Features

- Flexibly designed to use in a one-semester or a one-year course.
- Divided into 14 units mirroring the structure of the AP® Psychology College Board Curriculum Framework.
- An introduction explains the AP® exam in detail and offers test-taking advice.
- An Essential Question at the beginning of each chapter builds conceptual understanding.
- Opportunities to reflect on the Essential Question at the end of each chapter reinforce learning.
- “Think as a Psychologist” features develop critical thinking in the social sciences.
- “The Science of Psychology” features highlight and develop scientific practices.
- “Writing as a Psychologist” features build student writing competencies as required on the AP® exam.
- Key Terms, Concepts, and Contributors are reviewed at the end of each chapter.
- Chapter reviews include ten multiple-choice questions and two free-response questions.
- Unit-closing free-response questions require students to synthesize topics and concepts across chapters.
- A complete practice test is included.
- Detailed rubrics for free-response questions are available as reproducibles in the Answer Key.
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Chapter 1 The Field of Psychology

Unit Overview

If you were a student of psychology in the 1880s, you would no doubt have been drawn to the laboratory of Wilhelm Wundt at the University of Leipzig, the creation of which helped define psychology as a science separate from physiology and philosophy. Belgian psychologist Jules-Jean Van Biervliet (1859-1945) wanted to strengthen his own laboratory at the University of Ghent, so he visited Wundt’s laboratory to see firsthand how the work was done. He wrote of his experience:

“The young people who intend to tackle issues of experimental psychology come to the institute with very different backgrounds of theoretical preparation and practical training. . . . The goal of the introductory course is to introduce this heterogeneous group to the specific aspects of experimental work, to familiarize the newcomer with the main apparatus used in the laboratory, and to discuss and criticize the various methods used until now in the collection of data. . . .

The course . . . is conducted in an informal manner. The professor has in front of him the apparatus, for which he explains the use and the function. A blackboard, nearby, allows the professor to draw curves, to do arithmetic. The audience is often questioned on the way it would run an experiment, to avoid setbacks. The professor discusses the answers, shows the weak point, then himself gives the required answer. The audience is allowed to interrupt the professor, to raise objections, to ask for clarifications. The end of the course is often devoted to running a series of experiments with the apparatus previously described, applying the methods just discussed.”

While Wundt’s laboratory marked a turning point in the history of psychology, the roots of the field extend deep into the past—to the philosophers of antiquity. And although the idea of experimental psychology Wundt first explored had a lasting impact on the field, psychology has undergone dramatic shifts in the 20th and 21st centuries.

Key Concepts

- Influence of philosophy and physiology on the field of psychology
- Variety of theoretical approaches explaining behavior
- Issues in applying theories to explain behavior
- Different domains of psychology
- Key historical figures in psychology

Source: AP® Psychology Course and Exam Description
History and Approaches

“For it all depends on how we look at things, and not on how they are themselves.”
—Carl Jung, Modern Man in Search of a Soul

**Essential Question:** How has the field of psychology been influenced by other disciplines, and how has the field changed over time?

Many myths persist about the field of psychology and those who work within it. People often view a psychologist as a professional who listens while a client lies on a couch and talks about personal problems or as someone who gives Rorschach inkblot tests to gather information about a client’s inner thoughts and feelings. While there is an element of truth to each of these perceptions, the field of psychology is much more dynamic and diverse than these snapshots suggest. One aspect of psychology focuses on providing tools to allow people to lead healthy and productive lives. Another aspect raises and seeks to answer basic questions about the mind: What is the memory process? What pathways do neurochemical transmitters follow, and what is their role?

At its core, psychology (from the Greek words *psykhe,* meaning “mind, soul,” or “spirit,” and *logia,* meaning “the study of”) is the study of human thought and human and animal behavior. The field of psychology examines social interactions and seeks to improve understanding of self and others. This chapter will examine the historical roots of psychology and the modern approaches used to evaluate human thought and human and animal behavior. It will also explore the areas of study in which psychologists are engaged and careers in the field of psychology.

**Historical Origins of Psychology**

The field of psychology is a relatively new science, but its roots are in the older arenas of philosophy and physiology. Many of the questions psychologists ask today originated with the questions of the ancient philosophers. The differences in the disciplines lie in how they go about answering these questions.
Psychology's Roots

Plato (424-348 B.C.E.) proposed the idea that each of us has our own perception of the world which is unique to our life experiences. He illustrated this idea in “The Allegory of the Cave,” a chapter in his influential treatise on government, Republic (c. 380 B.C.E.). Through this allegory, Plato showed that what people think of as reality is shaped by their experiences and that philosophers can arrive at the “truth” by looking beyond the physically observable. You may sit in the same class as thirty other students, and yet each of you takes away different experiences and interpretations from the course. Each of you perceives your own experience as the truth. Plato believed that experiences create a subjective reality. Today, psychology recognizes that perception is influenced by previous experiences that act as a filter for incoming sensory data and that shape our expectations of the world.

Plato used another analogy—the chariot and driver—to explain the human soul. According to this analogy, the soul was made up of three components: a black horse, a white horse, and a driver. The black horse represented an individual’s instinctual drives and desires and was disobedient and belligerent. The white horse represented moral passion. The driver—intellect or reason—had to negotiate the differences in these two horses to lead the chariot forward. Sigmund Freud would later borrow liberally from Plato’s ideas to create his three-part personality consisting of the impulsive id, the rational ego, and the moralistic superego.

Aristotle (384-322 B.C.E.) was a student of Plato’s. While Plato believed that the essence of a thing existed beyond observable nature, Aristotle believed the way to understand the essence of something was to study specific examples of it in nature to gain knowledge from observation and data. Today, experimental psychology is built on the process underlying Aristotle’s views: drawing conclusions based on specific observations. Aristotle also drew a distinction between knowing, which he argued was the result of experience, and the process of thinking, and he studied motivation, linguistics, and perception, key topics in psychology today.

French philosopher René Descartes (1596-1650) refined a theory known as dualism, which recognizes a duality or a two-part quality to human existence: the body, which is physical and includes the brain, and the mind, which is nonphysical. He believed further that the two parts interact in a cause-and-effect relationship. The neurobiological approach used today in psychology draws on the same idea by relating what is occurring in the body to different behaviors. For example, if someone has low levels of the neurotransmitter serotonin, that person may suffer from depression and exhibit such depressive behaviors as withdrawal, poor sleep patterns, and sadness. While there are many other possible reasons one can suffer from depression, this explanation recognizes the relationship between the body and outward behaviors.
English philosopher and physician John Locke (1632-1704) posited that all individuals are born a “blank slate,” or tabula rasa in Latin, and experience in the world shapes the person, filling up the blank slate. He discounted the idea that genetics determine one’s fate and believed that environment was the essential component in shaping behavior and personality. Locke formed the basic ideas that would later make up the theory of behaviorism. Locke, like Aristotle as well as future behaviorists, believed in empiricism, an approach to understanding human behavior by examining data rather than using intuition or reason alone. Locke’s ideas are also important in an ongoing debate between the influences of nature (genetics) vs. nurture (environment) on human development.

The Birth of Psychology as a Science

The German philosopher, physician, and professor Wilhelm Wundt (1832-1920) is known as the “Father of Psychology,” not because his approach is used today or because he came up with a revolutionary new treatment but rather because he is the first person to study humans in a laboratory setting. Wundt began studying people in his laboratory in Leipzig, Germany, in 1879, an occasion now often referred to as the “birth of psychology.” Wundt wanted to move the field of psychology away from philosophy and make it a discipline that was more measurable and scientific (empirical). Chemicals and other elements were being studied in laboratories, and Wundt believed that humans could be studied in much the same way. To study them, Wundt used a process he called introspection, which required people to report their conscious experiences (sensations, perceptions, and first reactions) in relation to a number of different objects. Unfortunately, the process of introspection was unsuccessful in achieving his goal because people’s responses were too subjective and, unlike chemicals, they changed from trial to trial.

Wundt’s student Edward Titchener (1867-1927) brought Wundt’s ideas to the United States and coined the term structuralism. Titchener worked at Cornell University and promoted the study of conscious experience by attempting to break it down into its most basic components or “structures” using Wundt’s introspective techniques, examining them carefully, and then putting the pieces of the “human puzzle” back together to understand the whole. Because it was so closely related to the work of another thinker (Wundt), Structuralism is sometimes thought of as the first “school” of psychology.

William James (1842-1910), an American philosopher, physician, and professor at Harvard University, was one of many who were critical of Structuralism. James believed it made more sense to examine the function of consciousness—what purpose did it serve? Just as Wundt had been influenced by the objective measurement of other scientific fields, James had been influenced by the work of Charles Darwin (1809-1882) and his theory of evolution. Rather than seeing consciousness as made up of “structures,” James saw it as a continuous flow; he coined the term stream of consciousness to describe it. Unlike the Structuralists, he did not see individual puzzle pieces
and wonder what big picture they make when put together—instead he saw the big picture and asked what its purpose or function was. James saw the function of consciousness as an evolutionary adaptation to environment that made it possible for humans to thrive and to continue to adapt. His approach became known as **functionalism**. James is also credited with writing the first comprehensive textbook of psychology, *Principles of Psychology*.

Shortly after the publication of that book, James and a student, **Mary Whiton Calkins** (1863–1930), could be found sitting by a fireplace as the eager student received one-on-one lessons from the renowned psychologist. The reason for her individualized instruction was that all the males who had been enrolled in James’s class de-enrolled when Calkins began attending to protest the presence of a woman in the class. The rules allowing only male students at Harvard had been bent slightly to allow Calkins to study, but administrators at Harvard determined she could not be recognized as an official student. In fact, she completed all the necessary work for a Ph.D. in her “unofficial” capacity, but Harvard refused to grant her the degree. Calkins nonetheless went on to have a distinguished career in psychology. She conducted early studies on memory and served as the first woman president of the American Psychological Association. She founded one of the first psychology laboratories at Wellesley College. Today, more than half of all undergraduate and graduate degrees in psychology at all universities are granted to women.

**Margaret Floy Washburn** (1871-1939) was the first woman to receive her Ph.D. in psychology from Cornell University. Earlier at Columbia University, she had studied under Raymond Cattell, a psychologist who had identified 16 discrete personality traits. Washburn was interested in animal behavior and wrote a book titled *The Animal Mind*. She would later have an impact on behaviorists (see page 000), who completed much of their research with animals. Washburn also served as the President of the American Psychological Association and taught psychology for many years at Vassar.

**G. Stanley Hall** (1846-1924) had served as the first president of the American Psychological Association. He also founded the first journal for research in psychology and created the first psychological laboratory in the United States at John Hopkins University. Hall spent most of his career at Clark University in Massachusetts and did much to spread the field of psychology in the United States.

While Hall was working to grow the field in the United States, **Max Wertheimer** (1880-1943) was taking the field in another direction in Germany. His approach became known as **gestalt psychology** (*gestalt* translates to “shape” or “form”). To understand this approach, look at the picture on the next page. It appears to represent the faces of a mother and daughter. It is actually made of hundreds of family photos, but our focus is drawn to the larger meaning of the picture. While Structuralists wanted to examine each small picture, metaphorically, gestalt psychologists, like functionalists, encouraged looking at the shape or form of the whole.
Modern Approaches to Psychology

Structuralism and functionalism are foundational theories for understanding the origins of the discipline of psychology. They eventually gave way to modern approaches to psychology which continue to evolve to help us understand human and animal behavior and the human mind.

Psychoanalytic Approach

Austrian neurologist Sigmund Freud (1856-1939) studied medicine but soon discovered that not all ailments were physical. Psychological ailments, he believed, could be treated by what one of his patients identified as “the talking cure.” The psychoanalytic approach Freud developed emphasized the role of the unconscious, a depository of memories, feelings, and drives, many of them unwanted, that are beyond the reach of conscious awareness. He was also interested in the meaning of dreams. His book *The Interpretation of Dreams* emphasized the latent (or hidden) meaning of dreams.

Freud posited that we have three conflicting parts of personality that are analogous to the forces in Plato’s chariot allegory. The id holds our wants and desires and is primarily motivated by sex and aggression. The superego, in contrast, acts as our conscience and leads us to “do the right thing.” With his view that people were “cesspools of hidden desires,” Freud believed that the id and superego were often at odds with each other. To negotiate the conflicting forces, the ego allows people to get what they want and desire within the
confines set by society. (Chapter 17 will examine this topic in depth.) Freud also believed that our personality was shaped by the time we were 6 or 7 years old.

Freud was influenced by the theory of thermodynamics, which studies the flow and transfer of energy. Freud believed that the libido, instinctual desires such as those for sexual pleasure and self-preservation, was a source of psychological energy. The term psychodynamics is sometimes used to describe his approach.

Because the unconscious cannot be studied objectively, psychoanalytic theory was criticized for its lack of scientific objectivity. Many also believe that Freud’s emphasis on sex and aggression was overstated and that he overemphasized the influence of the unconscious on behavior. Despite these criticisms, Freud’s perspective continues to receive much attention today. And while his proposals cannot be proved objectively, they also cannot be disproved. More than one hundred years after Freud’s proposals, a significant subset of psychotherapists still practice some form of psychoanalysis.

**Behavioral Approach**

The behavioral approach arose from criticisms of the psychoanalytic approach. Rather than focus on one’s unconscious, behaviorists chose to focus on observable behavior. John Watson (1878-1958), like Wilhelm Wundt, believed behavior needed to be observable to be objectively and empirically measured. Watson built on the work of Edward Thorndike (1874-1949) who placed cats in puzzle boxes and found that once cats figured out how to escape from the puzzle box for a reward, they would repeat the behavior over and over again. Behaviorism rests on the tenet that behaviors that are rewarded will be repeated and those that are punished will eventually be extinguished. Behaviorism is often described as the study of stimulus and response learning.

Watson became infamous for asking the experimental question, “Can we condition fears in young children?” In a study of highly questionable ethics, Watson tested a young boy in his lab who became known as Little Albert. Little Albert was presented with a number of objects to determine his response. He had a particular affinity for a white rat, so Watson decided this would be the test object. Watson presented Albert with the rat and made a loud noise which scared Albert. After multiple pairings of the loud noise with the rat, Albert came to fear the white rat alone even when there was no frightening sound. This technique of paired associations is known as classical conditioning. It and the work of Russian psychologist Ivan Pavlov (1849–1936) and his experiments with salivating dogs will be discussed in detail in Chapter 9.

Like Watson, B.F Skinner (1904-1990) believed in radical behaviorism, the idea that behavior should be studied objectively using the scientific method and only what can be seen or observed is measurable. Skinner, like many behaviorists, worked primarily with rats and pigeons in his research. He created an operant conditioning chamber (also known as a Skinner’s
box) in which an animal would be trained to complete a voluntary behavior, such as turning around or pecking the corner of the cage. Once the behavior was completed, the animal would receive a reward, which often increased the likelihood of the behavior occurring again. This process became known as operant conditioning; it too will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 9. Like Thorndike, Skinner believed that behavior that was rewarded would be repeated, while behavior that was punished would become extinct. Because Skinner emphasized the importance of learning through rewards and punishments, he believed that people have no free will and essentially operate like robots based solely on past learning.

The behaviorist approach is still popular today, but people have moved away from the radical approach taken by Skinner and Watson. While Skinner acknowledged that people had thoughts, he believed that since thoughts could not be studied objectively, they had little scientific value.

**Cognitive Approach**

The cognitive approach addresses the flaw Skinner identified in studying thoughts by examining thinking and perception. The cognitive revolution in psychology took place in the mid–to late–1950s. Psychologists such as Harry Harlow and others began to wonder why behaviorists were studying rats and pigeons to learn about human behavior rather than animals who were closer to humans, such as primates. They also believed that by failing to examine thought processes, the field of psychology was not studying the entire individual. The cognitive approach studies how thinking and perception influence behavior. This field includes such topics as memory, problem-solving, decision-making, and perception. While cognitive psychologists do not necessarily discount observable behavior, they are more concerned with the internal functions driving behavior. Psychologists such as Jean Piaget studied how children’s cognitive development unfolds. The cognitive approach remains a strong approach today with new methods to more objectively study how people think, interpret information, and make decisions in given situations.

**Humanistic Approach**

The humanistic approach also came to prominence in the 1950s. This approach addressed perceived flaws in both the psychoanalytic and behavioral approaches. Freud’s belief that people were driven solely by sex and aggression was replaced in the humanistic approach with a more positive outlook on people related to their motivation to fulfill their potential. In addition, humanists focused on a person’s future rather than past. This approach also took issue with the behaviorists’ idea that humans have no free will and are driven only by past rewards and punishments. The humanists believed that people do have free will and ultimately are responsible for the decisions they make regardless of what they may have learned in the past. Humanism focuses on the potential of people and the drive to be their best.
Carl Rogers (1902-1987) is the founder of the humanistic approach. Before Rogers went into the field of psychology, he was training to be a minister (like his father), a calling which perhaps helps to explain his optimistic view of the world. Rogers did acknowledge that not all people reached their potential and explained that environments may not always be ideal and can prevent individuals from reaching their potential. Abraham Maslow (1908-1970) built on these ideas and created a model of a hierarchy of needs in which people move from basic biological needs to their full potential, which he identified as self-actualization. Like Rogers, Maslow believed that people strive to reach their highest potential but can be limited by a poor environment.

The humanistic approach today remains strong in the field of therapy but is criticized for what many describe as an overly optimistic view of human behavior. Also, many say it works well as a general approach to life but is not inclusive enough to be considered an explanation to all human thought and behavior.

Sociocultural Approach

The sociocultural approach emphasizes the impact of people’s culture, religion, ethnicity, gender, income level, and overall environment on the individuals they become. To better understand the sociocultural approach, think about how your family, religion, the high school you attend, and you peer group shape your beliefs and goals. Also consider how you might be different if you practiced a different religion, grew up in a different neighborhood, or had a different ethnic background. Today, some psychologists are branching off to study individuals from a diverse array of backgrounds and demographics, since little is understood about some populations.

The sociocultural approach is an interpsychic approach, which means that it studies forces outside of the person and examines how these forces influence that individual’s thoughts and behaviors. Other approaches to psychology are intrapsychic and examine the forces within the individual.

Biological/Neurobiological/Physiological Approach

While this approach to psychology has many names, it focuses primarily on examining how genetics, the nervous system, hormones, and brain structures
influence a person’s thinking and behavior. Damage to certain areas in the left hemisphere of the brain can result in a lack of language functioning; an excess of a neurotransmitter called dopamine may lead to schizophrenic hallucinations. These types of findings are the focus of the biological approach to psychology. While examining how biological factors may cause a lack of functioning, this approach also focuses on how biological treatments may improve certain conditions. Treatments primarily involve medication to regulate levels of hormones or neurotransmitters in the brain and body. As brain scanning techniques continue to improve, biological psychologists are learning more than ever about how the brain operates.

**Evolutionary Approach**

This approach dates back to Charles Darwin and his thoughts on natural selection, the process by which the genes that are most beneficial for survival are protected and strengthened. However, evolutionary psychologists think beyond Darwin’s famous study of finches to look for aspects of human thought and behavior that may give individuals or their genes a better chance for survival in the future. For example, evolutionary psychologists may examine why many people have an aversion to bitter tastes (it may have been an indication of poisonous foods that were dangerous to eat), or they may explain that we are attracted to those with certain physical traits because those traits tend to be associated with higher chances for successful reproduction.

**Biopsychosocial Model**

In the late twentieth century, psychiatrist George L. Engel formulated a model of treating patients that looked for explanations of illness as well as potential treatments by examining the interactions of the patient’s biology, personality, and social influences—the biopsychosocial model. While recognizing the biological and physiological elements of disease, Engels and others who followed believed that a patient’s perception of an illness or condition as well as the social environment of the patient have an influence on treatment outcome. The interaction of these elements can also help explain the onset of disease: someone who grows up in a family of smokers (social) might be more likely to become a smoker because of a desire to belong (psychological), and smoking is a known disease-causing behavior (biological). Some psychiatrists and medical doctors believe that Engel’s ideas have helped medical doctors see patients as whole beings rather than just biological systems.

**Eclecticism**

Because no single approach explains all of human and animal thought and behavior, many psychologists today take an eclectic approach by combining two or more psychological approaches. As you read later chapters, keep in mind the different approaches introduced in this chapter and try to determine to what approach (or approaches) each individual you learn about adheres.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perspective</th>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Psychoanalytic</td>
<td><img src="image1" alt="Conscious Mind" /></td>
<td>The iceberg represents Freud’s levels of consciousness and shows the scope of the unconscious mind compared to that of the conscious mind.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral</td>
<td><img src="image2" alt="Magnifying Glass" /></td>
<td>Behavior that is observable and measurable is scientifically useful.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td><img src="image3" alt="Brain with Questions" /></td>
<td>Thinking and perception influence behavior.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanistic</td>
<td><img src="image4" alt="Flower" /></td>
<td>The flower is trying to reach its full potential and blossom. Even in a bad environment, it will try its best. People strive to be their best.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perspective</td>
<td>Mnemonic</td>
<td>Explanation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sociocultural</td>
<td>![Sociocultural Image]</td>
<td>The individual is influenced by the people and culture that surround them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biological</td>
<td>![Biological Image]</td>
<td>Brain structures and chemistry affect behavior.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evolutionary</td>
<td>![Evolutionary Image]</td>
<td>Evolutionary adaptations help explain human thought and behavior.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biopsychosocial</td>
<td>![Biopsychosocial Image]</td>
<td>Interactions among a person’s biology, personality, and culture help shape thoughts and behaviors.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Strengths and Limitations of Theories

Theories in psychology, such as those you just read about, are like lenses or magnifying glasses. Lenses help us see things within the lens better, but things outside of the lens become less clear. The reason why theories remain useful over the years is that they help us see or interpret various phenomena. However, these same theories can make us blind to—or at least less aware of—other phenomena. Thus, enduring theories help a significant number of people see certain things well, but they explain other phenomena less well. Other theories then attempt to explain phenomena less well understood, or they try to explain more phenomena, sometimes subsuming earlier or other theories. Again, however, these newer or different theories may not explain all phenomena of interest, so the cycle continues and other theories have to be developed. Taken together, all applicable theories remain useful, at least to some subset of people—hence they are enduring.

Subfields and Careers in Psychology

Psychologists are found in a vast array of careers, and for this reason and many others psychology is one of the most popular college majors. Most psychologists fall into one of two categories: applied psychologists and basic psychologists. Applied psychologists work face to face with clients, students, or patients. They use the knowledge of basic researchers to directly help individuals. Basic psychologists, for example, focus on completing research, often working in labs, to increase knowledge about human thinking and human and animal behavior. They may work to find a new antipsychotic medication, for example, but may never meet the people who use the drug. Some psychologists do work in both basic and applied psychology: a professor at a university may work in a lab studying how students learn (basic) and may also teach classes of students about the field (applied).

Psychiatrists are medical doctors and can prescribe medication to patients who may benefit from them. Recently, some states have allowed psychologists who have the proper education to prescribe medications as well. Psychologists may be in a practice with psychiatrists, and their educational training as well as the approach (or approaches) to which they adhere will influence the type of treatment they provide.

Biological psychologists investigate how the structures in one’s brain or nervous system influence behavior. Biological psychologists may also study how deficits in certain types of neurotransmitters may shape the behavior of their clients.

Cognitive psychologists investigate how people’s thinking and perception of situations influence their behavior. They examine decision-making, problem-solving, memory, risk assessment, and metacognition (thinking about thinking).
Clinical psychologists are likely the professionals that most frequently come to mind when thinking about practitioners in psychology. Clinical psychologists work with individuals who may be suffering from psychological disorders. For example, they may help a person with an obsessive-compulsive disorder to cope with or potentially overcome the illness. Recently, clinical psychologists have attempted to identify those at high risk for disorders in order to play a proactive role in preventing the development of psychological illness.

Counseling psychologists primarily work with individuals who are going through a difficult time in their lives but are unlikely to have a mental illness. Counseling psychologists generally try to help their clients work through such issues as divorce or transitioning into a new school. They work with their clients to develop strategies for coping with difficult situations so they can be positive and productive.

Developmental psychologists study how people change and develop over their lifespan. The topics they examine may include cognitive development, linguistic (speech) development, moral development, motor development, and others. Developmental psychologists historically have studied children; however, as the population ages, gerontology (the study of old age) is attracting some practitioners as their focus.

Educational psychologists research how people learn and remember information. Their work may help teachers develop effective curriculum for promoting student understanding.

Experimental psychologists generally work in laboratories and form the largest category of basic psychologists. What they study may run the spectrum from treating rats with a new type of drug to testing the interpersonal skills of college students.

Human factors psychologists generally have a background in engineering. They study how the design of certain products can improve use. For example, human factors psychologists may design a comfortable chair that supports one’s back properly or a coffee machine that is easy to use even by someone who has never seen it before. We have all had experiences with products that do not work as we might like; human factors psychologists seek to remedy these situations.

Industrial-Organizational psychologists are often found in an office setting. They may work in human resources to find the best person for a particular job; they may work to increase worker morale; or they may be involved with training, such as sexual harassment training, or other on the job seminars. They may also work as outside consultants to find a match between and employer and well qualified employees.

Psychometric psychologists have a strong math background that they put to use by interpreting personality or intelligence tests or analyzing the data produced by basic psychologists to determine their findings. Psychometric
psychologists often work as consultants to assist those collecting data to insure that they are analyzing the data correctly.

**Personality psychologists** often work closely with psychometric psychologists, providing personality inventories which are then analyzed and assessed. Personality psychologists may also work in a clinical setting to determine why certain personality characteristics seem to make getting along difficult for certain individuals or hold them back from reaching their potential.

**School psychologists**, not to be confused with educational psychologists who are often basic researchers, generally work in a face-to-face setting. They may evaluate students for special programs, such as special education or gifted programs. They are involved with proctoring IQ tests and creating plans, along with counselors, parents, students, and other school support staff, to meet each student’s educational needs.

**Social psychologists** are those who adhere to the sociocultural approach to psychology. They are primarily focused on examining the influence of family, culture, religion, and peer group on behavior. Social psychologists can work in teaching or research at universities, in the private sector in such positions as consultant and marketing director, or in the government or nonprofit spheres as researchers, conflict managers, or policy experts.

Regardless of the career one pursues in psychology, the key force underlying all careers is furthering an understanding of human behavior and helping to promote empathy and compassion for others. Even if your future takes you to a path unrelated to the field, your knowledge of psychology should help you better understand people’s motives, behaviors, and thoughts.

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**REFLECT ON THE ESSENTIAL QUESTION**

**Essential Question:** How has the field of psychology been influenced by other disciplines and how has the field changed over time? On separate paper, complete a chart like the one below to gather details to answer that question.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Influences from Other Disciplines</th>
<th>Changes Over Time</th>
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</table>

The theoretical perspectives you have read about in this chapter are general frameworks that are applied to specific instances for purposes of therapy or understanding. For example, behaviorism rests on the conviction that behaviors are shaped by punishments and rewards. A psychologist applying behaviorism to a therapeutic situation would look for ways in which undesirable behavior in a client is being reinforced through rewards and seek opportunities to extinguish it. The ability to apply a general concept to a specific individual or situation is critical to a psychologist’s success.

**Practice:** The American Psychological Association (APA) publishes the document “Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct” to enumerate the ways in which its members are to uphold high ethical principles. The first excerpt below is from the “General Principles” section of the document. The second is from the section devoted to “Human Relations.” Read the excerpts carefully. Then review Chapter 1, applying these ethical standards to the examples provided. Then, based on the information in this chapter, describe one example that seems to adhere to the ethical principles and one that does not, explaining why in each case.

**Principle A: Beneficence and Nonmaleficence** Psychologists strive to benefit those with whom they work and take care to do no harm. In their professional actions, psychologists seek to safeguard the welfare and rights of those with whom they interact professionally and other affected persons and the welfare of animal subjects of research. When conflicts occur among psychologists’ obligations or concerns, they attempt to resolve these conflicts in a responsible fashion that avoids or minimizes harm. Because psychologists’ scientific and professional judgments and actions may affect the lives of others, they are alert to and guard against personal, financial, social, organizational or political factors that might lead to misuse of their influence. Psychologists strive to be aware of the possible effect of their own physical and mental health on their ability to help those with whom they work.

**Human Relations**

**3.04 Avoiding Harm**

Psychologists take reasonable steps to avoid harming their clients/patients, students, supervisees, research participants, organizational clients and others with whom they work, and to minimize harm where it is foreseeable and unavoidable.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KEY TERMS</th>
<th>PERSPECTIVES</th>
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<th>KEY PEOPLE</th>
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MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. Which of the following philosophers believed that people were born as blank slates and experiences formed their personality and ultimately shaped the person they became?
   
   A. Plato  
   B. Aristotle  
   C. Freud  
   D. Descartes  
   E. Locke

2. Samantha believes that all behavior originates from unconscious forces which are developed primarily in childhood and focused primarily on sex and aggression. With which approach to psychology is Samantha most likely to agree?
   
   B. Functionalist  
   C. Humanistic  
   D. Psychoanalytic  
   E. Sociocultural

3. With which of the following statements would a behaviorist be most likely to agree?
   
   A. People are cesspools of hidden desires.  
   B. Religious and cultural beliefs will determine values and morals.  
   C. We should look at individual’s consciousness by asking them to report their conscious experiences.  
   D. By studying how people think and solve problems, we can better understand how they will behave.  
   E. We can only study what we can observe, because this is all that can be empirically tested.
5. Katelyn is a senior in high school. She is in struggling in school and has been fighting frequently with her parents. She is not sure where her life is headed and does not yet know what she wants to study in college. With which of the following statements about Katelyn would a humanistic psychology most likely agree?
A. Katelyn will work on getting her life back on track and work to the best of her potential in the future.
B. Katelyn has been shaped by the dysfunctional nature of her parent’s relationship and will have a tough time forming deep relationships in the future.
C. Katelyn is overthinking her problems, which are minor, and her misperception of the scope of the problems is inflating their importance.
D. Katelyn has learned from her peers to treat her parents badly and to not put forth her best effort in school. Because this behavior is rewarded by her friends, she will continue exhibiting this behavior in the future.
E. Katelyn’s problem is the result of changing hormones in her teenage years; once these level out, she will be able to concentrate on her goals and relationships.

6. How does the humanistic approach to psychology differ from the psychoanalytic approach to psychology?
A. The humanistic approach studies thinking and the psychoanalytic approach focuses on learning through rewards and punishments.
B. The humanistic approach focuses on learning through rewards and punishments while the psychoanalytic approach emphasizes the importance of the unconscious.
C. The humanistic approach focuses on striving to be one’s best while the psychoanalytic approach examines unconscious forces and the importance of sex and aggression.
D. The humanistic approach emphasizes one’s religion and family while the psychoanalytic approach emphasizes the unconscious and sex and aggression.
E. The humanistic approach focuses on the good in all people while the psychoanalytic approach emphasizes the impact of one’s religion and peer group.
7. Edward Titchener used the Structuralist approach to examine human consciousness. With which of the following would he agree?
   A. We can only study people by direct observation and learning through rewards and punishments.
   B. We must examine the unconscious forces which influence an individual’s behavior.
   C. We must examine how a person functions as a whole.
   D. We can use the process of introspection by asking people about their conscious experience to specific stimuli.
   E. We must examine problem solving and perception to better understand human consciousness.

8. Read the following quotation and answer the question that follows.
   “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 select—doctor, lawyer, artist, merchant-chief and, yes, even beggar-man and thief, regardless of his talents, penchants, tendencies, abilities, vocations, and race of his ancestors. “(1930)
   To whom could the above statement most likely be attributed?
   A. Sigmund Freud
   B. John Watson
   C. Carl Rogers
   D. Wilhelm Wundt
   E. Descartes

9. Benjamin designs cars that are easy to drive and intuitive to use. It is most likely that Benjamin is engaged in which of the following fields of psychology?
   A. Industrial Organizational
   B. Human Factors
   C. Community
   D. Cognitive
   E. Psychometric
10. Denise is a junior in high school who has just transferred from another school. She is having trouble adjusting to her new environment because she is very shy and is finding it difficult to make new friends. Which of the following types of psychologists might best help Denise work through this adjustment period?
   A. Clinical
   B. Personality
   C. Human Factors
   D. School
   E. Counseling

11. Most practicing psychologists today use a multifaceted approach to explaining human behavior. Which of the following best represents this approach?
   A. Empiricism
   B. Dualism
   C. Eclecticism
   D. Introspection
   E. Stream of Consciousness
1. Eighteen-year-old Jennifer is afraid of heights. Her fear began when she was a small child but has not gone away with age. Jennifer has sought professional help to overcome this paralyzing fear but to little avail. When she is in a space above two stories, she is reminded of a frightening trip to a high observation deck as a child. Jennifer does not like to go to the city with her friends because they may find out about her infantile fear. Each time Jennifer knows she will be in a high place, she plans out her approach days ahead but is anxious and agitated until the moment arrives. She realizes her fears are irrational but seemingly cannot help her behavior.

A. Explain how the following approaches to psychology would help to understand the origins of Jennifer’s behavior.
   - Humanistic
   - Psychoanalytic
   - Cognitive
   - Behavioral
   - Sociocultural

B. Explain how the following types of psychologists would attempt to examine Jennifer’s behavior.
   - Counseling
   - Developmental

2. The field of psychology has evolved from the time philosophers first began asking questions about human behavior to today. Address the following questions regarding how the field has grown and changed over time.

A. Philosophy has had a great impact on the field of psychology. Explain how the following theories were influenced by earlier philosophers.
   - Psychoanalytic
   - Behaviorism
   - Neurobiological

B. Explain how the following modern day approaches addressed the flaws of earlier theories.
   - Behaviorism
   - Humanistic
C. Explain how the following careers in the field of psychology ensure that the field continues to evolve and add to the body of knowledge regarding human behavior.

• Basic Psychologists
• Educational Psychologists

**WRITING AS A PSYCHOLOGIST: UNDERSTAND THE TASK**

Strong writing skills are essential to both psychologists and students of psychology. They are also necessary to provide clear answers on the AP® Exam. For example, when answering a free-response question, focus on the exact task each section of the prompt calls for by identifying the verb. For example, both questions above ask you *explain*. Explaining requires making connections among the parts of the prompt and the psychological concepts. You may also be asked to *identify, show, describe, discuss, and relate*. This book will provide practice in addressing each type of task.

Answer all questions in complete sentences, and use your best analytical and organizational skills. Answers that contradict themselves or substitute a simple restatement of the question for a reasoned answer will not be accepted.

Also, for each lettered item, notice how many examples you must provide. The total will be the number of points that question is worth. Be sure to cover all of the bulleted items to gain full credit for the questions.
The Science of Psychology: Comparing Experimentation, Correlational Studies, and Case Studies

As you read, there are three basic research methods psychologists use to collect and interpret scientific data: experimentation (page 00), correlational studies (page 00), and case studies (page 00). All three methods have their pros and cons. To gain a deeper understanding of each method, consider the following question so you may determine which methods are most useful and appropriate given the researcher’s goals, resources, and ethical limitations.

Research Objective: Suppose researchers in Oklahoma are attempting to examine the efficacy of a specific antidepressant as a treatment method for clinical depression in a local Native American tribe. They want to then expand the implications of their research to the broader national Native American community. List the pros and cons of using experimentation, case studies, and correlational studies as they conduct their research both locally and nationally. To help organize your answer, create a chart like the one below listing the pros and cons of each method if it were to be used both locally and nationally. Then determine which research method(s) would best suit the researcher’s goals on both the local and national level and write a paragraph explaining your answer.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Method</th>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Pros</th>
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Research Method: Experimentation
- Local: Pros, Cons
- National: Pros, Cons

Research Method: Correlational Studies
- Local: Pros, Cons
- National: Pros, Cons

Determine the most appropriate research method(s) and explain your answer.