Chapter 1 (and all other chapters in this text) will:

- Increase your understanding of yourself and others. The Greek philosopher Socrates admonished long ago, "Know thyself." Psychology is about you, me, and all the peoples of the world. Studying it will greatly contribute to your understanding (and appreciation) of yourself and others.

- Better your social relations. Thanks to years of scientific research and application, psychology has developed numerous guidelines and techniques that will improve your relationships with friends, family, and coworkers.

- Enhance your career. Whether or not you decide to work directly in the field, psychology can enrich your professional life. Because all jobs require working with others, an improvement in your "people skills" can lead to direct career "profits."

- Broaden your general education. Why are you in college? Is becoming a more educated person one of your goals? Psychology is an integral part of today's political, social, and economic world, and understanding its principles and concepts is essential to becoming well informed.

- Improve your critical thinking. Would you like to become a more independent thinker and better decision maker and problem solver? These are only a few of the many critical thinking skills that are enhanced through a study of psychology.

---

What Is Psychology? Scientific Methods and Scientific Thinking

The term psychology derives from the roots psyche, meaning "mind," and logos, meaning "word." Early psychologists focused primarily on the study of mind and mental life. By the 1920s, however, many psychologists believed the mind was not a suitable subject for scientific study. They initiated a movement to restrict psychology to observable behavior alone. Today we recognize the importance of both areas. Accordingly, psychology is now defined as the scientific study of behavior and mental processes. Note the three key concepts in this definition—scientific, behavior, and mental processes (Figure 1.1).

As part of this emphasis on science, psychologists place particular value on empirical evidence and critical thinking, the process of objectively evaluating, comparing, analyzing, and synthesizing information. The study of psychology will greatly improve your critical thinking abilities. If you would like to exercise your critical thinking skills and test how much you already know about psychology, complete the following "Try This Yourself" exercise.

When completing this same exercise in class, my students often miss several questions because they rely solely on common sense, personal experience, authority figures, or media reports of "pop psychology." Mistakes are also made when we confuse scientific psychology with pseudopsychologies, which give the appearance of science but are actually false. (Pseudo means "false.") Pseudopsychologies include:
Testing Your Knowledge of Psychology

Answer True or False to the following:

1. In general, we only use about 10 percent of our brain.
2. Most brain activity stops during sleep.
3. Advertisers and politicians often use subliminal persuasion to influence our behavior.
4. Punishment is the most effective way to permanently change behavior.
5. Eyewitness testimony is often unreliable.
6. Polygraph ("lie detector") tests can accurately and reliably reveal whether or not a person is lying.
7. People who threaten suicide seldom follow through with it.
8. People with schizophrenia have multiple personalities.
9. Similarity is one of the best predictors of long-term relationships.
10. In an emergency, as the number of bystanders increases, your chance of getting help decreases.

Answers:
1. True
2. False
3. True
4. False
5. True
6. True
7. True
8. False
9. False
10. True

- **Psychics**—individuals who are supposedly sensitive to nonphysical or supernatural forces.
- **Mediums**—individuals who serve as a channel of communication between the earthly world and a world of spirits.
- **Palmistry**—reading a person's future or character from the lines on the palms.
- **Psychometry**—determining facts about an object by merely handling it.
- **Psychokinesis**—moving objects by purely mental means.
- **Astrology**—the study of how the positions of the stars and planets supposedly influence people's personalities and affairs.

For some, horoscopes or palmists are simple entertainment. Unfortunately, there are also true believers seeking guidance and comfort who waste large sums of money on charlatans purporting to know the future. Broken-hearted families have also lost valuable time and emotional energy on psychics claiming they could locate their lost children. As you can see, distinguishing scientific psychology from pseudopsychology is vitally important.

**Scientific** is a key part of the definition of psychology. Psychological science collects and evaluates information using systematic observations and measurements.

**Behavior** is anything we do that can be directly observed and recorded—talking, sleeping, texting, etc.

**Mental processes** are our private, internal experiences—thoughts, perceptions, feelings, memories—that cannot be observed directly.
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY AND ITS RESEARCH METHODS

“The Amazing Randi” The magician James Randi has dedicated his life to educating the public about fraudulent pseudopsychologists. Along with the prestigious MacArthur Foundation, Randi has offered $1 million to “anyone who proves a genuine psychic power under proper observing conditions” (About James Randi, 2002; Randi, 1997). After many years, the money has never been collected. If you would like more information, visit Randi’s website at www.randi.org.

Psychology’s Goals: Describe, Explain, Predict, and Change

In contrast to pseudopsychologies, which rely on testimonials and opinions, psychology bases its findings on rigorous, scientific methods. When conducting their research, psychologists have four basic goals: to describe, explain, predict, and change behavior and mental processes.

1. **Description.** Description tells “what” occurred. In some studies, psychologists attempt to describe, or name and classify, particular behaviors by making careful scientific observations. Description is usually the first step in understanding behavior. For example, if someone says, “Boys are more aggressive than girls,” what does that mean? The speaker’s definition of aggression may differ from yours. Science requires specificity.

2. **Explanation.** An explanation tells “why” a behavior or mental process occurred. In other words, explaining a behavior or mental process depends on discovering and understanding its causes. One of the most enduring debates in science has been the nature-nurture controversy. Are we controlled by biological and genetic factors (the nature side)? Or by environment and learning (the nurture side)? As you will see throughout the text, psychology (like all sciences) generally avoids “either-or” positions and focuses instead on interactions. Today, almost all scientists agree that most psychological, and even physical traits, reflect an interaction between nature and nurture. For example, research indicates that there are numerous interacting causes or explanations for aggression, including culture, learning, genes, brain damage, and high levels of testosterone (e.g., Juntti, Coats, & Shah, 2008; Kelly et al., 2008; Temcheff et al., 2008).

3. **Prediction.** Psychologists generally begin with description and explanation (answering the “whats” and “whys”). Then they move on to the higher-level goal of prediction, identifying the conditions under which a future behavior or mental process is likely to occur. For instance, knowing that alcohol leads to increased aggression (Tremblay, Graham, & Wells, 2008), we can predict that more fights will erupt in places where alcohol is consumed than in those where alcohol isn’t consumed.

4. **Change.** For some people, having “change” as a goal of psychology brings to mind evil politicians or cult leaders “brainwashing” unknowing victims. However, to psychologists, change means applying psychological knowledge to prevent unwanted outcomes or bring about desired goals. In almost all cases, change as a goal of psychology is positive. Psychologists help people improve their work environment,
stop addictive behaviors, become less depressed, improve their family relationships, and so on. Furthermore, as you know from personal experience, it is very difficult (if not impossible) to change someone against her or his will. (*Joke question:* Do you know how many psychologists it takes to change a light bulb? *Answer:* None. The light bulb has to want to change itself!)

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**CHECK & REVIEW**

**Introducing Psychology**

**Objective 1.1:** Define psychology.

**Psychology** is the scientific study of behavior and mental processes. It emphasizes the empirical approach and the value of critical thinking. Psychology is not the same as common sense, "pop psychology," or pseudopsychology.

**Objective 1.2:** What are psychology's four main goals?

The goals of psychology are to describe, explain, predict, and change behavior and mental processes.

**Questions**

1. The process of objectively evaluating, comparing, analyzing, and synthesizing information is known as _____.

2. ____ rely on nonscientific or deliberately fraudulent methods to explain personality.
   a. Pseudopsychologies
   b. Sociologists
   c. Astronomers
   d. Counselors

3. Psychological science often questions to what extent we are controlled by biological and genetic factors or by the environment and learning. This ongoing debate is known as the _____.
   a. nature-nurture controversy
   b. mind versus body dualism
   c. interactionist position
   d. biopsychosocial model

4. You dread going to the grocery store because you got lost there when you were a child. This illustrates psychology's goal of _____.
   a. describing
   b. explaining
   c. predicting
   d. changing

5. The goal of ____ is to tell "what" occurred, whereas the goal of ____ is to tell "why."
   a. health psychologists; biological psychologists
   b. description; explanation
   c. psychologists; psychiatrists
   d. pseudopsychologists; clinical psychologists

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**PSYCHOLOGY AT WORK**

**Careers in the Field**

Knowing what psychology is, and understanding its four major goals, would you consider a career in the field? Many students think of psychologists only as therapists. However, many psychologists work as researchers, teachers, and consultants in academic, business, industry, and government settings (Table 1.1). Many psychologists also work in a combination of settings. Your college psychology instructor may be an experimental psychologist who teaches, conducts research, and works as a paid business or government consultant—all at the same time. Similarly, a clinical psychologist might be a full-time therapist, while also teaching college courses.

**What is the difference between a psychiatrist and a clinical or counseling psychologist?** The joke answer would be “about $100 an hour.” The serious answer is that psychiatrists are medical doctors. They have M.D. degrees with a specialization in psychiatry and a license to prescribe medications and drugs. In contrast, most counseling and clinical psychologists have advanced degrees in human behavior and methods of therapy (e.g., Ph.D. or Psy.D.). Many clinical and counseling psychologists also work as a team with psychiatrists.
### TABLE 1.1 SAMPLE CAREERS AND SPECIALTIES IN PSYCHOLOGY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Biopsychology/neuroscience</th>
<th>Investigates the relationship between biology, behavior, and mental processes, including how physical and chemical processes affect the structure and function of the brain and nervous system.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clinical psychology</td>
<td>Specializes in the evaluation, diagnosis, and treatment of mental and behavioral disorders.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive psychology</td>
<td>Examines &quot;higher&quot; mental processes, including thought, memory, intelligence, creativity, and language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counseling psychology</td>
<td>Overlaps with clinical psychology, but practitioners tend to work with less seriously disturbed individuals and conduct more career and vocational assessment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development psychology</td>
<td>Studies the course of human growth and development from conception until death.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational and school psychology</td>
<td>Studies the process of education and works to promote the intellectual, social, and emotional development of children in the school environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental psychology</td>
<td>Examines processes such as learning, conditioning, motivation, emotion, sensation, and perception in humans and other animals. (The term <em>experimental psychologist</em> is somewhat misleading because psychologists working in almost all areas of specialization also conduct research.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forensic psychology</td>
<td>Applies principles of psychology to the legal system, including jury selection, psychological profiling, and so on.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender and/or cultural psychology</td>
<td>Investigates how men and women and different cultures differ from one another and how they are similar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health psychology</td>
<td>Studies how biological, psychological, and social factors affect health and illness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial/organizational psychology</td>
<td>Applies the principles of psychology to the workplace, including personnel selection and evaluation, leadership, job satisfaction, employee motivation, and group processes within the organization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social psychology</td>
<td>Investigates the role of social forces and interpersonal behavior, including aggression, prejudice, love, helping, conformity, and attitudes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Study Tip

Illustrations
Do not skip over the photos, figures, and tables. They visually reinforce important concepts and often contain material that may appear on exams.

Origins of Psychology

People have always been interested in human nature. Most of the great historical scholars, from Socrates and Aristotle to Bacon and Descartes, asked questions that we would today call psychological. What motivates people? How do we think and problem solve? Where do our emotions and reason reside? Do our emotions control us, or are they something we can control? Interest in such topics remained largely among philosophers, theologians, and writers for several thousand years. However, in the late nineteenth century, psychological science began to emerge as a separate scientific discipline.

Throughout its short history, psychologists have adopted several perspectives on the “appropriate” topics for psychological research and the “proper” research methods. As a student, you may find these multiple (and sometimes contradictory) approaches frustrating and confusing. However, diversity and debate have always been the lifeblood of science and scientific progress.

Early Psychological Science: A Brief History

Wilhelm Wundt (Vill-helm Voont), generally acknowledged as the “father of psychology,” established the first psychological laboratory in Leipzig, Germany in 1879. He also helped train the first scientific psychologists, and wrote one of psychology’s most important books, Principles of Physiological Psychology.

Wundt and his followers were interested primarily in studying mental life and conscious experience—how we form sensations, images, and feelings. One of their earliest research methods was termed introspection, monitoring and reporting on the contents of consciousness (Goodwin, 2009). If you were one of Wundt’s participants trained in introspection, you might be presented with the sound of a clicking metronome. You
How would you describe this object?

If you were a participant in Titchener’s laboratory, you would describe not what it is, but your subjective experience—the intensity and clarity of color, texture, shape, and smell. Structuralists called this research method introspection. The fact that your reported experience might differ from others, or that Titchener had no way to check the accuracy of your report, created significant problems for the structuralists.

Would be told to focus solely on the clicks and report only your immediate reactions to them—your basic sensations and feelings.

Structuralism

Edward Titchener brought Wundt’s ideas to the United States and established a psychological laboratory at Cornell University. Titchener was a kind of mental chemist who sought to identify the basic building blocks, or structures, of the mind. Titchener’s approach later came to be known as structuralism, which dealt with the structure of mental life. Just as the elements hydrogen and oxygen combine to form the compound water, Wundt believed the “elements” of conscious experience combined to form the “compounds” of the mind. Structuralists sought to identify the elements of thought through introspection and then to determine how these elements combined to form the whole of experience.

Unfortunately, it soon became clear that structuralism was doomed to failure. When different observers introspected and then disagreed on their experiences, no scientific way existed to settle the dispute. Furthermore, introspection could not be used to study nonhuman animals, children, or complex topics like mental disorders or personality. Though short-lived, structuralism established a model for studying mental processes scientifically.

Functionalism

Structuralism’s intellectual successor, functionalism, studied how the mind functions to adapt human and nonhuman animals to their environment. Earlier structuralists might have studied “anger” by asking people to introspect and report on their individual experiences. In comparison, functionalists would have asked, “Why do we have the emotion of anger? What function does it serve? How does it help us adapt to our environment?” As you can see, functionalism was strongly influenced by Darwin’s theory of evolution and his emphasis on natural selection (Segerstrale, 2000).

William James, an American scholar, was a leading force in the functionalist school. He also broadened psychology to include nonhuman animal behavior, various biological processes, and behaviors. In addition, his book Principles of Psychology (1890) became the leading psychology text—despite its length of more than 1400 pages!

Like structuralism, functionalism eventually declined. But it expanded the scope of psychology to include research on emotions and observable behaviors, initiated the psychological testing movement, and changed the course of modern education and industry.

Psychoanalytic/Psychodynamic Perspective

During the late 1800s and early 1900s, while functionalism was prominent in the United States, the psychoanalytic/psychodynamic perspective was forming in Europe. Its founder, Austrian physician Sigmund Freud, believed that many psychological problems are caused by conflicts between “acceptable” behavior and “unacceptable”
unconscious sexual or aggressive motives (Chapter 13). To deal with these unconscious conflicts, Freud developed a form of psychotherapy, or “talk therapy,” called psychoanalysis.

Freud’s nonscientific approach and emphasis on sexual and aggressive impulses have long been controversial, and today there are few strictly Freudian psychoanalysts left. But the broad features of his theory remain in the modern psychodynamic approach. Although psychodynamic psychologists are making increasing use of experimental methods, their primary method is the analysis of case studies. Their primary goal is to interpret complex meanings hypothesized to underlie people’s actions.

Behavioral Perspective
In the early 1900s, another major school of thought appeared that dramatically shaped the course of psychology. Unlike earlier approaches, the behavioral perspective emphasizes objective, observable environmental influences on overt behavior.

John B. Watson (1913), the acknowledged founder of behaviorism, rejected the practice of introspection and the influence of unconscious forces. He believed these practices and topics were unscientific and too obscure to be studied empirically. Watson adopted Russian physiologist Ivan Pavlov’s concept of conditioning to explain how behavior results from observable stimuli (in the environment) and observable responses (behavioral actions). In Pavlov’s famous experiment teaching a dog to salivate in response to the sound of a bell, the bell is the stimulus and the salivation is the response.

Because nonhuman animals are ideal subjects for studying objective, overt behaviors, the majority of early behavior research was done with them or with techniques developed through nonhuman research. Using dogs, rats, pigeons, and other nonhuman animals, behaviorists such as John Watson in the early 1900s and, more recently B. F. Skinner, focused primarily on learning and how behaviors are acquired. They formulated a number of basic principles about learning which are explored in Chapter 6.

It sounds like behaviorists are interested only in nonhuman animals. Aren’t any of them interested in humans? Yes, behaviorists are interested in people. One of the most well-known behaviorists, B. F. Skinner, was convinced that we could (and should) use behavior approaches to actually “shape” human behavior. This shaping could thereby change the present negative course (as he perceived it) of humankind. He did considerable writing and lecturing to convince others of this position. Behaviorists have been most successful in treating people with overt (observable, behavioral) problems, such as phobias (irrational fears) and alcoholism (Chapters 14 and 15) (Watson & Tharp, 2007).

Humanistic Perspective
In sharp contrast to psychoanalysts and behaviorists who saw human behavior as shaped and determined by external causes beyond personal control, humanists emphasized our unique ability to make voluntary choices about our own behavior and life. The humanistic perspective stresses free will, self-actualization, and human nature as naturally positive and growth seeking. According to Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow, two central figures in the development of humanism, all individuals naturally strive to grow, develop, and move toward self-actualization (a state of self-fulfillment in which we realize our highest potential).

Many psychologists have criticized the humanistic approach for its lack of rigorous experimental methods and consider it more of a philosophy of life than a major
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY AND ITS RESEARCH METHODS

Positive Psychology Scientific study of optimal human functioning, emphasizing positive emotions, positive traits, and positive institutions.

In addition, the humanistic approach provides the foundation for a contemporary research specialty known as positive psychology—the scientific study of optimal human functioning (Diener, 2008; Patterson & Joseph, 2007; Seligman, 2003, 2007; Taylor & Sherman, 2008). For many years, psychology understandably focused on negative states, such as aggression, depression, and prejudice. In recent years, however, leaders in the positive psychology movement, such as Ed Diener, Martin Seligman, and Shelly Taylor, have pushed for a broader study of human experiences, with an emphasis on: (1) positive emotions (like hope, love, and happiness), (2) positive traits (such as altruism, courage, and compassion), and (3) positive institutions that help promote better lives (such as improved schools and healthier families) (Seligman, 2003). Thanks to its scientific methodology and broader focus on optimal functioning, positive psychology has provided a wealth of new research found throughout this text.

Cognitive Perspective Focuses on thinking, perceiving, and information processing.

Throughout this text, you will see citations (authors' names and publication dates) at the end of many sentences, such as (Goodwin, 2009). Most instructors rarely expect you to memorize the names and dates in parentheses. They are provided as a starting point for research projects, for additional information on a topic of interest, and to double-check the research sources. Complete publication information (title of article or chapter, author, journal name or book title, date, and page numbers) is provided in the References section at the back of this book.

Neuroscience/Biopsychology Perspective Emphasizes genetics and other biological processes in the brain and other parts of the nervous system.

Evolutionary Perspective Focuses on natural selection, adaptation, and evolution of behavior and mental processes.

Cognitive Perspective One of the most influential modern approaches, the cognitive perspective, recalls psychology's earliest days, in that it emphasizes thinking, perceiving, and information processing. (Sternberg, 2009).

Modern-day cognitive psychologists, however, study how we gather, encode, and store information from our environment using a vast array of mental processes. These processes include thinking, perception, memory, language, and problem solving. If you were listening to a friend describe her whitewater rafting trip, a cognitive psychologist would be interested in how you decipher the meaning of her words, how you form mental images of the turbulent water, how you incorporate your impressions of her experience into your previous concepts and experience of rafting, and so on.

Many cognitive psychologists use an information-processing approach, likening the mind to a computer that sequentially takes in information, processes it, and then produces a response.

Neuroscience/Biopsychology Perspective During the last few decades, scientists have explored the role of biological factors in almost every area of psychology, including sensation, perception, learning, memory, language, sexuality, and abnormal behavior. This exploration has given rise to an increasingly important trend in psychology, known as the neuroscience/biopsychology perspective.

As you will see in the upcoming discussion of psychological research in this chapter, neuroscientists/biopsychologists have developed sophisticated "tools" and technologies to conduct their research. They use these tools to study the structure and function of individual nerve cells, the roles of various parts of the brain, and how genetics and other biological processes contribute to our behavior and mental processes. We will return to the neuroscience/biopsychology perspective throughout Chapter 2 and other chapters.

Evolutionary Perspective The evolutionary perspective derives from a focus on natural selection, adaptation, and evolution of behavior and mental processes (Buss, 2008; Workman & Reader, 2008). Its proponents argue that natural selection favors behaviors that enhance an organism's reproductive success. That is, human and nonhuman animals exhibiting behaviors that contribute to survival will pass them on through their genes to the next generation.

Consider aggression. Behaviorists would argue that we learn aggressiveness at an early age. "Hitting another child stops him or her from taking your toys." Cognitive psychologists would emphasize how thoughts contribute to aggression. "He intended to hurt me. Therefore, I should hit him back!" Neuroscience/biopsychologists might...
say aggressiveness results primarily from neurotransmitters, hormones, and structures in the brain. In comparison, evolutionary psychologists would argue that human and nonhuman animals behave aggressively because aggression conveys a survival or reproductive advantage. They believe aggression evolved over many generations because it successfully met the adaptive pressures faced by our ancestors.

Sociocultural Perspective

The sociocultural perspective emphasizes social interactions and cultural determinants of behavior and mental processes. Sociocultural psychologists have shown how factors such as ethnicity, religion, occupation, and socioeconomic class all have an enormous psychological impact (Laungani, 2007; Shiraev & Levy, 2008).

Unless someone points it out, however, few of us recognize the importance of these factors. As Segall and his colleagues (1990) suggest, when you go to school, you probably walk into a classroom at the same time on the same days, sit in the same chair, and either listen to a trained teacher or participate in an activity designed and directed by that teacher. This is because it is the schooling system of your social world and culture. In another society or culture, such as a remote region of East Africa, you and your friends might gather informally around a respected elder, some of you sitting and others standing, all of you listening to the elder tell stories of the history of the tribe.

As they say, "a fish doesn't know it is in water," and, similarly, most of us are unaware of the social and cultural forces that shape our lives. This is one of many reasons why we include such heavy coverage of sociocultural psychology throughout this text.

Women and Minorities

During the late 1800s and early 1900s, most colleges and universities provided little opportunity for women and minorities, as either students or faculty. Despite these early limitations, both women and minorities have made important contributions to psychology.

One of the first women to be recognized in the field was Mary Calkins. Calkins performed valuable research on memory and in 1905 served as the first female president of the American Psychological Association (APA). Her achievements are particularly noteworthy, considering the significant discrimination against women in those times. Even after completing all the requirements for a Ph.D. at Harvard, and being described by William James as his brightest student, the university refused to grant the degree to a woman. The first woman to receive a Ph.D. in psychology was Margaret Floy Washburn (in 1894), who wrote several influential books and served as the second female president of APA.

Francis Cecil Sumner, without benefit of a formal high school education, became the first African American to earn a Ph.D. in psychology from Clark University in 1920. He also translated over 3000 articles from German, French, and Spanish and founded one of the country's leading psychology departments at Howard University. In 1971, one of Sumner's students, Kenneth B. Clark, became the first African American to be elected APA president. Clark's research with his wife, Mamie, documented the harmful effects of prejudice and directly influenced the Supreme Court's ultimate ruling against racial segregation in schools.

Sumner and Clark, Calkins and Washburn, along with other important minorities and women, made significant and lasting contributions to the developing science of psychology. In recent years, minorities and women are being actively encouraged to pursue graduate degrees in psychology. But as you can see in Figure 1.3, white (non-Hispanic) people still make up the majority of new doctorate recipients in psychology.
CHAPTER 1  INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY AND ITS RESEARCH METHODS

Modern Perspectives: Seven Approaches and One Unifying Theme

Early schools like structuralism and functionalism have almost entirely disappeared or have been blended into newer, broader perspectives. Contemporary psychology reflects seven major perspectives: *psychoanalytic/psychodynamic, behavioral, humanistic, cognitive, neuroscience/biopsychology, evolutionary,* and *sociocultural* (Table 1.2).

In discussing the seven modern perspectives in psychology, I have presented them separately and made distinctions between their philosophies and practices. However, most psychologists recognize the value of each orientation, and agree that no one view has all the answers.

One of the most widely accepted, and unifying, themes of modern psychology is the **biopsychosocial model**. This approach views biological processes (e.g., genetics, brain functions, neurotransmitters, and evolution), psychological factors (e.g., learning, thinking, emotion, personality, and motivation), and social forces (e.g., family, culture, ethnicity, social class, and politics) as interrelated influences (Figure 1.4).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perspectives</th>
<th>Major Emphases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Psychoanalytic/psychodynamic</td>
<td>Unconscious processes and unresolved past conflicts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral</td>
<td>Objective, observable environmental influences on overt behavior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanistic</td>
<td>Free will, self-actualization, and human nature as naturally positive and growth-seeking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>Thinking, perceiving, problem solving, memory, language, and information processing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neuroscience/biopsychology</td>
<td>Genetics and biological processes in the brain and other parts of the nervous system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evolutionary</td>
<td>Natural selection, adaptation, and evolution of behavior and mental processes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociocultural</td>
<td>Social interaction and the cultural determinants of behavior and mental processes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Achievement

**Objective 1.5: Describe the biopsychosocial model.**

Biopsychosocial Model **Unifying theme of modern psychology that incorporates biological, psychological, and social processes.**

TABLE 1.2  PSYCHOLOGY'S SEVEN MODERN PERSPECTIVES
**Try This Yourself**

Why do we need multiple and competing perspectives?

What do you see in the drawing to the right? Do you see two profiles facing each other or a white vase? Your ability to see both figures is similar to a psychologist's ability to study behavior and mental processes from a number of different perspectives.

This new, integrative model proposes that all three forces affect and are affected by one another. They are inseparable. For example, feelings of depression are often influenced by genetics and neurotransmitters (biology). They are also affected by our learned responses and patterns of thinking (psychology) and by our socioeconomic status and cultural views of emotion (social). In the coming chapters, I frequently refer to one or more of the seven major perspectives shown in Table 1.2. However, the common theme of modern psychology, and this text, is an integrative, biopsychosocial approach.

**Figure 1.4** The biopsychosocial model combines and interacts with the seven major perspectives.

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**Origins of Psychology**

**Objective 1.3:** Summarize psychology's major career specialties.

Many avenues exist for those who want to pursue a career in psychology. These include biopsychology/neuroscience, experimental, cognitive, developmental, clinical, counseling, industrial/organizational, educational/school, social, health, and so on.

**Objective 1.4:** Contrast structuralism versus functionalism, and list the seven major perspectives that guide modern psychology.

Among the early contributors to psychology, the structuralists sought to identify elements of consciousness and how those elements formed the structure of the mind. They relied primarily on the method of introspection. Functionalists studied how mental processes help the individual adapt to the environment.

The psychoanalytic/psychodynamic, behavioral, humanistic, cognitive, neuroscience/biopsychology, evolutionary, and sociocultural perspectives are the key approaches in contemporary psychology.

**Objective 1.5:** Describe the biopsychosocial model.

The biopsychosocial model draws from all seven modern perspectives and also incorporates biological, psychological, and social processes.

**Questions**

1. The _____ school of psychology originated the method of introspection to examine thoughts and feelings.

2. _____ investigated the function of mental processes in adapting to the environment.

3. Why are Freud's theories so controversial?

4. Which of the following terms do not belong together? (a) structuralism, observable behavior; (b) behaviorism, stimulus-response; (c) psychoanalytic, unconscious conflict; (d) humanism, free will.

5. Define the biopsychosocial model.