

Psychology and Sociology Terms for the MCAT

This is a list of psychology and sociology terms for the MCAT. This should cover almost every term you will need to know. If you know all of these terms you should be able to handle almost any question on the “Psychological, Social, and Biological Foundations of Behavior” section. This list was compiled by Pre-Med Community.

Attention:

Attended channel – What is being focused on

Unattended channel – stimuli that is in the background and not being focused on

Broadbent filter model of selective attention – All stimuli from the environment first enter a sensory filter, where one of the inputs is filtered based on physical characteristics of the input (sensory modality). The input that is selected is stored in short-term memory and semantic processing occurs.

Cocktail party effect – When information from an unattended channel catches your attention. The cocktail party effect can be explained through selective priming, where people are primed to observe something (either by encountering it frequently or by having an expectation)

Treisman’s attenuation model – Treisman believed that rather than a filter the mind has an attenuator that works like a volume knob to turn down the unattended sensory input.

The resource model of attention – States that we have a limited pool of resources on which to draw from when performing tasks. This includes both modality specific resources and general resources. If the attention resources required to perform multiple tasks simultaneously exceed the ability to do the task, then the task cannot be accomplished at the same time.

Three factors associated with multi-tasking (divided attention):

1. Task similarity
 2. Task difficulty
 3. Task practice
- The more similar two tasks are the harder it is to do. This is because these tasks draw from the same pool of modality specific resources. The more difficult a task, the more resources in general it will require. Practice diminishes the resource demand on a task, which allows more resources to be used on another task.

Cognition:

Information-processing models: How we are able to process information.

Maddeley's model of working memory- In this model, working memory consists of four components: A phonological loop, a visuospatial sketchpad, an episodic buffer, and a central executive.

Phonological loop- Allows us to repeat verbal information to help us remember it.

Visuospatial sketchpad – Helps to remember visuospatial information through the use of mental images.

Episodic buffer – Where information in the working memory can interact with information in long term memory.

Central executive – The overseer of the entire process. Shifts and divides attention.

Piaget's stages of cognitive development:

Piaget believed that the process of cognitive development involved forming schemas. Piaget believed that we either assimilate new experiences to schemas or accommodate the schemas to take into account the new experience.

Schemas – Mental frameworks about how the world works. These mental frameworks shape our experience of the world and are themselves shaped by experience.

Assimilation of a schema – Conforming the new experience to fall into a current schema.

Accommodation of a schema – Accommodating the current schema to take into account the new experience.

Piaget's four cognitive developmental stages:

- 1) **Sensorimotor stage (Birth- age 2):** Experience the world through their senses and movement. Learn about object permanence.
- 2) **Preoperational stage (Age 2 – 7):** Learn that things can be represented through symbols such as words and images. But still lack logical reasoning.
- 3) **Concrete Operational Stage (Age 7-11):** Start to think logically. An example is understanding the principle of conservation (the idea that quantity remains the same despite change in shape).
- 4) **Formal operational Stage (Age 12+):** Learn abstract reasoning and moral reasoning.

Problem solving and decision making barriers:

Heuristic – Mental shortcuts used to increase efficiency in decision-making. Helpful most of the time, but can lead to errors in judgement. Rules of thumb.

Representativeness heuristic – The tendency to judge the likelihood of an event occurring based on our typical mental representations of those events. Ex. More likely to die from a shark attack than from a vending machine falling on you

Availability heuristic – The tendency to make judgments based on how readily available information is in our memory. If a memory is more readily available, we may think the idea is more common than it actually is. Ex. Thinking shark attacks will most likely occur if you swim in the ocean, because you hear about them all the time.

Confirmation bias – The tendency to search for information that confirms our preconceived thinking and bias, instead of looking for information that opposes our schema.

Fixation – The inability to see a problem from a fresh perspective.

Mental set – A tendency to focus on solutions that worked in the past, even if they don't apply to the current situation.

Functional fixedness- The tendency to perceive the functions of objects as fixed and unchanging. The inability to see all the multiple uses an object has.
Ex. Not realizing keys can also be used to cut open a package. Thinking they can only be used to open a door.

Belief bias – The tendency to judge other's arguments based on what one personally believes instead if they other person used sound logic.

Belief perseverance – The tendency to cling to beliefs despite the presence of contrary evidence. The inability to modify one's schema.

Framing – How information is framed.

Consciousness:

Consciousness – The awareness that we have of ourselves and the environment.

Alertness – The ability to remain attentive to what is going on.

Hypnosis – A state of relaxation, focused attention, and increased willingness to relinquish control over one's actions. Induced through cooperation with a hypnotist or self-hypnosis. It CANNOT be done against someone's will.

Polysomnography (PSG) – Used to measure physiological activity during sleep.

Stages of sleep:

Awake – Beta waves. (low amplitude, high frequency)

Stage 1 sleep – Theta waves (intermediate amplitude and frequency). Non-REM. When a person is less responsive to stimuli and has fleeting thoughts.

Stage 2 sleep – Theta waves increase. Also has a K-complex and sleep spindles, these occur as a single wave amongst the theta waves. A K-complex is large and slow. Sleep spindles are bursts of waves.

Stage 3 sleep (slow wave sleep) – Delta waves (high amplitude low frequency). Non-REM. Deepest level of sleep. Heart rate and digestion slow, growth hormones are secreted.

Stage 4 sleep (REM) – Beta waves (resembles an awake person). REM (Rapid eye movement) sleep is also known as paradoxical sleep, due to low skeletal movement. This is where dreams typically occur.

Paradoxical sleep – The person physiologically appears to be awake but has no muscle movement.

Sleep cycle:

A typical sleep cycle lasts about 90 minutes. A person goes through around 4 to 5 sleep cycles in a night. The amount of REM sleep increases with each cycle, with the most REM occurring in the last cycles of sleep while the amount of deep sleep (stage 3) decreases with each cycle. The most REM sleep comes in the last sleep cycles.

Stage 1, 2, 3, 2, REM, 2, 3, 2, REM, 2, 3, 2, REM, 2, REM, 2, REM

One cycle:

Goes up through stages 1, 2, 3 then back down 3, 2, REM.

- The function of the sleep cycle is to allow a person to benefit from both light and deep sleep.

Dreaming- Occurs during REM sleep.

REM rebound – Missing REM sleep for one night will result in an increase in REM sleep later to make up for it. (This is because REM sleep is absolutely necessary for our bodies)

Activation-synthesis theory of dreaming- Dreams are byproducts of brain activation during REM sleep. Suggesting that dreams aren't purposeful.

Freud's concept of dreaming:

Freud believed that dreams are unconscious drives and wishes that are difficult to express. Thus dreams are a way of understanding our inner conflicts.

Manifest content – The symbolic versions of latent content that manifest in dreams. The themes or storyline of a dream.

Latent content – Unconscious drives and wishes. The hidden message of the dream.

Sleep latency – The amount of time it takes to fall asleep

Rem latency – The time between the start of sleeping and the start of REM sleep

WASO (Wake after sleep onset) – The amount of time a person is awake after waking up during the night. Such as waking up and falling back to sleep or getting up and going to the bathroom.

Sleep disorders:

Two types of sleep disorders: Dyssomnias, parasomnias

Dyssomnia – A sleep disorder that affects the amount of sleep, quality of sleep, or timing of sleep

Insomnia – Difficulty in falling asleep.

Narcolepsy – Periodic falling asleep during waking periods that last about 5 minutes. Can be very dangerous for the person depending on the activity they are doing when they fall asleep.

Sleep apnea – A disorder that causes people to stop breathing during sleep, resulting in awakening after a minute or so without air.

Parasomnia – Abnormal behavior that occurs during sleep.

Somnambulism – Sleepwalking. Typically occurs in stage 3 sleep.

Night terror – Waking up in the middle of the night in fear.

Consciousness altering drugs:

Depressants – Slow down neural activity in the brain. Works by stimulating GABA and dopamine systems. GABA is an inhibitory neurotransmitter. Includes alcohol, barbiturates

(tranquilizers), and opiates. Both alcohol and barbiturates depress the sympathetic nervous system. Prolonged use can cause the brain to stop producing endorphins, leading to a painful withdrawal.

- Endorphins is a neurotransmitter that is involved in pain relief.

Stimulants – Increases the release of neurotransmitters. Works to speed up body functions, resulting in increased heart rate, respiratory rate, and pupil dilation. Includes caffeine, nicotine, cocaine, and amphetamines.

Hallucinogens (psychedelics) – Create hallucinations by distorting perceptions in the absence of any sensory input. Includes LSD and marijuana. Have a low level of dependence.

Psychological dependence – Associated with the use of a drug in response to a painful emotion.

Physical dependence – When someone faces withdrawal from not using the drug.

Emotion:

Emotion consists of three components:

- 1) Physiological (body): Activation of the autonomic nervous system
- 2) Cognitive (mind): Personal assessment of the situation
- 3) Behavioral (action): Urges to act in a certain way

Yerkes-Dodson law – People perform best when they are moderately aroused.

James-Lange theory of emotion – The physiological and behavioral response to a stimuli lead to the cognitive aspect of emotion.

- Automatic physiological & behavior response lead to cognitive understanding of emotion

Cannon-Bard theory of emotion – Physiological and cognitive responses lead to a behavioral response.

- Physiological and cognitive appraisal occur simultaneously, leading to behavioral response.

Schachter-Singer theory of emotion – Physiological response leads to a conscious cognitive interpretation that leads to a behavioral response and labelling of the emotion.

- Physiological response causes conscious cognitive interpretation, which leads to the behavioral response and labelling of emotion

Limbic system – A collection of brain structures that are primarily responsible for emotion. Involves the amygdala, hypothalamus, hippocampus, and prefrontal cortex. The amygdala acts as the hub for emotion. The hypothalamus controls the physiological aspects of emotion. The prefrontal cortex is involved in the behavioral response. The hippocampus plays a role in forming memories.

Phineas Gage injury – Man suffered an injury to prefrontal cortex. His personality was no longer the same.

Stress:

Appraisal – How an individual interprets the stressful nature of an event.

Learned helplessness – A lack of belief in one's ability to manage situations.

Language:

Language acquisition – The term used by psychologists to describe the way infants learn to understand and speak their native language.

BF skinner's behaviorist model of language acquisition – Language is a form of behavior like any other that is subject to conditioning.

Noam Chomsky's universal grammar – Believed that the human mind has an innate feature that allows people to gain mastery of language from limited exposure. Was also known as the language acquisition device (LAD).

Broca's area – Involved in the complicated process of speech production. Located in the left hemisphere of the frontal lobe.

Broca's aphasia – A disorder where people lose the ability to speak due to injury to Broca's area.

Wernicke's area – Involved in the comprehension of speech and written language. Located in the posterior section of the temporal lobe.

Wernicke's aphasia – Can produce speech but are incapable of producing intelligible meaningful language.

Global aphasia – When both production and understanding of language is disrupted.

Learning:

Non-associative – When an organism is repeatedly exposed to one type of stimulus.

Habit – An action that is performed repeatedly until it becomes automatic.

Habituation- Repeated exposure to the same stimulus results in a decreased response.

Dishabituation- Recovery of a response to a stimulus after habituation occurs.

Sensitization – The opposite of habituation. There is an increased response to a stimuli.

Associative learning- Learning by association between two different stimuli. Associating a stimuli to another stimuli or behavior. Classical conditioning and operant conditioning.

Classical conditioning- A type of associative learning that takes advantage of biological/instinctual response to one stimuli to create an association with another unrelated stimuli. Ex. Pavlov dog

Unconditioned stimulus- Any stimulus that brings a reflexive response

Unconditioned response- The innate reflexive response to the unconditioned stimulus

Neutral stimulus – A stimulus which does not produce a reflexive response

Conditioned stimulus – A neutral stimulus that through association with an unconditioned stimuli now causes a reflexive response

Conditioned response – The reflexive response to the conditioned stimulus. (This is the goal of classical conditioning)

- Classical conditioning is the process of converting a neutral stimulus into a conditioned stimulus by association with an unconditioned stimulus.
- **Acquisition** is the process of creating a conditioned response. The phase during which the conditioned response is acquired.
- **Extinction** is the process where a conditioned stimulus no longer creates a conditioned response after a period of time without associating the conditioned stimulus with a unconditioned stimulus. Conditioned response decreases as the conditioned stimulus is continually presented alone. When the desired behavior no longer occurs.
- **Generalization** refers to the process by which similar stimuli also elicit the conditioned response.
- **Discrimination** is the opposite of generalization, and occurs when the conditioned response only occurs for the conditioned stimuli.

Operant conditioning – Uses reinforcements and punishments to shape behavior.

Reinforcement – Anything that will increase the likelihood of the preceding behavior will be repeated. Increases likelihood of behavior occurring.

Punishment – Anything that will decrease the likelihood of a behavior to occur.

Positive – To give

Negative – To take away

Positive Reinforcement – Giving something desirable

Negative reinforcement – Taking away something undesirable (to make situation better)

Positive punishment – Giving something undesirable

Negative punishment – Take away something desirable

Primary reinforcers – Things which are innately satisfying or desirable. Ex. Food

Secondary reinforcers – Things that are learned to be reinforcers. These are associated with primary reinforcers to make them conditioned. Relies on classical conditioning principle.

Escape conditioning – Behaviors that help to escape from the unpleasant stimuli.

Avoidance conditioning – Behaviors that help avoid unpleasant stimuli before it occurs.

- Escape is for escaping unpleasant stimuli as it is happening. Avoidance is to avoid unpleasant stimuli before it happens.

Reinforcement schedule:

Continuous schedule – Every occurrence of behavior is reinforced. This results in rapid behavior acquisition and also rapid extinction.

Intermittent schedule – Sometimes behavior is reinforced and sometimes it is not. Slower behavior acquisition but slower extinction.

Four types of intermittent reinforcement schedules:

- 1) **Fixed ratio schedule:** Provides a reinforcement after a set number of instances of behavior. Results in a high rate of response.
- 2) **Variable-ratio schedule:** Provides the reinforcement after an unpredictable number of occurrences. High response rate.

- 3) **Fixed-interval schedule:** Provides the reinforcement after a set period of time that is constant. Behavior increases as the reinforcement interval comes to an end.
 - 4) **Variable-interval schedule:** Provides the reinforcement after an unpredictable amount of time. Results in slow steady behavioral response rate.
- Ideal behavioral training would use a continuous reinforcement schedule to initially condition a behavior, and then use an intermittent reinforcement schedule to maintain the behavior.

Escape – An individual learns how to get away from an aversive stimulus by engaging in a particular behavior. Ex. Throwing temper tantrum to not have to eat vegetables

Avoidance – Occurs when a person performs a behavior to ensure an aversive stimulus is not presented. Ex. Child faking sickness to avoid eating vegetables

Observational learning (social learning) – Learning through watching and imitating others

Modeling – An observer sees the behavior being performed by another person and then imitates it.

Persuasion:

Elaboration likelihood model – Explains how people will be influenced by the content of the speech (logic of arguments), and by more superficial characteristics.

Three key elements of persuasion:

- 1) **Message characteristics**-The features of the message itself, such as logic and number of key points. Also includes superficial things like length of speech/article and grammatical complexity.
- 2) **Source characteristics**- The person or venue delivering the message. Includes things like expertise, knowledge, and trustworthiness.
- 3) **Target characteristics** – The self-esteem, intelligence, mood, and other personal characteristics of the person receiving the message.

There are two cognitive routes that people are persuaded by:

Central route – People are persuaded by the content of the argument.

Peripheral route – People focus on superficial or secondary characteristics of the speech or orator.

Behavior:

Social cognitive theory – States that social factors, observational learning, and environmental factors influence a person's beliefs and attitude. Emphasizes social influence and observational learning on behavior.

Reciprocal determinism – States how people both shape and are shaped by their environments.

- People choose their environments which in turn shape them.
- Personality shapes how people interpret and respond to their environment
- Personality influences the situation to which the person reacts to.

Behavioral genetics – Focuses on the role of inheritance in behavioral traits. The interaction between heredity and experience determines an individual

Human development:

Motor development:

Reflexive movements – Primitive involuntary movements. (Birth- Age 1)

Rudimentary movements – Voluntary movement. Sitting, crawling, standing, walking. (Birth – Age 2)

Fundamental movement – Running, jumping, throwing, catching. (Age 2-7)

Specialized movement – Combination of fundamental movements applied to specific tasks. (Age 7-14)

Brain development:

During prenatal development, the brain actually produces more neurons than needed. However, the immature brain does not have many neural networks (codified routes for information processing).

Infantile amnesia – Not being able to remember anything from when we were infants (around 3.5 years old and younger on average)

Mary Ainsworth attachment studies-

Securely attached infants – When caregiver leaves the room infant is distressed, when caregiver returns the infant is easily consoled.

Insecurely attached infant – When caregiver leaves room will be distressed or be indifferent to departure and return.

Memory:

Encoding – The process of transferring sensory information into our memory system.

Serial position effect – An individual is most likely to recall the first and last items on a list. This is also known as the **primacy effect** and the **recency effect**.

Mnemonic – Any technique for improving retention and retrieval of information from memory.

Rehearsal – Repeating the information over and over in your head.

Chunking – A strategy to improve memory in which information to be remembered is organized into discrete groups of data. This decreases the number of “things” to be remembered.

Hierarchies – A chunking strategy to improve memory, by organizing information into different hierarchies of information. This is the process of dividing broad concepts into categories. Ex. Birds include ostriches, penguins, etc. Big cats include lions, tigers, etc.

Method of loci – A technique used to improve memory. Involves moving through a familiar place (such as your home) and leaving a visual representation of a topic to be remembered. For recall, the images of the places could be called upon to bring into awareness the associated topics.

- Depth of processing has also been shown to be important for encoding memories. The deeper something is thought about the better it is remembered. Meaning that semantic information (meaning) is more easily remembered than details usually.

Dual coding hypothesis – Indicates that it is easier to remember words with associated images than it is to remember words or images alone.

Self reference effect – It is easier to remember things that are personally relevant.

Long term potentiation – The strengthening of neural connections due to rehearsal or relearning. Thought to be the source of long-term memory. Potentiation is the strengthening of neural connections.

Types of memory storage:

Sensory memory – Initial recording of sensory information (very brief). Two types: Iconic, echoic

Iconic memory – Memory for visual information

Echoic memory – Memory for sound

Short term memory – Recall capacity is around 7 items plus or minus 2.

Implicit memory- Also known as unconscious memory and automatic memory. It uses past experiences to remember things without thinking about them. The performance of implicit memory is enhanced by previous experiences, no matter how long ago.

Procedural memory- A type of implicit memory that is specific to motor skills. Unconscious ability to remember how to perform a particular task. Such as riding a bike, walking, etc.

Explicit memory- Involves conscious recollection. Such as trying to remember the capitals of the cities in the US.

Semantic memory – Long term memory that includes things that are common knowledge and basic facts.

Sensory memory- Where sensory information is stored just long enough to be transferred to short term memory.

Episodic memory – A person’s unique memory of a specific event. This will differ with someone else’s episodic memory of that event.

Flashbulb memory – A clear memory of an emotionally significant event or moment

Consolidation – The transfer of working memory to long term memory.

Spacing effect – The tendency for spaced study or practice to yield better long term retention than is achieved from a massed study or practice session. Essentially, we learn things better through spaced repetition over a period of time (exposure to information spread out over a given period of time) than through long and hard study sessions.

Free recall – Retrieving an item “out of thin air”

Cued recall – Retrieving the information when provided with a cue.

Recognition – Involves identifying specific information from a set of information that is presented. An easier form of retrieval.

Relearning – Involves the process of learning material that was originally learned.

Priming – Prior activation of nodes and associations.

Retrieval cues – Environmental stimuli or information that are associated with a memory and aid in retrieval of memory. Typically are present at the time of memory formation. Emotions act as a retrieval cue.

State-dependent learning – Something learned in an emotional state is most easily recalled when we are once again in that same emotional state.

Semantic networks – Organization of information in networks of meaningfully related networks.

Spreading activation – Occurs when one item brought into working memory triggers an activation of related memory. Remembering a specific topic primes the brain to recall related concepts. This shows the interconnectedness of semantic networks.

Anterograde amnesia – The inability to encode new memories

Retrograde amnesia – The inability to recall previously encoded information

Proactive interference – When information previously learned interferes with the ability to recall newer information. New information recall is interfered by old information.

Retroactive interference – When newly learned information interferes with the recall of information learned previously. Old information recall is interfered by new information.

Positive transfer – When old information facilitates the learning of new information

Source monitoring – Occurs when a person attributes a memory to a specific source (where the information came from. such as a friend, television, movie, dream, etc.)

Source monitoring error – A type of memory error where the source of a memory is incorrectly attributed. Often due to limited encoding of source information. Memory construction can follow leading to a false memory.

Misinformation effect – When people are exposed to subtle misinformation about an event and then asked to recall about the event, they are more likely to misremember details. Ex. When asked about how fast a car was going when they smashed into each other instead of hit each other, people will indicate higher speeds.

False memories – When asked to repeatedly imagine nonexistent actions and events people can create false memories. Repeatedly imagining something happened makes it feel more

familiar and it can take on the flavor of being a real memory. Both false memories and real feelings can be associated with emotion, making it harder to distinguish.

Korsakoff's syndrome – A nutritional deficiency in vitamin B1 that results in a decrease in the ability to recall recent events. Often due to severe alcoholism.

Personality:

Personality – The individual pattern of thinking, feeling, and behavior associated with each person.

Psychoanalytic theory:

Personality is shaped by a person's unconscious thoughts, feelings, and memories.

- Two instinctual drives motivate human behavior according to psychoanalytic theory: Libido (life instinct), Death instinct. Life instinct focuses on survival, growth, pain avoidance, and pleasure. Death instinct focuses on aggressive behaviors fueled by an unconscious wish to die or hurt others.

id – Ruled by the pleasure principle. The id seeks to reduce tension, avoid pain, and gain pleasure. Young children function almost entirely from the id.

Ego – Ruled by the reality principle. Uses logical thinking and planning to control the consciousness and the id. The ego tries to find realistic ways to satisfy the id's desire for pleasure.

Superego – Focuses on a higher purpose. Inhibits the id and influences the ego to follow moralistic and ideal goals. The superego makes judgments of right and wrong and strives for perfection. The superego seeks rewards such as feelings of pride and self love, and avoid psychological punishment such as feelings of guilt and inferiority.

- The id is our primitive and innate desire for pleasure. The ego is the intelligent part which uses logic and reasoning to achieve goals. The superego is our desire to be good and in turn feel self-love and important, as such it inhibits the id's selfish desires.

Ego defense mechanisms: (psychoanalytic theory)

People develop ego defense mechanisms that unconsciously deny or distort reality in order to avoid anxiety and protect the ego. This occurs when people begin to become aware of repressed feelings, memories, desires, or experiences.

Repression – Lack of recall of an emotionally painful memory

Denial – Forceful refusal to acknowledge an emotionally painful memory

Reaction formation – Expressing the opposite of what one really feels, when it would feel to dangerous to express the real feeling

Projection – Attributing one's own unacceptable thoughts or feelings to another person

Displacement – Redirecting aggressive or sexual impulses to something else

Rationalization – Explaining and justifying one's impulsive behavior

Regression – Reverting to a less sophisticated behavior to deal with an event

Sublimation – Channeling aggressive or sexual energy into positive constructive activities (ex. producing art)

Psychosexual stages:

According to psychoanalytic theory, at each developmental stage there are certain needs and tasks that must be satisfied. When these needs and tasks are not met, a person harbors unresolved unconscious conflicts that lead to psychological dysfunction.

The stages of development are characterized by impulses of the id and the overcoming of these impulses. There are five stages:

Oral stage (1st year) – Requires development of trust and the capacity of delayed gratification. Child seeks sensual pleasure through oral activities (sucking and chewing)

Anal stage (2nd year) – Toilet training. Allows the development of self-control. Child seeks sensual pleasure through control of elimination

Phallic stage (3- 6 years) – Gender and sexual identification. Child seeks sensual pleasure through genitals. Sexually attracted to the opposite sex parent and hostile toward same-sex parent at this stage. Internalization of society's rules and development of superego occur.

Oedipus complex – Occurs in a boy (jealous of dad, attracted to mom)

Electra complex – Occurs in a girl (jealous of mom, attracted to dad)

- If a child does not resolve that stage's developmental conflicts. A child becomes psychologically fixated at that stage and as an adult continue to seek pleasure through behaviors related to that stage.

Latent stage (7-12 years) – Social development and suppression of sexual impulses. Allows children to focus on other developmental tasks.

Genital (Adolescence) – Mature sexuality and the return of sexual impulses.

Fixation – Fixation is the persistent focus of the id's pleasure seeking energy at an earlier stage of psychosexual development. Fixations occur when an issue or conflict in a psychosexual stage remain unresolved, leaving an individual focused on this stage and unable to move to the next.

Erik Erikson's developmental stages:

Erik Erikson expanded on the Freud's theory of developmental stages.

- 1) **Trust vs mistrust (Birth – Age 1):** (Ability to trust)
- 2) **Autonomy vs shame and doubt (1 -3 yr):** Explore, make mistakes, test limits. (Ability to self-care)
- 3) **Initiative vs guilt (3-6 yr):** Make decisions. (Ability to carry out a plan)
- 4) **Industry vs inferiority (6-12 yr):** Attain personal goals and knowing one's own ability to succeed (Ability to learn a new task)
- 5) **Identity vs role confusion (12-18 yr):** Identity, life meaning (Stable identity formation)
- 6) **Intimacy vs isolation (18-35 yr):** Form intimate relationships (Ability to form relationship with others)
- 7) **Generativity vs stagnation (35-60 yr):** Help next generation, understand one's accomplishments (ability to put energy into others)
- 8) **Integrity vs despair (60+):** Look back with no regrets and feel personal worth

Humanistic theory (Carl Rogers) – Humans are seen as inherently good and having free will. People seek toward self-actualization. People seek to become their ideal self. The ideal self is constructed out of your life experiences, societal expectations, and things you admire about role models. When the real self falls short of the ideal self this results in incongruity.

- Summary: People shape their own personality through free will. Conscious decisions make people who they are. And people continuously seek experiences to make them better and to become their ideal self.

Behaviorist theory – Behavior is influenced by conditioning. People are born blank slates, and environmental reinforcements/punishments determine personality.

Social cognitive theory – Behavior is influenced by conditioning and observational learning.

Five-factor model – Extroversion, neuroticism, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. (OCEAN). Created by Raymond Cattell.

Person-situation controversy – Considers the degree to which a person’s reaction to a given situation is due to their personality (trait) or due to the situation (state)

Trait – Internal, stable, enduring aspects of personality that should be consistent across most situations.

States – Situational and variable aspects of personality that are influenced by the external environment.

Psychological disorders:

Psychological disorder – A set behavioral and or psychological symptoms that are severe enough to cause significant impairment to social or personal functioning.

Obsessive compulsive disorder (OCD) – Have obsessions and compulsions. Obsessions are repeated, intrusive, uncontrollable thoughts or impulses that cause distress. Compulsions are repeated physical or mental behaviors that are done in response to an obsession in order to get rid of the distress.

Schizophrenia – A chronic incapacitating disorder by which a person is out of touch with reality. A person can be diagnosed with schizophrenia when they experience at least two symptoms of psychosis for a month along with less extreme symptoms for at least six months.

Positive symptoms of psychosis – Positive means something is added. Such as delusions, hallucinations, disorganized speech.

Negative symptoms of psychosis – Reduced emotional expression, reduced fluency of speech, reduced initiative.

Five types of schizophrenia:

- 1) Paranoid
- 2) Disorganized
- 3) Catatonic
- 4) Undifferentiated
- 5) Residual

Paranoid schizophrenics have symptoms of delusions and hallucinations. Delusions are a false belief that is not relinquished despite evidence that it is false. Hallucination is a false sensory perception that occurs while a person is conscious.

Disorganized schizophrenics show negative symptoms, disorganized speech, and disorganized behavior. Such as behavior that cannot be understood and with no apparent goal.

Catatonic schizophrenics show catatonic behavior; disturbances in movement. This can include hyperactivity of movements or motor immobility.

Undifferentiated schizophrenics meet the basic criteria for schizophrenia but not for any other subtype.

Residual schizophrenics previously met criteria for schizophrenia but symptoms are milder.

Mood disorders:

Mood disorder- A persistent pattern of abnormal mood serious enough to cause significant personal distress or impairment to social or personal functioning.

Mood – A person’s sustained internal emotion that colors his/her view of life.

Major depressive disorder – Have suffered at least two weeks of low mood that is present across most activities.

Bipolar disorder – Experience cyclic mood episodes at both extremes or “poles”, depression and mania. There are two types of bipolar disorder.

Bipolar I disorder – Must have experienced at least one manic episode or mixed episode and one major depressive episode to be diagnosed.

Bipolar II disorder – The manic phases are less extreme. Diagnosed by having at least one major depressive episode and one hypomanic episode.

Manic episode – For at least one week a person has experienced an abnormal unrestrained irritable mood with at least three of the following symptoms: Grandiose delusional self-esteem, high energy with little need for sleep, increased talkativeness and pressured speech, poor judgment, distractibility with flight of ideas or racing thoughts

Mixed episode - A person has met the symptoms for both major depressive and manic episodes nearly every day for at least a week and the symptoms are severe enough to cause hospitalization or impaired social or personal function.

Hypomanic episode – Basically a less severe manic episode.

Dissociative disorders:

Dissociative disorder – Disruptions in awareness, memory, and identity that are extreme or frequent enough that they cause distress or impair the person’s functioning.

- Dissociative disorders can be triggered by severe stress or psychological conflicts and they usually begin and end suddenly

Dissociative amnesia – Suddenly forgetting some important personal information. Usually caused by severe stress or trauma. The disorder usually ends suddenly, with full recovery of memory.

Dissociative identity disorder – A person alternates between two or more distinct personality identities. These personalities can vary widely in age, gender, personality traits, and may not even be aware of each other. This used to be known as multiple personality disorder.

Personality disorder:

Personality disorder – An enduring rigid set of personality traits that deviate from cultural norms, impair functioning, and cause distress either to the person with the disorder or to those in their life. There are three broad categories of personality disorders: Cluster A, Cluster B, Cluster C

Cluster A – Paranoid, Schizoid, Schizotypal. Traits include: Irrational, withdrawn, cold, suspicious

Cluster B – Antisocial, Borderline, Histrionic, Narcissistic. Traits include: Emotional, dramatic, attention seeking, intense

Cluster C – Avoidant, dependent, obsessive-compulsive. Traits include: Tense, anxious, over-controlled

Paranoid personality disorder – Mistrusts and misinterprets others’ motives and actions, without sufficient cause.

Schizoid personality disorder – A loner with little interest or involvement in close relationships, even those with family members. Seems unaffected emotionally by interactions with others, appearing detached or cold.

Schizotypal personality disorder – Have several traits that cause problems interpersonally. Such as odd beliefs, speech, behavior, appearance, and perceptions. Often develops into schizophrenia.

Antisocial personality disorder – Has a history of serious behavior problems beginning as a young teen including significant aggression towards people and animals, lying or theft, deliberate property destruction, and serious rule violation.

Borderline personality disorder – Enduring or recurrent instability in his/her impulse control, mood, and image of self and others. Impulsive and reckless behavior combined with extreme mood swings can lead to unstable relationships.

Histrionic personality disorder – Strongly desires to be the center of attention

Narcissistic personality disorder – Feels grandiosely self-important, with fantasies of beauty, brilliance, and power. The person feels a desperate need for admiration from others and feels envy toward others. Typically lack empathy for others.

Avoidant personality disorder – Feels inadequate, inferior, and undesirable. Have fears of criticism. Avoids personal contact, risks, and new activities unless he/she is certain of being liked.

Dependent personality disorder – Feels the need to be taken care of by others and unrealistic fear of being unable to take care of himself/herself. Tend to be clinging, submissive, and afraid to express disagreement in order to gain support and nurturing, and to avoid abandonment.

Obsessive-Compulsive personality disorder (OCPD) – May not have any true obsessions or compulsions. But may instead be perfectionistic, rigid, stubborn, and a need for control. Often have a preoccupation with orderliness and list-making across a variety of situations that can interfere with effectiveness and efficiency.

Alzheimer's disease:

Dementia – Severe loss of cognitive ability beyond what would be expected for normal aging.

- Alzheimer's disease is the most common form of dementia. It is characterized by anterograde amnesia.

Parkinson's disease – Symptoms include a resting tremor, slowed movement, rigidity of movements of the face, and a shuffling gait. Caused by the death of cells that generate dopamine in the basal ganglia and substantia nigra.

Attitudes:

Attitude – A person's feeling and beliefs about other people or events around them. As well as the tendency to behavior according those underlying beliefs and feelings.

The principle of aggregation – An attitude affects a person’s aggregate or average behavior, but not necessarily each isolated behavior.

Factor that influence the link between attitude and behavior:

- 1) When social influences are reduced. People are more likely to behave according to their attitude when there is less social influence.
- 2) Attitudes are made more powerful through self-reflection. People are more likely to behave in accordance with their attitude if they are given some time to prepare to do so.

Behavior influencing attitude:

- 1) **Role-playing.** Being in a certain role influences one’s attitude. Think the Zimbardo’s prison study.
- 2) **Public declaration.** People sometimes feel pressure to adapt and say things to please others, and say something publicly. The individual may be unaware of the social pressure that might have influenced the statement and thus the individual might conclude that the statement was a personal belief.
- 3) **Justification of effort.** People often modify their attitudes to justify their behavior. People try to justify what they did.

Cognitive dissonance theory – Explains that we feel tension whenever we hold two thoughts or beliefs that are incompatible, or when attitudes and behaviors don’t match. When this happens and we feel like hypocrites, we will change our views of the world to match what we have done instead of accepting the incongruity / hypocritical nature of what was done.

- Self-justification plays an important role in how behaviors shape attitudes. In role-playing, public declarations, and justification of effort scenarios, individuals justify their actions through altering their beliefs to match the actions.

Self-identity formation:

Self-concept (self-identity) – The sum of an individual’s knowledge and understanding of themselves. A person’s view of their own personality. Is developed and refined through interaction with others.

Personal identity – One’s own sense of personal attributes.

Social identity – Consists of social definitions of who you are; age, race, religion, gender, etc.

Self-reference effect – The tendency to better remember information relevant and consistent with our own self-concept.

Ex. If one considers themselves smart and gets a good score they will remember it. If they get a bad score on a test then they will attribute it to external causes instead of internalizing it and adjusting their self-concept.

Self-efficacy – The belief in one's own competence and effectiveness. The belief in one's ability to carry out an action.

- It has been shown that simply believing in one's abilities actually improves performance.

Internal locus of control – Believe they are able to influence outcomes through their own effort and actions. Believe that the responsibility lies on them.

External locus of control – Perceive outcomes are controlled by outside forces.

- Having an internal locus of control has been shown to empower individuals while having an external locus of control is involved with depressed and oppressed people.

Self-esteem – One's overall self-evaluation of one's self worth.

Looking-glass self – People develop self-concepts based on how others perceive them. The idea that a person's sense of self develops from interpersonal interactions with others in society and the perceptions of others. (developed by Charles Cooley)

Social behaviorism- The mind and self-emerge through process of communicating with other people. Formed the beginning of symbolic interactionism. (developed by George Herbert Mead)

Socialization – The process through which people learn to be proficient and functional members of society. It is a lifelong sociological process where people learn the attitudes, values, and beliefs that are reinforced by a particular culture.

Norms – The unspoken rules and expectations for behavior in a society

Sanctions – Rewards and punishments for behaviors that are in accord or against norms.

Formal norms – Generally written down, such as laws. Often have strict punishments for violating them.

Informal norms – Not written down but are generally understood. Don't have punishments often. Ex. Handshakes as a greeting.

Mores – Norms that are highly important for the benefit of society and are strictly enforced. Ex. Animal abuse and treason are mores.

Folkways – Norms that are less important but shape everyday life. Ex. styles of dress, ways of greeting

Assimilation – The process by which an individual adopts the values and norms of a different culture. Generally it is a member of a minority group trying to conform to the culture of the majority group.

Amalgamation – When majority and minority groups combine to form a new group.

Pluralism (multiculturalism) – The perspective that endorses equal standing for all cultural traditions. Insists that there should be no hierarchy among cultures., every culture is held in equal standing.

Subculture – A segment of society that shares a distinct pattern of values and traditions that differ from that of the larger society.

Attribution:

Attribution theory – Attempts to explain how individuals view behavior. This includes our own behavior and the behavior of others.

Dispositional attribution – Attributing behavior to internal causes

Situational attribution – Attributing behavior to external causes.

Three main factors influence attribution:

- 1) Consistency: How consistent the behavior is.
- 2) Distinctiveness: Is the behavior directed at everyone or just a specific person or group of people?
- 3) Consensus: Is it just that person acting that way or is everyone acting that way?

Fundamental attribution error – The way we tend to underestimate the influence of the situation and overestimate the impact of a person's character or personality.

Actor-observer bias – The tendency to blame our poor actions on external causes and blame the poor actions of others on internal causes.

Self-serving bias – The tendency to attribute our success to internal reasons and our failure to external reasons. We tend to attribute our success to us being due to our own ability and our failure not being our fault.

Optimism bias – The belief that bad things happen to others but not us.

Just world phenomenon – The tendency to believe that the world is fair and people get what they deserve.

Halo effect – The tendency for an impression in one area to affect our opinion of another area. If our impression is that someone is nice we might also view them as being a good dad.

Physical attractiveness stereotype – The tendency to rate attractive individuals more favorably for personality traits than less attractive people. A specific type of halo effect.

Social perception:

Social perception – The understanding of others in our social world.

Social cognition – The ability of the brain to store and process information regarding social perception.

False consensus – When we assume that everyone else agrees with what we do.

Projection bias – When we assume others have the same beliefs we do.

Stereotype – Oversimplified ideas about groups of people

Prejudice – Thoughts, attitudes, and feelings held about a group that are not based on experience.

Discrimination – Involves acting a certain way toward a group.

Racism – Prejudices and actions that discriminate based on race, or hold that one race is inferior to another

Scapegoat – Unfortunate people whom displaced aggression is directed. Ex. Germans blamed the Jews for their economic struggles

Self-fulfilling prophecy – Stereotypes lead to behaviors that affirm the original stereotype

Stereotype threat – A self-fulfilling fear that one will be evaluated based on a negative stereotype.

Ethnocentrism – The tendency to judge people from another culture by the standards of one's own culture. Often resulting in prejudice and discrimination.

Cultural relativism – Judging people from another culture based on its own standards. This often results in less prejudice and discrimination.

Groups:

Group – A collection of any number of people who regularly interact and identify with each other. Often share similar norms, values, and expectations

Aggregate – People who exist in the same space but do not interact or share a common sense of identity

Category – People who share similar characteristics but are not otherwise tied together

Primary group – Play an important role in an individual's life. These groups are usually smaller and include people who the individual engages with in a long-term emotional way. Serve expressive functions (meeting emotional needs).

Secondary group – Larger and more impersonal. May interact for specific reasons for shorter periods of time. Serve instrumental functions (meeting pragmatic needs).

In group – A group that an individual belongs to.

Out group – A group that an individual does not belong to.

Reference group – A standard measure that people compare themselves to.

Social facilitation (audience effect) – People tend to perform differently when in the presence of others. For simple well-learned tasks, people tend to perform better in the presence of others. And for hard and difficult tasks, people tend to perform worse.

Deindividuation – When an individual may lose their sense of individual identity and take on the identity of a group. This is also known as mob mentality.

Factors affecting deindividuation:

- 1) Group size: Larger groups increase deindividuation
- 2) Physical anonymity: Using masks, face paint, costumes increases deindividuation
- 3) Arousing activities

- Factors that reduce self-awareness and identification increase deindividuation

Bystander effect – People are less likely to provide help when there are other bystanders. This is caused by a diffusion of responsibility, the responsibility to help does not clearly reside with one person or group.

Social loafing – The tendency for people to exert less effort in a group than they would on their own

Group polarization – The tendency that groups tend to intensify the preexisting views of its members. The average view of a member of the group is intensified by being in the group. The entire group tends toward more extreme versions of the average views they initially had prior to discussion.

Two reasons group polarization occurs:

- 1) **Informational influence** – In group discussion the most common ideas to emerge are ones that favor the dominant viewpoint. This provides an opportunity to rehearse and validate similar opinions further strengthening that dominant viewpoint.
- 2) **Normative influence** – The desire to be accepted and admired by others.

Social comparison – Evaluating our opinions by comparing them to those of others

Groupthink – A state of harmony within a group, where everyone is seemingly in a state of agreement. This is caused by pressure to not provide dissenting opinions to the dominant viewpoint, and often groupthink can lead to some pretty bad decisions.

Qualities of groupthink:

- Group is overly optimistic of its capabilities and has unquestioned belief in its stances
- Group becomes increasingly extreme by justifying its own decisions while demonizing those that don't agree
- Some members of the group prevent dissenting opinions by filtering out information and facts that go against the beliefs of the group (known as mind guarding)
- Individuals censor their own opinions to favor consensus, creating an illusion of unanimity.

Mind guarding – Filtering out information and facts that go against the beliefs of the group. Often seen in groups that are in a state of groupthink

Deviance – A violation of society's standards of conduct or expectations. Those who break norms of a society are considered deviant.

Stigma – Demeaning labels assigned to deviant members to devalue them. Ex. Felon

Conformity – The phenomenon of adjusting behavior or thinking based on the behavior or thinking of others.

- People tend to do what others do
- Authority and the discomfort of being disobedient has a strong impact on conformity

Three factors about how behavior is influenced by social influences:

- 1) Compliance: Compliant behavior is motivated by a desire to seek reward or to avoid punishment
- 2) Identification: Motivation to be like a group or another person.
- 3) Internalization: How internalized certain values and beliefs are affect ones capacity to be influenced by social pressures

Normative social influence – Motivation for compliance is due to the desire to be approved by others and avoid rejection. Often leads to public compliance but not necessarily private acceptance of those social norms.

Informational social influence – Process of complying due to wanting to do the right thing and that others know something you might not. Often applies to new situations, ambiguous situations, or when an authority figure is present.

Social structure:

Status – All socially defined positions within a society. People can hold multiple statuses at the same time. Ex. President, parent, democrat, etc.

Master status – The one that dominates the others and determines that individual's general position in society. Common master statuses are those of race, gender, physical disability, mental illness, occupation. Ex. Michael Jordan's master status is a basketball player

Ascribed statuses – A status that is assigned to a person by society regardless of one's own efforts. Include things such as gender and race.

Achieved statuses – Considered due to largely the individual's efforts. Includes things such as doctor, parent, and democrat.

Social role – Expectations for people of a given social status

Role conflict – When there is a conflict from multiple statuses. When many different statuses all compete for a person's time creating conflict. Ex. A doctor who is also a father might experience role conflict as being a doctor could take time away from doing the roles of a father.

Role strain – When a single status has too many roles and expectations. Ex. A mother might be expected to do all the chores

Role exit – The process of disengagement with a role that is central to one's self-identity. This is often associated with the establishment of a new role and identity.

Social network – A web of social relationships

Organization – An impersonal group that comes together to pursue particular activities and meet goals efficiently

Utilitarian organization – Organization in which members get paid for their efforts. Such as a business.

Normative organization – Organization based on moral goals. Ex. Mothers against drunk driving

Coercive organization – An organization which members do not have a choice in joining. Such as a prison.

Social interaction:

Self-presentation (impression management) – The conscious or unconscious effort where people attempt to manage their own image by influencing the perceptions of others.

Self-handicapping – A strategy in which people create obstacles and excuses to avoid self-blame when they do poorly. Similar to the self-serving bias.

Dramaturgical perspective – States we imagine ourselves as playing certain roles when interacting with others. Similar to people also being on stage of a theater, with the ultimate goal of presenting an acceptable self to others.

Front stage – When in the presence of others, it is the act we play to craft the way we come off to other people.

Back stage – When not in the presence of others we let our guards down and be our true selves.

Attraction – The ability to evoke interest in another person. A primary component in love, friendship, and other social relationships.

Three components of attraction:

- 1) Proximity – People are more inclined to like people who they are exposed to more often. This is known as the mere exposure effect. As such people who live nearby each other tend to form social relationships.
- 2) Appearance – Physical attractiveness is an important predictor of attraction. Positive personality traits are also judged more attractively
- 3) Similarity – Similarity between people impacts attraction. Sharing similar values, beliefs, interests, and attitudes improves attraction and liking for each other.

Mere exposure effect – People prefer repeated exposure to the same stimuli

Sociology:

Sociology – Focuses on understanding the behavior of groups

Society – A group of people who share a culture

Functionalism – A view that conceptualizes society as a living organism with many different parts and organs, that each have a distinct purpose. Such that each social structure (school, hospitals, churches, etc.) serve a function to help society survive. Believes that inequality is beneficial to society.

Social facts – Elements that serve some function in society. Such as laws, morals, values, religions, customs, rituals, and rules that make up society.

Conflict theory – Views society as a competition for limited resources. Social structures reflect this competition by competing for these resources. Those in power will maintain their positions of power by suppressing the advancement of others. Focuses on the discrepancies between dominant and disadvantaged groups. (Founder is Karl Marx)

Symbolic interactionism – Focuses on society at the small scale(micro) level and sees society as the sum of everyday interactions. Looks at the individual in society and their interaction with others, and through understanding that can explain social order.

Social constructionism – States that people actively shape their reality through social interactions. People construct their own realities. Society is the sum of social constructs made by its members. The major focus of social constructionism is how individuals and groups participate in the construction of society and social reality.

Social construct – A concept or practice that is the construct of a group. Everyone agrees to treat a certain aspect a certain way regardless of its inherent value. Ex. Dating and marriage are socially constructed ideas

Social institution – A complex of roles, norms, and values organized into a relatively stable form that contributes to social order by governing the behavior of people. Ex. Family, religions, government, educational systems

Manifest function – The intended and obvious function of a social structure/institution

Latent function – Unintended consequences and functions of a social structure/institution

Residential segregation – The separation of groups into different neighborhoods. Most often occurring due to racial differences, ethnic differences, and/or socioeconomic differences.

Environmental injustice – People in poorer communities are more likely to be subjected to negative environmental impacts to their health and well-being

Social stratification – The way that people are categorized in society. Categorization by race, education, wealth, and income. People with the most resources comprise the top tiers of the stratification while people with the least resources comprise the bottom tiers.

Educational stratification – Separation of students into groups based on academic performance.

Caste system – Describes a closed stratification where people can do nothing to change the category they are born into. There is no social mobility.

Class system – The classes are open and people have social mobility. They can strive to reach a higher class or fall to a lower one.

Meritocracy – An idealized system that uses only personal effort (merit) to establish social standing.

Social mobility – The ability to move up or down within the social stratification system.

Social reproduction – The structures and activities in place in a society that serve to transmit and reinforce social inequality from one generation to the next.

Social capital – The potential for social networks and connections to allow for upward social mobility.

Cultural capital – The education and skills a person has that allow for social mobility. The non-financial social assets that promote social mobility. Cultural capital is not transmissible.

Relative poverty – The inability to meet the average standard of living within a society

Absolute poverty – The inability to meet a bare minimum of basic necessities to live. Such as food, safe housing, drinking water, reliable healthcare.

Marginal poverty – A state of poverty that occurs when a person lacks stable employment.

All other Psychology/Sociology terms (Important):

This section may repeat a few of the terms from above, but you should make sure to dedicate all of these terms to memory.

Social desirability bias – The tendency of survey respondents to answer questions in a manner that looks favorably for others. This can result in an over-reporting of good answers and an under-reporting of bad answers.

Selection bias – The bias introduced by the selection of individuals, groups, or data for analysis in such a way that randomization is not achieved. This ensures that the sample is not representative of the population intended to be analyzed.

Causation bias – The tendency to assume a cause and effect relationship

Projection bias – When we assume other people share the same beliefs we do

False consensus bias – When we assume everyone else agrees with what we do, even if they don't.

Subject bias – When a subject intentionally or unintentionally reports distorted measurements

Observer bias – When an observer intentionally or unintentionally reports distorted measurements

Primacy bias – First impressions are important. Emphasis on information that reinforces first impression.

Recency bias – People place emphasis on your most recent actions/performances

Past in present discrimination – Even if discrimination done in the past is no longer allowed, it can still have an effect on people in the present.

Homophily – The tendency for people to choose relationships with other people who have similar attributes.

Kin group – People related by blood or marriage

Exogamy – Marrying outside of one's community

Endogamy- Marrying within a particular group

Matrilineal descent – Preference for maternal relations in a kin group

Motion parallax – Objects farther away appear to move slowly while objects closer appear to move faster

Social potency trait – The degree to which someone takes on leadership roles in social situations

Intersectionality – The interconnected nature of social categorizations such as race, gender, and class. Often regarded as creating overlapping systems of discrimination and disadvantage.

Labeling theory – Labeling people may influence and shape their self-identity and behavior. States that people's self-identity and behavior is shaped by the terms used to describe them. This theory is often associated with the self-fulfilling prophecy and social constructionism.

Craving – A strong desire to ingest a drug or consume a substance.

Dependency ratio – The portion of dependents in a population. Dependents are people who are unable to work. This includes people who are under the age of 15 or older than 65. The ratio is: (age 14 and lower + age 64 and higher / people age 15-65)

Disengagement theory – Claims that it is natural and acceptable for older adults to withdraw from society. Aging results in decreased interaction or disengagement between the aging person and to the society he/she belongs.

Life course perspective – A multidisciplinary approach to understanding an individual's mental, physical and social health. Done by analyzing people's lives through social, structural, and cultural contexts.

Life course theory – Aging is a social, biological, and psychological process that begins from birth until death.

Social selection hypothesis – States that people tend to select environments in which there are people similar to themselves.

Social gradient in health – Refers to the fact that inequalities in population health statuses relate to inequalities in individual social status.

Urban renewal- Revamping old parts of cities to become better. Can lead to gentrification.

Rural rebound – People who are getting sick of cities and moving back to the country side.

World systems theory – World is composed of units. CORE (western Europe, US), periphery (Latin America, Africa), semi periphery (India, Brazil).

Dependency theory – Periphery countries export resources to core countries, and don't have means to develop themselves.

Hyperglobalist perspective – Countries are becoming interdependent. Seen as the new age of human history.

Skeptical perspective – Third world countries aren't being integrated into the global economy with same benefits.

Transformationalist perspective – National governments are changing with new world order forming

Mass society theory – People who are isolated are more susceptible to the appeals of extreme movements.

Culture lag – The time it takes a culture catch up with technological advancements. Can result in social problems.

Gatekeeping – The process by which a small number of people or businesses control what is presented to the media.

Hidden curriculum – Encompasses the unspoken goals of education. Teaching children to conform to social expectations.

Teacher expectancy – Teachers treat students differently according to preconceived ideas about their capabilities. A form of self-fulfilling prophecy.

Shaping – A type of operant conditioning where successive approximations of the desired behavior are reinforced in order to gradually achieve the desired behavior.

Sanctions – Rewards and punishments that are in accord with or against norms.

Formal norms – Written down rules that carry punishments. Ex. Laws

Informal norms – Generally understood but do not carry punishments if violated.

Mere exposure effect – People prefer repeated exposure to the same stimuli. Familiarity breeds fondness.

Frustration-aggression principle – When blocked from achieving a goal, frustration can lead to anger which can lead to aggression

Learning-performance distinction – Learning and performing are two different things. The learning of a skill does not necessarily require the practicing of a skill (performance).

Compliance – Situation where people do behavior to get reward or avoid punishment. Will go along with behavior without questioning why. Compliance goes away once reward/punishments are removed

Identification – When people act or dress a certain way to be like someone they respect. Will do this as long as they continue to have respect for that individual.

Cyclothymic disorder – Similar to bipolar disorder but involves less extreme highs and lows.

Vicarious emotions - Feeling the emotions of others as if they are your own

Linguistic relativity (Whorfian hypothesis) – The structure of one's language affects its speaker's world view or cognition.

Place theory – A theory on hearing. States that our perception of hearing depends on where frequency produces vibrations along the basilar membrane.

Context effect – Describes how the context of a stimulus can affect how someone perceives the stimulus

Moderation – A model where another variable moderates the direction or strength of the relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable.

Mediation – A model where the independent variable has an effect on the mediator variable which has an effect on the dependent variable. In mediation; Independent variable → mediator variable (the variable which is mediating) → dependent variable

Emile Durkheim- Focuses on functionalism, which is the interdependence of social parts that contribute to society's stability and maintaining social order. Caring about social cohesion and dynamic equilibrium between different social institutions.

George Herbert Mead- Pioneer of symbolic interactionism. Which focuses on the small-scale interactions between people.

George Herbert's "Me" – Our social self. How we believe society sees us

George Herbert's "I" – Our personal response to what society thinks

Ludwig Gumplowicz – States that society is shaped by war and conquest, and that cultural and ethnic conflicts lead to certain groups becoming dominant over other groups.

Solomon Asch- Conducted the three line experiment. This experiment focused on peer pressure and conformity.

Stanley Milgram- Conducted the electric shock experiments. These focused on obedience, where a person yields to an authority figure.

Ivan Pavlov – Developed classical conditioning. Conducted the famous Pavlov dog experiments with the bell.

B.F Skinner – Developed operant conditioning. Conducted experiments with the Skinner box to learn about how reinforcements and punishments shaped behavior.

Philip Zimbardo – Conducted the famous prison experiments which focused on the power of role playing on behavior.

Albert Bandura – Focused on social learning theory and observational learning.

Carl Jung – Carl Jung developed the idea of the collective unconscious, introversion, and extroversion. Believed in repressed memories as well as future aspirations to be the source of behavior.

Collective unconscious- The part of the unconscious mind that is derived from ancestral memory and experience and is common to all humankind.

Erving Goffman – Developed the concept of the dramaturgical approach to social situations.

Gestalt psychology: Explain how we perceive things the way we do. The whole is greater than the sum of its parts. Gestalt principles feature top-down processing.

Gestalt principles: The law of similarity, the law of closure, the law of continuation, the law of proximity, the law of figure and ground, the law of Pragnaz

The law of similarity- Items that look similar are grouped together. Ex. A bunch of squares on top of each other could appear as a line

The law of closure – Our minds fill in missing information to create a complete image. How our mind fills in the gaps.

The law of continuity – Lines are seen as following the smoothest path.

The law of proximity – Objects that are close together in proximity are grouped together.

The law of figure and ground – The eye differentiates between an object from its surrounding. The figure is the object. The surrounding is the ground. It refers to the ability to perceive the main object separate from the background.

The law of Pragnaz – Complex objects are reduced to its simplest terms.

Feature detection – How our brains are able to break down an image into its component “features”. It is the process in which the brain detects specific stimuli of an image such as lines, edges, movement.

Top-down processing – Using previously learned information to aid in information processing. How our brain automatically connects pieces of information together on its own then we interpret the “whole picture”. Think the gestalt principles.

Bottom-up processing – Seeing things as their individual pieces.

Actor-observer bias- The tendency to attribute the behavior of others to individual traits and one’s own behavior to external causes.

Generalized other – Our conceptions of the expectations other people in society have on actions and thoughts. The generalized other represents the common expectations and attitude of society. Any time an actor is tries to imagine what is expected of them, they are taking on the perspective of the generalized other. Coined by George Herbert mead.

Kohlberg’s stages of moral development:

1. **Preconventional stage** – Morality is based solely on consequences of behavior (reward and punishment).
- Morality is externally controlled. Children believe what is right and wrong based off of what authority figures say. The focus is on obedience and punishment. (Young kids.)
2. **Conventional stage** – Acceptance of conventional definitions of right and wrong.
- Morality is tied to personal and societal relationships. Still listen to authority figures due to wanting to maintain good relationships and societal order. (Adolescents and adults)
3. **Post-conventional stage** – Morality is shaped by abstract ideas and values. (Adults)

Gardener's theory of intelligence – Theorizes that there are a variety of intelligences that are used in combination to solve problems and perform tasks. These are: Linguistic, musical, logical-mathematical, spatial, body/kinesthetic, and interpersonal.

Game theory – Use of mathematical models to come up with strategies for optimal performance or success in a given situation. The success in the “multiplayer” game relies on also knowing the strategy of the other player when creating one’s own strategy.

Traditional authority – Authority due to tradition, custom, or accepted practice

Spotlight model - A theory of visual attention. States that shifts in attention precede the movement of our eyes.

Charismatic authority – Authority and power through persuasion

Continuity theory – People try to maintain the same basic life structure throughout their lives.

Malthusian theory – Starvation is the inevitable result of population growth.

Drive theory – Created by Sigmund Freud. Describes psychological drives as an instinctual need that has the power of driving the behavior of an individual. Based on the principle that organisms have certain psychological needs that creates a feeling of tension when the need is not met. When a need is met, the drive is reduced and the organism returns to a state of homeostasis and relaxation.

Incentive theory – States that people are motivated by external rewards.

Cognitive theory – People behave based on what they predict will yield the most desirable outcome.

Need based theory – People are motivated by the desire to fulfill unmet needs

Foot-in-the-door phenomenon – People are more likely to agree to larger request if they already agreed to a smaller request

Counterconditioning- It involves the conditioning of an undesired response to a stimulus into a desired response. Removing the current conditioning to a stimuli and replacing it with a new response. This is done by associating reinforcements with the stimulus that normally causes the undesired response. Counterconditioning is used to get rid of unwanted responses.

Secure attachment – Easily turns to parents for comfort and is easily comforted by parents.

Ambivalent attachment – Doesn’t turn to parent for comfort easily and is not easily comforted.

Avoidant attachment – Would not turn to the parent for comfort at all

Anxious attachment – Would not be easily comforted by parents or return to play afterwards

Identification – Identification is the process where a subject assimilates an aspect, property, or attribute of another person. In gender identity formation, identification refers to children's perceptions of selves as subject to the same roles and norms as a parent or other model.

Inclusive fitness – A measure of reproductive success. Depends on the number of offspring an individual has, how well they support their offspring, and how well the offspring support each other.

General adaptation syndrome - The body responds to stressors in three stages: 1) Alarm, 2) Resistance, 3) Exhaustion.

1) Alarm – Body reacts with fight or flight response. Activating sympathetic nervous system. Releasing adrenaline and cortisol.

2) Resistance – Blood glucose levels remain high. Increased HR and BR. Body remains alert.

3) Exhaustion – If stressor continues beyond organism's capacity then the body resources are exhausted. Leading to potential disease and/or death.

The general adaptation syndrome also states that how people react to stress is similar for many different kinds of stressors.

Appraisal view of stress – People make two appraisals that determine their emotional reaction to an event.

Primary appraisal – Evaluation of a situation for a potential threat. If there is one, a second appraisal will then be made.

Secondary appraisal – Assess personal ability to cope with the threat. If one does not think they can cope with the threat well, they will feel stress more than someone who does believe they can handle the stress.

Signal detection theory – The ability to detect an important stimulus amongst vast amounts of sensory stimulus increases an organism's ability to survive.

Sensitivity bias – An individual's tendency toward or against accepting evidence of a signal.

Back region- A setting where a person feels more relaxed and can act more spontaneously and free without worry of how others perceive him. Ex. Alone at home

Conjugal family – A family that is centered around the husband and wife, and not around blood relationships.

Learning theory of language development – Learning is a form of behavior developed through operant conditioning.

Nativist theory of language development – Language is an innate biological instinct, and everyone has the neural cognitive system for learning language. (Noam Chomsky)

Interactionist theory of language development – Interaction between biology and environment. Children are motivated to practice language so they can communicate and socialize with others

Expressive aphasia – The inability to produce speech, but can still understand language. Often due to damage to Broca's area.

Receptive aphasia – The inability to comprehend language, despite being able to hear it and produce it. Often due to damage to Wernicke's area.

Fluid intelligence – The ability to think logically without the need for previous knowledge. Typically peaks in young adulthood and then declines.

Crystallized intelligence – The ability to think logically using previously learned knowledge. Typically remains stable throughout life.

Retinal disparity – Each eye provides a slightly different angle of the same object which results in our brain being able to process depth.

Proprioception – Cognitive awareness of balance and position of the body in space.

Gentrification- The process by which upgrading of houses or and neighborhoods results in the influx of wealthier residents. Which in turn raises prices and makes the whole area more expensive and wealthy.

Behaviorist theory - Focuses on the role of reinforcement and punishment on the shaping of behavior. Behaviors are learned through conditioning.

Erik Erikson's stages of development-

Stage	Psychosocial Crisis	Basic Virtue	Age
1	Trust vs. mistrust	Hope	Infancy (0 to 1 ½)
2	Autonomy vs. shame	Will	Early Childhood (1 ½ to 3)
3	Initiative vs. guilt	Purpose	Play Age (3 to 5)
4	Industry vs. inferiority	Competency	School Age (5 to 12)
5	Ego identity vs. Role Confusion	Fidelity	Adolescence (12 to 18)
6	Intimacy vs. isolation	Love	Young Adult (18 to 40)
7	Generativity vs. stagnation	Care	Adult hood(40 to 65)
8	Ego integrity vs. despair	Wisdom	Maturity (65+)

- Each stage represents a psychosocial crisis that must be faced, and can have a positive or negative effect on one's personality development. Failure to complete a stage can result in a reduced ability to complete further stages and an unhealthy personality and sense of self.
- These crises arise because of the conflict between an individual's psychological (psycho) needs and the needs of society (social).
- The **epigenic principle** states that the personality develops in a predetermined order (the Erik Erikson stages of development) that builds upon each previous stage.
- Success in each stage will result in the gaining of the virtue associated with it.
- The ego develops as it successfully resolves these crises.
- These stages can still be resolved at a later age. Allowing for personality development throughout life. However, adolescent period is the most important crucial time for developing a healthy personality.

Trait theory (dispositional theory) – An approach to understanding human personality. Focuses on the measurement of traits that define a person's personality. These traits are believed to be of biological and genetic origin.

Speech shadowing - A technique where a participant is asked to repeat a word or phrase immediately after its heard.

Linguistic relativity (Sapir-Whorf hypothesis)- States that the structure of language affects its speaker's world view or cognition. The differences in language affect the way that speakers of different languages see the world and as such influence them to think and behave differently.

Weber's law- A proposed relationship between the magnitude of physical stimulus and the intensity that people experience (perception).

7 plus or minus 2- The estimated capacity of working memory. 5 to 9 items can typically be remembered in working memory.

Working memory- The short-term memory which can interact with long term memory for the purpose of completing a cognitively complex task.

Extrinsic motivation – Results from external rewards. Such as money or fame.

Intrinsic motivation- Results from internal motivations. Personal motivations.

Public conformity – Conformity on the surface. No internalization of ideas or behaviors. Conformity only to please others. People privately think that the group is wrong.

Private conformity – Internalization of beliefs. Occurs in the absence of others when one truly believes the group is right. A more powerful form of conformity.

Serotonin – A neurotransmitter important for long-term memory consolidation.

Chunking- The process of taking individual pieces of information and chunking them together into larger units. By grouping individual pieces of information into a larger whole, the amount of information that can be remembered can be increased. This is a technique used for memory enhancement.

Implicit memory- Also known as unconscious memory and automatic memory. It uses past experiences to remember things without thinking about them. The performance of implicit memory is enhanced by previous experiences, no matter how long ago.

Procedural memory- A type of implicit memory that is specific to motor skills. Such as riding a bike, walking, etc.

Explicit memory- Involves conscious recollection. Such as trying to remember the capitals of the cities in the US.

Semantic memory – Long term memory that includes things that are common knowledge and basic facts. Such as names of colors, the capitals of countries, sounds of letters, etc.

Sensory memory- Where sensory information is stored just long enough to be transferred to short term memory.

Episodic memory – A person's unique memory of a specific event. This will differ with someone else's episodic memory of that event.

Organic amnesia- Amnesia caused from damage to the brain by "organic causes". Including concussion, strokes, infections, and tumors.

Functional amnesia- Severe retrograde amnesia without any anterograde amnesia that is usually preceded by a physical or emotional trauma. The amnesia can be thought of as functional to that trauma.

Decay- The fading of a memory. This is the fate of information encoded in working memory that is not encoded into long term memory.

Memory construction – The creation of false memories (constructed memories). Often due to the misinformation effect.

Rosy retrospection – Our tendency to recall the high points of pleasurable events

Next-in-line effect – When people go around in a circle saying their names to memorize them, the name of the person before us is often the hardest to recall.

Content analysis- is a research technique used to make replicable and valid inferences by interpreting and coding textual material. By systematically evaluating texts (e.g., documents, oral communication, and graphics), qualitative data can be converted into quantitative data.

Context effect – Describes how the context which a stimulus occurs can contribute to how people perceive that stimulus.

Reference group – The group that other individuals try to model.

Role strain – Occurs within a single status. When an individual is pulled in many directions by the many responsibilities of one status. Ex. A student who has to write a paper, give a speech, do homework, and study for a test.

Role conflict – Is the conflict between multiple statuses. These different statuses can compete for a person's time causing conflict between them. Such as being a husband, doctor, business owner.

Dyadic group- A two-person group (dyad). Such as a physician and patient.

Triadic group- A three-person group (triad)

- Larger groups are generally considered more stable but less intimate. But smaller groups are generally considered less stable but more intimate. In general, more social ties amongst a group increases stability.

Latent learning – The knowledge that only becomes clear when a person has incentive to express it.

Longitudinal study – Observational research where data is collected for the same individual(s) repeatedly for a long period of time.

Cohort study - Follows a group of people who do not have a disease for a period of time and see who develops the disease (new incidence).

Prospective cohort study – A longitudinal cohort study that follows a group of similar individuals (cohorts) who differ in certain factors, to see how these factors affect rates of different outcomes.

Retrospective cohort study (Historic cohort study) - A longitudinal cohort study that follows a cohort that share a common exposure factor to determine it's influence on the development of a disease, and are compared to another group of equivalent individuals not exposed to that factor.

Quantitative study - Uses mathematical modeling and statistics to show relationships between variables.

Qualitative study – Does not use math. Seeks to understand behavior in a natural setting. Emphasizes field work. Includes things such as content analysis and focus groups.

Mixed-methods study - Utilizes both quantitative and qualitative methods for research.

Survey study - When surveys are used to collect data and information about individuals. Is typically used to collect self-report data from study participants.

Ethnographic study - The systematic study of people and cultures. To gain insight into how people live. Typically involves studying users in their natural setting as opposed to in a laboratory setting.

Comparative study - Is the study of animals to gain insight into humans behavior. The underlying principle is that animal behavior can be comparable to human behavior.

Correlational study – Research done to see if there correlations between two naturally occurring variables. Used to determine if there is a correlation between two variables and to what extent.

Experimental study – Introduces a change in an independent variable and monitors its effect on the dependent variable.

Case-control study – An observational study where two people of differing outcomes are compared to find a casual factor

Cross-sectional study – Looks at a group of different people at the same time. Analyzes data from population at a specific point in time.

Dependent variable- Depends on the independent variable. It is what is being measured.

Independent variable- The variable that is being changed and manipulated.

- Researchers look at how changes in the independent variable change the dependent variable.

Latent variable – A variable that is not observed but is inferred from other variables that are measured.

Confounding variable – Are factors other than the independent variables that researchers failed to control and would have an impact on the dependent variable. Confounds damage the internal validity of the experiment.

Vehicular control - You would want to know if the mode of treatment as such has any role in the effect of the substance.

Control group – The group that does not receive the test variable. The control group acts as the baseline.

Experimental group – The group that receives the variable being tested. The group being experimented on.

Positive control – Groups where a phenomena is expected. A group where a known response is expected.

Negative control – A group where no response is expected.

Confederate – Actors that are told what to do during an experiment.

Conflict theory- Emphasizes the conflict between groups in society over societal resources. It assumes that power and authority in society are unequally shared and groups try to maintain their power.

Social stratification- Refers to a system in which society ranks categories of people in a hierarchy. Such as rich, upper class, middle class, lower class.

Caste system- A social category someone belongs to involuntarily. A social category one is born into. No social mobility.

Stress-diathesis theory – States that genetics provides a biological predisposition for schizophrenia, but environmental stressors elicit the onset of the disease.

Validity- Refers to a test/instrument's ability to measure what it is supposed to.

Reliability- A test/instrument's ability to produce consistent and stable results.

Valid instrument- One that measures what it is supposed to

Reliable instrument- One that produces consistent and stable results

Test-retest reliability- Used to determine the reliability of an instrument. The consistency in results from one administration of the test to another administration of the same test. An instrument or tool is more reliable if it produces consistent results between the first time and second time.

Parallel forms reliability- Used to determine the reliability of an instrument. It refers to the consistency between alternate forms of the same instrument. For example: The same students take test A and test B, where these alternate forms of the same test. Both tests contain questions that test the same material. Finding consistent results between the two parallel tests helps assure reliability of the test.

Construct validity – The degree to which a test is measuring what it claims. How well a test/instrument does what it is intended to do.

Face validity – The degree to which a test appears at face value to be testing what it claims. This is a subjective superficial assessment of an instrument's validity.

- Something can have face validity but not construct validity, this means that it appears that it should be effective at measuring what its supposed to (face validity) but in reality it does not measure it well (construct validity).

External validity – How applicable the research results are to real life situations. It tells how well the research results mimic a real life situation.

Internal validity – How well the experiment is done, based on how well it avoids confounding. An experiment with less confounding variables has a higher internal validity.

Operationalization – The process of defining the measurement of a phenomenon that is not directly measurable. The process of defining a fuzzy concept to make it clear, measurable, and understandable in empirical observations. Ex. Defining the distance of personal space is 1.5 meters. Thus personal space has been operationally defined.

Response bias – The tendency for an individual to answer questions on a survey untruthfully or misleadingly. This is because of pressure to give answers that are socially acceptable.

Spreading activation – When a person is presented with a concept, the closely related concepts are also activated for retrieval if needed, priming the mind to recall any information related to them.

Emotional intelligence – The ability to manage, perceive, understand, and express one's emotions. Emotionally intelligent people are able to delay gratification in pursuit of long term goals.

- Aspects of emotional intelligence: Perceiving emotions, understanding emotions, managing emotions, using and reasoning with emotions well

Sternberg theory of intelligence – The types of intelligence that emerge from a person's adaptive abilities. Include Analytical intelligence, creative intelligence, and practical intelligence.

Analytical intelligence – The ability to analyze and evaluate ideas, and solve problems and make decisions.

Creative intelligence – The ability to create creative and novel ideas.

Practical intelligence – The ability to adapt, shape, and select everyday environments. Those with practical intelligence learn best from doing.

Means-end analysis – A problem solving method where the end goal is imagined and then the best strategy to attaining the goal from the current situation is determined.

Contact hypothesis – The theory that people of different racial groups who became acquainted would be less prejudiced against each other.

Contagion theory – The anonymity people feel in a crowd makes them more susceptible to influence by leaders and that emotions can be more contagious in a crowd

Medicalization – The process by which human problems and conditions come to be defined and treated as medical conditions. Thus being treated in classically medical ways, using more medical terminology.

The Hawthorne effect – Describes how people modify an aspect of their behavior in response to the awareness of being observed. Also known as the observer effect. This results in changes in research participants as a result of their awareness of being observed.

The Thomas theorem – States that if an individual believes something is real, then it is real in its consequences. "If a man defines a situation as real, they are real in their consequences."

This states that our feelings and behavior do not depend on objective reality but on our subjective interpretation of reality.

Emergent norm theory – A theory on collective behavior that suggest that people move towards a shared definition of what is right or wrong in a relatively normless situation.

Exchange mobility – The sociological concept that states that society is made up of classes and these classes remain relatively static in number of people. If a set number of people move up a class from middle class, then a set number of people will most likely move down from the upper class.

Intergenerational mobility – Movement through the class system between generations. Ex. The old generation is poor but sets up an environment to help the new generation become rich

Horizontal mobility – The situation where one changes an aspect of social status but remains in the same class. Ex. Going from employed to unemployed but still making about the same income.

Upward mobility – Movement up the class system. Achieved through education, marriage, career, or financial success.

Downward mobility – Movement down the class system. Due to unemployment, reduced household income, lack of education, or health issues

Food desert- Areas where it is difficult to find affordable healthy food options. Most common in low income neighborhoods where there are fewer grocery stores.

Spatial inequality – Unequal access to resources within a population or geographical distribution.

Status group – People who share a social identity based on similar values and life-styles.

Status inconsistency- May occur when a person holds two or more unequal statuses in society

White collar work – Jobs that are considered professional, administrative, or managerial in nature. The higher prestige professions.

Blue collar work – Jobs that require skilled or unskilled labor. Lower prestige professions.

Social reproduction – The transfer of social inequality from one generation to the next

Religiosity – The extent of influence of religion in one's life

Ecclesia – The dominant religious organization that includes most members of society. Recognized as the national or official religion and tolerates no other religion.

Cult – A religious organization that is distinct from that of the larger society. Formed by breaking away from larger religious organizations.

Secularization – The weakening of political and social power of religious organizations.

Class consciousness – The beliefs a person holds for their social class or economic rank in society, its class structure, and their class interests.

Rational choice theory – Every action people do is fundamentally rational. People act in ways that are weighing the costs and benefits of each action.

Exchange theory – Application of the rational choice theory. Looks at society as a series of interactions between individuals. Is used in studying family relationships, partner selection, parenting, etc. Interactions are determined by weighing the rewards and punishments of each action.

Convergence theory – A theory that suggest that modernizing nations come to resemble each other over time.

Global inequality – Certain countries hold a majority of resources.

Relative deprivation – The condition of being deprived of a resource that one feels entitled to.

Anomie – The alienation an individual experience from society due to lack of social norms.

Deviance- Behaviors that violate social norms.

Theory of differential association – Deviance is a learned behavior that results from continuous exposure to others whom violate norms and laws

Labelling theory – A behavior is deviant if people have judged and labelled the behavior as deviant

Primary deviance – No big consequences

Secondary deviance – More serious consequences

Strain theory – If a person is blocked from reaching a culturally acceptable goal, they may become frustrated/strained and turn to deviance.

Token economy – A system of behavior modification based on systematic reinforcement of target behavior. Reinforcers are “tokens” that can be exchanged for other reinforcers.

Instinctual drift – The tendency for an animal to revert to instinctual behaviors that interfere with conditioned responses.

Ingratiation – An impression management strategy that uses flattery to increase social acceptance.

Social control – Direct form of socialization in which one group or an individual imposes a set of rules to control behavior of others

The iron law of Oligarchy – States that all forms of organization, no matter how democratic they may be at the start, will eventually develop oligarchic tendencies. Making true democracy practically and theoretically impossible, especially in large and complex organizations. People at the top of the hierarchy of power will inevitably value their power more than original purpose of the organization.

The five model of personality traits – Openness to new experience. Conscientiousness. Extraversion. Agreeableness. Neuroticism. (OCEAN)

Evolutionary psychology – Genes associated with personality traits that helps improve an individual’s chance for reproduction is conserved.

Differential threshold (Weber’s law) – The minimum difference in the intensity of a stimuli that can be detected.

Absolute threshold – The minimum intensity of a stimulus that can be detected.

Surface traits – Personality traits that are evident from behavior.

Conjunction fallacy- A fallacy where it is believed that the co-occurrence of two events is more likely than a single one.

Obsessive compulsive disorder – A mental disorder characterized by intrusive thoughts (obsessions) and the need to perform ritualistic behaviors (compulsions) to alleviate anxiety.

Somatic symptom disorder – A type of mental disorder characterized by physical symptoms that cannot be fully explained by a medical condition or use of a substance. Basically, psychological disorders characterized by bodily symptoms.

Conversion disorder – A somatoform disorder where a person experiences a change in sensory motor function that has no physical or physiological cause, but seems affected by psychological factors.

Pain disorder – A somatoform disorder where a person experiences pain whose onset or severity seems significantly affected by psychological factors.

Somatization disorder – A somatoform disorder where a person experiences a variety of physical symptoms over an extended period of time.

Body dysmorphic disorder - A somatoform disorder where a person is preoccupied with slight physical anomaly or imagined defect in appearance.

Dispositional attribution – Attributing a behavior to a person’s personality or internal traits.

Situational attribution – Attributing a behavior to the situation.

Affect – A person’s visible emotion at the moment

Mood – A person’s internal emotion that color’s his or her life

Inductive reasoning – Small to big. The ability to use specific situations to form a general concept

Deductive reasoning – Big to small. The ability to apply general concepts to specific situations.

Vgotsky’s theory of development –

Current developmental level – The tasks a child can perform on their own without help from others

Zone of proximal development – Range of abilities between current and potential developmental level. Skills that can be accomplished with help

Potential developmental level – The most advanced tasks that child can perform with guidance from more knowledgeable people

Identity foreclosure – Unquestionably adopts the values and expectations of others

Identity diffusion – A person who has no sense of identity and no desire to engage in identity exploration.

Identity moratorium – A person who is actively trying to develop a unique set of values and understanding of self in society

Face work – The actions taken by an individual to make their behavior appear consistent with the image they want to present.

Emotion work – An individuals effort to change an emotion or feeling to one that seems more appropriate to the situation.

Prototype willingness model – States that behavior is a function of past behavior, subjective norms, our intentions, willingness to participate in specific behavior, prototypes/models

Principle of aggregation – An attitude represents a person's average behavior but cannot predict each isolated case of behavior.

Lazarus theory – The experience of an emotion depends on how it is labelled. We label a situation and that leads to the physiological and emotional response

Libido – Life instinct. Drives behaviors focused on survival, growth, creativity, pain avoidance, and pleasure. Psychoanalytic concept.

Death instinct – Drives aggressive behaviors that are fueled by an unconscious desire to hurt others or oneself. Psychoanalytic concept.

Pleasure principle – The id seeks pleasure with no logical or moral reasoning.

Reality principle – The ego uses logical thinking and planning to control the id.

Superego- Seeks moralistic and psychological goals to serve a higher purpose. Feelings of pride and self-love are sought by the super ego and guilt/inferiority are avoided.

Repression – An ego defense mechanism. Lack of recall of an emotionally painful memory.

Denial – Ego defense mechanism. Forceful refusal to acknowledge a painful memory.

Projection – Ego defense mechanism. Involves attributing one's own unacceptable thoughts or feelings onto another person.

Reaction formation – Ego defense mechanism. Expressing the opposite of what one really feels when it would be dangerous to express the real feeling.

Rationalization – Ego defense mechanism. Explaining and intellectually justifying one's impulsive or poor behavior.

Regression – Ego defense mechanism. Involves reverting back to a less sophisticated behavior.

Displacement – Ego defense mechanism. Involves displacing aggression or sexual impulses from a forbidden object to a less dangerous one.

Sublimation – Ego defense mechanism. Involves redirecting aggressive/sexual energy into a positive constructive activity.

Psychoanalytic therapy – Helps patients become aware of his/her unconscious motives. This allows patients to choose behaviors that help reduce unconscious anxiety. Therapy focuses on self-insight through analysis and interpretation.

Humanistic therapy – Personal growth through self-insight is the goal. Achieved through active listening and unconditional positive regard. Provides an environment where people can grow from their experiences.

Behavioral therapy – Uses conditioning to shape client’s behavior. Usually used to help desensitize patients with anxiety to phobias or anxiety-provoking stimuli.

Cognitive behavioral therapy – Helps clients become aware of their irrational thoughts and then substitute rational thoughts through reconditioning, desensitization, and reversal of blame. Believes that a person’s feeling or behavior are reactions to a person’s thoughts about an event, instead of being caused directly by the event.

Hope this helps you during your MCAT studying! Make sure to review these terms regularly to commit them to memory and do many practice problems. If you found this helpful, please share this with a pre-med friend. Also make sure to check out our other free downloads [here](#).

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