospitals for students working on their Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) degrees in clinical psychology. Miller indicated that the number of potential psychologist positions in the VA exceeded the total number of all qualified psychologists in the US. Pepinsky (1984) reported that by 1950 discussions were taking place between the VA and representatives of APA’s Division 12 (Clinical) and 17 (Counseling and Guidance) to create new positions for psychologists in medical settings, outside the traditional clinical settings focused on treatment of psychopathology. Pepinsky reported that if the Division of Counseling and Guidance could implement similar standards of training and practice established by clinical psychology then new positions in these settings were feasible. This VA influence seemed to be a critical factor in setting the stage for counseling psychology in the US. The reorganization of APA, the developments in clinical psychology in the US in the late 1940s and the role of the VA are important historical factors in the emergence of counseling psychology as a specialty in the US and place in context counseling psychology’s subsequent identity struggles in the US. Before counseling psychology had even been formally named in the US, clinical psychology had approved training standards at the doctoral level, received accreditation from APA for 43 doctoral programs in clinical psychology, and established the scientist-practitioner training model for clinical psychology at the Boulder conference in 1949.

1950s

Division 17, Counseling and Guidance, sponsored the Northwestern Conference on the Training of Counseling Psychologists, held in August of 1951 at Northwestern University. The terms “counseling psychology” and “counseling psychologist” were introduced for the first time at this conference (Super, 1955). In addition, conference participants prepared descriptions of the role and functions of counseling psychologists, recommended training counseling psychologists at the doctoral level, made recommendations concerning practicum and research training along with core content areas of study for the doctorate in counseling psychology (APA, 1952a, b), and initiated the Division 17 name change to the Division of Counseling Psychology. The initial doctoral training report (APA, 1952a) recommended that graduate training for counseling psychology include basic core knowledge and techniques familiar to all psychologists and emphasized that research training was essential for all counseling psychologists. In effect, the report embraced the importance of both science and practice in training. Regarding the role and functions of counseling psychologists, the report specified:

The professional goal of the counseling psychologist is to foster the psychological development of the individual. This includes all people on the adjustment continuum from those who function at tolerable levels of adequacy to those suffering from more severe psychological disturbances. The counseling psychologist will spend the bulk of his time with individuals within the normal
range, but his training should qualify him to work in some degree with individuals at any level of psychological adjustment. Counseling stresses the positive and preventative. (APA, 1952a, p. 175)

The report noted that with counseling psychology's emphasis on facilitating optimal personal development, it was anticipated that educational settings would be a central home for counseling psychology. However, other appropriate settings for counseling psychologists included business and industry, hospitals, community agencies, vocational guidance centers, and rehabilitation agencies.

The prominent influence of the VA on these developments appears unmistakable considering the sequence of events. Division 17's reports and recommendations concerning standards of doctoral training and practicum training for counseling psychologists developed at the Northwestern Conference in August of 1951 (APA, 1952a, b) were published in the June 1952 issue of the American Psychologist. By September of 1952 the VA had announced a new program for training counseling psychologists and requested APA to provide a list of universities qualified to offer doctoral training in counseling psychology. The APA Council provided the VA with an initial interim list of universities temporarily approved in time for the 1952–1953 academic year (Moore and Bouthilet, 1952).

Other early milestones of the 1950s included the creation of the Journal of Counseling Psychology (JCP) by a small group of counseling psychologists (Wrenn, 1966). Milton E. Hahn, Harold G. Seashore, Donald E. Super and C. Gilbert Wrenn originated the idea for the journal in the fall of 1952 and JCP was first published in 1954. JCP evolved into the foremost empirical research journal for counseling psychology in the US. In 1955, the American Board of (Examiners in) Professional Psychology (ABPP) changed the title of the original diploma specialty area of "Counseling and Guidance" to "Counseling Psychology" (APA, 1956). Then, in 1956 the report of the Division 17 Committee on Definition "Counseling Psychology as a Specialty" was published (APA, 1956).

1960s

Almost as soon as the specialty of counseling psychology was established in the US, it experienced a life-threatening identity crisis. In 1959, the Education and Training Board of APA considered eliminating counseling psychology as a recognized and approved specialty (Blocher, 2000) and requested a special report on the status of counseling psychology (Berg et al., 1980). The report was extremely critical of the status of counseling psychology and had as a primary focus an unfavorable comparison of counseling psychology with clinical psychology. One suggested solution to the concerns was the fusion of counseling psychology and clinical psychology doctoral level training. Although this report was not published at the time, it was submitted to the Division 17 Executive Board which appointed a committee to prepare its own special report on the status of counseling psychology (Tyler et al., 1980) and this latter report was much more favorable. Pepinsky (1984) later indicated the context of this perilous identity crisis was related to jurisdictional disputes over entitlements in the late 1950s between clinical and counseling psychology. Since clinical psychology was better established, counseling
psychology was more vulnerable. Nonetheless, these events focused a spotlight on the status and identity of counseling psychology among Division 17 leadership and set the stage for the second national conference on counseling psychology in the US, the Greyston Conference of 1964.

The Greyston Conference, sponsored by the Division of Counseling Psychology of APA in 1964, had the goal of helping APA, Division 17 boards and committees, university departments and internship centers interested in the professional training of counseling psychologists through an examination of relevant issues and formulation of recommendations for improvement (Thompson and Super, 1964). Sixty invited participants from around the US included representatives from 21 of the 24 APA accredited doctoral programs in counseling psychology in the US, employers of counseling psychologists, and training agencies. Conference formats included paper presentations by leaders in the field, discussion groups, and seven to nine member commissions that worked on statements and recommendations concerning training issues.

The final conference report included specific recommendations for counseling psychologists, Division 17, APA, universities offering graduate degrees in psychology, practicum and internship agencies, employers, and agencies supporting training. These recommendations included positive steps each could take to advance the quality of, and support for, the professional training of counseling psychologists and affirmation of counseling psychology as a profession. Thompson and Super (1964) also summarized several important issues discussed during the conference including counseling psychology identity, support from national organizations and universities, and support received for the profession in psychology versus educational settings. Although Thompson and Super described official support and understanding from APA and other national organizations for counseling psychology’s nature and role as unclear and ambivalent, they affirmed “Counseling psychologists are no longer a group of people in search of a professional identity, but rather a group, some members of which have identity problems. The problems of role and function are not completely solved, but most counseling psychologists have a sense of being, of establishment and of involvement” (p. 27). Thompson and Super concluded that the themes of unity and diversity within counseling psychology were present throughout the conference. They went on to suggest that the future of counseling psychology was dependent upon counseling psychology’s ability to “derive strength from variety and to achieve unity in diversity” (p. 26).

Several other significant events also occurred in the late 1960s that contributed to firmly establish counseling psychology in the US. In 1967, APA purchased and assumed publication of the Journal of Counseling Psychology. In 1968, as a project for the Professional Affairs Committee of the Division of Counseling Psychology of APA, Jordaan et al. (1968) authored and published a booklet on counseling psychologists directed toward the public. Whiteley (1984) observed that this was the most comprehensive statement of definition on counseling psychology published up until that time. In addition to research, teaching and administration, Jordaan et al. specified three complementary practice roles for counseling psychologists: remedial/rehabilitative, preventive, and educative and developmental. In 1969, John Whiteley founded the journal, The Counseling Psychologist (TCP), with the support of Division 17 of APA.
TCP utilized a special format whereby single issues would focus on a single topic with major contribution papers followed by reaction papers. TCP continues today to serve as the official journal of Division 17. By the early 1970s, counseling psychology had two major journals that served as keystones for counseling psychology in the US.

1970s and 1980s

Although counseling psychology was firmly established in the US by the early 1970s, counseling psychology's identity and professional roles remained a focus of attention and discussion during subsequent decades (Fretz and Simon, 1992; Kagan et al., 1988; Sprinthall, 1990; Tyler, 1992; Watkins, 1983; Whiteley and Fretz, 1980). Counseling psychology continued to evolve and develop during the 1970s and 1980s in response to social, professional, and cultural changes within the US. Increasingly, more emphasis was placed on the identity of counseling psychologists as health service providers in psychology. With the appearance of expanded health insurance coverage for mental health services in the late 1960s there was increased interest in psychology licensure.

Early psychology licensing laws in the US in the 1950s and 1960s had very broad criteria for licensure. In 1974, the American Board of Professional Psychology (ABPP), at the request of APA, founded the National Register of Health Service Providers in Psychology (NR) (Wellner, 1984). In the 1970s, conferences by APA and the NR resulted in the recommendation for more restrictive educational requirements for licensure as a psychologist in the US (Gelso and Fretz, 2001). In particular, by January 1, 1978 individuals applying to be listed in the NR were expected to be licensed or certified by the State Board of Examiners of Psychology at the independent level of psychology practice and to have a doctoral degree in psychology from a regionally accredited institution. Although flexibility was allowed in terms of the location of training programs, e.g., Psychology Departments, Colleges of Education, professional schools, etc., graduate programs were expected to have psychology in their title and to have the goal of training professional psychologists (Wellner, 1984). Programs that were previously acceptable for credentialing as a psychologist, in that they had been considered “primarily psychological” or “equivalent to psychology”, e.g., guidance and counseling, were no longer acceptable for credentialing as a psychologist for the NR (Wellner, 1984).

During the 1980s, many additional counseling psychology programs were established and accredited; and frequently these programs were former counseling and guidance programs located in Colleges of Education. The number of APA accredited doctoral counseling psychology programs in the US ranged from 24 in 1964, at the time of the Greyston conference, to 21 in 1971. The number increased to 27 in 1980, 44 in 1985, 59 in 1990, 67 in 1995, and 72 in 2003. As mental health care became an increasingly important part of health care in the US in the late 1970s and early 1980s, and as legislation secured psychologists’ right to provide reimbursable health care services independently, counseling psychologists became more interested in private practice. In a large national survey of Division 17 members conducted in
1985, Watkins et al. (1986) found that 22% identified primarily with private practice, a figure considerably higher than found from prior surveys. The increased emphasis of counseling psychologists as health care providers seemed to contribute to a greater focus within counseling psychology on the remedial role; and was accompanied by expressions of concern that the important unique contributions of counseling psychology would be lost (Sprinthall, 1990; Tyler, 1992).

Counseling psychology’s third national conference in the US was planned and held in Atlanta, GA in 1987. The conference was held amid the context of several important issues facing counseling psychology in the mid-1980s, including reorganization issues within APA, anticipated national conferences on internship and graduate training in psychology, proposed revisions to APA accreditation standards, and proposals for model psychology licensure laws. Five major areas were identified as primary foci for the conference: public image, professional practice in various settings, training and accreditation, research, and organizational and political issues in counseling psychology. Each focus area formed a work group that had a chairperson, five to nine invited presenters and a group of 20 to 50 participants. Each group developed position statements, recommendations and action plans that were published in the July 1988 issue of The Counseling Psychologist (Weissberg et al., 1988).

Important themes of the conference were affirmation of the value of the scientist-practitioner/scientist-professional model and the traditional strengths of counseling psychology including prevention, life-span development, vocational development and skill-building, along with calls for innovative and non-traditional functions (Rude et al., 1988). Other important themes that influenced counseling psychology over the next decade included the clear affirmation of the importance of culture, ethnicity, gender, and diversity. The practice group noted “the importance of viewing people and their behavior in a contextual manner because psychology itself exists in a sociocultural context influenced by variables of culture, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, age, and social historical perspective” (Kagan et al., 1988, p. 351). They also recommended that counseling psychology consider ways to improve social conditions and intervene on a personal or institutional level when social or organizational factors operate in an oppressive manner (Kagan et al., 1988). Concomitantly, the training and accreditation group emphasized integrating cultural, ethnicity, gender, and diversity throughout the training of counseling psychologists (Meara et al., 1988). The research group called for more research in all areas of multi- and cross-cultural counseling psychology (Gelso et al., 1988). The organizational and political group also made recommendations to examine organizational problems with under-representation in Division 17 governance and problems in the area of ethnic and cultural diversity.

Multiculturalism

The 1950s and 1960s social movements in the US, including the civil rights movement, desegregation, voting rights, employment practices, the Vietnam War and the women’s movement, brought attention to the ongoing neglect, rights, and needs of those who were not part of the majority culture. Prior to the middle of the 20th century, American psychology was primarily a white male, experimentally oriented academic discipline
Psychology in the US, along with other disciplines and institutions, was criticized for a long history of neglect in addressing issues affecting people from traditionally underrepresented groups (Baker, 2003). African American psychologists and women were among the first groups to demand that psychology be more responsive to the needs of underrepresented groups (Albee, 2003; Baker, 2003; Marecek et al., 2003). Issues raised by the new emerging discipline of Black Psychology in the 1970s and the Vail Conference of 1973 (Korman, 1974) highlighted the importance of professional training congruent with the needs of culturally diverse and underserved populations.

Developments in the 1980s and the 1990s reflected the emergence of multiculturalism and diversity as a prominent feature of counseling psychology in the US. In 1986, the APA Committee on Accreditation included cultural diversity as a component of effective training (APA, 1986). Heppner et al. (2000) provided an excellent summary and integration of the various social, cultural, economic and governmental forces influencing counseling psychology as it matured through the later part of the 20th century and also highlighted the importance of multiculturalism and diversity to counseling psychology in the US.

According to Gelso and Fretz (2001), most counseling psychologists in the US had little contact with racial minorities until desegregation of schools and colleges occurred in the 1950s. Subsequently, enhanced contact highlighted more limited effectiveness in working with culturally diverse clients. Early voices in counseling psychology heralding the importance of culture and diversity in the 1960s included Samler (1964). In a paper presented at the Greyston Conference he implored counseling psychologists to get involved in social economic issues that had the do with the “dignity and security of man” (p. 67). However, prior to the 1980s, the curriculum in counseling psychology doctoral programs focusing on multiculturalism and diversity was very limited (Gelso and Fretz, 2001; Hills and Strozier, 1992).

With the US becoming an increasingly diverse society, and with the continued legacies of the social and civil rights movements of the 1960s, issues of diversity and multiculturalism gradually emerged in the 1970s and became increasingly prominent professionally in the 1980s and 1990s. Within the context of professional psychology in the US and the events taking place within APA, counseling psychology seemed to develop as a recognized leader in addressing multicultural concerns and helping establish practice guidelines and competencies related to professional practice with diverse clients (Gelso and Fretz, 2001). In 1970, Division 17 established the Ad Hoc Committee on Women, which became a model of advocacy followed by other APA Divisions (Meara and Myers, 1999) and contributed the “Principles concerning the counseling and therapy of women” (Principles, 1979) that were subsequently endorsed by other divisions of APA.

Heppner et al. (2000) chronicled many other structural, organizational and committee developments that took place within APA in response to the concerns about the limited number of racial/ethnic minority psychologists and students and concerns about major social issues and diversity issues such as racism and sexism. Milestones among these included the establishment of: the Board of Social and Ethical Responsibility and Psychology (BSERP) in 1971; the Committee on Women in Psychology and Division 35, Psychology of Women, in 1973; the APA Minority Fellowship Program in 1974;
the Office of Ethnic Minority Affairs in 1979; Division 44, the Society for the Psychological Study of Gay and Lesbian Issues, in 1980; and the Board of Ethnic Minority Affairs (BEMA) in 1981.

In 1982, under the leadership of Derald Wing Sue, the Education and Training Committee of Division 17 published an influential position paper on cross-cultural counseling competencies. Highlighting the history of oppression, discrimination, and racism experienced by minorities in the US and acknowledging the barriers to effective counseling and therapy created by institutional racism, Sue et al. (1982) proposed specific cross-cultural competencies and recommended that the APA adopt cross-cultural counseling and therapy competencies into its accreditation criteria (Sue et al., 1982). In subsequent years these guidelines were revised and operationalized (Arredondo et al., 1996) and served as the cornerstone for the APA guidelines on multicultural education, training, research, practice and organizational change prepared by a joint task force of Division 17 and The Society for the Psychological Study of Ethnic Minority Issues, Division 45 of APA, that were published 21 years later by the organization (APA, 2003).

The 1980s saw additional organizational developments within APA, including the Committee on Disability and Handicaps, in 1985, and Division 45, The Society for the Study of Ethnic Minority Issues, in 1987. The 1992 revised APA ethics code (APA, 1992) established ethical principles of respect, non-discrimination and competence in providing services to diverse clients. Moreover, an increased emphasis on the integration of cultural differences and diversity was considered in the revised APA accreditation guidelines in 1995 (Heppner et al., 2000).

During the 1980s, counseling psychologists also advocated for increased diversity in research paradigms for their field. Critiques about the appropriateness and applicability of the positivistic paradigm for human problems and counseling psychology (Howard, 1984; Polkinghorne, 1984), concerns about the limited use and involvement of practitioners in research (Gelso, 1979), and dissatisfaction with the relevance of counseling psychology research for professional practice (Goldman, 1976) were associated with calls for alternate research paradigms that extended beyond the traditional positivistic paradigm associated with the physical sciences (Howard, 1983; Polkinghorne, 1984). Increasingly, counseling psychologists recommended the inclusion and teaching of alternate research paradigms, including qualitative research methods in counseling psychology (Hill and Gronsky, 1984; Hoshmand, 1989; Howard, 1984; Polkinghorne, 1984). The Research Group at the Atlanta National Conference recommended that all methodologies and investigative styles be encouraged (Gelso et al., 1988). Morrow and Smith (2000) observed that throughout the 1990s The Counseling Psychologist and the Journal of Counseling Psychology gradually published increasing numbers of qualitative investigations. Morrow and Smith (2000) observed that the expansion of counseling psychology’s research methodology in this direction reflected an increasing pluralism in the theories and practices of counseling psychology.
During the 1990s, counseling psychology continued to be influenced by economic and social forces. The health care marketplace underwent significant changes in the US in the 1990s as it moved away from fee-for-service models towards managed-care models of health care reimbursement. With the increased emphasis on counseling psychologists as health care providers, and the accompanying increase in counseling psychologists working in community health care settings and private practices, more attention was necessary to adequately meet the needs of counseling psychologists in these settings (Heppner et al., 2000).

Following the Atlanta Conference in 1987, and in response to continuing concerns regarding underrepresentation of groups within counseling psychology, Division 17 was reorganized between 1992 and 1996 (Carter and Davis, 2001) as part of “an effort to embrace the diversity within our Division and help to ensure that those differences converge in a way that is meaningful to all of us” (APA Division 17, 1993, p. 526). The reorganization established four vice-president positions for diversity and public interest, education and training, practice, and science. These were intended to correspond to the Directorate organization of APA, facilitate better communication and advocacy within APA, and to better meet the diverse interests of counseling psychologists. Also, a new membership organization within the Division was created consisting of Sections, groups of 50 or more voting members of the Division, and smaller Special Interest Groups (SIGs) (Carter and Davis, 2001). The reorganization of Division 17 has been considered successful in terms of increasing opportunities for member involvement; providing a more efficient, flexible and proactive governance structure; and being more responsive to the diverse facets of counseling psychology.

Other noteworthy events that influenced counseling psychology in the 1990s included APA’s establishment of the Commission for the Recognition of Specialties and Proficiencies in Professional Psychology (CRSPPP), in 1995, to set up a formal process through which APA could formally recognize specialties and proficiencies in professional psychology (Nelson, 1999). CRSPPP had the responsibility of reviewing petitions and formally recommending already established and new specialties for formal recognition by APA. Division 17 needed to reapply for specialty designation for counseling psychology. Around this same time, a major revision of APA accreditation standards became effective. The new standards reflected a model-based approach that allowed programs to be evaluated based on their training model. The Council of Counseling Psychology Training Programs (CCPTP) and Division 17 appointed a Joint Writing Committee to prepare a Model Training Program in Counseling Psychology. The intent of the Model Training Program was to provide the APA’s Committee on Accreditation and accreditation site visitors with additional information concerning counseling psychology training within the framework of the new APA Guidelines and Principles of Accreditation. Additionally, the Model Training Program was intended to help define counseling psychology training in the context of the parallel specialty definition and recognition petition process underway with CRSPPP. Division 17 and CCPTP endorsed the Model Training Program in 1997.
(Murdock et al., 1998) and counseling psychology was formally recognized by CRSPPP as a specialty in 1999 (APA, 1999).

2000s

In 2003, Division 17, Counseling Psychology, officially changed its name to “The Society of Counseling Psychology”. The name change was suggested because a number of APA Divisions were titled societies and the change was believed to reflect greater organizational autonomy and identity affirmation (APA Division 17, 2000). The highlight of the turn of the century, however, was the Fourth National Counseling Psychology Conference held in Houston, Texas in March 2001 (Fouad et al., 2004). The theme of the conference was “Counseling Psychologists: Making a Difference” and conference goals included (a) having an open inclusive conference, (b) establishing better connections to APA, (c) developing stronger ties among counseling psychology organizations, (d) establishing a better agreement between training and practice, and (e) focusing on social advocacy through Social Action Groups (SAGs). The structure of the conference was notably different from the earlier national conferences in counseling psychology in that the conference was open to anyone who wanted to attend. Consequently, 1052 participants attended the conference, including faculty and students representing all APA-accredited counseling psychology programs in the US. The conference format included keynote speakers, symposia, poster sessions, continuing education workshops and, a special focus of the conference, SAGs.

SAGs met over a period of several days and focused on specific areas for social action. Conference planners appreciated the social advocacy focus of the conference as reflecting counseling psychology’s history as an APA leader in advocating for a culture-centred approach in psychology and as an expression of its efforts to deal with racism, sexism and other forms of oppression (Fouad et al., 2004). SAGs met during the conference and focused on social issues important to social justice, such as community violence, domestic violence, child abuse and neglect, social justice and ethics in counseling psychology practice, and racism. The SAGs focused on developing an agenda for each social issue that moved beyond individual interventions. Conference leaders developed recommendations for the Executive Board of Division 17 and CCPTP designed to promote a social justice agenda for counseling psychology training, research and practice. The Houston Conference and the SAGs reflected counseling psychology’s increasing responsiveness to social advocacy and social change at the outset of the 21st century. Fouad et al. observed that counseling psychology had arrived and was now a far more complex profession than at the time of the Northwestern and Greyston conferences; and that the challenge for the 21st century would continue to be for the profession to stay connected despite being a much larger and more broadly defined specialty and to be proactive in influencing psychology’s future. “Unity through Diversity” will continue to be an important cornerstone for the future of counseling psychology in the US.

Current definition and description of the field

The current definition of counseling psychology in the US, developed through collaboration between CRSPPP and Division 17, was approved by APA and published as the
Archival Description of Counseling Psychology in 1999 (APA, 1999). Brief excerpts of the definition and parameters of counseling psychology, as defined by this formal recognition process, follow:

Counseling psychology is a general practice and health service provider specialty in professional psychology. It focuses on personal and interpersonal functioning across the lifespan and on emotional, social, vocational, educational, health-related, developmental, and organizational concerns. Counseling psychology centers on typical or normal developmental issues as well as atypical or disordered development as it applies to human experience from individual, family, group, systems, and organizational perspectives. Counseling psychologists help people with physical, emotional, and mental disorders improve well-being, alleviate distress and maladjustment, and resolve crises. In addition, practitioners in this professional specialty provide assessment, diagnosis, and treatment of psychopathology. ... Within the context of life-span development, counseling psychologists focus on healthy aspects and strengths of the client (individual, couple, family, group, system, or organization), environmental/situation influences (including the context of culture, gender, and lifestyle issues), and the role of career and vocation on individual development and functioning. (APA, 1999, p. 589)

The complete Archival Description of Counseling Psychology includes a description of the knowledge base of the specialty, the populations served, and a partial listing of problems addressed by, and procedures used by, the specialty of counseling psychology (APA, 1999).

An overview of counseling psychology in the US in terms of work settings, activities and research is offered by several surveys. Recent data from the 2002 APA Directory Survey (APA, 2002, Table 3) specified that among 93,406 APA associate members, members and fellows 65,220 (69.8%) designated health service provider as their major field. Among these health service providers, 10,530 or 16% identified counseling psychology as their major field. The most recent Division 17 employment information available, based on 2000 APA membership data for 1,100 full-time employed members of Division 17 (APA, 2000, Table 4), indicated a full-time primary employment distribution including: university/college settings (37.8%); independent practice (20%); other human service settings, including counseling centers (19.5%); hospitals (4.2%); other academic settings (2.9%); clinics (2.7%); medical schools (2.3%); schools and other educational settings (2.1%); business and industry (0.7%); government (1.8%); and other (5.1%). These findings are similar to earlier surveys of Division 17 members (Fitzgerald and Osipow, 1986; Gelso and Fretz, 2001; Watkins et al., 1986).

Neimeyer, Bowman, and Stewart (2001) conducted a 26-year retrospective study on internship and initial job placements of counseling psychologists from 1973–1998, based on data collected by the CCPTP. Internship placement findings indicated that 36.8% of counseling psychology interns trained in counseling center settings, 22.3% in VA Medical Centers (VAMCs), 16.3% in other hospital settings, and 15.9% in Community Mental Health Centers (CMHCs). In later years, 1988–1998, a significant increase in internship placements was found for other hospital settings, along with a significant decrease
in internship placements in community mental health centers. In regard to initial employment settings for counseling psychologists, Neimeyer et al.’s findings indicated that 15% were in academic settings, 14.6% in University Counseling Centers, 15% in CMHCs, 14.3% in private practice, 5.1% in VAMCs, and 10.4% in other hospitals. Although academic and educational settings have traditionally and consistently been an important feature of counseling psychology in the US, Neimeyer et al. observed the vast majority of initial job placements of counseling psychologists involved providing service. Their findings indicated that CMHCs, private practice and medical/hospital settings together accounted for 45% of initial job placements for counseling psychologists from 1973–1998.

Results of Watkins et al.’s (1986) survey reported percentages of counseling psychologists who participated in various professional activities: psychotherapy (74.1%), consultation (60.9%), teaching (59.8%), administration (56.3%), supervision (54.3%), research (49.6%), personality diagnosis and assessment (45.7%), vocational counseling (43.0%), vocational assessment (29.9%), and structured groups (26.4%); and reported that the top four primary professional identifications of participants were clinical practitioner (47.7%), academician (28.4%), administrator (11.4%) and consultant (5.8%). Watkins et al. presented the average percentages of time that counseling psychologists in their sample reported spending in different professional activities, with the most time engaged in providing psychotherapy (27.5%), followed by teaching (17.5%), administration (14.6%), research (8.0%), consultation (7.3%), supervision (5.8%), personality diagnosis and assessment (6.1%), vocational counseling and assessment (6.7%), structured groups (2.4%), and other (3.5%).

Survey findings on counseling psychologist in the US demonstrate that counseling psychologists provide a wide range of professional services and functions in diverse professional settings. Comparison across surveys is limited by differences in samples and in survey characteristics. However, recent APA 2000 survey data on Division 17 members appear similar to earlier findings by Gelso and Fretz (2001) and Watkins et al. (1986) with all three surveys indicating that university academic department affiliations account for the largest percentage of counseling psychologists, around 34%. Also all three surveys reported around 20% of counseling psychologists were primarily in independent practice. However, it would seem that relatively fewer new doctorates (14.3%) directly enter private practice as their initial employment (Neimeyer et al., 2001). This may relate in part to licensure and postdoctoral supervision requirements. A few caveats are important to remember. First, while around 20% of the counseling psychologists surveyed had primary employment in private practice, many more counseling psychologists work part-time in private practice settings. In particular, Watkins et al. found that 57.1% of participants, who were in primary affiliations other than private practice, also engaged in part-time private practice. Second, as noted by Gelso and Fretz, estimates of counseling psychologists in practice settings based on Division 17 membership surveys are likely to be underestimates of counseling psychologists actually in practice. Third, as Neimeyer et al. noted, CMHCs, private practice and medical/hospital settings together accounted for 45% of initial job placements for counseling psychologists from 1973–1998.

Since articles published in a professional journal reflect the values, priorities, and research interests of members of the profession, they serve as one expression
of professional identity and development. On the occasion of the 30th anniversary of *TCP*, Heppner (1999) presented a listing of the topics of the major contributions appearing in that journal over the years, and noted the very broad range of topics including papers on counseling theories, specific client concerns, research methodology, and a wide range of professional issues. *JCP*, the major empirical journal for counseling psychology research in the US, has been the subject of more formal analyses over the years (Buboltz *et al.*, 1999; Munley, 1974). In an initial content analysis of *JCP* from 1954 to 1972, Munley found that the three principle areas of empirical research were counseling outcome and process research (25%), vocational behavior (18%), and research on tests and measurements (17%), which taken together accounted for 60% of the empirical research in the journal. In a content analysis of *JCP* from 1973 to 1998, Buboltz *et al.* found the largest percentage of papers were counseling process and outcome research (25%), followed by counseling process only studies (13%), research on vocational behavior (9%), and research on the development of tests and measurements (9%). When combined, these four categories accounted for 56% of the research papers in *JCP* during this time period. Both content analyses of *JCP* indicated the prominence of the themes of counseling outcome and process research, vocational psychology, and research on development of tests and measurements. Interestingly, these three prominent areas of research activity, across the first 45 years of *JCP*’s history, seem to mirror four of counseling psychology’s primary roots of origin: counseling, mental health, vocational psychology, and psychological measurement and testing. In general, all of the major surveys of professional employment, activities and interests, and research and scholarship are consistent in terms of portraying the substantial diversity of roles, interests and functions of counseling psychologists in the US.

**Philosophy**

Clearly, counseling psychology in the US represents a very diverse and rich field manifested by a wide range of professional roles, work settings, professional interests and activities, research, and scholarship. Gelso and Fretz (1992) thoughtfully and wisely articulated five unifying themes that helped clarify key essential elements of counseling psychology in the US and bring the profession’s settings, clients, diverse elements and activities together in a meaningful and coherent way. These themes also reflected traditional values, beliefs and emphases of the profession throughout its history. They were elaborated upon by Murdock *et al.* (1998) as key ingredients of the Model Training Program’s philosophy for counseling psychology training programs in the US. This philosophical perspective includes: (1) an emphasis on working within a developmental perspective across the full range of psychological functioning; (2) working with assets and strengths across all levels of functioning; (3) use of relatively brief counseling and treatment interventions; (4) a broad focus on person-environment interactions, as opposed to exclusive attention to either the person or environment; (5) an emphasis on educational, vocational and career development; (6) a stress on prevention and psycho-educational interventions; (7) an essential commitment and valuing of the integration of individual and cultural diversity and the vital importance of multiculturalism within US society today; and (8) an essential attitude of critical and scientific
inquiry accentuating the importance of evaluating and improving services and emphasizing the integration of science and practice.

The scientist-practitioner model, or scientist-professional model, has consistently been the central training model emphasized throughout counseling psychology’s history in the US. While other applied specialties in the US have incorporated and developed alternate professional training models and a number of professional psychology schools have been established in the US since the Vail Conference (Korman, 1974), counseling psychology has remained committed to the scientist-practitioner model as the recommended model for the profession (Meara et al., 1988; Murdock et al., 1998). In general, the scientist component of the scientist-practitioner model has been broadly defined and interpreted within counseling psychology (Gelso and Fretz, 2001). With the recognition that it may not be realistic for all counseling psychologists to do research, the basic expectation is that counseling psychologists will be able to apply the results of research and scholarship to their practice, think critically and scientifically about their work, and make original research and scholarship contributions. Contemporarily, the science component has also been very broadly interpreted to include alternate research paradigms including qualitative approaches, case studies, and original scholarly contributions. The original themes identified by Gelso and Fretz, that emerged out of counseling psychology’s roots, seemed to provide a home for later emerging themes and perspectives that would also distinguish counseling psychology as a profession within the US. These include counseling psychology’s emphasis on the importance of integrating multiculturalism and diversity as well as openness to alternate research paradigms and methodological diversity as an essential ingredient of the scientist-practitioner model.

**Licensure, registration and certification in the United States of America**

*Educational requirements*

The Model Training Program (MTP) developed by the Council of Counseling Psychology Training Programs (CCPTP) and the Society for Counseling Psychology Division 17 (Murdock et al., 1998) outlined the “modal” or “normative” educational experience of counseling psychologists in the US. In the US, counseling psychologists are trained at the doctoral level, and usually receive a Ph.D. from an APA-accredited counseling psychology program (Gelso and Fretz, 2001). Although programs differ in their special emphases, counseling psychology programs typically adhere to the scientist-practitioner model of training. The foundation for the MTP curriculum is the general psychology core set forth by APA, which includes (1) Biological Bases of Behavior, (2) Cognitive/Affective Bases of Behavior, (3) Social Bases of Behavior, (4) Life-Span Development, (5) Individual Differences, (6) History and Systems of Psychology, and (6) Research Methods and Design, Data Analytic Techniques, and Psychometrics. The MTP also includes ten professional core areas in counseling psychology. Generally speaking, doctoral students are expected to complete a minimum of three full-time years of graduate study. Following completion of required course work and academic requirements students complete a one-year pre-doctoral internship in professional psychology. A dissertation is also completed.
Licensure

Following completion of the doctoral degree, counseling psychologists may apply for licensure as a psychologist in the state(s) in which he or she wishes to practice. In 1987, APA published the Model Act for State Licensure of Psychologists, which provided a prototype for state licensure legislation (APA, 1987). Generally speaking, graduates from APA-accredited training programs will typically meet the educational requirements for psychology licensure at the independent practice level. Applicants for licensure must also complete an internship and a supervised clinical experience subsequent to the doctorate. Although most states require the completion of a supervised postdoctoral experience, the specific requirements pertaining to this postdoctoral practice vary widely from jurisdiction to jurisdiction due to differences in state licensing laws. For example, some states require two years of postdoctoral experience, whereas others require just one year, and with different regulations concerning the quality and quantity of supervision. All states require the Examination for Professional Practice in Psychology (EPPP) to be taken; however, the pass/fail scores for independent practice may vary. States may also supplement this national exam with additional oral or written questions. Often this includes a jurisprudence examination on the laws and regulations of the particular state.

The Association of State and Provincial Psychological Boards (ASPPB) is the alliance of state psychology boards responsible for licensure of psychologists throughout the US and Canada. Board members of all fifty states and two jurisdictions (i.e., District of Columbia, the US Virgin Islands), and ten providences of Canada are members of ASPPB. This organization was initially established in 1961 to promote the professional mobility of doctoral-level psychologists. In 1965, ASPPB created the Examination for Professional Practice in Psychology (EPPP). The EPPP, which is a standardized written test for knowledge and skills basic to all areas of psychology, is the instrument used to assess entry-level competence to practice in every member jurisdiction in the US and Canada.

According to the ASPPB, nearly all states in the US require the doctorate for independent practice as a psychologist. Twenty-five states currently offer some level of licensure for master’s level psychology practice; however, there exists a lack of continuity across states with regard to professional titles (e.g., Psychological Technician, Psychologist-Masters, Psychological Associate, Psychological Assistant, etc.), practice restrictions, and supervision requirements. Additional information about licensure and the ASPPB may be obtained from the website http://www.ASPPB.org. Although the doctoral degree in counseling psychology is the standard for independent practice as a psychologist in the US, a number of universities offer master’s degrees in counseling psychology. Graduates of these programs may work at the master’s level of psychological practice in their state or they may seek to qualify for other types of professional counseling licensure that also varies from state to state, e.g., Licensed Professional Counselor, Licensed Mental Health Counselor.

National Register

Following licensure, counseling psychologists can apply to be listed in the National Register of Health Service Providers (NR). Founded in 1974, the NR was established
to provide a system by which organizations, especially insurance companies, and individuals across the country could readily identify psychologists who had specific education, training, and supervised experiences in health services. To qualify for listing in the NR, counseling psychologists must meet the following criteria: (1) a doctoral degree in psychology, (2) an active and unrestricted license at the independent practice level, (3) one year (1,500 hours) of pre-doctoral internship in health services, (4) one year (1,500 hours) of supervised postdoctoral training in health service, and (5) no disciplinary actions. Further information about the NR may be obtained from the website http://www.nationalregister.com.

Board certification

Once licensed as an independent practitioner for two years, counseling psychologists may apply to become Board Certified in Counseling Psychology. The American Board of Professional Psychology (ABPP) provides specialty certification of psychologists in 13 different areas including counseling psychology. ABPP was established in 1947 with support from APA. The general requirements for board certification include a doctoral degree from an APA-accredited professional psychology program (or its equivalent), and licensure at the independent practice level as a psychologist in the jurisdiction in which the psychologist practices. Limited exceptions may be given for doctoral degrees granted prior to 1983 and for degrees granted outside the US or Canada and for licensure in jurisdiction of practice for some Federal employees. The American Board of Counseling Psychology (ABCoP) is specifically responsible for specialty certification in counseling psychology. Beyond the aforementioned ABPP requirements, eligibility for certification in counseling psychology includes (1) an acceptable internship, (2) one year of supervised postdoctoral practice, and (3) two years of post-license experience. Generally, this credentialing process involves a formal application and when accepted, a peer review process that includes a practice sample, professional statement, and oral examination. Further information about board certification, ABPP and ABCoP may be obtained from the website http://www.ABPP.org.

Counseling psychology organizations

APA

The primary professional organization for psychologists in the US is the American Psychological Association (APA). The APA represents psychology in the US and has as its mission to “advance psychology as a science and profession and as a means of promoting health, education, and human welfare” (APA). Activities of the organization include disseminating psychological knowledge, promoting research, maintaining standards of professional ethics and conduct, and advocating for the field on behalf of its membership. The APA provides a variety of membership categories including: Member (doctoral degree holders who live in the US or Canada), Associate (individuals with a master’s degree or two years of graduate study in psychology), Community College and High School Teacher Affiliate (individuals who teach psychology in specific educational
settings), and Student Affiliates of APA. Psychologists living outside the US and Canada may become either a Member or International Affiliate of APA. More information about APA and membership may be found on the website: http://www.apa.org.

The Society of Counseling Psychology

Within APA, there are currently 53 Divisions organized by sub-area of psychology. In addition to holding membership in APA, many counseling psychologists are members in one or more Divisions of APA, including The Society of Counseling Psychology, Division 17 (The Society). The Society “brings together psychologists, students, and international and professional affiliates who are dedicated to promoting education and training, scientific investigation, practice, and diversity and public interest in professional psychology” (Counseling Psychology Division 17). The Society also serves as an advocate for counseling psychology within the psychology field and to the public. Members of APA join Division 17 at their same membership status (Member, Associate). Individuals who are not members of APA may join as a Student Affiliate, International Affiliate, or Professional Affiliate.

In an effort to meet the professional needs and interests of its diverse membership, The Society’s membership organization includes Sections, groups of 50 or more voting members of the Division, and smaller Special Interest Groups (SIGs), with ten or more voting members. The former include the Section on the Advancement of Women; Section on College and University Counseling Centers; Section on Counseling and Psychotherapy Process and Outcome; Section on Counseling Health Psychology; Section on Ethnic and Racial Diversity; Section on Independent Practice; Section on Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual Awareness; Prevention Section; and the Society for Vocational Psychology: A Section of the Division of Counseling Psychology. A tenth section, Positive Psychology, is currently being formed. More information about the Sections and SIGS can be found on the Division 17 website: http://www.div17.org.

Other organizations

Counseling psychologists may also be members of, or representatives to, other organizations or bodies. Those associated with training and/or counseling center settings include the Council of Counseling Psychology Training Programs (CCPTP), the Association of Counseling Center Training Agencies (ACCTA), the Association of University and College Counseling Center Directors (AUCCCD), and the Association of Psychology Postdoctoral and Internship Centers (APPIC). CCPTP, established in the mid-1970s, has as its primary members the training directors of counseling psychology programs. It seeks to provide assistance in establishing training programs, ongoing information and support to training directors, a forum for discussing relevant training issues, assistance in establishing and maintaining accreditation, and general advocacy for training in counseling psychology. ACCTA was founded in the late 1970s to represent counseling center training agency interests at a national and state level in the education and training of counseling psychologists, particularly in the areas of practicum and internship training (Heppner et al., 2000). APPIC was founded in 1968 and is the association of agencies
sponsoring professional psychology internship and postdoctoral training. APPIC provides services to member organizations and has been an integral part of establishing policies and procedures for the selection and national matching of doctoral students for internship training.

Additional organizations in which counseling psychologists may hold membership include the American Educational Research Association (AERA) and the American Counseling Association (ACA). It is not unusual to find counseling psychologists teaching in counseling psychology or counseling training programs housed in Schools or Colleges of Education rather than in Arts and Sciences. Thus membership in these organizations, and associated divisions such as ACA’s Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES) or AERA’s Division E, Counseling and Human Development, might not have been unusual historically. However, according to Heppner et al. (2000), while it was once more common for counseling psychologists to hold membership in both Division 17 and ACA, over time, the trend has been toward less membership overlap. Counseling psychologists, who are Board Certified in Counseling Psychology by ABCoP, may also hold membership in the American Academy of Counseling Psychology.

International linkages

Within the APA, Division 52, International Psychology, encourages participation in intercultural research, cross-cultural professional activities, participation in international conferences, and helps facilitate international visits, workshops, and lectures. Division 52 has a Committee for International Liaisons with representatives from 74 countries around the world (International Psychology Division 52). The Society of Counseling Psychology, Division 17, has also given increased recognition to globalization. Louise Douce, 2003 President of the Society of Counseling Psychology, designated “Globalization of Counseling Psychology” as her presidential theme, and throughout her presidency highlighted the importance of globalization for counseling psychology (Douce, 2004). As part of her presidential initiative, efforts have been made to improve collaborations within the Society via the Division 17 webpage and create a database of global efforts by members of the Division.

Although the Society of Counseling Psychology in the US has been increasingly sensitive to the issue of globalization and has a long history of commitment and important efforts in this regard (Takooshian, 2003) much work and development remains to be done. Leong and Ponterotto (2003) observed that the world seems to be internationalizing at a much quicker rate than the field of psychology and noted that American psychology has been criticized as being insular and ethnocentric. Leong and Ponterotto called for the internationalization of counseling psychology in several areas including methods of inquiry, profession-based actions, initiatives from the Society of Counseling Psychology and training program activities. Pedersen (2003) warned of the pervasiveness of cultural bias in counseling psychology in the US. Leung (2003) also articulated the extent to which counseling psychology in the US remains a very culturally encapsulated profession, limited to its national borders and isolated from other counseling psychology professionals world-wide. Leung noted that the internationalization of
counseling psychology requires counseling psychologists in the US to scrutinize their attitudes, eliminate their sense of self-sufficiency and to work with counseling psychologists around the world as equal partners. Leung observed that the multicultural developments in counseling psychology in the US have been primarily limited to ethnic and diversity issues within the US; and these developments have failed to bridge international boundaries to truly move counseling psychology towards greater globalization and more meaningful engagement in cross-cultural practice and scholarship.

One of the longstanding and recurring themes of counseling psychology in the US has been that of “Unity through Diversity”. As Thompson and Super (1964) observed following the Greyston conference, the future of counseling psychology depends upon its ability to “derive strength from variety and to achieve unity in diversity” (p. 26). As counseling psychology faces the challenges of globalization, perhaps now more than ever, the future rests on our ability to actualize the strength of “unity through diversity” on a world-wide basis.

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