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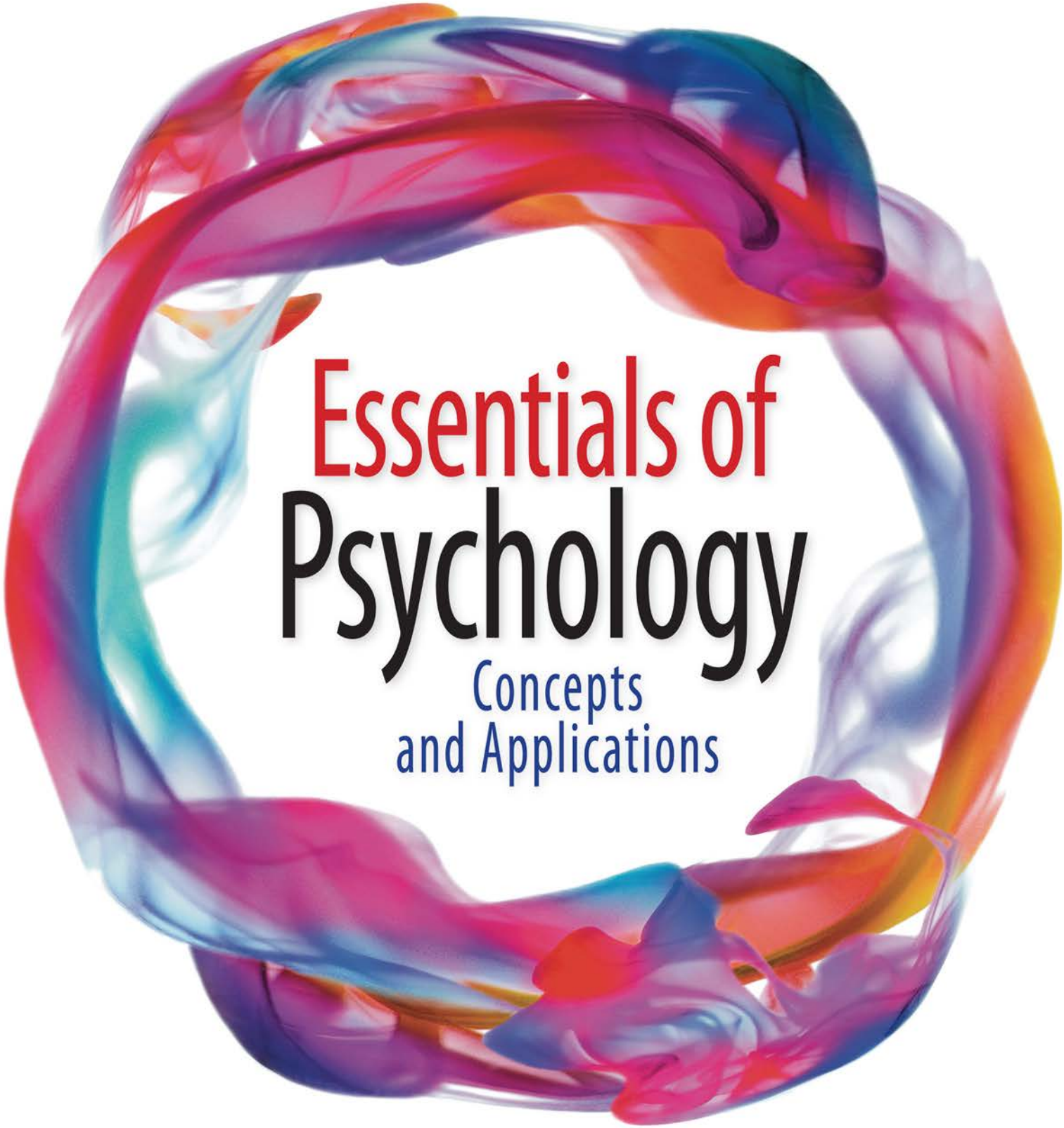

Essentials of Psychology

Concepts and Applications

FIFTH EDITION

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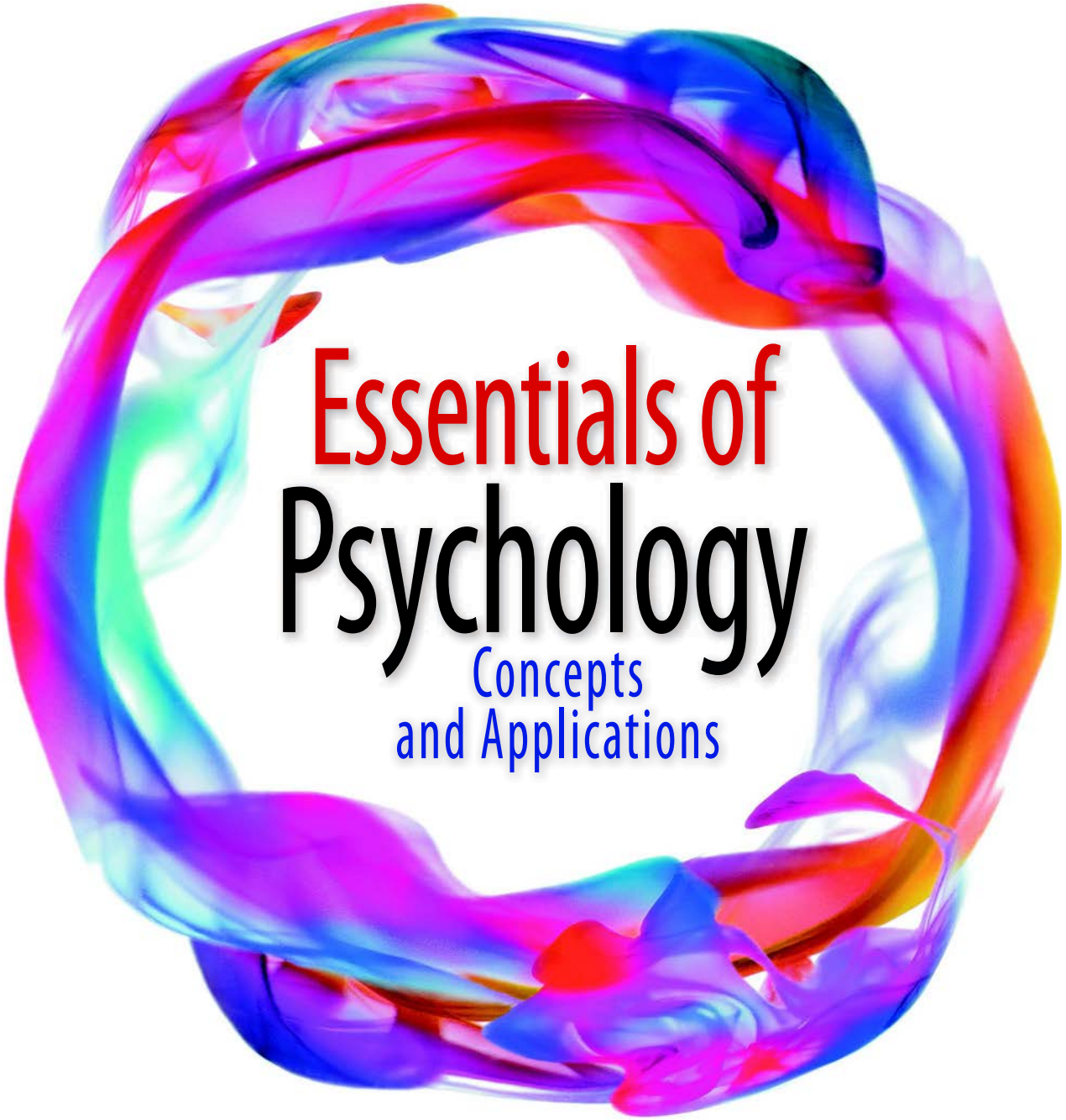

Essentials of Psychology

Concepts and Applications

Jeffrey S. Nevid

St. John's University

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Jeffrey S. Nevid

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This text is dedicated to the thousands of psychology instructors who share their excitement and enthusiasm for the field of psychology with their students and seek to help them better understand the many contributions of psychology to our daily lives and to our understanding of ourselves and others. I consider myself fortunate to have the opportunity to be one of them.

About the Author

Dr. Jeffrey Nevid is professor of psychology at St. John's University in New York, where he teaches introductory psychology and other undergraduate and graduate courses. He received his doctorate from the State University of New York at Albany and completed a postdoctoral fellowship in evaluation research at Northwestern University. Dr. Nevid has accrued more than 200 research publications and presentations at professional conferences and has authored or coauthored more than a dozen textbooks in psychology and related fields. In addition to this text in introductory psychology, his other texts include *Abnormal Psychology in a Changing World*, published by Pearson Education; *Human Sexuality in a World of Diversity*, also published by Pearson Education; *Psychology and the Challenges of Life: Adjustment and Growth*, published by John Wiley & Sons; and *HLTH*, published by Wadsworth/Cengage Learning.

Dr. Nevid's research encompasses many areas of psychology, including health psychology, clinical and community psychology, social psychology, gender and human sexuality, adolescent development, and teaching of psychology. His publications have appeared in such journals as *Health Psychology*, *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, *Journal of Community Psychology*, *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *Clinical Psychology and Psychotherapy, Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease, Behavior Therapy*, *Psychology & Marketing*, *Professional Psychology*, *Teaching of Psychology*, *International Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, Sex Roles*, and *Journal of Social Psychology*, among others.

Dr. Nevid also served as an editorial consultant for the journals *Health Psychology* and *Psychology & Marketing* and as an associate editor of the *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*. He is actively involved in conducting research on pedagogical advances to help students succeed in their courses. His most recent research on effective learning and instruction has focused on journaling as a writing-to-learn assignment, the IDEA model of course assessment, accuracy of student confidence judgments on exams, and retrieval practice as a study tool.

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Preface

Welcome to the Fifth Edition of *Essentials of Psychology: Concepts and Applications*. I set out to accomplish three major purposes in writing this text:

1. To make the study of psychology accessible and engaging to beginning students in psychology
2. To provide students with a solid grounding in the knowledge base in psychology
3. To help students succeed in the course

The IDEA Model of Course Assessment: Mapping Acquired Skills to APA Learning Goals

This text offers a unique pedagogical framework, called the IDEA model of course assessment, which is grounded in the widely used taxonomy of educational objectives developed by renowned educational researcher Benjamin Bloom. Each chapter begins with a listing of learning objectives expressed in the form of action verbs tied to measurable learning outcomes. The action verbs represent four key acquired skills paralleling those in Bloom's taxonomy. The action verbs *identify, define,* and *describe* represent basic cognitive skills in Bloom's taxonomy (knowledge and comprehension, or remembering and understanding in the revised taxonomy). The action verb *apply* represents an intermediate level of skills development needed to apply knowledge to real-life situations and examples, and the action verbs *explain* and *evaluate* represent the highest or most complex level of skills acquisition in Bloom's taxonomy—skills needed to analyze, synthesize, and evaluate information (or analyzing, evaluating, and creating in the revised taxonomy).

These action verbs conveniently spell out the simple acronym IDEA:

Identify… key figures in the history of psychology, parts of nervous system, and so on.

Define or Describe… key concepts and features of major psychological theories.

Evaluate or Explain… underlying processes and mechanisms of behavior and mental processes.

Apply… psychological concepts to real-world examples.

The IDEA model is integrated with the *APA Guidelines for the Undergraduate Psychology Major, Version 2.0*, which identifies five major learning goals and corresponding student learning outcomes for undergraduate majors in psychology. Learning objectives in this text are mapped onto APA learning goals (see table later in the Preface) to ensure that beginning students in psychology are exposed to core concepts in the field and foundational areas of competence in the psychology major.

The IDEA model is also integrated with the test-item file so that instructors can select items measuring these particular outcomes—to *identify, define* or *describe, evaluate* or *explain,* and *apply* knowledge of psychology.

To help students accomplish these objectives, the text adopts a learning-centric approach to help students encode and retain key concepts in psychology. The keystones of this approach include the following concept-based pedagogical tools:

- **Concept Signaling** Key concepts, not just key terms, are identified and highlighted in the margins to help students encode and retain core concepts.
- **Concept Charts** These built-in study charts are "see-at-a-glance" capsulized summaries of key concepts to help reinforce new knowledge.
- **Concept Links** This feature highlights connections between key concepts across chapters. Concept links are integrated with the key concepts in the margins, so that students can see how core concepts are applied across different areas of psychology.
- **Concept Maps for Psychology** This online visual learning tool helps students visualize connections between key concepts in the text. Concept maps are available through Cengage Learning's *MindTap*. Concept maps are schematic diagrams comprising key concepts that are represented in boxed shapes called *nodes,* which are connected by links that typically take the form of verbs or conjunctions. Unlike other study charts, concept maps can be read either across or down the page to express a coherent knowledge structure. To encourage active learning, concept maps are presented in an incomplete (fill-in-the-blanks) form to engage students in the process of completing these knowledge structures. The answers are also available online.

What's New?

The Fifth Edition of *Essentials of Psychology* includes many new features and updates, including the following:

***New!* Psychology in our Digital World.** Students today are digital natives who have never known a time without cell phones or the Internet. When many of us started teaching, a *tablet* was something you took when you had a headache, a *cell phone* resembled a brick that only top corporate executives or military personnel carried, a *text* was something that instructors assigned in class, and a *web* was something that only spiders spun.

My how the world has changed in just the past generation! When I was writing the first edition of this text, "the facebook" was a social experiment in a Harvard dorm. Now, Facebook has more than 1.5 billion users worldwide. Psychologists today are actively exploring how personal technology is transforming our lives. This text brings this research to the attention of students who are experiencing these changes first-hand. In this text, students will learn what psychologists are discovering about the psychological impact of cell phones, the Internet, and social media. Previous editions of the text included early research in this area, but this new edition greatly expands the focus. Here is a sampling of psychological research on the effects of personal technology discussed in this edition:

- Laboratory evidence of effects that occur when students are physically separated from their cell phones (Chapter 1)
- Semantic analysis of the tone of Facebook postings as clues to how rainy days affect moods (Chapter 1)
- Data collection in the smartphone era—yes, there's an app for that (Chapter 1)
- How the brain responds to viewing Facebook pages (Chapter 4)
- Evidence from the Harvard iPhone app study showing that people tend to report unhappier moods when their minds are wandering than when they were focused on activities (Chapter 4)
- Risks posed by cell phone use during driving and the problem of inattention blindness (Chapter 4)
- Effects of Facebook use on student grades (Chapter 6)
- Evidence linking greater social media use to higher risk of eating disorders in young women (Chapter 8)
- Evidence linking greater social media use to more negative moods after signing off and to lower levels of happiness and life satisfaction overall (Chapter 8)
- Investigation of whether online connections strengthen or weaken real-life relationships (Chapter 9)
- Evidence of how Big Five traits relate to use of social networking sites (Chapter 11)
- Analysis of digital footprints ("likes" on Facebook) as a clue to an individual's personality traits (Chapter 11)
- Relationships between trait neuroticism and tendencies to present a fake or idealized image of oneself on Facebook profiles (Chapter 11)
- Displaying photographs and personal interests on social networking sites as a form of signaling racial identity among African American students (Chapter 11)
- Analysis of self-disclosure by adolescents and adults on social media pages (Chapter 12)
- How the reciprocity principle comes into play in rating desirability of people based on Facebook profiles (Chapter 12)
- Smartphone apps and Internet-based therapy modules as aids in helping people with psychological problems, such as the PTSD Coach (Chapter 14)

***New!* Integrated TED Talks.** I'm very appreciative of Cengage Learning's efforts to incorporate other learning resources within the *MindTap* platform and especially pleased that this edition features a number of TED talks on psychological content. Each talk is directly accessible from *MindTap*.

***New!* Thorough Updating.** Each edition of this text is thoroughly updated from start to finish. The field of psychology stands still for no author! New research developments are reported daily in professional journals and circulated widely in the popular media. As you thumb through the pages of this edition, you will find many hundreds of new findings from research appearing in the scientific literature in the past three years. Here is a sampling of new findings in the field from each chapter:

- 2015 APA report on ethnic minority percentages among working psychologists today (Chapter 1)
- New evidence of neurogenesis in the adult brain (Chapter 2)
- New research evidence that people can actually sniff happiness in others (Chapter 3)
- New recommended sleep guidelines from National Sleep Foundation (Chapter 4)
- 2015 UCLA study showing that only one of 85 undergraduates was able to correctly draw a logo they had seen countless times before—the Apple logo
- New evidence supporting the Flynn effect on IQ scores (Chapter 6)
- 2015 update on prevalence of obesity and being overweight in the United States (Chapter 8)
- 2015 recommendations from American Academy of Pediatrics about use of alcohol during pregnancy (Chapter 9)
- New research showing that socially isolated people and those living alone stand a higher risk of early death than more socially engaged people (Chapter 10)
- New evidence on changes in conscientiousness occurring in young adulthood (Chapter 11)
- New evidence that impression formation begins in a fraction of a second when someone catches a glimpse of someone, literally in the blink of an eye (Chapter 12)
- New evidence that the amygdala may be overreactive in people with anxiety-related disorders (Chapter 13)

- Recent developments on the use of software programs, Internet-based resources, and smartphone apps in treating psychological problems (Chapter 14)

Targeting Effective Learning (EL): The Four E's of Effective Learning

The learning system adopted in this text is based on the *Four E's of Effective Learning:* (1) engaging interest; (2) encoding important information; (3) elaborating meaning; and (4) evaluating progress. This pedagogical framework is grounded in basic research on learning and memory and is supplemented by pedagogical research, including research I have conducted with my students.[1] The pedagogical framework was then tested in classrooms throughout the country.

The four key elements of effective learning, the "**Four E's,**" are as follows:

- **Engaging Interest**
- **Encoding Important Information**
- **Elaborating Meaning**
- **Evaluating Progress**

Engaging Interest

Learning begins with focused attention. A textbook can be an effective learning tool only if it engages and retains student interest. Students are not likely to encode or retain information without focused attention.

Essentials of Psychology: Concepts and Applications is designed to generate interest as well as involve students directly in the material they read. Personal vignettes are used to draw readers into the material and to illustrate how concepts discussed in the chapter relate to their personal experiences. In addition, *"**Did You Know That…**"* chapter-opening features are designed to grab student attention and encourage further reading. These chapter-opening questions whet the student's appetite for material presented in the chapter. Some questions debunk common myths and misconceptions, whereas others highlight interesting historical features or bring recent research developments into sharper focus. Accompanying page numbers are provided for easy cross-referencing to the chapter sections in which the information is discussed. A small sample follows:

Did You Know That . . .

- A major school of psychology was inspired by the view from a train? (Chapter 1)
- It is impossible to tickle yourself? (Chapter 2)
- You may be hooked on a drug you have with breakfast every morning? (Chapter 4)
- If you want to remember something you observed, first close your eyes? (Chapter 6)
- Albert Einstein used mental imagery in developing his theory of relativity? (Chapter 7)
- People in different cultures smile differently? (Chapter 8)
- Your personality traits help predict how well you are likely to do in college? (Chapter 11)
- We literally begin forming an impression of other people in a fraction of a second of catching a glimpse of them? (Chapter 12)
- People labeled as psychopaths are not psychotic? (Chapter 13)
- Antidepressant drugs are used to treat many types of psychological disorders, not just depression? (Chapter 14)

[1]Nevid, J. S., & Carmony, T. M. (2002). Traditional versus modular format in presenting textual material in introductory psychology. *Teaching of Psychology, 29,* 237–238.

Nevid, J. S., & Lampmann, J. L. (2003). Effects on content acquisition of signaling key concepts in text material. *Teaching of Psychology, 30,* 227–229.

Nevid, J. S., & Forlenza, N. (2005). Graphing psychology: An analysis of the most commonly used graphs in introductory psychology textbooks. *Teaching of Psychology, 32,* 253–256.

Nevid, J. S. (2006, February). In pursuit of the "perfect lecture." *American Psychological Society Observer, 19*(2), 35–36, 42.

Nevid, J. S., & Mahon, K. (2009). Mastery quizzing as a signaling device to cue attention to lecture material. *Teaching of Psychology, 36,* 1–4.

Nevid, J. S., Pastva, A., & McClelland, N. (2012). Writing-to-learn assignments in introductory psychology: Is there a learning benefit? *Teaching of Psychology, 39,* 272–275.

Nevid, J. S., & McClelland, N. (2013). Using action verbs as learning outcomes: Applying Bloom's taxonomy in measuring instructional objectives in introductory psychology. *Journal of Education and Training Studies*, 1(2), 19–24.

Nevid, J. S., Cheney, B., & Thompson, C. (2015). "But I thought I knew that!" Student confidence judgments on course examinations in introductory psychology. *Teaching of Psychology, 42,* 330–334.

The Brain Loves a Puzzle. The use of thought-provoking puzzles in the text stimulates student interest and encourages them to read further. Each chapter poses a puzzle relating to the content of the chapter and provides clues students can use to find the solution. Here are some examples from the text:

- How could something so unpleasant as pain be a good thing? (Chapter 3)
- How might being "able to hold your liquor" be a genetic risk factor for developing problems with alcohol? (Chapter 4)
- A young physicist was working on the problem of connecting the world's computers. After some false starts, he invented a model of a computer network based on how the brain performs memory tasks. What was this invention that changed the world and how was it based on the workings of the human brain? (Chapter 6)
- We use many concepts in everyday speech without really knowing what they mean. Here's a puzzlement you can chew on: What makes a fruit a fruit? None of us has any problem using the concept of fruit, but few of us have a clear idea what the concept means. (Chapter 7)
- On a trip to the aquarium with his father, 5-year-old Kamau sees a whale for the first time and says, "Wow, what a big fish!" His father points out that the whale is not a fish, but Kamau seems puzzled and continues to call it a fish. Why would Kamau persist in calling a whale a fish? (Chapter 9)
- If you were to collapse on the street and needed immediate help, why would you be less likely to receive help if the street was crowded than if there were but a few people nearby? (Chapter 12)
- Genetics plays an important role in schizophrenia, but why is it the case that scientists have been unable to find the gene that causes schizophrenia and probably never will? (Chapter 13)

Try This Out Hands-On Exercises. These active learning exercises encourage students to apply psychological concepts to their own experiences. Whether the topic involves trying to read a magazine sideways, breaking through the "Magic 7" barrier, reading emotions in facial expressions or putting multitasking to the test, students work through problems, generate solutions, and test out beliefs. Some Try This Out activities offer suggestions for *service learning* through participation in research and volunteer experiences, whereas others involve self-scoring questionnaires that allow students to evaluate their own behavior and attitudes about specific issues (for example, "Are You an Optimist or a Pessimist?").

Encoding Important Information

Learning and retaining key concepts in text material requires that information first be encoded in memory. The pedagogical technique of signaling or cueing can help people encode important information. Textbook authors have long used certain forms of signaling, such as headings and highlighted key terms. This text also includes two other types of signaling devices, the *running glossary* and *concept signaling*.

Running Glossary. Key terms are highlighted in the text and defined in the margins. Students do not need to interrupt their reading to thumb through a glossary at the end of the text whenever they encounter an unfamiliar term. (A full glossary is presented at the end of the text as well.)

Concept Signaling. Concept signaling is a unique pedagogical feature designed to help students encode and retain key concepts by extracting and highlighting them in the margins of the text. Cued concepts are signposts to help students gauge that they are getting the key points as they make their way through the chapter. Although some students can easily extract key concepts from text material, others struggle with the process of encoding key points. They may come away knowing a few isolated facts, but may miss many of the major concepts that form the basic building blocks of knowledge in the field. Or they may feel "lost" in the middle of a chapter and become frustrated.

To evaluate the learning benefits of concept signaling, we conducted a controlled study in which students read two different text passages—one with key concepts highlighted in the margins and one without cued concepts. Our results showed that signaling key concepts by extracting them and highlighting them in the margins significantly improved quiz performance overall as well as on a subset of items that directly measured knowledge of key concepts (Nevid & Lampmann, 2003).

Not surprisingly, we found that signaling key concepts had no effects on learning surrounding material that was not signaled. This finding only reinforces what instructors have known for years—that students should not use pedagogical aids (whether they be summaries, interim quizzes, or cued concepts) as substitutes for reading the text in its entirety. Importantly, though, our results suggest that students may be better able to learn key concepts when they are signaled or highlighted in the text.

We also polled students in our study on which format they preferred—the one with signaled concepts or the one without. More than three of five students preferred concept signaling and found it easier to understand and more clearly presented than the standard (nonsignaled) format. (This was interesting in light of the fact that the content in the text passages was exactly the same in both formats.)

Elaborating Meaning

Though information must first be encoded to be learned, new learning needs to be strengthened to ensure long-term retention. Retention of newly acquired information can be strengthened through rote memorization, such as by

rehearsal of particular words or phrases. But the types of deeper processing needed to build more enduring memories generally require *elaborative rehearsal* in which the person reflects on the meaning of the material and relates it to real-life applications and life experiences. This text provides several pedagogical features designed to facilitate elaborative rehearsal:

Learning Objectives. These important study aids are listed both at the beginning of the chapter and within the modules themselves. Sample answers to learning objectives are presented in the Recite It sections of Module Reviews using a fill-in-the-blanks format to foster active learning that encourages retrieval of key concepts. Research evidence consistently demonstrates the learning benefits of practicing retrieval skills. As noted earlier, learning objectives incorporate active learning verbs that follow the author's IDEA model of course assessment.

Concept Charts. These study charts summarize key concepts in tabular form. Concept Charts reinforce knowledge of major concepts and help students make relational connections between concepts.

Concepts are repeated in several forms to reinforce new learning—in the narrative itself, in Concept Charts, in marginal inserts of cued concepts, and in schematic diagrams. The use of different contexts for presenting information strengthens new learning.

Try This Out. These exercises not only engage student interest, but also encourage students to apply concepts they learn in the text to their own experiences.

Applying Psychology in Daily Life. Applications of psychological knowledge in daily life are integrated directly in the modules themselves in the Applying Psychology in Daily Life features. Examples include the following: "Psychology and Pain Management" (Chapter 3), "Putting Reinforcement into Practice" (Chapter 5), "Becoming a Creative Problem Solver" (Chapter 7), and "Taking the Distress Out of Stress" (Chapter 10).

Evaluating Progress

The text contains a number of study aids to help students evaluate their progress:

Module Review Sections. At the end of each module is a Module Review consisting of three sections, a Recite It section, a Recall It section, and a Think About It section.

Reciting new knowledge is a key feature of the SQ3R study method and an important, perhaps the most important, study tool. Recite It sections provide an opportunity for students to recite their knowledge of the learning objectives and then to compare their responses to sample answers given in the text.

The Recall It sections allow students to test their knowledge by taking a short quiz on several key concepts. The answers are given in Appendix B at the end of the text.

The Think About It features encourage critical thinking by posing thought-provoking questions to stimulate students to think more deeply about concepts presented in the text.

Visual Overviews. In addition, Visual Overview sections offer students a visual learning tool to help them review and strengthen their knowledge of new concepts and see relationships among concepts in summary form.

The Modular Approach

The text is organized in a modular format that breaks down each chapter into smaller instructional units called modules. Each module is a cohesive study unit organized around a set of key concepts in a particular area of study. The modular approach helps busy students better organize their study efforts by allowing them to focus on one module at a time rather than trying to tackle a whole chapter at once.

In our research, we found the majority of students preferred the modular format over the traditional format (57.3 percent versus 38.5 percent, with 4.2 percent expressing no preference) (Nevid & Carmony, 2002). In addition, students who preferred the modular format performed significantly better when material was presented in this format than in the traditional format. It stands to reason that when students prefer a particular format, they will become more engaged in reading texts based on that format—an outcome that may translate into improved performance in classroom situations.

Targeting Critical Thinking Skills

The text encourages students to challenge their preconceived assumptions about human behavior and to think critically about information they hear or read about in the media in the light of scientific evidence. The Thinking Critically About Psychology sections at the end of each chapter provide students with opportunities to sharpen their critical thinking skills. Students can practice these skills by answering questions that require them to analyze problems and evaluate claims in relation to information presented in the chapters. Students may then compare their answers to sample responses presented in Appendix A of the text. The Think About It sections in each Module Review pose thought-provoking questions that further reinforce critical thinking skills.

Built-In Study Method: SQ3R+

The SQ3R (Survey, Question, Read, Recite, Review) study method is a widely used technique for enhancing learning and encouraging students to adopt a more active role in the learning process. The SQ3R method is directly built into the text. The text not only incorporates the traditional elements of SQ3R but also adds another element, the Think About It feature, which fosters critical thinking skills.

- **Survey and Question** Students can survey each chapter by reviewing the numbered listing of modules at the

start of the chapter and by reading the introductory section in which material to be covered in the chapter is described. In addition, they can use the learning objectives as advance organizers to guide their reading and question themselves to ensure they have achieved these objectives.

- **Read** The writing style has been carefully developed for reading level, content, and style. Students are often addressed directly to engage them in the material and encourage them to examine how the information relates to their life experiences.
- **Recite and Review** Each module ends with a Module Review section that helps students review their knowledge of key concepts. Students should be encouraged to recite their knowledge of the learning objectives in the Recite It section of the Module Review before turning to the sample answers in the text for feedback. Students can then test their knowledge by completing a short quiz presented in the Recall It sections. These quizzes consist of fill-in, multiple-choice, matching, and short-answer questions. Concept Charts provide further opportunities for students to review the knowledge they have acquired.
- **Think About It** The text goes beyond review and recitation by posing thought-provoking questions in the Module Reviews that encourage reflection, critical thought, and self-exploration. These questions foster critical thinking (for example, "Do you believe that conventional intelligence tests are culturally biased? Why or why not?"), and encourage students to reflect on how the text material relates to their personal experiences (for example, "Are you a self-actualizer? Upon what evidence do you base your judgment? What steps could you take to become a self-actualizer?"). Instructors may wish to assign these questions as writing assignments.

Integrating Coverage of Diversity in Psychology

One primary objective of this text is to raise students' awareness of the importance of issues relating to diversity. Discussion of cultural and gender issues is therefore integrated within the main body of the text rather than relegated to boxed features. A proliferation of boxes tends to break the flow of the text and to introduce unnecessary clutter that many students find distracting; it might even inadvertently convey the impression that material relating to diversity is less important than other material because it is boxed off. For a reference guide to the integrated coverage of gender and sociocultural issues in the text, see the complete listings available in the Instructor's Manual that accompanies *Essentials of Psychology: Concepts and Applications*.

Ancillaries

Even the most comprehensive text is incomplete without ancillaries. The ones accompanying *Essentials of Psychology: Concepts and Applications* help make it a complete teaching package.

Teacher Ancillaries

Instructor's Resource Manual. The Instructor's Resource Manual (IRM) contains a variety of resources to aid instructors in preparing and presenting text material in a manner that meets their personal preferences and course needs. The IRM begins with a comprehensive preface, which covers preparation, pitfalls, planning, execution, resources, and best practices for both new and seasoned instructors. Each chapter provides a preview and a goals and activity planner to help organize classes. In addition, each chapter of the IRM contains a detailed outline, lecture suggestions, topics for discussion, classroom and individual activities with handouts, and ideas for writing assignments.

Test Bank. The test bank contains more than 2,400 items specifically developed for *Essentials of Psychology: Concepts and Applications*. Multiple-choice questions as well as essay questions with answers are written at both the chapter and the module level to provide flexibility for instructors. These questions are labeled by type (factual, conceptual, applied), learning objective, module reference number, and page reference for easier use in creating exams.

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The Idea Model of Course Assessment: Mapping Acquired Skills to *APA Learning Goals for the Undergraduate Psychology Major, Version 2.0*

GOAL 1 Knowledge Base in Psychology

APA Learning Goals	Related Content in Text and Ancillaries	IDEA Model of Course Assessment: *Skills Acquired— to Identify . . . Define or Describe . . . Evaluate or Explain . . . and Apply*
1.1 Describe key concepts, principles, and overarching themes in psychology	**Module 1.1**	**Define** psychology and **explain** why psychology is a science. **Identify** the major contemporary perspectives in psychology, and **describe** each perspective.
	The interaction of heredity and environment: Module 2.7	**Evaluate** the role of genetics in behavior. **Describe** methods psychologists use to study the roles of genes and environment in behavior
	Free will versus determinism: Modules 11.3 and 11.4	**Describe** the social-cognitive theories of Rotter, Bandura, and Mischel. **Describe** the humanistic theories of Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow.
	Interaction of mind and body: Modules 10.1 and 10.2	**Define** stress in psychological terms. **Identify** and **describe** the major sources of stress. **Define** the general adaptation syndrome, and **identify** its three stages. **Evaluate** the effects of stress on the body's immune system. **Identify** and **describe** psychological factors that buffer the effects of stress. **Apply** stress management techniques to daily life. **Identify** psychological factors linked to coronary heart disease. **Identify** psychological factors linked to cancer. **Apply** knowledge of the transmission of sexually transmitted disease to steps we can take to protect ourselves from these diseases.
1.2 Develop a working knowledge of psychology's content domains **Learning, Memory, and Cognition**	**Module 5.1**	**Define** learning in psychological terms. **Define** classical conditioning and describe the contributions of Ivan Pavlov. **Explain** the process by which conditioned responses become weaker or disappear. **Explain** how conditioned responses can be strengthened. **Define** stimulus generalization and discrimination, and describe their roles in classical conditioning. **Explain** classical conditioning from a cognitive perspective. **Apply** classical conditioning to examples discussed in the text.
	Module 5.2	**Define** operant conditioning, **identify** the major figures in its development, and **describe** their contributions. **Describe** different types of reinforcement and schedules of reinforcement. **Explain** the effects of different types of reinforcement on response rates. **Define** punishment, and **identify** the concerns that psychologists raise about the use of punishment in disciplining children. **Explain** the difference between escape learning and avoidance learning. **Apply** operant conditioning to examples discussed in the text.
	Module 5.3	**Define** cognitive learning, and describe several types of cognitive learning.
	Module 6.1	**Identify** and **describe** the basic processes and stages of memory. **Identify** and **describe** the different types of long-term memory. **Explain** the roles of the semantic network model and levels-of-processing theory in memory. **Apply** constructionist theory to **explain** memory distortions. **Identify** and discuss factors influencing the reliability of eyewitness testimony. **Explain** why the concept of recovered memory is controversial.
	Module 6.2	**Describe** the major theories and factors in forgetting. **Explain** why recognition tests of memory generally produce better results than recall tests. **Describe** the causes of amnesia and the two major types of amnesia.
	Module 7.1	**Define** thinking. **Identify** several ways in which we represent information in our minds. **Explain** the difference between logical and natural concepts. **Identify** and **describe** mental strategies we can use to solve problems more effectively. **Identify** and **describe** mental roadblocks that impede problem solving and decision making. **Describe** the basic processes of creative thought and **explain** the difference between divergent and convergent thinking. **Apply** skills of problem solving to become a creative problem solver.

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APA Learning Goals	Related Content in Text and Ancillaries	IDEA Model of Course Assessment: *Skills Acquired— to Identify . . . Define or Describe . . . Evaluate or Explain . . . and Apply*
	Module 7.2	**Identify** the basic components of language and the milestones in language development and **describe** the roles of nature and nurture in language development. **Evaluate** whether language is unique to humans and **evaluate** the linguistic relativity hypothesis in light of evidence.
	Module 7.3	**Define** intelligence, **identify** different tests of intelligence, and **evaluate** the characteristics of a good test of intelligence. **Evaluate** gender differences in cognitive abilities. **Describe** the characteristics of the two extremes of intelligence and the misuses of intelligence tests. **Describe** the major theories of intelligence and **evaluate** the roles of heredity and environment in intelligence.
Individual Differences	**Module 11.1**	**Define** the concept of personality. **Identify** and describe the three levels of consciousness and three structures of personality in Freud's psychoanalytic theory. **Identify** and **describe** the stages in Freud's theory of psychosexual development. **Describe** the personality theories of Jung, Adler, and Horney.
	Module 11.2	**Describe** the trait theories of Allport, Cattell, Eysenck, and the Big Five model. **Evaluate** the genetic basis of personality traits.
	Module 11.3	**Describe** the social-cognitive theories of Rotter, Bandura, and Mischel.
	Module 11.4	**Describe** the self-theory of humanistic theorist Carl Rogers. **Explain** the difference between the concepts of self in collectivistic and individualistic cultures. **Apply** suggestions for enhancing self-esteem.
	Module 11.5	**Identify** the two major types of personality tests, and **evaluate** self-report and projective personality tests.
Social bases of behavior	**Module 12.1**	**Identify** the major influences on first impressions, and **explain** why first impressions often become lasting impressions. **Identify** and **describe** cognitive biases that influence causal attributions. **Identify** three components of attitudes, and **describe** the sources of attitudes and the pathways involved in changing attitudes through persuasive appeals. **Describe** cognitive dissonance theory, and **explain** how cognitive dissonance can be reduced.
	Module 12.2	**Identify** factors that influence attraction. **Identify** the components of love identified in the triangular model of love. **Describe** the decision-making model of helping, and **identify** factors that influence helping behavior. **Define** prejudice, **explain** how it develops, and **apply** your knowledge to ways of reducing it. **Identify** factors that contribute to human aggression.
	Module 12.3	**Define** social identity and **evaluate** cultural factors involved in social identity. **Describe** the basic finding of Asch's classic study on conformity, and **identify** factors that influence conformity. **Explain** the psychological bases of manipulative sales tactics. **Describe** the findings of Milgram's classic study, and **evaluate** why his methods were controversial. **Evaluate** the effects of the presence of others on performance. **Define** groupthink, and **explain** how it can lead to wrong decisions.
Biological bases of behavior	**Module 2.1**	**Define** what a neuron is, **identify** the parts of the neuron, and **explain** how neurons communicate with each other. **Explain** how an action potential is generated. **Identify** key neurotransmitters and **describe** their functions. **Explain** the difference between agonists and antagonists.
	Module 2.2	**Describe** how the nervous system is organized. **Describe** the functions of the central nervous system and the divisions of the peripheral nervous system. **Explain** the differences in the functions of the sympathetic and parasympathetic divisions of the autonomic nervous system.

Continued on following page

APA Learning Goals	Related Content in Text and Ancillaries	IDEA Model of Course Assessment: *Skills Acquired— to Identify . . . Define or Describe . . . Evaluate or Explain . . . and Apply*
	Module 2.3	**Describe** how the brain is organized and the roles that particular brain structures play in behavior.
	Module 2.4	**Describe** methods scientists use to study the workings of the brain.
	Module 2.5	**Explain** how the two halves of the brain differ in their functions.
	Module 2.6	**Describe** how the endocrine system is organized and the roles that hormones play in behavior.
	Module 2.7	**Evaluate** the role of genetics in behavior. **Describe** methods psychologists use to study the roles of genes and environment in behavior.
	Module 6.3	**Identify** the key brain structures involved in memory and **explain** the roles of neuronal networks and long-term potentiation. **Explain** the role that genetics plays in memory.
Developmental processes	**Module 9.1**	**Identify** and **describe** the stages of prenatal development and major threats to prenatal development.
	Module 9.2	**Identify** reflexes present at birth. **Describe** the infant's sensory, perceptual, and learning abilities. **Describe** the development of the infant's motor skills in the first year of life.
	Module 9.3	**Identify** and **describe** three major types of temperament and three types of infant attachment styles. **Identify** and **describe** the major parenting styles. **Identify** and describe Erikson's stages of psychosocial development in childhood. **Describe** Piaget's stages of cognitive development . **Describe** Vygotsky's psychosocial theory of cognitive development.
	Module 9.4	**Describe** the physiological, cognitive, and psychosocial changes that occur during adolescence, and Erikson's beliefs about psychosocial development in adolescence. **Describe** Kohlberg's stages of moral reasoning, and **evaluate** his theory in light of Gilligan's criticism.
	Module 9.5	**Describe** the physical and cognitive changes that occur during adulthood and Erikson's stages of psychosocial development in early and middle adulthood.
	Module 9.6	**Describe** the physical and cognitive changes we can expect later in life and Erikson's views on psychosocial development in late adulthood. **Evaluate** the qualities associated with successful aging. **Identify** the stages of dying proposed by Kübler-Ross. **Apply** suggestions for living a longer and healthier life.
Historical and contemporary perspectives	**Module 1.1**	**Define** psychology and **explain** why psychology is a science. **Identify** early schools of psychology and the important contributors to these schools, and **describe** the major concepts associated with each school. **Identify** the major contemporary perspectives in psychology, and **describe** each perspective.
Sociocultural bases of behavior	**Module 11.4** **Module 12.2** **Module 12.3**	**Explain** the difference between the concepts of self in collectivistic and individualistic cultures. **Define** prejudice, **explain** how it develops, and **apply** your knowledge to ways of reducing it. **Identify** factors that contribute to human aggression. **Define** social identity and **evaluate** cultural factors involved in social identity. **Sociocultural factors** are integrated throughout the text, including research on ethnic differences in alcohol and drug use (Ch. 4), cultural display rules for emotional expression and cultural differences in smiling (Ch. 8); sociocultural differences in parenting styles (Ch. 9); Vygotsky's sociocultural theory (Ch. 9); acculturative stress of immigrant groups (Ch. 10), ethnic differences in cardiovascular disease (Ch. 10), ethnic identity and self-esteem (Ch. 11), cultural factors and self-identity in collectivistic versus individualistic cultures (Chs. 11 and 12); ethnic factors in self-disclosure (Ch. 12); sociocultural factors in conformity and aggressive behavior (Ch. 12); effects of stereotyping on stereotyped groups (Ch. 12); ethnic factors in access to mental health services (Ch. 13) and suicidal behaviors (Ch. 13); and multicultural factors in psychotherapy (Ch. 14), among others.

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APA Learning Goals	Related Content in Text and Ancillaries	IDEA Model of Course Assessment: *Skills Acquired— to Identify . . . Define or Describe . . . Evaluate or Explain . . . and Apply*
1.3 Describe applications of psychology	**Applying Psychology in Daily Life features**	Becoming a Critical Thinker (Ch. 1) Looking Under the Hood: Scanning the Human Brain (Ch. 2) Psychology and Pain Management (Ch. 3) Getting Your Z's (Ch. 4) Putting Reinforcement into Practice (Ch. 5) Powering Up Your Memory (Ch. 6) Becoming a Creative Problem Solver (Ch. 7) Managing Anger (Ch. 8) Living Longer, Healthier Lives (Ch. 9) Taking the Distress Out of Stress (Ch. 10) Building Self-Esteem (Ch. 11) Compliance: Doing What Others Want You to Do (Ch. 12) Suicide Prevention (Ch. 13) Getting Help (Ch. 14)

GOAL 2 Scientific Thinking and Critical Thinking

2.1 Use scientific reasoning to interpret psychological phenomena **2.2** Demonstrate psychology information literacy **2.3** Engage in innovative and integrative thinking and problem solving **2.4** Interpret, design, and conduct basic psychological research	Module 1.3: **The anatomy of a research study:** Breaks down the parts of a research study paper in psychology using an example of a contemporary research publication from a primary source Citing references in APA style Becoming A Critical Thinker Modules 7.1 and 7.3 **The Brain Loves a Puzzle** features throughout the text (one per chapter) encourage students to use critical thinking **Thinking Critically about Psychology** features in each chapter challenge students to apply critical thinking skills to evaluate claims **Think About It** features in each Module Review further reinforce critical thinking skills **Statistics Appendix** applies methods of scientific inquiry to test hypotheses based on theory	**Identify** the steps in the scientific method. **Identify** and **describe** research methods that psychologists use and **evaluate** their strengths and weaknesses. **Describe** the ethical standards that govern research in psychology. **Apply** critical thinking skills to **evaluate** claims made by others as well as online information. **Identify** and **describe** mental strategies we can use to solve problems more effectively. **Identify** and **describe** mental roadblocks that impede problem solving and decision making. **Describe** the basic processes of creative thought and **explain** the difference between divergent and convergent thinking. **Apply** skills of problem solving to become a creative problem solver.
2.5 Incorporate sociocultural factors in scientific inquiry	See examples of research on sociocultural factors listed above under APA Learning Goal 1.2	

Continued on following page

GOAL 3 Ethical and Social Responsiblity in a Diverse World

3.1 Apply ethical standards to evaluate psychological science and practice	Module 1.3	**Describe** the ethical standards that govern research in psychology.
3.2 Build and enhance interpersonal relationships	Module 8.4	**Define** emotional intelligence, and **evaluate** its importance.
3.3 Adopt values that build community at local, national, and global levels	Module 2.5: Learning Through Volunteering	**Explain** the difference between the concepts of self in collectivistic and individualistic cultures.
	Module 11.3	**Describe** the decision-making model of helping, and **identify** factors that influence helping behavior.
	Module 12.2	**Define** prejudice, **explain** how it develops, and **apply** your knowledge to ways of reducing it.
	Module 12.3: Our Social Selves: Who are We?	
	See examples of research on sociocultural factors listed above under APA Learning Goal 1.2	
4.1 Demonstrate effective writing for different purposes	**The anatomy of a research study (Module 1.3):** Breaks down the parts of a research article in psychology using an example of a contemporary research publication from a primary source	

GOAL 4 Communication

APA Learning Goal	Related Content in Text and Ancillaries
	Think About It: This Module Review feature provides critical thinking questions that can be assigned as writing assignments **Individualized feedback** from automatic scoring software for submitted student writing assignments helps students build more effective writing skills (Cengage *Write Experience*, optional)
4.2 Exhibit effective presentation skills for different purposes	**Statistics Appendix** provides examples of tables and graphs used for presenting data **Interactive Concept Maps** (online, one per chapter): An active learning exercise that provides examples of relational connections between concepts presented in a visual format **Use of various types of diagrams as learning tools throughout the text**—matrices (tabular presentation of concepts), network diagrams (flow charts and schematic diagrams), and hierarchical diagrams (ordered relationships among concepts)
4.3 Interact effectively with others	Module 5.2: Putting Reinforcement into Practice Module 8.4: Managing Anger Module 8.4 Factors Involved in Emotional Intelligence Module 8.4: Cultural Display Rules for Expressing Emotions Module 12.2: Cultural Differences in Self-Disclosure Module 12.3: The Nature of Prejudice and Ways of Reducing It Module 12.3: Resisting Persuasive Sales Pitches Instructor's Manual: Suggestions for group discussion

Continued on following page

5.1 **Apply** psychological content and skills to career goals	Module 1.1: Subfields in Psychology Module 8.1: Achievement Motivation vs. Avoidance motivation Module 11.2: Sizing Up Your Personality (relationship to occupational choice)
5.2 Exhibit self-efficacy and self-regulation	Module 7.1: Becoming a Creative Problem Solver Module 8.4: Emotional Intelligence Module 8.4: Managing Anger Module 11.4: Building Self-Esteem
5.3 Refine project-management skills	Statistics Appendix for building computational literacy
5.4 Enhance teamwork capacity	Module 12.3: Psychological Impediments to Group Task Performance (social loafing and groupthink) Module 12.3: Building Intergroup Cooperation in Social Groups
5.5 Develop meaningful professional direction for life after graduation	Weblinks to APA websites provide resources for pursuing career interests in psychology and related fields (Instructor's Resource Manual). **Building Effective Study Skills:** Study Tips for Getting the Most from This Course (and Your Other Courses) (Message to Students, in Preface) **Psychological perspectives on development of role identity:** See Module 9.4 for discussion of Erikson's concept of the identify crisis, and Marcia's taxonomy of identity statuses in the accompanying Thinking Critically About Psychology feature Module 11.5: What Should I Become? (Try This Out)

A Message to Students

Study Tips for Getting the Most from This Course (and Your Other Courses)

I often hear students say that they spend many hours reading their textbooks and attending classes, but their grades don't reflect the work that they do. I agree. Success is not a function of the time you put into your courses, but how well you use that time. Developing more effective study skills can help you become a more effective learner and get the most from this course as well as your other courses. Let's begin by discussing four key steps toward becoming an effective learner, which I call the four E's: (1) engaging interest; (2) encoding information; (3) elaborating meaning; and (4) evaluating progress.

The Four E's of Effective Learning

1. **Engaging Interest** Paying close attention is the first step toward becoming an effective learner. The brain does not passively soak up information like a sponge. When your attention is divided, it is difficult to process new information at a level needed to understand the complex material required in college-level courses and to retain this newly acquired knowledge. If you find your mind wandering during class or while studying, bring your attention back to the lecture or study material. Becoming an active note taker during class and when reading your text can help you remain alert and focused and avoid spacing out. Keep a notepad handy while reading the text and jot down key points as you read through the material.
2. **Encoding Information** Encoding is the process of bringing information into memory. To encode important information from your classes or assigned readings, make it a practice to stop and ask yourself, "What's the main point or idea? What am I hearing or reading? What am I expected to know?" Jot down the major concepts or ideas and review them later. Use the built-in study tools in your textbook, such as highlighted key terms or concepts, along with the Module Review sections, to identify main points and themes you need to learn.
3. **Elaborating Meaning** New learning is a fragile thing. Rehearsing or repeating the information to yourself in the form of rote memorization may help reinforce newly acquired knowledge, but a more effective way of reinforcing new learning and building more enduring memories is to work with these new concepts and ideas by elaborating their meaning, such as by linking them to real-life examples and using them to solve problems. Your teachers and parents may have encouraged you to demonstrate your understanding of new vocabulary words by using them in a sentence. When you learned formulas and other math skills in class, your teachers may have asked you to demonstrate this knowledge by using it to solve math problems in your textbooks or workbooks. Apply this principle to learning psychology. For every concept you read about in this text or learn in class, connect it to a real-life example or life experience. Your textbook authors and instructors provide many examples of concepts they use, but you can take this a step further by connecting these concepts to your own life experiences.
4. **Evaluating Progress** Keep track of your progress in the course. Most texts, including this one, have quizzes you can use to test yourself on the material you have just read. This text also offers online quizzes. Taking quizzes helps you gauge how you are doing and which areas you need to review further to improve your performance. Other built-in study tools that help you evaluate your progress include review sections and summaries. In this text, you'll find the Recite It section in the Module Review at the end of each module that provides brief answers to the learning objectives for the module. Recite your knowledge of the learning objectives before glancing at the sample answers in the text. Recitation is an important study skill that demonstrates you have acquired new knowledge. Recite your answers in your own words by jotting them down in a notebook or computer file as you read through the module or when you come to the Module Review. Use the answers provided in the text as feedback to determine if you have achieved the learning objectives or need further review of the related material in the text. Then test your knowledge by taking the brief quiz in the Recall It section of the Module Review.

Tips for Succeeding in Class

Read the Syllabus. Think of the syllabus as a road map or a pathway you need to follow to succeed in the course. Take note of the course assignments, grading system, and other course requirements or expectations. Use your course syllabus as a guide to planning your semester, making entries in your calendar for examination dates and required papers and other course assignments.

Prepare for Class by Completing the Assigned Reading. Instructors have good reasons for wanting you to read the assigned chapter or readings before coming to class. They know

that students are better prepared for lectures when they have some familiarity with the topics discussed in class. When students have a working knowledge of the material before they come to class, instructors have more freedom to use class time to explore topics in greater depth and breadth, rather than simply to review basic concepts. However, lectures may not make much sense to students who lack basic knowledge about the material because they haven't kept up with their readings.

Attend Class. One of the most important steps to succeeding in college is attending classes regularly. Missing classes can quickly lead to falling behind. If you need to miss a class, notify your instructor beforehand and ask for any assignments you may miss. Then ask a classmate for the notes for the missed class, but only approach someone you believe is a good note taker.

Be Punctual. There may be nothing more distracting to your instructor and classmates than students who come late to class. Though your instructor may not say anything directly, coming late to class conveys a poor impression of yourself. It also makes it difficult to keep up with lecture material because it puts you in the position of playing catch-up. You wouldn't think of arriving at a movie theater in the middle of a movie, so why should you expect to be able to follow the lecture when you arrive after it starts? If you occasionally arrive late due to traffic or an unexpected demand, drop your instructor a note of apology explaining the circumstances. All of us, including your instructors, occasionally face similar situations. However, if you have trouble regularly arriving on time, talk to your instructor or adviser about arranging a schedule that works better for you, or consider taking online courses that don't require regular class attendance.

Ask Questions. Don't hesitate to ask questions in class. Failing to ask your instructor to clarify a particular point you don't understand can lead you to feel lost or confused during class. Also, make sure to ask your instructor about the material that will be covered on an exam, as well as the format used for the exam, such as essay, short-answer, or multiple-choice questions.

Become an Active Note Taker. Don't try to write down everything the instructor says or every word that pops up on a PowerPoint slide or an overhead. Very few people can write that fast. Besides, trying to copy everything verbatim can quickly lead you to fall behind. Focusing your attention on writing down everything also distracts you from thinking more deeply about material discussed in class. A better idea is to listen attentively and write down key points as clearly and concisely as you can, as well as the examples the instructor uses to illustrate these points. No one has perfect recall, so don't expect to remember every important point or concept discussed during a lecture. Write concepts down to review later. Some instructors use PowerPoint slides as a guide to organizing the content of the lecture. Think of PowerPoint slides as a table of contents for the lecture. The bullet points in the slides are merely starting points for the lecture. Your instructor will likely expound upon each point. If you spend class time just copying bullet points, you may miss important information about each point that is discussed in class. Become an active note taker, not a copy machine. Listen attentively and write down the main concepts and ideas and any examples the instructor may give.

Rephrase and Review Your Notes. An effective way of reinforcing new learning is typing your class notes into a computer file. But rather than typing them word for word, try rephrasing them in your own words. Reworking your notes in this way encourages deeper processing of the material, which is a key factor in strengthening memory of newly learned information. The more you think about the material, the more likely you'll be to remember it when exam time comes around.

Building Effective Study Skills

Where to Study. Select a quiet study space that is as neat, clean, and free of distractions as possible.

When to Study

- *Prevent procrastination.* Schedule regular study times and keep to your schedule.
- *Plan to study at times of the day you are most likely to be alert and best able to concentrate.* Don't leave it until the very end of the day when you are feeling tired or sleepy. Avoid studying directly after a big meal. Give your body time to digest your food. Likewise, avoid studying at a time of day when you're likely to be distracted by hunger pangs.
- *Avoid cramming for exams.* Cramming causes mental fatigue that can interfere with learning and retention. Establish a weekly study schedule to ensure you are well prepared for exams. Plan to review or brush up on the required material the day or two before the exam.

How to Study

- *Plan study periods of about 45 or 50 minutes.* Very few people can maintain concentration for longer than 45 minutes or so. Take a 5- or 10-minute break between study periods. Give your mind and body a break by getting up, stretching your legs, and moving around.
- *Establish clear study goals for each study period.* Goals can include topics you want to cover, pages in the textbook you want to read or review, questions you need to answer, problems you need to solve, and so on.
- *Sit properly to maintain concentration.* Sit upright and avoid reclining or lying down to prevent nodding off or losing focus. If your mind begins to wander, bring your thoughts back to your work. Or break the tendency to daydream by getting yourself out of your chair, gently

stretch your muscles, take a quick walk around the room, and then return to studying.

How Much to Study. A convenient rule of thumb to use is to study two hours a week for each hour of class time. Like most rules of thumb, you may need to adjust it according to the amount of work you need to complete.

Read for Understanding. Slow down the pace of your reading so that you can pay close attention to the material you are trying to learn.

- Stop for a moment after every paragraph and pose questions to yourself about what you have just read. Jot down your answers to the questions you pose to yourself to reinforce this new learning.
- After reading a section of text, take a brief break and then review any concepts you don't fully understand to make sure you get the main points before moving to the next section or chapter. Yes, active reading takes more time and effort than just skimming, but it will make the time you spend reading more productive and meaningful.

Reach Out for Help. When you struggle to understand something, don't give up out of frustration. Ask your instructor for help.

Form Study Groups. Reach out to other students to form study groups. Studying as part of a group may induce you to hit the books more seriously.

Using This Textbook as a Study Tool

You are about to embark on a journey through the field of psychology. As with any journey, it is helpful to have markers or road signs to navigate your course. This text provides a number of convenient markers to help you know where you've been and where you're headed. Take a moment to familiarize yourself with the terrain you'll encounter in your journey. It centers on the unique organizational framework of the text—the *concept-based modular format*.

Use Modules to Organize Your Study Time. This text is organized in instructional units called modules to help you structure your study time more efficiently. The *modules* in each chapter break down the chapter into these smaller instructional units. Rather than try to digest an entire chapter at once, you can chew on one module at a time. Each module is organized around a set of key concepts. As you make your way through a module, you will be learning a set of basic concepts and how they relate to the theoretical and research foundations of the field of psychology.

Use Concept Signaling as at Tool to Learning Key Concepts. Key concepts in each module are highlighted or signaled in the margins of the text to help ensure you learn the main points and ideas as you make your way through the text. Importantly, make sure to read all the surrounding material in the text, not just the material highlighted in the concept boxes in the margins. Your exams will likely test your knowledge of all the assigned material in the text.

Keep Notes as You Read. Taking notes in your own words strengthens deeper, more durable learning. Avoid underlining or highlighting whole sections of text. Let your brain—not your fingers—do the work. Highlight only the important sections of text you want to review further.

Use the Running Glossary to Learn Key Terms. Key terms are highlighted (boldfaced) in the text and defined in the margins for easy reference. To ensure you understand the meaning of these terms in context, see how they are used in the adjacent paragraphs of the text.

Review Your Progress. Each module begins with a set of learning objectives. Jot down these objectives in a notebook or computer file and try to answer them as you read along or when you come to the end of module. As noted earlier, you can check your answers against the sample answers in the *Recite It* sections of the Module Review. Then test yourself by taking the brief quizzes you'll find in the *Recall It* sections of the Module Reviews. If you find you are struggling with the quiz questions, review the corresponding sections of the text to strengthen your knowledge and then test yourself again.

Get the Study Edge with the SQ3R+ Study Method

This text includes a built-in study system called the SQ3R+ study method, a system designed to help students develop more effective study habits that expands upon the SQ3R method developed by psychologist Francis P. Robinson. SQ3R is an acronym that stands for five key study features: *survey, question, read, recite,* and *review.* This text adds an additional feature, the Think About It sections of the Module Reviews, which are the "+" in the SQ3R+ study method. Here's how the SQ3R+ study method works:

1. **Survey** Preview each chapter before reading it.
2. **Question** Pose questions to yourself as you read the text to ensure you are mastering the learning objectives. The learning objectives for each module test your ability to identify, define or describe, apply, and evaluate or explain your knowledge of psychology. To become a more active learner, use the learning objectives as a set of learning goals you want to achieve as you make your way through the chapter. Generate additional questions about the material you can pose to yourself to further assess your knowledge of the material.

3. **Read** Read the module to master the learning objectives as well as to grasp key concepts and related information. To strengthen your understanding of text material, you may find it helpful to read each module a second or third time before an exam.
4. **Recite** When you reach the end of the module, gauge how well you understand the material by using the Module Review section to evaluate your progress. Remember to recite your knowledge of the learning objectives before looking at the sample answers in the text. Hearing yourself speak the answers enhances retention of newly learned information.
5. **Review** Establish a study schedule for reviewing text material on a regular basis. Test yourself each time you review or reread the material to boost long-term retention. Use the brief quiz in the *Recall It* section of the Module Review to test your knowledge.
6. **Think About It** The Think About It feature in the Module Review poses thought-provoking questions that encourage you to apply critical thinking skills and to reflect on how the material relates to your own experiences. Thinking more deeply about these concepts and relating them to your life experiences helps strengthen new learning.

I hope this guide to college success will help you succeed not only in this course but in your other courses as well. I also hope you enjoy your journey through psychology. I began my own journey through psychology in my freshman year in college and have continued along this path with a sense of wonder and joy ever since.

Please email your comments, questions, or suggestions to me at jeffnevid@gmail.com.

Jeff Nevid
New York, NY

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter, you will be able to…

1. **Define** psychology and **explain** why psychology is a science.
2. **Identify** early schools of psychology and the important contributors to these schools, and **describe** the major concepts associated with each school.
3. **Identify** the major contemporary perspectives in psychology and **describe** each perspective.
4. **Identify** specialty areas or subfields of psychology and emerging specialty areas.
5. **Describe** ethnic and gender characteristics of psychologists today and the changes that have occurred over time.
6. **Identify** the steps in the scientific method.
7. **Identify** research methods that psychologists use.
8. **Describe** the ethical standards that govern research in psychology.
9. **Apply** critical thinking skills to **evaluate** claims made by others as well as online sources.

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PREVIEW

Module 1.1 Foundations of Modern Psychology

Module 1.2 Psychologists: Who They Are and What They Do

Module 1.3 Research Methods in Psychology

The Science of Psychology

1

You. Me. Us.

This may be your first course in psychology, but it is probably not your first encounter with many of the topics psychologists study. Your earliest exposure to the subject matter of psychology probably began many years ago. Perhaps your first encounter with psychology came as you first wondered about why people do what they do or how their personalities differ. Perhaps you wondered why your third-grade classmate just couldn't seem to sit still and often disrupted the class. Or perhaps you were curious about how people relate to each other and how they influence each other's behavior. Or maybe you wondered mostly about yourself, about who you are and why you do the things you do. Perhaps one of the reasons you are taking this course is to learn more about yourself.

Psychologists study behavior in all its forms. One way of thinking about psychology is to understand that it involves the study of *you* (the behavior of other people), *me* (one's own behavior), and *us* (how our behavior is affected by groups and social influences). Psychologists are interested in studying behavior in nonhuman species as well. Studies of behavior of other animals can shed light on basic principles of behavior and may help inform our understanding of our own behavior as well.

You may find answers to many of the questions you have about yourself and others in this introductory course in psychology. But you will probably not find all the answers you are seeking. There is still so much we do not understand, so much that remains to be explored. This text, like the field of psychology itself, is really about the process of exploration—the quest for knowledge about behavior and mental processes.

As with any scientific discipline, psychology requires that opinions, assumptions, beliefs, and theories about the subject matter it studies be tested and scrutinized in the light of the available evidence. Psychologists seek answers to the questions they and others pose about human nature by using scientific methods of inquiry. Like other scientists, psychologists are professional skeptics. They have confidence only in theories that can be tied to observable evidence. As in all branches of science, investigators in the field of psychology gather evidence to test their theories, beliefs, and assumptions.

Before we go further with our exploration of psychology, let us define what we mean by the term *psychology*. Though many definitions of psychology have been proposed, the one most widely used today defines psychology as the science of behavior and mental processes. But what do these terms mean—*behavior* and *mental processes*?

Broadly speaking, anything an organism does is a form of behavior. Sitting in a chair is a form of behavior. Reading, studying, and watching TV are forms of behavior. Making yourself a sandwich and talking on the phone are forms of behavior. Smiling, dancing, and raising your arm are

Did you know that...

- One of the founders of modern psychology was such a poor student he was actually left back a grade in school? (p. 5)
- A movement that once dominated psychology believed that psychologists should turn away from the study of the mind? (p. 6)
- A major school of psychology was inspired by the view from a train? (p. 7)
- The school of psychology originated by Sigmund Freud holds that we are generally unaware of our true motives? (p. 8)
- People tend to post gloomier Facebook postings when it's raining outside than on sunny days? (p. 17)
- The popularity of women's names influences how other people judge their physical attractiveness? (p. 27)
- Pain patients reported a reduction in pain after they received a placebo ("sugar pill"), even though they were told it was a placebo? (p. 28)

also behaviors. Even thinking and dreaming are forms of behavior. Increasingly, people are interacting online, especially on social networking sites like Facebook. Online interactions are a form of social behavior and an area of increasing interest among psychologists and other social scientists.

Young people today are "digital natives" who have never known a time before the personal computer, the Web, or cell phones. They are an Internet surfing, iPoding, texting, Googling, Facebooking, and IMing generation (Nevid, 2011). Psychological attachment to cell phones is so strong that students in a recent laboratory study reported higher levels of anxiety and performed more poorly on a puzzle-solving task when they were physically separated from their cell phones than when their phones were in their possession (Clayton, Leshner, & Almond, 2015). Through the course of our study of psychology, we will examine what psychologists have learned about the psychological effects of electronic technology and social networking.

Mental processes are private experiences that constitute our inner lives. These private experiences include thoughts, feelings, dreams and daydreams, sensations, perceptions, and beliefs that others cannot directly observe or experience. Among the challenges psychologists face is finding ways of making such inner experiences available to scientific study.

Before we begin exploring how psychologists study behavior and mental processes, let us take the story of psychology back to its origins to see how it developed as a scientific discipline and where it stands today.

MODULE

1.1 Foundations of Modern Psychology

1 **Define** psychology and **explain** why psychology is a science.

2 **Identify** early schools of psychology and the important contributors to these schools, and **describe** the major concepts associated with each school.

3 **Identify** the major contemporary perspectives in psychology and **describe** each perspective.

CONCEPT 1.1
Psychology is the scientific discipline that studies behavior and mental processes.

CONCEPT 1.2
Although psychology is a relatively young science, interest in understanding the nature of mind and behavior can be traced back to ancient times.

This first module in the text sets the stage for our study of psychology. It describes the development of psychology as a scientific discipline. How did psychology develop? What were the important influences that shaped its development as a scientific discipline? Here we address those questions by recounting a brief history of psychology. Let us begin by noting that although psychology is still a young science, its origins can be traced back to ancient times.

Origins of Psychology

The story of psychology has no clear beginning. We cannot mark its birth on any calendar. We can speculate that the story very likely began when early humans developed the capacity to reflect on human nature. Perhaps they were curious, as many of us are today, about what makes people tick. But what they may have thought or said about the nature of human beings remains unknown, as no record exists of their musings.

The word **psychology** is derived from two Greek roots: *psyche*, meaning "mind," and *logos*, meaning "study" or "knowledge." So it is not surprising that serious inquiries into psychology can be traced back to ancient Greece, when philosophers began to record their thoughts about the nature of mind and behavior. Psychology remained largely an interest of philosophers, theologians, and writers for several thousand years. It did not begin to emerge as a scientific discipline until the late nineteenth century.

The founding of psychology as an experimental science is generally credited to a German scientist, Wilhelm Wundt (1832–1920) (Lamiell, 2013). Wundt (pronounced *Voont*) is deserving of the credit because in 1879 in the city of Leipzig, Germany, he established the world's first scientific laboratory dedicated to the study of psychology. With the founding of Wundt's laboratory, psychology made the transition from philosophy to science (Benjamin, 2000).

Wundt was in some respects an unlikely candidate to found a new science. As a boy, he was a poor student and was even required to repeat a grade. The problem for young Wundt was that he tended to daydream in class. He would often be found sitting with an open book in his hand, staring off into space rather than reading his assigned text (a practice this author hopes you don't emulate too closely when you open your psychology text). But he persevered, eventually graduating from medical school and, from there, launched a successful research career as a physiologist. Later, he would apply his scientific training to his true passion, the understanding of conscious experience. In establishing the first psychology laboratory, the man who had once been left back in school because he was so absorbed in his own thoughts became the first scientist of the mind.

Like any scientific discipline, the field of psychology is an unfolding story of exploration and discovery. In this text, you will encounter many of the explorers and discoverers who have shaped the continuing story of psychology. The bridge from ancient thought to the present starts with Wundt; there, we encounter his disciple Edward Titchener and structuralism, the school of thought with which both men were associated. (See ■ Figure 1.1 for a timeline of the early days of psychology.)

David Young-Wolff/PhotoEdit

Psychologists study what we do and what we think, feel, dream, sense, and perceive. They use scientific methods to guide their investigations of behavior and mental processes.

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Wilhelm Wundt.

Wilhelm Wundt, Edward Titchener, and Structuralism

Wilhelm Wundt was interested in studying mental experiences. He used a method called **introspection**, which is an attempt to directly study consciousness by having people report on what they are consciously experiencing (Leahey, 2014). For example, he would present subjects with an object, such as a piece of fruit, and ask them to describe their impressions or perceptions of the object in terms of its shape, color, or texture and how the object felt when touched. Or subjects might be asked to sniff a scent and describe the sensations or feelings the scent evoked in them. In this way, Wundt and his students sought to break down mental experiences into their component parts, including sensations, perceptions, and feelings, and then discover the rules that determine how these elements come together to produce the full range of conscious experiences.

Edward Titchener (1867–1927), an Englishman who was a disciple of Wundt, brought Wundt's teachings and methods of introspection to the United States and other English-speaking countries. The school of psychology identified with Wundt and Titchener became known as **structuralism**, an approach that attempted to define the structure of the mind by breaking down mental experiences into their component parts.

The first American to work in Wundt's experimental laboratory was the psychologist G. Stanley Hall (1844–1924) (Johnson, 2000). In 1892, Hall founded the American Psychological Association (APA), now the largest organization of psychologists in the United States, and he served as its first president. Nine years earlier, in 1883, he had established the first psychology laboratory in the United States, which

CONCEPT 1.3

Structuralism, the early school of psychology associated with Wundt and Titchener, used introspection as a method of revealing the fundamental structures of mental experience in the form of sensations, perceptions, and feelings.

psychology The science of behavior and mental processes.

introspection Inward focusing on mental experiences, such as sensations or feelings.

structuralism The school of psychology that attempts to understand the structure of the mind by breaking it down into its component parts.

1860	• Gustav Fechner publishes *Elements of Psychophysics*
1875	• William James gives first psychology lecture at Harvard
1878	• G. Stanley Hall receives first Ph.D. in psychology in the U.S.
1879	• Wilhelm Wundt establishes first psychology laboratory
1883	• First American psychology laboratory established at Johns Hopkins University by G. Stanley Hall
1887	• G. Stanley Hall initiates the *American JOURNAL of Psychology*
1889	• James Mark Baldwin establishes first Canadian psychology laboratory at University of Toronto
1890	• James writes first psychology text, *Principles of Psychology*
1892	• American Psychological Association (APA) formed; G. Stanley Hall first president
1894	• Margaret Floy Washburn is first woman to receive a Ph.D. in psychology
1895	• Sigmund Freud publishes first work on psychology
1896	• Lightner Witmer establishes the first psychology clinic in the U.S.
1900	• Freud publishes *The Interpretation of Dreams*
1905	• Two Frenchmen, Alfred Binet and Théodore Simon, announce development of the first intelligence test, which they describe as "a measuring scale of intelligence" • Mary Whiton Calkins becomes first woman president of APA
1908	• Ivan Pavlov's work on conditioning first appears in an American scientific journal
1910	• Max Wertheimer and colleagues begin research on Gestalt psychology
1913	• Watson publishes the behaviorist manifesto, *Psychology as the Behaviorist Views It*
1920	• Francis Sumner is first African American to receive a Ph.D. in psychology in the U.S. • Henry Alston is first African American to publish his research findings in a major psychology journal in the U.S.

FIGURE 1.1 Timeline of the Early Days of Psychology

CONCEPT 1.4
William James, the founder of functionalism, believed that psychology should focus on how our behavior and mental processes help us adapt to the demands we face in the world.

CONCEPT 1.5
Behaviorism was based on the belief that psychology would advance as a science only if it turned away from the study of mental processes and limited itself to the study of observable behaviors that could be recorded and measured.

was housed at Johns Hopkins University (Benjamin, 2000). Although Hall played a pivotal role in the early days of psychology in the United States, Harvard psychologist William James is generally recognized as the father of American psychology.

William James and Functionalism

William James (1842–1910) was trained as a medical doctor but made important contributions to both psychology and philosophy. Although he too used introspection, he shifted the focus to the *functions* of behavior.

James founded **functionalism**, the school of psychology that focused on how behavior helps individuals adapt to demands placed upon them in the environment. Whereas structuralists were concerned with understanding the structure of the human mind, functionalists were concerned with the functions of mental processes (Willingham, 2007). Unlike the structuralists, James did not believe that conscious experience can be parceled into discrete elements. To James, consciousness is not like a jigsaw puzzle that can be pieced together from its component parts.

Functionalists examined the roles or functions of mental processes—*why* we do *what* we do. For example, James believed we develop habits, such as the characteristic ways in which we use a fork or a spoon, because they enable us to perform more effectively in meeting the many demands we face in daily life.

John Watson and Behaviorism

In the early 1900s, a new force in psychology gathered momentum called **behaviorism.** Its credo was that psychology should limit itself to the study of overt behavior that observers could record and measure. The founder of behaviorism was the American psychologist John Broadus Watson (1878–1958). Watson reasoned that because you can never observe another person's mental processes, psychology would never advance as a science unless it eliminated mentalistic concepts like mind, consciousness, thinking, and feeling. He rejected introspection as a method of scientific inquiry and proposed that psychology should become a science of behavior, not of mental processes (Tweney & Budzynski, 2000). In this respect, he shared with the ancient Greek philosopher Aristotle the belief that science should rely on observable events. The problem with introspectionism is that there is no way to directly observe a person's mental experiences or know how one person's feelings or sensations compare to another's.

Watson believed that the environment molds the behavior of humans and other animals. He even boasted that if he were given control over the lives of infants, he could determine the kinds of adults they would become:

> Give me a dozen healthy infants, well-formed, and my own specified world to bring them up in and I'll guarantee to take any one at random and train him to become any type of specialist I might suggest—doctor, lawyer, merchant-chief and, yes, even beggar-man and thief, regardless of his talents, penchants, tendencies, abilities, vocations, and the race of his ancestors. (Watson, 1924, p. 82)

No one, of course, took up Watson's challenge, so we never will know how "a dozen healthy infants" would have fared under his direction. Psychologists today, however, believe that human development is much more complex than Watson thought. Few would believe that Watson could have succeeded in meeting the challenge he posed.

JP Laffont/Sygma/Corbis

By reinforcing specific responses, we can teach a raccoon to shoot a basketball and a fish to peck at a particular shape. Still, the three-point shot might be beyond the raccoon's range.

Source: Courtesy of Ulrike Siebeck, reproduced with permission of the *Journal of Experimental Biology*. U. E. Siebeck, L. Litherland and G. M. Wallis, JEB 212, 2113–2119 (2009). http://jeb.biologists.org/cgi/content/full/212/13/2113

Nonetheless, by the 1920s, behaviorism had become the main school of psychology in the United States, and it remained the dominant force in American psychology for several generations. Its popularity owed a great deal to the work of the Harvard University psychologist B. F. Skinner (1904–1990). Skinner studied how behavior is shaped by rewards and punishments, the environmental consequences that follow specific responses. Skinner showed he could train animals to perform simple behaviors by rewarding particular responses. A rat could learn to press a bar and a pigeon to peck a button if they were rewarded for these responses by receiving pellets of food. Skinner also showed how more complex behaviors could be learned and maintained by manipulation of rewards, which he called *reinforcers*. In some of his more colorful demonstrations of the use of reinforcement, he trained a pigeon to play a tune on a toy piano, and a pair of pigeons to play a type of ping-pong in which the birds rolled a ball back and forth between them. These methods can even be used to teach a raccoon to shoot a basketball and to train fish to tap a particular target shape (Carroll, 2009).

Although Skinner studied mainly pigeons and rats, he believed that the same principles of learning he observed in laboratory animals could be applied to humans as well. He argued that human behavior is as much a product of environmental consequences as the behavior of other animals. Everything we do, from saying "excuse me" when we sneeze, to attending class, to reading a book, represents responses learned through reinforcement, even though we cannot expect to recall the many reinforcement occasions involved in acquiring and maintaining these behaviors.

Max Wertheimer and Gestalt Psychology

In 1910, at about the time John Watson was appealing to psychologists to abandon the study of the mind, a young German psychologist, Max Wertheimer (1880–1943), was traveling by train through central Germany on vacation (Hunt, 1993). What he saw looking through the window of the train would lead him to found a new movement in psychology, which he called **Gestalt psychology**, the school of psychology that studies ways in which the brain organizes and structures our perceptions of the world.

What had captured Wertheimer's attention was the illusion that objects in the distance—telegraph poles, houses, and hilltops—appeared to be moving along with the train, even though they were obviously standing still. Wertheimer was intrigued to find out why the phenomenon occurred. He believed the illusion was not a trick of the eye but reflected higher-level processes in the brain that created a false perception of movement. He promptly canceled his vacation and headed back to his laboratory to begin studying this phenomenon. The experiments he conducted with two assistants, Wolfgang Köhler (1887–1967) and Kurt Koffka (1886–1941), led to major discoveries about the nature of perception—the processes by which we organize sense impressions and form meaningful representations of the world around us.

functionalism The school of psychology that focuses on the adaptive functions of behavior.

behaviorism The school of psychology that holds that psychology should limit itself to the study of overt, observable behavior.

Gestalt psychology The school of psychology that holds that the brain structures our perceptions of the world in terms of meaningful patterns or wholes.

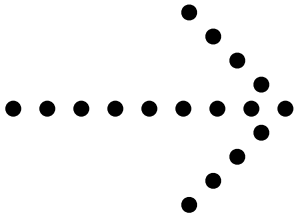

FIGURE 1.2 **What Is This?**

CONCEPT 1.6
Gestalt psychology was based on the principle that the human brain organizes our perceptions of the world, so that we perceive organized patterns or wholes, not individual bits and pieces of sense experiences added together.

CONCEPT LINK
Although the influences of Gestalt psychology extend to many areas of psychology, it is best known for its contributions to the study of perception. See Module 3.5.

CONCEPT 1.7
According to Freud, much of our behavior is determined by unconscious forces and motives that lie beyond the reach of ordinary awareness.

CONCEPT LINK
Freud's model of therapy, called psychoanalysis, is based on the belief that therapeutic change comes from uncovering and working through unconscious conflicts within the personality. See Module 14.1.

CONCEPT 1.8
Although some early schools of psychology have essentially disappeared, contemporary perspectives in the field, including the behavioral, psychodynamic, humanistic, physiological, cognitive, and sociocultural perspectives, continue to evolve and to shape our understandings of behavior.

gestalt A German word meaning "unitary form" or "pattern."

unconscious In Freudian theory, the part of the mind that lies outside the range of ordinary awareness and that contains primitive drives and instincts.

The Gestalt psychologists rejected the structuralist belief that mental experience could be understood by breaking it down into its component parts. The German word **gestalt** can be roughly translated as "unitary form" or "pattern." Gestalt psychologists believe the brain organizes our perceptions of the world by grouping elements together into unified or organized wholes, rather than as individual bits and pieces of sense experience (Sayim, Westheimer, & Herzog, 2010). The well-known Gestalt maxim that the "whole is greater than the sum of the parts" expresses this core belief. You perceive the dots in ■ Figure 1.2 not as a formless array of individual dots but as a representation of an arrow. When you see a large number of black objects flying overhead, you instantly recognize them as a flock of birds flying in formation. In other words, your brain interprets what your eyes see as organized patterns or wholes.

Sigmund Freud and Psychoanalysis

Around the time that behaviorism and Gestalt psychology were establishing a foothold in organized psychology, a very different model of psychology was emerging. It was based on the writings of an Austrian physician named Sigmund Freud (1856–1939). Freud's psychology focused not only on the mind, but also on a region of the mind that lay beyond the reach of ordinary consciousness—a region he called the **unconscious**. Freud conceived of the unconscious as the repository of primitive sexual and aggressive drives or instincts and of the wishes, impulses, and urges that arise from those drives or instincts (Kihlstrom, 2015). He believed that the motives underlying our behavior involve sexual and aggressive impulses that lie in the murky depths of the unconscious, hidden away from our ordinary awareness of ourselves. In other words, we may do or say things without understanding the true motives that prompted these behaviors.

Freud also believed that early childhood experiences play a determining role in shaping our personalities and behavior, including abnormal behaviors like excessive fears or phobias. He held that abnormal behavior patterns are rooted in unconscious conflicts originating in childhood. These conflicts involve a dynamic struggle within the unconscious mind between unacceptable sexual or aggressive impulses striving for expression and opposing mental forces seeking to keep this threatening material out of conscious awareness. Thus, Freud's view of psychology, and that of his followers, is often called the **psychodynamic perspective**.

Unlike Wundt, James, and Watson, Freud was a therapist, and his main aim was to help people overcome psychological problems. He developed a form of psychotherapy or "talk therapy" that he called **psychoanalysis** (discussed in Chapter 14). Psychoanalysis is a type of mental detective work. It incorporates methods, such as analysis of dreams and of "slips of the tongue," that Freud believed could be used to gain insight into the nature of the underlying motives and conflicts of which his patients were unaware. Freud maintained that once these unconscious conflicts were brought into the light of conscious awareness, they could be successfully resolved, or "worked through," during the course of therapy.

Contemporary Perspectives in Psychology

What do we find when we look over the landscape of psychology today? For one thing, we find a discipline that owes a great debt to its founders but is constantly reinventing itself to meet new challenges. Not all schools of thought have survived the test of time. Structuralism, for one, has essentially disappeared from the landscape; others maintain small groups of devoted followers who remain true to the original precepts. But by and large, the early schools of psychology—functionalism, behaviorism, Gestalt psychology, and psychoanalysis—have continued to evolve or have

been consolidated within broader perspectives. Today, the landscape of psychology can be divided into six major perspectives: the behavioral, psychodynamic, humanistic, physiological, cognitive, and sociocultural.

The Behavioral Perspective

The linchpin of the **behavioral perspective** is behaviorism, the belief that environmental influences determine behavior and that psychology should restrict itself to the study of observable behavior. However, many psychologists believe that traditional behaviorism is too simplistic or limited to explain complex human behavior. Though traditional behaviorism continues to influence modern psychology, it is no longer the dominant force it was during its heyday in the early to mid-1900s.

Many psychologists today adopt a broader, learning-based perspective called **social-cognitive theory** (formerly called *social-learning theory*). This perspective originated in the 1960s with a group of learning theorists who broke away from traditional behaviorism (see Chapter 11). They believed that behavior is shaped not only by environmental factors, such as rewards and punishments, but also by *cognitive* factors, such as the value placed on different objects or goals (for example, getting good grades) and expectancies about the outcomes of behavior ("If I do X, then Y will follow."). Social-cognitive theorists challenged their fellow psychologists to find ways to study these mental processes rather than casting them aside as unscientific, as traditional behaviorists would. Traditional behaviorists may not deny that thinking occurs, but they do believe that mental processes lie outside the range of scientific study.

The behavioral perspective led to the development of a major school of therapy, **behavior therapy**. Behavior therapy involves the systematic application of learning principles that are grounded in the behaviorist tradition of Watson and Skinner. Whereas psychoanalysts are concerned with the workings of the unconscious mind, behavior therapists help people acquire more adaptive behaviors to overcome psychological problems such as fears and social inhibitions. Today, many behavior therapists subscribe to a broader therapeutic approach, called *cognitive-behavioral therapy*, which incorporates techniques for changing maladaptive thoughts as well as overt behaviors (see Chapter 14).

The Psychodynamic Perspective

The psychodynamic perspective remains a vibrant force in psychology. Like other contemporary perspectives in psychology, it continues to evolve. As we'll see in Chapter 11, "neo-Freudians" (psychodynamic theorists who have followed in the Freudian tradition) tend to place less emphasis on basic drives like sex and aggression than Freud did and more emphasis on processes of self-awareness, self-direction, and conscious choice.

The influence of psychodynamic theory extends well beyond the field of psychology. Its focus on our inner lives—our fantasies, wishes, dreams, and hidden motives—has had a profound impact on popular literature, art, and culture. Beliefs that psychological problems may be rooted in childhood and that people may not be consciously aware of their deeper motives and wishes continue to be widely endorsed, even by people not formally schooled in Freudian psychology.

The Humanistic Perspective: A "Third Force" in Psychology

In the 1950s, another force began to achieve prominence in psychology. Known as **humanistic psychology**, it was a response to the two dominant perspectives at the time, behaviorism and Freudian psychology. For that reason, humanistic psychology was called the "third force" in psychology. Humanistic psychologists, including the Americans Abraham Maslow (1908–1970) and Carl Rogers (1902–1987), rejected the deterministic views of behaviorism and psychodynamic psychology—beliefs that

CONCEPT 1.9
Many psychologists today subscribe to a broad learning-based perspective, called social-cognitive theory, that emphasizes the environmental and cognitive influences on behavior.

CONCEPT LINK
Social-cognitive theorists believe that personality comprises not only learned behavior but also ways in which individuals think about themselves and the world around them. See Module 11.3.

CONCEPT 1.10
The psychodynamic perspective focuses on the role of unconscious motivation (inner wishes and impulses of which we are unaware) and the importance of childhood experiences in shaping personality.

psychodynamic perspective The view that behavior is influenced by the struggle between unconscious sexual or aggressive impulses and opposing forces that try to keep this threatening material out of consciousness.

psychoanalysis Freud's method of psychotherapy; it focuses on uncovering and working through unconscious conflicts he believed were at the root of psychological problems.

behavioral perspective An approach to the study of psychology that focuses on the role of learning and importance of environmental influences in explaining behavior.

social-cognitive theory A contemporary learning-based model that emphasizes the roles of cognitive and environmental factors in determining behavior.

behavior therapy A form of therapy that involves the systematic application of the principles of learning.

humanistic psychology The school of psychology that believes that free will and conscious choice are essential aspects of the human experience.