

EXHAUSTIVE LIST OF PSYCH THEORIES for the MCAT

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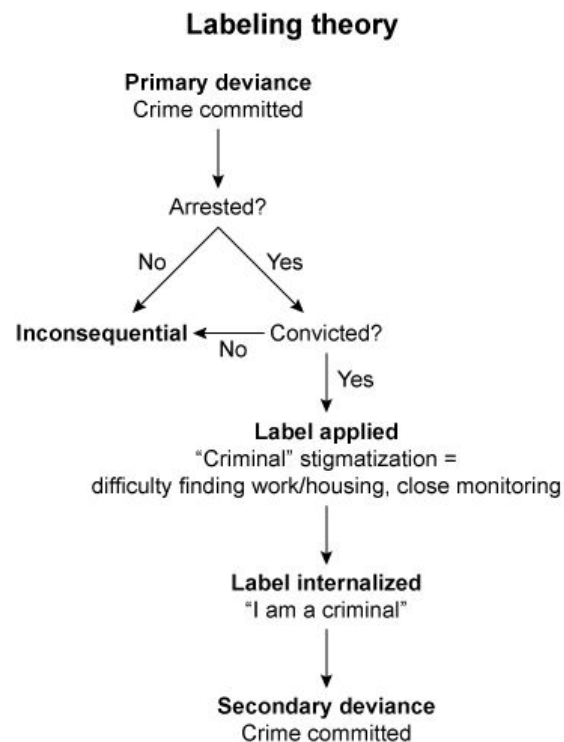
Deviance Theories	2
Theories of Emotion	4
Summary of The Theories of Emotion	5
Theories of Intelligence	6
Theories of Human Development	7
Summary of The Theories of Human Development	12
Psychoanalytic theories of personality	13
Humanistic theories of personality	18
Other Theories of Personality	22
Language Development Theories	26
Language & Cognition	28
Other Language/Visual/Sound Theories	29
Theories of Population/Globalization	32
Major Theoretical Approaches to Sociology	34
Summary of the Major Theoretical Approaches to Sociology	36
Remaining Theories	37

Deviance Theories

- **Labeling theory:** Labeling theory suggests that when someone is labeled as **deviant**, the act of **being labeled** produces **further deviance**. The initial act is called primary deviance and, if labeled, results in social stigma such as disapproval by others. Internalization of the deviant label leads to further acts of deviance called secondary deviance.

If an individual is convicted of a crime and is labeled a criminal, employment and housing become more difficult, and police are more likely to monitor the individual's activities. These obstacles facilitate the individual's internalization of the label "criminal," making it more likely that person will commit another crime and be caught again. Therefore, according to labeling theory, deviance is located in the response to actions (labeling and social stigma), not in the initial actions themselves.

TL;DR Labeling theory suggests that when individuals are assigned a "deviant" label by others in society, they are more likely to behave in deviant ways, therefore justifying the label.



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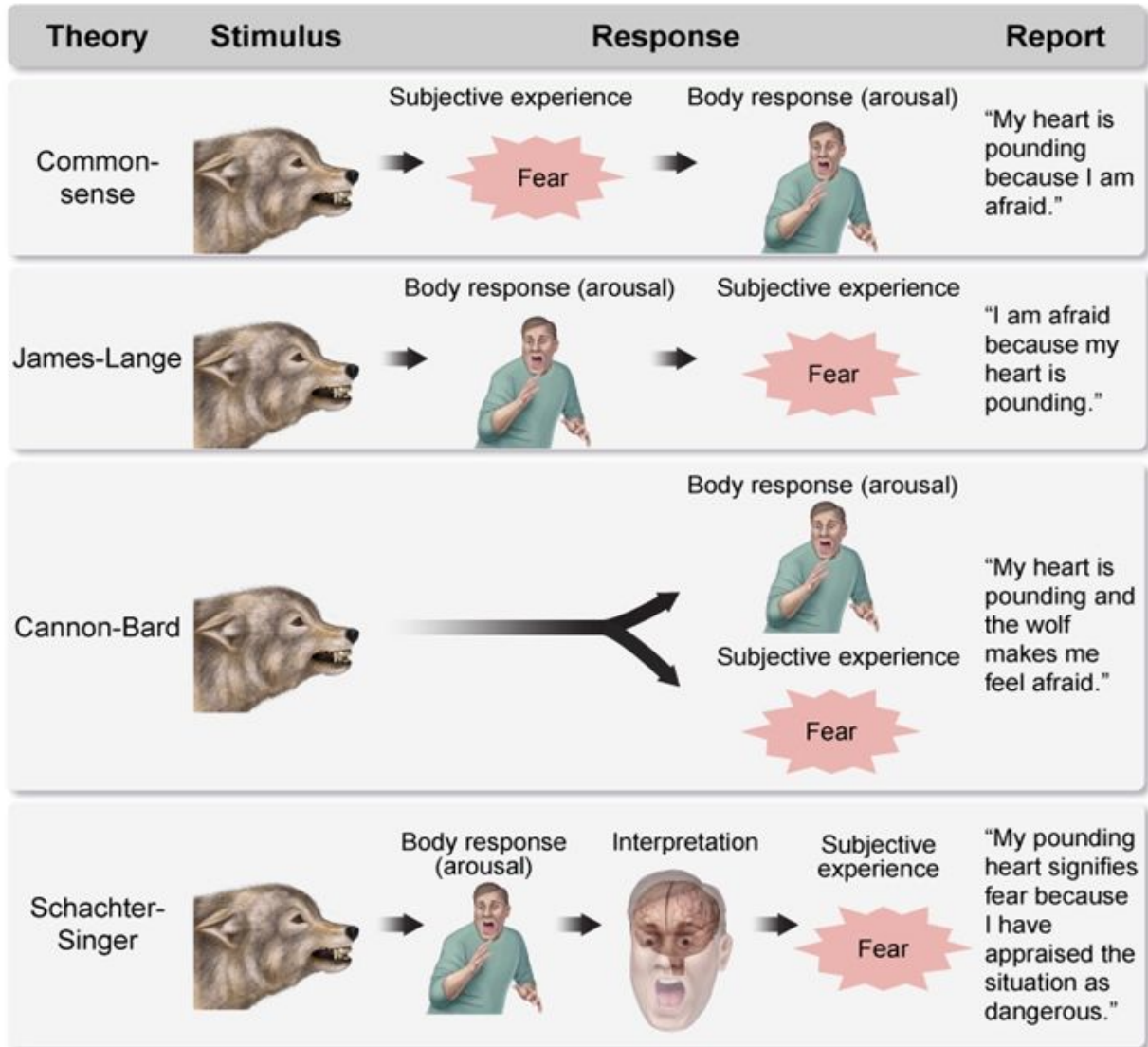
- **Differential association theory:** Differential association theory suggests deviance is learned through interaction. For example, someone goes to prison for drug possession and learns from incarcerated sellers how to efficiently sell drugs.
- **Strain theory:** Strain theory is a sociology and criminology theory developed in 1938 by Robert K. Merton. The theory states that society puts pressure on individuals to achieve socially accepted goals (such as the American dream) though they lack the means, this leads to strain which may lead the individuals to commit crimes.

Theories of Emotion

- **James-Lange theory:** According to the James-Lange theory of emotion, the sequence is reversed. This theory suggests that something (eg, dog) first causes a physiological response (eg, increased heart rate), which then causes the brain to register the associated emotion (eg, fear). In other words, *specific physiological reactions produce specific emotions*.
- **Cannon-Bard theory:** The Cannon-Bard theory of emotion suggests that physiological arousal and emotion are separate and independent and therefore occur simultaneously. For example, on seeing a wolf, an individual experiences physiological arousal (eg, increased heart rate) *at the same time* that the brain registers the emotion of fear.

Cannon and Bard conducted experiments on cats in which they severed the sympathetic afferent neurons to the brain and then exposed the cats to fear-inducing stimuli. If emotion is caused by physiological arousal (James-Lange theory), then the cats should not demonstrate fear without autonomic feedback from their bodies. Since they did demonstrate fear, Cannon and Bard theorized that the two responses occurred simultaneously and independently.
- **Schacter-Singer theory:** According to the Schachter-Singer theory, emotion is the result of physiological arousal *and* cognitive appraisal. Like the James-Lange theory, physiological arousal is experienced first. Unlike the James-Lange theory, environmental cues are then used to interpret this arousal to assign an appropriate emotion.
- **Cognitive Appraisal/Lazarus Theory:** According to the cognitive appraisal theory, evaluation of the situation (appraisal) precedes emotional and physiological reactions and determines what emotion will be experienced. If appraised as negative (eg, skiing is scary), the emotional response will be negative (eg, fear). If appraised as positive (eg, skiing is fun), the emotional response will be positive (eg, excitement).

Summary of The Theories of Emotion



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Theories of Intelligence

Intelligence is a mental quality that allows you to learn from experience, solve problems, and use your knowledge to adapt to new situations. Intelligence tests use numerical scores to measure aptitude for those tasks and compare them to how well others do.

- **Charles Spearman's Theory of General Intelligence:** this is the idea that there is only one general intelligence. Evidence comes from the fact that people who score well on one test also tend to score well on other types of test.
The factor that underlies these consistent abilities is called a **g factor**= general intelligence.
- **Theory of Primary Mental abilities:** This is a theory proposed by L.L. Thurstone, who believed that there were 7 factors of intelligence: word fluency, verbal comprehension, spatial reasoning, perceptual speed, numerical ability, inductive reasoning and memory.
- **Theory of Multiple Intelligence:** This is a theory proposed by Howard Gardner who expanded the ideas of what can be included in intelligence. Gardner took the 7 traits and divided them into 9 independent intelligences (they don't depend on each other and hence intelligence in 1 area does not predict intelligence in another).
- **Triarchic Theory of Intelligence:** This theory was proposed by Robert Sternberg and is based on the idea that there are 3 independent intelligences. This is based on real world success: analytical (problem solving ability), creative intelligence, and practical intelligence.

Theories of Human Development

- **Theory of Cognitive Development:**

Piaget's theory of cognitive development			
Age (years)	Stage	Description	Developmental hallmark
<2	<i>Sensorimotor</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Experiencing the environment via senses & actions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Object permanence • Stranger anxiety
~2-7	<i>Preoperational</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Representing real things with words & images 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pretend play • Egocentrism • Language development
~7-11	<i>Concrete operational</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Thinking logically about concrete events • Grasping concrete analogies • Performing arithmetic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conservation • Mathematical transformation
>12	<i>Formal operational</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Thinking about hypothetical scenarios • Grasping abstract thoughts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Abstract logic • Moral reasoning develops

During the sensorimotor stage (age ~0–2), infants explore the world using their senses (eg, touch) and motor movements (eg, grabbing). After obtaining the developmental milestone object permanence (awareness that something still exists even when out of view), a child will search for people or objects that are out of sight, such as a parent or a toy.

During the preoperational stage (age ~2–7), children engage in pretend play, and the ability to use language emerges. However, the child is unable to assume the point of view of another person (egocentrism). For example, when asked what his mom's favorite color is, a young boy will often report his own favorite color.

During the concrete operational stage (age ~7–11), children begin to think logically about concrete events. They are able to classify objects into categories; for example, a child understands that ambulances and fire engines are types of trucks. During this stage, children master the concept of conservation, which is the understanding that quantity remains the same despite changes in size or shape. For example, juice poured from a short, wide glass into a tall, thin glass is still the same amount of juice.

During the formal operations stage (~12+), children learn to think about abstract concepts and principles. For example, they are able to ponder hypothetical questions (eg, what would happen if I don't complete my homework?) and generate multiple possible outcomes (eg, my mom might be upset, I might get a bad grade).

- Theory of psychosexual development:** psychosexual development is a central element of the psychoanalytic sexual drive theory, that human beings, from birth, possess an instinctual libido (sexual energy) that develops in five stages. Each stage – the oral, the anal, the phallic, the latent, and the genital – is characterized by the erogenous zone that is the source of the libidinal drive. Sigmund Freud proposed that if the child experienced sexual frustration in relation to any psychosexual developmental stage, he or she would experience anxiety that would persist into adulthood as a neurosis, a functional mental disorder.

Stage	Age Range	Erogenous zone	Consequences of psychologic fixation
Oral	Birth–1 year	Mouth	Orally aggressive: chewing gum and the ends of pencils, etc. Orally passive: smoking, eating, kissing, oral sexual practices ^[4] Oral stage fixation might result in a passive, gullible, immature, manipulative personality.
Anal	1–3 years	Bowel and bladder elimination	Anal retentive : Obsessively organized, or excessively neat Anal expulsive : reckless, careless, defiant, disorganized, coprophiliac
Phallic	3–6 years	Genitalia	Oedipus complex (in boys and girls); according to Sigmund Freud. Electra complex (in girls); according to Carl Jung .
Latency	6–puberty	Dormant sexual feelings	Sexual unfulfillment if fixation occurs in this stage.
Genital	Puberty–death	Sexual interests mature	Frigidity, impotence, unsatisfactory relationships

- Theory of psychosocial development:** Erikson's stages of psychosocial development, as articulated by Erik Erikson, in collaboration with Joan Erikson, is a comprehensive psychoanalytic theory that identifies a series of eight stages, in which a healthy developing individual should pass through from infancy to late adulthood. All stages are present at birth, but only begin to unfold according to both a natural scheme and one's ecological and cultural upbringing. In each stage, the person confronts, and hopefully masters, new challenges. Each stage builds upon the successful completion of earlier stages. The challenges of stages not successfully completed may be expected to return as problems in the future.
 - Hope: Trust vs. Mistrust (oral-sensory, infancy, 0–2 years)
 - Will: Autonomy vs. Shame/Doubt (early childhood, 2–4 years)
 - Purpose: Initiative vs. Guilt (locomotor-genital, preschool, 4–5 years)
 - Competence: Industry vs. Inferiority (latency, school age, 5–12 years)
 - Fidelity: Identity vs. Role Confusion (adolescence, 13–19 years)
 - Love: Intimacy vs. Isolation (early adulthood, 20-39 years)
 - Care: Generativity vs. Stagnation (adulthood, 40–64 years)
 - Wisdom: ego integrity vs. despair (maturity, 65 – death)

Erikson's stages of psychosocial development			
Stage	~Age (years)	Conflict	Successful resolution
1. Infancy	0–1	Trust vs. mistrust	Ability to have faith in others
2. Early childhood	1–3	Autonomy vs. shame/doubt	Sense of self-control & independence
3. Play age	3–6	Initiative vs. guilt	Ability to take initiative with peers
4. School age	6–12	Industry vs. inferiority	Sense of confidence in skills & abilities
5. Adolescence	12–20	Identity vs. confusion	Sense of self-identity
6. Early adulthood	20–40	Intimacy vs. isolation	Ability to commit to & love others
7. Middle age	40–65	Generativity vs. stagnation	Concern for others & society
8. Old age	>65	Integrity vs. despair	Sense of accomplishment & fulfillment

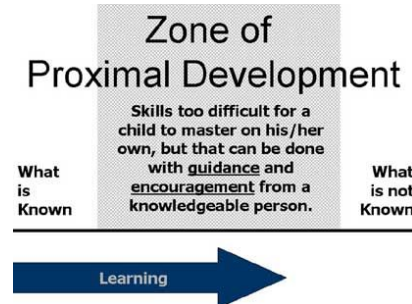
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- **Theory of Sociocultural Development:** This theory is proposed by Vygotsky who claimed that infants are born with the basic materials/abilities for intellectual development called **elementary mental functions**:
 - Attention
 - Sensation
 - Perception
 - Memory

Eventually, through interaction within the sociocultural environment, parents caregivers ect, these are developed into more sophisticated and effective mental processes/strategies which he refers to as **higher mental functions**.

These caregivers in the sociocultural environment are referred to as the **more knowledgeable other** and they have a higher understanding than the learner at whatever task is at hand. The combination of the more knowledgeable other + the learner is what results in higher mental functions.

Vygotsky defines another term in his theory called **the zone of proximal development**. This is defined as the area where the most sensitive instruction or guidance should be given - allowing the child to develop skills they will then use on their own - developing higher mental functions.



Mentioned further down, Vygotsky was a believer in the importance of Language. To Vygotsky language was the main means by which adults transmit information to children. He looked at something called **Private Speech** or Internal speech, which is when people talk aloud to themselves, a common characteristic in children. Vygotsky saw this as a way for children to plan activities and strategies, and aids to their development. Vygotsky proposed that private speech diminishes and disappears with age not because it becomes socialized, as Piaget suggested, but rather because it goes underground to constitute **inner speech** or verbal thought.

- **Theory of moral development:** Lawrence Kohlberg proposed a theory of moral development progressing through six stages in sequence, but did not assign age ranges to the stages. He also asserted that most adults do not progress past stage 3 or 4.
 - At the pre-conventional level, morality is controlled by outside forces: Individuals attempt to avoid punishment (stage 1) and try to maximize an exchange of favors with others (stage 2).
 - At the conventional level, morality is defined by existing social norms and values: Individuals want to be "good" and liked by others (stage 3) and obey laws (stage 4).
 - At the post-conventional level, morality is based on universal moral principles: Laws are viewed as flexible, considered in the context of helping the greatest number of people (stage 5), and justice and human dignity apply universally to all people (stage 6).

Kohlberg Stages of Moral Development			
Level	Defined by	Stage	Moral reasoning
Pre-conventional	<i>Direct consequences to the individual</i>	1. Obedience & punishment	• Avoiding punishment by authority <i>(eg, I'm not going to steal because I'll get spanked)</i>
		2. Self-interest	• Expecting equal exchange to further own self-interest <i>(eg, I'll help you if you help me)</i>
Conventional	<i>Society's norms & values</i>	3. Conformity & interpersonal accord	• Wanting to be "good" to secure the approval of others <i>(eg, I'll do my homework so the teacher likes me)</i>
		4. Law & order	• Obeying laws of society <i>(eg, I'm not going to speed because it's against the law)</i>
Post-conventional	<i>Own ethical principles</i>	5. Social contract	• Maximizing benefit for the largest number of people <i>(eg, It's okay to break a law if it saves a life)</i>
		6. Universal ethical principles	• Following own ethical principle of justice above all else <i>(eg, I take action against laws violating basic human rights)</i>

TL;DR Lawrence Kohlberg's theory of moral development proposes that humans progress through stages of moral and ethical reasoning throughout their lifetime, starting with basic moral reasoning during childhood and progressing to more abstract reasoning in adulthood.

Summary of The Theories of Human Development

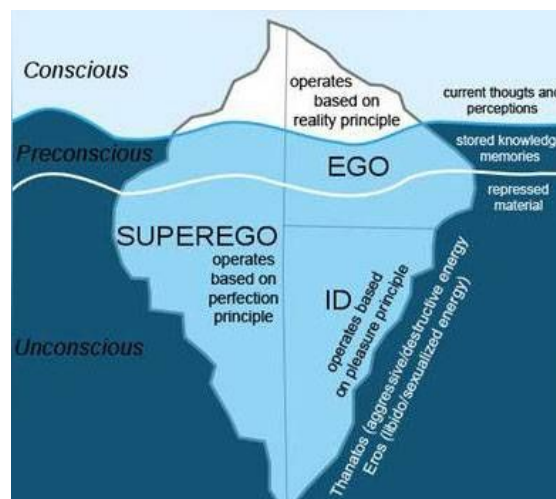
Major theories of human development			
Area	Theorist	Development theory	Major attributes
Personality	Sigmund Freud	Psychosexual	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Five psychosexual stages, focused on childhood • Unresolved childhood conflict impacts adult personality
	Erik Erikson	Psychosocial	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Eight psychosocial stages throughout life • Unresolved crisis at any age impacts adult personality
Cognition	Lev Vygotsky	Sociocultural cognitive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Child's cognitive development based on social interaction
	Jean Piaget	Cognitive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Four universal stages of childhood cognitive development • Cognitive development is based on age
Morality	Lawrence Kohlberg	Moral	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Six stages of lifespan moral development • Most individuals do not progress past stage 3 or 4

Psychoanalytic theories of personality

- Freud's theory of personality:** Freud's theories are based on the id (base urges of survival and reproduction), the superego (the idealist and perfectionist), and the ego (the mediator between the two and the conscious mind). The ego makes use of **defense mechanisms** to reduce stress caused by the urges of the id and the superego.

Mechanism	Description	Example
Repression	Repression is an unconscious mechanism employed by the ego to keep disturbing or threatening thoughts from becoming conscious.	During the Oedipus complex aggressive thoughts about the same sex parents are repressed
Denial	Denial involves blocking external events from awareness. If some situation is just too much to handle, the person just refuses to experience it.	For example, smokers may refuse to admit to themselves that smoking is bad for their health.
Projection	This involves individuals attributing their own unacceptable thoughts, feeling and motives to another person.	You might hate someone, but your superego tells you that such hatred is unacceptable. You can 'solve' the problem by believing that they hate you.
Displacement	Satisfying an impulse (e.g. aggression) with a substitute object.	Someone who is frustrated by his or her boss at work may go home and kick the dog,
Regression	This is a movement back in psychological time when one is faced with stress.	A child may begin to suck their thumb again or wet the bed when they need to spend some time in the hospital.
Sublimation	Satisfying an impulse (e.g. aggression) with a substitute object. In a socially acceptable way.	Sport is an example of putting our emotions (e.g. aggression) into something constructive.

According to Freud's model of the psyche, the id is the primitive and instinctual part of the mind that contains sexual and aggressive drives and hidden memories, the super-ego operates as a moral conscience, and the ego is the realistic part that mediates between the desires of the id and the super-ego. Although each part of the personality comprises unique features, they interact to form a whole, and each part makes a relative contribution to an individual's behavior.



- **Jung's theory of personality:** Carl Jung, was a follower of Freud and developed his own versions of psychoanalytic theory. Compared with Freud, he had more optimistic views of humanity and saw personality as being more changeable throughout the lifespan, rather than as determined only by early childhood experiences. Unlike Freud, he also saw people as motivated and influenced by a growth instinct, by a striving for superiority, or by social factors, rather than primarily by sensual urges.

Jung identified the ego as **the conscious mind**, and he divided the unconscious into two parts: the **personal unconscious**, similar to Freud's notion of the unconscious, and **the collective unconscious**. The collective unconscious is a powerful system that is shared among all humans and considered to be a residue of the experiences of our early ancestors. Its building blocks are images of common experiences, such as having a mother and a father. These images invariably have an emotional element, and are referred to as **archetypes** in Jung's theory. **The self**, to Jung, was the point of intersection between the collective unconscious, the personal unconscious, and the conscious mind.

KEY CONCEPT

Important Jungian archetypes:

- Persona—the aspect of our personality we present to the world
- Anima—a “man’s inner woman”
- Animus—a “woman’s inner man”
- Shadow—unpleasant and socially reprehensible thoughts, feelings, and actions in our consciousness

Jung described three dichotomies of personality:

- Extraversion (E, orientation toward the external world) vs. introversion (I, orientation toward the inner, personal world)
- Sensing (S, obtaining objective information about the world) vs. intuiting (N, working with information abstractly)
- Thinking (T, using logic and reason) vs. feeling (F, using a value system or personal beliefs)“

In most individuals, both sides of each dichotomy are present to some degree, but one tends to dominate. Jung's work laid the groundwork for creation of the Myers-Briggs Type Inventory (MBTI), a classic personality test. Each of Jung's three dichotomies, and a fourth—judging (J, preferring orderliness) vs. perceiving (P, preferring spontaneity)—is labeled as a specific personality type“

- **Adler's theory of personality:** Alfred Adler's theory focused on the immediate social imperatives of family and society and their effects on unconscious factors.

Adler was the originator of the concept of **the inferiority complex:** an individual's sense of incompleteness, imperfection, and inferiority both physically and socially. According to Adler, striving for superiority drives the personality. This striving enhances the personality when it is oriented toward benefiting society, but yields disorder when it is selfish.

The notions of the creative self and style of life were also important to Adler's theory. **The creative self** is the force by which each individual shapes his uniqueness and establishes his personality. **Style of life** represents the manifestation of the creative self and describes a person's unique way of achieving superiority. The family environment is crucial in molding the person's style of life.

Another important concept in Adler's theory of personality is **fictional finalism**. This is the notion that an individual is motivated more by his expectations of the future than by past experiences. According to Adler, human goals are based on the subjective or fictional estimate of life's values rather than objective data from the past. Fictional finalism can often be summed up by the phrase "Life would be perfect if only..."

Notice the difference between Freud, Jung, and Adler. Whereas Freud's major assumption is that behavior is motivated by inborn instincts and Jung's principle axiom is that a person's conduct is governed by inborn archetypes, Adler assumes that people are primarily motivated by striving for superiority.

- **Horney's theory of personality:** Karen Horney, another dissenting student of Freud's, likewise argued that personality is a result of interpersonal relationships, and adamantly disagreed with many of Freud's assumptions about women such as the concept of penis envy. Horney postulated that individuals with neurotic personalities are governed by one of ten neurotic needs. Each of these needs is directed toward making life and interactions bearable. Examples of these neurotic needs are the need for affection and approval, the need to exploit others, and the need for self-sufficiency and independence. While healthy people have these needs to some degree, Horney emphasized that these needs become problematic if they fit at least one of four criteria:
 - Disproportionate in intensity
 - Indiscriminate in application
 - Partially disregard reality
 - A tendency to provoke intense anxiety.

Horney's primary concept is that of basic anxiety. This is based on the premise that a child's early perception of the self is important and stems from a child's relationship with her parents. Inadequate parenting can cause vulnerability and helplessness, which Horney termed **basic anxiety**, while neglect and rejection cause anger known as basic hostility. To overcome basic anxiety or basic hostility and attain a degree of security, the child uses three strategies in her relationships with others:

- moving toward people to obtain the goodwill of people who provide security
- moving against people, or fighting them to obtain the upper hand
- moving away, or withdrawing, from people

These three strategies are the general headings under which the ten neurotic needs fall. Healthy people use all three strategies, depending on the situation. However, the highly threatened child will use one of these strategies rigidly and exclusively, and carries this strategy into adulthood.

- **Object relations theory:** Falls under the realm of psychodynamic theories of personality. In this context, *object* refers to the representation of parents or other caregivers based on subjective experiences during early infancy. These objects then persist into adulthood and impact our interactions with others, including the social bonds we create and our predictions of others' behavior.

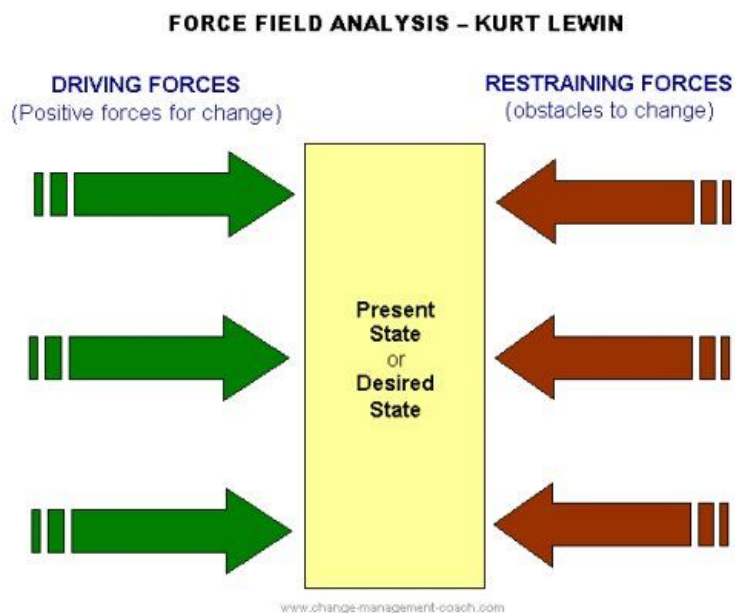
Humanistic theories of personality

The humanistic perspective emphasizes the internal feelings of healthy individuals as they strive toward happiness and self-realization. Maslow's hierarchy of needs and Rogers' therapeutic approach of unconditional positive regard flow from the humanistic view of personality.

- **Force field theory:** put very little stock in constraints on personalities such as fixed traits, habits, or structures such as the id, ego, and superego. Further, Lewin focused little on an individual's past or future, focusing instead on situations in the present. Lewin defined the field as one's current state of mind, which was simply the sum of the forces (influences) on the individual at that time. If the focus of humanistic psychology is exploring how an individual reaches self-realization, then these forces could be divided into two large groups: those assisting in our attainment of goals, and those blocking the path to them.

Kurt Lewin's force field analysis change model was designed to weigh the driving and restraining forces that affect change in organizations. The 'force field' can be described as two opposite forces working for and against change. The force field analysis is a method to:

- Investigate the balance of power
- Identify the key players involved in decision-making
- Identify who is for and who is against change
- Identify ways to influence those against change



- **Personal construct psychology:** George Kelly used himself as a model to theorize about human nature, and set aside the traditional concepts of motivation, unconscious emotion, and reinforcement in his descriptions of personal construct psychology. Kelly thought of the individual as a scientist, a person who devises and tests predictions about the behavior of significant people in her life. The individual constructs a scheme of anticipation of what others will do, based on her knowledge, perception, and relationships with these other people. Thus, the anxious person, rather than being the victim of inner conflicts and pent-up energy (as in psychodynamic theory), is one who is having difficulty constructing and understanding the variables in her environment. According to Kelly, psychotherapy is a process of insight whereby the individual acquires new constructs that will allow her to successfully predict troublesome events. Then, the individual will be able to integrate these new constructs into already existing ones.
- **Rogers's theory of personality:** Carl Rogers is most known for his psychotherapy technique known as **client-centered, person-centered, or nondirective therapy**. Rogers believed that people have the freedom to control their own behavior, and are neither slaves to the unconscious (as the psychoanalysts would suggest), nor subjects of faulty learning (as the behaviorists would say). Rather than providing solutions or diagnoses, the person-centered therapist helps the client reflect on problems, make choices, generate solutions, take positive action, and determine his own destiny. Rogers was the originator of the concepts of the real and ideal self discussed earlier in the chapter, and his therapeutic techniques aimed to help clients reconcile the differences between the various selves and reduce stress-inducing incongruence. Rogers also pioneered the concept of **unconditional positive regard**, a therapeutic technique by which the therapist accepts the client completely and expresses empathy in order to promote a positive therapeutic environment.



- **Type theories of personality/Trait theories of personality:** Type theorists attempt to create a taxonomy of personality types, while trait theorists prefer to describe individual personality as the sum of a person's characteristic behaviors.
 - The Following are examples of the above:
 - In the early 20th century, William Sheldon proposed personality types based on body type called **somatotypes**. Sheldon presumed that all short, stocky people were jolly, all tall people were high-strung and aloof, and people in between were strong and well-adjusted. One well-known type theory divides personalities into **Types A and B**. Individuals with Type A personalities are characterized by behavior that tends to be competitive and compulsive, while someone described as Type B is generally laid-back and relaxed. Not surprisingly, people with Type A personalities are more prone to heart disease than those with Type B personalities, although there is not much evidence to suggest that people with Type A personalities have a higher mortality rate.
 - **The Myers-Briggs Type Inventory**, described earlier, also stands as a well-known example of a type theory.
 - Hans and Sybil Eysenck (Trait Theorist) used factor analysis to group behaviors that typically occur together and assigned labels to those groups. For example, people who are more reserved and less outspoken in groups also tend to enjoy solitary activities and avoid overstimulation. These behaviors fall under the label of introversion. The Eysencks described three traits in the PEN model.
 - Psychoticism is a measure of nonconformity or social deviance.
 - Extraversion is a measure of tolerance for social interaction and stimulation.
 - Neuroticism is a measure of emotional arousal in stressful situations.

The Eysencks reasoned that people could be distinguished from one another based on where they fell in each of these three dimensions. More recently, the PEN theory has been expanded to what is known as the Big Five which, as the name would suggest, uses dimensions of five traits: openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. **OCEAN!!!**
 - Gordon Allport, primarily a trait theorist, listed three basic types of traits or dispositions:
 - cardinal, central, and secondary.
 - Cardinal traits are traits around which a person organizes her life. While not everyone develops a cardinal trait, everyone does have central and secondary traits.

- Central traits represent major characteristics of the personality that are easy to infer, such as honesty or charisma.
- Secondary traits are other personal characteristics that are more limited in occurrence: aspects of one's personality that only appear in close groups or specific social situations.

A major part of Allport's theory is the concept of functional autonomy, in which a behavior continues despite satisfaction of the drive that originally created the behavior. A hunter, for example, may have originally hunted to obtain food to eat. However, the hunter may continue even after there is enough food simply for the enjoyment of the hunt: that which began as a means to obtain a goal became the goal itself.

- David McClelland identified a personality trait that is referred to as the need for achievement (N-Ach). People who are rated high in N-Ach tend to be concerned with achievement and have pride in their accomplishments. These individuals avoid high risks (to avoid failing) and low risks (because easy tasks will not generate a sense of achievement). Additionally, they set realistic goals, and stop striving toward a goal if success is unlikely.

Other Theories of Personality

- **Behaviorist theories of personality:** Behaviorism is a theory in psychology that focuses on the role the environment plays in shaping human behavior. Specifically, behaviorism focuses on how **reinforcement and punishment** shape human behavior.

The behaviorist perspective, championed by B.F. Skinner, is based heavily on the concepts of operant conditioning, it holds that personality can be described as the behaviors one has learned from prior rewards and punishments.

Skinner reasoned that personality is simply a reflection of behaviors that have been reinforced over time. Therapy, then, should focus on learning skills and changing behaviors through operant conditioning techniques. Token economies, for example, are often used in inpatient therapeutic settings: positive behavior is rewarded with tokens that can be exchanged for privileges, treats, or other reinforcers.

- **Social cognitive theories of personality:** The social cognitive perspective takes behaviorism one step further, focusing not just on how our environment influences our behavior, but also on how we interact with that environment. Albert Bandura's concept of reciprocal determinism is a central idea to this perspective. See below.
- **Reciprocal determinism:** Reciprocal determinism refers to the idea that our thoughts, feelings, behaviors, and environment all interact with each other to determine our actions in a given situation. People choose environments that suit their personalities, and their personalities determine how they will feel about and react to events in those environments.
- **Biological theories of personality:** In psychology, the biological perspective seeks to explain human behavior through understanding physical and physiological causes. This perspective suggests that human behavior and mental illness can be explained by examining the structure and function of the brain. For example, a proponent of this perspective would suggest that the impulsive behavior of teenagers is the result of an immature prefrontal cortex.

- The Identity Development Theory:** The identity development theory by James Marcia evaluates the psychological progress of individuals based on their level of commitment and degree of exploration, yielding four identity statuses.
 - Identity diffusion (low commitment, low exploration): People at this level lack direction, have not explored options, and have not committed to a particular career path or future.
 - Identity foreclosure (high commitment, low exploration): People at this level have accepted an identity that they have been assigned (typically by a parent or authority figure) without contemplation or exploration.
 - Identity moratorium (low commitment, high exploration): People at this level are still trying new activities and thinking about a career path, but have not yet arrived at a decision.
 - Identity achievement (high commitment, high exploration): People at this level have explored their options and typically feel confident about who they are and what they want to do in the future.

		Exploration	
		Low	High
Commitment	High	Foreclosure: "I've made a choice without thinking"	Identity Achievement: "I thought about it and I now know what I should do with my life."
	Low	Identity Diffusion: I don't know and I don't care what I'm supposed to do with my life.	Moratorium: "I'm thinking about what I should do"

- **Theory of the Social Self:**

Theory of the social self: George Herbert Mead

Stage	Age	Learning process	Developing self
Preparatory	Infancy, toddler	Imitation: often lacks understanding	
Play	Preschool age	Role-taking: taking on role of specific others	
Game	School age	Generalized other: understanding all roles & overarching rules	

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George Herbert Mead, who is most associated with the sociological theory of symbolic interactionism, argued that social (rather than biological) factors influence identity formation. Mead suggested that the experience of "self" emerges through social interaction with others who play important and formative roles in one's life (eg, family). The two aspects of the self are the "I" and "me," which develop in stages:

- Preparatory (or imitation): Babies/toddlers imitate others (eg, a parent's hand gesture) and begin using symbols and language (eg, repeating a phrase used by a parent) without meaning comprehension. At this stage, children have no sense of "self" as separate from the world around them.
- Play: Through play (eg, pretending to be a doctor), preschool-age children begin role-taking (ie, understanding the perspectives of others). When children understand themselves as individuals separate from others, the "I" component of the self has developed. Children then begin to imagine how others perceive them, which is the beginning of the development of the "me."
- Game: School-age children become aware of their position/role in relation to others. They begin to see themselves from the perspective of the more abstract generalized other, further developing the "me" to incorporate the values and rules of the society in which they live.

TL;DR George Herbert Mead proposed that identity formation is the result of social interactions, particularly with significant others, early in life. During the preparatory stage, babies/toddlers imitate others without comprehension. During the play stage, children begin understanding the perspectives of specific others (role-taking). During the game stage, children begin understanding the perspectives of others in society (generalized other) and social interaction rules.

- **The Dramaturgical Theory:**

Dramaturgical approach to understanding behavior
Front-stage self
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Behavior in social situations • "Actor" performs based on expectations of the "audience" • Impression management: meant to shape perceptions of others • Focus on appearance, manners & social status
Back-stage self
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Behavior in private • "Actor" can relax & no longer needs to perform • Behavior is spontaneous & free from evaluation or judgment by others

The dramaturgical approach is a sociological theory suggesting that individual behavior can be explained using a theater metaphor. According to this theory, individuals behave as "actors" in front of others, the "audience."

The front-stage self involves impression management, which is the process of attempting to influence how one is perceived by others. For example, wearing a white coat and speaking with a soothing tone are ways a doctor uses front-stage behavior to manage the impression her patients have of her.

The back-stage self involves behaviors that occur in private or informal settings, when an individual is completely comfortable and has no fear of criticism. For example, that same doctor might curse about one of her patients when she is out of earshot or is at home with her partner.

TL;DR According to the dramaturgical approach, front-stage behavior is similar to acting on a stage for an audience. It involves impression management (behaviors to shape how others perceive one) and presenting the most favorable image of oneself in front of others. Back-stage behaviors are those done in private or informal settings, without fear of criticism.

Self-discrepancy theory: The self-discrepancy theory states that people compare themselves to internalized standards called "self-guides". These different representations of the self can be contradictory and result in emotional discomfort. Self-discrepancy is the gap between two of these self-representations.

Language Development Theories

There are several language development theories; some stress the importance of reinforcement and imitation (eg, learning perspective), whereas others suggest that language acquisition is innate (eg, nativist perspective).

Theory	Language acquisition
Learning perspective	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learned via: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Operant conditioning ◦ Language imitation & practice
Nativist perspective	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Innate & biologically predetermined ◦ Occurs during a <i>critical (time-sensitive) period</i> early in life
Interactionist perspective	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Biological (due to normal brain development) <p style="text-align: center;">AND</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social (due to interaction, reinforcement, desire/motivation to communicate)

- **Nativist Hypothesis:** Proposed by Noam Chomsky, the nativist hypothesis states that language is not learned the way other skills/behaviors are learned but is rather an innate process hardwired in the brain. It is proposed that there is a Language Acquisition Device (LAD) that allowed children to learn language as well as a shared grammar structure in all languages that made acquisition possible. As long as humans are exposed to language during a *critical (time-sensitive) period* in early life, language development is biologically predetermined.
- **Interactionist approach:** The interactionist theory proposes that language acquisition is the result of both biological (eg, normal brain development) and environmental/social factors, particularly the interaction that occurs between children and their caregivers.

The interactionist theory is supported by evidence that certain aspects of language appear to be innate whereas others appear to be social. Children typically learn to communicate with language along a similar timeline (eg, first words around age 1, simple two-word phrases by age 2, etc), which provides evidence that some aspects of language acquisition are innate. However, children who are severely neglected (ie, almost no social contact) do not learn to communicate using language, which provides **evidence that language acquisition also requires social interaction.**

(KA 300) Sometimes called social interactionist approach. Believe biological and

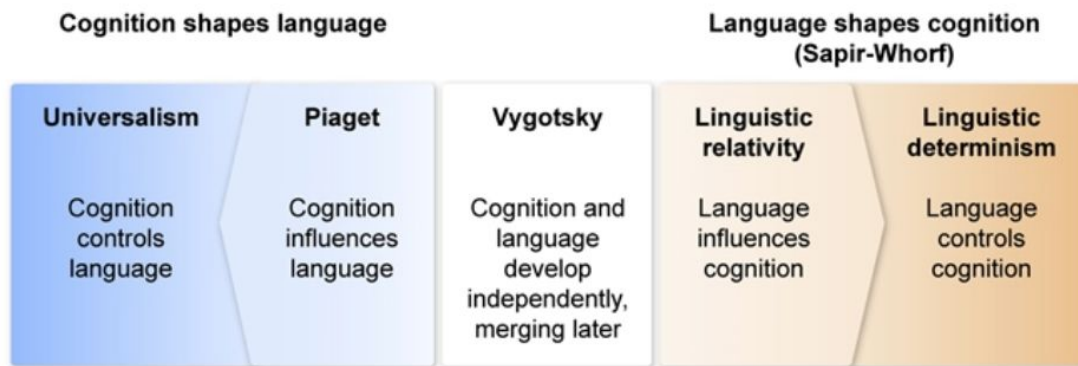
social factors have to interact in order for children to learn language. Children's desire to communicate with others – such as adults in their life, makes them motivated to learn language. Associated with Vygotsky.

- **Learning (Behaviorist) theory:** The linguistic relativity theory (ie, the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis) proposes that cognition is influenced and/or shaped by language; in its stronger version, this perspective would suggest that children are unable to think about concepts for which they have not yet learned the words.

(KA 300) children aren't born with anything, they only acquire language through operant conditioning. Child learns to say "mama" because every time they say that, mom reinforces child. But doesn't explain how they can produce words they've never heard before or unique sentences. Associated with BF Skinner. Language is learned.

Language & Cognition

Language & cognition: major theories & theorists



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Cognition refers to thought-related mental processes (eg, thinking, planning, reasoning) and is believed to be linked to language. There are several major theories that deal with the relationship between language and cognition:

- Cognition shapes language: These theories assert that cognition either completely controls language (universalism perspective) or just influences language (Piagetian perspective).
- Language shapes cognition (also known as the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis): These theories suggest that language either just influences cognition (linguistic relativity perspective) or completely controls cognition (linguistic determinism perspective).
- Language and thought develop independently and simultaneously: Vygotsky suggested that social interaction precedes and is necessary for *both* cognition and language development, which are initially separate but then later merge to generate inner speech (verbal thought).

TL;DR: There are several theories regarding the relationship between cognition and language. Some assert that cognition either controls language (universalism) or merely influences it (Piagetism). Others (based on the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis) assert that language either controls cognition (linguistic determinism) or merely influences it (linguistic relativity). Still others suggest that cognition and language initially develop separately but merge later (Vygotsky).

Other Language/Visual/Sound Theories

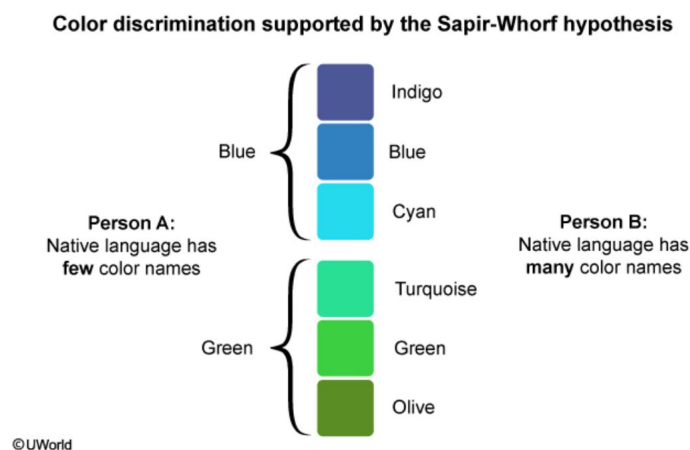
- **Linguistic determinism:** States that language control perception and cognition. For example, if a person's native language does not have separate names for blue and indigo, linguistic determinism predicts that this person *would not be able to perceive these two colors as distinct*.

- **Weak Linguistic Determinism: (relativism)(KA 300)** language influences thought. It makes it easier/more common for us to think in certain ways based on how our language is structured. Linguistic Relativism - There are differences in language between cultures

Example: The girl pushes the boy. If you imagine that statement with girl on the left, your native language probably reads from left to right like English. If you drew it with the girl on the right, your native language probably reads right to left like Hebrew. Right to left vs. left to right language influences what direction you imagine girl pushing boy.

Weak linguistic determinism believes that linguistic structure influences but does not determine the context of everyday encounters.

- **Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis:**



The Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, also known as linguistic relativity, posits that language influences our perception and cognition. For example, if a person's native language does not have separate names for the colors blue and indigo (instead referring to both as "blue"), that person may have difficulty *discriminating* blue from indigo in

isolation but could learn to differentiate them with practice.

TL;DR: The Sapir-Whorf hypothesis (linguistic relativity) states that language influences/shapes cognition and perception. A stronger version of the hypothesis (linguistic determinism) states that language controls/limits cognition and perception.

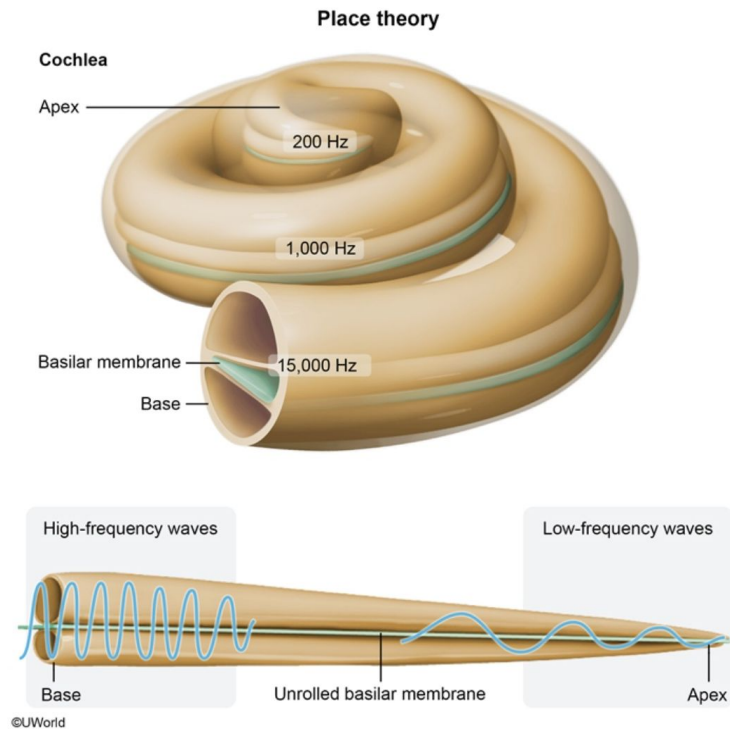
- **Young-Helmholtz Theory (the trichromatic theory of color vision):**The Young-Helmholtz theory, also known as the trichromatic theory, states that all the colors we see are the result of the combined activity of three types of photoreceptors: Those that respond to short (blue), medium (green), and long (red) wavelengths of light.

- **Opponent-process theory:** The opponent-process theory states that color information from cones is combined in such a way that we perceive three opposing pairs of colors: black/white, blue/yellow, and red/green. No two members of a pair are seen simultaneously, which is why we do not see colors such as "reddish green" or "bluish yellow."

ALSO Richard Solomon developed a motivational theory based on opponent processes. Basically he states that every process that has an affective balance, (i.e. is pleasant or unpleasant), is followed by a secondary, "opponent process". This opponent process sets in after the primary process is quieted. With repeated exposure, the primary process becomes weaker while the opponent process is strengthened.

According to opponent-process theory, drug addiction is the result of an emotional pairing of pleasure and the emotional symptoms associated with withdrawal. At the beginning of drug or any substance use, there are high levels of pleasure and low levels of withdrawal. Over time, however, as the levels of pleasure from using the drug decrease, the levels of withdrawal symptoms increase, thus providing motivation to keep using the drug despite a lack of pleasure from it.

- **Place Theory:** Explains the perception of sound pitch (how high or low a tone is). Inside the cochlea, specific sound wavelengths generate basilar membrane vibrations at specific loci. Each locus (place) corresponds to a slightly different frequency. Hair cells located at the base of the basilar membrane are activated by high frequency sounds, and hair cells located at the apex of the basilar membrane are activated by low frequency sounds.



Theories of Population/Globalization

- **World Systems Theory: Globalization** is defined in sociology as the process by which tangibles (eg, products) and intangibles (eg, values, ideas) **spread across the world**, primarily as a result of advances in **technology** and **communication**. Globalization has produced a world society with a shared global culture.

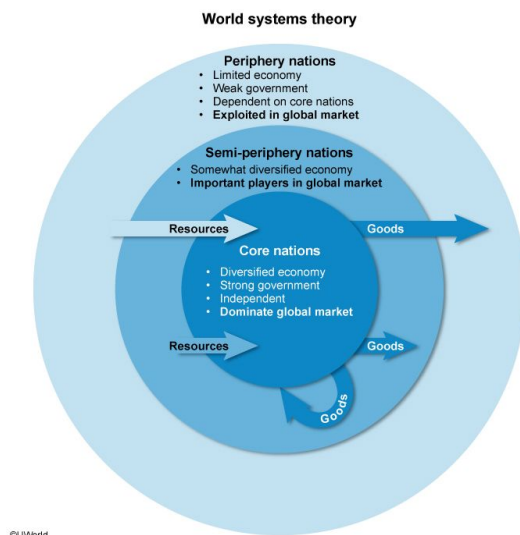
World systems theory is an economic theory of globalization that views the world as a **global economy** where some countries benefit at the expense of others:

Core nations are wealthy with strong, diversified economies and centralized governments. Core nations (eg, United States, Western European countries) take resources from (exploit) poorer countries and lead the global economic market through the export of goods around the world.

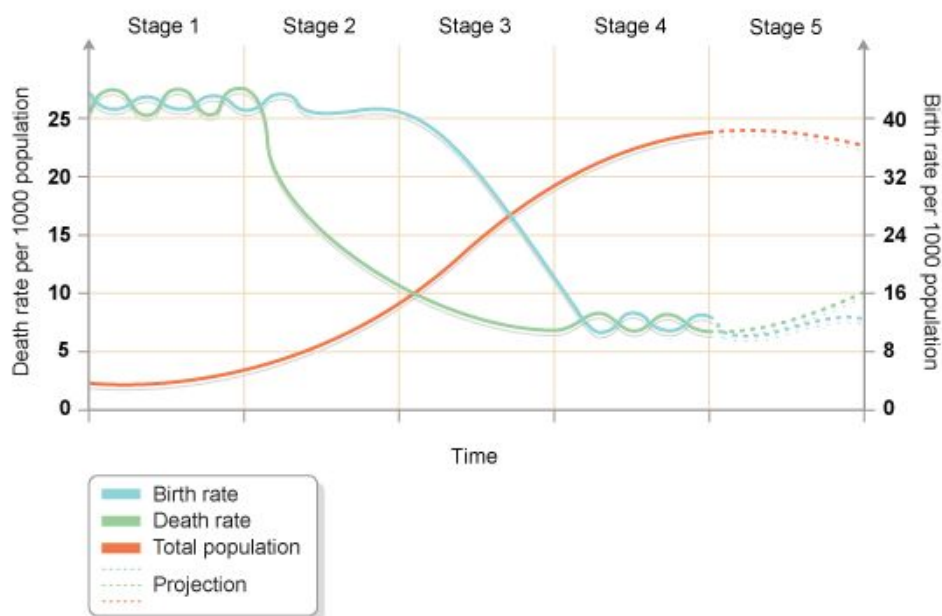
Periphery nations are poor and have weak governments and economies. Periphery nations (eg, Latin American, African countries) rely on the export of their resources (eg, oil, coffee, labor) to wealthier countries, making them dependent on (and exploited by) core nations.

Semi-periphery nations (eg, India, Brazil) are between core and periphery nations, with economies that are relatively more diversified than those of periphery nations.

TL:DR Globalization is the process by which tangible products and intangible ideas/values spread across the world as a result of advances in technology and communication. An economic theory of globalization, world systems theory suggests the global economy is led by core nations that benefit at the expense of periphery nations.



- **The Malthusian theory of population growth:** suggests that human populations increase exponentially but the resources needed to sustain those populations (eg, food) increase much more slowly, resulting in preventive checks that voluntarily decrease the birth rate and positive checks that involuntarily increase the death rate in society.
- **Demographic Transition Model:** suggests human populations stabilize as society progresses into a more industrialized economy due to advancements in medicine.
 - 1) Death rates & birth rates high
 - 2) Death rates low & birth rates high
 - 3) Death rates low & birth rates low



According to the demographic transition model, a society's transition from high birth and death rates to low birth and death rates typically occurs in the following stages:

- Stage 1: In preindustrial societies, birth and death rates are both high and population growth is slow.
- Stage 2: As societies begin to industrialize, death rates drop as food/medicine availability and sanitation increase, and population growth is rapid.
- Stage 3: As societies urbanize, the population continues to grow, but birth rates begin to decline as access to contraception increases.
- Stage 4: In developed societies, birth and death rates are both low and population growth is slow.

- Stage 5: For highly developed societies with very low birth rates, the population may decline.

Major Theoretical Approaches to Sociology

- **Structural Functionalism Theory:** Structural functionalism is a macro-level (large-scale) sociological perspective that compares modern society to a biological organism. This theory proposes that as the various organ systems cooperate to maintain an organism's homeostasis, social institutions work together in the interest of societal balance, known as dynamic equilibrium.

From the structural functionalist perspective, social institutions have manifest functions, which are expected, and latent functions, which are unintended. For example, the higher education system is meant to teach students the skills necessary to become functioning citizens in society (eg, manifest function), but many students also end up meeting potential romantic partners in college (eg, latent function).

TL;DR Structural functionalism is a macro-level (large-scale) sociological perspective suggesting that all aspects of society work together to maintain dynamic equilibrium (societal balance). Structural functionalism is not concerned with micro-level (small-scale) interactions between individuals.

Functionalism: Manifest vs. latent functions	
Manifest functions	Latent functions
Intended, obvious purpose of a social structure <i>(eg, Teaching facts and skills is a manifest function of the education system)</i>	Unintended result of a social structure <i>(eg, Contributing to social inequality is a latent function of the education system)</i>

- **Conflict Theory:** Conflict theory, a macro-level (large-scale) sociological perspective, is concerned with the class conflict that arises when resources (eg, wealth, power) are unevenly distributed across social groups (eg, rich vs. poor). Conflict theory suggests that laws are created to serve those in power and maintain their privilege. Individuals engage in deviance as political protest against inequalities.
- **Social Constructionism Theory: Social constructionism** is a sociological theory suggesting that "reality" is created through interactions, resulting in **agreed-on, shared meanings**. Objects (eg, money), behaviors (eg, handshaking), and categories (eg, gender) have meaning only because individuals in society have

agreed on that meaning. For example, money has value in society only because everyone has *agreed that it has value*, thereby making money a **social construct**.
TL;DR Social constructionism refers to the agreements made by members of a society as to what is real or has value (eg, money has socially constructed value).

- **Symbolic Interactionism Theory:** Symbolic interactionism is a microsociological perspective concerned with the interpersonal interactions through which people develop subjective meanings shaping social reality. Subjective meanings differ by context and culture (eg, handshaking in the United States vs bowing in Japan) and can change over time.

In symbolic interactionism, the definition of the situation describes how shared expectations for behavior help people understand the roles of everyone involved in an interaction. For example, patients expect doctors to behave professionally and maintain confidentiality.

TL;DR Symbolic interactionism is a micro-level sociological theory that suggests that people communicate using symbols (eg, hand gestures).

- **Rational Choice/Social Exchange:** According to **rational choice theory**, people are **rational decision makers** who behave in ways that maximize gain and minimize loss. For example, a smoker will weigh the costs and benefits of quitting before deciding to act or For example, an individual weighs the benefits of acting deviant against the likelihood of getting caught (cost) before acting.

Social exchange theory suggests that individual interactions (social exchanges) are based on decisions regarding the costs and benefits accrued to each person in the relationship. For example, the costs include the time, effort, and even money required to be in the relationship. The benefits may include acceptance, friendship, and intimacy.

- **Feminist Theory:** In sociology, feminist theory primarily attempts to explain differences in power between men and women in society, known as gender inequality. Feminist theory includes both macro- and micro-level approaches. At the macro level, feminism considers how *social structures* maintain gender inequality. For example, institutionalized gender discrimination results in under-representation of women in certain fields such as surgery and engineering. At the micro-level, feminism considers how *one-on-one interactions* also maintain gender inequality by objectifying or devaluing women. For example, a male patient assumes that a female surgeon is a nurse.

TL;DR Feminist theory is a macro- and micro-level sociological perspective that attempts to explain the differences in power between men and women (gender inequality). It studies the discrimination, oppression, and objectification of women through both small-scale (one-on-one) interactions and large-scale social processes.

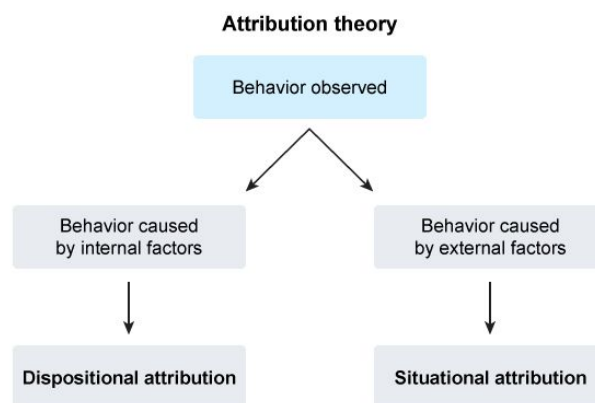
Summary of the Major Theoretical Approaches to Sociology

Major theoretical approaches to sociology			
Theory	Description	Perspective	Theorists
Functionalism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Society = an organism • Each part of society works to maintain dynamic equilibrium (homeostasis) 	Macro	Émile Durkheim, Talcott Parsons
Conflict	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Society = struggle for limited resources • Inequality based on social class 	Macro	Karl Marx, Max Weber
Social constructionism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social actors define what is real • Knowledge about world based on interactions 	Macro or micro	(Not critical for exam)
Symbolic interactionism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Meaning & value attached to symbols • Individual interactions based on these symbols 	Micro	Charles Cooley, George Herbert Mead
Rational choice/social exchange	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Individual behaviors & interactions attempt to maximize personal gain & minimize personal cost 	Micro	(Not critical for exam)
Feminism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Examines gender inequality in society 	Macro or micro	(Not critical for exam)

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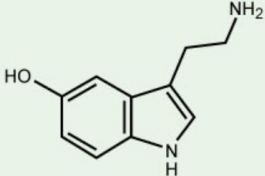
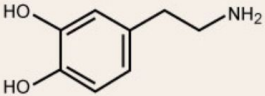
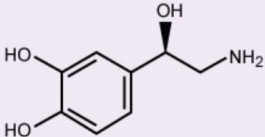
Remaining Theories

- **Attribution Theory:** Attribution theory suggests that individuals tend to explain behavior (their own or that of others) as resulting from internal or external causes. Internal (dispositional) attributions ascribe behavior to personal factors, such as personality, ability, or attitude. External (situational) attributions ascribe behavior to environmental factors, such as task difficulty, presence of others, or luck. Dispositional attributions assume that behavior is caused by personal traits such as temperament or intelligence.



Fundamental Attribution error occurs when we attribute negative things as situational for ourselves, but when it's for others it is dispositional. On the other hand, when it is positive we attribute it as dispositional for ourselves and situational for others.

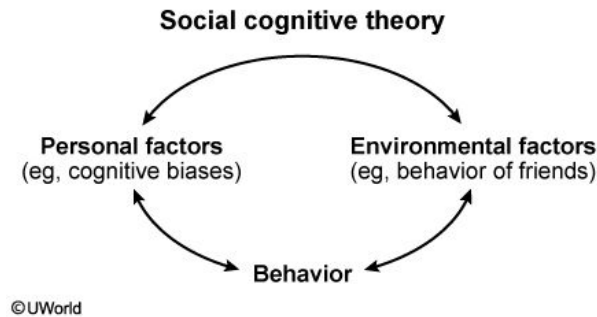
The monoamine hypothesis or Catecholamine theory of depression: is a biomedical model of depression. Central to this hypothesis is the idea that depletion of monoamine neurotransmitters in the central nervous system directly causes depression symptoms. The monoamines (serotonin, norepinephrine, and dopamine) are neurotransmitters that have a single amine group in their molecular structure and are associated with emotion regulation.

Monoamine	Structure	Associated functions
Serotonin		Positive mood Satisfaction Social dominance
Dopamine		Pleasure Reward
Norepinephrine		Alertness Attention Memory formation

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Serotonin is associated with a positive mood, feelings of satisfaction, and social dominance. In the central nervous system, norepinephrine enhances alertness, attention, and memory formation. Dopamine is associated with feelings of pleasure and reward. Support for the monoamine hypothesis comes from evidence that taking antidepressant medications that increase the levels of some or all of these neurotransmitters alleviates depression symptoms for many individuals.

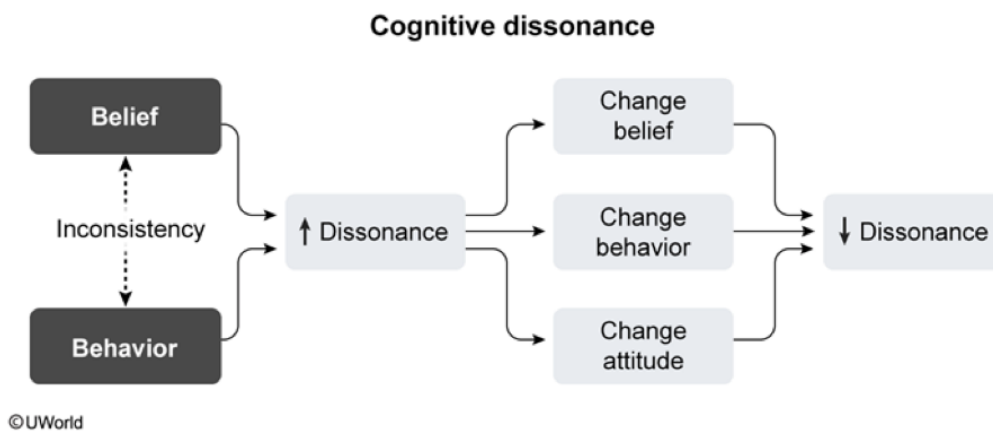
- **Social Cognitive theory:** Used in psychology, education, and communication, holds that portions of an individual's knowledge acquisition can be directly related to observing others within the context of social interactions, experiences, and outside media influences. The theory states that when people observe a model performing a behavior and the consequences of that behavior, they remember the sequence of events and use this information to guide subsequent behaviors.



TL;DR suggests that people **learn through observing others**. Watching a model (someone else, often a friend or family member) engaging in a behavior and the consequences associated with that behavior is a powerful method of learning called **vicarious learning**. Depending on the outcome for the model, the observer may replicate or avoid that behavior.

- **Evolutionary game theory:** Evolutionary game theory (EGT) describes how complex social behaviors (eg, mating, aggression, altruism) persist in populations. By applying mathematical models, EGT predicts how organisms will interact and how their behaviors confer evolutionary advantage and are passed onto offspring.

- **Cognitive Dissonance Theory:** According to cognitive dissonance theory, cognitive dissonance (conflict) results from beliefs, attitudes, or behaviors that are dissonant, contradictory, or incompatible. For example, a person who runs and smokes (two contradictory behaviors) or a Republican (belief) who votes for a Democrat (contradictory behavior) should experience cognitive dissonance. Cognitive dissonance causes a state of discomfort that results in motivation to reduce the conflict by aligning thoughts and/or behaviors. For example, the running smoker would be motivated to quit smoking and the Democrat-voting Republican would be motivated to change party affiliation.



- **The Sick Role Theory:** In sociology, sick role theory conceptualizes illness as a socially acceptable form of deviance. When ill, an individual enters into the "sick role," a socially defined status with rights and obligations:
 - Rights: The sick person has the right to be exempt from playing other social roles while sick (eg, employee) and is excused from fulfilling normal responsibilities (eg, going to work). The sick person also has the right to not be held responsible for the illness.
 - Obligations: The sick person has the responsibility to make every reasonable effort to get well as soon as possible. The sick person also has the responsibility to seek medical help and to cooperate with medical professionals (eg, follow their treatment plan).

Sick role theory (Talcott Parsons)	
Rights	1. Exemption from normal social roles & responsibilities 2. Lack of accountability for illness
Obligations	1. Must attempt to get well 2. Must seek & comply with treatment

- **Instinct theory:** The Instinct Theory of Motivation views biological or genetic programming as the cause of motivation. This claim means that all humans have the same motivations due to our similar biological programming. This theory says that the root of all motivations is the motivation to survive.
- **Arousal theory:** One of the assertions of the arousal theory of motivation is that our levels of arousal can influence our performance. This is commonly referred to as the Yerkes-Dodson Law. The law states that increased levels of arousal will improve performance, but only up until the optimum arousal level is reached.

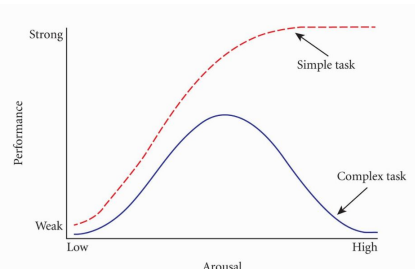
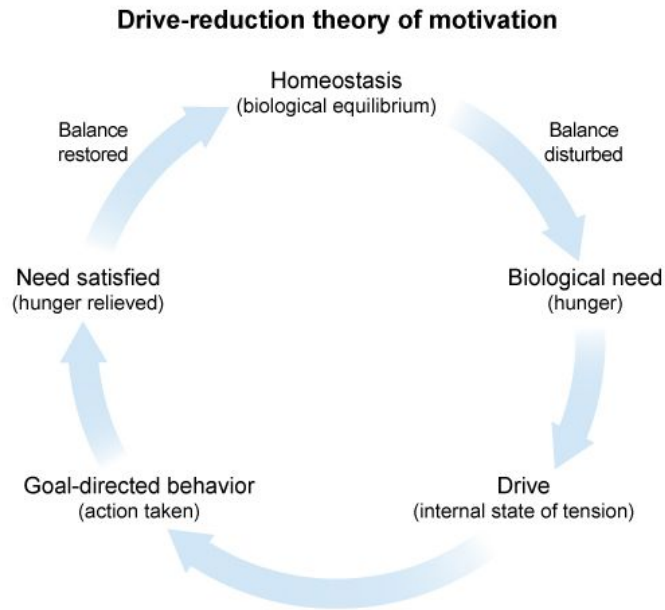


Figure 8.1. Yerkes-Dodson Law

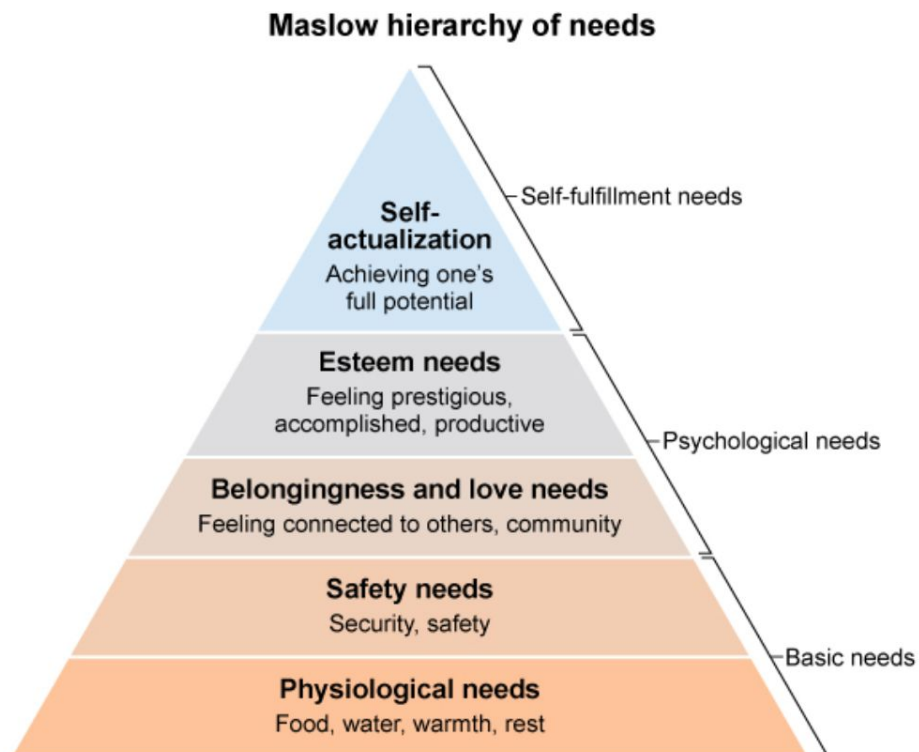
- **Drive-reduction theory:** Drive-reduction theory proposes that motivation is a result of a disruption of homeostasis, which generates a biological need. The biological need generates a drive to fulfill that need, which prompts action. For example, when blood glucose levels drop, an organism feels hungry and engages in food-seeking behaviors. Therefore, eating slowly and mindfully and stopping when full is a strategy that addresses a physiological need and is most consistent with



drive-reduction theory.

- **Maslow's hierarchy of needs:** Maslow's hierarchy of needs is often portrayed in the shape of a pyramid with the largest, most fundamental needs at the bottom and the need for self-actualization and self-transcendence at the top.

The most fundamental and basic four layers of the pyramid contain what Maslow called "deficiency needs" or "d-needs": esteem, friendship and love, security, and physical needs. If these "deficiency needs" are not met – with the exception of the most fundamental (physiological) need – there may not be a physical indication, but the individual will feel anxious and tense. Maslow's theory suggests that the most basic level of needs must be met before the individual will strongly desire (or focus motivation upon) the secondary or higher level needs. Maslow also coined the term "metamotivation" to describe the motivation of people who go beyond the scope of the basic needs and strive for constant betterment.

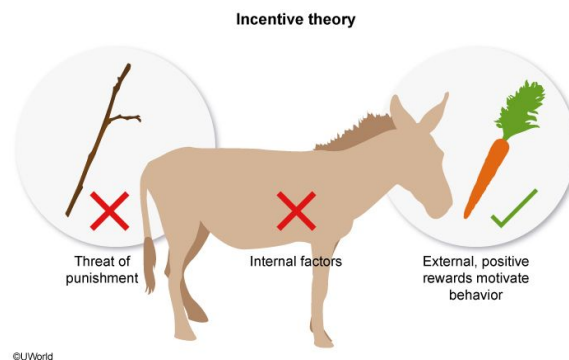


- **Self-determination theory:** is a macro theory of human motivation and personality that concerns people's inherent growth tendencies and innate psychological needs. It is concerned with the motivation behind choices people make without external influence and interference. SDT focuses on the degree to which an individual's behavior is self-motivated and self-determined.

- **Incentive theory:** **Incentive theory** of motivation suggests that organisms are **motivated to act** in order to obtain **external rewards**. For example, a student might spend many hours studying for an exam not because she is interested in the material (an internal factor), but because she wants to get a good grade (an external reward).

Incentive theory explains why a person would continue smoking even in the face of dire health consequences. According to this theory, the pleasure of smoking is so strong and so immediate that it serves as a stronger incentive than the prospect of good health in the future. The promise of good health is a weaker incentive because it is less immediate and less certain to occur.

TL;DR Behavior is primarily motivated by extrinsic (external) rewards, rather than internal rewards or biological drives.



- **Expectancy-value theory:** The amount of motivation needed to reach a goal is the result of both the individual's expectation of success in reaching the goal and the degree to which he or she values succeeding at the goal.
- **Theory of Planned Behavior:** In psychology, the theory of planned behavior (abbreviated TPB) is a theory that links one's beliefs and behavior.

The concept was proposed by Icek Ajzen to improve on the predictive power of the theory of reasoned action by including perceived behavioural control. It has been applied to studies of the relations among beliefs, attitudes, behavioral intentions and behaviors in various fields such as advertising, public relations, advertising campaigns and healthcare.

The theory states that attitude toward behavior, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control, together shape an individual's behavioral intentions and

behaviors.

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