

SUMMARY

9.1: What Is Intelligence? Definitional Confusion

9.1a Identify different models and types of intelligence.

Sir Francis Galton proposed that intelligence stems from sensory capacity. Binet and Simon, who developed the first intelligence test, argued that intelligence consists of higher mental processes such as reasoning, understanding, and judgment. Spearman observed that tests of mental ability tend to be positively correlated. To explain this pattern, he invoked the existence of *g*, or general intelligence, but also posited the existence of *s*, or specific factors unique to particular mental tasks. Some psychologists have argued for the existence of multiple intelligences. According to them, there are different ways of being smart. Nevertheless, it's not clear whether these proposed intelligences are independent of each other or of a more general intelligence factor.

9.1b Describe the connection between intelligence and both brain size and efficiency.

Brain size and intelligence are moderately positively correlated in humans. Some evidence suggests that people with high levels of intelligence possess especially efficient brains. Intelligence also seems related to faster reaction times, as well as working memory capacity, and probably stems in part from the activity of the prefrontal cortex.

9.2: Intelligence Testing: The Good, the Bad, and the Ugly

9.2a Determine how psychologists calculate IQ.

Stern defined the intelligence quotient (IQ) as mental age divided by chronological age, with the result multiplied by 100. This simple formula becomes problematic in adolescence and adulthood, because mental age tends to level out at around age 16. As a consequence, most modern intelligence tests define IQ in terms of deviation IQ.

9.2b explain the history of misuse of intelligence tests in the united states.

Eugenics was the effort to improve a population's "genetic stock" by encouraging people with "good genes" to reproduce, by discouraging people with "bad genes" from reproducing, or both. IQ tests became an important tool of the eugenics movement, because many proponents of eugenics wanted to minimize the reproduction and immigration of individuals with low IQs. In part because of eugenics, many people today view IQ tests with skepticism.

9.2c Describe tests of intelligence used today and evaluate the reliability and validity of IQ scores.

Psychologists have developed IQ tests for both adults, such as the WAIS-IV, and children, such as the WISC-IV. IQ scores are reasonably stable in adulthood, although they aren't especially stable in infancy or early childhood. IQ tests predict a variety of important real-world outcomes, including job performance and physical health.

9.2d Distinguish the unique characteristics of intellectual disability and genius.

There are four categories of intellectual disability (formerly called mental retardation): mild, moderate, severe, and profound. At least 85 percent of individuals with intellectual disability fall into the mild category. Terman's study of gifted schoolchildren helped to debunk widespread ideas that child prodigies "burn out" in adulthood and that genius often leads to insanity.

9.3: Genetic and Environmental Influences on IQ

9.3a explain how genetic influences can be determined from family, twin, and adoption studies.

Twin and adoption studies suggest that at least some of the tendency for IQ to run in families is genetically influenced, although these studies also offer convincing evidence of environmental effects on IQ. The heritability of IQ appears to be relatively low, however, among extremely poor individuals, perhaps reflecting the adverse effects of environmental deprivation on the expression of genetic potential.

9.3b Identify potential environmental influences on IQ.

Schooling is related to high IQ scores. Research suggests that both poverty and nutrition are causally related to IQ, although disentangling the effects of nutrition from other factors, such as social class, is challenging.

9.4: Group Differences in IQ: The Science and the Politics

9.4a Identify similarities and differences in mental ability between men and women.

Most research suggests little, if any, overall average sex difference in IQ between men and women. Nevertheless, studies indicate that men are more variable in their IQ scores than women are. Women tend to do better than men on some verbal tasks, whereas men tend to do better than women on some spatial tasks.

9.4b evaluate the evidence concerning racial differences in IQ.

On average, compared with Caucasians, African Americans score about 15 points lower on standard IQ tests. Asian Americans, compared with Caucasians, score about 5 points higher. Nevertheless, there's substantial overlap in the IQ distributions across races. Test bias does not appear to be a viable interpretation of the IQ test gap between African Americans and Caucasians because IQ scores predict the same criteria in African Americans and Caucasians. Nevertheless, several studies offer good reasons to believe that much or all of the IQ between African Americans and Caucasians is environmental.

9.5: The Rest of the Story: Other Dimensions of Intellect

9.5a Describe how creativity and emotional intelligence relate to intelligence.

Creative accomplishments consist of two features: They are novel and successful. Psychologists often measure creativity using tests of divergent thinking, which assess the capacity to generate many different solutions to a problem. Nevertheless, creativity also requires convergent thinking, the capacity to find the best answer to a problem. Emotional intelligence refers to the ability to understand our own emotions and those of others and to apply this information to our daily lives. Although emotional intelligence is relevant to job performance, it's not clear how much it contributes beyond either intelligence or personality traits such as extraversion. Curiosity and grit may also contribute to academic achievement and other forms of accomplishment, although the scientific status of grit is controversial.

9.5b explain why intelligence doesn't protect us from errors in thinking.

Wisdom is the application of intelligence toward a common good. Wisdom isn't identical to intelligence, and it sometimes, but not always, comes with age. Even highly intelligent people can believe strange things because standard IQ tests aren't especially good measures of scientific thinking capacity. Some people have even suggested that high intelligence may allow people to find false, but plausible-sounding, arguments to bolster their unsupported views.

10.1: Special Considerations in Human Development

10.1a Clarify how nature and nurture can contribute to development.

Genes and environment intersect in complex ways, so we can't always conclude that one or the other is driving behavior. For example, as children develop, how their genes are expressed often depends on their experiences.

10.1b Identify ways to think scientifically about developmental findings.

In evaluating how and why children change, we must resist the temptation to assume that events that happened prior necessarily cause events that happen later, and keep in mind that cause and effect is often a two-way street.

10.2: The Developing Body: Physical and Motor Development

10.2a track the trajectory of prenatal development, and identify barriers to normal development.

Many important aspects of fetal development occur early in pregnancy. The brain begins to develop 18 days after conception and continues to mature into adolescence. Teratogens such as drugs, alcohol, and even maternal stress can damage or slow fetal development. Although premature infants often experience developmental delays, low-birth-weight babies tend to have the least positive outcomes.

10.2b Describe how infants learn to coordinate motion and achieve major motor milestones.

Children tend to achieve motor milestones such as crawling and walking in roughly the same order, although the ages when they accomplish these milestones vary. Infants are born with reflexes that help them get started, but experience plays a critical role in building children's muscles and motor coordination.

10.2c Describe physical maturation during childhood and adolescence.

During childhood, different parts of the body grow at different rates, with the head-to-body-size ratio becoming smaller than in infancy. Adolescence is marked by sexual maturation and significant physical changes.

10.2d explain which aspects of physical ability decline during aging.

There are large individual differences in age-related changes in agility and physical coordination. One of the major milestones of physical aging in women is menopause.

10.3: The Developing Mind: Cognitive Development

10.3a understand major theories of how children's thinking develops.

Piaget believed that development unfolds in four stages that influence all aspects of cognitive development. Vygotsky believed that different children develop skills in different domains at different rates and that social structuring on the part of the parent facilitates children's learning and development. Researchers continue to debate whether learning happens in more general or domain-specific ways, whether learning is gradual or stagelike, and how much innate cognitive knowledge children possess.

10.3b explain how children acquire knowledge in important cognitive domains.

Physical reasoning in infants involves basic, apparently innate knowledge and refinement of knowledge based on experience. Conceptual development requires children to acquire knowledge of how things look, how they are used, and in what contexts they appear. Self-recognition becomes increasingly sophisticated as children move from understanding that

they are physically distinct entities to understanding that others have minds distinct from their own. Numerical development requires a complex understanding of counting rules and the nature of precise quantities. This ability develops slowly and is easily disrupted. The ability to count doesn't appear in all cultures.

10.3c Describe how attitudes toward knowledge change during adolescence.

Adolescents are confronted with more adultlike opportunities and decisions that their brains aren't always prepared to handle. The adolescent brain has underdeveloped frontal lobes and immature patterns of connectivity between different brain systems.

10.4: The Developing Personality: Social and Moral Development

10.4a Describe how and when children establish emotional bonds with their caregivers.

Although infants may recognize and react positively to their caregivers, they don't develop a specific attachment bond until around eight months of age. The type of attachment that infants form with their caregivers varies depending on parental style and the infant's temperament.

10.4b explain the environmental and genetic influences on social behavior and social style in children.

Parenting style (permissive, authoritative, authoritarian, or uninvolved), family structure, and peers may all influence children's behaviors and emotional adjustment,

although their precise causal role is controversial. Aspects of children, such as temperament and self-control, also affect their long-term social development.

10.4c Determine how morality and identity develop during adolescence and emerging adulthood.

Children's initial concepts of morality are based largely on fear of punishment, but over time become more sophisticated and based on intentions rather than consequences. Getting a handle on identity is one of the challenges of adolescence.

10.4d Identify developmental changes during major life transitions in adults.

Major life transitions, including career changes, finding a romantic partner, and having children, can be stressful for adults. Nevertheless, contrary to the claims of popular psychology, midlife crises are relatively rare.

10.4e summarize different ways of conceptualizing old age.

Chronological age isn't a perfect predictor of physical, social, or cognitive ability in the elderly. Some aspects of cognitive and physical functions begin to decline as early as age 30. However, other cognitive abilities increase with age; how much we slow down depends on a host of factors, including our activity level.

11.1: Theories of Emotion: What Causes Our Feelings?

11.1a Describe the major theories of emotion.

According to discrete emotions theory, people experience a small number (perhaps seven) of distinct biologically influenced emotions. According to cognitive theories, including the James–Lange theory, emotions result from our interpretation of stimuli or our bodily reactions to them. According to the Cannon–Bard

theory, emotion-provoking events lead to both emotions and bodily reactions. Schachter and Singer's two-factor theory proposes that emotions are the explanations we attach to our general state of arousal following an emotion-provoking event.

11.1b Identify unconscious influences on emotion.

Many emotional experiences are generated automatically and operate unconsciously, as illustrated by research on the mere exposure effect and the facial feedback hypothesis.

11.2: Nonverbal Expression of Emotion: The Eyes, Bodies, and Cultures Have It

11.2a Explain the importance of nonverbal expression of emotion.

Much of emotional expression is nonverbal; gestures highlight speech (illustrators), involve touching our bodies (manipulators), or convey specific meanings (emblems). Nonverbal expressions are often more valid indicators of emotions than are words.

11.2b Identify major lie detection methods and their pitfalls.

The polygraph test measures physiological responses to questions designed to expose falsehoods. The Controlled Question Test (CQT) contains questions relevant and irrelevant to the crime and control questions that reflect presumed lies. Greater physiological reactivity in response to relevant questions supposedly suggests deception. Nevertheless, the CQT detects general arousal rather than guilt and results in numerous false-positives. False-negatives can result when individuals employ counter-measures (such as biting their tongue or curling their toes). The Guilty Knowledge Test (GKT) relies on the premise that criminals harbor concealed knowledge about the crime. The GKT has a low false-positive rate but a fairly high false-negative rate.

11.3: Happiness and Self-Esteem: Science Confronts Pop Psychology

11.3a Identify common myths and realities about happiness and self-esteem.

Myths: The prime determinant of happiness is what happens to us, money makes us happy, happiness declines in old age, and people on the West Coast are happiest.
Realities: Happiness is associated with being married, having a college education, and being religious; voting Republican; exercising; being thankful; and immersing ourselves in what we're doing ("flow"). We tend to overestimate the long-term impact of events on our happiness.
Myth: Low self-esteem is the root of all unhappiness.
Reality: Self-esteem is only modestly associated with mental health but is associated with greater initiative, persistence, and positive illusions—the tendency to perceive ourselves more favorably than others do.

11.3b Describe the emerging discipline of positive psychology.

Positive psychology emphasizes strengths, love, and happiness. Nevertheless, some critics have argued that positive psychology's "look on the bright side of life" approach

may have its downsides, in part because excessive happiness may sometimes be maladaptive.

11.4: Motivation: Our Wants and Needs

11.4a Explain basic principles and theories of motivation.

Motivation refers to the drives—especially our wants and needs—that propel us in specific directions. Drive reduction theory states that drives (such as hunger and thirst) pull us to act in certain ways. The Yerkes–Dodson law posits an inverted U-shaped relation between arousal and mood/performance. Approach and avoidance often drive conflict. According to incentive theories, positive goals are motivators. These motivators include primary (biological) and secondary (psychological desires/achievement, self-actualization) needs.

11.4b Describe the determinants of hunger, weight gain, and obesity.

The lateral hypothalamus has been called a “feeding center” and the ventromedial hypothalamus a “satiety center,” although these descriptions oversimplify scientific reality. Hunger is also associated with hormones (ghrelin), low glucose levels, neurotransmitters (leptin, serotonin), a genetically programmed set point for body fat and muscle mass, specific genes (melanocortin-4 receptor gene, leptin gene), and sensitivity to food cues and expectations.

11.4c Identify the symptoms of bulimia, binge eating disorder, and anorexia.

Bulimia nervosa is marked by recurrent binge eating, followed by attempts to minimize weight gain. In binge-eating disorder, bingeing is recurrent but purging is absent. Anorexia nervosa is characterized by a refusal to eat, resulting in a significantly low body weight expected for age and height.

11.4d Describe the human sexual response cycle and factors that influence sexual activity.

Masters and Johnson described four stages of the sexual response cycle: excitement, plateau, orgasm, and resolution. Frequency of sexual activity decreases with age, but sexual satisfaction doesn't. Expression of sexual desire is shaped by social norms and culture.

11.4e Identify common misconceptions about and potential influences on sexual orientation.

Common myths include the notions that gay individuals (a) typically adopt a masculine or feminine role, (b) are especially likely to sexually abuse children and adolescents, and (c) are usually inadequate parents. Potential influences on sexual orientation are an inherited tendency toward childhood gender nonconformity, sex hormones, prenatal influences, and brain differences.

11.5: Attraction, Love, and Hate: The Greatest Mysteries of Them All

11.5a Identify principles and factors that guide attraction and relationship formation.

Factors guiding attraction and relationship formation are proximity (physical closeness), similarity (like attracts like), reciprocity (give what we get), physical attractiveness (more important to men than to women), evolutionary influences, social roles, and preference for “average” faces.

11.5b Describe the major types of love and the elements of love and hate.

The major love types are passionate and companionate. According to Sternberg’s model of love, the major love elements are intimacy, passion, and commitment. The major hate elements are negation of intimacy, passion, and commitment.

12.1: What Is Stress?

12.1a Explain how stress is defined and approached in different ways.

Stress is a part of daily life. Most people experience one or more extremely stressful events in their lifetime. People experience stress when they feel physically threatened, unsafe, or unable to meet the perceived demands of life. Stress can be viewed as a stimulus, a response, or a transaction with the environment. Identifying specific categories of stressful events (unemployment, natural disasters) is the focus of the stressors as stimuli view of stress, whereas reactions to stressful events and their consequences are important in studying the response aspects of stress. The stress as a transaction view holds that the experience of stress depends on both primary appraisal (the decision regarding whether the event is harmful) and secondary appraisal (perceptions of our ability to cope with the event) of the potentially stressful event.

12.1b Identify different approaches to measuring stress.

Psychologists often assess life events that require major adaptations and adjustments, such as illness and unemployment. They also assess hassles—annoying, frustrating

daily events that may be more related to adverse psychological and health outcomes than major stressors. Interview-based methods provide a more in-depth picture of life stress than do questionnaires.

12.2: How We Adapt to Stress: Change and Challenge

12.2a Describe Selye's general adaptation syndrome.

The GAS consists of three stages: (1) alarm: the autonomic nervous system is activated; (2) resistance: adaptation and coping occurs; and (3) exhaustion: resources and coping abilities are depleted, which can damage organs and contribute to depression and posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD).

12.2b Describe the diversity of stress responses.

Our stress reactions vary from one stressor to another and may be shaped by gender. The tend-and-befriend response is more common in women than in men. In times of stress, women often rely more on their social contacts, nurture others, and befriend or turn to others for support. About 5 percent (men) to 10 percent (women) of people experience PTSD in the face of a potentially traumatic stressor. Yet as many as two-thirds of people are resilient in the face of powerful stressors.

12.3: Coping With Stress

12.3a Describe the role of social support and different types of control in coping with stress.

Social support and the following types of stress control are important: (1) behavioral control (taking action to reduce stress), (2) cognitive control (reappraising stressful events that can't be avoided), (3) decisional control (choosing among alternatives), (4) informational control (acquiring information about a stressor), and (5) emotional control (suppressing and expressing emotions at will). Flexible coping (adjusting coping strategies to specific situations) is also helpful.

12.3b Explain how our attitudes, beliefs, and personality may influence our responses to stress.

Hardy people view change as challenge, have a deep sense of commitment to their life and work, and believe they can control events. Optimism and spirituality boost stress resistance, whereas rumination is not an adaptive way of coping with stressful circumstances.

12.4: How Stress Impacts Our Health

12.4a Describe how the immune system is affected by stress.

The immune system is the body's defensive barrier against disease. Phagocytes and lymphocytes neutralize viruses and bacteria and produce proteins called antibodies that fight infection. Diseases of the immune system include AIDS and autoimmune diseases in which the immune system is overactive. Stress can decrease resistance to illness, delay healing, and impair the immune system.

12.4b Identify how physical disorders such as ulcers are related to stress.

Psychologists use the term *psychophysiological* to describe illnesses like ulcers in which emotions and stress contribute to, maintain, or aggravate physical conditions. Ulcers, which appear to be caused by the *H. pylori* bacterium and exacerbated by stress, can be understood in terms of a biopsychosocial perspective, which considers both physical and psychological factors.

12.4c Describe the role of personality, everyday experiences, and socioeconomic factors in coronary heart disease.

For many years, the Type A personality was thought to promote risk of CHD, but more recent work points to chronic hostility as a more central risk factor. Socioeconomic factors and everyday life experiences can set the stage for many physical problems, including coronary heart disease.

12.5: Promoting Good Health—and Less Stress!

12.5a Identify four behaviors that contribute to a healthy lifestyle.

Behaviors that can promote health include not smoking, curbing alcohol consumption, maintaining a healthy weight, and exercising.

12.5b Identify why it is difficult to change our lifestyle.

Reasons it's difficult to change our lifestyle include personal inertia, the tendency to misestimate risk, and feelings of powerlessness.

12.5c Describe different alternative and complementary medical approaches and compare their effectiveness with placebos.

Alternative medicine approaches include biologically based therapies (vitamins, herbs, and food supplements), manipulative and body-based methods (chiropractic medicine),

mind– body medicine (biofeedback, yoga, and meditation), energy medicine (acupuncture), and whole medical systems (homeopathy). Complementary medicine or integrative health medicine refers to products and practices that are used *together with* conventional medicine. Many alternative approaches are no more effective than placebos. Alternative medical products and procedures can become part of conventional medicine when demonstrated to be safe and effective.

Definitions

intelligence test

diagnostic tool designed to measure overall thinking ability

abstract thinking

capacity to understand hypothetical concepts

g (general intelligence)

hypothetical factor that accounts for overall differences in intellect among people

s (specific abilities)

particular ability level in a narrow domain

fluid intelligence

capacity to learn new ways of solving problems

crystallized intelligence

accumulated knowledge of the world acquired over time

multiple intelligences

idea that people vary markedly in their ability levels across different domains of intellectual skill

triarchic model

model of intelligence proposed by Robert Sternberg positing three distinct types of intelligence: analytical, practical, and creative

Stanford-Binet IQ test

intelligence test based on the measure developed by Binet and Simon, adapted by Lewis Terman of Stanford University

intelligence quotient (IQ)

systematic means of quantifying differences among people in their intelligence

mental age

age corresponding to the average individual's performance on an intelligence test

deviation IQ

expression of a person's IQ relative to his or her same-aged peers

eugenics

movement in the early 20th century to improve a population's genetic stock by encouraging those with good genes to reproduce, preventing those with bad genes from reproducing, or both

Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS)

most widely used intelligence test for adults today, consisting of 15 subtests to assess different types of mental abilities

culture-fair IQ test

abstract reasoning measure that doesn't depend on language and is often believed to be less influenced by cultural factors than other IQ tests are

bell curve

distribution of scores in which the bulk of the scores fall toward the middle, with progressively fewer scores toward the "tails" or extremes

intellectual disability

condition characterized by an onset before adulthood, an IQ below about 70, and an inability to engage in adequate daily functioning

Flynn effect

finding that states average IQ scores have been rising at a rate of approximately three points per decade

within-group heritability

extent to which the variability of a trait within a group is genetically influenced

between-group heritability

extent to which differences in a trait between groups is genetically influenced

test bias

tendency of a test to predict outcomes better in one group than in another

stereotype threat

fear that we may confirm a negative group stereotype

divergent thinking

capacity to generate many different solutions to a problem

convergent thinking

capacity to generate the single best solution to a problem

emotional intelligence

ability to understand our own emotions and those of others and to apply this information to our daily lives

ideological immune system

our psychological defenses against evidence that contradicts our views

wisdom

application of intelligence toward a common good

Chapter 10**developmental psychology**

study of how behavior changes over the life span

gene–environment interaction

situation in which the effects of genes depend on the environment in which they are expressed

nature via nurture

tendency of individuals with certain genetic predispositions to seek out and create environments that permit the expression of those predispositions

gene expression

activation or deactivation of genes by environmental experiences throughout development

cross-sectional design

research design that examines people of different ages at a single point in time

cohort effect

effect observed in a sample of participants that results from individuals in the sample growing up at the same time

longitudinal design

research design that examines development in the same group of people on multiple occasions over time

post hoc fallacy

false assumption that because one event occurred before another event it must have caused that event

prenatal

prior to birth

zygote

fertilized egg

blastocyst

ball of identical cells early in pregnancy that haven't yet begun to take on any specific function in a body part

embryo

second to eighth week of prenatal development, during which limbs, facial features, and major organs of the body take form

fetus

period of prenatal development from ninth week until birth after all major organs are established and physical maturation is the primary change

teratogen

an environmental factor that can exert a negative impact on prenatal development

fetal alcohol syndrome

condition resulting from high levels of prenatal alcohol exposure, causing learning disabilities, physical growth retardation, facial malformations, and behavioral disorders

motor behavior

bodily motion that occurs as a result of self-initiated force that moves the bones and muscles

adolescence

the transition between childhood and adulthood commonly associated with the teenage years

puberty

the achievement of sexual maturation resulting in the potential to reproduce

primary sex characteristic

a physical feature such as the reproductive organs and genitals that distinguish the sexes

secondary sex characteristic

a sex-differentiating characteristic that doesn't relate directly to reproduction, such as breast enlargement in women and deepening voices in men

menarche

start of menstruation

spermarche

boys' first ejaculation

menopause

the termination of menstruation, marking the end of a woman's reproductive potential

cognitive development

study of how children acquire the ability to learn, think, reason, communicate, and remember

assimilation

Piagetian process of absorbing new experience into current knowledge structures

accommodation

Piagetian process of altering a belief to make it more compatible with experience

scaffolding

Vygotskian learning mechanism in which parents provide initial assistance in children's learning but gradually remove structure as children become more competent

zone of proximal development

phase of learning during which children can benefit from instruction

theory of mind

ability to reason about what other people know or believe

stranger anxiety

a fear of strangers developing at eight or nine months of age

temperament

basic emotional style that appears early in development and is largely genetic in origin

attachment

the strong emotional connection we share with those to whom we feel closest

average expectable environment

environment that provides children with basic needs for affection and discipline

self-control

ability to inhibit an impulse to act

gender identity

individuals' sense of being male or female

gender role

a set of behaviors that tend to be associated with being male or female

identity

our sense of who we are, as well as our life goals and priorities

psychosocial crisis

dilemma concerning an individual's relations to other people

emerging adulthood

period of life between the ages of 18 and 25 when many aspects of emotional development, identity, and personality become solidified

midlife crisis

supposed phase of adulthood characterized by emotional distress about the aging process and an attempt to regain youth

empty-nest syndrome

alleged period of depression in mothers following the departure of their grown children from the home

Chapter 11

emotion

mental state or feeling associated with our evaluation of our experiences

discrete emotions theory

theory that humans experience a small number of distinct emotions that are rooted in their biology

primary emotions

small number (perhaps seven) of emotions believed by some theorists to be cross-culturally universal

display rules

cross-cultural guidelines for how and when to express emotions

cognitive theories of emotion

theories proposing that emotions are products of thinking

James–Lange theory of emotion

theory proposing that emotions result from our interpretations of our bodily reactions to stimuli

somatic marker theory

theory proposing that we use our “gut reactions” to help us determine how we should act

Cannon-Bard theory

theory proposing that an emotion-provoking event leads simultaneously to an emotion and to bodily reactions

two-factor theory

theory proposing that emotions are produced by an undifferentiated state of arousal along with an attribution (explanation) of that arousal

mere exposure effect

phenomenon in which repeated exposure to a stimulus makes us more likely to feel favorably toward it

facial feedback hypothesis

theory that blood vessels in the face feed back temperature information in the brain, altering our experience of emotions

nonverbal leakage

unconscious spillover of emotions into nonverbal behavior

proxemics

study of personal space

Pinocchio response

supposedly perfect physiological or behavioral indicator of lying

guilty knowledge test (GKT)

alternative to the polygraph test that relies on the premise that criminals harbor concealed knowledge about the crime that innocent people don't

integrity test

questionnaire that presumably assesses workers' tendency to steal or cheat

broaden and build theory

theory proposing that happiness predisposes us to think more openly

affective forecasting

ability to predict our own and others' happiness

durability bias

belief that both our good and bad moods will last longer than they do

hedonic treadmill

tendency for our moods to adapt to external circumstances

self-esteem

evaluation of our worth

narcissism

a personality trait marked by extreme self-centeredness

positive illusions

tendencies to perceive ourselves more favorably than others do

positive psychology

discipline that has sought to emphasize human strengths

defensive pessimism

strategy of anticipating failure and compensating for this expectation by mentally overpreparing for negative outcomes

motivation

psychological drives that propel us in a specific direction

drive reduction theory

theory proposing that certain drives, like hunger, thirst, and sexual frustration, motivate us to act in ways that minimize aversive states

homeostasis

equilibrium

Yerkes–Dodson law

inverted U-shaped relation between arousal on the one hand and mood and performance on the other

incentive theories

theories proposing that we're often motivated by positive goals

hierarchy of needs

model developed by Abraham Maslow proposing that we must satisfy physiological needs and needs for safety and security before progressing to more complex needs

glucostatic theory

theory that when our blood glucose levels drop, hunger creates a drive to eat to restore the proper level of glucose

leptin

hormone that signals the hypothalamus and brain stem to reduce appetite and increase the amount of energy used

set point

value that establishes a range of body and muscle mass we tend to maintain

internal–external theory

theory holding that obese people are motivated to eat more by external cues than internal cues

bulimia nervosa

eating disorder associated with a pattern of bingeing and purging in an effort to lose or maintain weight

anorexia nervosa

eating disorder associated with excessive weight loss and the irrational perception that one is overweight

excitement phase

phase in human sexual response in which people experience sexual pleasure and notice physiological changes associated with it

plateau phase

phase in human sexual response in which sexual tension builds

orgasm (climax) phase

phase in human sexual response marked by involuntary rhythmic contractions in the muscles of genitals in both men and women

resolution phase

phase in human sexual response following orgasm, in which people report relaxation and a sense of well-being

proximity

physical nearness, a predictor of attraction

similarity

extent to which we have things in common with others, a predictor of attraction

reciprocity

rule of give and take, a predictor of attraction

passionate love

love marked by powerful, even overwhelming, longing for one's partner

companionate love

love marked by a sense of deep friendship and fondness for one's partner

Chapter 12

stress

the tension, discomfort, or physical symptoms that arise when a situation, called a *stressor*—a type of stimulus—strains our ability to cope effectively

corticosteroid

stress hormone that activates the body and prepares us to respond to stressful circumstances

posttraumatic growth

the perception of beneficial change or personal transformation in the struggle to overcome adversity

primary appraisal

initial decision regarding whether an event is harmful

secondary appraisal

perceptions regarding our ability to cope with an event that follows primary appraisal

problem-focused coping

copied strategy by which we problem solve and tackle life's challenges head on

emotion-focused coping

copied strategy that features a positive outlook on feelings or situations accompanied by behaviors that reduce painful emotions

hassle

minor annoyance or nuisance that strains our ability to cope

general adaptation syndrome (GAS)

stress-response pattern proposed by Hans Selye that consists of three stages: alarm, resistance, and exhaustion

tend and befriend

reaction that mobilizes people to nurture (tend) or seek social support (befriend) under stress

social support

relationships with people groups, and the larger community that can provide us with emotional comfort and personal and financial resources

proactive coping

anticipation of problems and stressful situations that promotes effective coping

hardiness

set of attitudes marked by a sense of control over events, commitment to life and work, and courage and motivation to confront stressful events

spirituality

search for the sacred, which may or may not extend to belief in God

immune system

our body's defense system against invading bacteria, viruses, and other potentially illness-producing organisms and substances

psychoneuroimmunology

study of the relationship between the immune system and central nervous system

psychophysiological

a category of illnesses such as asthma and ulcers in which emotions and stress contribute to, maintain, or aggravate the physical condition

biopsychosocial perspective

the view that an illness or a medical condition is the product of the interplay of biological, psychological, and social factors

coronary heart disease (CHD)

damage to the heart from the complete or partial blockage of the arteries that provide oxygen to the heart

Type A personality

personality type that describes people who are competitive, driven, hostile, and ambitious

health psychology

field of psychology, also called *behavioral medicine*, that integrates the behavioral sciences with the practice of medicine

aerobic exercise

exercise that promotes the use of oxygen in the body

alternative medicine

healthcare practices and products used in place of conventional medicine

complementary medicine or integrative health medicine

healthcare practices and products used together with conventional medicine

biofeedback

feedback by a device that provides almost an immediate output of a biological function, such as heart rate or skin temperature

meditation

a variety of practices that train attention and awareness

yoga

physical, mental, and spiritual practices that include postures, meditation, breathing techniques, mental concentration, visualization or guided imagery, and relaxation exercises

acupuncture

ancient Chinese practice of inserting thin needles into one or more of 2,000 points in the body to alter energy forces believed to run through the body