

Issues and Debates (Paper 3)

Alpha bias A tendency to exaggerate differences between men and women. The consequence is that theories devalue one gender in comparison to the other.

Androcentrism Centred or focused on men, often to the neglect or exclusion of women.

Beta bias A tendency to ignore or minimise differences between men and women. Such theories tend either to ignore questions about the lives of women, or assume that insights derived from studies of men will apply equally well to women.

Gender bias The differential treatment or representation of men and women based on stereotypes rather than real differences.

Universality The aim to develop theories that apply to all people, which may include real differences.

Cultural bias The tendency to judge all people in terms of your own cultural assumptions. This distorts or biases your judgement.

Cultural relativism The view that behaviour cannot be judged properly unless it is viewed in the context of the culture in which it originates.

Culture The rules, customs, morals and ways of interacting that bind together members of a society or some other collection of people.

Ethnocentrism Seeing things from the point of view of ourselves and our social group. Evaluating other groups of people using the standards and customs of one's own culture.

Determinism Behaviour is controlled by external or internal factors acting upon the individual.

Free will Each individual has the power to make choices about their behaviour.

Hard determinism The view that all behaviour can be predicted and there is no free will. The two are incompatible.

Soft determinism A version of determinism that allows for some element of free will.

Environment Everything that is outside our body, which includes people, events and the physical world.

Heredity The process by which traits are passed from parents to their offspring, usually referring to genetic inheritance.

Interactionist approach With reference to the nature–nurture debate, the view that the processes of nature and nurture work together rather than in opposition.

Nature Behaviour is seen to be a product of innate (biological or genetic) factors.

Nature–nurture debate The argument as to whether a person's development is mainly due to their genes or to environmental influences.

Nurture Behaviour is a product of environmental influences.

Holism With respect to a behaviour such as memory or mental disorder, perceiving the whole experience rather than the individual features and/or the relations between them.

Reductionism An approach that breaks complex phenomena into more simple components, implying that this is desirable because complex phenomena are best understood in terms of a simpler level of explanation.

Idiographic approach focuses on individuals and emphasises uniqueness; favours qualitative methods in research.

Nomothetic approach seeks to formulate general laws of behaviour based on the study of groups and the use of statistical (quantitative) techniques. It attempts to summarise the differences between people through generalisations.

Socially sensitive research Any research that might have direct social consequences for the participants in the research or the group that they represent.

Gender (Paper 3)

Androgyny Formed from the two words 'andro', meaning male, and 'gyny', meaning female. The word means a combination of male and female characteristics.

Gender A person's sense of maleness or femaleness, a psychological/social construct.

Sex Being genetically male (XY) or female (XX).

Sex-role stereotypes A set of shared expectations within a social group about what men and women should do and think.

Chromosomes The X-shaped bodies that carry all the genetic information (DNA) for an organism.

Hormones The body's chemical messengers. They travel through the bloodstream, influencing many different processes, including mood, the stress response and bonding between mother and newborn baby.

Intersex is the term used to describe an individual who is neither distinctly male nor female because of a mismatch between, for example, chromosomes and genitals.

Conservation refers to the ability to understand that, despite superficial changes in appearance, basic properties of an object remain unchanged. This ability appears around the age of six or seven.

Gender constancy is the recognition that your gender is a constant, not just across your lifetime but also in different situations. Young children, according to Kohlberg, believe that gender may vary from time to time and depending on, for example, the clothes a person wears.

Pre-operational A stage in Piaget's theory of cognitive development where a child's logic lacks internal consistency, for example a child might believe that trees make wind because the branches wave about. There is some logic to this, but it doesn't explain how you still get wind when there are no trees.

Schema A cognitive framework that helps organise and interpret information in the brain. A schema helps an individual to make sense of new information.

Electra complex occurs during the phallic stage of development, when a girl blames her mother for her lack of a penis (penis envy), but eventually resolves this through a wish to have a baby and comes to identify with her mother and internalise female gender values.

Identification A form of influence where an individual adopts an attitude or behaviour because they want to be associated with a particular person or group.

Internalisation occurs when an individual accepts the attitudes or behaviour of another.

Oedipus complex occurs during the phallic stage of development, when a boy wishes his father dead because they are rivals for the mother's love; this leads to anxiety, which is eventually resolved by identifying with the father and internalising the father's gender identity.

Social learning theory Learning through observing others and imitating behaviours that are rewarded.

Culture The rules, customs, morals and ways of interacting that bind together members of a society or some other collection of people.

Media Tools used to store and distribute information, e.g. books, films, TV, commercials and so on.

Gender dysphoria is a psychiatric condition listed in DSM-V. Individuals experience a sense of dysphoria (confusion) about their gender because they have strong, persistent feelings of identification with the opposite gender and discomfort with their own. It is only diagnosed where there is no physical intersex condition.

Schizophrenia (Paper 3)

Avolition The reduction, difficulty, or inability to initiate and persist in goal-directed behaviour, often mistaken for apparent disinterest.

Delusions Firmly held erroneous beliefs that are caused by distortions of reasoning or misinterpretations of perceptions or experiences.

Hallucinations Distortions or exaggerations of perception in any of the senses, most notably auditory hallucinations.

Negative symptoms Appear to reflect a diminution or loss of normal functioning.

Positive symptoms Appear to reflect an excess or distortion of normal functioning.

Schizophrenia A type of psychosis characterised by a profound disruption of cognition and emotion.

Speech poverty The lessening of speech fluency and productivity, which reflects slowing or blocked thoughts.

Co-morbidity refers to the extent that two (or more) conditions or diseases occur simultaneously in a patient, for example schizophrenia and depression.

Culture The rules, customs, morals, childrearing practices, etc. that bind a group of people together and define how they are likely to behave.

Gender bias refers to the tendency to describe the behaviour of men and women in psychological theory and research in such a way that might not be seen to represent accurately the characteristics of either one of these genders.

Reliability is consistency – the consistency of measurements. We would expect any measurement to produce the same data if taken on successive occasions.

Symptom overlap refers to the fact that symptoms of a disorder may not be unique to that disorder but may also be found in other disorders, making accurate diagnosis difficult.

Validity refers to whether an observed effect is a genuine one.

Biological explanations emphasise the role of inherited factors and dysfunction of brain activity in the development of a behaviour or mental disorder.

Dopamine hypothesis claims that an excess of the neurotransmitter dopamine in certain regions of the brain is associated with the positive symptoms of schizophrenia.

Genetics Inherited factors make certain individuals more likely to develop a behaviour or mental disorder.

Neural correlates Changes in neuronal events and mechanisms that result in the characteristic symptoms of a behaviour or mental disorder.

Cognitive explanations of mental disorders propose that abnormalities in cognitive function are a key component of schizophrenia.

Dysfunctional thought processing Cognitive habits or beliefs that cause the individual to evaluate information inappropriately.

Family dysfunction The presence of problems within a family that contribute to relapse rates in recovering schizophrenics, including lack of warmth between parents and child, dysfunctional communication patterns and parental overprotection.

Atypical antipsychotics carry a lower risk of extrapyramidal side effects, have a beneficial effect on negative symptoms and cognitive impairment, and are suitable for treatment resistant patients.

Drug therapy involves treatment of mental disorders such as schizophrenia through the use of antipsychotics to reduce the symptoms of the disorder.

Typical antipsychotics are dopamine antagonists in that they bind to but do not stimulate dopamine receptors and so reduce the symptoms of schizophrenia.

Cognitive behavioural therapy A combination of cognitive therapy (a way of changing maladaptive thoughts and beliefs) and behavioural therapy (a way of changing behaviour in response to these thoughts and beliefs).

Family therapy is the name given to a range of interventions aimed at the family (e.g. parents, siblings, partners) of someone with a mental disorder.

Token economy A form of therapy where desirable behaviours are encouraged by the use of selective reinforcements. Rewards (tokens) are given as secondary reinforcers when individuals engage in correct/socially desirable behaviours. The tokens can then be exchanged for primary reinforcers – food or privileges.

Diathesis-stress model explains mental disorders as the result of an interaction between biological (the diathesis) and environmental (stress) influences.

Forensic Psychology (Paper 3)

Disorganised type of offender The crime scene is left with many clues such as fingerprints, there is little evidence of engagement with the victim, and the offender has lower intelligence and competence.

Offender profiling A method of working out the characteristics of an offender by examining the characteristics of the crime and crime scene.

Organised type of offender This type of offender commits a planned crime and may engage in violent fantasies with the victim and is high in intelligence and socially competent.

Top-down approach (also called crime scene analysis) An analysis of previous crimes creates a profile of a likely offender. A profiler uses this knowledge to narrow the field of possible suspects. Unlike the bottom-up approach, the top-down approach relies on the intuition and beliefs of the profiler.

Bottom-up approach A data-driven approach where statistical techniques are used to produce predictions about the likely characteristics of an offender.

Geographical profiling A form of bottom-up profiling based on the pattern shown by the location or locations of a series of crimes.

Investigative psychology A form of bottom up profiling based on psychological theory.

Atavistic form An explanation for criminal behaviour, suggesting that certain individuals are born with a criminal personality and this innate personality is a throwback to earlier primate forms.

Epigenetics refers to the material in each cell of the body that acts like a set of 'switches' to turn genes on or off.

Genetic explanations The likelihood of behaving in a particular way is determined by a person's genetic make-up, i.e. it is inherited from parents.

Neural explanations involve areas of the brain and nervous system and the action of chemical messengers in the brain known as neurotransmitters in controlling behaviour.

Extraversion According to Eysenck, this refers to outgoing people who enjoy risk and danger because their nervous systems are under-aroused.

Neuroticism According to Eysenck, this refers to people with a negative outlook who get upset easily. Their lack of stability is due to an over-reactive response to threat (fight-or-flight).

Psychoticism According to Eysenck, this refers to an aggressive, anti-social person who lacks empathy. This may be related to high levels of testosterone.

Cognitive distortion Thinking that has a bias, such that what is perceived by a person does not match reality.

Hostile attribution bias When a person automatically attributes malicious intentions to another.

Minimalisation (or minimisation) Underplaying the consequence of an action to reduce negative emotions such as feeling guilty.

Moral reasoning Thinking in a consistent and logical way about right and wrong, with reference to socially agreed principles.

Differential association theory An explanation of offending behaviour in terms of learning theory, how interactions with others lead to the formation of attitudes about crime (which may be more or less favourable), as well as acquiring specific knowledge about how to commit crimes.

Affectionless psychopathy A behaviour disorder in which the individual has no ability to experience shame or guilt and lacks a social conscience. This means that they may find it 'easier' to commit crimes.

Maternal deprivation The loss of emotional care that is normally provided by a primary caregiver.

Psychodynamic explanation Refers to any theory that emphasises change and development in the individual, particularly those theories where 'drive' is a central concept in development. The best-known psychodynamic theory is Freudian psychoanalysis.

Superego Part of Freud's conception of the structure of the personality. The superego embodies our conscience and sense of right and wrong, as well as notions of the ideal self. It develops between the ages of 3 and 6.

De-individuation A psychological state in which individuals have lowered levels of selfevaluation (e.g. when in a crowd or under the influence of alcohol) and decreased concerns about evaluation by others.

Recidivism This is when a person reoffends after receiving some form of punishment for previous offences.

Behavioural modification A therapeutic technique used to increase or decrease the frequencies of behaviour using operant conditioning.

Operant conditioning Learning through reinforcement or punishment. If a behaviour is followed by a desirable consequence, then that behaviour is more likely to occur again in the future.

Token economy A form of therapy where desirable behaviours are encouraged by the use of selective reinforcements. Rewards (tokens) are given as secondary reinforcers when individuals engage in correct/socially desirable behaviours. The tokens can then be exchanged for primary reinforcers – food or privileges.

Anger management A form of cognitive behavioural therapy specific to changing the way a person manages their anger. Techniques include cognitive restructuring, skill acquisition and behavioural training.

Cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT) A combination of cognitive therapy (a way of changing maladaptive thoughts and beliefs) and behavioural therapy (a way of changing behaviour in response to these thoughts and beliefs).

Restorative justice A method of reducing and atoning for offending behaviour through reconciliation between offender and victim, as well as the wider community.