

Knowledge Organiser: Year 13 Psychology; ISSUES AND DEBATES

GENDER BIAS 1		CULTURE BIAS	
 GENDER BIAS Alpha bias → exaggerates differences between men and women Beta bias → Minimises differences between men and women. Androcentrism → male point of view. Universality → conclusion that can be applied to everyone regardless of time, gender or culture. Examples Kohlberg (moral development) Beta bias, because he only tested males and assumed both sexes developed morals in the same way. Schizophrenia → Androcentric because society is male dominated, males over diagnosed Freud (psychosexual stages) Alpha bias → femininity is failed masculinity; females experience penis envy. 		 CULTURE BIAS Ethnocentrism → emphasising the importance of a researcher's own culture/judging other cultures by its standards and values Imposed etic → using theories, measurements designed in one culture and applying it to other cultures (assuming the 'norm'). Cultural relativism → appreciating that behaviour varies between cultures and is not universal Emic approach to research → studying cultures in isolation by identifying behaviours that are specific to that culture Examples Ainsworth → Ethnocentric - assumed all cultures had secure attachment as their majority. IQ tests → attempt to generalise to other cultures DSM/ICD → Culture bound syndromes But some behaviours are 	
NATURE VS NURTURE 3		universal (e.g. facial expressions)	
 NATURE VS NURTURE 3 NATURE → Behaviours is caused by inheritance, innate mechanisms and evolutionary ideas, nativist theory Attachment → Innate and adaptive Concordance rates → the closer the relation, the higher the concordance (genetic) Eg, MZ and DZ twins. NURTURE → All behaviour is learnt by different levels of the environment (socialisation, culture, parenting), empiricist theory, blank slates Behavioural approach e.g. learning theory of attachment/phobias Interactionist approach – genes/environment Diathesis-stress model – genetic vulnerability + life stressor = risk of developing disorder. Epigenetics – genes can affect environment e.g. 		 Inversal (e.g. facial expressions) FREE WILL VS DETERMINISM 4 Free will → we are self-determining and have control and choice over all thoughts and actions. Can't be tested scientifically. Rogers (HUMANISM)→ PCT, congruence, conditions of worth, UPR, self-actualisation. Determinism → Behaviour is controlled by internal or external forces. Types of determinism Soft D.→ [COGNITIVE] Humans have free will, but some behaviours are controlled (Aggression/Mental health) Hard D.→[BIO/BEHAV/PSYCH] Human behaviour is a result of internal or external forces which are predictable and causes. Biological D → Genes, neurotransmitters, hormones, brain structure all control behaviour. Environmental D.→ Socialisation, conditioning Psychic D.→ Unconscious, psychoanalysis, psychosexual stages, ide, ego, superego, parapraxes. Doubly-determined → When 2 or more forces are responsible for behaviour (parenting and hormones) Causal explanation 	



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IDIOGRAPHIC AND NOMOTHETIC

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IDIOGRAPHIC \rightarrow to focus research on individuals with an emphasis on the self and uniqueness of each person. avoids generalisations Prefers to use qualitative data, selfreporting, case studies, unstructured interviews. Humanism \rightarrow self-reporting within therapy / we all have unique selfactualisation goals and free will. NOMOTHETIC \rightarrow Studying populations of groups of people to make generalisations and conclusions about behaviour. Uses general laws (Classification, principles and dimensions). Prefer to use quantitative data, objective measures

Behavioural \rightarrow Very scientific and aims to make predictions

Biological \rightarrow Very scientific / aims to make classification systems

Combination \rightarrow Each approach complements each other. We need idiographic to create nomothetic laws, and we need nomothetic laws to understand group influences on individuals (social influence).

HOLISM AND REDUCTIONISM

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- HOLISM \rightarrow view humans as whole beings and understand their context.
- Humanism → We can't focus on specific factors of behaviour; we must consider the whole person to understand how they function.
- REDUCTIONISM → It's easier to analyse behaviour if it's broken down into smaller components such as levels of explanation. parsimony: the idea that complex phenomena should be explained in the simplest terms possible.
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- Biological approach e.g. using low serotonin to explain OCD.
- Interactionist approach → levels of explanation combine to give a better understanding of behaviour.
- Diathesis-stress model → Understanding different causes and triggers

Ethical implications and social sensitivity

- implications / Social sensitivity Ethical implications → the impact or consequence that research has on the wider society/groups Social sensitivity → Research has a potentially sensitive/controversial consequence or implication Implications could include
- Effects on participants/groups
- Effects on policy/the economy
- Effects on allocation of resources/funding
- Bias/discrimination against certain groups Examples Bowlby → reformed childcare practices BUT encouraged the view that mothers need to raise children
- Intelligence and 11+ exams \rightarrow led to negative consequences
- Raine \rightarrow brain scanning suggested murderers were born violent



How do we use Knowledge Organisers in Psychology

How can you use knowledge organisers at home to help us?

- **Retrieval Practice**: Read over a section of the knowledge organiser, cover it up and then write down everything you can remember. Repeat until you remember everything.
- **Flash Cards:** Using the Knowledge Organisers to help on one side of a piece of paper write a question, on the other side write an answer. Ask someone to test you by asking a question and seeing if you know the answer.
- **Mind Maps:** Turn the information from the knowledge organiser into a mind map. Then reread the mind map and on a piece of paper half the size try and recreate the key phrases of the mind map from memory.
- **Sketch it:** Draw an image to represent each fact; this can be done in isolation or as part of the mind map/flash card.
- **Teach it:** Teach someone the information on your knowledge organiser, let them ask you questions and see if you know the answers.

How will we use knowledge organisers in Psychology?

- **Test:** We will do regular low stakes tests to check your ability to retrieve information from memory.
- **Mark our answers**: Once you have done a low stake test you can mark your work using the knowledge organiser.
- **Improve our work**: Once you have finished a piece of work you may be asked to check your knowledge organiser to see if there is any information on it that you could add into an answer.

<u>ASSESSMENT</u> <u>TYPE</u>	<u>SECTION ON KNOWLEDGE</u> ORGANISER	<u>DATE</u> COMPLETED	<u>SCORE/TOTAL</u> <u>SCORE</u>