2 BRANCHES OF PSYCHOLOGY

2.1 Vocabulary
using an English–English dictionary

A How can an English–English dictionary help you understand and produce spoken and written English?

B Study the dictionary extract on the opposite page.

1   Why are the two words (top left and top right) important?
2   How many meanings does *behaviour* have?
3   Why does the word *condition* appear twice in **bold**?
4   What do we call someone who supports the theory of *behaviourism*?
5   Where is the stress on *cognitive*? What about *cognition*?
6   What is the pronunciation of *t* in each bold word in this extract?
7   What is the pronunciation of *a* in each bold word in this extract?
8   What part of speech is *cognitivism*?
9   Which is correct? *Conditioning is/are based on behaviourist theories.* Explain your answer.
10 Can we write: *The patient is being behaved antisocially.* Why (not)?

C Look at the bold words in the dictionary extract on the opposite page.

1   What order are they in?
2   Write the words in the blue box in the same order.

a	
theory process psychodynamic	
approach perception motivational	
constructivist	
application developmental	
psychoanalytical field forensic	
biopsychology neurological subjective	

D Look at the top of this double page from an English–English dictionary.

1   Which word from box a will appear on these pages?
2   Think of words before and after some of the other words in box a.

behave   conditional
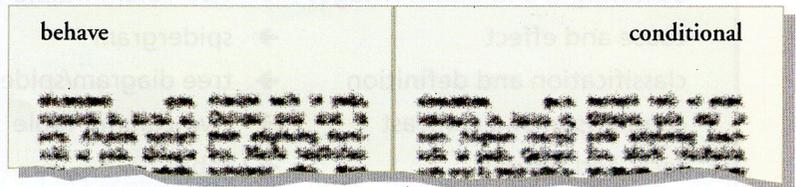
E Look up the red words in box a.

1   How many meanings can you find for each word?
2   Which words are both a noun and a verb? What kind of verbs are they?
3   What kind of noun is each one?
4   How are the words used in psychology?

F Look up the green words in box a.

1   Where is the stress in each word?
2   What is the sound of the underlined letter(s) in each word?
3   How are the words used in psychology?

G Test each other on the words from box a. Give the dictionary definition of one of the words. Can your partner guess which word you are defining?

H Describe the levels of psychology in the chart on the opposite page.

behave

behave /bɪˈheɪv/ *v* [I] 1. act in a specific way: *Some chemicals behave unpredictably when they are subjected to heat.* 2. act in a socially acceptable way: *The children usually behave when they visit their grandmother.*

behaviour /bɪˈheɪvjə(r)/ *n* [U] 1. a way of acting: *The children were on their best behaviour.* 2. (Psych.) a response to a stimulus under controlled conditions: *The behaviour of Pavlov's dogs was conditioned in laboratory experiments.*

behavioural /bɪˈheɪvjərəl/ *adj* relating to behaviour: *behavioural psychology*

behaviourism *n* [U] /bɪˈheɪvjərɪzəm/ (Psych.) the theory that human behaviour is dictated by responses to external stimuli: *Behaviourism is a widely accepted theory in modern psychology.*

behaviourist /bɪˈheɪvjərɪst/ *n* [C] someone who supports the theory of behaviourism: *B.F. Skinner was an influential 20th-century behaviourist.*

conditional

cognition /kɒgˈnɪʃn/ *n* [U] 1. the process of thinking. 2. the result of cognition. – **cognitive** /ˈkɒgnətɪv/ *adj* relating to thought processes

cognitivism /ˈkɒgnɪtɪvɪzəm/ *n* [U] the theory that the brain acquires knowledge by processing information

condition /kənˈdɪʃn/ *n* [C] 1. a state: *a mental condition* 2. (pl) specific circumstances: *Social conditions may affect motivation.* 3. a limitation on a situation: *He agreed to pay for the damage on the condition that he could see the completed work.* 4. (Psych.) a treatment in an experiment – **conditioning** /kənˈdɪʃənɪŋ/ *n* [U] 1. the process of modifying behaviour by stimulus and reinforcement.

condition /kənˈdɪʃn/ *v* [T] (Psych.) to modify behaviour by stimulus and reinforcement: *Pavlov conditioned his dogs to salivate when a light flashed.*

conditional /kənˈdɪʃənl/ *adj* depending on conditions – **conditionally** /kənˈdɪʃənəli/ *adv*.

	PSYCHOLOGY	
pure	SCIENCE	applied
process	APPROACH	person
• behaviourist • cognitive	THEORY	• psychodynamic • humanistic • social constructivist
• biopsychology • neuropsychology	FIELD	• social • developmental/educational • forensic • organizational/occupational • clinical
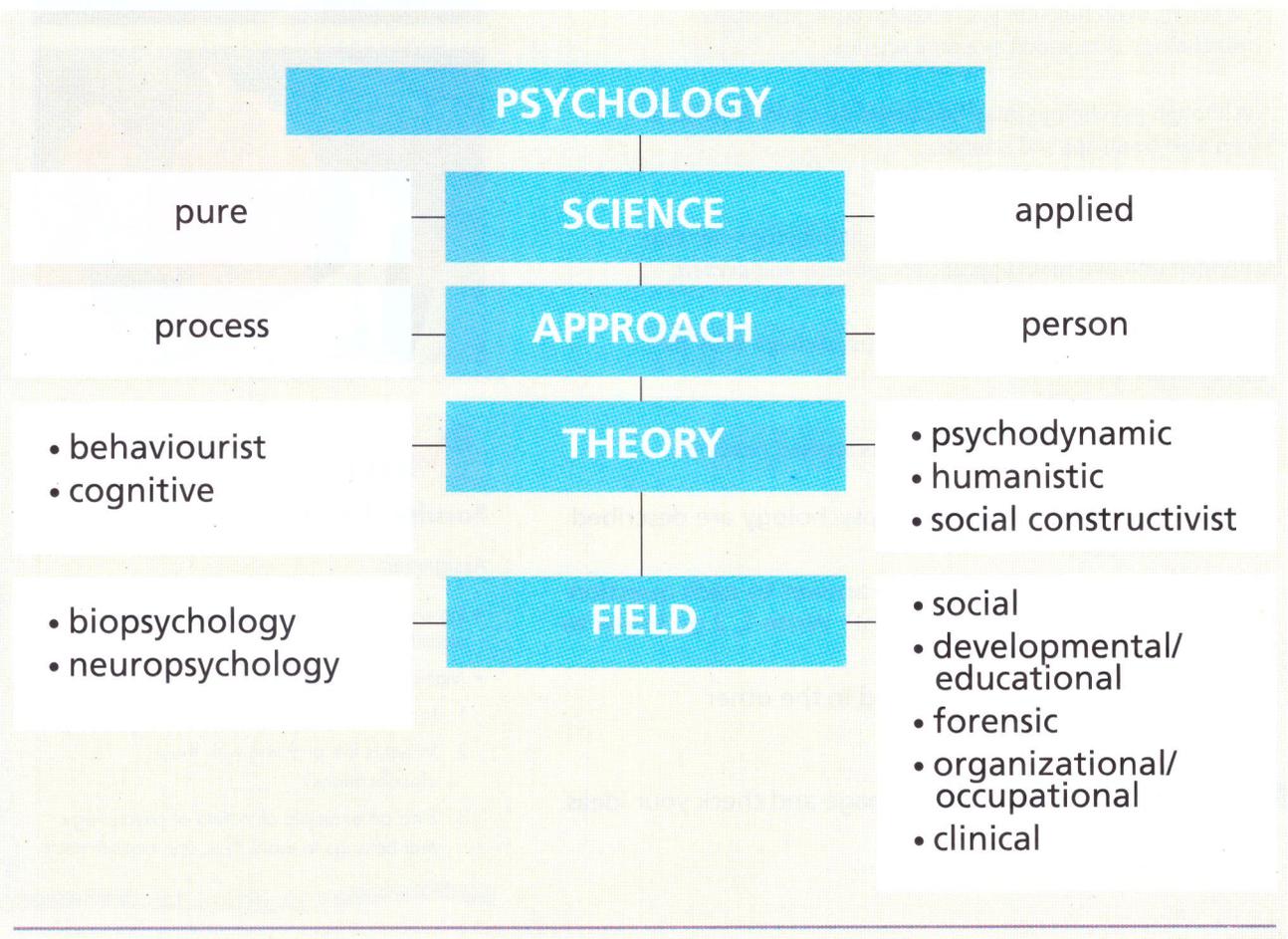
A Which fields of psychology are most commonly practised in everyday life?

B Look at the pictures on this page.

   1 Which field of psychology is shown in each picture?

   2 What else do these psychologists do?

   3 Which field belongs strictly to the *process* approach?

C You are going to read a text. What should you do before you read a text in detail? **See Skills bank.**

D This text is about different ways of classifying psychology.

   1 Think of some research questions before you read.

   2 Compare your questions with those in the Hadford University assignment on this page.

E Study these topic sentences from the text and answer the questions below.

As psychology is such a wide discipline, it can be classified in a variety of ways.

When its main function is to research basic principles, psychology is regarded as a pure science.

Although psychology may be classed as a pure science, it can also be an applied science.

As well as being classified as a science, psychology can also be divided into two main approaches: *process* and *person*.

An alternative method of classifying psychology is by its major theories.

Psychology can also be divided into its applied fields.

   1 Which ways of classifying psychology are described in the text?

   2 Where might you find the answer to each question in the university assignment? Write 1, 2 or 3 next to the topic sentence.

   3 What do you expect to find in the other paragraphs?

F Read the text on the opposite page and check your ideas. **See Skills bank.**

Fields of psychology

HADFORD *University*

Faculty: Psychology

Assignment

- Do some research into different ways of classifying psychology.
- Make notes to answer these questions:

   1 In what ways can psychology be classified?

   2 What is the problem with these classifications?

   3 Find an example of a field of psychology that belongs to more than one classification.

Classifying psychology

As psychology is such a wide discipline, it can be classified in a variety of ways. For example, it can be viewed either as a pure science or as an applied science. It can also be classified according to approach: *process* or *person*. Alternatively, psychology can be classed under several major theoretical principles: behaviourist, cognitive, psychodynamic, humanistic and social constructivist. In addition to these categories, psychology can be divided into specialist fields; for example: biopsychology, social, developmental, forensic and clinical psychology.

When its main function is to research basic principles, psychology is regarded as a pure science. The academic psychologist researches into theory, expands knowledge and lays the foundations for further research. Theoretical research is usually carried out under controlled conditions and is particularly relevant to the fields of biopsychology and neuropsychology. However, pure science can have wider, practical applications.

Although psychology may be classed as a pure science, it can also be an applied science. When research in psychology is used for practical purposes, to solve a social or organizational problem, for instance, it is called applied psychology. A psychologist working in this area either practises in a professional field, or carries out research into the practical applications of a theory. An example of this would be research into the effect of sleep deprivation on human behaviour.

As well as being classified as a science, psychology can also be divided into two main approaches: *process* and *person*. The *process* approach, as the name suggests, analyzes the processes, both biological and cognitive, that constitute human behaviour. This approach is closely connected with laboratory research and does not necessarily distinguish between human and animal behaviour. In contrast, the *person* approach focuses on the interaction between people and the ways in which they understand their experience.

An alternative method of classifying psychology is by its major theories. Behaviourists claim that human behaviour is almost exclusively determined by environmental, or external influences, and reject the belief that subjective factors, such as feelings, are valid means of explaining it. Cognitive psychologists, on the other hand, recognize the validity of subjective reporting to explain behaviour but combine this with analyzing mental processes, such as reasoning and language. In contrast, Freud took the view that the unconscious drives human behaviour. According to Gross (2007), humanistic theory (popularized by Maslow during the 1960s) rejected determinism and asserted the importance of individual free will. In a further development, Gergen (1973) evolved a social-constructivist theory, claiming that individual behaviour is affected by its socio-historic context.

Psychology can also be divided into its applied fields. An example of this is the work of educational psychologists, whose professional role falls within the field of developmental psychology. Although this field is classed under the *person* approach, an educational psychologist may also apply techniques from the *process* approach. For instance, in the case of a child with learning difficulties, the psychologist may use cognitive tests to identify limitations in attention or perception. Alternatively, they may need to refer to the child's family background to investigate its affective development; the *person* approach. The fact is, that although research has provided the psychologist with a range of approaches and principles, the boundaries between them are neither fixed nor mutually exclusive.
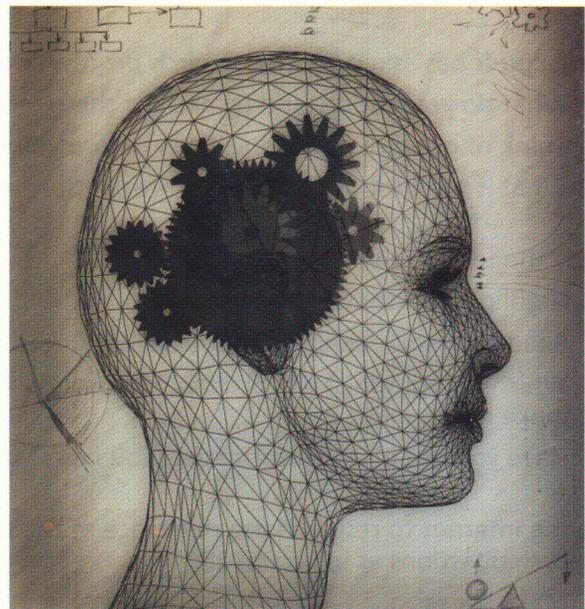
A Study the words in box a. They are all from the text in Lesson 2.2.

1 Look back at the text on page 17. Find the words which go together with the words in the box.

2 Do they make noun or verb phrases?

3 What is the meaning of each phrase? Look at the context and check with your dictionary if necessary.

> **a** foundation   socio-historic
> pure   humanistic   affective
> influences   view   principles
> discipline   processes

B Study the words in box b. They are all from the text in Lesson 2.2.

1 What is the base word in each case? What part of speech is the base word?

2 Does the prefix/suffix change the part of speech?

3 How does the prefix/suffix change the meaning of the base word?

> **b** classified   practical
> deprivation   subjective   validity
> unconscious   determinism

C Look back at the topic sentences from the text in Lesson 2.2 (Exercise E, page 16). Don't look at the text on page 17. What information comes after each topic sentence? Suggest possible content.

Example:

> As psychology is such a wide discipline, it can be classified in a variety of ways.

branches of psychology, ways of categorizing psychology

D Write a summary of the text on page 17. Paraphrase the topic sentences. Add extra information and examples. **See *Skills bank.***

A Can you remember:

1 all the main criteria for classifying psychology and the different divisions of each from Lesson 2.2?

2 the different fields of psychology?

B The lecturer has asked you to research *process* and *person* approaches to psychology.

1 What do you understand by each of these terms?

2 Think of good research questions before you read the text on the opposite page.

3 What is the best way to record information while you are reading?

C Study the text on the opposite page.

1 Highlight the topic sentences.

2 Read each topic sentence. What will you find in the rest of the paragraph?

3 Which paragraph(s) will probably answer each research question? Read those paragraphs and make notes.

4 Have you got all the information you need? If not, read other paragraphs.

D Use the Internet to research the relevance of the *person* approach to clinical psychology. Use the same research questions as in Lesson 2.2.

1 Make notes.

2 Write a series of topic sentences which summarize your findings.

3 Report back to the other students. Read out each topic sentence, then add extra details.

Process or person?

Which approach to human behaviour is more relevant to current professional practice: *process* or *person*? Since the mid-19th century, two contrasting approaches to understanding the mind and behaviour have been a topic of discussion: the scientific, or *process* approach, and the introspective, or *person* approach. The debate is important because it affects research methods and professional practice and, in the long term, commercial, medical and social progress. A review of these approaches will allow us to reach our own conclusions.

The *process* approach to psychology focuses on the analysis of the internal mental mechanisms which, scientists claim, can only be accessed through observable behaviour. This view is largely supported by physiologists and behaviourists. The *process* approach is founded on Pavlov's well-known research into stimulus and response, and supported by Watson, when he formulated the principles of behaviourism in 1913 (Gross, 2007). These include: complete scientific objectivity; the predictability and controllability of behaviour; and similarities between human and animal behaviour. It has been argued, however, that this last principle fails to take into account the existence of consciousness or self-awareness in humans. Countering this criticism, Watson maintained that introspection was subjective, unreliable as a data source and, therefore, unscientific.

In the late 19th century, John Dewey highlighted another limitation of the stimulus-response theory (Benjafield, 1996). Dewey pointed out that, depending on their situation and intention, human beings will respond differently to a similar stimulus, unlike animals, which have a limited range of responses. For example, if we see a child crying and alone in public, we will probably assume that he or she is lost, and look for its mother. On the other hand, when we see a child crying and with its mother, we do nothing. Our responses are determined not only by the stimulus, but also by the social context. By relating behaviour to social context, Dewey foreshadowed social-constructivist theories which form part of the *person* approach.

The *person* approach emphasizes the importance of individual experience as a means of understanding mental processes, and of the effect of social interaction on behaviour. This approach is supported by the psychodynamic, humanist and social-constructivist theories. For instance, Freud claimed that dreams were the gateway to our unconscious and that relating and interpreting them was a valid means of understanding our inner life. According to the humanist, Carl Rogers, self-awareness is at the centre of our human experience and each individual's unique interpretation of reality is valid. Social constructivism looks beyond individual experience and explains behaviour as a fluid interaction between the person and a continuously changing society. The main argument against the validity of all theories supporting the *person* approach is that any data based on reported experience is necessarily subjective and, therefore, unverifiable.

An examination of two cases will illustrate the relevance of each approach in practice. In the first case, a forensic psychologist planning a programme of rehabilitation for a prisoner may use techniques which include a scientifically standardized psychometric test, developed according to the *process* approach, and just as important, a direct interview – a technique belonging to the *person* approach. In another case, a biopsychologist taking the *process* approach to testing the effects of narcotics on behaviour may limit his or her observations to laboratory animals. However, during subsequent testing on humans, the researcher may take the *person* approach and obtain valuable additional information from individual feedback.

In conclusion, whilst the *process* approach is scientifically valid, the *person* approach provides a wealth of information not available from objective observation. Each of these approaches provides researchers and practitioners with data and techniques which are applicable not only in experimental contexts, but also in the field.

Using your English–English dictionary

This kind of dictionary helps you actually learn English.

Using headwords and parts of speech

1 Find the correct **headword**.
These **bold** words in a dictionary are in alphabetical order. Look at the words on the top left and top right of the double page. Find a word which comes just before and after your word.

2 Find the correct **meaning**.
If there are different meanings of the word, they appear in a numbered list. Look at all the meanings before you choose the correct one in context.

3 Find the correct **part of speech**.
Sometimes the same headword appears more than once, followed by a small number. This means the word has more than one part of speech, e.g., *n* and *v*. Work out the part of speech before you look up a word.
Clues:
 • Nouns come after articles (*a/an/the*) or adjectives.
 • Verbs come after nouns or pronouns.

Learning to pronounce words

The symbols after the headword show you how to pronounce the word. Learn these symbols (the key is usually at the front or the back of the dictionary).

The little line in the symbols shows you how to stress the word.

Example:
/kɒgˈnɪʃn/ but /ˈkɒgnɪtɪvɪzəm/

Learning to use words correctly in context

Nouns can be **countable** or **uncountable**. This information is important for using articles and verb forms (e.g., *is/are*) correctly. Look for the symbol **[C]** or **[U]**.

Some verbs need an object. They are **transitive**. Some verbs don't need an object. They are **intransitive**. This information is important for making good sentences. Look for the symbol **[T]** or **[I]**.

Some words can be spelt in **British** English (e.g., *colour, centre*) or **American** English (e.g., *color, center*). Choose the correct spelling for the text you are working on.

Doing reading research

Before you start reading ...

- Think of research questions. In other words, ask yourself: *What must I find out from my research?*
- Look at headings, sub-headings, illustrations. Look for patterns or variations in presentation, e.g., a series of dates; words in **bold** or *italic script*. Think: *What information do they give me?*
- Decide how to record information from your reading. Choose one or more methods of note-taking. See Unit 1 *Skills bank*.

While you are reading ...

- Highlight the topic sentences.
- Think: *Which paragraph(s) will probably give me the answer to my research questions?*
- Read these paragraph(s) first.
- Make notes.

After reading ...

- Think: *Did the text answer all my research questions?*
- If the answer is no, look at other paragraphs to see if the information is there.

Using topic sentences to summarize

The topic sentences of a text normally make a good basis for a summary. Follow this procedure:

- Locate the topic sentences.
- Paraphrase them – in other words, rewrite them in your own words so that the meaning is the same. Do not simply copy them. (This is a form of plagiarism.)
- Add supporting information – once again, in your own words.

Example:

Topic sentence	*An alternative method of classifying psychology is by its major theories.*
Paraphrase of topic sentence	*Psychology can be divided into several important theories.*
Supporting information and examples (summarized)	*Behaviourists and cognitivists explain behaviour by analyzing mental processes; whereas Freudians, humanists and social constructivists are more concerned with exploring behaviour through the personality.*

- Check your summary. Check that the ideas flow logically. Check spelling and grammar. If your summary is short, it may be just one paragraph. Divide a longer summary into paragraphs.