Chapter 1
Psychology: The Evolution of a Science

OUTLINE OF RESOURCES

I. PSYCHOLOGY’S ROOTS: THE PATH TO A SCIENCE OF MIND

Lecture Suggestion 1.1: Teaching Tips (p. 1-5)
Lecture Suggestion 1.2: A Virtual Tour of Psychology’s Past (p. 1-7)
Classroom Exercise 1.1: Acronyms Can Be HANDy (Helpful, Augmentative, Novel, Dandy) (p. 1-8)
Classroom Exercise 1.2: The Puzzle of Psychology’s History (p. 1-8)
Classroom Exercise 1.3: Practicing with Introspection (p. 1-10)

Multimedia Suggestions
Interactive Presentation Slides for Introductory Psychology:
   1.1 Roots and Early History
   1.2 Perspectives and Practices
PsychInvestigator: Empirical Reasoning
PsychSim 5 Tutorials: Psychology’s Timeline
Worth Video Series:
   Scientific American Introductory Psychology Videos OR Video Anthology for Introductory Psychology: Introduction to Psychology – The History of Psychology

II. THE DEVELOPMENT OF CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY

Lecture Suggestion 1.3: When You Believe In Things That You Don’t Understand (p. 1-11)
Lecture Suggestion 1.4: Uncommon Sense (p. 1-12)
Classroom Exercise 1.4: Hit and Myth (p. 1-13)
Multimedia Suggestions

Feature Films:

_A Dangerous Method_ (2011, 99 min, rated R) (p. 1-15)

_Freud_ (1984, 360 min, not rated) (p. 1-15)

_Young Dr. Freud_ (2002, 120 min, not rated) (p. 1-15)

_Spellbound_ (1945, 111 min, not rated) (p. 1-15)

Worth Video Series: Video Anthology for Introductory Psychology: Sensation and Perception – Mueller-Lyer Illusion

III. THE SEARCH FOR OBJECTIVE MEASUREMENT: BEHAVIORISM TAKES CENTER STAGE

Lecture Suggestion 1.5: Watson—Behaviorism and Advertising (p. 1-16)

Lecture Suggestion 1.6: Today in the History of Psychology: Behaviorism (p. 1-17)

Classroom Exercise 1.5: Get a Job, Sha Na Na Na, Sha Na Na Na Na Na (p. 1-18)

Multimedia Suggestions

Feature Film: _A Clockwork Orange_ (1971, 136 min, originally rated X, re-rated R) (p. 1-19)

PsychSim 5 Tutorials: Psychology’s Timeline

IV. RETURN OF THE MIND: PSYCHOLOGY EXPands

Lecture Suggestion 1.7: Happy Birthday, Chuck (p. 1-20)

Lecture Suggestion 1.8: Isn’t It Ironic, Don’t You Think? (p. 1-21)

Classroom Exercise 1.6: History in Miniature (p. 1-22)

Multimedia Suggestions

PsychSim 5 Tutorials: Psychology’s Timeline

Worth Video Series: Video Anthology for Introductory Psychology: Nature, Nurture, and Human Diversity – Evolutionary Psychology and Sex Differences

V. BEYOND THE INDIVIDUAL: SOCIAL AND CULTURAL PERSPECTIVES

Lecture Suggestion 1.9: Today in the History of Social Psychology (p. 1-24)
Lecture Suggestion 1.10: Perceptions of the Professor (p. 1-25)
Classroom Exercise 1.7: Doing Your Part for Science (p. 1-26)
Classroom Exercise 1.8: Tweets from Psychology’s Past (p. 1-27)
Classroom Exercise 1.9: Speed Dating (p. 1-27)

*Multimedia Suggestions*

PsychSim 5 Tutorials: Psychology’s Timeline

VI. THE PROFESSION OF PSYCHOLOGY: PAST AND PRESENT

Lecture Suggestion 1.11: Show Me the Money? (p. 1-28)
Classroom Exercise 1.10: Psychologists and Scientists (p. 1-31)
Classroom Exercise 1.11: Hail to the Chief(s) (p. 1-32)

*Multimedia Suggestions*

Feature Films:

*Final Analysis* (1992, 124 min, rated R) (p. 1-33)
*Like Minds* (2006, 110 min, rated PG-13) (p. 1-33)

Web sites:

Women in Psychology
A Decade-by-Decade History of Psychology

PsychSim 5 Tutorials: Psychology’s Timeline


OTHER FILM SOURCES (p. 1-34)

HANDOUTS

HANDOUT 1.1: Acronyms for Psychological Concepts

HANDOUT 1.2: Knowledge of Psychology Test
Chapter Objectives

After studying this chapter, students should be able to:

1. Define psychology and distinguish between the mind and behavior.

2. Distinguish between nativism and philosophical empiricism and identify an ancient Greek philosopher associated with each philosophical view.

3. Summarize the contributions of René Descartes, Thomas Hobbes, Franz Gall, and Paul Broca to the early development of the science of psychology.

4. Explain how the study of physiology contributed to the development of psychology, noting especially the work of Helmholtz on reaction time.

5. Define structuralism, describe how Wundt and Titchener used introspection to study consciousness, and identify the major weakness of this method.

6. Define functionalism, and describe how James and Hall incorporated ideas from Darwin into this school of thought.

7. Discuss the development of Freud’s psychoanalytic theory and how it formed the basis for psychoanalysis.

8. Contrast psychoanalytic theory with the humanistic psychology introduced by Maslow and Rogers.

9. Describe the basic tenets of behaviorism, focusing on its insistence on studying objectively observable behavior.

10. Describe Watson’s approach to behaviorism, noting how it built on the work of Pavlov.

11. Describe Skinner’s approach to behaviorism, including the principle of reinforcement, and note its implications with respect to free will.

12. Define Gestalt psychology and give an example of how research on illusions led to its development.

14. Discuss the role that the advent of computers and advances in linguistics had on the development of cognitive psychology.

15. Define behavioral neuroscience and cognitive neuroscience, and note some of the techniques these approaches use to studying the mind and behavior.

16. Explain how Darwin’s ideas about evolution can be applied to psychology.

17. Compare social psychology and cultural psychology, and describe some of the areas studied by each approach.

18. Distinguish between the American Psychological Association and the Association for Psychological Science in terms of focus of the organizations and the number of members.

19. Describe how women and members of underrepresented groups developed an increasing presence in the field of psychology.

20. Discuss some of the careers available to those who have studied psychology.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

I. Psychology’s Roots: The Path to a Science of Mind

(Chapter Objectives 1–6)

Psychology is the scientific study of mind and behavior. Some of the earliest successful efforts to develop a science linking mind and behavior came from two French scientists. Franz Gall observed the effects of brain damage in animals, and Paul Broca observed the effects of brain damage on the mental abilities and behaviors of people. Hermann von Helmholtz furthered the science by developing methods for measuring reaction time. Wilhelm Wundt is credited with founding psychology as a scientific discipline, creating the first psychological laboratory, and teaching the first course in physiological psychology. His approach, focusing on analyzing the basic elements of consciousness, was called structuralism. William James pioneered the school of functionalism, which emphasized the functions of consciousness, and applied Darwin’s theory of natural selection to the mind.

Lecture Suggestion 1.1

Teaching Tips

If you’re new to the teaching of psychology, you might be curious about where to turn for tips on presenting content, managing the classroom, dealing with student requests, and the many other tasks that arise during the course of a semester. Even if you’re an “old pro” at teaching introductory psychology, you might nonetheless be curious about resources to help you take a fresh look at tried and true topics. There are a sizable number of Web sites (e.g., teachpsych.org, socialpsychology.org, psychologicalscience.org, TIPS,
apa.org), journals (e.g., Teaching of Psychology), and conferences (e.g., National Institute on the Teaching of Psychology) that focus on the teaching of psychology. In addition, here are some books that instructors, new or seasoned, might find valuable:


**Lecture Suggestion 1.2**

A Virtual Tour of Psychology’s Past

If necessity is the mother of invention, then psychology has witnessed more than its share of births over the years. Many a fledgling psychologist in the early days of the science was called upon to create whatever apparatus she or he needed to conduct the research projects at hand. Some of these devices eventually morphed into their modern-day equivalents, whereas others fell by the wayside.

Your students might be interested to see some of the instruments used at the beginning of psychology. Fortunately there are several online resources that have collected examples of these instruments. Consider a brief tour through parts of these virtual museums, or choose images of a few devices that illustrate some of the points you raise in class regarding psychology’s history.


*The Barnard College Psychology Department History of Psychology Collection*  http://psychology.barnard.edu/museum

*Museum of Brass Instrument Psychology at the University of Toronto*  http://www.psych.utoronto.ca/museum/
Classroom Exercise 1.1

Acronyms Can Be HANDy (Helpful, Augmentative, Novel, Dandy)

The subject matter of psychology ranges widely over a considerable number of topics: From neurons to social systems and everything in between, we’ve somehow found a way to embrace the full complement of what people do. That’s exciting stuff; there’s a lot to study, and it tends to keep psychologists employed! But for beginning students, the welter of information to be mastered can seem daunting.

Daniel Stalder of the University of Wisconsin-Whitewater suggests using acronyms as a way to make material more memorable for students, increase their enjoyment of the class, and improve their exam scores.

- **Handout 1.1** contains a list of acronyms for concepts typically presented in an introductory psychology course.

- You might share these with your students, or encourage them to generate more of their own.


Classroom Exercise 1.2

The Puzzle of Psychology’s History

The early days of psychology were characterized by different views about how this fledgling science ought to proceed. Structuralists, functionalists, phenomenologists, Gestaltists, mystics, and the occasional physicist all had a position to offer, and their arguments waxed and waned in popularity over the years. Those who teach psychology have learned that eventually all of these viewpoints get sorted out. Those who learn psychology for the first time, however, might have a bit more difficulty sussing out the perspectives available in psychology’s early history.

Judith Krauss suggests a simple, engaging three-part exercise to help students grasp the basic perspectives of structuralism, functionalism, and Gestalt psychology.

First, follow the math here:

- Get 3 or 4 puzzles with 12 to 15 pieces each, designed for children aged 3 to 5 years.

- With these colorful materials in hand, distribute puzzle pieces at random to the members of your class.
When everyone has a piece, invite students to tell you everything they can about their particular puzzle piece. Answers such as “it is part of a puzzle” or “it’s the part with the red chicken on it” should be rejected, because they assume the listeners have prior knowledge about the object in question.

Eventually, answers such as “it has color on it” or “it has five angles” or “it has no flavor” will emerge. Use these answers as a starting point for discussing structuralism, pointing out how that perspective emphasizes reducing an object to its most fundamental parts as a way of understanding the nature of the object.

Summary:

Along the way, students will no doubt realize that describing every nuance of the object at hand still doesn’t reveal what its purpose is or what it does; hence, the limits of structuralism as a method for psychology can be discussed.

Next:

Ask students to investigate the function of their puzzle piece by seeking out another piece that will fit with it. This will require students to move about the room as they search for classmates who have adjoining pieces; this can be a nice ice-breaker at the beginning of the semester.

Summary:

As students see how their pieces work in conjunction with other pieces, you can introduce a discussion of functionalism, pointing out that it emphasizes understanding an object by understanding its purpose. However, a few joined pieces does not a puzzle make. Students will realize that functionalism has limits to understanding as well: purpose is revealed, but there is still more to know.

Finally:

Ask students to complete their puzzles.

Summary:

As the completed images emerge, you can segue into a discussion of Gestalt psychology, capitalizing on the phrase “the whole is greater than the sum of its parts.” Point out that although the structure and function of the individual pieces was known, the meaning of the object (in this case, the entire puzzle) was revealed through the coordinated interplay of all those parts.

Classroom Exercise 1.3

Practicing with Introspection

Goodwin (1989) notes that students and instructors generally find it difficult to grasp the nature and technique of introspection. In class or in a textbook, not much is described beyond the presentation of a stimulus, the attempt at describing the experience, and the problems with the method’s reliability. Goodwin notes that the “observers” in these research studies were highly trained and that it is hard for us to appreciate what went into their training simply by reading some instructions for introspection. One suggestion he makes is to have students attempt to replicate a study by Conklin and Dimmick (1925). These researchers were studying the experience of fear and in doing so presented their observers with a range of stimuli, from frightening to nonfrightening. Observers sat with their eyes closed and were presented with various stimuli for brief periods. Their instructions were as follows:

Let [the stimulus] have its full normal effect and respond to it naturally. After I say “Now” describe your experience as completely as you can. . . . Don’t try to tell what the object is, but describe your experience in the situation (p. 96).

The stimuli included “odors (pl. and unpl.), sandpaper, warm velvet, . . . blast of air, rubber glove filled with water, preserved brain, preserved frog, soaked macaroni, wet rubber snake, and cold metal” (Conklin & Dimmick, 1925, p. 97).

When students take on the role of observers, it becomes immediately evident that introspection is not an easy procedure. Their natural reaction will be to name the stimulus, rather than describe their experience of the stimulus, a more difficult process. However, some students will produce detailed descriptions that are quite similar to the phenomenological reports in the original research.

Sources:


Multimedia Suggestions

See the Preface for product information on the following items:

*Interactive Presentation Slides for Introductory Psychology*

1.1 Roots and Early History

1.2 Perspectives and Practices
II. The Development of Clinical Psychology

(Chapter Objectives 7–8)

Jean-Marie Charcot and Pierre Janet were French physicians who used hypnosis to try to treat a disorder known as hysteria in the late 19th century. Hysteria was a condition in which people had a loss of cognitive or physical functioning for which there was no physical explanation. Charcot and Janet found that these symptoms would disappear under hypnosis. William James thought these results suggested the possibility that there are a number of conscious selves that exist, an idea that was expanded upon by Sigmund Freud.

Through his work with hysteric patients, Sigmund Freud developed the theory of psychoanalysis, which emphasized the importance of unconscious influences and childhood experiences in shaping thoughts, feelings, and behavior. The theory was controversial because it suggested that an individual’s behavior was influenced by unconscious sexual and aggressive impulses. While Freud was an influential thinker in the field, his ideas have been difficult to test, leading many psychologists to question their usefulness.

The field of humanistic psychology arose after the Second World War. Pioneered by psychologists like Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow, this approach to psychology argued that people are inherently disposed toward growth and can usually reach their full potential with a little help.

Lecture Suggestion 1.3

When You Believe in Things That You Don’t Understand

Mindbugs refer to the slips, errors, illusions, and shortcomings that so often characterize human thought and behavior. Fortunately, these foibles reveal something important about the otherwise smooth functioning of the mind.
However, there is another type of error that’s not so helpful. Quite often people believe in things that they really shouldn’t, or follow advice that’s groundless, or pursue a truth that’s spun from fantasy. There is no shortage of New Age mystics, crystal healers, life coaches, psychics, and spiritual guides to muddy the waters of rational thought. In fact, psychology is probably more susceptible to this kind of quackery than other sciences. No one seriously challenges the laws of physics, for example (“Hey, look . . . I really can float . . . so much for that whole gravity thing!”), but the principles of psychology seem to be fair game: “Everyone’s different, man, so who’s to say I couldn’t possess telekinetic powers?”

In fact, a 2002 CBS News/Gallup poll found that 57% of Americans believed in ESP, telepathy, or experiences that can’t be explained by conventional means (http://www.cbsnews.com/stories/2002/04/29/opinion/polls/main507515.shtml). Belief in such phenomena was about twice as high among those younger than age 65 than those older than 65, although the overall percent of believers was less than it was in 1989. Then, 64% of the public said they believed in psychic phenomena.

It would be nice to get those numbers closer to zero. Perhaps you can do your part. Scott Lilienfeld, Jeff Lohr, and Dean Morier have recommended several books and Web sites that are helpful in disabusing students of their misbegotten beliefs about paranormal phenomena. Here are some sites you might want to consult if you weave this material into your lectures, both at the start and throughout the semester:


Lecture Suggestion 1.4

Uncommon Sense

As everyone knows, psychology is just common sense. As everyone also knows, if psychologists had a dime for each time a student, layperson, or scientist in another discipline offered that observation, they’d be rich as Croesus! Admittedly, it can be difficult to counter the “common sense” stigma haunting psychology when many people’s sole exposure to the field has been through so-called experts on various talk shows. What’s more, much of behavior does indeed seem explainable at an intuitive surface level, making the need for any specific expertise seem unreasonable.
Mark Leary offers 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 is the subject matter of subatomic physics or inorganic chemistry. After all, we see behavior all around us, but we rarely trip over a gluon. What’s more, psychology would be a peculiar science of thought and behavior if it considered only thoughts and behaviors completely foreign to people’s experiences, or if its findings always ran counter to most people’s beliefs. As such, it is true that what gets studied in psychology has the comfortable ring of familiarity in most people’s lives.

But neither greater familiarity nor popular consensus guarantees greater understanding. Many people believed wholeheartedly in flat earths and cheese moons, only to find their commonsense 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 commonsense 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 simply 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 doesn’t compel us to understand why it takes place. It’s the development of theory in understanding behavior that sets science apart from everyday, commonsense accounts.


**Classroom Exercise 1.4**

**Hit and Myth**

There’s no shortage of misbegotten beliefs surrounding psychology and, quite happily, no shortage of tests designed to assess people’s misbegotten beliefs (see the reference list below). A time-honored way of introducing the subject matter of psychology is to administer just such a test and then discuss the responses, dismantling beliefs as you go.

For your convenience, give **Handout 1.2** to your students to take. It reproduces a commonly used test of psychological myths (Griggs & Ransdell, 1987). These 15 items have at least a 50% error rate (i.e., they are answered as “true” half the time) and are generally free of ambiguous interpretation. The items are ordered from highest through lowest average error rate. In other words, Item 1 has an average error rate of about 86% (i.e., about 86% of respondents thought this statement was true), whereas Item 15 has an average error rate of about 51% (i.e., about half of respondents thought this statement was true). Then give **Handout 1.3** to your students to take. It reproduces another test of psychological myths (Huber, 2000). This more recent questionnaire is scored as follows:
Standing and Huber (2003) report that responses to this questionnaire are associated with several factors. For example, having taken more university psychology courses, having taken a research methods course, and being older were all associated with lower scores on the scale (i.e., less acceptance of myths). In comparison, having taken more courses in a junior college was somewhat associated with a higher score on the scale. Overall, respondents indicated about a 71% rate of myth acceptance (Standing & Huber, 2003).

Other researchers have found that completing college courses can reduce the acceptance of psychological myths. For example, one study found a myth rejection rate of about 38% on the first day of an introductory psychology course, but a 66% rejection rate by the end of that course (Taylor & Kowalski, 2004). On a related note, a study of students about to start a psychology degree program and nonstudent adults showed a 56% accuracy rate of knowledge of general psychology (Furnham, Callahan, & Rawles, 2003). Having read more books and having a stronger belief in the scientific nature of psychology were predictors of greater accuracy.

You might share these kinds of findings with your students early in the semester. Point out that many people hold mistaken beliefs about many things; the purpose of a college education is, in no small part, to dispel such myths. In particular, learning about psychology ought to help dispel the many myths people have about psychology. Tell them you’ll try your best to accomplish that!

Sources:


**Multimedia Suggestions**

*Feature Film: A Dangerous Method (2011, 99 min, rated R)* David Cronenberg directs this historical fiction depicting Carl Jung’s use of Freud’s treatment methods as he tries to cure the beautiful but deeply disturbed Sabina Spielrein. Michael Fassbender portrays Carl Jung and Viggo Mortensen is Sigmund Freud. Keira Knightley portrays the beautiful patient who falls into an affair with the married Carl Jung.

*Feature Film: Freud (1984, 360 min, not rated)* You know, you just don’t see many mini-series about psychologists. Cowboys—yeah. Detectives—sure. The rich and famous—of course. But psychologists? Not so much. This 6-part BBC series, then, offers a breath of fresh air into the otherwise stagnant arena of television. Freud and his compatriots—Jung, Ferenczi, Otto Rank, Anna Freud—laugh and love their way through turn-of-last-century Vienna.

*Feature Film: Young Dr. Freud (2002, 120 min, not rated)* Well, maybe you do see television programs about psychologists after all! This made-for-TV production chronicles the first 34 years of Sigmund Freud’s life. Segments of the film can help put the development of some key ideas in psychology in context.

*Feature Film: Spellbound (1945, 111 min, not rated)* Ingrid Bergman plays a psychiatrist in this Alfred Hitchcock film. She’s working in therapy with Gregory Peck’s
character, an amnesic accused of murder. This film can provide some historical perspective on the way the mental health profession used to be viewed, especially the practice of psychoanalysis.

See the Preface for product information on the following items:

**Worth Video Series:** Video Anthology for Introductory Psychology: Sensation and Perception – Mueller-Lyer Illusion

### III. The Search for Objective Measurement: Behaviorism Takes Center Stage

(Chapter Objectives 9–11)

Behaviorism advocated the study of observable actions and responses and held that inner mental processes were private events that could not be studied scientifically. John B. Watson launched behaviorism in 1913, focusing on the association between a stimulus and a response, and he emphasized the importance of the environment over genetics in shaping behavior. B. F. Skinner developed the concept of reinforcement, demonstrating that animals will repeat behaviors that generate positive outcomes and avoid those that are associated with unpleasant events. Skinner also suggested that free will is an illusion, and that the principles of reinforcement should be used to benefit society.

**Lecture Suggestion 1.5**

*Watson—Behaviorism and Advertising*

John Watson was a tremendously influential figure in the early days of psychology, but you wouldn’t have guessed it from his early academic endeavors. Watson described himself as a lazy and insubordinate student who never earned more than passing grades. He had intended to enter divinity school after college, but he failed one of his courses during his senior year when he turned in a paper written backwards. As a result, Watson ended up going to graduate school and studying psychology at the University of Chicago. According to history, Watson was not a good introspector, and he preferred working with animals rather than human subjects. Influenced by Pavlov’s work on salivation, Watson argued that psychology should study what could be reliably measured if it was to be a science. According to John Watson, psychology should be the science of observable behavior. Watson viewed the mind as a black box which was essentially unknowable and thus could not be studied: “Psychology as the behaviorist views it is a purely objective experimental branch of natural science. Its theoretical goal is the prediction and control of behavior. Introspection forms no essential part of its methods, nor is the scientific value of its data dependent upon the readiness with which they lend themselves to interpretation in terms of consciousness” (Watson, 1913).

Watson believed that any behavior could be shaped and controlled through manipulation of the environment. He made the bold claim that he could take any child and through controlling its environment, the child could be raised to be doctor, lawyer, artist, beggar man, thief. Watson is most famous for his work conditioning fear in the child known as Little Albert, but his academic career ended with the scandal of his affair
with a graduate student. Watson left academia and went into advertising. Unfortunately, advertising and psychology have been inextricably linked ever since. According to Watson, to control the consumer “it is only necessary to confront him with either fundamental or conditional emotional stimuli. . . . [T]ell him something that will tie him up with fear, something that will stir up a mild rage, that will call out an affectionate or love response, or strike at a deep psychological or habit need.” Watson’s comments from the 1920s sound very similar to those heard today by advertising executives like Nancy Shalek. “Advertising at its best is making people feel that without their product, you’re a loser,” Shalek told the Los Angeles Times. “Kids are very sensitive to that. If you tell them to buy something, they are resistant. But if you tell them they’ll be a dork if they don’t, you’ve got their attention. You open up emotional vulnerabilities and it’s very easy to do with kids because they’re the most emotionally vulnerable” (Ruskin, 1998).

Sources:


Lecture Suggestion 1.6

Today in the History of Psychology: Behaviorism

Warren Street has compiled an impressive collection of events in the history of psychology. His Web site—http://www.cwu.edu/~warren/today.html—provides a day-by-day account of both well-known and obscure happenings relevant to psychologists. Here is a sample of entries related to behaviorism. You might pepper these tidbits into your lectures in any given month of the semester:

January 9, 1878

John B. Watson, the Father of Behaviorism, is born in Greenville, South Carolina.

February 5, 1924

Watson and McDougall’s “Battle of Behaviorism” debate. McDougall is declared the winner.

March 20, 1904

B. F. Skinner is born in Susquehanna, Pennsylvania.
April 3, 1914


May 23, 1883

Ivan Pavlov receives his medical degree from Russia’s Military-Medical Academy.

June 12, 1917

John Garcia is born.

July 12, 1974

APA Commission on Behavior Modification meets to discuss behavior modification in prisons.

August 2, 1925


September 26, 1849

Ivan Pavlov is born in Ryazan, Russia.

October 1, 1906

Pavlov delivers an early lecture on the principles of classical conditioning in London.

November 19, 1959

Edward C. Tolman dies.

December 28, 1942

Clark Hull sends Principles of Behavior to his publisher, Appleton-Century-Crofts.

Classroom Exercise 1.5

Get a Job: Sha Na Na Na Na, Sha Na Na Na Na Na

Here’s a simple exercise that you can apply to many figures in the history of psychology.

- Ask students to write a one-page reflection paper on a simple topic: Could B. F. Skinner get a job in a psychology department today?
Here are some parameters for this assignment to bear in mind:

- First, you should assign this exercise after a fairly complete discussion of both behaviorism and the decline of behaviorism in the history of psychology. (If you just assign it while introducing behaviorism, the answer to the question tends to be a resounding “yes!”)

- Second, recognize that there’s not really a correct answer to this question. Some students will focus on the obvious: Skinner was a leading proponent of behaviorism as a general paradigm for psychology; behaviorism has fallen out of favor as a large-scale system for psychology; therefore Skinner probably wouldn’t be an attractive candidate for a modern-day psychology department. Other students will recognize the nuances of this question: Skinner was a smart fellow, a hard worker, and a good methodologist; smart, hard-working experimentalists are always a valuable asset, therefore Skinner might get a job. What’s more, general behaviorist principles still clearly apply to many domains of modern research, not the least among them being animal research, learning, memory, behavior modification, therapy, and so on; Skinner could probably get a good job in an area suited to his proclivities. Finally, you might consider posing this same kind of question for different historical figures, randomly assigning students in your class to write about one or another. Some people who come immediately to mind are Sigmund Freud, Wilhelm Wundt, William James, John Watson, Max Wertheimer, Abe Maslow, Edward Titchener, Paul Broca, and Jean Piaget. Although some of these people may have been active during your lifetime (such as Skinner, Maslow, or Piaget), realize that all of them will be seen as purely historical figures to your students (most of who were no doubt born sometime in the 1980s . . . or 90s!). You might even propose a bit of a debate, for instance: two or more students who receive the same historical figure can present their cases to the rest of the class. Predictable results should occur: “Wundt is too philosophical; besides, what’s he done lately?!” “Broca would be a hot candidate for a neuroscience program.” “Perhaps Freud should apply to a philosophy department.” “That James character seems all over the map; doesn’t he have a coherent research program?”


**Multimedia Suggestions**

*Feature Film: A Clockwork Orange (1971, 136 min, originally rated X, re-rated R)*
Stanley Kubrick’s classic film tells the story of little Alex and his band of droogs as they commit mayhem on the general populace. Several scenes (which have pretty much entered the public’s general consciousness) illustrate behaviorist principles, especially counter-conditioning.

See the Preface for product information on the following item:

*PsychSim 5 Tutorials* Psychology’s Timeline
IV. Return of the Mind: Psychology Expands

(Chapter Objectives 12–16)

Psychologists such as Frederic Bartlett, Jean Piaget, and Kurt Lewin defied the behaviorist doctrine and studied the inner workings of the mind. Another early pioneer was Max Wertheimer, who founded Gestalt psychology. Wertheimer was intrigued by illusions and foibles of mental functioning, and he investigated how he could create the illusion of movement and suggest the perception of a singular stimulus when presenting a subject with two closely timed discreet stimuli. Despite these pioneers, behaviorism was the dominant approach in psychology until the 1950s when psychology returned its attention to the mind. Cognitive psychology is concerned with inner mental processes, such as perception, attention, memory, and reasoning. Cognitive psychology developed as a field due to the invention of the computer, psychologists’ efforts to improve the performance of the military, and Noam Chomsky’s theories about language. Cognitive neuroscience attempts to link the brain with the mind through studies of both brain-damaged and healthy people using neuroimaging techniques that allow glimpses of the brain in action. Evolutionary psychology focuses on the adaptive value of the mind and behavior and seeks to understand current psychological processes in terms of abilities and traits preserved by natural selection.

Lecture Suggestion 1.7

Happy Birthday, Chuck

Charles Darwin’s 200th birthday was February 12, 2009. (This bicentennial birthday is shared by Abraham Lincoln, by the way.) That date also marked the 150th anniversary of the publication of On the Origin of Species. In recognition of these facts, several “celebrations of science and humanity” were planned around the world. For example, Darwin Discovery Days were hosted at several museums, many churches organized discussions of evolution and theology, a Darwin pow-wow was planned in Australia, an “Atheists, Beer, and Books!” celebration was planned in Denmark, and apparently a replica of The Beagle sailed in 2009. More information on these kinds of events can be found at http://www.darwinday.org/.

Regardless of your proclivity for festivity or your adoption of Darwin’s ideas, you might nonetheless take a moment to point out how psychology has embraced an evolutionary perspective over the course of its development. As examples, the text points out that William James was influenced by Darwin’s writings on natural selection; many of the tenets of functionalism reflect that influence. The study of emotional expression has long adopted an evolutionary perspective. Both classical and operant conditioning have incorporated evolutionary principles to help explain fundamental processes of learning. The evolutionary perspective has increasingly gained a central position in explanations of behavior ranging from altruism to mate selection to language development to personality.
This convergence of viewpoints is a nice example of how thinking in one discipline often informs thinking in another, a valuable principle to share with your students early in the semester. It’s also a nice way to foreshadow many of the topics you’ll be addressing throughout the course.

Sources:


**Lecture Suggestion 1.8**

Isn’t It Ironic, Don’t You Think?

An easy way to spice up your presentations on the history of psychology is to include many of the vivid anecdotes that have characterized the lives of psychologists over the years. For example, students enjoy hearing about Gustav Fechner’s life . . . especially the parts about his hysterical blindness, how he painted his bedroom black and sat in it for days on end, and how he maintained a steady diet of raw spiced ham marinated in Rhine wine and lemon juice. Never mind that he developed the notions of the absolute threshold and the differential threshold; what’s memorable is that he had weird dreams about the number 77! Similarly, the story of Jeremy Bentham’s final wish that his body be preserved and stored in a wooden cabinet tends to pique interest. The fact that it now has a wax head and is wheeled out for meetings of the College Council at University College London every so often only sweetens the deal.

Many of these odd, memorable stories from psychology’s long past trade on more than a hint of irony. For example:

- René Descartes’ head was famously removed from his body when it was found that his entire corpse wouldn’t fit in the available coffin used to ship him from Stockholm back to France. The head was stolen, but eventually made its way to Paris 150 years later. The irony of Descartes’ “mind-body problem” is clear.

- Santiago Ramón y Cajal used Camillo Golgi’s eponymous stain to demonstrate that Golgi’s theory that neuronal projections touched one another was incorrect.

- Robert FitzRoy, captain of HMS *Beagle*, wanted to take Darwin along on his voyage because he thought a naturalist might be able to find evidence substantiating the great stories of the Bible; clearly, Darwin’s observations led to a different conclusion.

- James McKeen Cattell was dismissed from academia, ostensibly for protesting the U.S. role in World War I (actually, it appears he was never much liked during his time at Columbia University). Cattell successfully sued the university, then used his settlement money to help found The Psychological Corporation and revive the
flagging journal *Science*. In retrospect, these were good moves for the field of psychology!

- Speaking of being drummed out of academia, the story of John B. Watson’s entry into private industry (especially the world of advertising) provides a wealth of ironic twists.

- Even Solomon Asch is not immune: His studies of line-judging were intended to demonstrate that people are free thinkers, largely immune to the influence of others!

A bit of time spent in the library, online, or with a history of psychology textbook can point you to many more stories or ironic outcomes or just plain weirdness in the lives of well-known psychologists. Use these stories as attention-getters, then slip in a bit of genuine knowledge as well: Your students will come for the fun, but stay for the learning!

Sources:


**Classroom Exercise 1.6**

**History in Miniature**

There are many ways to learn about psychology’s development over the decades. Some of these—such as writing a term paper, making an in-class presentation, or creating a Web site—seem pretty “tried and true”: Students know exactly what to expect, there’s not much deviation from similar assignments in other courses, and they yield a little (or a lot, one hopes) of static learning. As an alternative, you might consider assigning a project that (1) grows over time, (2) involves a bit more activity, and (3) brings back fond memories of an earlier time in the academic history of your students.

- Ask your students to create a diorama of a significant moment, scene, setting, or person in the history of psychology. Students will know how to do this, probably from their 2nd-grade experience with such projects and onward. It can be as simple as “stuff in a shoebox” or as elaborate as students would like to make it. Depending on the size of your enrollment, you can also make this an individual effort or a small group project. An important aspect of the project, however, is that it should grow over time, across the semester. Students should bring their creations to class periodically to share them with their classmates and make a brief presentation, and they should add to their projects at appropriate points throughout the semester.

Here’s a concrete example. Let’s say a student enjoyed your presentation on Freud’s influence on the history of psychology, so much so that she elected to create a diorama
depicting Freud’s office in Vienna. At first the diorama might simply model the couch, the artwork, the furnishings, and so on, and the student’s initial presentation would focus on the role of psychoanalysis in the early days of psychology. Throughout the semester, as you cover material on personality, for example, the student might then add a figure of Freud himself to the scene, and talk about the structure of personality or the superego or defense mechanisms. As you move toward discussing therapy later in the semester, the student might add a figure representing Dora, Little Hans, Anna O., or the Rat Man, and discuss the specifics of that case and how it represents one approach to treatment. (A more creative student might even add little icebergs to the diorama, or represent phobias as dark clouds suspended over the scene.) As another example, a student might model B. F. Skinner’s laboratory, adding relevant elements as you cover the chapters on learning or therapy. Someone else might choose Gestalt psychology, starting with a simple representation of illusions and building to add elements from cognitive and social psychology. In short, students should make their dioramas more elaborate as they encounter new domains to which their dioramas apply.

It’s not at all difficult to track down photographs of Skinner’s laboratory; Freud’s analysis room; Pavlov’s canine laboratory set-up; Darwin’s Beagle; Clark University circa 1909; the early labs of Munsterburg, Hall, Ebbinghaus, or Cattell; early room-size computers; or even the modern-day laboratory of a well-known researcher. In fact, many of the photographs in Chapter 1 depict just such scenes and can serve as a starting point for your students. A little time with the Internet search engine of their choice should provide students with the inspiration they need to dive into this project. The end result will no doubt be engaging, informative, and fun to see develop over time.

Multimedia Suggestions

PsychSim 5 Tutorials Psychology’s Timeline

Worth Video Series: Video Anthology for Introductory Psychology: Nature, Nurture, and Human Diversity – Evolutionary Psychology and Sex Differences

V. Beyond the Individual: Social and Cultural Perspectives

(Chapter Objective 17)

Social psychology, pioneered by individuals such as German psychologist Kurt Lewin, recognizes that people exist in a network of other people, and examines how individuals influence and interact with one another. Cultural psychology is concerned with the effects of the broader culture on individuals and with similarities and differences among people in different societies. Absolutists hold that culture has little impact on most psychological phenomena, whereas relativists believe that culture has a powerful effect. These areas of psychology examine behavior within the broader context of human interaction.
Lecture Suggestion 1.9

Today in the History of Social Psychology

Here is a sample of entries from http://www.cwu.edu/~warren/today.html related to social psychology that you can discuss with your students:

January 9, 1930

The Journal of Social Psychology is published, edited by Carl Murchison and John Dewey.

February 2, 1965

The Journal of Experimental Social Psychology is first published.

March 15, 1950

The Authoritarian Personality is published.

April 30, 1917

John W. Thibaut is born. With Hal Kelley, Thibaut developed and applied social exchange theory.

May 8, 1919

Leon Festinger is born.

June 10, 1993

President Bill Clinton establishes the Office of Behavioral and Social Science Research within NIH.

July 24, 1903

Ted Newcomb is born.

August 19, 1952

Susan Fiske is born.

September 9, 1890

Kurt Lewin is born.
October 11, 1991

NSF announces the formation of a separate Social, Behavioral, and Economic Sciences Directorate.

November 4, 1970

“Genie” is found by child welfare authorities in Arcadia, California.

December 4, 1962

Martin Orne’s article “On the social psychology of the psychology experiment” is published.

Lecture Suggestion 1.10

Perceptions of the Professor

Person perception and impression formation take place in a social and cultural context. “What someone’s like” is partially determined by “where someone is.” A person in a collectivist culture, for example, probably has a keener awareness of the needs of her or his ingroup than someone from an individualist culture. Similarly, someone in the social role of “boss” is no doubt perceived differently than if that same person were seen in the context of “next-door neighbor.” In short, the process of person perception is a fundamental task of social perception and one that takes place in a social setting.

You can capitalize on these principles and illustrate them at the same time with a good ice-breaking exercise at the beginning of the semester. Early in the term (preferably on the first class meeting, before too much interaction with your students has taken place), ask students to write down their best guess about a series of questions they will be asked about you. Also tell them that you will eventually give them all of the correct answers, and that this quiz is “for fun and learning” rather than for a grade! Proceed to ask them several questions that relate to concrete behaviors or characteristics about yourself or even about more abstract aspects of your personality. The questions may vary from class to class (and certainly depend on what you are comfortable revealing), but some prospects include:

■ How old do you think I am?
■ Am I in a committed relationship?
■ What kind of music do I like?
■ Am I outgoing or shy?
■ What kind of car do I drive?
■ Am I a Mac user or a PC user?
■ Am I a vegetarian?
■ What are some of my favorite TV shows?
■ What are my hobbies or favorite leisure time activities?
■ What are my favorite and least favorite topics in psychology?
■ Do I like sports?
■ Did I attend a large university or a small liberal arts college?
■ Do I play any musical instruments?
■ Am I politically liberal or conservative?
■ Am I an “outdoorsy” kind of person?
■ What are my favorite and least favorite aspects of being a professor?

Rather than collecting your students’ responses, go through the quiz by first asking students to share their answers and then providing the correct answer. You can use the responses to discuss impression formation and introduce social psychology as a field of study. Besides being fun and also informative, this exercise is effective in relaxing students and encouraging classroom discussion at the outset of the course.

Source:

**Classroom Exercise 1.7**

**Doing Your Part for Science**

As you discuss social and cultural psychology with your students, you might mention an easy way that they can be involved in contributing to this area.

■ Have your students log onto the Social Psychology Network Web site (http://socialpsychology.org), which contains a wealth of information about this particular subdiscipline (and also about the field of psychology in general). The Web site also hosts a thorough set of links to online experiments in social and cultural psychology, found at http://socialpsychology.org/expts.htm. A recent glance revealed experiments related to relationships, attitudes and beliefs, person perception, individual differences, and judgment and decision making, among others.

■ Encourage your students to participate in one or more studies.
You might even ask your students to submit a brief report of their experiences for a few extra credit points. Their contributions are good for science and no doubt good for their education, as well.

**Classroom Exercise 1.8**

Tweets from Psychology’s Past

Michael Britt suggests the following activity: Ask students to imagine that they are one of psychology’s key historical figures. What would they have tweeted? See if students can capture the important aspects of these figures with just 140 characters.

Source: http://topix.teachpsych.org/w/page/19981004/ History-in-the-Classroom

**Classroom Exercise 1.9**

Speed Dating

Zehr (2004) described an activity intended to generate student interest in some of psychology’s historical figures. Each student is given a note card with a name on it (e.g., Wundt, James, Freud, Watson). Students then prepare a brief document with important information about the person on their card. They then pair up with another student, analogous to a speed-dating format, and spend two minutes exchanging information about their historical figure. During the course of a class, each student gets to “meet” each of the other students in the class. At the end of the “speed dating,” each student writes a brief essay explaining who they think made the most important contribution to applied psychology (besides the person assigned to them).


**Multimedia Suggestions**

*Feature Film: Kinsey (2004, 118 min, rated R)* This award-winning film chronicles the life and work of Alfred Kinsey (played by Liam Neeson), the pioneering sex researcher. Kinsey’s struggles to legitimize the scientific study of sexuality are depicted, as are the false starts and institutional conflicts that often accompany any large-scale research program.

See the Preface for product information on the following items:

**PsychSim 5 Tutorials** Psychology’s Timeline

**Worth Video Series:** Video Anthology for Introductory Psychology: Nature, Nurture, and Human Diversity – Openness to Casual Sex: A Study of Men Versus Women
VI. The Profession of Psychology: Past and Present

(Chapter Objectives 18–20)

The APA has grown dramatically since it was formed in 1892 and now includes more than 150,000 members, working in clinical, academic, and applied settings. Psychologists are also represented nationally by the Association for Psychological Science. Through the efforts of pioneers such as the first female APA president, Mary Calkins, women have come to play an increasingly important role in psychology. Minority involvement in psychology took longer, but the pioneering efforts of Francis Cecil Sumner, Kenneth B. Clark, and others have led to increased participation by minorities in psychology. Psychologists prepare for research careers through graduate and postdoctoral training and work in a variety of applied settings, including schools, clinics, and industry.

Lecture Suggestion 1.11

Show Me the Money?

You might be positioning the cart a wee bit in front of the horse, but often students starting out in psychology are curious about job prospects, salary, lifestyle, and all the things that go along with a potential college major and potential career. If you spend any amount of time talking about the profession of psychology, consider sharing some of the following information with your students.

In 2001, Deborah Briihl asked 90 undergraduates (mostly women who were seniors) what they believed a person starting out with a bachelor’s, master’s, or doctoral degree in psychology would earn. As the table below illustrates, raters who were earlier in their college careers were a bit more optimistic in their assessments of starting salaries (at least at the time of this study):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RATERS</th>
<th>Sophomores and Juniors</th>
<th>Seniors</th>
<th>Actual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s degree</td>
<td>$25,307</td>
<td>$23,000</td>
<td>$22,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s degree</td>
<td>$35,666</td>
<td>$32,557</td>
<td>mid $20K to mid $30K</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctoral degree</td>
<td>$50,107</td>
<td>$44,865</td>
<td>low $30K to mid $40K</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The American Psychological Association (APA) regularly conducts surveys of its membership, asking for data on employment settings, years and type of training, salary, and so on. Here are some data from the APA Web site (http://www.apa.org/workforce/publications/09-salaries/table-01.pdf) taken from preliminary results of the 2009 Salaries in Psychology survey, for doctoral-level positions:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Setting and Rank</th>
<th>Median Salary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>University Psychology Department</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full professor</td>
<td>$100,636</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate professor</td>
<td>$68,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant professor</td>
<td>$57,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University Education Department</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full professor</td>
<td>$96,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate professor</td>
<td>$70,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant professor</td>
<td>$58,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University Business School or Department</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full professor</td>
<td>$153,818</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate professor</td>
<td>$101,591</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant professor</td>
<td>$105,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-Year College Psychology Department</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full professor</td>
<td>$75,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate professor</td>
<td>$63,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant professor</td>
<td>$49,091</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the APA data, the news is also good for practicing doctoral-level clinicians. Across a variety of settings (i.e., private practice, VA hospitals, university counseling centers, rehabilitation facilities, the criminal justice system), median salaries for practitioners with 2 to 7 years of experience range from about the low $60,000s to the high $80,000s, depending on the setting. More years of experience are usually associated with increases in salary, up to the low $100,000 range over time. Industrial and organizational psychologists report median incomes starting from the mid-$90,000 range to just skirting the $200,000 range (with considerable years of experience).

For comparison, O*NET (Occupational Information Network: http://online.onetcenter.org/), which includes data from the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics (http://www.bls.gov/), offers the following median salary information for psychologists (and a few selected other occupations) as of 2012:
### Occupation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Median Salary (2012)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Psychiatrists</td>
<td>$177,520</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dentists</td>
<td>$166,910</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lawyers</td>
<td>$130,880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial/Organizational Psychologists</td>
<td>$98,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychologists (all other specializations)</td>
<td>$86,380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Systems Analysts</td>
<td>$89,290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clinical, Counseling, and School Psychologists</td>
<td>$72,220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychology Teachers, Post-Secondary</td>
<td>$74,240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Librarians</td>
<td>$57,190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writers and Authors</td>
<td>$68,420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marriage and Family Therapists</td>
<td>$49,270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plumbers</td>
<td>$52,950</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child, Family, and School Social Workers</td>
<td>$45,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farmers, Ranchers and Other Agricultural Managers</td>
<td>$73,730</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motor Boat Operators</td>
<td>$38,560</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tax Preparers</td>
<td>$41,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction Laborers</td>
<td>$34,490</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Office Clerks</td>
<td>$29,270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaming Cage Workers</td>
<td>$26,070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fast Food Cooks</td>
<td>$18,780</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

You might ask your students what they think the salary prospects in psychology are like *before* you share the above information with them. You should point out that it’s entirely possible to have a satisfying, intellectually stimulating career in this field *and* make decent money at the same time . . . but that it’s also possible to be satisfied and stimulated while at the lower end of the pay scale!
Classroom Exercise 1.10

Psychologists and Scientists

There are a lot of misconceptions about psychology and the people who study it, but probably the most enduring is that all psychologists are clinicians. This notion has been popularized in the media, but is also the result of “a little bit of knowledge,” which, as the saying goes, can be dangerous. The bit of knowledge most people have about our field is that someone named Freud did something with a couch that involved dreams, sex, and your mother. We know better, of course: Psychology is a science . . . in fact, dare we say, “Queen of the Sciences”! Sure, there are a lot of practitioners of psychology as a profession, but at the heart of it all, science, rigor, and the empirical method are where things start.

You can simultaneously demonstrate to your students the stereotypes they are likely to hold about psychologists, and introduce the point that psychology is a science. There are several ways to do this, based on the size of your class.

■ In a small class, simply engage students in a discussion of the characteristics they think describe a typical psychologist. Descriptions such as “caring,” “a good listener,” “empathic,” or “helpful” are usually put forth, along with other adjectives that stereotypically describe clinicians.

■ Then ask students to generate descriptors that characterize a typical scientist. Terms such as “analytical,” “intelligent,” “dedicated,” or “methodical” usually result, conjuring images of a lone chemist working in a lab, perhaps.

■ If you have a larger enrollment, ask students to jot down 5 adjectives that describe a psychologist, then 5 adjectives that describe a scientist. If your class is quite large, you might consider distributing a handout with the instructions, “Describe the characteristics of a typical psychologist” to half the students, and another handout with the instructions, “Describe the characteristics of a typical scientist” to the other half of the students, and then perhaps create a frequency distribution of the responses.

In any event, at some point a few students will no doubt ask, “But aren’t psychologists scientists?” This will lead the class into a discussion of why their perceptions are so divergent. The idea that psychologists are scientists who study the mind and behavior rather than genes, chemicals, or subatomic particles makes perfect sense, and opens the door to describing cognitive psychologists as scientists who study mental processes, developmental psychologists as scientists who study the lifespan, social psychologists as scientists who study human interactions, and so on.

Classroom Exercise 1.11

Hail to the Chief(s)

As you wrap up your discussion of the history of psychology, you might want to foreshadow some of the principal figures in the field and their contributions. A novel way to do that is to ask students to explore the life and work of past presidents of the American Psychological Association (APA).

Distribute Handout 1.4, which lists all of the people who have served as president of APA over the years. Many of these names are recognizable from Chapter 1; others have made contributions detailed in later chapters of the textbook.

Next, have your students complete one of the following assignments:

■ Choose one psychologist from the list, and write a brief paper (1–3 pages) summarizing her or his major accomplishments in psychology. Not only will students learn a bit more about a well-known figure, but this assignment can be a gateway to topics such as research skills, using PsycINFO, writing coherently, and so on.

■ Contrast the research of any two APA presidents from different historical periods. For example, students might choose to look at the work of a person early in psychology’s history (such as Hugo Munsterberg) and someone more recent (such as Robert Sternberg), or compare war years versus times of prosperity, or compare the heyday of one ideology (i.e., behaviorism in the 1940s) with the heyday of another (i.e., cognitive psychology in the 1970s). A variant of this assignment might be to compare the work of two different figures in the same general area: two APA presidents who were both social psychologists, for example, or two who were both interested in clinical work.

■ Perform a (rough) citation list for the people listed. This might be a project for more talented students who are comfortable using some combination of PsycINFO, Social Science Citation Index, Google, or various academic databases your library may subscribe to. It’s often possible to get a fairly complete list of published work for a given person from a relatively small set of resources, but it takes a bit of know-how to do so. In any event, one aim of this assignment would be to spot patterns in the publication record of the people listed. For example, the early days of psychology were probably characterized by fairly few journal articles and a few scattered books. Toward the 1930s through 1970s there were no doubt many more publications from the APA presidents. More recently, with the decided shift toward the practice of psychology (rather than an explicit focus on the science of psychology), the publication record of APA presidents may have declined. These are all speculations, of course. Your students may be able to map interesting trends across the 116 years of APA leadership.

■ Write a brief paper summarizing the times in which a particular president served, noting especially some of the dominant themes that were prevalent in psychology. For example, Clark Hull and Edward Tolman were successive presidents of APA in
the late 1930s. What was going on in America at that time, and particularly, what was going on in psychology at that time (such as the rise of behaviorism)? Abraham Maslow, George Miller, and Kenneth Clark served as presidents during the late 1960s and early 1970s. How do the perspectives of humanism, civil rights, and “giving psychology away” reflect those times?

- Summarize the main points of the APA presidential address of one or two specific people. What do the points raised in these remarks reveal about the status of psychology at that time?

- For comparison, Handout 1.5 lists all of the people who have served as president of the American Psychological Society (APS), now called the Association for Psychological Science (er . . . still APS). You might ask students to complete any of the assignments listed above with this smaller set of people. Alternatively, you could ask students to compare the work of an APA president and an APS president from the same year or same decade.

These activities are just a few suggestions of ways in which the archival data provided here can be used as a springboard for active student involvement in understanding the history of psychology. Let your creativity be your guide to develop other assignments or in-class exercises based on this information.

Multimedia Suggestions

**Feature Film: Final Analysis (1992, 124 min, rated R)** Richard Gere, Kim Basinger, Uma Thurman, and Eric Roberts star in this thriller about a psychiatrist and two beautiful sisters with whom he gets involved. Scenes from this film might be useful for illustrating the psychiatric perspective on behavioral science and also the ethics of working in the mental health profession.

**Feature Film: Like Minds (2006, 110 min, rated PG-13)** This film was released in the United States with the title Murderous Intent. It tells the story of a forensic psychologist who must determine whether the son of a school headmaster should be tried for the murder of his creepy classmate.

**Web site: Women in Psychology**—an OTRP Instructional Resource Award Winner. This Web site, by Charles Abramson and Melanie Page, describes the contributions of women in psychology dating back to the 19th century. http://psychology.okstate.edu/museum/women/cover2.html


See the Preface for product information on the following items:

**PsychSim 5 Tutorials** Psychology’s Timeline
Other Film Sources

*A Day in the Life of a Psychologist* (2000, 20 min, IM). This brief video features interviews with psychologists and follows them as they go about their daily routines.

*A Tribute to Carl Gustav Jung* (2004, 60 min, IM). If you’re Jung at heart, this program is for you. Jung’s influence on psychology, philosophy, art, and the New Age movement is the focus here.

*Albert Bandura Interviewed by Antonette Zeiss* (2003, 60 min, IM). Bandura discusses the development of behavioral and cognitive therapies during this interview.

*Avoiding Plagiarism* (2004, 23 min, IM). This video teaches students the proper way to quote previously published work, cite references, summarize research, and generally avoid the pitfalls of plagiarism.

*B. F. Skinner: A Fresh Appraisal* (1999, 30 min, IM). Skinner’s life and work are reviewed in this film from the vantage point of hindsight. An evaluation of his contributions to psychology emerges as his work is placed in an historical context.

*Candid Camera: General Psychology* (1994, 54 min, IM). This collection of set-ups from the Candid Camera show offers a wealth of possibilities for introducing the subject matter of psychology.


*Carl Rogers and the Person-Centered Approach* (2003, 65 min, IM). Footage of Rogers working with clients is interspersed with an account of his life and the development of his approach to psychology.

*Critical Thinking* (2001, 30 min, ANN/CPB). Segments featuring Al Franken and Rush Limbaugh illustrate logical fallacies and the critical thinking skills needed to identify them.

*Discovering Psychology, Part 1: Past, Present, and Promise* (2001, 30 min, ANN/CPB). This video provides an overview of the field of psychology. Its history and relationship to several other disciplines are examined.

*Do Scientists Cheat?* (1988, 60 min, MICH). This NOVA production examines why scientific fraud is difficult to identify and outlines the many forces that inspire fraud.

*Endless Questions: Critical Thinking and Research* (2006, 30 min, IM). Naturalistic observation, case studies, experiments, correlational research, and surveys are compared and contrasted in this overview of the research process.
Ethics for the Mental-Health Professional (1997, 160 min, IM). Parts of this video may be useful to illustrate how counselors, clinical social workers, and other mental health practitioners are bound to follow high standards of ethical behavior in their careers.

The Great Ideas of Psychology (1997, 48 parts, 45 min each, IM). This series includes something for everyone. Daniel Robinson of Georgetown University delivers lectures on the history of psychology, major theories and systems, intelligence, testing, and biological determinism.

History of Psychology (2006, 3 parts, 30 min each, IM). This series takes a long look at psychology and its origins, focusing on Mind Self and Soul, Freud Jung and Psychoanalysis, and Ethics Logic and Truth.

The Importance of Lab Animal Research in Psychology: Psychopharmacology (2003, 15 min, APA). Share with your students the issues surrounding animal research, a topic that can inspire strong opinions from a variety of perspectives.

Is Mind Distinct from Body? (1998, 30 min, IM). Cartesian dualism gets another look in this presentation. Evidence from neuroscience and artificial intelligence are brought to bear on this issue.


Is There an Enduring Self? (1998, 30 min, IM). This philosophical discussion examines the nature of the self, where it is, and where it goes when we’re not thinking about it.

Matter of Heart (1986, 107 min, Whitney). This documentary about the life of Carl Jung features interviews with those who knew him. Archival footage of Jung is also included.

The Mind, Part 1. Unraveling the Mysteries of the Mind (1999, 11 min, ANN CPB). “What is the mind?” “How do mind and brain relate to one another?” These are a few of the questions introduced in this installment of the popular Mind series.

Plagiarism: It’s a Crime (2003, 22 min, IM). Plagiarism? What a horrible idea! Criminal, even. This video helps your students understand why.

Psychology (2002, 3 DVDs, 26 min per segment, IM). A broad overview of psychology in its (relatively) current state. Selections from these DVDs can be profitably used to introduce the subject matter of psychology.

Psychology: Scientific Problem Solvers—Careers for the 21st Century (1995, 14 min, APA). This fast-paced, early-MTV-ish video provides a broad overview of psychology, presents interviews with psychologists working in a range of areas, and suggests strategies for pursuing a career in psychology.
Psychology: Understanding Ourselves, Understanding Each Other (1992, 29 min, APA). This video offers an engaging way to introduce students to psychologists’ breadth of interests and laypeople’s reactions to psychological information.

Psychology of Human Behavior (2006, multiple segments, 30 min each, IM). David W. Martin presents an overview of psychology, focusing on topics such as psychoanalysis, perception, emotion, cognition, and other mainstays of the field.

Scientific Method (2000, 23 min, IM). Observation, hypothesis development, experimental testing . . . all the heavy hitters are represented in this brief presentation of the scientific method.

Top 10½ Tips for Thinking Scientifically (1999, 15 min, IM). This brief video introduces basic concepts of critical thinking needed for conducting and evaluating research.

Unbiased Mind: Obstacles to Clear Thinking (1994, 23 min, IM). Confirmation biases and other flawed thinking habits get smacked around in this uncompromising look at improving the thinking process.

Understanding Psychology: Perspectives on Psychology (2001, 30 min, IM). As the title suggests, this video examines biological, psychodynamic, and behavioral approaches to understanding behavior.

Why Study Human Behavior? (2001, 30 min, IM). This introduction to the science of psychology looks at the value and practicality of understanding human behavior.

Due to loss of formatting, Handouts are only available in PDF format.