

Chapter 1

PSYCHOLOGY AND LIFE

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LECTURE GUIDE

WHAT MAKES PSYCHOLOGY UNIQUE? (Text p. 2)

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- How Do We Know What We Know?
- Psychology and Common Sense

Classroom Activities, Demonstrations, and Exercises:

- Misconceptions About Psychology
- Psychology's Goals Applied to Matchmaking
- Promoting Cultural Awareness

Web Resources:

- General Resources

Outline

I. What Makes Psychology Unique?

A. Basic Definitions

1. *Psychology* is the scientific study of the behavior of individuals and their mental processes. As such, psychologists are behavioral scientists.
2. The *scientific method* is the orderly, analytical process used in all sciences to analyze and solve problems.
3. *Behavior* is observable, measurable action. It is the means by which both animals and humans adjust to their environment.
4. Most often, the subject of scientific analysis in psychology is an *individual*. This can include studying behavior that is affected by developmental change, as well as by external environmental change (e.g., the influence of interactions with other organisms).
5. *Mental processes/cognition* refer to the private, internal workings of the mind.
6. *Psychology, the field* is a comparison to areas both inside and outside the social sciences.

B. The Goals of Psychology

1. The primary goal of psychology is to improve our understanding of behavior. Hence, the goals of the psychologist conducting basic research are to **describe**, **explain**, **predict**, or **control** behavior.
2. **Accurately describing** behavior requires the following:
 - a) First, the psychologist must observe and accurately measure the behavior. *Behavioral data* includes the psychologist's report of observations about the behavior and the conditions under which the behavior occurs.
 - b) The type of *behavioral data* collected depends on the *level of analysis*. The focus of observations can range from broad, general, and global aspects all the way to minute details of the organism under study.
 - c) *Objectivity* refers to the scientific necessity to record behavioral data as facts—as they really exist—not as we hope them to exist. Objectivity helps ensure the advancement of scientific understanding of behavior, free of *subjective*, personal biases, prejudices, and expectations that would distort the data collected.

C. **Explaining** behavior requires that explanations deliberately go beyond the basic description of what can be observed.

1. Psychologists do not want to just *describe*; they want explain *how* or *why* a particular behavior occurs.
2. Behavior results from a combination of many internal factors (e.g., intelligence, developmental stage, physical health, genetics) and external factors (e.g., peer pressure, socioeconomic status) that all influence one another.
3. Psychologists must *synthesize* observed behavior with existing scientific knowledge to arrive at *causal explanations* about the behavior (e.g., Observation: The roommate does not actively participate in class. Explanation: Because he or she is also very quiet in many other social situations, perhaps his behavior in class is "*caused*" by his shyness.).

D. **Predicting** behavior involves statements about the likelihood of a specific behavior occurring.

1. **Scientific** prediction is based on an understanding of relationships between behaviors and the mechanisms that link those behaviors to certain predictors. Scientists derive this information by systematically varying the conditions that lead to certain behaviors.
- E. For many psychologists, **controlling** behavior is the ultimate, central goal.
 1. This is particularly true for applied psychologists, whose goal is to improve individuals' quality of life.
 2. Controlling behavior means influencing a behavior to happen or not to happen, and influencing the nature of the behavior as it is being performed.
 3. Throughout *Psychology and Life* are examples of how psychologists work to change or help people control behavior (e.g., improving mental health, helping people change unhealthy behaviors, teaching parenting skills).

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THE EVOLUTION OF MODERN PSYCHOLOGY (Text p. 5)

Lecture Launchers/Discussion Topics:

- African Americans and Psychology
- Women in the History of Psychology in America
- Biographical Profiles
- Scandal in Psychology—John Watson's Fall from the Throne
- There Are Other Psychologies in the World
- Some Effects of Culture on the Individual

Classroom Activities, Demonstrations, and Exercises:

- Perspectives in Psychology

Forty Studies That Changed Psychology:

- Watch Out for the Visual Cliff!

Web Resources:

- History of Psychology

Outline

I. The Evolution of Modern Psychology

- A. *At the core of this historical review is one simple principle: Ideas Matter (ideas influence the manner in which people think, feel, and behave)*
- B. *Psychology's Historical Foundation*
 1. Greek philosophers Aristotle and Plato pondered psychological questions about the mind and the essence of life.
 2. Later philosophers developed ideas that continue to show up in today's psychology. These include John Locke's development of empiricism and Immanuel Kant's development of nativist views.
- C. *Psychology's Historical Figures*
 1. In 1879, in Leipzig, Germany, Wilhelm Wundt founded the first formal laboratory devoted to experimental psychology (sensation and perception).
 2. In 1883, the first experimental psychology laboratory in the United States was founded at Johns Hopkins University.
 3. Edward Titchener, a student of Wundt, became an influential early psychologist with his laboratory at Cornell University, founded in 1892.
 4. In 1890, William James, brother of novelist Henry James, wrote the two-volume work, *The Principles of Psychology*, which many experts consider the most important psychology text ever written.
 5. In 1892, G. Stanley Hall founded the American Psychological Association.
 6. With the emergence of the field of experimental psychology, debate began over the proper methods and subject matter of the new field.

D. *Early Psychology's Methods: Structuralism versus Functionalism*

1. Structuralism: The contents of the mind
 - a) Edward Titchener used **introspection** to understand the “what” of mental contents rather than the “why” or “how” of thinking. This approach came to be known as structuralism, the study of the structure of mind and behavior.
 - b) Structuralism was based on the assumption that all human mental experience could be understood as the combination of simple elements.
 - c) The goal of structuralism was to reveal the underlying structure of the human mind by analyzing the basic elements of sensation and other experiences that form mental life.
 - d) Structuralism was attacked primarily on three grounds:
 - (i) It was **reductionistic**, reducing all complex human experience to simple sensations.
 - (ii) It was **elemental**, seeking to combine parts into a whole rather than study the variety of behaviors directly.
 - (iii) It was **mentalist**, studying only verbal reports of conscious awareness, ignoring the study of those who could not describe their introspections (e.g., animals, children, mentally disabled).
 - e) An alternative to structuralism, pioneered by the German psychologist Max Wertheimer, focused on how the mind understands experiences as organized wholes (Gestalts) rather than sums of simple parts.
2. Functionalism: Minds with a purpose
 - a) William James disagreed with structuralism. To him, mental life was about what mental processes do for a person's adaptation and survival.
 - b) John Dewey, an American philosopher, was influenced by James and founded the school of functionalism, which led to many advances in education.
 - c) Functionalism focused on learned habits that enabled organisms to adapt to their environment to function effectively. The essential functionalist question is, “What is the function or purpose of behavior?”
3. The legacy of structuralism and functionalism: Both live on, and today psychologists employ a variety of methods to study both the structure and function of mental life and behavior.

E. *Women as Pioneering Researchers*

1. Women made substantial early contributions to the field of psychology.
2. Mary Whiton Calkins established one of the first psychology labs in the United States and invented important techniques for studying memory.
3. Margaret Floy Washburn performed early research in cross-species psychology, was the first woman to receive a Ph.D. in psychology, and the second woman to lead the American Psychological Association.
4. Helen Thompson Wooley pioneered research into gender differences.
5. Leta Stetter Hollingworth researched gender differences. In this area, her studies included topics such as differences in intelligence and creativity.

F. *Perspectives on Psychology*

1. The breadth of psychology can be illustrated by the many perspectives psychologists have when examining behavior and mental processes. Each perspective influences what a particular psychologist examines, what tools he or she uses to examine people, and where he or she looks for psychological influences.
2. Contemporary psychology can be divided into seven perspectives: **psychodynamic**, **behaviorist**, **humanistic**, **cognitive**, **biological**, **evolutionary**, and **sociocultural**. Each of these approaches espouses points of view and sets of assumptions that influence both what will be studied and how it will be investigated. Most psychologists' perspectives result from a blend of these perspectives.
3. **Psychodynamic perspective:** This perspective holds that behavior results from powerful inner forces beyond our immediate awareness. These forces include innate instincts, biological drives, and attempts to resolve conflicts between personal needs and society's demands. The purpose of behavior, according to this view, is to reduce tension.
 - a) Psychodynamic principles of motivation originated with **Sigmund Freud**, a Viennese physician, and his work with mentally disturbed patients. Psychodynamics have influenced many areas in psychology.
 - b) Freud emphasized the early childhood as the timeframe during which personality was formed.
 - c) Psychodynamic principles have since broadened to include the role of social influences and interpersonal interactions over the life span.

4. **Behaviorist perspective:** Behaviorists seek to understand how environmental stimuli influence behavior, reducing behavior into antecedents, behavioral responses, and consequences of behavior.
 - a) **Antecedent** environmental conditions refer to the state of the environment before a behavior is performed.
 - b) **Behavioral response**, the main object of study, refers to the action to be understood, predicted, and controlled.
 - c) **Consequence** refers to what results from the behavioral response.
 - d) John Watson founded behaviorism. He argued that psychology should seek laws that govern observable behavior across species.
 - e) Since Watson, behaviorists have studied observable behavior, often using animals to control the conditions of experimentation more completely than they can with human participants.
 - f) B. F. Skinner was a later influential behaviorist. He also argued that principles derived from animal research should be applied to humans.
 - g) Behaviorist principles have yielded more humane approaches to the education of children and to the treatment of behavior disorders through the use of positive reinforcement, a more effective tool in learning than punishment.
5. **Humanistic perspective:** Humanistic psychology emerged in the 1950s and countered the psychodynamic and behaviorist perspectives. Humanists suggested that humans are not controlled by unconscious drives or the external environment, but that they have choice. The main task of humans is to strive for growth and development of their potential.
 - a) Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow were influential humanistic psychologists. Rogers believed that humans have a natural tendency toward psychological well-being. Maslow also believed people maintained a drive toward maximizing their fullest potential (self-actualization).
 - b) Humanistic psychology is holistic, not reductionistic (reducing to elements that drive behavior). It examines the human as a whole and does not attempt to reduce mental life to elemental parts.
6. **Cognitive perspective:** Cognitive psychologists are most interested in human thought and all the processes of knowing, such as attending, thinking, remembering, and understanding.
 - a) Cognitive psychologists view behavior as *partly* determined by past experiences but also influenced by an individual's inner world of thought and imagination. An individual's subjective reality is more important than the objective reality that behaviorists strive to capture.
 - b) Jean Piaget, working in developmental psychology, and Noam Chomsky, working in language acquisition, were two influential psychologists who pioneered cognitive research and theories.
 - c) Today, cognitive psychologists study higher mental processes such as perception, memory, language use, problem solving, and decision making.
7. **Biological perspective:** The biological perspective attempts to explain behavior in terms of the influence of genes, the brain, the nervous system, and the endocrine system by examining underlying physical structures and processes.
 - a) From the biological perspective, even the most complex behavior can be understood by decomposing the behavior into smaller units, such as the firing of neurons in the brain.
 - b) A unifying theme for biological researchers is that, although the environment and experience can modify behavior by altering underlying biological structures and processes, behavior originates from biological forces.
 - c) **Behavioral neuroscience** is a multidisciplinary field that attempts to understand brain processes that influence behaviors, such as sensation, learning, and emotion.
 - d) **Cognitive neuroscience** is a multidisciplinary field that attempts to understand brain processes that influence human cognitive functions such as memory, language, and learning.
8. **Evolutionary perspective:** The evolutionary perspective extends the idea of natural selection to explain how mental abilities evolved.
 - a) Evolutionary psychologists identify adaptive problems that early humans may have encountered, such as avoiding predators, finding food, reproducing, and raising children, and then generate inferences about the mental processes that might have evolved in response to these problems.
 - b) Evolutionary psychology is different from other perspectives in that it has a much longer temporal focus (millions of years) than other perspectives.
9. **Sociocultural perspective:** This perspective focuses on cross-cultural differences in the causes and consequences of behavior. Partly in response to American psychology's reliance on white, middle-class college students as the subject matter of psychology, cultural psychologists cross national

boundaries in an attempt to understand how cultural groups differ on standard measures of mental processes and to understand what new measures and concepts might more accurately capture and describe the mental life of various groups.

- a) Important concepts investigated by sociocultural psychologists include perceptions, human development, emotions, social norms, and the notion of “the self.”
- b) Sociocultural psychologists point out that psychological principles derived from one culture cannot be automatically applied to other sociocultural groups.

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WHAT PSYCHOLOGISTS DO (Text p. 14)

Lecture Launchers/Discussion Topics:

- Psychologists and Prescription Privileges
- Careers in Psychology

Classroom Activities, Demonstrations, and Exercises:

- Psychologists' Twenty Questions
- Are Psychologists Scientists?

Web Resources:

- Majoring in Psychology
- Careers in Psychology
- Major Professional Organizations

Outline

I. What Psychologists Do

- A. When most people define what a psychologist does, they think of a clinical psychologist who works with clients with psychological problems and with problems of living. However, psychologists can specialize in a diversity of subfields, such as clinical, cognitive, personality, developmental, social, industrial, school, sports, and health psychology.
- B. Psychologists can also be defined in terms of the focus of their work, balancing emphases between research (advancing science) and application (putting science into practice). Many clinical psychologists have primarily research careers, despite our often thinking of them as applying knowledge to improve people's lives.
- C. At the start of the twenty-first century, psychology has become more international and more diverse in its composition of researchers and practitioners.

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HOW TO USE THIS TEXT (Text p. 16)

Outline

I. How to Use This Text

- A. *General study strategies to increase academic performance.*
 1. Study strategies include:
 - a) Sufficient study time
 - b) Keeping track of time spent studying
 - c) Actively studying
 - d) Spaced learning/avoidance of cramming
 - e) Getting study-centered: finding an appropriate location

2. Appropriate study techniques (PQ4R) include:
 - a) Previewing the material
 - b) Making your own questions
 - c) Reading carefully
 - d) Reflecting on the material
 - e) Reciting to demonstrate your recall
 - f) Reviewing the questions you originally developed

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KEY TERMS

Behavior
Behavioral Data
Behavioral Neuroscience
Behaviorism
Behaviorist Perspective
Biological Perspective
Cognitive Neuroscience
Cognitive Perspective
Evolutionary Perspective
Functionalism

Gestalt Psychology
Humanistic Perspective
Introspection
Psychodynamic Perspective
Psychology
Scientific Method
Sociocultural Perspective
Structuralism

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**CHANGES FROM *PSYCHOLOGY AND LIFE*, NINETEENTH EDITION TO
PSYCHOLOGY AND LIFE, TWENTIETH EDITION**

Chapter 1: Psychology and Life

- New Critical Thinking in Your Life: Does “Comfort Food” Really Give Comfort?
- Updated discussion of structuralism and functionalism.
- Updated figures on distributions of degrees and work settings for psychologists.

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LECTURE LAUNCHERS AND DISCUSSION TOPICS

How Do We Know What We Know?

Psychology and Common Sense

African Americans and Psychology

Women in the History of Psychology in America

Biographical Profiles

Scandal in Psychology—John Watson's Fall from the Throne

There Are Other Psychologies in the World

Some Effects of Culture on the Individual

Psychologists and Prescription Privileges

Careers in Psychology

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Lecture/Discussion: How Do We Know What We Know?

How do you know that George Washington was the first president of the United States? Or that you really have a stomach?

Dependence on observation is one of the hallmarks of science, but it is not the only way humans acquire knowledge. There are, in fact, many questions that cannot be answered by scientific methods and for which other means of acquiring knowledge are more appropriate. Begin by asking the following questions:

- How do you know that George Washington was the first president of the United States?
- How do you know that you really have a stomach?
- What makes you so sure the sun will rise tomorrow?
- How do you know the color of the shirt I'm wearing?
- How can you be sure that there aren't little creatures inside computers that are responsible for the things computers do?
- Are you sure you don't have a big hole in the back of your pants or skirt?

Authority is one source of knowledge. We know, or believe, that Washington was the first president because we trust the authority of historians and history books. During the centuries that Western civilization was dominated by the Church, the authority of holy writings was believed to be the only dependable way of knowing.

Reason was considered by Renaissance scholars to be the most reliable source of knowledge. If you say, "All humans have stomachs; I am human; therefore, I have a stomach," you have used deductive reasoning. If you say, "The sun rose today, yesterday, the day before yesterday, and for as long as I or anyone can remember," you are using inductive reasoning.

Observation is still another way of acquiring knowledge. You know the color of my shirt because you can see the shirt. You assume that you do not have a hole in the posterior of your clothing because you have not observed stares and giggles.

One might use any of these ways of knowing to deny the existence of little creatures in computers. People you perceive to be authorities about computer innards may have told you how they work. You may have reasoned that creatures need nourishment and there is no food supply inside microprocessors. Or you may have looked inside a computer and failed to see little creatures waiting to solve your problems. But there is no way one can absolutely refute the computer-creature hypothesis; so if you want to keep your computer running, maybe you should find out what the little creatures eat.

All these ways of knowing—authority, reason, and observation—are used by scientists, but observation must be the basis for knowledge that is scientific. Science puts greater emphasis on evidence provided by the senses than on authority of others or reasoning. Science relies on empirical evidence.

An extension of this activity might involve a discussion of some of the following contradictory beliefs:

Birds of a feather flock together Opposites attract
Absence makes the heart grow fonder Out of sight, out of mind
You can't teach an old dog new tricks Never too old to learn

Often students will have anecdotal stories about each belief. Ask students to think about their beliefs from an empirical point of view. You may want to facilitate discussion by providing students with the following questions:

*Can you rely on one person's account to believe in a phenomenon?
How might each set of beliefs be tested empirically?
When will you "believe" in a certain phenomenon?*

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Lecture/Discussion: Psychology and Common Sense

A common refrain voiced by laypeople and scientists is that most, if not all, of behavioral science “is just common sense.” Introductory psychology students are particularly apt to make this claim, given that much of their prior exposure to psychology is likely to have been very common-sensical (though perhaps not well-established) claims by a variety of “professionals” on the talk-show circuit. In a nutshell, it’s difficult to counter the “common-sense” stigma when so much of behavior seems to be explainable at an intuitive surface level.

Mark Leary shares some suggestions for discussing this issue with your students. It is true that the subject matter of psychology is much more familiar to most people than the subject matter of subatomic physics or gastroendocrinological biology; we see behavior all around us, but rarely stumble over a gluon. Psychology would be an odd science of thought and behavior if it only considered thoughts and behaviors completely foreign to people’s experiences, or if its findings always ran counter to most people’s beliefs. But neither greater visibility of subject matter nor popular consensus guarantees greater understanding. Many people believed wholeheartedly in flat earths and cheese moons, only to find their common-sense views dismantled in the face of scientific evidence. So too with psychology. Although most people would like to believe that large rewards produce greater liking for a boring task, that the behavior of men and women is determined by their biology, or that absence makes the heart grow fonder, researchers studying cognitive dissonance, sex-role stereotypes, and close relationships would be happy to share their findings to the contrary. In short, the popularity of a common-sense belief may not always support the weight of scientific evidence.

More importantly, psychologists (like all scientists) are primarily engaged in the task of explaining behavior, rather than merely cataloging it. The difference between theory and description—“why” versus “what”—echoes the difference between science and common sense. Common sense certainly helps describe what takes place in behavior, but it doesn’t compel us to understand why it takes place. The development of theory in understanding behavior sets science apart from everyday, common-sense accounts.

Leary, M. (1995). *Behavioral research methods* (2nd ed., pp. 24–25). Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole.

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Lecture/Discussion: African Americans and Psychology

Like women, African Americans faced many obstacles to their education and participation in psychology. Most white institutions would not accept African American students, and when they were able to enroll, they often experienced discrimination. In addition, few undergraduate black colleges offered a major in psychology until after the 1940s. Howard University, the only major black university offering graduate study, awarded 32 Ph.D. degrees to African Americans from 1920 to 1950. During the same period only eight African Americans earned a Ph.D. from one of the ten most prestigious white universities. Not only was earning the Ph.D. difficult, employment opportunities were scarce for African American psychologists since neither white universities nor organizations in the private sector would hire them. Most taught at black colleges where opportunities to engage in research were limited, thus restricting opportunities for professional recognition. The situation for African American students has improved dramatically in recent years. Kenneth B. Clark, best known for his research on the effects of racial segregation, became the first African American elected as APA president in 1970.

Guthrie, R. V. (1976). *Even the rat was white: A historical view of psychology*. New York: Harper and Row.

Schultz, D. P., & Schultz, S. E. (1996). *A history of modern psychology* (6th ed.). Orlando, FL: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

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Lecture/Discussion: Women in the History of Psychology in America

Psychology recently has renewed its appreciation of diversity in human behavior. Part of that diversity includes celebrating the accomplishments and contributions of women to the field of psychology. Share with your students the stories of some key figures from psychology's history:

- *Mary Whiton Calkins* (1863–1930) attended Harvard University and worked with William James, but because Harvard did not officially admit women into graduate programs, Calkins never received a Ph.D. from Harvard. At best, Harvard offered her the degree from its sister school Radcliffe. She refused, stating that she ought to be given the degree from the institution where she earned it. Calkins collaborated with Edmund Sanford from neighboring Clark University on a variety of research projects. At that time, women with advanced degrees or training primarily received faculty positions at female colleges, such as Wellesley and Vassar Colleges. Calkins received a position at Wellesley College in 1887, and established a prolific laboratory in 1891 producing short-term memory research (Madigan & O'Hara, 1992). In 1906, Calkins was the first woman elected President of the American Psychological Association (APA).
- *Margaret Floy Washburn* (1871–1939) was the first person, male or female, to receive a Ph.D. from Edward B. Titchener in 1884, the leading structuralist in American experimental psychology at that time (Goodwin, 1999). She was also the first female to receive a Ph.D. in the United States. Interestingly, Washburn never believed Titchener taught her much, as she became a leading comparative psychologist at Vassar College. She produced her most influential work in *The Animal Mind* in 1908, and in 1921, she was elected the second woman president of APA. She suffered a cerebral hemorrhage in 1937, and died from its complications in 1939 (Scarborough & Furumoto, 1987).
- *Christine Ladd-Franklin* (1847–1930) was a mathematician who developed an interest in visual perception and made great contributions to theories of color vision (Furumoto, 1992). She married a math professor from Columbia University, and she occasionally taught adjunct courses there. However, she was rarely paid. Like Calkins, she did not receive her Ph.D. although she had completed all of the required work. Johns Hopkins University finally granted her the degree shortly before her death. She accepted the degree in person.
- At the turn of the 20th century, one popular belief held that there was more variability in intelligence in men than in women. One implication of this belief was that even the brightest of women would never be as bright or even "outshine" the brightest of men. African American psychologist *Leta Stetter Hollingworth* (1886–1939) challenged these beliefs with her research which showed no evidence that the distribution of intelligence test scores differed between men and women (Hollingworth, 1914). She also challenged the popular belief that women's intellectual abilities were affected by their menstrual cycles, again finding no statistical evidence to support such claims (Silverman, 1992). Hollingworth's contributions are often seen as the seedlings for the formal study of the psychology of women.
- African American psychologist *Mamie Phipps Clark* (1917–1983) received her bachelor's and master's degrees from Howard University, and her Ph.D. from Columbia University in 1944. She is well-known for her studies of racial differences in racial identity and self concept (Clark & Clark, 1950). In the 1940s and 1950s racial segregation was becoming institutionalized, and Clark became interested in the effects of segregation on African American children. She conducted a series of studies in which African American and white children were shown black and white dolls. The children were first asked to pick the doll they most looked like, establishing a measure of racial identity. Then, children were asked which doll they would most like to play with. Both white and African American children preferred the white doll, suggesting for both races of children a preference and perhaps more value on being white. Clark's work was considered and noted in the Supreme Court's 1954 ruling in *Brown v. Board of Education* desegregation case, which ruled that public school segregation was unconstitutional.

Clark, K. B., & Clark, M. P. (1950). Emotional factors in racial identification and preference in Negro children. *Journal of Negro Education*, 19, 341–350.

Furumoto, L. (1992). Joining separate spheres: Christine Ladd-Franklin, woman-scientist. *American Psychologist*, 47, 175–182.

- Furumoto, L., & Scarborough, E. (1992). Placing women in the history of psychology: The first American women psychologists. In J. S. Bohan (Ed.) *Seldom Seen, Rarely Heard* (pp. 337–353). Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
- Goodwin, C. J. (1999). *A history of modern psychology*. New York: Wiley.
- Hollingworth, L. S. (1914). Variability as related to sex differences in achievement. *American Journal of Sociology*, 19, 510–530.
- Madigan, S., & O'Hara, R. (1992). Short-term memory at the turn of the century. *American Psychologist*, 47, 107–174.
- Scarborough, E., & Furumoto, L. (1987). *Untold lives: The first generation of American women psychologists*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Silverman, L. K. (1992). Leta Stetter Hollingworth: Champion of the psychology of women and gifted children. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 84, 20–27.

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Lecture/Discussion: Biographical Profiles

Wilhelm Wundt (1832–1920)

Born in Neckarau, Germany, Wilhelm Wundt was the fourth child of a Lutheran minister. Despite coming from a family that boasted numerous scholars, scientists, and physicians, Wundt initially was not a good student. After he dropped out of one high school, a teacher suggested that a reasonable goal for Wundt would be a career in the postal service. Wundt's scholastic abilities improved, however, and in 1855 he graduated at the top of his class in medical school. Wundt then went to Berlin to study physiology with Johannes Müller, and he subsequently decided to become an experimental physiologist himself. Wundt then returned to the University of Heidelberg, where he worked as an assistant for Herman von Helmholtz. It was at Heidelberg that Wundt taught his first course in psychology. The year was 1862.

In 1879, at the University of Leipzig, where he held a chair in philosophy, Wundt established the Institute for Experimental Psychology, the first laboratory whose formal purpose was the scientific investigation of the human mind. Wundt is one of the most prolific contributors to the field of psychology ever. It is estimated that between the years of 1853 and 1920, Wundt wrote 53,735 pages of text. Wundt was not only a voracious writer; he was also responsible for training numerous researchers, some of whom, such as Edward Titchener, brought versions of Wundt's psychology to America.

Sigmund Freud (1856–1939)

Sigmund Freud was born in Pribor, Czechoslovakia, in 1856. Although Freud was a gifted student, it took him eight years to finish his medical degree at the University of Vienna, partly because he was interested in so many topics. Freud first pursued a career as a neurologist, but financial concerns forced him into general medical practice. In cooperation with his friend Joseph Breuer, Freud began to treat hysterical women. This is unusual, because at the time there was no known cure for hysteria, which is now known as a conversion disorder. Through trial and error and feedback from his clients, Breuer and Freud developed the technique known as psychoanalysis. Its fundamental rule is honesty; clients must relay all thoughts and feelings uncensored to the analyst. Clients then follow their stream of thought wherever it may lead, a process known as free association. In the course of free association, clients often uncover traumatic events in the past, and, upon reliving these events, often experience relief from their symptoms. Freud's first major work, *The Interpretation of Dreams* (1900), detailed the process of dream interpretation, which he felt was the "royal road to the unconscious." Although it took six years to sell the first 600 copies printed, this work was reprinted eight times during Freud's lifetime.

Although the technique of psychoanalysis is perhaps Freud's most important legacy, he made many other substantial contributions to psychology. These include the recognition of the importance of sexuality and unconscious processes, a fully developed system of personality, and an appreciation for the conflict between individual desires and the constraints of society. His work has influenced so many aspects of our thinking that he is often not given full credit for the development of his ideas. Freud's many detractors are quick to point out that his theories are not based on empirical research. While this is true, just because they lack empirical evidence does not mean that they are wrong, only that they are less likely to be right. Because of the breadth of his intellectual contributions, he remains the most cited psychologist in *Psychology and Life*, 16th Edition, and most comparable texts.

William James (1842–1910)

William James, often considered the father of American psychology, was born in New York City, but spent much of his childhood traveling between the United States and Europe, where he attended several private schools. James' interest in such varied fields as philosophy, religion, and science were cultivated at home in an enriched environment shared with his brother Henry James, the famous author. William James struggled to find a vocation that mated his various interests, trying his hand at art (his paintings have appeared on the cover of recent editions of *American Psychologist*), chemistry, and, finally, medicine. He received his M.D. from Harvard in 1868.

In 1872, James began teaching physiology at Harvard but was preoccupied by his ongoing and deep interest in such philosophical issues as free will and determinism. Though James considered himself a temporary dabbler in the discipline of psychology, his two-volume textbook, *Principles of Psychology* (1890), stood as the field's definitive textbook through the first half of this century. It is still considered one of the best-written texts on psychology and a source of many original ideas. James' contributions to psychology include the notion of a stream of consciousness, the importance of habit and instinct, and a complex theory of the self, theory of emotion, and opening the boundaries of psychology to include topics such as religious beliefs.

B. F. Skinner (1904–1990)

Burrhus Frederic Skinner was born and raised in Susquehanna, Pennsylvania, and received a bachelor's degree in English from Hamilton College in New York. Skinner enrolled in the experimental psychology program at Harvard and studied under E.G. Boring, earning his masters degree in 1930 and Ph.D. in 1931. In 1936, he began his academic career at the University of Minnesota; then, in 1945, he took a position as chairman of the psychology department at Indiana University. In 1948, however, Harvard offered him a position, which he accepted, and he remained there for the rest of his life. Skinner died of leukemia in 1990.

While Skinner was at Harvard, he was heavily influenced by the work of John B. Watson. From this influence, Skinner dedicated his life's work to studying the relationship between reinforcement and observable behavior. Throughout his career, he insisted that psychology be a scientific, empirically-driven discipline. He is considered by many to be one of the most important figures in twentieth century psychology, and his contribution to both clinical and experimental psychology is evident in the work of psychologists who followed his lead, and to this day, extend his work in associative learning research. The principles of reinforcement that he outlined were built on by clinical psychologists and applied to the conceptualization and treatment of mental disorders. The application of behaviorism to clinical psychology was not short-lived, as empirically supported treatments for anxiety disorders (e.g., panic disorder, simple phobia) and child conduct problems are based upon behavioral principles.

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Lecture/Discussion: Scandal in Psychology—John Watson's Fall from the Throne

John B. Watson was a very famous man in his day—something many students never realize, as he usually gets only a few short paragraphs in introductory psychology texts. In fact, at the end of his career in psychology he was an esteemed professor at the world-renowned Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore, Maryland. At one time, he was recognized as an authority on caring for babies, much as Dr. Spock and Dr. Brazelton would later become household words. He was married, a father, and respected in his field.

All of that ended when he was fired over his affair with a beautiful and intelligent graduate student, Rosalie Raynor. Mary Watson, the wronged wife, insisted that the affair stop, as did Watson's employers. But neither Watson nor Raynor wanted the affair to end, and finally Johns Hopkins insisted that he resign. The subsequent divorce from Mary was front page news at the time.

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Lecture/Discussion: There Are Other Psychologies in the World

While introductory psychology books have enough to cover without taking on the whole world, it is important to remember that Western Psychology is not the only game in town. All cultures have implicit or explicit psychological theories, theories of how the mind works, that have been developing for thousands of years. Some, like Mayan theories, were almost completely lost after their cultures were all but wiped out by European invaders. Others, like Tibetan Abhidharma, are written down, have continued to develop and have found overlap with Western psychological traditions.

Tibetan Psychology:

<http://www.apa.org/monitor/dec03/tibetan.html>

<http://www.tibetanclassics.org>

Japanese Psychology:

<http://web-jpn.org/links/education/academic/psychology.html>

<http://www.todoinstitute.org/>

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Lecture/Discussion: Some Effects of Culture on the Individual

One aspect of cross-cultural psychology addresses the similarities and differences among cultures around the globe. However, in our modern world, diversity is no longer restricted to comparing the culture we know with one we consider to be exotic or strange. A more relevant issue is to address diversity within our own society, and a critical element in that regard is to explore the effect of cultural intermingling on individuals. Many researchers have done just that.

For example, Jean Phinney has conducted extensive research on various aspects of ethnic identity, particularly among college students (see, e.g., Phinney, 1989, 1990; Phinney & Alipuria, 1990, 1996). She has correctly noted that “ethnicity is a complex multidimensional construct that, by itself, explains little” (1996, p. 918). Among the many elements Phinney notes to play an important role in understanding ethnicity are cultural norms and values (she defines ethnicity in the United States as “broad groupings of...[people] on the basis of both race and culture of origin,” but excluding the “dominant White majority,” pp. 918–919). In a recent paper, Phinney and Madden (submitted for publication) looked at the relationship between intergenerational value discrepancies and life satisfaction for three groups of immigrant families: Armenian, Vietnamese, and Mexican. They found that generally, the greater the discrepancy between parents and their adolescent children in terms of language and peer group affiliation, the lower the life satisfaction. Thus, when children lacked fluency in their ethnic language and did not associate extensively with other teens from their ethnic group, they expressed greater dissatisfaction with their lives. Interestingly, this was totally independent of how well their parents spoke English, leading the investigators to believe that it is not a matter of being unable to communicate with parents, but rather, that the “lack of proficiency...is part of a broader pattern of lower involvement in their ethnic culture...that leads to greater differences with their parents” (p. 8).

Other researchers have approached issues of life satisfaction from other vantage points. For example, John Berry (1997a) describes four different strategies of acculturation when dominant and non-dominant groups come together to form culturally plural societies. Berry notes that the groups, and their individual members, must resolve two critical issues: first, is it considered to be of value to maintain one’s identity and characteristics, and second, is it considered to be of value to maintain relationships with the larger society? Responding “yes” to both questions results in integration (or pluralism). Responding “yes” to the first, but “no” to the second, will result in either separation (if that is the choice of the non-dominant group) or segregation (refusal of the dominant group to allow entry by the non-dominant group). When groups, or individuals within groups, deny the value of their own identity and characteristics and opt instead for those of the dominant group, the result is assimilation. The final strategy, rejecting the value of one’s own group as well of those of the larger society, leads to marginalization, a sense of being “on the fringes” of society. Berry (1994) noted that individuals who adopt this fourth strategy of marginalization “lose cultural and psychological contact with both their traditional culture and the larger society. They characteristically strike out against the larger society and experience feelings of alienation, loss of identity, and

acculturative stress” (p. 127). Conversely, on a societal level, pluralism can offer many benefits: “[C]ultural diversity enhances society’s adaptability: alternative ways of living are available in the social system when attempting to meet changing circumstances, due to the changes in a society’s ecological or political context” (1997b, p. 18).

In a similar vein, LaFromboise (e.g., 1988), in her research with Native Americans, describes the risk factors posed to Native Americans by becoming alienated from their own cultural traditions. She has documented the high rates of alcoholism, depression, and suicide for Native Americans who feel disconnected from their heritage and the reduction in those rates when they are reunited with their culture.

Clearly, the field of cross-cultural psychology, then, is not limited to the global study of differences among nations; it also focuses on addressing the impact of cultural influences on individuals and society within nations.

Berry, J. W. (1994). An ecological perspective on cultural and ethnic psychology. In E. J. Trickett, R. J. Watts, & D. Birman (Eds.), *Human diversity: Perspectives on people in context*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Berry, J. W. (1997a). Immigration, acculturation, and adaptation. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 46(1), 5-68.

Berry, J. W. (1997b). Individual and group relations in plural societies. In C. S. Granrose & S. Oskamp (Eds.), *Cross-cultural work groups*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

LaFromboise, T. (1988). American Indian mental health policy. *American Psychologist*, 43(5), 38-397.

Phinney, J. S. (1989). Stages of ethnic minority development in minority group adolescents. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 9, 34-49.

Phinney, J. S. (1990). Ethnic identity in adolescents and adults: A review of research. *Psychological Bulletin*, 108(3), 499-514.

Phinney, J. S., & Alipuria, L. (1990). Ethnic identity in college students from four ethnic groups. *Journal of Adolescence*, 13, 171-184.

Phinney, J. S., & Alipuria, L. (1996). At the interface of culture: Multiethnic/multiracial high school and college students. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 136, 139-158.

Phinney, J. S., & Madden, T. (submitted for publication). Intergenerational value discrepancies and life satisfaction in immigrant families: The role of language and peer interaction.

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Lecture/Discussion: Psychologists and Prescription Privileges

During discussions about the various mental health professions, I usually mention the great debate regarding prescription privileges for psychologists. Students are fascinated by the political and public dissension caused by this movement. They tend to understand the desire of the psychiatrists to “protect their turf,” yet they also understand how prescription privileges could improve psychological services to clients. A detailed discussion of the topic is found in the APA *Monitor* article referenced below.

<http://www.apa.org/monitor/apr02/newmexico.html>

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Lecture/Discussion: Careers in Psychology

In a mad rush to begin covering the tremendous amount of material in introductory psychology, many instructors overlook more practical issues that would be of interest to introductory students, especially those who think they might major in psychology. It’s never too early to introduce students to psychology as a profession, and even students who do not major in psychology are bound to gain a greater understanding and appreciation for the field. After discussing the various subfields of psychology, devote some time (perhaps a class session) to issues pertaining to psychology as a career choice. There are a variety of activities and topics you could introduce, and several suggestions are given here.

To promote early student involvement in psychology, describe the goals and activities of Psi Chi, the National Honor Society in Psychology. Tell students (or better yet, bring in the Psi Chi President to tell students) about the requirements for joining (e.g., psychology major or minor, 3.0 GPA overall and in all psychology courses, completion of 3 semesters or 5 quarters of college courses) and the benefits of membership (e.g., interaction with psychology faculty and majors, participation in worthwhile activities related to psychology, an important honor that will be noticed by graduate schools). Along the same lines, explain to students how they might become student affiliates of the two biggest professional organizations in psychology, the American Psychological Association

(APA) and the American Psychological Society (APS). Both organizations have student application forms that you can make available (call APA at 800-374-2721; APS at 202-783-2077). Stress to students the benefits of presenting their research (perhaps in their sophomore or junior years) at one of these national conferences or perhaps at a regional one (e.g., Southwestern Psychological Association, Western Psychological Association).

Give your students the “straight dope” about graduate school—how to get in, what it’s really like, and what opportunities it affords. Tell students how you got interested in your major field and what life in graduate school was like. Explain degree plans (including how many years it takes, what is expected in the way of course work and research), funding opportunities (many students are surprised that teaching and research assistantships actually cover most graduate school expenses), and research and teaching opportunities. Bring in the latest edition of APA’s *Guide to Graduate Study in Psychology* and give an overview of its purpose. Briefly outline for students what they should be doing during each year of their undergraduate career if they are interested in going to graduate school (e.g., when to study and take the GRE, when to send for applications, when to get research experience, when to ask for letters of recommendation). Encourage students to seek out a close relationship with a faculty member whose research interests coincide with theirs.

Finally, discuss career opportunities in psychology. Bring to class recent issues of the *APA Monitor* and *APS Observer* and show students representative job listings and requirements for consideration. Show either of two excellent APA-produced videos, *Careers in Psychology: Your Options are Open* (a brief, 9-minute segment that features a panel of psychologists from different specialties discussing career opportunities) or *Career Encounters in Psychology* (a longer, 28-minute segment that provides an overview of the diverse specializations and careers in psychology through interviews with several different types of psychologists). Have someone from your career counseling center give a talk on opportunities for psychology majors (he or she may also have data on the current employment status of recent psychology graduates). Better yet, invite to class (a) a psychologist from an applied setting (e.g., a clinician in private practice, an industrial/organizational psychologist, a sports or forensic psychologist) and (b) a psychologist who works in an academic setting (this could be you, another faculty member at your college or university, or someone outside your institution) to talk about career opportunities and experiences.

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CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES, DEMONSTRATIONS, AND EXERCISES

Misconceptions About Psychology
Psychology's Goals Applied to Matchmaking
Promoting Cultural Awareness
Are Psychologists Scientists?
Perspectives in Psychology
Psychologists' Twenty Questions

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Activity: Misconceptions About Psychology

One of the most popular and venerable activities for the introductory course is the administration and subsequent discussion of misconceptions about psychology. Although a new 65-item multiple-choice test was developed by McCutcheon (1991), the most popular test is the Test of Common Beliefs developed by Vaughan (1977). Vaughan's test, however, has been criticized for the ambiguity of some of the items (Brown, 1984; Gardner & Dalsing, 1986; Ruble, 1986), the fact that all items have "false" as the correct response, which may lead to a response set tendency (Vaughan, 1977), and the finding that many of the items are not really misconceptions since they are often correctly answered (Gardner & Dalsing, 1986; Lamal, 1979). Griggs and Ransdell (1987) compared responses to Vaughan's Test of Common Beliefs from students that had taken an introductory psychology course in high school to those of several other studies (Lamal, 1979; Gardner & Dalsing, 1986; Vaughan, 1977). Using a criterion of at least a 50% error rate for an item (that is, they were answered as "true"), they identified 15 questions that met the criterion in at least two studies and had not been subject to earlier criticisms of ambiguity. These items are reproduced in **Handout Master 1.1** and are ordered from highest to lowest with respect to their average error rate. You can administer these items to your class and use the responses as a starting point for a discussion on common sense notions and misconceptions about psychology. You may want to note to your students that many of these items are also answered incorrectly by psychologists and other social scientists (see Gardner & Hund, 1983). You can also tell your students that the correct answers to many of these items are discussed in their textbook.

Brown, L. T. (1983). Some more misconceptions about psychology among introductory psychology students. *Teaching of Psychology*, 10, 207–210.
Brown, L. T. (1984). Misconceptions about psychology aren't always what they seem. *Teaching of Psychology*, 11, 75–78.
Gardner, R. M., & Dalsing, S. (1986). Misconceptions about psychology among college students. *Teaching of Psychology*, 13, 32–34.
Gardner, R. M., & Hund, R. M. (1983). Misconceptions of psychology among academicians. *Teaching of Psychology*, 10, 20–22.
Griggs, R. A., & Ransdell, S. E. (1987). Misconceptions tests or misconceived tests? *Teaching of Psychology*, 14, 210–214.
Lamal, P. A. (1979). College students' common beliefs about psychology. *Teaching of Psychology*, 6, 155–158.
McCutcheon, L. E. (1991). A new test of misconceptions about psychology. *Psychological Reports*, 68, 647–653.
Ruble, R. (1986). Ambiguous psychological misconceptions. *Teaching of Psychology*, 13, 34–36.
Vaughan, E. D. (1977). Misconceptions about psychology among introductory psychology students. *Teaching of Psychology*, 4, 138–141.
Reprinted from Hill, W. G. (1995). Instructor's resource manual for *Psychology* by S. F. Davis and J. J. Palladino. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

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Activity: Psychology's Goals Applied to Matchmaking

(This class exercise was adapted from an "Experience Break," originally included in *Psychology and Life*, 15th Edition, by Philip Zimbardo and Richard Gerrig.)

Based only on the descriptions provided in the grid on the following page, ask your class to guess which pairs of the people listed below belong together. There is no right or wrong answer. Tell them to go with their instincts.

Now lead your class in a discussion of their matchmaking decisions with respect to the goals of psychology:

- How would they describe the behaviors they engaged in while trying to settle on appropriate matches?
- Did they read all the descriptions before they began? Did they find the decisions easy to make? Did they change their mind several times?

- How would they explain their behavior?
- What rules do they believe they used to match up the couples? Were they most concerned about age? About occupations? About leisure activities? Did they use some combination of all three descriptions? What inferences did they make in their decisions, such as perceived gender? What does the factor(s) that they used most say about them personally and their selection of a partner?
- How might their explanation allow them to predict which real-world relationships would succeed?
- Suppose that based on their day-to-day observations of relationships, they focused on occupations while doing their matchmaking. Are they willing to generalize from the predictions they made on this task to predictions in the real world? Can they begin to imagine the types of research they might carry out to test those predictions?
- Does their explanation allow them to control or improve their own relationship-seeking behavior or to give better advice to others?
- Have they learned from this exercise what matters most to them in a relationship? What more would they like to learn from research?
- Could they learn something that would allow them to improve the quality of their own or other people's lives?
- If their research reveals the factors that help determine which relationships, in general, will endure, they should be able to improve the quality of people's lives.

David Age: 21 Job: Car mechanic Enjoys: Gourmet food	Dana Age: 23 Job: Advertising executive Enjoys: Movies
Chris Age: 29 Job: Dog groomer Enjoys: Gardening	Anita Age: 35 Job: Lawyer Enjoys: Roller coasters
Sandy Age: 54 Job: Flight attendant Enjoys: Hang gliding	Karen Age: 18 Job: Sales clerk Enjoys: Art museums
Jamie Age: 20 Job: Secretary Enjoys: Football	Pat Age: 56 Job: Pediatrician Enjoys: Opera
Tony Age: 37 Job: College professor Enjoys: Comic books	Rahul Age: 22 Job: Store manager Enjoys: Scuba diving

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Activity: Promoting Cultural Awareness

Lani Fujitsubo suggests an exercise that can be used profitably in Introductory Psychology as well as several other courses. Ask students to play the roles of family members and one or two newspaper reporters. The family is a group of aliens from outer space who have arrived on this planet, and the reporters are interviewing them for a story of interest to their readers. Fujitsubo provides the following script for the family member volunteers to rehearse:

You are a family (mother, father, and child) from outer space whose spacecraft recently landed in the United States. You are doing your best to assimilate into this society and are being interviewed because your child won the local spelling bee. On your planet of origin you show respect by laughing out loud before answering a direct question. Men are not allowed to speak directly to others, and must whisper their requests to women who will then communicate directly. It is traditional to offer a gift or compliment to someone before making a request or asking for anything. If offended you use nonverbal communication to express your hurt feelings, the most common form of which is to briefly turn your back to the person. Apologies are made by briefly dipping your head. No one on your planet is considered more important than anyone else, and competition is an unknown concept. Eye contact with males is considered offensive. A question is usually never answered directly because this implies that someone is an expert and causes others to lose face.

After the demonstration poll the reporters and family members for their reactions. Reporters often feel frustrated, confused, misunderstood, or helpless in the face of this interaction where they don't know the "rules." Family members might also find themselves misunderstood, offended, or frustrated at the inability of the reporter to understand their situation. Class discussion of this activity can focus on the importance of appreciating differences among others and understanding where and how miscommunications might arise.

Fujitsubo, L. C. (1999). The importance of cross-cultural sensitivity in psychology. In L. T. Benjamin, B. F. Nodine, R. M. Ernst, and C. B. Broeker (Eds.), *Activities handbook for the teaching of psychology* (Vol. 4). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

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Activity: Perspectives in Psychology (Group Activity)

For this exercise, students should work in small groups. Each group should take one of the major psychological perspectives discussed in Chapter 1 (psychodynamic, behavioral, humanistic, cognitive, sociocultural, biopsychological and evolutionary). In the first step, using their books and their minds, they are to outline the key figures as well as key terms and concepts on a transparency or poster, in preparation for presenting their perspective to the class. In the second step of this exercise, students are to read a brief case history and analyze the case according to their chosen perspective. The third step is to present their perspective and their analysis to the class.

If you have a small class, you can have each group present its perspective and analysis orally, using transparencies or posters as visual prompts. If you have a large class, you may want to have groups do posters, then group posters on similar perspectives together around the edges of the room. You could then tour around the room and ask a few key questions of students from each group while other students look and listen.

Detailed instructions for this activity are contained in **Handout Master 1.2**. As you wrap up this activity, you may want to reinforce the consideration of perspectives by pointing out to students that they will be revisiting these perspectives throughout the rest of the course.

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Activity: Psychologists' Twenty Questions

Play the game "Twenty Questions" with your students to have them try to guess your specialization in psychology. They should be very close to your actual interests by the end of the game. Explain how and why you selected your

particular field or specialty in psychology. You might also draw students' attention to the information in Chapter 1 about possible careers for psychology majors. You may also want to mention the need for more minorities and individuals from working class backgrounds in the field, if such information would be appropriate for your students. Encourage them to visit the APA Web site (<http://www.apa.org>) to find out more about psychology careers.

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Class Activity: Are Psychologists Scientists?

Before introducing students to the various subfields of psychology, make the point that all psychologists, regardless of their area of expertise, are indeed scientists. This brief exercise (adapted from Smith, 1982) also illustrates students' stereotypical view of psychologists as clinicians. First, write the word "psychologist" on the board and ask students to describe some characteristics and traits of the typical psychologist. With encouragement to freely answer with any words or images that come to mind, the following responses frequently come up: caring, patient, warm, lying on a couch, soothing, good listener, giving advice, etc. After erasing these responses, write the word "scientist" on the board and ask students to do the same for the typical scientist. Their responses clearly indicate that their perceptions of "scientists" (which include traits like analytical, brilliant, and achieving, and images of conducting research and wearing lab coats and pocket protectors) are markedly different from their perceptions of "psychologists." Near the end of the exercise, a few students will invariably catch on and ask, "But aren't psychologists scientists?", which leads the class into a discussion of why their perceptions are so divergent. By this time, the idea that psychologists are *scientists* that study the mind and behavior rather than genes, chemicals, or subatomic particles makes perfect sense, and I can then describe cognitive psychologists as *scientists* who study human mental processes, developmental psychologists as *scientists* who study changes in capacities throughout the lifespan, and so on.

Smith, G. (1982). Introducing psychology majors to clinical bias through the adjective generation technique. *Teaching of Psychology*, 9, 238–239.

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HANDOUT MASTERS

1.1 Knowledge of Psychology Test

1.2 Critical Thinking Exercise: Perspectives in Psychology

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Handout Master 1.1

Knowledge of Psychology Test

Instructions: Read each item carefully and then circle whether you believe the statement to be true or false.

- T F 1. To change people's behavior toward members of ethnic minority groups, we must first change their attitudes.
- T F 2. By feeling people's faces, blind people can visualize how they look in their minds.
- T F 3. Children memorize much more easily than adults.
- T F 4. Unlike humans, the lower animals are motivated only by their bodily needs—hunger, thirst, sex, etc.
- T F 5. “The study of the mind” is the best brief definition of psychology today.
- T F 6. The more you memorize by rote (e.g., poems), the better you will become at memorizing.
- T F 7. The best way to ensure that a desired behavior will persist after training is completed is to reward the behavior every single time it occurs throughout training (rather than intermittently).
- T F 8. Fortunately for babies, human beings have a strong maternal instinct.
- T F 9. The ability of blind people to avoid obstacles is due to a special sense that develops in compensation for their absence of vision.
- T F 10. By giving a young baby lots of extra stimulation (e.g., mobiles and musical toys), we can markedly increase its intelligence.
- T F 11. Psychiatrists are defined as medical people who use psychoanalysis.
- T F 12. Boys and girls exhibit no behavioral differences until environmental influences begin to produce such differences.
- T F 13. The high correlation between cigarette smoking and lung cancer proves that smoking causes lung cancer.
- T F 14. Genius is akin to insanity.
- T F 15. In love and friendship, more often than not, opposites attract one another.

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Handout Master 1.2

Critical Thinking Exercise: Perspectives in Psychology

Step 1.

Pick one of the perspectives listed below. Each group, working together, is responsible for teaching the class about its viewpoint. Prepare a transparency or poster that summarizes the important points about your theory. Be sure to include the **names** of people who were most important in developing your theory and **key terms** and **concepts** associated with your theory. Be prepared to present your theory to the class.

Biological

Learning

Cognitive

Sociocultural

Psychodynamic

Step 2.

Read the following case history. Working with your group, decide how a psychologist using your perspective would explain the **cause** of Andrea's problem. *Do not rely on common sense and intuition in discussing this case. Imagine that you are a dyed-in-the-wool advocate of this particular viewpoint and make your arguments from that point of view.* Write your ideas on your transparency or poster and be prepared to present them to the whole class.

Andrea is a 19-year-old college student. She has requested counseling from her college counseling center at the urging of her friends. Andrea's friends believe that she may have an eating disorder. Andrea sees herself as fat, but to her friends she is startlingly thin. In fact, she is so thin that they are afraid that she will become seriously ill. Andrea maintains this low weight mainly by eating practically nothing and drinking two quarts of water a day. She says that she thinks about food "all the time" when she is restricting her food intake, but that she does not want to eat because she is afraid of getting fat. At other times, however, her hunger is so intense that she feels like she has to give in to the cravings. At those times she "binges" and eats huge amounts of food. For example, she once ate a half gallon of ice cream in a little over one hour. After her "binges" she works to get rid of the excess calories she has consumed by vomiting. She says she is starting to agree that she may have an eating problem. After interviewing Andrea, you are convinced that she meets criteria for a diagnoses of both anorexia and bulimia.

You are also interested in obtaining some background information about Andrea, to aid in understanding her. You find out that Andrea is 19 years old and a freshman at your college. She says that she started really worrying about her weight two years ago, when she was a junior in high school. At that time her parents were quarreling a lot and had even talked about divorce. She says that managing her eating made her feel more in control. She also noticed that, even though she still felt fat, people seemed to pay more attention to her and to respond to her better as she got thinner. She indicates that she likes having a more "boyish," more athletic figure.

Step 3.

Present your perspective and your analysis of the case history to the class.

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FORTY STUDIES THAT CHANGED PSYCHOLOGY: EXPLORATIONS INTO THE HISTORY OF PSYCHOLOGICAL RESEARCH, 6/E (ISBN 013603599X)

By Roger Hock

This unique book closes the gap between psychology textbooks and the research that made them possible by offering a first hand glimpse into 40 of the most famous studies in the history of the field, and subsequent studies that expanded upon each study's influence. Readers are able to grasp the process and excitement of scientific discovery as they experience an insider's look at the studies that continue today to be cited most frequently, stirred up the most controversy when they were first published, sparked the most subsequent related research, opened new fields of psychological exploration, and changed most dramatically our knowledge of human behavior.

Watch Out For The Visual Cliff!

Gibson, E. J., & Walk, R. D. (1960). The "visual cliff." *Scientific American*, 202(4), 67–71.

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WEB RESOURCES

General/Comprehensive

Amoeba Web: <http://vanguard.edu/faculty/ddegelman/amoebaweb/>

A site containing nicely organized tables of links to web pages related to various topics in psychology.

Centre for Psychology Resources: <http://psych.athabasca.ca/html/aupr/psycres.shtml>

A site maintained by Athabasca University in Canada. Provides comprehensive information on a variety of psychology topics.

Psych Web: <http://www.psychwww.com>

A cornucopia of psychology-related links maintained by the Psychology Department at Georgia Southern University.

Science & Pseudoscience Review in Mental Health: <http://www.srmhp.org/archives/>

“The Review” is an online resource for questioning “scientific” claims in mental health research and publishing. This is a great resource for student projects to explore various scientific claims related to EMDR, touch therapies, and hidden memories, just to name a few.

Social Psychology Network: <http://www.socialpsychology.org/>

Well-organized links related to topics in social psychology.

Tests, Tests, Tests: <http://www.queendom.com/tests>

A vast variety of psychological tests established and maintained by “Cyberia Shrink.”

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Major Professional Organizations

APA – American Psychological Association: <http://www.apa.org>

Information about the APA and links to other sites.

APS – Association for Psychological Science: <http://www.psychologicalscience.org>

Information about the APS and links to other sites.

Division 3 of the American Psychological Association: <http://www.apa.org/divisions/div3/>

The Division of Experimental Psychology of the American Psychological Association was formed many years ago to represent the interests and concerns of psychologists whose principal area of study or research lies within the field of general experimental psychology.

Division 7 of the American Psychological Association: <http://classweb.gmu.edu/awinsler/div7/homepage.shtml>

Division 7 was organized to (a) promote research in the field of Developmental Psychology; (b) foster the development of researchers through providing information about educational opportunities and recognizing outstanding contributions to the discipline; (c) facilitate exchange of scientific information about developmental psychology through publications such as the division’s newsletter and through national and international meetings; and (d) promote high standards for the application of scientific knowledge on human development to public policy issues.

Experimental Psychology Society: <http://www.eps.ac.uk/>

The Experimental Psychology Society is for the furtherance of scientific inquiry within the field of Psychology and cognate subjects. It holds periodic meetings at which papers are read and discussions held. The Society also disseminates information and educational material made available as a consequence of psychological research, including the publication of the Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology (Section A: Human Experimental Psychology, and Section B: Comparative and Physiological Psychology).

Jean Piaget Society: <http://www.piaget.org/>

This site was created as an information resource for members of the Jean Piaget Society. The Jean Piaget Society, established in 1970, has an international, interdisciplinary membership of scholars, teachers and researchers interested in exploring the nature of the developmental construction of human knowledge.

Philosophy of Science Association: <http://philsci.org/>

The Philosophy of Science Association aims to further studies and free discussion from diverse standpoints in the field of philosophy of science. To this end, the PSA engages in activities such as: the publishing of periodicals, essays and monographs in this field; sponsoring conventions and meetings; and the awarding of prizes for distinguished work in the field.

Psychonomic Society: <http://www.psychonomic.org/>

One of the premier organizations of modern experimental psychology. The Psychonomic Society promotes the communication of scientific research in psychology and allied sciences.

Society of Clinical Psychology: <http://www.apa.org/divisions/div12/homepage.html>

This site is sponsored by Division 12 of APA and addresses a variety of research, theory, and practice issues associated with clinical psychology.

Society of Counseling Psychology: <http://www.div17.org/>

Division 17 – Counseling Psychology was founded in 1946 to promote personal, educational, vocational, and group adjustment in a variety of settings. Presently, Division 17 brings together psychologists, students, and international and professional affiliates who are dedicated to promoting education and training, scientific investigation, practice, and diversity and public interest in professional psychology.

Society of Experimental Social Psychology (SESP): <http://www.sesp.org/>

SESP is a scientific organization dedicated to the advancement of social psychology.

Society for Personality and Social Psychology: <http://www.spsp.org/>

With over 4,000 members, the Society is the largest organization of social and personality psychologists in the world. The goals of the Society are to further the generation and dissemination of research in personality and social psychology.

Society for Psychological Study of Social Issues: <http://www.spssi.org/>

SPSSI is an international group of over 3500 psychologists, allied scientists, students, and others who share a common interest in research on the psychological aspects of important social issues. In various ways, the Society seeks to bring theory and practice into focus on human problems of the group, the community, and nations, as well as the increasingly important problems that have no national boundaries.

Society for Research in Child Development: <http://www.srkd.org/>

The Society is a multidisciplinary, not-for-profit, professional association with a membership of approximately 5,500 researchers, practitioners, and human development professionals from over 50 countries. The purposes of the Society are to promote multidisciplinary research in the field of human development, to foster the exchange of information among scientists and other professionals of various disciplines, and to encourage applications of research findings.

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History of Psychology

Archives of the History of American Psychology: <http://www.uakron.edu/ahap>

Psychology's attic, maintained at the University of Akron.

Classics in the History of Psychology: <http://psychclassics.yorku.ca/>

This document repository, complete with a search engine, allows you to read excerpts from classic papers in psychology.

History of Psychology: <http://server.bmod.athabascau.ca/html/aupr/history.htm>

The Psychology Center's History of Psychology page has many websites to choose from, including broad topics and those specific to the history of psychology. Your students can learn more about psychology's past or investigate the history of a particular topic that interests them.

Today in the History of Psychology: <http://www.cwu.edu/~warren/today.html>

Warren R. Street, of the University of Central Washington, knows everything about who was born when, who died when, what got published when, and what happened where.

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Psychological Theories

About Psychoanalysis: <http://www.apsa.org/pubinfo.about.htm>

An article on this topic from the American Psychoanalytic Association.

Humanistic Psychology Overview: <http://www.ahpweb.org/aboutahp/whatis.html>

A brief history of the humanistic psychology movement.

Mind and Body: Rene Descartes to William James: <http://serendip.brynmawr.edu/Mind/Table.html>

Robert H. Wozniak (Bryn Mawr College) presents this history of ideas.

B. F. Skinner Foundation: <http://www.bfskinner.org/>

Read a biography of the famous behaviorist, complete a training course on his theories, and visit a media archive replete with audio and video clips. The B.F. Skinner Foundation was established in 1987 to educate the public about B. F. Skinner's work, and to promote an understanding of the role of contingencies in human behavior.

The Varieties of Religious Experience: <http://www.psychwww.com/psyrelig/james/toc.htm>

This work by William James is available in its entirety on the Web, courtesy of the folks at Georgia Southern University.

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Majoring in Psychology

Graduate Programs in Psychology: <http://www.uky.edu/Education/EDP/psyprog.html>

Steer your students to this site to answer the many questions you undoubtedly answer yourself. "What's the GRE?" "What do forensic psychologists do?" and "What's the difference between a PsyD and a Ph.D.?" can be answered here.

Tipsheets for Psychology Majors: <http://www.psychwww.com/tipsheet/index.html>

Also from the Psychology Department at Georgia Southern University.

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Careers in Psychology

APA Divisions: <http://apa.org/about/division.html>

The American Psychological Association's links to all of its divisions. Steer your students here to learn more about the major areas of psychology and what psychologists with these specializations do for a living.

Careers in Psychology: <http://academic.uofs.edu/departments/psych/handbook/x.html>

A description of various career areas in psychology, including salary information.

Marky Lloyd's Careers in Psychology Page: <http://www.psywww.com/careers/index.htm>

M. A. Lloyd at Georgia Southern University prepared this helpful site.

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VIDEO RESOURCES

NEW MyPsychLab Video Series

Episode 1: Introduction to Psychology

1. The Big Picture: Asking the Tough Questions
2. The Basics: A Diverse Approach
3. Special Topics: Careers in Psychology
4. Thinking Like a Psychologist: Debunking Myths
5. In the Real World Application: Speed Dating
6. What's In It For Me?: The Myth of Multitasking

This new video series offers instructors and students the most current and cutting edge introductory psychology video content available anywhere. These exclusive videos take the viewer into today's research laboratories, inside the body and brain through breathtaking animations, and out into the street for real-world applications. Guided by the Design, Development and Review team, a diverse group of introductory psychology professors, this comprehensive new series features 17 half-hour episodes organized around the major topics of the introductory psychology course syllabus. For maximum flexibility, each 30-minute episode features several brief clips that bring psychology to life.

FEATURES

Format

The MyPsychLab video series was designed with flexibility in mind. Each half-hour episode in the MyPsychLab video series is made up of several five-minute clips, which can be viewed separately or together:

- *The Big Picture* introduces the topic of the episode and draws in the viewer.
- *The Basics* uses the power of video to present foundational topics, especially those that students find difficult to understand.
- *Special Topics* dives deeper into high-interest and often cutting-edge topics, showing research in action.
- *Thinking Like a Psychologist* models critical thinking and explores research methods.
- *In the Real World* focuses on applications of psychological research.
- *What's In It for Me?* These clips show students the relevance of psychological research to their lives.

Flexible Delivery

Students can access the videos anytime within MyPsychLab, and each clip is accompanied by enriching self-assessment quizzes. Instructors can access the videos for classroom presentation in MyPsychLab or on DVD (0205035817).

OTHER PEARSON PSYCHOLOGY VIDEO COLLECTIONS:

Introductory Psychology Teaching Films Boxed Set ISBN (0131754327)

Offering you an easy to use multi-DVD set of videos, more than 100 short video clips of 5–15 minutes in length from many of the most popular video sources for Psychology content, such as ABC News; the Films for the Humanities series; PBS; and more!

Pearson Education Teaching Films Introductory Psychology: Instructor's Library 2-Disk DVD Annual Edition (ISBN 0205652808)

Annual updates of the most popular video sources for Psychology content, such as ABC News; the Films for the Humanities series; PBS; and more in 5–15 minute clips on an easy to use DVD!

FILMS FOR HUMANITIES AND SCIENCES VIDEO LIBRARY (<http://www.ffh.films.com>)

Qualified adopters can select videos on various topics in psychology from the extensive library of *Films for the Humanities and Sciences*. Contact your local sales representative for a list of videos and ISBNs.

Other video series are available, ask your Pearson sales representative for more details.

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MULTIMEDIA RESOURCES

Online Resources: MyPsychLab www.mypsychlab.com

See/Hear/Learn/Explore More Icons integrated in the text lead to web-based expansions on topics, allowing instructors and students access to extra information, videos, podcasts, and simulations. The in-text icons are not exhaustive—there are many more resources available to instructors and students online at www.MyPsychLab.com.

What Is MyPsychLab? MyPsychLab is a learning and assessment tool that enables instructors to assess student performance and adapt course content. Students benefit from the ability to test themselves on key content, track their progress, and utilize individually tailored study plan. In addition to the activities students can access in their customized study plans, instructors are provided with extra lecture notes, video clips, and activities that reflect the content areas their class is still struggling with. Instructors can bring these resources to class, or easily post online for students to access.

Instructors and students have been using MyPsychLab for over 10 years. To date, over 600,000 students have used MyPsychLab. During that time, three white papers on the efficacy of MyPsychLab were published. Both the white papers and user feedback show compelling results: MyPsychLab helps students succeed and improve their test scores. One of the key ways MyPsychLab improves student outcomes is by providing continuous assessment as part of the learning process. Over the years, both instructor and student feedback have guided numerous improvements, making MyPsychLab even more flexible and effective.

Pearson is committed to helping instructors and students succeed with MyPsychLab.

To that end, we offer a Psychology Faculty Advisor Program designed to provide peer to-peer support for new users of MyPsychLab. Experienced Faculty Advisors help instructors understand how MyPsychLab can improve student performance. To learn more about the Faculty Advisor Program, please contact your local Pearson representative.

In addition to the eText and complete audio files, the New MyPsychLab video series, MyPsychLab offers these valuable and unique tools:

- **MyPsychLab assessment questions:** over 3,000 questions, distinct from the test bank, but designed to help instructors easily assign additional quizzes and tests, that can be graded automatically and loaded into an instructor's grade book.
- **MyPsychLab study plan:** students have access to a **personalized study plan**, based on Bloom's Taxonomy, arranges content from less complex thinking (like remembering and understanding) to more complex critical thinking (like applying and analyzing). This layered approach promotes better critical-thinking skills, and helps students succeed in the course and beyond.
- **NEW Experiments Tool:** Online experiments help students understand scientific principles and practice through active learning—fifty new experiments, inventories, and surveys are available through MyPsychLab.
- **APA assessments:** A unique bank of assessment items allows instructors to assess student progress against the American Psychological Association's Learning Goals and Outcomes. These assessments have been keyed to the APA's latest progressive Learning Outcomes (basic, developing, advanced).
- **ClassPrep** available in MyPsychLab. Finding, sorting, organizing, and presenting your instructor resources is faster and easier than ever before with ClassPrep. This fully searchable database contains hundreds and hundreds of our best teacher resources, such as lecture launchers and discussion topics, in-class and out-of-class activities and assignments, handouts, as well as video clips, photos, illustrations, charts, graphs, and animations. Instructors can search or browse by topic, and it is easy to sort your results by type, such as photo, document, or animation. You can create personalized folders to organize and store what you like, or you can download resources. You can also upload your own content and present directly from ClassPrep, or make it available online directly to your students.

MyPsychLab Highlights for Chapter 1: Psychology and Life

NEW Experiments Tool to promote active learning

Survey: What Do You Know About Psychology?

Audio File of the Chapter

A helpful study tool for students—they can listen to a complete audio file of the chapter. Suggest they listen while they read, or use the audio file as a review of key material.

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POWERPOINTS

New Interactive PowerPoint Slides

These slides, available on the Instructor's Resource DVD (ISBN 0205898777), bring the *Psychology and Life* design right into the classroom, drawing students into the lecture and providing wonderful interactive activities, visuals, and videos. A video walkthrough is available and provides clear guidelines on using and customizing the slides. The slides are built around the text's learning objectives and offer many links across content areas. Icons integrated throughout the slides indicate interactive exercise, simulations, and activities that can be accessed directly from the slides if instructors want to use these resources in the classroom.

Standard Lecture PowerPoint Slides

A set of standard lecture PowerPoint slides, prepared by Christopher T. Arra, Ph.D, Northern Virginia Community College, is also offered and includes detailed outlines of key points for each chapter supported by selected visuals from the textbook. A separate *Art and Figure* version of these presentations contains all art from the textbook for which Pearson has been granted electronic permissions.

Both sets of PowerPoint slides are available for download at the instructor's resource center at www.pearsonhighered.com/irc, as well as on the Instructor's Resource DVD (ISBN 0205898777).

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ACCESSING ALL RESOURCES for *Psychology and Life*, Twentieth Edition

For a list of all student resources available with *Psychology and Life*, go to www.mypearsonstore.com, enter the text ISBN (0205859135) and check out the "Everything That Goes With It" section under the book cover.

For access to the instructor supplements for *Psychology and Life*, Twentieth Edition, simply go to <http://pearsonhighered.com/irc> and follow the directions to register (or log in if you already have a Pearson user name and password).

Once you have registered and your status as an instructor is verified, you will be e-mailed a login name and password. Use your login name and password to access the catalogue. Click on the "online catalogue" link, click on "psychology" followed by "introductory psychology" and then the Gerrig *Psychology and Life*, Twentieth Edition text. Under the description of each supplement is a link that allows you to download and save the supplement to your desktop.

For technical support for any of your Pearson products, you and your students can contact <http://247.pearsoned.com>.

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