

JazzNotes

When a four just isn't enough...

A.P. Psychology Guide

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Chapter 01 – What Is Psychology?

Psychology	Science of behavior and mental processes
Mental process	Thoughts, ideas, reasoning
Overt actions	Directly perceptible and measurable movements or their consequences (walking and talking)
Social relationships	How we act when with other people (dating, having children)
Emotional responses	Our feelings (anger, happiness)
Physiological reactions	Body's reactions to the environment (high blood pressure due to stress)
Scientific Method	Steps: State the problem, develop hypothesis, design a study, collect / analyze data, replicate results, and make conclusion.
Hypothesis	Educated guess showing a possible relationship (often in an "if...than" form)
Theory	Conglomeration of ideas created to explain or predict behavior / mental process
Ethics	Rules about acceptable conduct researches should use as a guide in experiments
APA	American Psychological Association
Informed consent	Agreement to take part in experiment by a participant
Debriefing	After experiment is complete, researcher explains everything to participants.
Psychologist	Professional who studies behavior and use their findings in applied settings.
Clinical psychologist	Psychologist who studies behavior and emotion from the perspective of psychology. Less training than a psychiatrist.
Psychiatrists	Medical doctor who specialize in helping mental and physical disorders.
Psychoanalysts	Psychiatrists who specializes in psychoanalysis and uses it to help treat disorders.
Applied research	Conduct research to solve practical problems.
Engineering psych	Help design machines
Educational	Topics like how learning happens in classes
Forensic	Legal issues (work in courts and correctional institutions)
Health	How lifestyles and changes therein improve health
Behavioral medicine	Help those with chronic physical problems such as migraines
Sports psych	Deals with sports in one's lifestyle, motivation of athletes.
Industrial / organizational	Evaluate employees, motivation of work behavior
Human services psychology	Help people cope with life better
Lightner Witmer	1867-1956. 1st clinical psych, helped encourage psychology to be applied in a school setting.
G. Stanley Hall	Psychological intervention should be used in a school setting.
Counseling psych	Like clinical, help people deal with marriage, family, parenting issues, etc.
Community	Helps neighborhood grow closer, work better together
Experimental psych	An approach, not a field. Want to understand the basics of behavioral and mental process.
Psychological psych	(Neuropsychologists) study the relationships between the brain and behavior
Cognitive psych	Thought process, especially relationships: learning, memory, perception, attribution.
Developmental psych	Study the emotional, physical, intellectual changes in an individual's life
Social psych	How other people affect people's behavior or people's interactions
Gestalt psych	(German for configuration) Insight therapy emphasizes importance in a person's awareness of current feelings and situations
Psychoanalysis	Long term therapy, (method created by Freud), used to uncover unconscious impulses
Structuralism	School of thought that thought the structure and elements of immediate, conscious experience

	to be the proper subject matter of psychology. Today it might be suggested that the structuralists focus too much on the individual. (outdated)
Wilhelm Wundt	1832 – 1920. Founded 1st school of thought (structuralism). The first to really use labs in his work.
Edward Titchener	Helped popularize Wundt’s ideas.
Introspection	(self-examination) individual talks about what he thinks or feels
Functionalism	School of thought that tried to understand how and why the mind functions and is related to consciousness. Also studied how people adapt to their environments.
William James	1842 – 1910. Founder of functionalism, 1st American school of thought. Wrote Principles of Psychology in 1890, started phrase “stream of consciousness”.
Sigmund Freud	1856 – 1939. Said childhood experiences change future adult behaviors, that sexual energy fuels daily behavior. Founded psychoanalysis.

Chapter 02 – The Brain and Behavior

Nature v. Nurture	Inherited genetic characteristics vs. Environmental affects on characteristics/behavior.
John B. Watson	Pioneer in the field of behaviorism; felt that only nurture shaped behavior.
Genetics	Study of heredity (traits and characteristics passed on by genes).
Chromosomes	Strands of DNA which carry genetic information.
Genes	The most basic unit in heredity, which are made of DNA and proteins. Controls stuff like hair, and eye color, etc.
Alleles	One of a pair of genes which can be found on a specific location of a chromosome.
Genome	The whole of our bodies’ genes, and heritable traits.
Fraternal twins	Two people who just happen to be born at the same time (i.e. two sperm fertilize two eggs in the female’s body.)
Identical twins	Two people who are born from the same egg which splits into two parts which both develop separately.
Minn. Adoption Studies	A series of studies on twins in which it was found that nurture had more of an affect than nature.
Nervous system	The set of all the organs and bodily structures used to store, facilitate, and create communications throughout the body. (The central nervous system is the brain and spinal cord, and the peripheral nervous system is everything else.)
Neuron	Basic unit of the nervous system.
Afferent neurons	These neurons carry messages to the brain and spinal cord from the peripheral nervous system.
Efferent neuron	Neurons that carry messages from the central to the peripheral nervous system.
Sensory neuron	Afferent neurons; carry messages from the sense organs to the central system.
Motor neurons	Efferent neurons which control muscles from the central system.
Inter-neurons	Connectors between motor and sensory neurons and these are used wherever those two are not.
Glial cell	Holds/feeds the neurons.
Myelin sheath	Made of glial cells this is a barrier from toxins in the brain.
Dendrites	The “branches” of a neuron which gets signals and sends them to the cell body.
Axon	Sends signals from the cell body to other cells. The end is called an Axon terminal.
Synapse	The microscopic space between neurons.
Action potential	An electrical current sent through the axon which is set off by a polarization of the cell. An all-or-none reaction.
Refractory period	The time necessary for the neuron to recover after “firing” due to the action potential.
Neurotransmitters	A substance that transmits impulses over a synapse
Post synaptic potential	The change which takes place in a neuron after receiving an impulse from another neuron. Two kinds (excitatory which speeds up transmittal, and inhibitory which slows down transmittal of the impulse)
Serotonin	Neurotransmitter which is quite important regarding sleep. The higher the level of Serotonin

	the happier the person. Controls mood, appetite, and the body clock (circadian rhythms).
Acetylcholine	Neurotransmitter which is central to muscular movements. Controls fight-or-flight, and adrenaline.
Endorphins	Inhibitory neuropeptides which often slow pain. Controls memory, learning, sexual behavior, and acts as a pain inhibitor.
Dopamine	Controls movement.
GABA	Helps every neuron function. The more a person has the more passive they are.
Norepinephrine	Controls alertness. More of this may lead to Obsessive compulsiveness, and less would lead to ADD or ADHD (attention disorders).
Agonist	Chemical which facilitates actions of neurotransmitters.
Antagonists	Chemical which inhibits actions of neurotransmitters.
Peripheral Nervous System	This is made up of two major parts: the <i>somatic</i> nervous system and the <i>autonomic</i> nervous system. The autonomic is made of the <i>sympathetic</i> and the <i>parasympathetic</i> nervous systems.
Somatic Nervous System	Controls responses to the five senses. Thought of as something a person voluntarily controls.
Autonomic Nervous System	Controls automatic, uncontrolled responses of the nervous system. (i.e. blood flow, heart rate, digestion, etc.) Made up of the sympathetic and the parasympathetic nervous system.
Sympathetic Nervous System	The part of the autonomic nervous system which controls response to emergency situations. (Controls “flight-or-fight” responses). Increases heart rate, adrenaline, etc.
Parasympathetic Nervous System	Controls the steady operations of the body and brings the body back to normalcy after a sympathetic response.
Central Nervous System	Comprised of the Brain and Spinal Cord this controls the body’s flow of information. Main processor, controls muscles and glands.
Spinal Cord	The intermediary which signals pass through to reach the brain.
Brain	Part of the central nervous system; controls other nervous system activities.
Hindbrain	Medulla, reticular formation, the pons and the cerebellum.
Pons	A link between the medulla and the cerebellum. It controls sleep, and dreams.
Reticular Formation	A network of nerves in parts of the stem of the brain which helps control consciousness.
Medulla	Dense cluster of nerves which control heartbeat and breathing.
Reticular Formation	Part of the medulla, a network of nerve cells which control states of arousal, waking, and sleeping. Also controls responsive tasks.
Cerebellum	This part of the brain controls one’s balance, coordination and movement.
Midbrain	Receives afferent signals from the central nervous system.
Forebrain	Made of the Thalamus, Hypothalamus, Limbic System, Basal Ganglia, and the Corpus Callosum.
Thalamus	Processes and directs information throughout the brain. Controls all senses with the exception of the sense of smell.
Hypothalamus	Controls eating, drinking and sexual activity. Also controls food intake.
Limbic System	Controls emotional responses, memories, personality, and certain disorders.
Hippocampus	Controls learning, memory (especially short-term) and certain navigational and emotional tasks.
Amygdala	Controls attack responses, and some areas of learning. Also controls pleasure and pain.
Basal Ganglia	A series of nuclei located in the forebrain which controls movement, posture and also has to do with Parkinson’s. This is also related to muscle tone, and epilepsy.
Corpus Callosum	The link between the hemispheres of the brain. A thick band of nerve cells.
Cortex	Exterior covering of either hemisphere. A thin layer of cells.
Convulsions	Furrows, or wrinkles in the cortex which allow for more surface area in the brain’s tissue.
Phrenologists	People who thought that bumps on a person’s head revealed the person’s traits.
Neuroanatomy	Study of the structures of the nervous system.
Ablation	The practice of removing a part of an animal’s brain and observing the differences in behavior.
Single-Unit Recording	The process of inserting a thin object covered with an electrolyte solution next to a single neuron and measuring the amount of times the neuron “goes off”.
Electroencephalography	By using an electroencephalogram (EEG) we record neuronal activity via small electrodes placed on the scalp.

Frequency	Brian waves per unit time (waves/sec or waves/min)
Amplitude	Height from the upper to the lower crest of a wave.
Alpha Waves	Frequency of 8-12 waves a second.
Beta Waves	High frequency, low amplitude.
Computerized Tomography	CT scans are three dimensional X-rays which are especially useful in zoning in on specific areas of trouble
Positron Emission Tomography	Scientists inject radioactive “indicators” into the subject’s body and then are able to follow them through the blood stream and see which parts of the brain are used (judging by which parts of the brain receive the most blood/indicators).
Magnetic Resonance Imaging	More powerful than a CT scan and uses magnetic fields instead of the CT scan’s X-rays.
Functional MRI	An MRI which notes changes in the subject’s metabolism and shows scientists which parts of the brain are being used.
Split-brain patients	Patients whose corpus callosum (the connecting band of fibers between the hemispheres) has been cut. They’ve helped prove the modularity of the hemispheres of the brain
Plasticity	The ability of the brain to alter its organization and modify itself.
Neurotransplants	Transplanting brain tissue from one being to another.
Endocrine Glands	These hormone producing glands secrete hormones into our circulatory systems directly.
Hormones	Chemicals which guide the activities of different bodily organs.
Pituitary Gland	This endocrine gland is considered the most important. It also controls other endocrine glands throughout the body. It also controls growth hormones.
Thyroid	Produces Thyroxin which regulates metabolism.
Cerebrum	Controls consciousness. This is the biggest and most complex part of the brain, and controls complex and high-level thinking.
Frontal Lobe	Controls memory.
Temporal Lobe	Has control over learning, speech, and visual functions.
Anterior Lobe	Produces somatotrophins (growth hormones), and gonadotrophins (sex hormones)
Posterior Lobe	Produces ADH (antidiuretic hormone which increases absorption and minimizes the amount of urine produced), and Oxytocin (which helps mothers milk and helps in contractions during child labor).
Pancreas	This endocrine gland helps regulate the body’s sugar levels.
Islets of Langerhans	Cells in the pancreas which make insulin.
Insulin	Hormone which transfers sugar from the blood to somatic (body) cells.
Diabetes Mellitus	This means that not enough insulin is being made which means that excess sugar stays inside blood cells and not enough is moved to body cells.
Hypoglycemia	The opposite of Diabetes Mellitus this condition means your body creates too many insulin cells which means sugar leaves your circulatory system faster than it should leaving the patient weak, and unenergetic.
Adrenal Glands	Endocrine gland which affects behavior. (Two parts: adrenal, medulla/cortex). Can be found above the kidneys.
Adrenal Medulla	Part of the adrenal gland which produces adrenaline (epinephrine). Has a dramatic affect on energy and stress levels.
Adrenal Cortex	Part of the adrenal gland which produces a single hormone which controls growth, development, and certain cardiovascular tasks

Chapter 03 – Sensation and Perception

Sensation	Process where sensory organs receive information and send them to the brain for further processing
Perception	Process that something uses to choose and interpret sensory input so that it has meaning
Perceptual systems	The groups of structures and their functions which allow us to perceive the world around us
Psychophysics	Area of psychology that studies the relationship between physical stimuli and one’s conscious

	experiences with them
Absolute threshold	Statistical average of the minimum amount of stimuli needed for one to perceive it. (I.e. – minimum pressure in order for one to feel a touch)
Difference threshold	Statistical average of the minimum amount of increased stimuli for one to perceive a change or increase in that stimulus. (I.e. – “it just became brighter”)
Method of limits	Examiner changes the stimuli by making it slightly greater or lesser, in ascending or descending order, and the participant tells when a difference is perceived.
Method of constant stimuli	Stimulus values are given at random, and the participant explains the difference, if any, he or she perceives.
Signal detection theory	Observer’s perception depends on intensity of stimulus, his motivation, the criteria he sets, and the background noise.
Subliminal perception	Perception below the threshold of awareness
Selective attention	Ability to pay attention to only one or two things at a time
Cocktail party phenomenon	While a person may not be able to comprehend the content of the conversations around him, one might hear one’s name from across a room.
Filter theory	Because people can only perceive and comprehend certain amounts of information at a time, one ear will perceive and another will filter.
Electromagnetic radiation	Spectrum of waves started by the movement of charged particles. (Include: gamma ray, X-ray, ultraviolet, visible light, radar, broadcast bands, AC currents)
Cornea	Small, clear bulge that covers the pupil and iris of the eye.
Pupil	Dark opening of the eye that lets light in.
Iris	Pigmented portion of the eye. Constricts and releases the pupil to make it smaller or larger to improve depth of focus.
Lens	4 mm thick. Behind pupil, helps form image.
Retina	Captures the image. About 10 layers of cells.
Myopic	Nearsighted, people with elongated eyeballs.
Hyperopic	Farsighted, people with shortened eyeballs.
Photoreceptors	Part of the retina (in back of two layers: bipolar and ganglion cells). Light-sensitive cells. Made of rods and cones.
Transduction	(Coding) process by which stimulus from the rods and cones are translated into electrical impulses.
Bipolar cells	After transduction, images are sent back to this layer.
Convergence	Electrical signals from the rods and cones come together in a single, separate, bipolar cells.
Ganglion cell	(Approx. 1 million) Dozens of bipolar cells converge on a single ganglion cell.
Optic nerve	Axons of ganglion cells, carries information from rods and cones to nervous system.
Visual cortex	(Striate cortex) part of the occipital lobe, processes information from the lateral geniculate nucleus.
Cones	Center of retina, at fovea, for day vision, color vision, fine visual discrimination
Rods	Night vision.
Visual acuity test	Measures the resolution capacity of the visual system.
Dark adaptation	Increase in sensitivity to light that happens when light levels change from low to high.
Optic chiasm	Point where half of the optic nerves cross over into the other half of the brain. This results in 3D vision. Impairment results in tunnel vision, or loss in peripheral vision.
Receptive fields	Areas of the retina that, if stimulated, make a change in the firing of cell in the visual system.
Feature receptors	Visual system cells that fire when exposed to a specific stimulus, such as horizontal lines.
Simple cells	Respond to shape or size of objects.
Complex cells	Movement of light in one direction
Hypercomplex cells	Respond only to a line of light of the correct length and orientation that moves in a specific direction.
Parallel processing	Brain processes several factors at once in different areas of the brain, such as size, color, and movement.
Serial	Step by step processing, linear.

<i>processing</i>	
<i>Saccades</i>	Most common eye movement. Controlled movements of the eye, used for reading, driving etc. about 100,000 saccades a day, can make about 4-5 saccades a second.
<i>Perceptual span</i>	Size of a region a person sees when fixated on a single point. (Ex. The number of letters one may see when fixated on a single one)
<i>Hue</i>	The color of an object
<i>Brightness</i>	How light or dark an object's hue appears to be. Greater the intensity of reflected light, the brighter an object. A longer wavelength of reflected light results in less brightness. The closer the wavelength is to 500-600 nm (yellow), the more sensitive the photoreceptors.
<i>Saturation</i>	Purity. The higher the saturation, the fewer colors (aside from the main color) there are mixed in.
<i>Trichromatic theory</i>	All colors may be created by mixing red, green, and blue. (Young-Helmholtz theory)
<i>Color blindness</i>	Inability of a person to describe specific hues.
<i>Opponent process theory</i>	Ewald Herring. 6 basic colors and 3 different receptors: red-green, blue-yellow, black-white.
<i>Trichromats</i>	People who can distinguish between all 3 primary colors.
<i>Monochromats</i>	Cannot distinguish any hue.
<i>Dichromats</i>	People who can distinguish only two of the three primary hues.
<i>Size consistency</i>	Ability of the visual system to recognize that in object remains a constant size regardless of distance determined by previous experience, distance, and presence of surrounding objects.
<i>Shape consistency</i>	Ability to recognize that no change in shape occurs despite a change in angle or orientation.
<i>Monocular depth cue</i>	Depth cues that do NOT depend on both eyes. Distant scenes and 2D fields of view.
<i>Motion parallax</i>	When a moving observer fixates on a single point.
<i>Kinetic depth effect</i>	Objects look flat until they begin to move.
<i>Linear perspective</i>	Larger objects are perceived to be closer than smaller ones. Farther objects appear closer together.
<i>Interposition</i>	One object blocks a part of another, that object appears closer.
<i>Texture</i>	Objects with little texture appear to be farther away.
<i>Atmospheric perspective</i>	Objects in the distance often appear bluer.
<i>Accommodation</i>	Change in shape of the lens of the eyes that lets the observer to keep an object in focus when the object is moved or the observer moves.
<i>Binocular depth cues</i>	Cues for depth perception that require the use of both eyes
<i>Retinal disparity</i>	Small difference between the visual images projected onto the two retinas. Because the nose separates the eyes, they view objects from different angles.
<i>Convergence</i>	Movement of eyes together as an object approaches.
<i>Illusion</i>	A perception of a physical stimulus that is different from measurable reality or what is actually expected.
<i>Muller-Lyer illusion</i>	Two lines of equal length appear different in length when two arrows on the ends.
<i>Law of Pragnanz</i>	Belief that people see groups of elements, not pieces. Idea that when people see items that can be grouped together a person will see it.
<i>Sound</i>	Psychological experience when air pressure changes affect a hearing organ.
<i>Frequency</i>	Number of complete changes in air pressure that happen in a given unit of time. Measured in Hz and creates changes in pitch or tone.
<i>Pitch</i>	Psychological experience that happens in correlation with frequency changes. High frequency results in a high pitch.
<i>Amplitude</i>	(Intensity) total energy of a sound wave, determines how loud a sound is. Measured in decibels. (Every 20 raised decibels = 10x perceived amplitude.)
<i>Timbre</i>	Quality of the sound. Specific mixture of amplitudes and frequencies that make up a sound.
<i>Audition</i>	Hearing.

Ear	3 parts: outer ear, middle ear, and inner ear.
Middle ear	Made of bones: hammer, anvil, and stirrup. These bones make the large forces that affect the eardrum smaller. These stimulate the basilar membrane, which goes to the middle of the cochlea, which is a spiral tube in the inner ear.
Place theories	(Hearing) say that the analysis of sound happens on the basilar membrane, showing that different frequencies and intensities affect differing parts.
Frequency theories	Show that the analysis of pitch and intensity happens at higher levels, or centers, of processing. The basilar membrane simply passes this information on.
Sound localization	Interaural time difference: sound reaches one ear slightly before another. Interaural intensity difference: sound is slightly more intense in one ear.
Conduction deafness	Deafness that happens because of interference with the transmission of sound to the neural mechanism of the inner ear. For example wax or a hardening of the eardrum (tympanic membrane)
Sensorineural deafness	Deafness that happens because of damage to the cochlea, the auditory nerve, or a higher auditory processing center.
Audiogram	Graph that shows hearing sensitivity at different frequencies.
Taste buds	Primary receptors for taste stimuli. Found on bumps on the tongue called papillae. Each taste bud contains from 5 to 150 taste cells that are always being replaced.
Sensory adaptation	Temporary decrease in responsiveness of a receptor due to repeated high levels of stimulation.
Olfaction	Sense of smell.
Olfactory epithelium	Layer of cells at the top of the nasal cavity that contain the olfactory receptor cells.
Top note	As in perfumes, the first impact of a smell.
Pheromones	Chemical substances that affect the olfactory sense of others and are used as a means of communication.
Skin senses	Pain, touch, and temperature.
Skin layers	Epidermis: mostly dead cells, varies in thickness, is completely replaced about every 28 days. Dermis: live skin cells, nerve endings, blood, hair cells, and oil-producing cells. Hypodermis: thick, insulating cushion.
Free nerve endings	Microscopic ends of neurons that are located all about the body in differing degrees. Believed to be how the body senses pain.
Gate control theory	Melzack-Wall. Complex theory that examines the size of the nerve fiber, their level of development, and the interplay of excitatory that start pain and inhibitory cells that diminish it.
Endorphins	Painkillers that are naturally made in the brain and pituitary gland. For example, Enkephalin, a painkiller produced in the brain.
Acupuncture	Technique that implements long slender needles that are stuck into different parts of the body to relieve pain.
TENS	Quick pulses of electricity at an exact frequency and voltage may help alleviate pain in those who suffer it chronically.
Kinesthesia	Awareness caused by movements of the muscles, tendons, and joints. Also called proprioception, or sensory cues that come from the body.
Vestibular sense	Sense of bodily orientation, helps keep balance and equilibrium. Structures that aid this sense are found in the ear with the vestibular sacs and semicircular canals.
ESP	Extra sensory perception. Often tested through a use of cards and “guessing.”
Telepathy	Direct transfer of thoughts from one person to another.
Clairvoyance	Ability to recognize objects or events that are not otherwise available to the senses.
Precognition	Unexplained knowledge of future events.
Psychokinesis	Ability to move objects with the mind alone.

Chapter 04 – Consciousness

John B. Watson	Felt that since consciousness is not physical and cannot be measured should be barred from the field of psychology.
Consciousness	Awareness of one's inner and outer environments.
Dualism	Idea put forth by Descartes which stated that the body and mind are two separate things.
Materialism	The idea that the brain has a physiological root.

Metacognition	The ability to think of one's own thoughts.
Sentience	One's awareness, or feelings.
Access	Ability to recall thoughts, and memories.
REM Sleep	This is the fifth stage of sleep during which the most vivid dreams and rapid eye movements occur.
NREM Sleep	Non-rapid Eye Movement. The first four stages of sleep occur during this sleep.
Sleep Spindle	Periodic surge of brain waves (1-2 seconds long)
K Complex	Much like a sleep spindle the K Complex is a periodic surge of brain waves which occurs towards the end of sleep stage 2 in higher amplitudes.
Delta Waves	These waves (of the highest amplitude) occur during stage 4 sleep.
Ventrolateral Preoptic Area	Area of the brain in which there resides a group of cells which turn on or off depending on the sleep stage.
Narcolepsy	Sleep disorder. People who have this disorder are prone to falling asleep randomly and unexpectedly at times.
Sleep Apnea	People with this sleep disorder may experience periods at night during which their air intake is stopped for at least 15 seconds. This wakes them up from sleep which means they have to start with stage one all over again.
Insomnia	Sleep disorder with which the subject finds it difficult to fall asleep for a prolonged period of time.
Night Terrors	This sleep disorder is defined as a panic attack (or attacks) which occur within one hour of sleep. It may be caused by anxiety or depression.
Sleepwalking	This disorder leaves the subject both asleep and awake at the same time. It occurs during stage 4 sleep.
Dream	State of consciousness. Happens during sleep and involves imagery of some sort. Some feel dreams represent repressed emotions which need to be expressed. Some feel dreams are meaningless.
REM Sleep	Rapid Eye Movement. Dreams occur most often during this sleep, though they still occur in NREM.
NREM Sleep	Non Rapid Eye Movement. Dreams occur least often during this sleep and more often in REM. Less visual, less weird dreams.
Lucid Dreaming	The state of being aware of one's own dream (i.e. knowing you are dreaming in your dream).
The Interpretation of Dreams	Freud's book concerning dreams, what they mean, and what certain symbols represent. It also discusses theories which he created about dreams.
Manifest Content	(Freud) This is comprised of the basic facts of a dream (i.e. what happened, who was in it, etc.).
Latent Content	(Freud) This is the deeper meaning of a dream (i.e. symbolism, hidden desires, etc.)
Carl Jung	Jung agreed with Freud in his views on dreams. Jung felt dreams were simply tools used by the mind to sort out the complexities of life.
Collective Unconscious	(Jung) Ancient ideas and images inherited by every human being from our ancestors.
Archetypes	(Jung) A set of inherited ideas or images (part of the collective unconscious).
Activation-synthesis theory	During REM sleep parts of the brain are "activated" by cells in the hindbrain (moreover, the pons). The cortex tries to "synthesize" (understand) the thoughts. The dream which is created out of that becomes fragmented and nonsensical.
Biofeedback	The process of watching one's involuntary actions, (monitoring those actions) and controlling them.
Hypnosis	An induced altered state of consciousness.
Suggestibility	AKA hypnotic susceptibility represents how well a person can be hypnotized.
Age Regression	Ability to recall experiences from years in the past. Supposedly this is one effect hypnosis can have.
Heightened Memory	Another effect of hypnosis it is claimed that we can improve our recall through hypnosis.
Cognitive-behavioral view	View that concentrates on the social processes in changing people's thoughts and behavior during hypnosis.

Meditation	Technique used to detach one's self from reality via deep relaxation and extreme concentration.
Mindful Meditation	Type of meditation. This is done through an attempt to empty the mind and be still.
Concentrative Meditation	Type of meditation. This is achieved via focus on an image or a repeated word over and over (i.e. repeating "om" in Hinduism)
Drug	Chemical substance which affects one's biological processes
Psychoactive Drug	Drug that also affects thoughts and emotions too. This is accomplished by changing biochemical reactions.
Addictive Drug	Drug that causes one to get addicted to it and when one does not use it they go through symptoms of withdrawal.
Substance Abuser	One who "needs" drugs to cope with normal events. They must have used the drug in question within the past 30 days, the use must have caused some sort of problem in their life, work, etc., the person must have used the drug in a dangerous situation.
Psychological Dependence	An unquenchable desire to use a drug. Pathological use is when one cannot control their intake of the drug in question.
Withdrawal Symptoms	Physical response to the removal of an addictive drug from one's system.
Tolerance	A steady decrease in the effects a drug has over a set amount of time with standard use.
Sedative-hypnotics	Type of drug which alleviates tension. This drug can calm or relax the user and if used enough increase fatigue. Also known as depressants.
Alcohol-related problems	Medical, social, or psychological problems connected with the use of alcohol.
Alcoholic	One with a physiological or psychological need for alcohol.
Multimodal treatment	A form of treatment to problems in which several methods are used. In the case of drinking family therapy, group therapy, etc. would be used
Barbiturates	By depressing the nervous system these calm people.
Tranquilizers	Drugs which sedate and calm people.
Opiate	These drugs relieve pain, calm, are addictive, and produce tolerances.
Heroin	The worst of the opiates, heroin is dangerously addictive.
Methadone Maintenance	Treatment for heroine abuse. Users take methadone a non-addictive, non tolerance building drug which blocks the effects of heroin.
Psychostimulant	Drug which increases alertness, reduces fatigue, and elevates mood in a small dose.
Amphetamines	A group of compounds which increase excitability depress appetite, and increase alertness and talkativeness.
Cocaine	Central Nervous System stimulant/anesthetic.
Psychedelics	A drug which causes an altered state of consciousness. (AKA Hallucinogens)
LSD	AKA Acid. Creates mood swings, extreme visual imagery, and changed time-distance perception.
Marijuana	Alters consciousness and alleviates depression.

Chapter 05 – Learning

Learning	An almost permanent change in one's behavior as a result of an environmental variable.
Conditioning	A way to create a consistent (sometimes automatic) response to a type of stimuli.
Reflex	An automatic, involuntary response without any prior learning.
Ivan Pavlov	Russian physiologist who did experiments on conditioning by using a bell to condition dogs to salivate (knowing they would be fed soon).
Classic Conditioning	(AKA Pavlovian Conditioning) This is when a neutral stimulus (a bell) is paired with a stimulus which elicits a response (food) and therefore the neutral stimulus is turned into one which elicits a response.
Unconditioned Stimulus	Stimulus which produces a response without conditioning.
Unconditioned Response	The response from an unconditioned stimulus. (i.e. the response produced from a stimulus without conditioning)
Conditioned Stimulus	This is neutral stimulus which, when associated with an unconditioned stimulus, elicits the same response.

Conditioned Response	A response elicited from a once-neutral stimulus which is now associated with an unconditioned one (and therefore elicits the response to the unconditioned).
Acquisition Process	The process during which conditioning occurs and a stimulus goes from being neutral to being conditioned.
Higher-order conditioning	This is when a neutral stimulus is conditioned to elicit a response from another conditioned response. (i.e. when a sound is associated with the bell which was associated with the food. So the sound transitively makes the dog salivate).
Strength of the unconditioned stimulus	A strong unconditioned stimulus will be much more likely than a weak one to elicit a response from a neutral stimulus.
Timing of the unconditioned stimulus	An unconditioned stimulus and a neutral stimulus needs to be sufficiently close (time-wise) to be associated.
Frequency of Pairings	Unconditioned stimuli and neutral stimuli must occur often to be associated.
Extinction	This is used to reduce association between a neutral and unconditioned stimuli by presenting the unconditioned stimuli without the neutral one.
Spontaneous Recovery	This is when after a rest period a previously conditioned response is elicited.
Stimulus Generalization	This is what happens when a conditioned response is created to a stimulus that is similar to the conditioned stimulus. (i.e. dogs salivate when they see a man shake his hand in the same motion as he would with a bell but has no bell in hand.)
Stimulus Discrimination	This is when something or someone learns to respond only to one stimulus and not to others.
Garcia Effect	This is sometimes known as “taste aversion.” An experiment run by a man named Garcia shows this effect. He created nausea among animals hours after they ate a type of food proving timing doesn’t always matter. He also proved that learning only occurred with two stimuli that were somewhat related.
B.F. Skinner	
Behavioral Regulation Theorists	Animals will choose activities they enjoy when presented with a choice. We self-regulate our activities by choosing to do what we like.
Insight	Discovery of a relationship between events
Latent Learning	Learning without direct reinforcement. Not necessarily observable.
EC Tolman	He used rats in a maze to prove the theory of latent learning
Generative Process	When one learns by associating info. they know with something new.
Metacognition	Awareness of one’s own thoughts.
Cognitive Maps	Mental representations of newly learned ideas.
Social Learning Theory	This theory also known as the observational learning theory states that sometimes we create new responses by imitating the model someone creates.
Elaboration	When one translates a concept into something they understand and tries to relate it to existing knowledge.
Organization	The skill to learn in an efficient way.
Scheduling	Creating routines for learning.
Behavioral Regulation Theorists	Animals will choose activities they enjoy when presented with a choice. We self-regulate our activities by choosing to do what we like.
Insight	Discovery of a relationship between events
Latent Learning	Learning without direct reinforcement. Not necessarily observable.
EC Tolman	He used rats in a maze to prove the theory of latent learning
Generative Process	When one learns by associating info. they know with something new.
Metacognition	Awareness of one’s own thoughts.

Chapter 06 – Memory

Memory	Ability to remember past occurrences.
Information Processing	Term applied to the process of accepting, understanding, interpreting, and responding to environmental forces.
Encoding	Retrieving and converting information (stimuli) to an interpretable form.
Attention	Term used when mental focus is applied to some parts (and not others) of one's environment.
Metacognition	Awareness of one's own mental processes.
Levels-of-processing approach	The brain has various ways of processing, information, on different planes, in many diverse ways and to varying degrees.
Encoding Specificity Principle	This states that you will more effectively recall encoded information if your "retrieval cues" (that which triggers a memory) are close to what the originally encoded information is.
Transfer-Appropriate Processing	This happens when the first processing of information is like the retrieving process.
Confirmation Bias	When one notices something which supports their own preconceived notion.
Parallel Distributed Processing	Theory which holds that many processes occur in our brain at any one time.
Storage	Process of organizing existent information in an easy-to-use manner.
Memory Stores	Where we contain information.
Sensory memory	When sensory memories are stored temporarily in the brain.
Short-term working memory	AKA sensory register. This performs encoding and also stores some temporary sensory memories.
Iconic Storage	Storage of visual memories (icons).
Echoic Storage	Storage of auditory memories (icons).
Memory Span	Number of items which can be recalled from the short term working memory.
Chunks	Easy-to-access and easy-to-interpret memories.
Rehearsal	Repetition of a memory to place an importance on it and keep it active.
Maintenance Rehearsal	Repetition of a memory with little interpretation.
Elaborative rehearsal	Repetition of a memory with much interpretation and analysis.
Long-term Memory	Somewhat permanent record of memories.
Procedural Memory	Memories of motor skills, perceptual skills, and cognitive skills.
Declarative Theory	Memories of facts.
Consolidation	If a group of neurons is fired often enough a permanent pathway will form.
Long-term potentiation	As a neuron is stimulated the chance of responsiveness from that neuron increases.
Wilder Penfield	Discovered that stimulus of the brain (touching parts of it) could actually trigger memories. Stimulus of the same part often triggered different memories and stimulus of different parts often triggered similar ones.
Milner	Reported case of a man much like the man in the movie Memento where the person was no longer able to create long-term memories.

Chapter 07 – Cognition, Thought, and Language

Concept	In cognitive psychology this is a mental category which we create to distinguish between items or events.
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Prototype	A prototype is not concrete. It is a model used to differentiate between items (i.e. a prototype is how you know a black 19 inch TV and a small 7 inch TV are still both TV's)
Algorithm	This is a method used to solve a problem by attempting to figure out what the "rules" are to a problem.
Heuristics	Heuristics are methods of finding solutions or strategies employed to solve a problem
Sub goal analysis	This is a heuristic where we break the problem down into separate sub goals and use heuristics to solve each.
Means-ends analysis	Another heuristic method in which one compares the unsolved problem with the goal (the solved problem) and attempts to figure out the easiest way to reach the solution.
Backward search	A heuristic method where the subject works backwards from the solution to the unsolved problem to figure it out. (E.g. starting at a maze's 'finish' line and working your way back).
Functional Fixedness	This is when one has difficulty seeing a secondary function for an object or item.
Convergent Thinking	Narrowing down one's options when attempting to solve a problem
Divergent Thinking	Widening a range of solutions to a problem to attempt to find a solution.
Syllogism	This is when one takes two ideas which are held to be true and uses them to come to some sort of conclusion which must then be decided to be true or not.
Gambler's Fallacy	The (wrong) belief that the more one gambles something the greater their chances are at winning. In reality every time your odds remain the same.
Belief in small numbers	An incorrect belief which we base on a small sampling. (e.g. if nine out of ten friends are democrats, the majority of the town is democrats)
Availability Heuristic	This is when we incorrectly think an event is more likely because of prominent examples. (e.g. we don't want to fly because we can think of several recent plane crashes)
Confirmation Bias	This is the tendency to ignore evidence which goes against our preexisting beliefs. (i.e. the habit of ignoring new evidence which refutes a once-held belief)
Artificial intelligence	AI. Program that mimics some type of human cognitive activities.
Convergence zone	Center where brain has developed a specific processing areas that organize information.
Blind sight	Awareness of objects that one was not initially aware of, due to secondary pathways.
Parallel distributed processing	PDP. Suggests that multiple operations take place at once, at many places in the brain at once.
Prototype	Ability to recognize things based on similar range of forms. EX. Different handwritings.
Jean Piaget	1896-1980. All development of cognitive abilities occurs during the first 2 years of life. Focused on how, not what people think.
Schemes	(Mental structures) Organized ways of interacting and experiencing the environment and world.
Adaptation	Process of learning how one's actions cause results in the world.
Assimilation	Process by which a person absorbs new ideas and experiences and puts them into existing schemes and behaviors
Accommodation	Process of changing existing behaviors to allow for new experiences
Sensorimotor stage	First 2 years. Development of cognitive abilities.
Preoperational stage	2 to 6 or 7. Children represent the world symbolically. Pretending. Egocentrism.
Egocentrism	Inability to perceive a situation or even but in relation to one's self.
Decentration	Process by which egocentrism is lessened, likely over several years.
Concrete operational stage	About 7 to 12. Ability to understand constants in the environment, like rules. Egocentrism is lessened.
Conservation	Ability to see that things can be changed in certain ways, visually or physically, but still be equal in number, weight, substance, or volume.
Formal	Last stage of development, about 12 and up. People think hypothetically, consider the future,

<i>operational stage</i>	use of deduction, abstract thought.
<i>Lev Vygotsky</i>	1896-1934. Children constantly try to find meaning from the social world and master higher-order concepts.
<i>Scaffolding</i>	Adult interacts with a child to set up more and more challenging tasks that result in learning.

Chapter 08 – Intelligence

<i>Intelligence</i>	Ability to think and act with reason.
<i>Wechsler's Theory</i>	David Wechsler held that testing intelligence via verbal and spatial comprehension was not valid. He went on to create the widely used Wechsler-Bellevue test.
<i>Factor Theories</i>	
<i>Factor Analysis</i>	This is a means of extracting the factors (or independent elements) from data.
<i>Charles E. Spearman</i>	Using factor analysis Spearman found that intelligence is made of a general (g) factor and several specific (s) factors. He held that you need a certain level of both to complete certain tasks. His theory is known as the "two-factor theory of intelligence."
<i>Two-Factor Theory Of Intelligence</i>	(see Charles Spearman)
<i>Louis L Thurstone</i>	Thurstone took Spearman's two-factor theory and split the general factor area into seven particular parts: verbal comprehension, word fluency, number facility, special visualization, associative memory, perceptual speed, and reasoning. This theory is termed the factor theory of intelligence.
<i>Factor Theory of Intelligence</i>	(see Louis L Thurstone)
<i>Arthur Jensen</i>	Jensen's two-level theory states all intellectual function is comprised of associative and cognitive abilities.
<i>Associative Abilities</i>	Defined by Arthur Jensen as abilities which allow people to associate outside actions (stimuli) and events.
<i>Cognitive Abilities</i>	Defined by Arthur Jensen as reasoning and problem-solving abilities.
<i>Lev Vygotsk's Intelligence Theory</i>	This theory maintains that a key part of intelligence is the ability to communicate with others.
<i>Gardner's Multiple Intelligence Theory</i>	Howard Gardner felt that there is no one test for intelligence because we all have different intelligences. He felt that cultural aptitude played a role in intelligence.
<i>Sternberg's Triarchic Theory</i>	Intelligence should be defined as how one can adapt to their environment (situation). This theory is three-pronged: analytic, practical, creative. Analytic: This is when one can find out the one true answer to a problem. Practical: This is when one can use their own knowledge to solve a problem. Creative: This is when one can figure out how to get a problem solved (identify, postulate solutions, etc.)
<i>David Goleman</i>	Wrote "Emotional Intelligence" in 1995 to show the importance of emotional intelligence and he feels that those with a high emotional intelligence are better survivors in our world.
<i>Halo Effect</i>	Tendency of one characteristic influences the interpretation of other characteristics being evaluated.
<i>Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale</i>	Test created by Alfred Binet and Theodore Simon and revised by Lewis Terman. Involved a series of increasingly difficult tests to test intelligence.
<i>Kaufman Assessment Battery for Children</i>	These tests are unbiased against those with differing backgrounds. These tests assess the problem-solving process along with the solution which has been given.
<i>The Bell Curve</i>	A controversial book written in 1994 asserting that IQ is very much a genetic trait and minorities tend to be in a rut which they cannot be dug out of.

Chapter 09 – Motivation and Emotion

Motivation	That which will encourage a being to attempt to accomplish some goal through their behavior.
Drive Theory	Motivation is caused by a survival need.
Drive	Internal physiological need that an organism is compelled to fulfill.
Need	A physiological instability which fosters arousal.
Homeostasis	An unchanging, stable balance in one's physiology.
Drive State	The state in which an organism motivated by need is in.
Steady State	The state in which an organism is in homeostasis.
Incentive	A goal which dictates motivation (fulfills a need). Can be positive or negative.
Arousal	When the central and autonomic nervous systems along with muscles and glands are activated.
Yerkes-Dodson Law	This law relates arousal and the level of difficulty of a task. If a task is easy then a lot of arousal helps achieve the best results. If the task is very difficult little arousal is needed for maximum performance.
Expectancy Theories	These are used to describe what a person expects to come of their motivated behavior.
Motive	That which creates motivation in an organism.
Social Need	Aroused behavior which makes a person feel better about him or her and others.
Cognitive Motivation Theory	Theory which states that we often set goals and analyze how we can achieve them.
Extrinsic Motivation	External rewards which drive motivation.
Intrinsic Motivation	Internal rewards or pleasures which, in turn, drive motivation.
Over justification Effect	This effect theory states that an intrinsically-motivated task is less likely to recur after an extrinsic reward is added and then removed.
Humanistic Motivation Theory	This theory takes a wider look at a person's values, dignity and feeling of self-worth in terms of motivation.
Self-actualization	State in which one attempts to understand their human potential and tries to figure out everything which they are capable of achieving. The following needs must be met (in order) first: physiological, safety, belongingness, esteem, cognitive, and aesthetic.
Glucoastic Approach to Hunger	Hunger is caused by a low level of sugar in the blood.
Ventromedial Hypothalamus	Stops a person from eating when the level of sugar in the blood is high or when this part of the brain is electrically stimulated.
Lateral Hypothalamus	Tells a person to start eating when the level of sugar in the blood is low or when this part of the brain is electrically stimulated.
Anorexia Nervosa	An eating disorder which causes a fear of becoming fat, a screwed up body image, and a stubborn rejection of food.
Bulimia Nervosa	An eating disorder. The effects are that one binge eats and then purges their system (usually via vomiting).
Estrogens	Set of female hormones.
Androgens	Set of male hormones.
Sexual Response Cycle	Excitement phase, plateau phase, orgasm phase, and resolution phase.
Excitement Phase	The first phase of the sexual response cycle. Measured by an increase in heart rate, blood pressure, and respiration.
Vasocongestion	When an increase in blood flow fills blood vessels, especially around the genital area.
Plateau Phase	Second phase of the sexual response cycle. Bodies prepare for orgasm heart rates increase.
Orgasm Phase	Third phase of the sexual response cycle. The autonomic nervous system reaches its maximum and muscle spasms occur throughout the body.
Resolution	Fourth and final phase of sexual response. Body returns to a normal state.

Phase	
Refractory Period	Short period directly after the Resolution Phase of the sexual response cycle during which men cannot receive erections.
Thematic Apperception Test	TAT. Subjects are given pictures which are open to interpretation and asked “What is happening? What has led up to this situation? What are those in the situation thinking? What will happen next?”
Emotion	A response (or feeling) and a physiological change.
Excitation Transfer	Physiological arousal can affect a heightened emotional arousal in response to a different event.
James-Lange Theory	Physiological responses are interpreted into emotional states. A natural physiological response causes one to experience an emotion.
Facial Feedback Hypothesis	Facial sensations send messages to the brain to fire up an emotional response.
Cannon-Bard Theory	These two argued against the James-Lange theory stating that increased heart rate and blood flow can lead to anger or joy so how can these things dictate the body’s emotions.
Joseph LeDoux	Feelings are instigated by primitive sub-cortical brain mechanisms.
Schachter-Singer	Emotion is created by the body’s attempt to make sense of a state of activation.
Comparison Question Test	Most common form of polygraph (lie detector) test.

Chapter 10 – Child Development

Developmental psychology	Study of the lifelong, age-related, processes of change in the physical, cognitive, moral, emotional, and social aspects of functioning
Continuous v. Discontinuous	Either maturation occurs all the time, grows (continuous), or comes in spurts and stages (discontinuous).
Psychoanalytic	Freud says that most development takes place before the age of 6
Eric Erikson	Builds upon psychoanalytic approach (see chapter 11)
Behaviorism	Clark Hull with drive-reduction theories, how people are motivated by biological needs. Skinner with how one’s unique experiences shapes the individual later in life.
Cognitive	Jean Piaget said that biological factors are important; development is regulated by those factors. Information-processing theories.
Ecological systems theory	Led by Urie Bronfenbrenner, shows that children develop inside a system of complex human relationships in immediate relationships, such as family, and larger ones, like one’s country.
Cross sectional approach	Studies individuals of many different ages at once.
Longitudinal approach	Studies individuals at differing points in their own development.
Prenatal	Development before birth
Neonatal	Development during the first month after birth.
Zygote	Fertilized egg. Within 10 hours, divides into 4 cells and floats down the fallopian tube.
Embryo	Organism within mother from implantation until the 49 th day.
Fetus	Organism’s title from the 8 th week until birth.
Teratogens	Substances that produce harmful effects upon a fetus. (cause birth defects)
Infancy	From birth to about 18 months, when the child begins to be able to speak words.
Primary reflexes	Innate responses to stimuli. For example, a newborn will clutch a finger if it touches the baby’s palm.
Babinski reflex	Fanning out of the toes in response to a touch to the foot’s sole.
Moro reflex	Arms and legs go out; arms come back in, crying in response to a loud noise.
Rooting reflex	Turning the head towards a light touch to the lips or cheek.
Grasping reflex	Holding objects that touch the infant’s palm.
Robert Fantz	Fantz designed a viewing box in which he could observe an infant’s responses to stimuli and record them.
Theory of mind	Understanding of mental states like feelings, desires, beliefs, and intentions and how they affect human behavior. Does not occur before 3 years.

Morality	System of learned attitudes about social practices, institutions, and behavior to determine whether behavior is right or not.
Moral relativity	Allows an organism to see whether situational factors warrant just punishment.
Kohlberg	Agreed with Piaget, 3 levels of morality, each divided into 2 sections.
Preconventional morality	Birth to 6 or 7. Decisions on morality based on likelihood of punishment, egocentric.
Conventional morality	7 – 11 or 12 years. Internalized society rules, conformation in struggle to avoid disapproval.
Post conventional morality	Ability to see complexity of an ethical dilemma.
Carol Gillian	Disagreed with Kohlberg, showing that people consider caring, relationships, and connections with others in addition to justice when contemplating morality.
Attachment	Strong emotional tie one feels toward special people in life
Harry Harlow	Studied attachment in rhesus monkeys and it was really sad. Monkeys would grow attached to terry cloth, allowing them to survive. Monkeys grew up unable to function with monkeys that were normally raised.
Bonding	Process that results in emotional attachment
Klaus & Kennell	Showed that mothers make special attachments to the child, and the child, the mother in the same situation.
Separation anxiety	By about 7 or 8 months of age, an infant will become so attached to a caregiver, normally the mother, that when they fear removal, the child becomes clingy and vigilant.
Strange situation technique	1 or 2 year olds are observed with parents, then separated quickly, and then brought together again. Showed about 60% of babies to be secure, or grow anxious, but may be comforted. 20% are avoidant, and are neither distressed or comfort by the separation or reuniting. 15% are resistant, or will grow angry when separated, and then display mixed when reunited. 5% are disoriented, or are confused and may show many behaviors.
Temperament	The early apparent and long lasting differences in disposition as well as in intensity and quality of emotional reactions.
Thomas & Chess	New York Longitudinal Study. Four categories of temperament among children. 40% easy, 10% difficult, 15% slow-to-warm-up, and 35% unique.
Psychosocial development	See Erikson. Each stage represents changes in attitudes, and skills as a member of a society.
Eric Erikson	4 Psychosocial stages of development. Stage 1 (birth – 12-18 months) basic trust v. basic mistrust. An infant's needs concern learning that the world is trustworthy and predictable. Stage 2 (18 – 3 years) autonomy v. shame and doubt. Inability to control things causes fear, shame, and doubt. Stage 3 (3 – 6) initiative v. guilt. Child becomes more assertive and take more initiative, but will feel guiltier when disciplined. Stage 4 (6 – 12) industry v. inferiority. Child will learn new things or feel dumb and inferior.

Chapter 11 – Adolescence and Adulthood

Adolescence	Period from puberty to adulthood.
Puberty	The end of childhood and the start of the maturation of the reproductive system. Sex hormones begin to be produced.
Primary Sex Characteristics	Characteristics present at birth which dictate one's gender. These are body parts which are integral to reproduction.
Secondary Sex Characteristics	Characteristics which help differentiate between genders but are not part of reproduction. (I.e. facial hair, breasts, etc.)
Imaginary Audience	Feeling teenagers often experience where we feel that we are always being watched, always in the spotlight, always on stage.
Personal Fable	Belief that one is invulnerable and that they are unique and special.
Gender Identity	Knowing one's gender. This is usually developed by the age of three.
Gender Schema Theory	This theory holds that children along with adolescents use gender stereotypes to help interpret the world.
Gender Roles	Behaviors which help define one's gender.
Gender Role	Societal views on how each gender acts and is characterized.

<i>Stereotypes</i>	
<i>Androgynous</i>	Having both stereotypical female/male characteristics.
<i>Erik Erikson</i>	Stage 5 – Identity vs. Role Confusion: (Adolescence) This is where a teen develops their own sense of identity defining their occupation, sexual behavior and religion. Stage 6 – Intimacy vs. Isolation: (Young Adult) Without relationships the young adult will feel isolated. Stage 7 – Generativity vs. Stagnation: (Middle Adulthood) This deals with the feeling that you must help contribute and take care of the next generation. Stage 8 – Ego Integrity vs. Despair: (Late Adulthood) Acceptance of oneself.
<i>Daniel Levinson</i>	Adolescence (11-17) – time when we are vulnerable and immature road to adulthood. Early Adulthood (18-45) where adults slowly begin to become independent and go from caring for children to caring for the elderly (this generally ends around the midlife crisis). Middle Adulthood (45-65) – This is where we often peak intellectually. Late Adulthood (65+) – this is when we begin to relax.
<i>Launch into Adulthood Era (Women)</i>	This was a Mercer, Nichols and Doyle theory. (16-25). This is when women begin to break from their families to pursue families of their own or careers.
<i>Leveling Era (Women)</i>	This was a Mercer, Nichols and Doyle theory. (26-30). This is when women change the way things have been going. Marriage and divorce often occur during this time.
<i>Liberation Era (Women)</i>	This was a Mercer, Nichols and Doyle theory. (36-40). Women expand on passions and pursue new careers or attempt to advance in their current ones.
<i>Regeneration/Redirection Era</i>	This was a Mercer, Nichols and Doyle theory. (61-65). This is when women adjust for an increasingly lax lifestyle in preparation for retirement.
<i>Creativity/Destructiveness Era</i>	This was a Mercer, Nichols and Doyle theory. (65+). This involves a surge of creativity or depression and this time is when women are forced to adapt to changing environments and the loss of loved ones.
<i>Osteoporosis</i>	Decrease in bone integrity.
<i>Menopause</i>	This is when a change in female hormones leads to an end to menstruation.
<i>Wear-and-tear theory</i>	The human body naturally wears out from use much like a machine.
<i>Homeostatic Theory</i>	The ability to deal with stress and other internal variations decreases as one ages.
<i>Primary Aging</i>	Unstoppable natural aging.
<i>Secondary Aging</i>	Aging caused by external/environmental factors like disease.
<i>Elder Statesman</i>	This term was coined to describe an elderly person held to be experienced, and wise (perhaps conservative too).
<i>Old Statesman</i>	This is a term used to describe a person believed to be old and decrepit.
<i>Dementia</i>	An increasing deterioration of one's mental and cognitive abilities.
<i>Alzheimer's Disease</i>	A progressive disorder which causes the brain to deteriorate and is the most common cause of degenerative dementia.
<i>Multiple Infract Dementia</i>	This degeneration is generally caused by two or more strokes.
<i>Nuerofibrillary Tangles</i>	Tangled fibers in the brain which may cause Alzheimer's.
<i>Terminal Drop</i>	This is a speedy decline in one's health within their last year of life.
<i>Thanatology</i>	Study of the psychological and medical aspects of death and dying.
<i>Kubler-Ross's Stage Theory</i>	This theory discusses the five stages one who is aware that they are terminally ill will pass through. Denial, Anger, Bargaining (with God, Doctors, or themselves), Depression, and Acceptance.

Chapter 12 – Personality and its Assessment

<i>Psychic Determinism</i>	All thoughts and behaviors are pre-determined based on events from one's past.
<i>Unconscious motivation</i>	Psychoanalytic theory which states that all actions are motivated by unconscious desires.
<i>Libido</i>	Freud's idea of the libido is defined as that which drives us to acquire immediate gratification

	(usually sexually).
Conscious	This is Freud's surface level of awareness. One is aware of their actions and thoughts on this – the conscious – level.
Preconscious	This is Freud's sub-surface level of awareness, where the individual is not entirely aware of these thoughts and actions but by focusing he or she can control them.
Unconscious	Actions and thoughts on this Freudian level of awareness are not within the individual's normal awareness.
Id	According to Freud, the id is the source of instinct and works mainly on gain instant gratification to desires.
Ego	Freud believed this is the part of the mind that tried to execute the desires of the id realistically.
Superego	This is where Freud believed our moral ideals are stored.
Oral Stage	Freud's first stage of development. In this stage the focus of where one receives pleasure is through the mouth. (Birth – 2)
Anal Stage	This, Freud's second developmental stage, is when we learn to control our gratification (potty training) and we begin to learn to follow the rules of society. (2-3)
Phallic Stage	Freud's third stage of development, the phallic stage, is explained as the period during which children gain pleasure from the genitals. (4-7)
Oedipus Complex	Known as the Electra complex for girls, this occurs to children during the phallic stage who have feelings of rivalry with the parent of their sex and strong feelings of love for the parent of the other sex. Through development the child sheds the rivalry for feelings of camaraderie.
Latency Stage	During this stage, Freud felt there are no sexual urges. (7 – puberty)
Genital Stage	This is the last stage of Freud's developmental theory. During the early part of this stage (puberty) the past stages of sexual conflicts often resurface, but disappear with adolescence.
Fixation	When one becomes attached to something characteristic of a particular stage.
Defense Mechanism	This is an unconscious means of dealing with current problems by changing one's own perceptions.
Repression	A way of dealing with problems by transferring them to the unconscious.
Projection	When one blames others for his or her own faults.
Denial	Refusal to accept a problem as reality.
Reaction Formation	This is when we deal with a problem by doing the opposite. (e.g. an extremely arrogant person won't apply to Harvard because of unconscious fears of dealing with rejection)
Sublimation	This is when we deal with problems by redirecting our desires into something that is more acceptable. (e.g. if one wants to kill their spouse, they might work longer days instead)
Rationalization	This defense mechanism is when we try to explain our problems by looking at them from a different angle. (e.g. "the school didn't accept me because they must have gotten too many applicants like me")
Neo-Freudians	People who ascribe to Freud's philosophy with minor changes (usually focusing more on culture and interpersonal relationships than Freud did).
Collective Unconscious	The collective unconscious, according to Jung, is a communal unconscious of desires and ideas one inherits from their ancestors.
Archetypes	These are ideas and images that symbolize a great deal of things, which are found in the collective unconscious.
Fictional Finalism	Alfred Adler's term for the desire to accomplish unrealistic lifetime goals (e.g. "I want to win the Pulitzer by the time I hit 20.")
Self-actualization	This is the final level of humanistic development in which a person achieves peak psychological performance and self-acceptance.
Fulfillment	According to Rogers this is what people strive for and what makes them try to actualize their own personal goals.
Self	According to Rogers one's "self" is their own view of themselves, psychologically.
Ideal Self	The ideal self is, according to Rogers, what everyone hopes they would be.
Trait	A distinguishable, identifiable, and consistent quality which defines a person.
Types	Types are groups of people with similar traits who are loosely related to one another.
Cardinal Traits	Gordon Allport describes these as traits which determine one's way of life.
Central Traits	These traits are described by Allport as traits which can be seen in one's day-to-day life.
Secondary Traits	These traits are traits that occasionally occur, according to Allport. (e.g. one may show apprehensiveness when asked to speak in front of the class)

<i>Eysenck's Type Theory</i>	Hans Eysenck theorized that all traits could be placed into three different groups: emotional stability (how we show our emotions or in some cases don't); introversion or extroversion (how well we interact with others); and psychoticism (how one feels about others, i.e. sympathy vs. empathy)
<i>The Big Five Trait Theory</i>	This is a commonly held theory which breaks traits into a group of five major traits: extroversion vs. introversion; agreeableness vs. antagonism; conscientiousness vs. undirectedness; neuroticism vs. stability; and openness to experience.
<i>Locus of control</i>	Julian Rotter and Herbert Leftcourt dealt with this concept originally. Belief that events are either under one's personal (internal) control rather than external factors.
<i>Self-efficacy</i>	Bandura's concept that terms one's belief about whether he or she can accomplish a task successfully.
<i>B. F. Skinner</i>	Behavioral psychologist who believed that people learn by attempting to reduce social and biological needs.
<i>Cognitive Learning</i>	People respond to a varying environment and adjust behavior after thinking about the specific context they were in.
<i>Assessment</i>	Process of figuring out personal differences among people through testing, interviews, observations, and the such.
<i>16PF</i>	Test developed by Raymond Cattell that examines 16 "personal factors" such as sociability and self-control.
<i>CPI</i>	(California Psychological Inventory) used in a similar manner to the 16PF.
<i>MMPI-2</i>	Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory – Second Edition. 567 true/false question test that determines the subject's psychological profile.
<i>Projective testing</i>	Test that, when given a standard, ambiguous picture, the subject should give his or her own reaction and analysis.
<i>Rorschach inkblot test</i>	The subject is given 10 inkblots and asked to interpret them. A projective test.
<i>TAT</i>	(Thematic Apperception Test) More structured than the Rorschach test, showed specific pictures, and subjects were interviewed about them.
<i>Locus of control</i>	Julian Rotter and Herbert Leftcourt dealt with this concept originally. Belief that events are either under one's personal (internal) control rather than external factors.
<i>Self-efficacy</i>	Bandura's concept that terms one's belief about whether he or she can accomplish a task successfully.
<i>B. F. Skinner</i>	Behavioral psychologist who believed that people learn by attempting to reduce social and biological needs.
<i>Cognitive Learning</i>	People respond to a varying environment and adjust behavior after thinking about the specific context they were in.

Chapter 13 – Social Psychology

<i>Social Psychology</i>	Psychological perspective concerning how we are socially influenced by the beliefs of others.
<i>Attitudes</i>	A long-held belief based on one's previous experiences
<i>Cognitive Dimension</i>	Thoughts and beliefs, concerning one's attitude.
<i>Emotional Demension</i>	The analysis part of one's attitude (i.e. how they feel about something).
<i>Behavioral Dimension</i>	The actions which one takes because of their attitude.
<i>Conviction</i>	A strong attitude about a certain specific subject.
<i>Elaboration Likelihood Model</i>	This theory holds that there are two routes to attitude change: the 'central' and logical, thoughtful analysis of a topic and the 'peripheral' which is based on a highly emotional and partially superficial response to a topic.
<i>Cognitive Dissonance</i>	Discomfort caused by conflicting beliefs held by two people.
<i>Self-perception Theory</i>	This theory states that people form their current attitude and emotions by their behavior.
<i>Reactance</i>	A negative response created when one feels their own attitude is being threatened.

Social Cognition	Analysis of one's self, group, or world.
Impression Formation	When someone infers another person's attitude based on their behavior.
Nonverbal Communication	A form of communication. It is important to note, however, that a key to understanding this concept is that this communication is done nonverbally.
Body Language	Body language. (i.e. the middle finger, the peace sign, or the hand)
Attribution	When one guesses at someone else's motivation based on behavior.
Fundamental Attribution Error	This is when one is inclined to infer that the behavior of others is caused by internal rather than external causes.
Actor-Observer Effect	When one feels that the behavior of others is due to internal causes but their own is affected by external ones.
Self-serving Bias	This occurs when one attributes positive behavior to internal causes and negative behavior to external ones.
Tokenism	A false act of one who has prejudice against another. (I.e. the token black guy in a film).
Social Categorization	Categorizing people into cool and un-cool groups.
Social Facilitation	When one changes behavior because of a belief that they are in the presence of others.
Social Loafing	This is the decreased effort one provides when working in a group.
Group Polarization	Polarization caused by a discussion among the group.
Groupthink	The inclination to make sure everyone agrees on a decision rather than weigh the options.
Deindividuation	When one stops displaying distinctive personality traits in groups.
Prosocial Behavior	Behavior which may benefit others but generally does not benefit the subject themselves (and in fact may put the subject at risk).
Altruism	Behavior that benefits others (but not one's self).
Sociobiology	Behavior is chosen by natural selection according to this theory which states that prosocial traits are passed on genetically.
Equity Theory	This theory states that we try to keep interpersonal relationships in which contributions to the relationship are equal.

Chapter 15 – Psychological Disorders

Medical-Biological Model	In abnormal psychology this is the model in which abnormal patients are treated as if the abnormality is an illness and not a trait.
Psychodynamic Model	This abnormal psychological model asserts that abnormal behavior is caused by subconscious anxiety.
Humanistic Model	This theory in abnormal psychology states that leading an unusual lifestyle disrupts one's normal psychology.
Behavioral Model	This theory in abnormal psychology states that a failure in learning (or an inability to learn correctly) causes abnormal behavior.
Cognitive Model	This theory in abnormal psychology states that we convince ourselves that our abnormal behavior is the behavior that we should use.
Sociocultural Model	This theory in abnormal psychology states that because of "context" we form our abnormal behavior.
Legal Model	This theory in abnormal psychology states that abnormal behavior is defined only in terms of guilt, innocence and sanity (this model is used in law).
Interactionist Model	This theory in abnormal psychology states that all the previous models of abnormal behavior account for only parts of abnormal behavior and on the whole it is caused by a convergence of these models.
Anxiety	Fear or apprehension that leads to physiological arousal.
Generalized Anxiety Disorder	Constant anxiety for at least six months with excessive apprehension, muscle tension or affects on concentration.

<i>Free-floating anxiety</i>	Anxiety that is persistent but has no specific cause.
<i>Phobic Disorders</i>	Anxiety disorders which are defined by an excessive fear of an object or situation.
<i>Agoraphobia</i>	Fear of being alone where escape might be hard or embarrassing.
<i>Social Phobia</i>	Anxiety disorder where one is afraid of a situation which may be embarrassing.
<i>Specific Phobia</i>	Anxiety disorder where the fear is caused by an object.
<i>Somatoform Disorders</i>	A disorder in which one experiences physical effects but there are no physical causes.
<i>Somatization disorder</i>	A somatoform disorder in which one feels physical pains for several years while medical attention has been ineffective.
<i>Conversion Disorder</i>	Somatoform disorder where one loses a certain physical functionality for no known physiological reason.
<i>Hypochondrias</i>	Somatoform disorder in which one worries about their health and disease and is anxious about disease.
<i>Dissociative Disorders</i>	Sudden and temporary change in consciousness, identity, sensory/motor behavior, or memory.
<i>Dissociative Amnesia</i>	A dissociative disorder in which one cannot recall personal information usually trauma or stress-induced.
<i>Dissociative Identity Disorder (DID)</i>	Also known as multiple personality disorder this is a dissociative disorder where one has multiple personalities each of which controls behavior at certain times.
<i>Personality Disorders</i>	Psychological disorder where a person shows behaviors looked down upon by society for a prolonged period and the behavior inhibits social or occupational stability.
<i>Paranoid Personality Disorder</i>	These people are overly sensitive to criticism and are suspecting of everyone. They fear losing control. Rarely can people afflicted by this disorder form normal relationships.
<i>Borderline Personality Disorder</i>	People afflicted by this disorder often have feelings of low self-image, suicidal tendencies, emptiness, and unnecessary anger. These individuals often sabotage their own efforts just before achieving an objective.
<i>Histrionic Personality Disorder</i>	People who are stricken by this disorder often display overly dramatic behavior and often exaggerate situations in their own lives. In need of constant praise these people often have turbulent relationships.
<i>Narcissistic Personality Disorder</i>	Those affected by this disorder often are overly arrogant, and constantly require the spotlight. These people respond very poorly to criticisms and care little for others.
<i>Antisocial Personality Disorder</i>	This personality disorder is characterized by excessive arrogance. Also those with this disorder have little guilt and little respect for others' rights. They also have trouble with empathetic understanding.
<i>Dependent Personality Disorder</i>	People with this disorder tend to submit to the will of others and become overly attached in relationships. These people try too hard to appear constantly happy.
<i>Child Abuse</i>	Any type of abuse (physical or emotional) performed on a child.
<i>Bipolar Disorders</i>	This disorder is characterized by one who displays two different (and completely opposite) moods: mania (excited-ness/happiness) and depression.
<i>Depressive Disorders</i>	These are mood disorders where people show a consistent state of depression.
<i>Major Depressive Disorder</i>	Same as the depressive disorder but more severe. A loss of appetite, energy and self-worth may occur.
<i>Delusions</i>	A belief which defies all logic.
<i>Aaron Beck</i>	Psychologist who theorized that those who are depressed just intensify existing feelings of sadness.
<i>Learned Helplessness</i>	This is the theory that we learn to be unresponsive or give up by being penalized for things that we feel are out of our control.
<i>Vulnerability</i>	When a person is unable to deal with the demands of their daily lives.

<i>Schizophrenia</i>	This is defined as a group of psychological disorders. It occurs when one shows a lack of realistic thinking, and lessened social/intellectual functioning.
<i>Psychotic</i>	Failure to act normally on a day-to-day basis due to a poor sense of reality.
<i>Disorganized Schizophrenia</i>	This is a schizophrenia defined by incoherence, a lack of organization in one's behavior, and inappropriateness.
<i>Paranoid Schizophrenia</i>	Illogical fear of others accompanied by extreme paranoia and delusions/hallucinations.
<i>Catatonic Schizophrenia</i>	This is characterized by either an extremely excited, violent, or neutral (absolutely neutral – stupor) behavior.
<i>Residual Schizophrenia</i>	This is characterized by illogical thinking and erratic behavior and comes from one who often seems to be in touch with reality.
<i>Undifferentiated Schizophrenia</i>	This schizophrenia is defined by one who meets more than one, or not quite one of the other four types.
<i>Concordance rate</i>	The relationship between the likeliness that two individuals or groups will share a condition or disorder.
<i>Double Bind</i>	When a person is given two different messages.

Chapter 16 – Therapy

<i>Psychotherapy</i>	Treatment of emotion or behavioral problems through psychology
<i>Placebo effect</i>	Nonspecific improvement as a result of expectation alone
<i>Psychoanalysis</i>	Developed by Freud. Lengthy process that interprets the unconscious mind thought dream analysis, free association
<i>Insight therapy</i>	Approach that attempts to interpret how unconscious motivations are creating abnormal behavior
<i>Resistance</i>	Unwillingness to cooperate with the therapist.
<i>Transference</i>	The patient places his or her emotional focus towards another upon the therapist
<i>Working through</i>	Process between the patient and therapist of interpretation, resistance, and transference (in that order).
<i>Client-centered therapy</i>	Pioneered by Rogers, this is a humanistic approach that focuses on the ways people evaluate themselves by giving them an unstructured, unconditional environment.
<i>Nondirective therapy</i>	Form of therapy in where the client decides the direction of the therapy and the psychologist remains almost passive.
<i>Gestalt therapy</i>	Insight therapy that stresses one's awareness of current feelings and emotions.
<i>Behavior therapy</i>	Based upon learning the principals that govern human behavior and changing overt behaviors.
<i>Symptom substitution</i>	The appearance of a new symptom, or overt behavior, which replaces another as a result of therapy.
<i>Token economy</i>	Operant conditioning process in which people who show good behavior get tokens that may be exchanged for rewards.
<i>Counter conditioning</i>	Process by which a person creates a new adaptive response to a familiar stimulus.
<i>Systematic desensitization</i>	3 part counter conditioning method that relaxes people as they confront anxiety producing stimuli.
<i>Aversive counter conditioning</i>	The pairing of a noxious stimulus with a previously enjoyable one.
<i>Rational-emotive therapy</i>	Cognitive behavior therapy that stresses the importance of logical thought.