| French philosopher René Descartes | Known to have believed in more than the souls or mind of the person, and interested in the function of the human body as an integral part of psychology. |
|--------------------------------------|---|
| Rene DesCartes | Suggested that the human mind operates according to laws that are knowable, but are different from those that affect the body. |
| DesCartes' interactive dualism. | Mind and body are different, but they interact with each other. |
| dualism | Belief in the understanding of the inner workings of the mind, and how it works with the body. |
| John Locke | Englishman who brought philosophy to the threshold of psychology. |
| John Locke's Enlightenment | Belief in the middle class and its right to freedom of conscience and right to property, in his faith in science, and in his confidence in the goodness of humanity. |
| Locke's British Empiricism | Focused on the content of the mind and claimed that it is acquired through experience. |
| Wilhelm Wundt | German physiologist and psychologist who founded the first laboratory for experimental psychology and stressed the use of scientific methods in psychology, particularly through the use of introspection. |
| structuralism | Theory that uses culturally interconnected signs to reconstruct systems of relationships rather than studying isolated, material things in themselves. |
| Englishman Edward Titchener | Responsible for the refinement of introspectionto look within. |

| American philosopher William James | First opened the formal study of psychology within the classroom at Harvard. |
|---|---|
| functionalism or functional psychology | New type of psychology that was largely American. It was well-established by the 1920's, and was most popular at the University of Chicago. |
| functionalism theory | Theory that stressed the importance of interdependence among all behavior patterns and institutions within a social system to its long-term survival. |
| structuralism | Involves the use of a technique called introspection. |
| introspection | Process of examining what is happening in one's mind and what one is thinking and feeling. |
| German psychologist Max Wertheimer | Developed Gestalt psychology, a departure from the general intellectual climate, which emphasized a scientific approach characterized by a detachment from basic human concerns. |
| Gestalt school of psychology | Interprets phenomena as organized wholes rather than as aggregates of distinct parts, maintaining that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. |
| behaviorism | School of psychology which seeks to explain animal and human behavior entirely in terms of observable and measurable responses to environmental stimuli. |
| American psychologist John B. Watson | Introduced behaviorism and insisted that behavior is a physiological reaction to environmental stimuli rejected the exploration of mental processes as unscientific. |
| B.F. Skinner | Epitomized the behaviorist approach more than any other psychologist. |

| humanism | Type of psychology that was in many ways a reaction to behaviorism. |
|---|---|
| humanism leader Carl Rogers | Humanistic psychologist believed that the individual or self should be the central concern of psychology argued to get the "person" back into psychology. |
| homeostasis | Tendency of the human body to maintain internal equilibrium, or balance, by adjusting its physiological processes. |
| cognitive psychology | School of psychology that examines internal mental processes such as problem solving, memory, and languagea shift away from behaviorism. |
| Sir Francis Galton, first cousin of Charles Darwin | Intrigued by the theory of evolution and by the possibilities of improving the human race. He reasoned that before one could improve the human condition, one first needed to measure and catalog the range of human abilities and aptitudes as they exist at the moment. |
| French psychologist Alfred Binet | Known for his research and innovation in testing human intelligence. |
| Binet and Théodore Simon | Devised a series of tests that, with revisions, came into wide use in schools, industries, and the army. |
| psychoanalysis | Psychological approach given by Sigmund Freud to a system of interpretation and therapeutic treatment of psychological disorders. |
| Simund Freud with French neurologist J.M. Charcot | Convinced that hysteria was caused not by organic symptoms in the nervous system but by emotional disturbance. |
| sensory adaptation | Occurs when you are exposed to a stimulus that doesn't change over a period of timewhen someone in the same room has a strong scent of perfume, you will smell it strongly at first, but eventually you will not be able to smell the perfume. |

| Austrian psychiatrist Sigmund Freud | Father and founder of psychoanalysis. |
|---|---|
| developmental psychology | Concerned with the physical and psychological development of the individual from conception through death. |
| developmental psychologist | Search for biological and environmental influences on patterns of growth and development. |
| psychometrics | Development of psychological tests and the statistical interpretation of datameasure intelligence and ability. |
| experimental psychology such as underlying sensation and perception, learning and memory, motivation and emotion. | Branch of psychology that uses experimental methods to discover principles of behavior. |
| observational methods in psychology | Designed primarily to help us discover relationships between responses. |
| R-R relationships | Do not explain cause and effect but such relationships can provide predictions about repetitive patterns in mood and behavior. |
| mnemonic device | A trick one uses to help memorize somethingacronyms, rhymes, or any other trick you use to remember something. |
| methodological approach | Also called naturalistic observation involves carefully watching behaviors without any outside response or influence by the observer. |
| observer bias | Occurs when an observer allows their own motives and expectations to interfere with the objectivity of their observations. |

| experimental methods | Involve a set of operations used to investigate relationships between manipulated events and measured events while other events are controlled. |
|---|---|
| independent variables | Conditions that the experimenter manipulates. |
| extraneous variables | Usually referred to as "control variables" by psychologists. |
| clinical psychology | Includes those psychologists whose concern is with the psychological well-being of the individual. |
| correlational method in psychology | Utilized as a statistical procedure that can tell us if observations are related to each other. |
| Psychology has a unique problem in that ethical issues often involve the accumulation of knowledge. | In most sciences, ethical concerns center on the application of knowledge. |
| psychology | Scientific study of behavior and mental processes. |
| psychologists | Study processes of sense perception, thinking, learning, cognition, emotions and motivations, personality, abnormal behavior, interactions between individuals, and interactions with the environment. |
| cognition | Sensing, perceiving, knowing, judging, and problem- solving skills involved in the processing of information about the world in which we live thoughts, ideas, and beliefs. |
| neurons | Individual nerve cells and are considered the building blocks of the nervous system. |

| cell body | One structure that all neurons have and contain the nucleus of the cell which contains the genetic info that keeps the cell functioning. |
|--|--|
| dendrites | Number of tentacle-like structures extending away from the cell body. |
| thyroid gland | Main function is regulating the body's metabolism. |
| thyroid hormones | Regulate body temperature, metabolic rate, reproduction, growth, blood cell production, and have a powerful effect on body weight. |
| myelin | White, fatty substance that is found on about half the neurons in an adult's nervous system. |
| activated receptor cells | Impulses are relayed by sensory neurons toward the brain or spinal cord. |
| motor neurons | Neurons that carry impulses away from the brain or spinal cord toward our muscles and glands. |
| interneurons | Nerve cells that transmit impulses from one part of the brain or spinal cord to another. |
| transmit neural impulses from one place in the nervous system to another | The function of a neuron. |
| development of new drug treatments psychoactive drugs and other therapies | Played a big role in reducing the number of patients who have to be placed in institutions for the mentally ill. |

| neural threshold | The minimum level of stimulation required to get a neuron to fire. |
|--|--|
| Freud's Eros | Represents the life instinct sourcing from the libido. |
| Freud's Thanatos | Represents the death instinct. |
| synapse | Transmission from neuron to neuron. |
| vesicles | Large number of terminals that contain small packets of chemical molecules at the very end of the axon. |
| neurotransmitters | Chemicals released by vesicles when a neural impulse reaches the axon. |
| principle of proximity | Predicts that we will perceive objects that are close together as a group. |
| system of nerves | The most important, complex, and the most intimately involved system in the control of our behaviors and mental processes. |
| peripheral nervous system | Includes all neurons outside of the spinal cord and brain. |
| somatic nervous system (SNS) autonomic nervous system (ANS) | The peripheral nervous system can be subdivided into two systems. |

| somatic | Nervous system with some voluntary control. |
|---|---|
| autonomic | Nervous system that serves musclesbladder, diaphragm, etc. |
| Gestalt's totality of a perception | The understanding of conscious experience and doesn't rely on breaking the experience into componentsfocuses on the sum of the parts. |
| Max Wertheimer | A big name associated with Gestalt psychology. |
| somaticalso known as the sensory- somatic nervous system | Nervous system includes neurons outside the CNS that serve the skeletal muscles and that pick up impulses from the major receptorsthe eyes, ears. |
| sympathetic division parasympathetic division | Autonomic Nervous System (ANS) is made up of two partswork in opposition to each other. |
| sympathetic becomes active | When a person is in a state of emotional excitement. |
| parasympathetic is activated | When the body is relaxed and quiet. |
| galvanic skin response (GSR) | Used to measure of a subject's level of anxiety. |
| endocrine system | Interconnected network of glands that affect behavior through the secretion of hormones into the bloodstream. |

| endocrine system's glands and hormones | Controlled by both the brain and the autonomic nervous system. |
|---|---|
| hormones | Variety of chemical compounds, which are secreted by the endocrine glands, and carried through the bloodstream. |
| spinal cord | Massive collection of neurons within the spine that looks rather like a section of rope or a thick cord. |
| spinal cord | Surrounded and protected by the hard bone and cartilage of the vertebrae. |
| rapidly transmit neural impulses to the brain spinal reflexesvery simple automatic behaviors that occur without the conscious voluntary actions of the brain | Spinal cord's two major functions. |
| pituitary gland | The most important of our |
| | endocrine glands. |
| pituitary gland | Often referred to as the master gland, reflecting the fact that it directly controls the activity of many other glands in the system. |
| pituitary gland primary reinforcer | Often referred to as the master gland, reflecting the fact that it directly controls the |
| | Often referred to as the master gland, reflecting the fact that it directly controls the activity of many other glands in the system. A substance or situation that is universally |

| thyroxin | Regulates the pace of the body's functioning- the rate at which oxygen is used and the rate of body function and growth. |
|---|--|
| adrenal glands | Located on the kidneys and secrete a variety of hormones into the bloodstream. |
| adrenalin | Hormone is very useful in times of stress or threat, and its effects are felt throughout the body. |
| development of the electrodes for stimulating and/or recording the activity of individual cells | One of the most significant advances in technology that has aided the study of the brain. |
| brain spinal cord | Two components of the central nervous system. |
| medulla nuclei | The brain stem is made of two important structures. |
| bystander intervention | You are more likely to go to someone's aid if that person is alone. |
| medulla | The very lowest structure in the brain stem. |
| medulla | Acts like the spinal cord in that its major functions involve involuntary reflexes. |
| nuclei | Collections of neural cell bodies that control such functions as reflexive eye and tongue movements. |

| psychophysics | Study of the relationships between the physical attributes of stimuli and the psychological experiences that they produceoldest subfield in psychology. |
|--|---|
| psychophysics | Assess sensitivity of one's senses and on a theoretical level provides a means relating to the physical outside world to that of the inner psychological world. |
| absolute threshold | Physical intensity of a stimulus that a subject reports detecting 50 percent of the time, and the intensities above the threshold are detected more than 50 percent of the time. |
| signal detection theory | Stimulus detection involving a decision- making process of separating a signal from background noise. |
| Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs | Needs towards the bottom of the hierarchy must be fulfilled before needs towards the top become a motivator. |
| brightness | The psychological experience of intensity of light. |
| difference in wave amplitude | The difference between a dim light and a bright light. |
| monochromatic | Pure light is made up of light waves of all one length or hue. |
| olfaction | Sense of smell. |
| gustation | Sense of taste. |

| sweet, salt, sour, and bitterall other flavors are odors produced as food is crushed by the teeth. | Four basic sensations of taste. |
|---|--|
| vestibular system | Designed to detect the position and motion (acceleration) of the head in spacesensory system we are hardly aware of. |
| maximum perceptual development | Takes place between the ages of three and a half and seven years of age. |
| general adaptation syndrome | Consists of a series of reactions a person's body progresses through in response to stress. |
| alarm reaction resistance finally exhaustion | Three stages of general adaptation syndrome. |
| Piaget's Theory of Cognitive Development | The approach children take to organizing the world into an interrelated network of schemas by which they can categorize and identify people and things for recognition and further understandingdevelopment of schemas. |
| schemas | Organized mental representations of the world. |
| accommodation | Involves changing and revising existing schemas in the face of new experiences or new information. |
| sensorimotor stage preoperational stage concrete operations stage formal operations stage | Piaget's four stages of cognitive development. |
| sensorimotor stage Causality is the relationship between an event (the cause) and a second event (the effect), where the second event is understood as a consequence of the first. | Children discover by sensing and by doingincludes causality. |

| object permanence | Children have established that although physical objects may not be present, they still exist, and will at times await their reappearance. |
|----------------------------|--|
| preoperational stage | A time where the child's thinking is self-centered. |
| concrete operational stage | Children begin to develop many concepts and show that they can manipulate those conceptsrule-governed behavior begins. |
| behaviorism | Emerged as a reaction against functionalism and states that psychology should focus only on observable behavior. |
| behaviorists | Focus on objective observable behavior and reject internal events such as states of mind, feelings, etc. |
| conservation | Involves the cognitive awareness that changing the form or the appearance of something does not necessarily change what it is. |
| formal operations | The logical manipulation of abstract, symbolic concepts does not appear until the last of Piaget's stages. |
| light | First enters the eye through the cornea. |
| pupil | Then light travels through this opening in the iris. |
| iris | Part of the eye which is pigmented or colored. |

| visual cliff experiment | Showed that infants are capable of depth perception at an age as early as six months. |
|-------------------------|--|
| hearing or audition | The process by which we transduce air pressure waves into neural messages the brain interprets as meaningful sound. |
| wave amplitude | Depicts intensity or the force with which air strikes the ear. |
| loudness | Psychological characteristic which is measured by people not instrumentsdecibel scale reflects perceived measurement in humans. |
| wave frequency | Measure of the number of times a wave repeats itself within a given period of time, usually one second. |
| consciousness | Defined as the awareness, or perception, of the environment and of one's own mental processesa state of mind, as well as a state of awareness. |
| sleep | Alters the consciousness of people by gradually reducing alertness, awareness, and perception of events occurring around us. |
| insomnia | The chronic inability to sleep. |
| kinesthetic sense | Allows us to locate parts of our bodies without having to see them |
| sleep spindles | Brief but high amplitude bursts of electrical energy/activity that occur with regularityoccurs when a person is falling asleep. |

| rapid eye movement (REM) | Discovered in the early 1950's by Nathaniel Kleitman and Eugene Aserinsky. |
|---|---|
| hypnosis | Altered state of consciousness that one enters voluntarilyunquestioning acceptance of the distortion of reality. |
| meditation | Self-induced state of altered consciousness characterized by an extreme focusing of attention and relaxation. |
| extremely difficult to test in the laboratory making it a theory that no one can prove or disprove | A major criticism of Freud's psychoanalytic perspective. |
| Freud's psychoanalysis | Emphasizes the existence and influence of the unconscious mind. |
| psychoactive drugs | Chemicals that alter the consciousness of a person by inducing changes in perception, mood, and/or behavior. |
| highly focused attention suggestibility/willingness to do what the hypnotist tells him/her to do willingness to accept illogical situations | Three basic characteristics of hypnosis. |
| chemical stimulants | Stimulate/activate the nervous system and known to produce a heightened sense of arousal, an increase in activity, and the elevation of one's mood. |
| depressants | Reduce one's awareness of external stimuli, slow normal bodily functions, and decrease the level of overt behavior. |
| hallucinogens | Have the most predictable effects on consciousnessformation of visual hallucinations. |

| synesthesia | Stimulus of one modality is perceived in a different modality, a crossing-over of sensory processingan individual may hear colored lights. |
|---|--|
| locus of control | Personality construct referring to an individual's perception of events as determined internally by his/her own behavior vs. fate, luck, or external circumstances. |
| marijuana | Consciousness-altering drug that often acts as a depressant but in high doses can act as a hallucinogen. |
| sleep deprivation | Can result in altered states of consciousness, including hallucinations, mood alterations, and bodily changes. |
| stimulant drugs | Cocaine, caffeine, nicotine, and amphetamineslegal for consumer consumption. |
| learning | Demonstrated by a relatively permanent change in behavior that occurs as the result of practice or experience. |
| conditioning and learning | Synonymous terms and can be used interchangeably. |
| Ivan Pavlov | Used his physiologist skills to try to understand the basic processes of digestionhe discovered a basic principle of conditioning known as a reflex. |
| reflex | Unlearned, automatic response that occurs in the presence of specific stimuli. |
| In Pavlov's experiment, the dog's reflexsalivating, became a conditioned response to the bell. Salivating is an unconditioned response to food, but a conditioned response to the sound of a bell. | Pavlov's study is now known as classical conditioning. |

| unconditioned stimulus | Stimulus that produces a response, even in the absence of conditioning. |
|---|--|
| conditioned stimulustechnically referred to as habituation | Neutral stimulus and initially produces a minimal response or a response of no particular interest. |
| conditioned response | Recurring result of action that indicates a behavior is learned or conditioned. |
| operant (Skinner) | Behavior that an organism may use to operate on its environmentcontrolled by their consequences. |
| aversion therapy | Performed by linking behavior with immediate discomfort. |
| shaping | Reinforcing successive approximations of the response that one ultimately wants to condition. |
| Harry Harlow | Learning set was developed with the study of his monkeys which is a prepared, expected approach to solving problems. |
| latent learning | Hidden learning that is not demonstrated in performance until that performance is reinforced. |
| humanistic psychology | View behaviorism and psychoanalysis as excessively mechanistic in that they view behavior as primarily controlled by the environmentgreater importance is placed the individual's own will. |
| EC Tolman's cognitive map | Mental representation of the learning situation or physical environment. |

| Albert Bandura's social theory | Approach to learning is also cognitive in nature but he added a decidedly social aspect to the processwe learn from others. |
|---|--|
| punisher | Stimulus that decreases the rate or probability of a response that precedes it. |
| operant conditioning | Generalization occurs when a response reinforced in the presence of one stimulus also occurs in the presence of another similar stimulusresponds equally to both stimuli. |
| instinctive drift | Brelands' term to note that some behaviors are more difficult to condition than othersan organism will drift toward doing something that comes naturally. |
| For men, suicide is the eighth leading cause of death and more than four times the rate in women. | Men have a higher suicide completion rate than women. |
| positive reinforcer | Stimulus presented to an organism that increases the rate of a response that precedes itrewards. |
| negative reinforcer | Stimulus that increases the rate of response that precedes its removalexists to increase the rate of response to a certain stimuli |
| escape conditioning | Part of operant conditioning and demonstrates negative reinforcementnegative reinforcement is removed upon the correct response. |
| avoidance conditioning | Organism learns to avoid unpleasant and painful situations before it occurs. |
| avoidance conditioning | An organism learns to avoid unpleasant and painful situations before it occurs. |

| learned helplessness | Condition in which a subject does not attempt to escape from a painful or noxious situation after learning in a previous, similar situation that escape is not possible. |
|--|---|
| primary reinforcers | Stimuli (usually biologically or physically based) that increase the rate of a response with no previous experience requiredfood, water, and sex. |
| secondary reinforceralso called conditioned/learned reinforcers | Contains stimuli that increase the rate of a response because of their being associated with other reinforcersmoney, praise, attention, approval, success, affection and grades. |
| dominant or recessive | When determining traits in a new child (hair color or eye color), each parent contributes a gene for that trait. |
| continuous reinforcement schedule | Reinforcement schedule in which each and every response is followed by a reinforcer the reinforcer eventually loses effectiveness. |
| intermittent reinforcement schedules | Alternatives to reinforcing each and every responsereinforcing a desired behavior less frequently than each and every time it occurs. |
| discrimination | Process of differential reinforcement wherein one (positive) stimulus is reinforced while another (negative) stimulus is not. |
| memory | Cognitive ability to encode, store, and retrieve information. |
| encoding | Active process of putting information into memorygathering and sorting that memories are related. |
| storage | Process of holding the encoded information in the memory until the time of retrieval. |

| retrieval | The process of locating, removing, and using information stored in one's memoryallows a person to use past experiences to make new decisions. |
|---|---|
| levels of processing model of memory | A view that states that there is but one memory but that information can be processed within that memory at different degrees, levels, or depths. |
| sensory memory | Memory that holds large amounts of information registered at the senses for very brief periods of timeonly seconds. |
| iconic memory | Memories are stored in the sensory register which includes the visual system and the auditory system. |
| icon | The visual copy stored in the sensory store. |
| echoic memory | Sensory memory linked to auditory perceptionplays a key role in language processing. |
| short-term memory | Memory that has a limited capacity and typically a brief duration. |
| long-term memory | Storage of an abundance of memory, and is held for long periods of timealmost limitless in its capacity to hold information. |
| elaborative rehearsal | Mechanism for processing information into long-term memory that involves the meaningful manipulation of the information to be remembered. |
| procedural memory | Stored in the long-term memory, and is where associations/skilled patterns of responses are storedhow to ride a bike. |

| semantic memory | A more complex memory which is where vocabulary, simple concepts, and rules are storedinfo about ourselves, our world, and the way in which we live. |
|-------------------------------|--|
| compulsions | Repetitive behavior or mental activity that one feels compelled to do, even against one's willconstantly checking door locks. |
| obsessions | Involves unsolicited reoccurrence of disturbing thoughts. |
| obsessive-compulsive disorder | Obsessions and compulsions both fall under this disorder. |
| episodic memory | Stores our life events and experiences specific time-related memory and autobiographical. |
| metamemory | Long-term memory responsible for storing knowledge of how our own memory systems workdirects all long-term memory searches. |
| category clustering | The recall one experiences through the process of grouping words together into categories even if they are presented in a random orderdone through conceptual processes. |
| Karen Horney | Proposed that many adult characteristics are produced by attempts to deal with basic anxiety and is known for her Ten Neurotic Needs. |
| recall | A measure of retrieval in which an individual is provided with the fewest possible cues to aid retrievalquickly pulling info from a database. |
| recognition | Measure of retrieval in which an individual is required to identify material previously learned as being familiaraids in the association/comparison between old/new info. |

| relearning | Measure of memory in which one notes the improvement in performance when learning material for a second timeprior knowledge |
|--|---|
| concept | Mental event used to represent a category or class of events or objects. |
| psycholinguistics | Hybrid discipline of psychologists trained in psychology and linguisticsunderlying knowledge and abilities which people must have in order to use language and to learn language in childhood. |
| language | Large collection of arbitrary symbols that have significance for a community. |
| words | Symbols that make up language and are the expressions that relay information from one person to another. |
| naturalistic observation | Research approach in which people or animals are observed in their everyday behaviors. |
| phoneme | The smallest unit of sound in the spoken language and have no meaning. |
| one word two words telegraphic speech | Children learn language in three stages. |
| telegraphic speech | Combining of two or three words into simple sentences and begins at 18 to 24 months of age. |
| semantics | The study of the meaning of words and sentences. |

| morpheme | The smallest unit of meaning in a language and a word may contain more than one. |
|-----------------------------|--|
| syntax | Units larger than morphemes, such as phrases and sentences, that are isolated in a manner that reflects a hierarchical structuregrammatical sequences within the phrase. |
| pragmatics | The study of how context affects the meaning of linguistic eventsgoing beyond the literal meaning. |
| prototype | The best or most typical member of a category or concept and define the concept. |
| strategy in problem solving | Systematic plan for generating possible solutions that can be tested to see if they are correctprovide control. |
| algorithm | Problem solving strategy that guarantees that you will eventually arrive at a correct solution systematically exploring and evaluating all possible solutions. |
| heuristic strategies | Problem solving in nature, and allow for a hypothesis about a problem's solutions to be generated and tested in a time-saving and systematic way, but does not guarantee an acceptable solutiona rule of thumb. |
| brainstorming | One of the most popular techniques used to stimulate divergent thinking. |
| divergent thinking | Creation of many ideas or potential problem solutions from one idea |
| mental set | Tendency to perceive or respond to something in a predetermined or set way. |

| phenomenon of functional fixedness | Inability to discover new and appropriate uses in a new function because of experiences of using the same object in some other function-similar to mental set. |
|---|---|
| convergent thinking | Reduction or focusing of many different ideas into one possible problem solution. |
| initial state | The first component of any problem. |
| Carl Jung | Created a variation of psychoanalytic theory, called analytical psychologybroke away from Freud. |
| intelligence | Capacity to understand the world and the resourcefulness to cope with its challenges. Also defined as the ability to learn and generate new concepts on one's own and successfully implement or express those new ideas. |
| G-Score | Measure of one's overall, general intellectual abilitiescommonly thought of as "IQ". |
| X and Y chromosomesgenetically female results from receiving an X chromosome from each parent and male is determined by having one X chromosome and one Y chromosome | Chromosomes that determine a person's sex. |
| gonads | Sex glands (testes) in males. |
| ovaries | Sex glands in females. |
| androgen | Male sex hormones that are produced by the testes. |

| testosterone | Most important of the male sex hormones. |
|-------------------|--|
| estrogen | Female sex hormone produced by the ovaries. |
| menopause | As women age and go through a period of decreased estrogen. |
| progesterone | Most important sex hormone for women. |
| puberty | Stage of physical development at which one becomes capable of sexual reproduction. |
| arousal | Indicative of one's level of activation/excitement and will represent their motivational state. |
| neurotransmitters | Special chemicals that enable neurons to pass messages to one another. |
| instincts | Unlearned, complex patterns of behavior that occur in the presence of particular stimuli. |
| drive | State of tension resulting from a need that arouses and directs an organism's behavior response to a need or desire for something. |
| Abraham Maslow | Associated with the humanism movement in psychology and combined his concerns for the person with Hull's drive-reduction theoryproposed that human behavior does in fact respond to needs, yet not all are physiological needs. |

| physiological needs needs of safety love and belonging esteem self-actualization | Maslow's stage theory. |
|---|---|
| Stanley Schachter's two-factor theory | Emotions have two components: physical arousal and a cognitive label. He believed that emotions were physiologically similar and therefore required conscious interpretation. |
| incentives | External stimuli that an organism may be motivated to approach or avoidoften dictate future behavior. |
| homeostasis | State of balance among internal, physiological conditions. |
| Walter Cannon's homeostasis | First references to a need to maintain a balanced state and conncerned with our internal physiological reactions. |
| set point | Normal, optimum level of equilibrium or balance among physiological or psychological reactions. |
| cognitive dissonance | Motivating discomfort or tension caused by a lack of balance or consonance among one's cognitions person's attitudes, thoughts, or beliefs (cognitions) conflict. |
| opponent-process theory | Another approach to motivation that relies on the notion of balance and equilibriumone's emotional reactions to affect-arousing stimuli naturally produce opposite emotional reactions in order to maintain a balanced level of affect or emotion. |
| hypothalamus | Small brain structure involved in many drives, including thirst, hunger, sex, and temperature regulation. |
| internal physiological cues | Signals from the (inside) physiological aspect of an individual that indicate something is desired as a result of a physical need. |

| external psychological cues | Triggered when a person desires a thing that is not driven at a biological level and there is no physical need for such a desire, yet the person still craves the thing psychologically. |
|--|---|
| third year of life | Age a child has a unique personality. |
| intrinsic control | Internal, personal process that controls or motivates an individual's behavior. |
| external control | External, environmental process that exercises control over an individual's behavior or motivations influences a person's behavior by giving rewards and punishments. |
| emotion | Reaction involving subjective feelings, physiological response, cognitive interpretation, and behavioral expression. |
| epinephrine also known as adrenalin | Hormone produced by the adrenal glands that is involved in emotional activity, mostly affecting heart activity. |
| norepinephrine | Hormone that is secreted by the adrenal glands and is involved in emotional arousalreleased directly into the bloodstream. |
| adrenal glands | Located on the kidneys and are part of the Autonomic Nervous System (ANS)very involved in emotional reactions. |
| limbic system | Set of small structures located low in the brain and are involved in motivational and emotional stress associated with the emotional response to the threat of attack. |
| conflict | Source of stress in which some goals can be satisfied only at the expense of others. |

| anxiety | General feeling of tension or apprehension accompanied by a perceived threat to well- being. |
|------------------------|---|
| defense mechanisms | Techniques, beyond one's conscious control, employed to protect against the feelings of stress. |
| repression | Motivated forgetting that occurs unconsciouslyall memory of an event or experience is blocked from conscious awareness. |
| denial | Very basic mechanism of defense against stressa person simply refuses to acknowledge the realities of a stressful situation. |
| projection | Act of seeing in others those very characteristics and/or motives that cause stress for an individual allows an individual to see their own undesirable attitudes and behaviors in others. |
| regression | Return to earlier, childish levels of previously productive behaviors as an escape from stress. |
| emotional intelligence | Ability to recognize and manage emotions represents a type of behaviorrecognizing the emotions of others or empathy. |
| cross-sectional method | Most of the data gathered on age differences in IQ scoresIQ tests given at roughly the same time to a large number of subjects of different ages. |
| cross-sequential study | Subjects who were born at the same time but tested at different times are compared. |
| fluid intelligence | Provides the ability to relate to speed, adaptation, flexibility, and abstract reasoningincludes the sorts of skills that show the greatest decline with age. |

| crystallized intelligence | Provides the abilities that depend on acquired knowledge, accumulated experience, and general information to include the sorts of skills that remain quite constant or even increase throughout one's lifetime. |
|---------------------------|---|
| mentally gifted | Demonstrate outstanding ability or aptitude in a number of possible areas typically high performers on most tests. |
| mental retardation | Condition indicated by an IQ below 70 that began during the developmental period and is associated with impairment in adaptive functioning. |
| sublimation | According to the psychoanalytic theory, this is an adaptive defense mechanism that permits the psychological energy associated with unconscious desires and impulses to be translated into socially accepted activities. |
| down's syndrome | Condition of many symptoms including mental retardation, stunted physical growth, & Mongoloid- like features and caused by an extra 47th chromosome. |
| gender identity | Basic sense of self-awareness of one's own maleness or femaleness. |
| gender roles | Attitudes and expectations about how a person should act, think, and/or feel solely on the basis of being male or female. |
| expert power | Occurs when subordinates see the leader as having superior knowledge and technical expertise relevant to the task at handperception is important. |
| Solomon Asch | Known for his study in which he tested conformity, the extent to which social groups exert pressure on our perceptions, emotions, and behaviors. |
| androgynous person | Possesses a combination of traits that are both masculine and feminine. |

| social behaviors of people | Show significant differences between the two gendersareas with the biggest differences are aggression and communication. |
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| Level 1 Pre-Conventional 1. Obedience and punishment orientation 2. Self-interest orientation Level 2 Conventional 1. Interpersonal accord and conformity 2. Authority and social-order maintaining orientation Level 3 Post-Conventional 1. Social contract orientation 2. Universal ethical principles | Kohlberg's Theory of Moral Development. |
| Critics claim Kohlberg's ideas on morality were influenced by his western intellectual background and therefore not valid among all cultures and ethnicities. | Kohlberg's Theory of Moral Development has been criticized specifically with regard to culture and gender. |
| attachment | Strong, two-way, emotional/social relationship, usually between a child and its mother or caregiver. |
| epigenetic model | Interactionist position that suggests that psychological characteristics are the result of neither heredity nor the environment working aloneorganisms develop through the interaction of one's genetic programming and one's experiences in the environment. |
| corpus callosum | Bundle of fibers that links the two hemispheres, or halves, of the brain. |
| mother's diet | Has a profound impact on the baby's development and subsequent health at birth. |
| reliability | Refers to the consistency of the results from taking the test repeatedly. |
| Neonate is a term for a newborn infant less than four weeks old. | Some reflexes have obvious survival value for the neonate; the rooting reflex in which the newborn turns toward a slight pressure on its cheek, the sucking reflex or even the grasping reflex. |
| egocentrism | One of the most notable cognitive reactions during the preoperational stage of cognitive development. The child becomes very me and I oriented, unable to appreciate the world from anyone else's perspective or point of view. |

| essential nature of the formal operations stage of cognitive development | Ability to think and reason and solve problems symbolically or in abstract rather than concrete, tangible form. |
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| trust vs. mistrust autonomy vs. shame and doubt initiative vs. guilt industry vs. inferiority | Erikson proposed that there were eight stages of psycho-social development, four of which occur during childhood. |
| Elisabeth Kubler-Ross | Recognized as a pioneer in the study of grief management and developed a theory that identified the five stages of grief individuals experience when they suffer a loss. |
| denial anger bargaining depression acceptance | Five stages of grief as proposed by Kubler-Ross. |
| schemas in Piaget's theory | One's organized mental representations of the world. |
| personality | Consists of the affects (feelings, moods, or emotions), behaviors and cognition that can characterize people in a number of situations over time. |
| psychoanalysis | Approach to personality associated with Freud and his followers that relies on instincts and the unconscious as explanatory concepts. |
| life instincts | Those inborn impulses proposed by Freud that compels one toward survival, including thirst, hunger, and sex. |
| libido | Energy that activates the life sexual instincts. |
| reticular formation | Located in the core of the brain stem and affects arousal. |

| death instincts | Inborn impulses proposed by Freud that compels one toward destruction, including aggression. |
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| Id | Instinctive aspect of one's personality that seeks immediate gratification of impulses and operates on the pleasure principle. |
| pleasure principle | Impulse of the id is to seek immediate gratification to reduce tensions. |
| ego | Aspect of the personality that encompasses the sense of "self" and operates in contact with the real world on the reality principle. |
| hypothalamus | Limbic system's most important structure. |
| reality principle | Governs the ego and arbitrates between the demands of the id, the superego, and the real world. |
| superego | Aspect of the personality that refers to ethical or moral considerations, and operates on the idealistic principlepersonality's control over a sense of morality . |
| idealistic principle | Governs the superego, is opposed to the id and seeks adherence to standards of ethics and morality. |
| anal stage genital stage latency stage oral stage phallic stage | Sigmund Freud recognized five stages of development, calling them psychosexual. |
| Neo-Freudians | Some psychoanalysts moved away from Freud's theories. |

| systematic desensitization | Found to be especially effective in dealing with phobias and involve having patients combine relaxation with the visualization of anxiety-provoking stimuli or situations. |
|----------------------------|---|
| Carl Jung | Student of Sigmund Freud and parted ways with Freud to seek a more mystical approach to the personality certainly more positive about one's ability to control his/her own destiny. |
| nomothetics | Study that seeks to find the commonality of all people. |
| actor-observer bias | Tendency of an individual to regard situations in which he or she is involved as caused by external factors, and to regard situations he or she observes as caused by the actions of those involved. |
| self-serving bias | People are very prone to take responsibility for success and to blame others or circumstances for failure. |
| self-concept | Involves our thoughts and feelings about ourselves, and are formed from one's experiences, perceptions, feedback, and the culture in which he/she lives. |