全国高等学校教材

供应用心理学专业及其他专业方向用

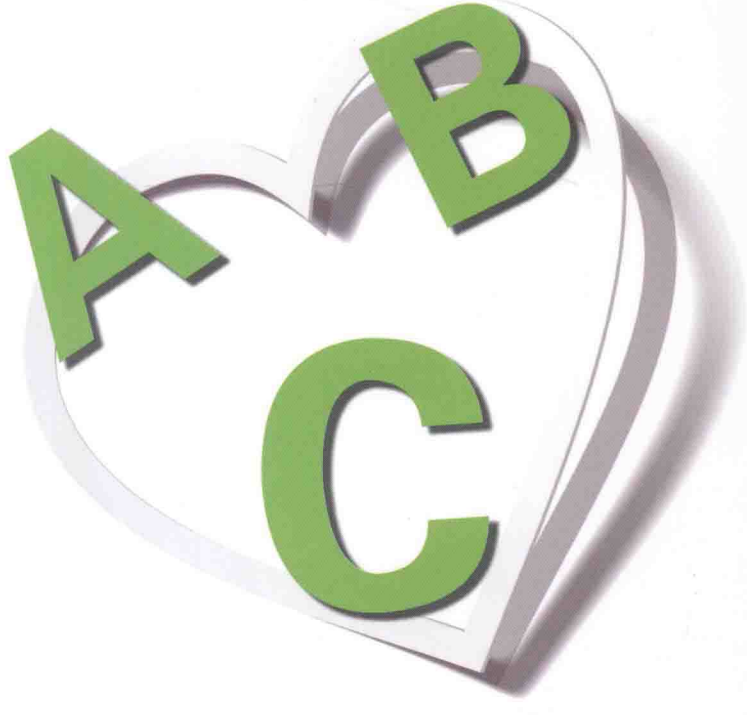
（第2版）

心理学英语教程

Textbook of English in Psychology

(Second Edition)

主编　李建明　王　伟



人民卫生出版社

全国高等学校教材
供应用心理学专业及其他专业方向用

（第2版）

心理学英语教程

Textbook of English in Psychology (Second Edition)

主　　编　李建明　王　伟

编　　者（以姓氏笔画为序）

王　伟	浙江大学	张雪琴	广州医科大学
朱　洁	首都医科大学	张曼华	首都医科大学
李功迎	济宁医学院	陈婉珍	浙江大学
李宝芬	承德医学院	高志华	华北理工大学
李建明	华北理工大学	路　平	黑龙江大学
张东军	新乡医学院		

学术秘书　高志华　陈婉珍

人民卫生出版社

图书在版编目(CIP)数据

心理学英语教程 / 李建明，王伟主编. —2 版. —北京：人民卫生出版社，2015

ISBN 978-7-117-21859-7

Ⅰ. ①心… Ⅱ. ①李…②王… Ⅲ. ①心理学－英语－高等学校－教材 Ⅳ. ①H31

中国版本图书馆 CIP 数据核字(2015)第 291974 号

心理学英语教程
第 2 版

主　　编：李建明　王　伟
出版发行：人民卫生出版社（中继线 010-59780011）
地　　址：北京市朝阳区潘家园南里 19 号
邮　　编：100021
E - mail：pmph @ pmph.com
购书热线：010-59787592　010-59787584　010-65264830
印　　刷：北京市卫顺印刷厂
经　　销：新华书店
开　　本：787 × 1092　1/16　　印张：13
字　　数：324 千字
版　　次：2009 年 1 月第 1 版　　2016 年 1 月第 2 版
　　2016 年 1 月第 2 版第 1 次印刷（总第 5 次印刷）
标准书号：ISBN 978-7-117-21859-7/R · 21860
定　　价：32.00 元
打击盗版举报电话：010-59787491　E-mail：WQ @ pmph.com
（凡属印装质量问题请与本社市场营销中心联系退换）

前　言

《心理学英语教程》是根据国家教育部《大学英语教学大纲》的要求而编写，目的是满足应用心理学专业及精神医学专业本科生的需要，提高其专业英语水平。本书吸收了西方心理学专业教材之精华，结合中国高等院校应用心理学专业和精神医学专业英语教学需要以及学生普遍的英语水平，收录了大量心理学及部分精神病学专业英语词汇。同时，本书还系统地讲述了心理学的起源、心理学研究方法、人类发展、心理学的生物学基础、感觉与知觉、意识、睡眠与梦、学习、记忆、思维、智力和智力测验、动机、情绪、人格、心理障碍、心理治疗等内容。

本书第 1 版自 2008 年出版以来，发行量很高，其在内容深度、知识面广度以及读者定位等方面受到读者的认可，以其简明、实用的特点广受读者好评。可以说，本书是心理学英语领域相关图书中的佼佼者，几乎很少有同类图书能超过甚至达到本书的水平。现应广大读者的要求修订再版，以使其更加完善。

本书在修订再版过程中得到了浙江大学、华北理工大学心理学院、承德医学院、黑龙江大学、济宁医学院、广州医科大学、首都医科大学、新乡医学院及《中国健康心理学杂志》社的大力支持，在此表示衷心的感谢！

由于时间紧、任务重，加上编者水平有限，书中难免存在缺点和不足，希望广大教师和同学提出宝贵意见，以便再版时完善。

李建明　王　伟

2015 年 10 月

Contents

Lesson One

Text
The Origins of Psychology

Psychology is the science of behavior and mental process. This means that psychologists conduct experiments and use scientific methods to better understand the actions and thoughts of human and animals. It concerns many aspects, from the activities of a single nerve cell to the workings of memory, even to the social problems in a complex society. It also includes discoveries on how we are able to perceive color, how hunger is regulated by the brain, whether or not chimpanzees can use language to communicate with each other, and so many other exciting topics you may have never considered. So Psychology is linked with clinical medicine, education, vocation, industry, human behavior, criminology, biology, physiology, sexuality, health, and social aspects, etc. In general, psychology, as a new science, has entered our daily life everywhere.

The term psychology comes from two Greek words: "psyche", meaning the soul, and "logos", referring to the study of a subject. These two Greek roots were first put together to define a topic of study in the 16th century, when psyche was used to refer to the soul, spirit, or mind, distinguishing from the body. The suffix "-ology" refers to study. Not until the early 18th century did the term psychology gain more than rare usage among scholars. By that time it had acquired its literal meaning "the study of the mind".

Psychology's intellectual parents were the disciplines of philosophy and physiology. By the 1870s, a small number of scholars in both fields had been actively exploring questions about the mind. How are bodily sensations turned into a mental awareness of the outside world? Are our perceptions of the world accurate reflections of the reality? How do mind and body interact? The philosophers and physiologists who were interested in the mind viewed such questions as fascinating issues within their respective fields.

It was Wilhelm Wundt(1832—1920)(Figure 1-1), a German professor and physician, who eventually changed this view. Wundt mounted a campaign to make psychology an independent discipline rather than a stepchild of philosophy or physiology. In 1879 Wundt succeeded in establishing the first formal laboratory for researches in psychology at the University of Leipzig. In deference to this landmark event, historians have christened 1879 as psychology's "date of birth".

Wundt's view of psychology dominated the academic field for several decades and was widely influential all over the world. Wundt claimed that psychology would be a new independent science modeling following fields such as physics and chemistry. He regarded psychology as a scientific study of consciousness-the awareness of immediate experience. This orientation made psychology a special scientific subject focusing on the study of the mind.

Figure 1-1 Wilhelm Wundt, the founder of experimental psychology

Wundt's thoughts and provocative ideas attracted many excellent young scholars to Leipzig in order to study and do researches on vision, hearing, touch, taste, attention, and emotion under Wundt's guidance. His views spread fast from Germany to America, and many psychological research laboratories were set up in the United States and Canada. So, although psychology was born in Germany, it blossomed into adolescence in America. Like many adolescents, however, the young science was about to enter a period of turmoil. An intellectual battle between the two major opposite schools of psychology, structuralism and functionalism began.

Structuralism, Edward Titchener(1867—1927) as the representative, is based on the concept that the task of psychology is to analyze consciousness into its basic elements and investigate how these components are related. Functionalism, established by a brilliant American scholar named William James(1842—1910)(Figure 1-2), is based on the belief that psychology should investigate the function or purpose of consciousness, rather than its structure. Applying Charles Darwin's theory of natural selection to humans, James noted that consciousness was obviously an important characteristic of our species, and psychology should investigate the functions rather than the structure of consciousness. These two schools argued for many years without result. However, functionalism's practical orientation fostered the development of two descendants that have dominated modern psychology: applied psychology and behaviorism.

In the early 1900s, John B. Watson(1878—1958)(Figure 1-3) initiated the school of behaviorism, which is a theoretical orientation based on the premise that scientific psychology should study only the observable behavior. Watson asserted that psychologists could study anything that people do or say, but they could not study scientifically the thoughts, wishes, and feelings that might accompany these behaviors. While Behaviorism dominated psychology for many decades in America, Gestalt psychology emerged in Germany, which argued that psychology should continue to study conscious experience rather than the overt behavior.

At the same time, another approach—psychoanalysis was founded by an Austrian physician named Sigmund Freud(1856—1939)(Figure 1-4) who had been contemplated the mysteries of unconscious mental processes. According to Freud, the unconsciousness contained thoughts, memories and desires that were well below the surface of conscious awareness but that nonetheless

exerted great influence on behavior. Freud's psychoanalytic theory attempted to explain personality, motivation, and mental disorders by focusing on unconscious determinations of behavior.

In the 1950's, humanism occurred, which emphasized the unique qualities of humans, especially their freedom and their potential for personal growth. The most prominent architects of the humanistic movement were Carl Rogers(1902—1987)(Figure 1-5) and Abraham Maslow(1908—1970). They asserted that human behavior is governed primarily by each individual's sense of self, or "self-concept" —which animals presumably lack. Thus, humanists' greatest contribution to psychology has been their innovative treatments for psychological/mental problems or disorders. Modern psychotherapy has relied on this notion to develop.

Figure 1-2 William James, the father of American psychology and the leader of functionalism

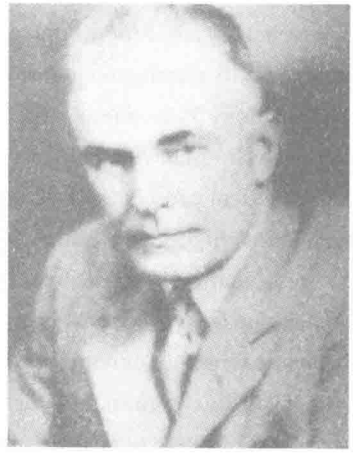


Figure 1-3 John B. Watson, the founder of behaviorism

Figure 1-4 Sigmund Freud, the founder of psychoanalysis

Figure 1-5 Carl Rogers, the main leader of humanism, the founder of the client-centered therapy

Since the 1950s, psychology has begun its professional age, and derived a branch—applied psychology, which is concerned with educational psychology, industrial psychology, counseling psychology, and clinical psychology. Clinical psychology is concerned with the diagnosis and treatment of psychological/mental problems or disorders.

In the early 1960s, Jean Piaget(1896—1980) proposed cognitive psychology, advocating that psychology must study internal mental events to fully understand human behavior. Almost at the same time, some psychologists relied on physiological experiments to study the interrelations among mind, body, and behavior. For instance, electrical stimulation of the brain could evoke emotion such as rage and pleasure in animals. Thus, the biological perspective was born, which maintains that much of human and animal behavior can be explained in terms of the body structures and biochemical processes that allow organisms to behave. In 1995, David Buss(1953—) began evolutionary psychology, asserting that natural selection favors behaviors that enhance organisms' reproductive success by passing on genes to the next generation.

Today psychology is a science that studies behavior and the physiological and cognitive processes that underlie behavior, and it is a profession that applies the accumulated knowledge of this science to practical problems. Its field concerns work in hospitals, clinics, research institutes, government agencies, higher education, business and industry, nursing homes, police departments, counseling centers, and private practice. Psychologists have shown how to test children and adults, how to plan educational and vocational careers, how to handle disordered personalities, how to assist advertisers in controlling our buying habits and patterns of living, how to design our automobiles, airplanes, and even our homes, and how to help political parties to sell candidates. Business executives are sent by their companies for two weeks of "sensitivity" training and psychological analysis; the conduct of international affairs is, to some extent, based on the "psychological warfare". So the new century is the century of Psychology. The future of psychology is promising.

New Words and Expressions

sensation [sen'seiʃən] n. 感觉，感情，感动
perception [pə'sepʃən] n. 知觉，理解，感知，感觉
consciousness ['kɔnʃəsnis] n. 意识，知觉，自觉，觉悟，个人思想
awareness [ə'wɛənis] n. 觉察，知道，晓得
structuralism ['strʌktʃərəlizəm] n. [心]构造主义，结构主义；[语]结构主义
functionalism ['fʌnkʃənəlizm] n. 机能心理学，机能主义
behaviorism [bi'heiviərizəm] n. [心]行为主义
psychoanalysis [ˌsaikəuə'næləsis] n. 心理分析，精神分析
psychotherapy ['saikəu'θerəpi] n. 心理疗法，心理治疗
obsession [əb'seʃən] n. 强迫症；困扰；固定的想法；成见
anxiety [æŋg'zaiəti] n. 焦虑症，忧虑，焦急，渴望，热望
humanism ['hju:mənizəm] n. 人本主义，人道主义，人文主义
approach [ə'prəutʃ] n. 取向

cognitive psychology	认知心理学
educational psychology	教育心理学
industrial psychology	工业心理学
counseling psychology	咨询心理学
clinical psychology	临床心理学
evolutionary psychology	进化心理学

Grammar and Notes

1. Not until the early 18th century did the term psychology gain more than rare usage among scholars.

本句中出现了 not until 引起的倒装句，主动词 did 放在了主语 the term psychology 之前，形成了部分倒装。在英语中，含否定意义的词放在句首时，往往倒装。以下词语常引起倒装：never, little, seldom, rarely, not until, hardly...when, scarcely...when, by no means, in no case, at no times 等，例如：

No sooner had I left the room than he came.

At no time will China be the first to use the nuclear weapon.

2. Approaches to psychology.

Approach	Characteristics
(1) Biological	Emphasizes activity of the nervous system, especially the brain; the action of hormones and other chemicals; and genetics.
(2) Evolutionary	Emphasizes the ways in which behavior and mental processes are adaptive for survival.
(3) Psychodynamic	Emphasizes internal conflicts, mostly unconscious, which usually sexual or aggressive instincts against environmental obstacles to their expression.
(4) Behavioral	Emphasizes learning, especially each person's experience with rewards and punishments.
(5) Cognitive	Emphasizes mechanisms through which people receive, store, retrieve, and otherwise process information.
(6) Humanistic	Emphasizes individual potential for growth and the role of unique perceptions in guiding behavior and mental processes.

Exercises

1. Answer the following questions in English according to the text.

(1) Before learning psychology, do you know anything about it?

(2) What kinds of studies does psychology perform? What is the concrete definition of psychology?

(3) How did the word "psychology" come from? When?

(4) What disciplines did psychology develop from?

(5) Who first advocated that psychology should be an independent scientific approach? When?

(6) Who established the first psychological research laboratory which was regarded as the birth of scientific psychology? Where and in which year?

(7) What did Wundt think about psychology?

(8) What are the differences between the two opposite schools in psychology-structuralism and functionalism? Who was the chief leader for each school?

(9) What psychological school did Watson create? What is the main opinion about Watson's school?

(10) Who is the founder of psychoanalysis? What is the major thought about psychoanalysis?

(11) List some other schools that have emerged since 1950s.

2. Translate the following Chinese into English.

(1) 心理学是研究心理现象的一门科学，主要研究个体心理，包括认知、情绪、动机、能力和人格等，也研究团体和社会心理。

(2) 心理学的母体是哲学。直到 1879 年，德国生理学教授 Wundt 在德国莱比锡大学建立了第一个心理学实验室，用自然科学方法研究心理学，心理学才脱离哲学成为一门独立的科学。

(3) 心理学建立初期学派纷争的局面到 20 世纪 30 年代基本结束。

(4) 结构心理学是心理学的第一个学派，包括感觉、意象和感情三个基本元素。结构心理学主张心理学应该研究人们的直接经验，即意识。

(5) 美国著名的心理学家 William James 是机能心理学的创始人；他认为心理学应该研究心理在适应环境方面的功能、作用；机能心理学认为意识是一种持续不断、川流不息的过程，即意识流。

(6) 美国心理学家华生于 1913 年创立了行为心理学；华生认为心理学不应该研究意识，而应该研究可观察的、可测量的行为。

(7) 精神分析论是由奥地利精神病学医生弗洛伊德(Sigmund Freud)创立的；该理论的基础来源于医学临床经验，它对心理学乃至于人类文化的发展产生了巨大影响；尤其是关于人格研究以及心理治疗方面更为突出。

(8) 20 世纪 60 年代以美国的罗杰斯和马斯洛为代表的人本主义心理学，着重于人格方面的研究。

(9) 认知心理学是现代心理学中新兴的一种思潮，代表了心理学研究的一种趋势，是受多种因素影响而逐渐演变而成的。

Reading and Comprehensions
Neuropsychology—the Science of Brain and Modern Society

Mind is defined as "the function of brain", so many questions emerge, such as, how brain controls our behaviors, how brain works with our higher thought, how the information transports among numinous neurons, how the structure of brain exerts its functions, and so on. A new subfield in Psychology has emerged, aiming to answer such questions, and is called Neuropsychology. Neuropsychology is a scientific field concerned with understanding relationships between the human brain, behavior, and mind, and applying this understanding to the assessment, clinical management, and rehabilitation of persons with neurological disease and injury. Mind includes both conscious and unconscious mental contents and processes, and involves both cognition and emotion.

Neuropsychology is a relatively new discipline within the field of psychology; however, the history of its discovery can be traced back to the Third Dynasty in ancient Egypt, but it was Hippocrates, who asserted that the brain was the organ of the intellect. Another important historical contribution, occurring at the beginning of the 19th century, was Phrenology proposed by Franz Josef Gall, who believed that mind could be divided into different functions that are localized within different areas of the brain. Then, Paul Broca, Carl Wernicke, and Hughlings Jackson provided the first clear evidence that the sudden onset of different types of speech and language impairments was associated with damage to different areas within the left hemisphere of the brain. Throughout the 20th century, the development of neuropsychology was most influenced by scientific discoveries within clinical neurology, psychology(particularly cognitive psychology and theory concerning the mental measurement), and, more recently, neuroscience. Contemporary neuropsychology can be divided into two complementary sub-fields: Experimental neuropsychology and clinical neuropsychology.

Experimental Neuropsychology

Experimental neuropsychology employs a wide range of scientific methods in an attempt to understand basic brain-behavior-mind relationships. Some of these methods involve the study of non-human animals, observing behavior changes following experimental damage, electrical stimulation, or drug injection within various brain regions, and recording the electrical activity of nerve cells while the animal performs different tasks. In the study of human, the major method has been the careful measurement of behavioral and mental changes following accidental brain injury, neurosurgery, or the unfortunate occurrence of neurological diseases that affect particular brain regions. These technologies include: electroencephalography(EEG), magnetoencephalography (MEG) recording, computerized tomography(CT), magnetic resonance imaging(MRI), functional magnetic resonance imaging(fMRI), positron emission tomography(PET). As technological developments have allowed increasingly fine-grained measurement of brain structure and processes, a more detailed and sophisticated understanding of human brain-behavior-mind relationships has emerged.

Clinical Neuropsychology

Clinical neuropsychology is an applied discipline that uses the basic knowledge from experimental neuropsychological researches to develop reliable and valid procedures for assessing, managing, and rehabilitating persons who suffer from the behavioral, cognitive, and emotional consequences of neurological injury or disease. A variety of different tests of cognitive functions, such as memory, visual and auditory perception, language, and abstract reasoning, have been developed and shown to be sensitive to the consequences of localized brain damage or dysfunction. Although not yet as extensively developed, similar tests of emotional functions(e.g., recognition of facial or vocal emotional expression) are available.

Neuropsychological testing plays a particularly important role in diagnosis when a given illness (e.g., Alzheimer's disease) manifests primarily by changes in cognition and emotion(rather than in clear physical abnormalities). In addition to diagnosis, neuropsychological assessment plays an important role in giving information to health care providers, patients, and family members

concerning specific strengths and deficits in cognitive and emotional functions and their practical implications. Neuropsychological testing is also used in the assessment of treatment effects or disease progression, and in guiding the rehabilitation or clinical management of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral problems.

Contribution to Modern Society

The knowledge and insights of the Brain science community are already making very considerable contributions to general knowledge in many important areas of public interest. In particular, brain science can make a major contribution to understand the processes of learning and memory formation that are central to the whole process of decision making at every level, from the individual citizen, through the corporate world to the international government.

Similarly knowledge of how information is assimilated and, in particular, the difference between rote learning, and understanding the meaning and significance of information, and how it can be extrapolated to solve problems and stimulate creativity, is the foundation of all education, training and lifelong learning; as well as providing the basis for different tests to assess competence and aptitude.

As with any large-scale publicly funded endeavor, brain researchers has already brought better survival rates for brain tumor sufferers, treatments for brain disorders from Parkinson's to depression, and help for paralyzed patients. Increasing knowledge of the effects of environmental toxins on the brain, such as lead, has stimulated changes in government regulation, thereby improving public health. Work into major disorders like Alzheimer's is ongoing, while on a lighter note, neuroscientists also contribute to the entertainment industry, for example in designing games which can be controlled by brain activity.

In the near future we may see two remarkable developments. One, arising from better treatments for devastating neurodegenerative disorders, should allow us all to preserve a healthy brain into older age. The second will grant us the power to enhance normal function, whether by chemical or genetic methods or by interfacing our brains directly with computing technologies-making us neural cyborgs. These extraordinary achievements may render the diseases we most fear distant memories for our descendants. They may improve society immeasurably; they will certainly change it. Because the brain is where the self is generated, they will also change us.

To minimize the costs and maximize the benefits of neuroscience, which could well transform life in the 21st century; much more discussion is needed about the future of brain research. The questions formulated by the Brain Mind Forum, we hope, will engage that debate.

(高志华　李建明)

Lesson Two

Text
Research Methods in Psychology

Psychology as an independent science, like many others, needs distinct methods. For over 100 years the scientific method has been the basis for investigation in the discipline of psychology. The scientific method is intended to meet four goals: description, explanation, predication and creating changes(control and application). Usually, study procedures include formulating a testable hypothesis, designing a study and selecting an appropriate research method, collecting the relevant data, analyzing the data, drawing conclusion, and reporting the findings.

Step 1. Formulating a Testable Hypothesis

The first step in a scientific investigation is to translate a general idea into a testable hypothesis. A hypothesis is a tentative and testable statement about the relationship between causes and consequences. Hypotheses frequently attempt to answer the questions "how" and "why", which are often stated as if-then predictions. We might predict, for example, that if children view a lot of violence on television, then they will engage in more aggressive acts towards their peers. Research is required to verify the if-then link. Usually, researchers express these hypotheses as predications that come from large numbers of scientific data. The scientific hypotheses are testable. To be testable, scientific hypotheses must be formulated precisely, and the variables under study must be clearly defined. Therefore, setting specific operational definition for the relevant variables appears very important. An operational definition explains various conditions in terms of its measurement, operation, or procedure used to determine its existence in the research setting. All variables in an experiment must be given an operational definition. For example, "depressive mood" may be defined as a set of symptom scores derived from a specific questionnaire. There are two main types of variables: one is the independent variable, and the other is the dependent variable. Independent variable is the factor that researcher manipulates; it functions as the causal part of the relationship. The effect part of the relationship is served by the dependent variable, which is what the researcher measures. Imagine, for example, that you wanted to test the hypothesis we mentioned earlier: that children who view a lot of violence on television will engage in more aggressive actions towards their peers. You could devise an experiment in which you manipulated the amount of violence each participant viewed(the independent variable) and then assessed how many aggressive actions he or she displayed(the dependent variable).