



医学心理与精神障碍

Medical Psychology and Mental Disorders

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兰州大学出版社

图书在版编目(CIP)数据

医学心理与精神障碍 / 潘元青, 梁海乾编著. —兰州: 兰州大学出版社, 2013. 10

ISBN 978-7-311-04280-6

I. ①医… II. ①潘… ②梁… III. ①医学心理学—研究 ②精神障碍—研究 IV. ①R395.1 ②R749

中国版本图书馆 CIP 数据核字(2013)第 246707 号

策划编辑 陈红升
责任编辑 郝可伟
封面设计 李鹏远 潘元青

书 名 医学心理与精神障碍
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出版发行 兰州大学出版社 (地址: 兰州市天水南路 222 号 730000)
电 话 0931-8912613(总编办公室) 0931-8617156(营销中心)
0931-8914298(读者服务部)
网 址 <http://www.onbook.com.cn>
电子信箱 press@lzu.edu.cn
印 刷 兰德辉印刷有限责任公司
开 本 787 mm × 1092 mm 1/16
印 张 33.25
字 数 885 千
版 次 2013 年 11 月第 1 版
印 次 2013 年 11 月第 1 次印刷
书 号 ISBN 978-7-311-04280-6
定 价 68.00 元

(图书若有破损、缺页、掉页可随时与本社联系)

Preface

The volume sets forth the basic principles and the clinical practice of psychology as a true science of medical psychology and mental disorders. This book is to be viewed benefit from a better understanding of the causes of behavior as we go through life trying to make sense of our own behavior. In Section I , which is written by Pan Yuanqing, it is focused on simply enhancing the quality of life and our ability to function in a wide variety of circumstances (education, work, relationships, etc.). We will explore what psychology is, how psychology originated as a science, what clinical psychologists do, and what contents do medical psychology study. In Section II , which is written by Liang Haiqian, it aims to understanding how can we distinguish normal from abnormal behavior, what are the major perspectives on mental disorders used by mental health professionals. In Section III , it introduces a wide range of mental disorders, covering epidemiology, clinical features, and both psychosocial and somatic therapies.

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Section I

Psychology can be focused on the study of the human mind and behavior. It involves a comprehensive understanding of emotional issues at the deep root level which brings about health, happiness and functionality in the client, and it is a systematic approach to the understanding of people, their thoughts, emotions and behaviors. The study of psychology allows one to appreciate the relationship between thoughts, emotions and the resulting behavior. Research in psychology seeks to understand and explain how we think, act and feel. Applications for psychology include mental health treatment, performance enhancement, self-help, ergonomics and many other areas affecting health and daily life. We can benefit from a better understanding of the causes of behavior as we go through life trying to make sense of our own behavior or that of friends, family, lovers, co-workers, politicians. Everyone needs to be able to critically evaluate the claims concerning behavior that are so much a part of news reports, commercials, and conversation. This course will help you with each of these. Many of you, raising children — now or in the future, will be better prepared with some understanding of developmental psychology. And all of you, in one way or another, will cross paths with someone in psychology or related fields. Perhaps you already have, in school (counselors, school psychologists). Recent statistics suggest that 1 out of 2 Chinese suffer from some sort of psychological disorder in their lifetime. You or someone you care about may seek out some type of mental health treatment or advice, or you may hear testimony from someone in this field while on jury duty. This course will help you understand the qualifications of and differences among professionals in the field. In addition, about 1 out of 5 Americans will have some kind of nervous system disorder or disease which affects behavior. Biopsychology, the study of brain-behavior relationships, can help you understand what is happening when someone you know is affected by autism or Alzheimer's disease or other neurological problem. But psychology is not only concerned with treating behavioral problems. A good part of it is focused on simply enhancing

the quality of life and our ability to function in a wide variety of circumstances (education, work, relationships, etc.). You can use what you learn to improve your life!

Our aims is written in a conversational style that is easy to understand. You are responsible for that reading! Attending class is important — sometimes what we cover in class will not be covered in the textbook. But attending class is only part of what's involved in becoming an educated person. Do set aside time for that reading, preferably before or while we are covering that topic in class — it is key to your success.

In this topic, we will explore what psychology is, what psychologists do, and how psychology originated as a science. As you read the material in this topic, you should find the answers to the following questions.

Chapter 1 Introduction — The Science of Psychology

What is Psychology?

There are many ways to find out about ourselves and the world in which we live. Some of our beliefs are a matter of faith. Such faith - based beliefs require no empirical evidence — evidence gathered through direct sensory experience or observation. Some beliefs come through tradition, passed on from one generation to the next, accepted simply because “they said it is so”. Some beliefs are credited to common sense (for example, beat a dog often enough and sooner or later it will get mean). Some of the insights we have about the human condition are taken from art literature, poetry, and drama. For example, some of our ideas about romantic love may have roots in literature, such as Shakespeare’s *Romeo and Juliet*. Although all of these ways of learning about ourselves and the world have value in certain contexts, psychologists maintain that there is a better way: applying the values and methods of science.

When psychologists try to learn about behavior and mental processes, they avoid faith - based and common sense explanations. Instead, they approach problems from a scientific perspective. This involves: 1) attempting to isolate the factors that contribute to behavior; 2) developing theories and laws to account for the behavior of interest.

Psychology is the science of behavior and mental processes. It will be worth our time to take a few minutes now to dissect this definition to look at its component parts.

First and foremost, the definition tells us that psychology is a science, just like biology, physics, and chemistry. As a science, psychology approaches its subject matter from a scientific perspective. This means that psychologists use accepted scientific techniques to build a body of knowledge about behavior and mental processes. Second, the definition tells us that psychologists have an interest in both humans and animals. We’ll see many examples of psychological research that uses animals in an effort to help us understand human behaviors and mental processes. On the other hand, some psychologists study the behaviors and mental activity on non - human animals simply because they find them interesting and worthy of study in their own right. Finally, our definition suggests that psychologists study both behavior and mental processes.

Psychology meets the second requirement of a science because what is known in psychology has been learned mostly through the application of the scientific method. The scientific method is a method of acquiring knowledge by observing a phenomenon, formulating hypotheses, further observing and experimenting, and refining and re - testing hypotheses.

Scientific methods reflect an attitude or an approach to problem solving. It is a process of inquiry, a particular way of thinking, rather than a special set of procedures that must be followed rigorously.

There may not be specific rules to follow in doing science, but there are guidelines. The basic process goes like this: The scientist (psychologist) makes observations about his or her subject matter. For example, he or she notices that when there are several bystanders to an emergency, help is less likely to be given than if there is only one bystander. On the basis of such preliminary observations, the scientist develops a hypothesis. A hypothesis is a tentative explanation of some phenomenon that can be tested and then either supported or rejected; it is an educated guess about one's subject matter. It links together two things: factors believed to control behavior and the behavior itself. In our example, the scientist might hypothesize that as the number of bystanders to an emergency increases, the likelihood of the person in need receiving help decreases. In this hypothesis, a causal factor (number of bystanders) is tentatively linked to behavior (helping or lack of helping).

Hypotheses are logically deduced from preliminary observations and from their reading of existing scientific literature. Hypotheses, although they may sound intuitively obvious, are not accepted as the final explanation for behavior. Instead, the scientist proceeds by systematically testing his or her hypothesis with empirical research, making careful observations of behavior (this time under specified and controlled conditions). For example, the psychologist could test the hypothesis linking the number of bystanders and helping behavior by designing a study in which she systematically increases the number of bystanders to a staged emergency and observes the bystanders' behaviors. These new observations would then be analyzed to see if they confirm the previously stated hypothesis.

Psychological Approaches Past and Present

In this section, we add to our definition of psychology by considering some of the major perspectives or approaches, that have been developed throughout psychology's history.

Psychology's Roots in Philosophy

Psychology did not suddenly appear as the productive scientific enterprise we know today. The roots of psychology are found in philosophy and science.

We credit philosophers for first suggesting that it is reasonable and potentially profitable to seek explanations of human behaviors at a human level. Early explanations tended to be at the level of God — or the gods. If someone suffered from fits of terrible depression, for example, it was believed that person had offended the gods. A few philosophers successfully argued that they might be able to explain why people behave, feel, and think as they do, without constant reference to God's intentions in the matter.



Rene Descartes (1596–1650)



John Locke (1632–1704)

The French philosopher Rene Descartes (1596–1650) is a good example of such a philosopher. He pondered how the human body and mind produced the very process he was then engaged in — thinking. Descartes envisioned the human body as a piece of machinery: intricate and complicated. Descartes went further. According to the doctrine of dualism, human process more than just a body: They have minds. It is likely, though Descartes thought that the mind similarly function through the action of knowable law, but getting those laws would sure be more difficult. Here's where Descartes had a truly important insight. We can learn about the mind because the mind and the body interact with each other. That interaction takes place in the brain. In these matters, Descartes' position is called interactive dualism; dualism because the mind and the body are separate entities, and interactive because they influence each other. Thus, we have with Rene Descartes the real possibility of understanding the human mind and how it works.

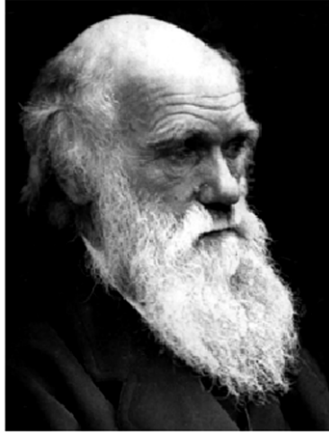
Nearly a hundred years later, a group of British thinkers brought that part of philosophy concerned with the workings of the human mind very close to what was soon to become psychology. This group got its start from the writings of John Locke (1632–1704). Locke was sitting with friends after dinner one evening discussing philosophical issues when it became clear that no one in the group really understood how the human mind understands anything, much less complex philosophical issues. Locke announced that within a week he could provide the group with a short explanation of the nature of human understanding. What was to have been a simple exercise took Locke many years to finish, but it gave philosophers a new set of ideas to ponder.

Psychology's Roots in Science

Philosophers had gone nearly to the brink. They had raised intriguing questions about the mind, how it worked, where its contents (ideas) came from, how ideas could be manipulated, and how the mind and body might influence each other. Could the methods of science provide answers to any of the philosophers' questions? A few natural scientists and physiologists believed that they could.

During the nineteenth century, natural science was making progress on every front. Charles Darwin (1809–1882) was a naturalist biologist. In 1859, just back from a lengthy sea voyage on

the H.M.S. Beagle, Darwin published his revolutionary *The Origin of Species*, which explained the details of evolution. Few non - psychologists were ever to have as much influence on psychology. Darwin confirmed for psychology that the human species was part of the natural world of animal life. The methods of science could be turned toward understanding this creature of nature called the human being.



Charles Darwin (1809–1882)



Hermann von Helmholtz (1821–1894)

Darwin made it clear that all species of this planet are, in a nearly infinite number of ways, related to one another. The impact of this observation, of course, is that what scientists discover about the sloth, the ground squirrel, or the rhesus monkey may enlighten them about the human race. Another concept that Darwin emphasized was adaptation. Species will survive and thrive only to the extent that they can, over the years, adapt to their environments. Psychologists were quick to realize that adaptation to one's environment was often a mental as well as a physical process.

The mid - 1800s also found physiologists better understanding how the human body functions. By then it was known that nerves carried electrical messages to and from various parts of the body, that nerves serving vision are different from those serving hearing and the other senses, and are also different from those that activate muscles and glands. Of all the biologists and physiologists of the nineteenth century, the one whose work is most relevant to psychology is Hermann von Helmholtz (1821–1894). In the physiology laboratory, Helmholtz performed experiments and developed theories on how long it takes the nervous system to react to stimuli, how we process information through our senses, and how we experience color. These are psychological issues, but in the mid- 1800s there was no recognized science of psychology as we know it today.

The Early Years: Structuralism



Wilhelm Wundt (1832–1920)

It is often claimed that, as a science, psychology began in 1879, when Wilhelm Wundt (1832–1920) opened his laboratory at the University of Leipzig. Wundt had been trained to practice medicine, had studied physiology, and had served as a laboratory assistant to the great Helmholtz. He also held an academic position in philosophy. Wundt was a scientist-philosopher with an interest in such psychological processes as sensation, perception, attention, word associations, and emotions.

Although others might be credited with founding psychology, Wundt receives credit for getting psychology recognized as a separate science. Wundt wrote in the preface of the first edition of his *Principles of Physiological Psychology*, “The work I here present is an attempt to mark out a new domain of science.” Clearly, Wundt’s intention was to define the parameters of a new science.

It is no accident that psychology began in Germany. Toward the end of the nineteenth century, the zeitgeist (loosely translated as the intellectual “spirit of the times”) in Germany favored the emergence of a new science. Experimental physiology was well established in Germany, which was not the case in France or England. Biology and physiology were stressed in Germany, while physics and chemistry were stressed in France and England. In short, the climate was perfect in Germany for the emergence of the new science of psychology.

For Wundt, psychology was the scientific study of the mind. Under carefully controlled laboratory conditions, Wundt and his assistants tested and re-tested his hypotheses. The work performed in Wundt’s laboratory focused on the discovery of basic elements of thought. Beyond that, Wundt wanted to see how elements of thought were related to one another and to events in the physical environment the latter notion picked up from the work of Fechner. Wundt wanted to systematically describe the basic elements of mental life. Because the psychologists in Wundt’s laboratory were mostly interested in describing the structure of the mind and its operations, Wundt’s approach to psychology is referred to as structuralism.

Along with the careful observation and experimentation, an important method used to dissect mental activity into its component parts was introspection. Introspection required a great deal of training as individuals were asked to describe in great detail their basic sensations,

thoughts and feelings of conscious experience when presented with a particular stimulus. For example, if one of Wundt's assistants were introspecting on an apple, it would not be enough to say, "Oh yes, that's an apple — a red one." Instead, one would have to describe the actual sensations experienced and the feelings elicited by those experiences.

A student of Wundt's, Edward Titchner, attempted to export structuralism to the United States when he took a position at Cornell University. However, structuralism never caught on in America as it had in Germany because the zeitgeist in America was much different than Germany's. America in the nineteenth century was an expanding nation. People were most concerned about adapting to new environments. Quite simply, Americans were not interested in a psychology that focused so much attention on dissecting mental activity into components, or elements.

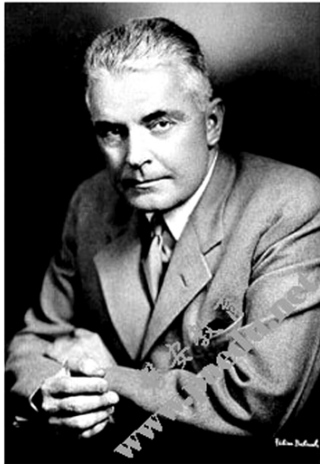
As Wundt's new laboratory was flourishing in Germany, an American philosopher at Harvard University, William James (1842–1910), was opposed to the type of psychology that was being studied in Leipzig. James agreed that psychology should study consciousness and should use scientific methods to do so. He defined psychology as "the science of mental life", a definition very similar to Wundt's. Still, he thought the German — trained psychologists were off base trying to discover the contents and structure of the human mind. James argued instead that consciousness could not be broken down into elements. He believed consciousness to be dynamic, a stream of events, personal, changing, and continuous. According to James, psychology should therefore be concerned not with the structure of the mind but with its function. The focus of psychology should be on the practical uses of mental life. In this regard, James was responding to Darwin's lead. To survive requires that a species adapt to its environment. How does the mind function to help organisms adapt and survive in the world?

James's practical approach to psychology found favor in North America, and a new type of psychology emerged, largely at the University of Chicago. Psychologists there continued to focus on the mind, but emphasized its adaptive functions. This approach is known as functionalism. Functionalists still relied on experimental methods and introduced the study of animals to psychology, again reflecting Darwin's influence. One of the most popular textbooks of this era was *The Animal Mind* by Margaret Floy Washburn (1871–1939), the first woman to be awarded a Ph. D. in psychology. She addressed questions of animal consciousness and intelligence. One of the characteristics of functionalism was its willingness to be open to a wide range of topics — as long as they related in some way to mental life, adaptation, and practical application. The origins of child, abnormal, educational, social, and industrial psychology can be traced to this approach.

In the early days of American psychology, societal pressure was such that earning a graduate-level education, or any academic appointment, was exceedingly difficult for women, no matter how capable. Still, one woman, Mary Calkins (1863–1930), so impressed William James that he allowed her into his classes, although Harvard would not allow her to enroll formally (nor would Harvard award her a Ph. D., for which she had met all academic

requirements). Mary Calkins went on to do significant experimental work on human learning and memory and, in 1905, was the first woman elected president of the American Psychological Association (Madigan & O'Hara, 1992). Christine Ladd-Franklin (1847–1930) did receive a Ph.D., but not until 40 years after it was earned and Johns Hopkins University lifted its ban on awarding advanced degrees to women. In the interim, she authored an influential theory on how humans perceive color.

Behaviorism



While John B. Watson (1878–1958) B. F. Skinner (1904–1990)

While John B. Watson (1878–1958) was a student at Furman University, his mother died, thus relieving one of the pressures he felt to enter the ministry. He enrolled instead as a graduate student in psychology at the University of Chicago. As an undergraduate, he had read about the new science of psychology, and he thought Chicago, where many leading functionalists were, would be the best place to study. However, he was soon disappointed. It turned out he had little sympathy or talent for attempts to study mental processes with scientific methods. He was not very good at giving introspective reports and failed to see how they could be useful. Even so, he stayed on at the university as a psychology major, studying the behavior of animals.

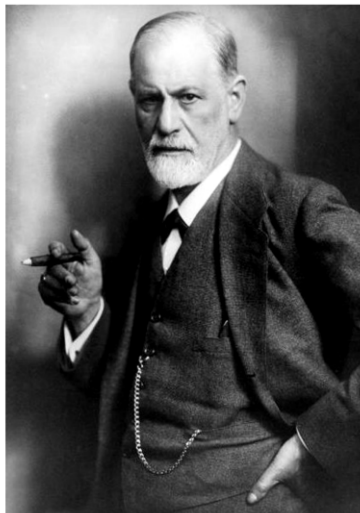
With his new Ph. D. in hand, Watson went to Johns Hopkins University, where, almost single-handedly, he changed both the focus and the definition of psychology. Watson argued that if psychology was to become a mature, productive science, it had to give up the preoccupation with consciousness and mental life that characterized functionalism and concentrate instead on events that can be observed and measured. He felt psychology should give up the study of the mind and study behavior. The new approach became known as behaviorism.

Neither Watson nor the behaviorists who followed him claimed that people do not think or have ideas. What Watson did say was that such processes were not the proper subjects of scientific investigation. After all, no one else can share the thoughts or feelings of the next person. Watson argued that the study of psychology should leave private, mental events to the philosophers and theologians and instead make psychology as rigorously scientific as possible.

Watson once referred to behaviorism as common sense grown articulate. Behaviorism is a study of what people do.

No one has epitomized the behaviorist approach to psychology more than B.F. Skinner (1904–1990). Skinner took Watson's ideas and spent a long and productive career in psychology trying to demonstrate that the behaviors of organisms can be predicted and controlled by studying relationships between their observable responses and the circumstances under which those responses occur. What mattered for Skinner is how behaviors are modified by events in the environment. Behaviorists did not address the question of why a rat turns left in a maze by talking about what the rat wanted or what the rat was thinking at the time. Rather, they tried to specify the environmental conditions (the presence of food, perhaps) under which a rat is likely to turn left. For more than 50 years, Skinner consistently held to the argument that psychology should be defined as the science of behavior.

Psychoanalytic Psychology



Sigmund Freud (1856–1939)

Sigmund Freud, the father of psychoanalysis, was a physiologist, medical doctor, psychologist and influential thinker of the early twentieth century. Working initially in close collaboration with Joseph Breuer, Freud elaborated the theory that the mind is a complex energy-system, the structural investigation of which is the proper province of psychology. He articulated and refined the concepts of the unconscious, infantile sexuality and repression, and he proposed a tripartite account of the mind's structure — all as part of a radically new conceptual and therapeutic frame of reference for the understanding of human psychological development and the treatment of abnormal mental conditions. Notwithstanding the multiple manifestations of psychoanalysis as it exists today, it can in almost all fundamental respects be traced directly back to Freud's original work.

Freud's innovative treatment of human actions, dreams, and indeed of cultural artifacts as invariably possessing implicit symbolic significance has proven to be extraordinarily fruitful, and has had massive implications for a wide variety of fields including psychology, anthropology,

semiotics, and artistic creativity and appreciation. However, Freud’s most important and frequently re - iterated claim, that with psychoanalysis he had invented a successful science of the mind, remains the subject of much critical debate and controversy. It is famous for the ideas and theory from him: The Theory of the Unconscious. Infantile Sexuality, Neuroses and The Structure of the Mind and Psychoanalysis as a Therapy.

Critical Evaluation of Freud Early in the twentieth century, Sigmund Freud (1856–1939), a practicing physician in Vienna, became intrigued with what were then called “nervous disorders”. He was struck by how little was known about these disorders and, as a result, he chose to specialize in identifying and treating “nervous disorders”, a discipline now called psychiatry.

Freud was not a laboratory scientist. Most of his insights about the mind came from his careful observations of his patients and himself. Freud’s works were particularly perplexing to the behaviorists. Just as they were arguing against a psychology that concerned itself with consciousness, here came Freud declaring that we are often subject to forces of which we are not aware. Our feelings, actions, and thoughts (A, B, and C) are often under the influence of the unconscious mind, wrote Freud, and many of our behaviors are expressions of instinctive strivings. Freud’s views were clearly at odds with Watson’s. We call the approach that traces its origin to Sigmund Freud and that emphasizes innate strivings and the unconscious mind psychoanalytic psychology. Psychoanalytic psychology can be viewed as the beginning of modern clinical psychology.

Humanistic Psychology



Carl Rogers (1902–1987)



Abraham Maslow (1908–1970)

In many respects, the approach we call humanistic psychology arose as a reaction against behaviorism and psychoanalysis. The leaders of this approach were Carl Rogers (1902–1987) and Abraham Maslow (1908–1970). Humanistic psychology takes the position that the individual, or the self, should be the central concern of psychology. If psychologists concern themselves only with stimuli in the environment and observable responses to those stimuli, they leave the person out of the middle; that’s dehumanizing.

Such matters as caring, intention, concern, will, love, and hate are real phenomena and worthy of scientific investigation whether they can be directly observed or not. Attempts to understand people without considering such processes are doomed. To the humanistic psychologists, the Freudian reliance on instincts was too controlling. Our biology: not withstanding, we are — or can be — in control of our destinies. Rogers, Maslow, and their intellectual heirs emphasized the possibility of personal growth and achievement. This approach led Rogers to develop a system of psychotherapy, and Maslow to develop theory of human motivation.

Contemporary Approaches to Psychology

Psychology has come a long way since those few students gathered around Wilhelm Wundt in his laboratory at Leipzig back in the late 1800s. There are more than 500,000 psychologists at work today. The American Psychological Association (APA) claims more than 159,000 members and list over 50 divisions areas of specialization to which its members belong.

Here we review some of the more common perspectives or points of view that guide psychologists in their work. Some have a history dating back to psychology's early days, while some are much more contemporary in origin.

The Biological Approach

Underlying all of our thoughts, feelings, and behaviors is a living biological organism, filled with tissue, fibers, nerves, and chemicals. Psychologists who take a biological perspective seek to explain psychological functioning in terms of genetics and the operation of the nervous system, the brain in particular. Their argument is that, ultimately, every single thing you do, from the simplest blink of an eye to the deepest, most profound thought you've ever had, can be explained by biochemistry. To be sure, experience may modify or alter one's biological structure. Must there not be some changes that take place in our brains as memories are formed? Even most types of cancer are not directly inherited. That is, they do not come from our genes, but from substances to which we are exposed. Psychologists who subscribe to a biological point of view might look at violence in schools as a reflection of some inherited predisposition, some hormonal imbalance, or, perhaps, some problem with the activity of a section of the lower brain — a section deep in the center of the brain known to be involved in raw, primitive emotions, such as fear and rage.

The Evolutionary Approach

Yes, psychologists with this point of view are closely allied with those who have a biological perspective. However, they take a broader, long-range view of human and animal behaviors. Although this tradition can trace its roots to Darwin, it is one of the newer perspectives in psychology. Here, the argument is that we should, explain behaviors and mental processes in terms of how they promote the species' survival and help members of the species adapt to their environments. It is something of an oversimplification, but the point is that we do what we do in order to pass our genes along to those who will survive us. We help others on the chance that

they will help us later or that they will assist our offspring if they should need help. An evolutionary approach may suggest that members of the human race are becoming more aggressive (even violent), because in the long run, more aggressive behaviors are adaptive.

The Psychodynamic, or Psychoanalytic Approach

As you might have guessed, this approach is one of psychology's oldest, originating with Sigmund Freud and his students. Psychoanalysis as Freud practiced it is not as common today as it was 50 years ago, but many psychologists approach their subject matter with many Freudian notions in mind. What are some of the basic premises of this approach today? Much of one's behavior as an adult has its roots or foundation in early childhood experiences. Behaviors and mental processes often reflect an interaction, or downright conflict, among unconscious urges, drives, instincts, and the perceptions of societal pressures. As an adolescent, one's body and hormones provide a message ("having sex is a good thing") while parents and society are telling them something else ("sex is dirty, bad, and sinful"). School violence might be at least partially explained in terms of inadequate nurturing in young childhood and feelings of isolation turned outward.

The Behavioral Approach

John B. Watson first brought behaviorism to psychology and B. F. Skinner championed it. Their approach to psychology no longer dominates (as it did from, roughly, 1920 to 1970), but focusing one's study on observable behavior is still a popular point of view. A basic premise of this perspective is that who we are, what we do, think, and feel is the result of our unique experiences in the world. Yes, we maybe born with certain inherited predispositions, but to try to explain what we do in terms of evolution or biology or any sort of inner consciousness is silly. We do not need "theories of personality"; we need only a better understanding of learning. If you want people to stop littering, don't try to make them feel guilty or threaten them, but reinforce their appropriate behaviors. Behavior-based psychotherapy takes the position that if one can change unfortunate behaviors, unpleasant feelings and disruptive thoughts will change as well. On the other hand, people, even high school students, can learn to react to upsetting events in their lives with aggression, horrific, openly violent, aggression.

The Cognitive Approach

We have seen that cognitions include such mental contents as ideas, beliefs, knowledge, and understanding. Those psychologists who favor a cognitive approach argue that the focus of our attention should be on how an organism processes information about itself and the world in which it lives. Just what do we believe? Where did these beliefs come from? Why are we able to remember some things, yet forget others? How are perceptions turned into memories? How do existing memories affect what we perceive? How do we make decisions? How do we solve problems? Are there better ways to make decisions or to solve problems? How do humans acquire their language, and once acquired, how do we produce language utterances in order to communicate with others? Why do French children acquire their language so easily, while I struggle so to learn it? What is intelligence? Are there different ways to be intelligent? Might