

● 大学英语拓展课程系列

拓展课程



Advanced Psychology through Diagrams

牛津心理学英语图示教程

Grahame Hill



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耿文秀 注释

图书在版编目 (CIP) 数据

牛津心理学英语图示教程 / (英) 希尔 (Hill, G.) 编; 耿文秀注释.

—上海: 上海外语教育出版社, 2014

(大学英语拓展课程系列)

ISBN 978-7-5446-3584-4

I. ①牛… II. ①希… ②耿… 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 (2013) 第313436号

图字: 09-1999-312号

出版发行: 上海外语教育出版社

(上海外国语大学内) 邮编: 200083

电 话: 021-65425300 (总机)

电子邮箱: bookinfo@sflep.com.cn

网 址: <http://www.sflep.com.cn> <http://www.sflep.com>

责任编辑: 李法敏

印 刷: 上海市崇明县裕安印刷厂

开 本: 890×1240 1/16 印张 17.75 字数 578千字

版 次: 2014年4月第1版 2014年4月第1次印刷

印 数: 3 100册

书 号: ISBN 978-7-5446-3584-4 / B · 0030

定 价: 38.00元

本版图书如有印装质量问题, 可向本社调换

OXFORD REVISION GUIDES

A Level

Advanced

PSYCHOLOGY

through diagrams

Grahame Hill

Oxford University Press

Oxford University Press, Great Clarendon Street, Oxford OX2 6DP

*Oxford New York
Athens Auckland Bangkok Bogota Buenos Aires
Calcutta Cape Town Chennai Dar es Salaam
Delhi Florence Hong Kong Istanbul Karachi
Kuala Lumpur Madrid Melbourne Mexico City
Mumbai Nairobi Paris São Paulo Singapore
Taipei Tokyo Toronto Warsaw*

and associated companies in
Berlin Ibadan

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First published 1998
Reprinted (with minor corrections) 1999.
ISBN 0 19 917168 8

For Valérie Férec – it would not have been possible without you!
I would also like to thank all the following for their support:
my family, my friends at the Sixth Form College Colchester
(especially David, Morag, Rosemary, and Sue), and my students

This edition of *Advanced Psychology Through Diagrams* is published by arrangement with Oxford University Press.

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仅供在中华人民共和国境内销售。

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出版说明

教育部最新颁布的《大学英语课程教学要求》将大学英语的教学目标确定为“培养学生的英语综合应用能力，特别是听说能力，使他们在今后学习、工作和社会交往中能用英语有效地进行交际，同时增强其自主学习能力，提高综合文化素养，以适应我国社会发展和国际交流的需要”，并提出：“将综合英语类、语言技能类、语言应用类、语言文化类和专业英语类等必修课程和选修课程有机结合，确保不同层次的学生在英语应用能力方面得到充分的训练和提高。”《大学英语课程教学要求》明确要求大学英语教学中开设选修课，以满足大学生的实际需求。

依据《大学英语课程教学要求》，上海外语教育出版社邀请国内外英语教学专家开发编写了选修教材，通过教材的出版引领、促进了大学英语选修课程设置的发展，丰富了我国大学英语教学。这些教材品种丰富，涵盖面广，包括以下多个系列：大学英语应用提高阶段专业英语系列教材、大学英语综合应用能力选修课系列教材、职场英语选修教程系列、大学目标英语、牛津专业英语基础丛书等。这些年来，全国数百所高校使用了这些教材，部分老师对教材的内容和编写形式提出了宝贵的建议，为我们进一步完善教材提供了实践依据。

虽然很多高校多年来一直尝试开设选修课，专家学者也进行了理论研究，但目前此类课程在大学英语教学中所占比重并不大，仍处于探索阶段。多数教学专家对大学英语选修课程的具体教学目标和教学内容范围未形成统一认识，教育主管部门亦未出台具体的选修课教学要求。为了进一步推动大学英语选修课教学的发展，外教社在多年选修课教材使用情况调研的基础上，结合专家学者的最新研究成果和建议，充分考虑我国目前的大学英语教学现状、师资条件、实际需求等因素，重新策划编写了“大学英语拓展课程系列”，该系列教材包括EAP、ESP和EOP三个子系列。

- EAP (English for Academic Purposes)

学术英语类，侧重高级水平英语听、说、读、写、译等技能的培养，为大学生出国留学、攻读研究生、进行科研等学术活动打下更扎实的英语基础。此类课程包括：演讲听说、跨文化交际、文学赏析、学术英语写作等。适合需要继续在学术上深造的大学生使用。

- ESP (English for Specific Purposes)

专业英语类，侧重提升专业英语能力，在培养学生听、说、读、写、译等基本语言技能的基础上，教授与该专业相关的英语词汇和表达，并尽可能传授专业知识，以使大学生轻松通过英语媒介获取本专业知识和信息。此类课程适合相关专业学生学习，针对性强。

- EOP (English for Occupational Purposes)

职场英语类，侧重提升职场英语能力，为大学生将来在英语环境中工作打下扎实的职场交际基本功。此类课程多数适合所有大学生使用，有部分教程与专业结合，适合相应专业学生使用。

除了重新修订已出版的教材外，我们还通过邀请更多海内外英语教学专家参与编写、和国外出版社合作出版等方式，扩大本系列教材的选题规模，以满足各专业大学生的学习需求。本系列教材具有时代感强、实用性强、课堂可操作性强等特点，相信会给我国大学英语教学带来新风向。

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What is psychology?

DEFINITIONS

The word 'Psychology' is derived from two Greek roots: 'Psyche', meaning 'mind' or 'soul' and 'Logos', meaning 'study of'. Psychology, therefore, literally means 'study of the mind'. However, a more recent definition by Atkinson et al (1991) suggests that psychology is:

'The scientific study of behaviour and mental processes'

Just giving this simple definition, however, is a bit misleading, since psychologists now and throughout their history have not only disagreed about the definition of psychology, but have also strongly disagreed about *what* should be studied in the subject and *how* it should be studied.

THE HISTORY OF PSYCHOLOGY

WHERE DID PSYCHOLOGY COME FROM?

Psychology developed from three main areas of study:

PHILOSOPHY

- Many of the problems which psychology has investigated were first most clearly outlined by Greek philosophers such as Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle in the 5th century BC. Two more recent philosophical influences on the development of psychology as a science were:
 - 1 **Empiricism** - which argued that humans should only measure data that is *objectively observable*, such as behaviour.
 - 2 **Positivism** - which argued that the *methods* and *principles of science* should be applied to human behaviour.

BIOLOGY

- Biology has had two important influences:
- 1 **Evolution** - Darwin's suggestion that humans have *evolved* from other animals. The discoveries in *genetics* that followed from his evolutionary theory have had many important implications for the study and understanding of behaviour.
 - 2 **Physiology** - the discoveries, mostly by the medical profession, of the structure and function of the brain, nervous, and endocrine systems have significantly contributed to the understanding of behaviour.

PHYSICS

- A subject that because of its great success has been adopted as the ideal model by scientists in psychology, who have borrowed its *scientific methods* and *principles*.
- Physicists, such as Fechner, started applying their subject to human behaviour and experience (psychophysics) in the nineteenth century, with some success.

WHEN DID PSYCHOLOGY START?

The date **1879** is usually said to be the start of psychology as a **separate scientific discipline**, since it was when Wilhelm Wundt created the first psychology laboratory in Leipzig. Wundt is, therefore, regarded as the 'founding father' of psychology, although Americans tend to suggest that William James should have this honour since his 1890 book (which took 12 years to write) entitled *Principles of Psychology* was a major landmark in psychology's literature and he began teaching a course on the relationship between physiology and psychology at Harvard University in 1875.

HOW DID PSYCHOLOGY DEVELOP?

- **Structuralism** - was the first approach to investigating psychology, pioneered by Wundt himself, who thought that the object of psychological investigation should be the *conscious mind*, and that it should be studied by *introspection* (looking inwards at one's own mental experience) in order to *break it down* into its component parts (such as images, sensations and feelings) like the science of chemistry had done with chemicals. One structuralist, Titchener, claimed there were a total of 46,708 basic sensations that combined to form the structure of the human mind, but the approach was very limited in its ability to explain and was replaced by functionalism.
- **Functionalism** - the approach William James advocated. James was influenced by Darwin's views and argued that the workings of the mind are functional, to survive and adapt, so we should investigate *what behaviour and thoughts are for*. Many of James's insights remain valid today, but functionalism was superseded by the next two very powerful approaches that both started around the turn of the century.
- **Psychoanalysis** - was in fact a method of *therapy* developed by Sigmund Freud in Austria, but in many major books, such as *The interpretation of dreams* (1900), Freud began describing in detail an underlying theory of the human mind and behaviour that has had an enormous (and controversial) impact on psychology. Freud argued that the

proper object of psychological investigation should be the *unconscious mind*, and that our behaviour is determined by processes of which we are not aware.

- **Behaviourism** - Behaviourists, such as John Watson, were extremely critical of all the approaches that concerned themselves with 'minds', and proposed that psychology should only investigate *observable behaviour* if it wanted to be an objective science. This approach dominated experimental psychology until the 1950s, when a strong resurgence of interest in the 'mind' developed in the form of the cognitive and the humanistic approaches, which suggested that behaviourism ignored all the most important and interesting things that go on in our heads.
- **Cognitive psychology** - aims to investigate the mind by using *computer information processing* ideas to arrive at testable *models* of how the brain works, and then applying *scientific methods* to confirm these models. The cognitive approach has enjoyed much success and is a very dominant one in psychology today.
- The **Humanistic approach**, however, has had less of an impact on psychology, since it has deliberately adopted a *less scientific* view of the human mind by arguing that psychology should focus on each *individual's conscious experience* and *aims* in life.
- The **Biological approach** has advanced *evolutionary, physiological, and genetic* explanations for human behaviour throughout the history of psychology.

The psychoanalytic approach to psychology

ORIGINS AND HISTORY

- The psychoanalytic approach was started and developed mainly by **Sigmund Freud**, a Viennese doctor who specialised in neurology. Freud became interested in hysteria - the manifestation of physical symptoms without physical causes - and became convinced that **unconscious mental causes** were responsible not just for this disorder but for all disorders and even 'normal' personality. Freud developed techniques for **treating** the unconscious causes of mental disorders and built up an underlying explanatory **theory** of how human personality and abnormality develop from childhood.
- Freud's theory and approach were influenced by the technology of the time (such as the steam engine), and his early work with Charcot, the Parisian hypnotist, and Breuer the pioneer of the cathartic method. Freud's psychoanalytic approach had a great impact on psychology and psychiatry, and was developed in different ways by other psychoanalysts such as Jung, Adler, Klein, Anna Freud (his daughter), and Erickson.



Sigmund Freud (1856-1939)

'...I set myself the task of bringing to light what human beings keep hidden within them... the task of making conscious the most hidden recesses of the mind is one which it is quite possible to accomplish.'

ASSUMPTIONS

Psychoanalysis proposes:

- **Unconscious processes** - the major causes of behaviour come from that part of the mind which we have no direct awareness of.
- **Psychic determinism** - all we say and do has a cause (usually unconscious), even slips of the tongue or 'Freudian slip'.
- **Hydraulic drives** - behaviour is motivated by the two basic instinctual drives, the sex drive from Eros the life instinct, and the aggression drive from Thanatos the death instinct. The drives create psychic energy which will build up (like steam in a steam engine) and create tension and anxiety if it cannot be released in some form.
- **Psychodynamic conflict** - different parts of the unconscious mind are in constant struggle as the rational ego and moralistic superego seek to control the id expressing its sexual and aggressive urges.
- **Stages of development** - personality is shaped as the drives are modified by different conflicts at different times in childhood.

METHODS OF INVESTIGATION

Freud used the **case study** method when treating his clients (seeing them individually several times a week for many months), and **deeply** analysed and **interpreted** all they said and did. Two techniques Freud used for investigating the unconscious were:

- **Free association** - involving the uninhibited expression of thought associations, no matter how bizarre or embarrassing, from the client to the analyst.
- **Dream analysis** - the 'royal road to the unconscious'. The analyst attempts to decode the symbols and unravel the hidden meaning (the latent content) of a dream from the dreamer's report (the manifest content).

AREAS OF EXPLANATION

Freud used his theory to explain a vast number of topics, such as:

- **Personality development** - due to fixation/defence mechanisms.
 - **Moral/gender development** - the result of the Oedipus complex.
 - **Aggression** - caused by hydraulic drives and displacement.
 - **Abnormality** - the consequence of early trauma and repression.
 - **Memory** - Forgetting caused by repression.
- + Slips of the tongue, the shaping of civilisation and customs, etc.

PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS

The purpose of psychoanalysis was as a therapy to treat mental disorder. Once the unconscious cause of disorder was identified through dream interpretation, etc., then a cure could be effected through catharsis - discharging the repressed emotions associated with problems by getting them 'out in the open' to be discussed/resolved.

STRENGTHS

- Freud's ideas made a large impact on psychology and psychiatry and are still discussed and used today, around a 100 years after he started developing them.
- Freud regarded case studies like 'Little Hans' and 'Anna O' as firm empirical support for his theory, and thought his belief in determinism and detailed collection of data were scientific.
- Freud's theory has had some experimental support in certain areas, such as repression and fixation.
- Psychoanalysis has enormous explanatory power and has something to say on a huge variety of topics.

WEAKNESSES

Many psychologists today reject psychoanalysis because:

- It has been accused of being **unrefutable** (incapable of being proved wrong) and so **theoretically unscientific** - it seems to explain everything but predicts very little.
- Freud's methods have been regarded as unscientific because he based his theory on studying an 'abnormal' sample of people, using the case study method and techniques that were not fully objective and, therefore, open to bias.
- Much experimental research carried out on Freudian hypotheses has failed to support his theory and ideas.
- The success of psychoanalytic therapy has been criticised.

The behaviourist approach to psychology

ORIGINS AND HISTORY

- The behaviourist approach was influenced by the philosophy of **empiricism** (which argues that knowledge comes from the environment via the senses, since humans are like a 'tabula rasa', or blank slate, at birth) and the physical sciences (which emphasise scientific and objective methods of investigation).
- **Watson** started the behaviourist movement in 1913 when he wrote an article entitled 'Psychology as the behaviourist views it', which set out its main principles and assumptions. Drawing on earlier work by Pavlov, behaviourists such as Watson, Thorndike and Skinner proceeded to develop theories of **learning** (such as classical and operant conditioning) that they attempted to use to explain virtually **all** behaviour.
- The behaviourist approach dominated experimental psychology until the late 1950s, when its assumptions and methods became increasingly criticised by ethologists and cognitive psychologists. The behaviourist theories have been modified to provide more realistic explanations of how learning can occur, for example by psychologists such as Bandura with his social learning theory.



John Watson

'Give me a dozen healthy infants... and my own specified world to bring them up in and I'll guarantee to take any one at random and train him to become any type of specialist I might select - doctor, lawyer... and yes, even beggarman and thief.'

ASSUMPTIONS

The behaviourists believed:

- the majority of all behaviour is **learned** from the **environment** after birth (behaviourism takes the nurture side of the nature-nurture debate), and so a psychology should investigate the **laws** and **products** of learning
- behaviour is **determined** by the environment, since we are merely the total of all our past learning experiences, freewill is an illusion.
- only **observable** behaviour not minds should be studied if psychology is to be an objective science, since we cannot see into other people's minds, and if we ask them about their thoughts they may lie, not know, or just be mistaken.

METHODS OF INVESTIGATION

The behaviourists adopted a very nomothetic approach, using strict laboratory experimentation, usually conducted on animals such as rats or pigeons. Animals were tested because the behaviourists believed:

- the laws of learning were universal
- there was only a quantitative difference between animals and humans
- animals are practically and ethically more convenient to test

AREAS OF EXPLANATION

The behaviourists' discoveries concerning the laws of learning were vigorously applied to explain many aspects of behaviour, such as:

- **Language acquisition**, e.g. Skinner's theory.
- **Moral development**, e.g. conditioned emotional responses of guilt and conscience.
- **Attraction**, e.g. Byrne & Clore's reinforcement affect model.
- **Abnormality**, e.g. the classical conditioning of phobias and their treatment.

+ aggression, prejudice, gender role identity, etc.

PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS

- The behaviourist learning theory approach has produced many practical applications for education (such as programmed learning) and the treatment of those suffering behavioural disturbances (such as systematic desensitisation for phobias, behaviour shaping for autism, and token economies for institutionalised patients).
- Operant conditioning principles have been used in training animals to perform tasks, from circus animals to guide dogs.
- Watson applied behaviourist theory to both child rearing and advertising, while Skinner offered many suggestions regarding the large scale manipulation of behaviour in society in his books such as *Beyond Freedom and Dignity* and *Walden Two*.

STRENGTHS

Behaviourism contributed to psychology in many ways:

- Behaviourism was very scientific and its experimental methodology left a lasting impression on the subject.
- It provided strong counter-arguments to the nature side of the nature-nurture debate.
- The approach is very parsimonious, explaining a great variety of phenomena using only a few simple (classical and operant) principles.
- Behaviourism has produced many practical applications, some of which have been very effective.

WEAKNESSES

Behaviourist views have been criticised by other approaches for a number of reasons.

- Ethologists argued that the behaviourists ignored innate, built-in biases in learning due to evolution, but also disagreed with the behaviourists' use of animals and laboratory experimentation, saying that there is a biologically qualitative difference between humans and other animals and that experiments only demonstrate artificial, not natural learning.
- Cognitive psychologists think that behaviourism ignores important mental processes involved in learning; while the humanistic approach disliked their rejection of conscious mental experience.

The humanistic approach to psychology

ORIGINS AND HISTORY

- The humanistic movement developed in America in the early 1960s, and was termed the third force in psychology since it aimed to replace the two main approaches in the subject at that time, behaviourism and psychoanalysis. Influenced by gestalt psychology's idea of studying **whole units**, and existential philosophy with its belief in **conscious free will**, humanists argued that behaviourism's artificial and dehumanising approach and psychoanalysis's gloomy determinism were insufficient to provide a complete psychology.
- The humanistic approach aimed to investigate all the uniquely **human** aspects of **experience** such as love, hope, creativity, etc. and emphasised the importance of the individual's interaction with the environment. Humanists, such as **Maslow**, believed that every individual has the need to **self-actualise** or reach their potential, and **Rogers** developed client-centred therapy to help individuals in this process of self-actualisation.



Carl Rogers

'Humanistic psychology has as its ultimate goal the preparation of a complete description of what it means to be alive as a human being.' Bugental (1967)

ASSUMPTIONS

Bugental (1967), the first president of the American Association for Humanistic Psychology, described some of its fundamental assumptions:

- A proper understanding of human nature can only be gained from **studying humans**, not other animals.
- Psychology should research areas that are **meaningful** and important to human existence, not neglect them because they are too difficult. Psychology should be **applied** to enrich human life.
- Psychology should study **internal experience** as well as external behaviour and consider that individuals can show some degree of **free will**.
- Psychology should study the **individual** case (an idiographic method) rather than the average performance of groups (a nomothetic approach).
- In general, humanistic psychologists assume that the **whole person** should be studied in their environmental **context**.

METHODS OF INVESTIGATION

Humanists take a phenomenological approach, investigating the individual's conscious experience of the world. For this reason they employ the idiographic case study method, and use a variety of individualistic techniques such as

- flexible open ended interviews.
- the Q-sort technique, where the participant is given one hundred different statements on cards, such as 'I don't trust my emotions' or 'I have an attractive personality' which they have to sort into piles for personal relevance

AREAS OF EXPLANATION

The humanistic approach has been applied to relatively few areas of psychology compared to other approaches. The main areas of explanation have been in

- **personality/self identity**, e.g. Rogers's self theory
- **motivation**, e.g. Maslow's hierarchy of needs and self-actualisation
- **abnormality**, e.g. due to imposed conditions of worth by others or the inability to accept the true self. Humanists are against the nomothetic classification of abnormality

PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS

The humanistic approach's primary application has been to therapeutic treatment for anybody suffering 'problems with living'. Some humanistic therapies include

- client-centred therapy - whereby the client is encouraged to develop positive self-regard and overcome mismatch between their perceived self, true self, and ideal self
- gestalt therapy - developed by Fritz Perls, the aim is to help the client become a 'whole' (gestalt) person by getting them to accept every aspect of themselves

STRENGTHS

The humanistic approach has contributed to psychology by

- re-emphasising the need to study consciousness and human experience for a complete study of the subject
- serving as a valuable agent of criticism against the extremes of the earlier major approaches
- highlighting the value of more individualistic and idiographic methods of study, particularly in the areas of personality and abnormality
- emphasising the importance of self-actualisation, responsibility, freedom of choice, and social context in therapy

WEAKNESSES

Humanistic psychology has not, however, had the significant impact on mainstream academic psychology that the other approaches have. This is probably because humanists deliberately take a less scientific approach to studying humans since

- their belief in free will is in opposition to the deterministic laws of science
- they adopt a more idiographic approach, seeking the more unique aspects of individuals, rather than producing generalised laws of behaviour that apply to everyone
- the issues they investigate, such as consciousness and emotion, are amongst the most difficult to objectively study

The cognitive approach to psychology

ORIGINS AND HISTORY

- The cognitive approach began to revolutionise psychology in the late 1950s and early 1960s, to become the dominant paradigm in the subject by the 1970s. Interest in mental processes had been gradually resurrected through the work of people like Tolman and Piaget, but it was the arrival of the **computer** that gave cognitive psychology the terminology and metaphor it needed to investigate human minds.
- Cognitive psychology compares the human mind to a computer, suggesting that we too are **information processors** and that it is possible and desirable to study the **internal mental processes** that lie between the stimuli we receive and the responses we make. Cognition means 'knowing' and cognitive processes refer to the ways in which knowledge is gained, used and retained. Therefore, cognitive psychologists have studied perception, attention, memory, thinking, language, and problem solving.
- Cognitive psychology has influenced and integrated with many other approaches and areas of study to produce, for example, social learning theory, cognitive neuropsychology, and artificial intelligence.



Jerome Bruner

'...cognition refers to all those processes by which sensory input is transformed, reduced, elaborated, stored, recovered and used... cognition is involved in everything a human being might possibly do.'
Neisser (1966)

ASSUMPTIONS

Cognitive psychologists assume that

- mental processes **can** and **should** be investigated scientifically
- **models** of psychological functions can be proposed
- **research** on these models can be carried out to confirm, refute or modify them by testing observable behaviour and conscious report
- cognitive processes **actively** organise and manipulate information that we receive - humans are not merely passive responders to their environment

METHODS OF INVESTIGATION

Cognitive psychologists mostly employ a nomothetic approach to discover human cognitive processes, but have also adopted idiographic techniques at times:

- Laboratory experimentation - for example, many subjects have been exposed to memory tests under strictly controlled conditions.
- Case study - Piaget studied the cognitive development of his children using the clinical interview method.

AREAS OF EXPLANATION

Cognitive psychologists have sought to explain:

- **memory**, e.g. Atkinson and Shiffrin's multi-store model of the input, storage and loss of information, etc.
- **perception**, e.g. Gregory's theory on the role of mental processes in influencing/organising visual stimuli
- **attention**, e.g. Broadbent's filter model
- **artificial intelligence**, e.g. Rumelhart and McClelland's parallel distributed network models
- **social cognition**, e.g. the effects of stereotypes on interpersonal perception
- **cognitive development**, e.g. Piaget's stage theory of cognitive development

PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS

Cognitive psychology has had a broad range of applications, for example to

- **memory** - to help improve memory through mnemonic devices or to aid the police in eyewitness testimony
- **education** - Piaget's theory has been applied to improve educational techniques
- **therapy** - such as the use of Ellis's rational emotive therapy to restructure faulty thinking and perceptions in depression, for example. When combined to form cognitive-behavioural techniques, effectiveness is improved
- **personality assessment** - e.g. Kelley's personal construct measurement

STRENGTHS

Cognitive psychology is probably the most dominant approach today:

- It investigates many areas of interest in psychology that had been neglected by behaviourism; yet, unlike psychoanalysis and humanism, it investigates them using more rigorous scientific methods.
- In contrast to the biological approach, it bases its explanations firmly at a functional, psychological level, rather than resorting to reductionism to explain human behaviour.
- The approach has provided explanations of many aspects of human behaviour and has had useful practical applications.
- The cognitive approach has combined with other approaches to strengthen its explanations and usefulness, e.g. cognitive neuropsychology.

WEAKNESSES

Cognitive models have been accused of being

- over simplistic - ignoring the huge complexity of human functioning compared to computer functioning
- unrealistic and over hypothetical - ignoring the biological influences and grounding of mental processes
- too cold - ignoring the emotional life of humans, their conscious experience and possible use of freewill

The biological approach to psychology

ORIGINS AND HISTORY

- Sometimes known as the physiological, biopsychological, neurophysiological, nativist (considering nature rather than nurture) or innate approach.
- The biological approach to psychological matters has integrated with and run parallel to the rest of psychological thought since early Greek times - the Greek physician Galen suggested that personality and temperament may be linked to the levels of body fluids such as blood and bile in the body.
- As knowledge of human anatomy, physiology, biochemistry, and medicine developed, important insights for human behaviour and experience were gained. Penfield for example mapped the role of various areas of the cerebral cortex through microelectrode stimulation with conscious patients. Sperry investigated the effects of splitting the cerebral hemispheres on consciousness and psychological function.
- The field will progress still further as the technology to isolate the effects of genes and scan the living brain develops.



Roger Sperry

'All that is psychological is first physiological' Anon.

ASSUMPTIONS

Biologically orientated psychologists assume that

- all that is psychological is first physiological - that is since the mind appears to reside in the brain, all thoughts, feelings and behaviours ultimately have a physical/biological cause
- human genes have evolved over millions of years to adapt behaviour to the environment. Therefore, much behaviour will have a genetic basis
- psychology should, therefore, investigate the brain, nervous system, endocrine system, neurochemistry, and genes
- it is also useful to study why human behaviour has evolved in the way it has, the subject of evolutionary/sociobiological theory

METHODS OF INVESTIGATION

The biological approach mainly adopts a nomothetic approach to generalise biological influences on behaviour to all humans with similar physiology, but finds the use of particular 'special case studies' very useful.

Most common techniques include

- laboratory experimentation - stimulating, giving drugs to, or removing parts of the body to see what effect it has on behaviour
- laboratory observations - controlled observations of physical processes, e.g. sleep

AREAS OF EXPLANATION

Biopsychological researchers have contributed to an understanding of

- **gender development** - e.g. the influence of genetic and hormonal predispositions on gender behaviour and identity
- **aggression** - e.g. investigating the role of the limbic system
- **abnormality** - e.g. the dopamine hypothesis and enlarged ventricle theory of schizophrenia
- **memory** - e.g. brain scans of areas involved during memory tests or the effect of brain damage on memory
- **motivation** - e.g. the role of the hypothalamus in homeostasis
- **awareness** - e.g. biological theories of sleep, dreams and body rhythms

PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS

Biopsychology's main applications have been to

- **localisation of function** - e.g. the effect on behaviour of brain damage to certain areas such as language control centres on the left side of the brain
- **therapy** - such drug treatment, psychosurgery, or electroconvulsive therapy for mental disorders such as schizophrenia or depression

STRENGTHS

Biopsychology has contributed to psychology in many ways:

- The approach is very scientific, grounded in the hard science of biology with its objective, materialistic subject matter and experimental methodology.
- It provides strong counter-arguments to the nurture side of the nature-nurture debate.
- Biopsychology's practical applications are usually extremely effective, e.g. the treatment of mental disorder.

WEAKNESSES

- **Reductionism** - the biopsychological approach explains thoughts and behaviour in terms of the action of neurones or biochemicals. This may ignore other more suitable levels of explanation and the interaction of causal factors.
- The approach has not adequately explained how mind and body interact - consciousness and emotion are difficult to study objectively.
- **Over simplistic** - biopsychological theories often oversimplify the huge complexity of physical systems and their interaction with environmental factors.