Scientific Research Publishing

Psychology, 2019, 10, 2166-2176
https://www.scirp.org/journal/psych
ISSN Online: 2152-7199
ISSN Print: 2152-7180

Myths and Misconceptions about the Psychology of Adolescence and Intimate Relationships

Adrian Furnham[1*], Simmy Grover[2]

[1]Department of Leadership and Organisational Behaviour, Norwegian Business School (BI), Nydalveien, Olso, Norway
[2]Department of Experimental Psychology, University College London, London, UK

Email: *adrian@adrianfurnham.com

How to cite this paper: Furnham, A., & Grover, S. (2019). Myths and Misconceptions about the Psychology of Adolescence and Intimate Relationships. *Psychology, 10,* 2166-2176.
https://doi.org/10.4236/psych.2019.1015137

Received: November 29, 2019
Accepted: December 24, 2019
Published: December 27, 2019

Abstract

This study examined the prevalence of psychological myths in two areas of psychology: Adolescence and Relationships. All 517 participants completed two questionnaires in which they rated to what extent they thought various statements/facts about Adolescence and about Intimate Relationships were True or False. A large number of these myths were rated as True (Definitely or Partly). There were few significant demographic correlates of the total correct score (determined by rating the myth as False). Implications are discussed.

Keywords

Psychology, Education, Myths, Misconceptions, Psychological Knowledge

1. Introduction

There has been an academic interest in psychological myths and misconceptions for nearly a hundred years (Amsel, Baird, & Ashley, 2011; Brown, 1983; Furnham, 1992, 1993; Gaze, 2014; Hughes, Lyddy, & Lambe, 2013; Kowalski & Taylor, 2009; Nixon, 1925; Lamal, 1979; McKeachie, 1960; Taylor & Kowalski, 2004; Tupper & Williams, 1986; Vaughan, 1977). Studies have assessed student's psychological knowledge with a view to evaluating the success of introductory courses (Arntzen, Lokke, Lokke, & Eilertsen, 2010; Gardner & Dalsing, 1986; Griggs & Ransdell, 1987; Lamal, 1979; McKeachie, 1960; Standing & Huber, 2003; Vaughan, 1977). Results have shown high levels of misconception (40% - 70%) prior to education, which are reduced, but only slightly, following education methods (LaCaille, 2015). Similarly, Hughes, Lyddy & Kaplan (2015) found years of university education and psychology courses completed were related to

fewer misconceptions about psychology.

This research area has been stimulated by Lilienfeld, Lynn, Ruscio, and Beyerstein (2010), 50 *Great Myths of Popular Psychology* which reviewed and dispelled 50 myths. Numerous studies have used the 50 and 250 myths to test various hypotheses in this area (Furnham & Hughes, 2014; Furnham, 2018; Swami et al., 2015). Further other recent books have been published looking at specific myths (DeBruyckere, Kirschner, & Hulshof, 2015).

The study has encouraged researchers to develop new scales such as Gardner and Brown (2013) who developed a new 55-item measure of psychological misconceptions. Overall scores on this test were significantly and negatively correlated with reported reading of news magazines. Bensley, Lilienfeld and Powell (2014) also developed a 40-item measure based on the same source. They showed believing in psychological misconceptions was predicted by measures of paranormal belief, faith in intuition, the ability to distinguish scientific fields and practices from pseudoscientific ones, and academic scores.

Lilienfeld et al. (2010) inspired various other more specialised books with a very similar title and format. This study is based on two of these books. The first was entitled Great Myths of Adolescence (Jewell et al., 2019) which lists (and explains) 50 myths categorised under four headings: Development of the Body, Brain and Mind; Development of the Self; The Social Environment; and Problems in Modern Society. The second was Great Myths of Intimate Relationships (Johnson, 2016) which lists 25 myths under six headings: Sex; Attraction and courtship; Online dating; Same sex relationships; Predicting success and failure in relationships; Differences, discord and dissolution. In this study we followed Funrham (2018) who used the myths set out in these two books using the methodology of Furnham and Hughes (2014) who asked participants to rate each myth as Definitely True, Probably True, Probably False, Definitely False or Don't Know. He hypothesised and demonstrated, based on previous results, that for over 50% of the myths in both categories participants would rate them as Definitely or Probably True. Overall it seemed that participants were better at identifying Brain Myths compared to Child Developmental myths. The results also showed that similar to the study of Furnham and Hughes (2014) that around 15% - 20% answered *Don't Know* to the questions. Both the correlational and regression results did indicate one individual difference marker of myth detection. Those who rated themselves higher on "having common sense" were better detectors of myths.

2. Method

2.1. Participants

A total of 517 participants completed the questionnaire: 259 were men and 258 were women. A power analysis suggested that this was sufficient to test our hypotheses. They ranged in age from 18 to 70 years with the mean age was 21.48 years and $SD = 8.3$ years. All participants had at least a secondary school educa-

tion and 37% were graduates. 46.4% of the sample had children. Additionally, they rated themselves on three scales: How religious are you? (Not all at 1 to Very 8) and they scored 2.09 (SD = 2.75); How would you describe your political beliefs? (Very Left Wing 1 to Very Right Wing 8); they scored 5.38 (SD = 1.97); How Optimistic are you (Not at all 1 to Very 8) they scored 5.68 (SD = 1.94).

2.2. Measures

The myths and misconceptions were derived from two books, as noted above. Response options were broken down into "Probably" and "Definitely" True or False allowing for greater information to be gleaned regarding the kinds of True and False responses. In addition, the "Don't Know" option improves upon some previous tests as participants could indicate a lack of knowledge, rather than guessing or leaving items unanswered (Arntzen et al., 2010).

2.3. Procedure

Departmental ethical approval, based on UCL guidelines was gained prior to data collection (CEHP/2017/514). Data was collected on Prolific and participants were compensated for their time. The questionnaire took an average of 40 minutes to complete.

3. Results

3.1. Prevalence of Misconceptions

All of the items presented were myths, thus for all items, the "correct" answer was False (Probably or Definitely). Participants' False responses were summed in order to create a myth recognition score for each of the two questionnaires.

Myths About Adolescence: Table 1 shows the results for the 50 developmental myths. In all 6 were identified by more than 50% of the participants as Definitely False: 3, 22, 23, 27, 45 and 49. When the Definitely and Probably False were combined 22 of the myths were correctly identified as false by over 50% of the sample.

On the other hand, there were no items where over 40% of the respondents said that the following items were Definitely True. However, there were 11 where more than 200 respondents (40%) said they were Probably True. They were items 2, 5, 9, 10, 12, 15, 26, 28, 29, 38, 41. When the Definitely and Probably True were combined 11 of the myths were incorrectly identified by the sample.

On 18 items over 100 respondents (20%) said that they Don't Know: The highest scores were for items 6, 8, 44, and 47.

Relationship Myths: Table 2 shows the results for the 25 relationship myths. In all 4 were identified by more than 50% of the participants as Definitely False. They were items 2, 4, 13 and 22. When the Definitely and Probably False were combined 12 of the myths were correctly identified as false by over 50% of the sample.

On the other hand there were 5 items where over 30% of the respondents

Table 1. Item level analyses for Myths about Adolescence.

	Statement	DT	PT	PF	DF	DK
1	Adolescence ends at 18 years old	62	142	**145**	138	30
2	Girls are universally experiencing puberty sooner in recent years	137	**258**	44	10	68
3	The teen brain is fully developed at age 18	14	**77**	160	**234**	32
4	Anorexia treatment usually requires teenagers to be separated from their parents	10	76	128	138	**165**
5	Technology has made teenagers better at multitasking	55	**206**	145	55	56
6	Pubertal "early bloomers" fare better than "late bloomers"	6	57	132	60	**262**
7	Teenagers can study better while listening to music	37	**198**	138	50	94
8	On average 15 years olds gain 15 pounds in that year	2	66	116	103	**230**
9	Horses are helpful in the treatment of eating disorders and autism spectrum	74	**208**	38	27	170
10	The onset of puberty is very upsetting to most teenagers	94	261	**95**	27	40
11	Male teenagers are much less likely than females to be preoccupied with their physical appearance	44	173	179	80	**41**
12	Most teenagers hardly ever engage in leisure reading these days	84	227	123	45	**38**
13	Joining groups or societies has a negative effect on students' academic success	9	**42**	226	192	48
14	Paying for practice classes is the best way to do well on intelligence tests	18	119	161	**106**	113
15	Significant mood disruptions in adolescence are inevitable	120	**257**	76	17	47
16	Teenagers should have a job in high school to build character	53	**185**	114	81	84
17	Risky behaviour in adolescence is inevitable	47	**196**	144	74	56
18	Taking care of an infant simulator doll increases abstinence from sexual activity	10	**78**	146	125	158
19	Vocational tests are useless at predicting academic success in college	46	**172**	149	43	107
20	College students' lives are full of random "hook-ups"	31	180	157	**73**	76
21	Teaching teenagers about contraception makes them more likely to engage in sexual activity	15	91	195	**166**	50
22	Abstinence only sex education programmes are effective at keeping teenagers abstinent	7	**46**	136	262	66
23	The HPV vaccine increases teenage sex	5	**32**	111	227	142
24	The millennial generation is lazy	54	136	119	**173**	35
25	Highschool football players are more likely to become seriously injured than cheerleaders	78	**159**	141	44	95
26	Offenders hide sexual interest when using the internet to initiate sex offenses against teenagers	86	207	**49**	21	154
27	Conversion therapy effectively turns homosexual teenagers straight	4	**23**	61	359	70

Continued

28	Unlike adults, teenagers underestimate the consequences of risky behaviour	137	**273**	64	23	20
29	More quality time with teenagers can make up for less quantity time	60	245	84	**19**	109
30	Successful transition from adolescence to adulthood is achieved through detachment from parents	34	155	154	**114**	60
31	Popular teenagers are usually mean/aggressive	28	125	198	**107**	59
32	Peer pressure only causes teenagers to make bad decisions	59	193	143	**82**	40
33	Boys only use "sticks & stones"/physical force while girls use words instead	29	103	149	**212**	24
34	Most teenagers have a strained relationship with their parents	22	152	170	**107**	66
35	Asking a student if they ever thought about suicide "plants a seed" and makes them more likely to actually attempt suicide	10	71	158	**207**	71
36	Teenagers only listen to their peers	17	94	191	**178**	37
37	When girls are sexually assaulted it is usually be a stranger	12	64	181	**208**	52
38	Most college/university students graduate in 4 years	34	233	100	**39**	111
39	College is the happiest time of one's life	31	146	163	**75**	102
40	Teenagers these days are worse behaved than those in previous generations.	84	112	155	**102**	64
41	School violence is on the rise	117	218	75	**31**	76
42	Boot camps get teens "on the right track"	17	108	151	**96**	145
43	Most teenagers party with drugs or alcohol on weekends	77	185	145	**65**	45
44	DARE programmes prevent teenage drug use	21	85	78	**53**	280
45	Listening to heavy metal or rap music makes teenagers more likely to defy authority	11	80	135	**251**	40
46	Teenagers have the highest suicide rate	44	149	126	**60**	138
47	Goggles mimicking drunkenness helps prevent impaired driving	10	117	102	**68**	220
48	Teenagers can be "scared straight"	21	123	108	**139**	126
49	Sexting is only a teenage problem	6	19	120	**344**	28
50	Traditional high school driver education courses have a strong record of making teenagers safe drivers	19	164	84	**28**	222

Table 2. Item level analyses for Myths about Relationships.

	Statement	DT	PT	PF	DF	DK
1	Men have a stronger libido (sex drive) than women.	92	**198**	115	75	37
2	Hooking up in college (having sex at university) is bad for women.	18	**49**	178	234	38
3	All marriages have been consummated (partners have had sexual intercourse).	57	**126**	143	139	52

Continued

4	All marriages are (and remain) sexually active.	11	93	173	213	**27**
5	Being smooth (acting sophisticated) is the best way to pick someone up (start a relationship).	22	176	**155**	98	66
6	Opposites attract (people with opposite personality and values are attracted to each other).	27	**183**	176	76	55
7	People know what they want in a partner.	41	**183**	176	87	30
8	Having access to innumerable online of potential partners increases the likelihood of finding Mr or Ms Right.	36	178	**143**	89	71
9	Meeting potential partners electronically prior to meeting them in person decreases the chances of a successful relationship.	12	**110**	211	98	86
10	Couples who are "matched" by online dating services are more likely to have satisfying relationships.	14	85	**201**	83	134
11	The gender to which people are attracted is stable (over time).	62	197	**111**	79	68
12	There are no differences between same-sex relationships and heterosexual relationships.	134	140	109	92	**42**
13	Children raised by other-sex couples are better off than children raised by same-sex couples.	42	**68**	96	223	88
14	Living together before marriage is a good way to determine whether you're with the right person.	254	188	33	**17**	25
15	Premarital counselling or relationship education programs prevent discord and divorce.	42	**213**	128	40	94
16	Good communication is the key to a happy relationship.	390	**99**	15	9	4
17	The key to a good relationship is knowing how to solve your problems.	247	**210**	29	10	21
18	Having children brings couples closer.	55	**171**	127	83	81
19	Stress is bad for relationships.	234	**214**	45	9	15
20	Supporting your partner will improve your relationship.	344	141	18	**8**	6
21	Men are from Mars, women are from Venus (men and women are very different).	114	155	121	**87**	40
22	Only men perpetrate violence in intimate relationships.	4	**31**	81	380	21
23	Marital therapy doesn't work.	10	**52**	217	106	132
24	Psychological damage from (first) adolescent relationships and break-ups is severe.	62	220	103	**17**	115
25	Things will improve once you are divorced,	15	**111**	117	50	224

selected Definitely True: 14, 16, 17, 19, and 20. When the Definitely and Probably True were combined 9 of the myths were incorrectly identified by the sample.

On 4 items a fifth or more of the respondents said that they Don't Know: 10, 23, 24, 25.

3.2. Correlates

Two scores were then computed for each individual: the total scores in each questionnaire in which they had marked Definitely False. For the first questionnaire the score was 18.89 (SD = 8.12) and the second 17.79 (SD = 8.12). The correlation between the two was r = .79 indicating considerable similarity in responses to the two questionnaires. These scores were then correlated with the various demographic and belief variables. There was no relationship between the total scores and age, gender, education, whether they had children and whether or not they had taken a course in psychology. Indeed, scores of those who had and had not some education in psychology were almost identical. Three variables were significant however for both total scores: they indicated that the more religious people rated themselves the higher their score: test 1, r = .24, test 2, r = .19; the more politically conservative people rated themselves the higher their score (test 1, r = .23; test 2, r = .18) and the more they believed they had common sense the higher their score (test 1, r = .22; test 2, r = .26).

A number of regressions were then computed, with both test total scores as the criterion variable. In the first set age, gender, taken a psychology course and self-assessed common sense was entered as predictor variables. The regression was significant for both tests: test 1 ($F(4, 219) = 3.40$, $p < .01$; $AdjR^2 = .04$) and test 2 ($F(4, 219) = 4.57$, $p < .001$; Adj $R^2 = .06$). In both cases only self-assessed common sense was significant Test 1 Beta-.22, $t = 3.37$, $p < .001$; Test 2 Beta .26, $t = 4.05$, $p < .001$). Those with higher self-assessed common sense were indeed more able to detect myths.

The two scores were then combined to produce a total score which served as a criterion variable. There were eight predictor variables: age, gender, education, taken a psychology course, self-assessed common sense, having children, religious beliefs and political beliefs. This was significant ($F(8,211) = 4.50$, $p < .001$, Adj $R^2 = .11$). Two variables were significant predictors: common sense (Beta = .21, $t = 3.13$, $p < .01$) and religious beliefs (Beta = .18, $t = 2.47$, $p < .01$). Those with higher self-rated common sense and greater religious beliefs were better able to detect these myths.

4. Discussion

The current results replicated findings of earlier studies on misconception prevalence (Arntzen et al., 2010; Furnham & Hughes, 2014) showing that a large number of myths were widely believed. This paper adds to the growing literature that is dedicated to exploring various myths and misconceptions about particular psychological concepts. Indeed this study was provoked by a series of books all dedicated to this endeavor (Hupp & Jewell, 2015; Jarrett, 2014; Jewell, Axelrod, Prinstein, & Hupp, 2019; Johnson, 2016).

Overall it seemed that participants were better at identifying Myths about Relationships compared to Myths about Adolescence, though this may be for methodological reasons. Many researchers have categorized myths into various

topics like learning and neuromyths (De Bruyckere et al., 2015) though the research tends to show that participants are not particularly better informed and better "myth-detectors" in some areas rather than others.

It should be pointed that when authors list myths of various kinds such as in the book series *Great Myths in Psychology* commissioned by Wiley they do not indicate the extent to which they believe (or have any data) on the extent to which people would endorse the myths. Nor do they write the statements in such a way as they may be easily understood without reading the subsequent text. In this sense the myths are not all equal which is the finding of this and other studies.

One interesting finding that was similar to the study of Furnham and Hughes (2014) was the fact that around 15% - 20% answered *Don't Know* to the questions. This number varied question by question but on average less than a fifth of respondents were prepared to admit that they did not know. We calculated the total scores for individuals on Don't Know but this was not systematically related to any of the demographic variables. It could be that people were too embarrassed to admit they did not know when indeed the evidence shows quite clearly that they did not.

This, like other studies in the area, failed to find any strong, clear or logical demographic correlates of myth accepting or rejecting. Age, gender and education were not related to total correct scores, nor education in psychology. Some, but not all, previous studies did establish a small but significant relationship between education in psychology and myth recognition (Furnham & Hughes, 2014). This study found no such relationship; however this may be because of the lack of detail about that education. The question was simply "Did you ever take a course in psychology/psychiatry: Yes…No…". As a result, we did not have details about the nature, depth and duration of the course, nor when and where it was undertaken.

Both the correlational and regression results did indicate one individual difference marker of myth detection. Those who rated themselves higher on "having common sense" were better detectors of myths. Descartes observed that common sense is the most widely distributed human characteristic because everybody believes they have a great deal of it which was reflected in the strong skew on this dimension. There was also some indication that religious and political beliefs were linked to myth detection though the correlations were low. The results were rather surprising showing that more religious and right-wing people tended to be better at myth detection.

Like all studies this had a number of limitations. First, the sample was heterogeneous but not fully representative in terms of age, religious views, marital status and educational attainment. It was also relatively small. We believe that a more representative sample would have more older people and those with less educational achievement; two factors that are associated with accepting more myths. It would however be most desirable to have collected data on whether the participants were parents of adolescence and how much contact they had with

them. Similarly it would have been desirable to know more about the "relationship experiences" of the participants such as whether they had been divorced or indeed their parents had.

Next, in this study all the myths were indeed myths and therefore False. It may have been better to combine myths with "facts" to see if participants could distinguish the two. Third, not all of the myths were always clearly expressed or in the same style, no doubt because they were not written as questionnaire items.

Studies such as this provide useful historical data on psychological myth prevalent in society. They nearly always provide the "shocking truth" about the widespread acceptance of myths which nearly always concerns experts and educationists who call for attempt to dispel or debunk those myths.

The current study has shown that psychological myths and misconceptions (about adolescence and relationships) are abundant and persistent as well as potentially harmful and socially divisive. It is possible that myth-debunking campaigns designed around refutational methods akin to those used by Kowalski and Taylor (2009), Lilienfeld et al. (2010), and LaCaille (2015) have the potential to reduce levels of misconception. The current study can be used to identify myths and misconceptions in need of refutation.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest regarding the publication of this paper.

References

Amsel, E., Baird, T., & Ashley, A. (2011). Misconceptions and Conceptual Change in Undergraduate Students Learning Psychology. *Psychology, Learning and Teaching, 10,* 3-10. https://doi.org/10.2304/plat.2011.10.1.3

Arntzen, E., Lokke, J., Lokke, G., & Eilertsen, D.-E. (2010). On Misconceptions about Behavior Analysis among University Students and Teachers. *Psychological Record, 60,* 325-336. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF03395710

Bensley, D. A., Lilienfeld, S. O., & Powell, L. A. (2014). A New Measure of Psychological Misconceptions: Relations with Academic Background, Critical Thinking, and Acceptance of Paranormal and Pseudoscientific Claims. *Learning and Individual Differences, 36,* 9-18. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2014.07.009

Brown, L. T. (1983). Some More Misconceptions about Psychology among Introductory Psychology Students. *Teaching of Psychology, 10,* 207-210. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15328023top1004_4

De Bruyckere, P., Kirschner, P., & Hulshof, C. (2015). *Urban Myths about Learning and Education.* London: Elsevier. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-801537-7.00003-2

Furnham, A. (1992). Prospective Psychology Students' Knowledge of Psychology. *Psychological Reports, 70,* 375-382. https://doi.org/10.2466/pr0.1992.70.2.375

Furnham, A. (1993). A Comparison between Psychology and Non-Psychology Students' Misperceptions of the Subject. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality, 8,* 311-322.

Furnham, A. (2018). Myths and Misconceptions in Developmental and Neuro-Psychology. *Psychology, 9,* 249-259. https://doi.org/10.4236/psych.2018.92016

Furnham, A., & Hughes, D. (2014). Myths and Misconceptions in Popular Psychology: Comparing Psychology Students and the General Public. *Teaching of Psychology, 41,* 256-261. https://doi.org/10.1177/0098628314537984

Gardner, R. M., & Dalsing, S. (1986). Misconceptions about Psychology among College Students. *Teaching of Psychology, 13,* 32-34. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15328023top1301_9

Gardner, R. M., & Brown, D. L. (2013). A Test of Contemporary Misconceptions in Psychology. *Learning and Individual Differences, 24,* 211-215. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2012.12.008

Griggs, R. A., & Ransdell, S. E. (1987). Misconceptions Tests or Misconceived Tests? *Teaching of Psychology, 14,* 210-214. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15328023top1404_4

Gaze, C. (2014). Popular Psychological Myths: A Comparison of Students' Beliefs across the Psychology Major. *Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, 14,* 46-60. https://doi.org/10.14434/josotl.v14i2.3931

Hughes, S., Lyddy, P., & Lambe, S. (2013). Misconceptions about Psychological Science: A Review. *Psychology, Learning and Teaching, 12,* 20-31. https://doi.org/10.2304/plat.2013.12.1.20

Hughes, S., Lyddy, P., & Kaplan, R. (2015). Highly Prevalent But Not Always Persistent: Undergraduate and Graduate Student's Misconceptions about Psychology. *Teaching of Psychology, 42,* 34-42. https://doi.org/10.1177/0098628314562677

Hupp, S., & Jewell, J. (2015). *Great Myths of Child Development.* New York: Wiley-Blackwell.

Jarrett, C. (2014). *Great Myths of the Brain.* New York: Wiley-Blackwell.

Jewell, J., Axelrod, M., Prinstein, M., & Hupp, S. (2019). *Great Myths of Adolescence.* New York: Wiley-Blackwell.

Johnson, M. (2016). *Great Myths of Intimate Relationships.* New York: Wiley-Blackwell. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118817469

Kowalski, P., & Taylor, A. (2009). The Effect of Refuting Misconceptions in the Introductory Psychology Class. *Teaching of Psychology, 36,* 153-159. https://doi.org/10.1080/00986280902959986

LaCaille, R. (2015). Two Birds with One Myth-Debunking Campaign. *Teaching of Psychology, 42,* 323-329. https://doi.org/10.1177/0098628315603066

Lamal, P. A. (1979). College Students' Common Beliefs about Psychology. *Teaching of Psychology, 6,* 155-158. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15328023top0603_8

Lilienfeld, S., Lynn, S., Ruscio, J., & Beyerstein, B. (2010). *50 Great: Popular Myths of Popular Psychology.* Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell. https://doi.org/10.1038/scientificamericanmind0310-42

McKeachie, W. (1960). Changes in Scores on the Northwestern Misconceptions Test in Six Elementary Psychology Courses. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 51,* 240-244. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0048569

Nixon, H. (1925). Popular Answers to Some Psychological Questions. *American Journal of Psychology, 27,* 91-98. https://doi.org/10.2307/1414166

Standing, L., & Huber, H. (2003). Do Psychology Courses Reduce Belief in Psychological Myths? *Social Behavior and Personality, 31,* 585-592. https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.2003.31.6.585

Swami, V., Thorn, L., Husbands, D., Tran, U. S., Nader, I. W., von Nordheim, L., Pietschnig, J., Stieger, S., & Voracek, M. (2015). Are the Scope and Nature of Psychology Properly Understood? An Examination of Belief in Myths of Popular Psychology

among University Students. In A. Columbus (Ed.), *Advances in Psychology Research* (Vol. 101, pp. 9-32). Hauppauge, NY: Nova Science Publishers. https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2523661

Taylor, A., & Kowalski, P. (2004). Naive Psychological Science: The Prevalence, Strength and Sources of Misconceptions, *Psychological Record, 54,* 15-25. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF03395459

Tupper, V., & Williams, R. (1986). Unsubstantiated Beliefs among Beginning Psychology Students: 1925, 1952, 1983. *Psychological Reports, 58,* 383-388. https://doi.org/10.2466/pr0.1986.58.2.383

Vaughan, E. D. (1977). Misconceptions about Psychology among Introductory Psychology Students. *Teaching of Psychology, 4,* 138-141. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15328023top0403_9