



2015 specification
first exams in 2017 (2016 for AS)

Course Companion for AS and A Level Edexcel Psychology

Topic 3: Biological Psychology

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Teacher's Introduction

This course companion is designed to support the AS and A Level Edexcel Psychology. Within the companion biopsychology has been divided into seven chapters, with each chapter covering a different part of the specification. These chapters follow the order of the specification so that knowledge is built and developed as the companion progresses.

The course companion provides a detailed set of notes on the specification content for you to use with your students. Opportunities to put their learning into practice are found through tasks and questions.

Tasks have been created to strengthen students' learning by providing ways to test what they have covered. You may also come across 'Think!' or 'Consider' boxes during the companion to encourage students to look beyond the information in front of them and consider how different studies relate to one another, the significance of findings and how the findings relate to real life. Points that could be raised are provided for these boxes.

At the end of each chapter will be two sets of questions to reinforce your students' learning. The first set are 'Understanding' questions, which focus on testing students' knowledge of the content in the companion. Following these are 'Exam-style' questions which test the ability to transfer knowledge to new situations. Model answers have been provided for all questions, and also tasks.

At the end of the entire set of seven chapters there is a set of six A Level exam-style questions aimed at those taking both the AS and A Level courses. Each question corresponds to each of the chapters in chronological order, i.e. A Level Question 1 is based on: 'Chapter 1: The Central Nervous System and the Role of Neurotransmitters', question 2 is based on 'Chapter 2: Recreational Drugs and the Central Nervous System' and so on. These questions are marked by an asterisk (*). The mark schemes are provided at the end of the answers section of the resource.

Teacher's Notes on Tasks

Short tasks for students to complete are provided throughout the companion, and the points where student interaction or guidance are identified underneath. Below are recommendations, but adjustments can be made depending on the classroom.

Task 5.2: Debate

Encourage students to think about the consequences of both sides of action: What would happen if we were allowed to have special consideration? What is fair to the 'everyman' and what about the 'special' gene? What are the implications of this for other possible genes identified and crime?

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Chapter 1: The Central Nervous System

Role of Neurotransmitters

Overview

This chapter takes a look at our central nervous system (CNS) and its role in our behaviour. It also considers neurotransmitters, the brain's chemical messengers, and how they are used to transmit information between neurons (synaptic transmission).

Learning outcomes

After studying this chapter you should be able to:

- ☐ Describe the central nervous system
- ☐ Describe the structure and function of neurons
- ☐ Describe the process of synaptic transmission

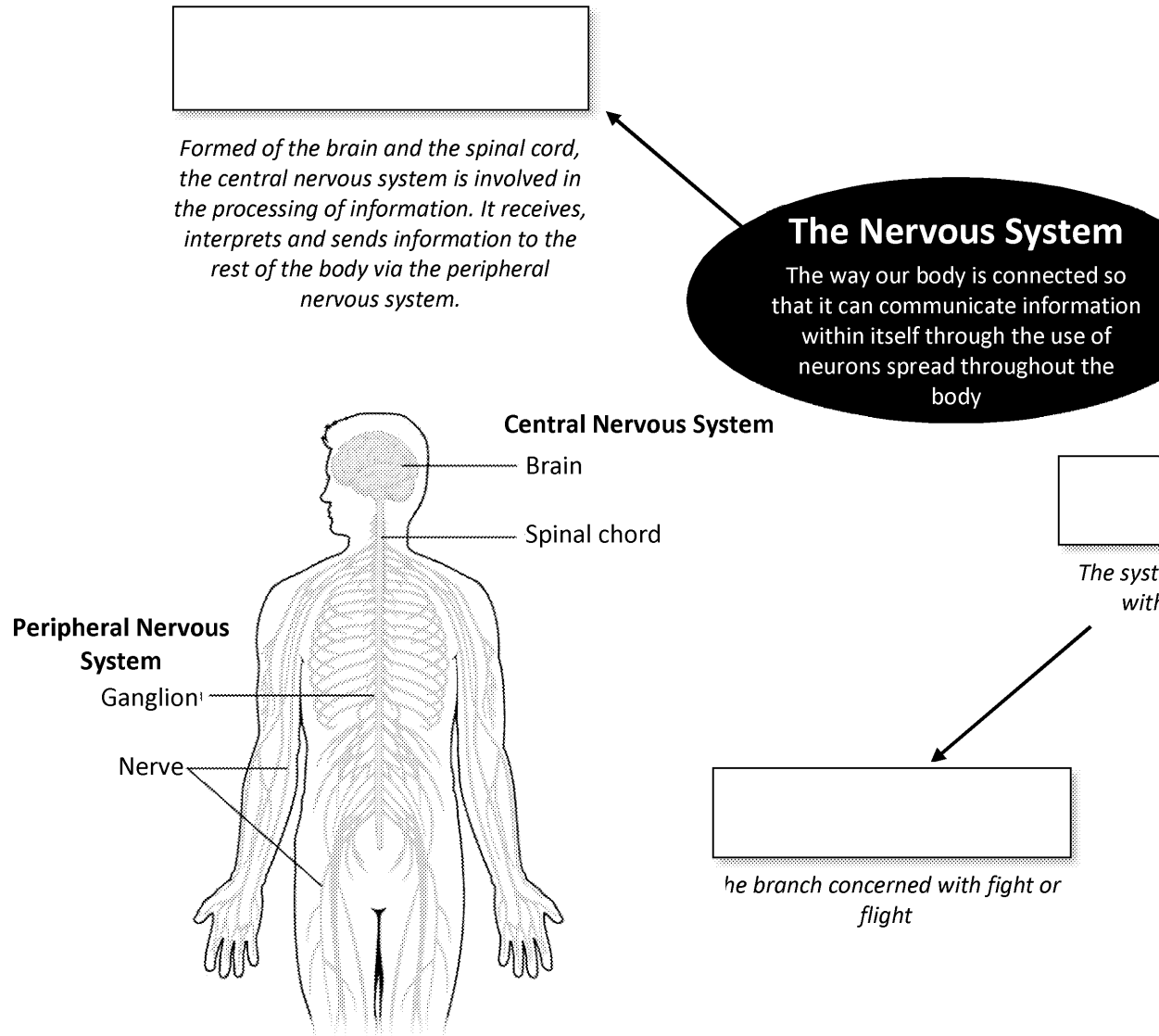
Key Terms

| | |
|----------------------------------|--|
| Action potential | A neuronal impulse that transmits information |
| Autonomic nervous system | Regulates involuntary actions, e.g. heartbeat |
| Axon | A long fibre which signals from the dendrites travel down covered in myelin sheath |
| Cell body (soma) | Part of a nerve cell that keeps the cell functioning |
| Central nervous system | The brain and spinal cord; responsible for all of cognitive functions |
| Dendrites | Branches that receive signals from other neurons |
| Excitation | Encourages an action potential |
| Inhibition | Discourages an action potential |
| Motor neuron | Used to transmit information to muscles and glands |
| Myelin sheath | A fatty substance often covering axons, which insulates their transmission of impulses |
| Neuron | A nerve cell, responsible for communication between different areas of the brain |
| Neurotransmitter | A chemical that transmits information between neurons |
| Parasympathetic branch | Is involved in normal resting state; inhibitory |
| Peripheral nervous system | Nerves that exist beyond the central nervous system and connect organs to the central nervous system |
| Receptor site | An area on the receiving neuron that neurotransmitters bind to |
| Reflex | A type of automatic response which does not involve the brain |
| Relay neuron | Used to transmit information between neurons |
| Reuptake | The process of reabsorbing the neurotransmitter back into the neuron |
| Sensory neuron | Used to transmit sensory information from receptors |
| Somatic nervous system | Transmits and receives sensory and motor information to and from the central nervous system |
| Sympathetic branch | Is involved in the fight or flight response; excitatory |
| Synapse | A junction between neurons where the neurotransmitter is released |
| Synaptic cleft | A gap between one neuron and the next over which neurotransmitters pass |
| Synaptic transmission | The communication process between neurons |
| Terminal buttons | The nerve endings where an action potential may be released |

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Revision Task

Revision task: After the end of this chapter go and create your own version of this map on an important points of each system. Learn it and try to rewrite it from memory.

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Scene-setting Questions

- Is the brain involved in all behaviour?
- How are messages transferred all around the body?
- How does our body differ from rest to extreme stress?

The Central Nervous System

The central nervous system includes the brain and the spinal cord; it is responsible for processing information and is also involved in movement and interpretation of sensory stimuli. The central nervous system contains approximately 100 billion neurons; approximately 80% of these are in the brain.

The brain

The brain is the most complex organ in the body and is vital for our ability to think. It consists of billions of interconnected neurons, and while some functions may appear to be localised to specific areas of the brain, it is difficult to determine whether the function may actually be the result of the whole brain. Even when the body is at rest, the brain remains highly active. It requires more energy than any other organ expected for an organ of its size.

The brain makes us who we are as individuals. It holds all of our memories, our personality, our ability to communicate and our abilities to perform the most basic of tasks. Damage to the brain can have life-changing consequences for the individual. When brain damage occurs at a young age, it can lead to the brain for the brain to change and adapt to make up for any deficits (termed plasticity).

Forebrain

The forebrain is the largest section of the brain and contains the two large cerebral hemispheres. The cerebral hemispheres are involved in higher thinking and conscious thought, and our overdeveloped cerebral cortex is one of the key distinguishing features between us and other animals.

Cerebral hemispheres: The brain can be 'divided' into two hemispheres (left and right), each with its own image of each other. These structures cover most of the other brain structures, and are the most prominent in a standard view of the brain. The hemispheres are connected by the corpus callosum, a bundle of nerve fibers that allows the two hemispheres to communicate.

Cerebral cortex: The outer layer of tissue in the brain is the cerebral cortex. This is regarded as the most important structure in the brain. There are four lobes of the brain and these are related to certain areas and functions:

1. Frontal lobe = primary motor cortex (movement)
2. Parietal lobe = primary somatosensory cortex (touch)
3. Occipital lobe = primary visual cortex (vision)
4. Temporal lobe = primary auditory cortex (hearing)

All lobes have several important functions. For example, along with its involvement in movement, the frontal lobe also has a well-accepted role in cognition. Frontal lobe damage can cause difficulties with problem-solving ability, flexible thinking, planning, language and social behaviour, suggesting that these functions are related to the frontal lobe. Additionally, functions may be related to multiple lobes. For example, manipulating objects also uses the parietal lobe.

While some of the cerebral cortex can be connected to particular sensory and motor functions, some is not. These are termed 'association areas' and are believed to be involved in the integration of information and in higher mental abilities. Abilities such as thinking, planning and problem-solving are more localised than other abilities. These functions are not necessary for survival and



Cerebrum
(Forebrain)

Brainstem

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Thalamus: Located near the centre of the brain; all sensory signals go through the role in integrating information received from the sensory organs, and different sensory signal. The thalamus is also important in regulating sleep and wakefulness.

Hypothalamus (under the thalamus): This small structure in the brain has many important role in homeostasis, keeping the body's internal environment in balance. It controls behaviours such as eating and drinking, emotional arousal and motivation. The hypothalamus sends signals to the autonomic nervous system (ANS) or by affecting the pituitary gland.

Basal ganglia: The basal ganglia are composed of the corpus striatum, amygdala and subthalamic nucleus. The basal ganglia have an important role in voluntary motor movement. The neurological disorders Parkinson's disease and Huntington's disease, which both have severe motor symptoms, are associated with the basal ganglia.

Limbic system: The limbic system is a collection of structures which include the hypothalamus, hippocampus, amygdala and olfactory bulb (among others). These structures have been particularly tied to emotion and meeting basic needs such as feeding and mating. The set of structures making up the limbic system has been debated, and other researchers have argued that there is no 'emotion centre' of the brain and the term limbic system should no longer be used. Presently, most researchers relate their findings to individual structures rather than the limbic system.

The limbic system is an important part of the brain as a result of its complex functions.

Midbrain

The midbrain connects the forebrain to the spinal cord.

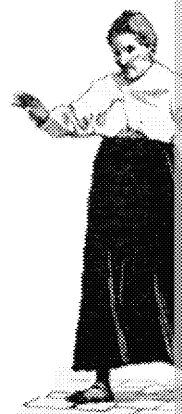
Hindbrain

The hindbrain is composed of the cerebellum, pons, and medulla oblongata, and these structures are vital for human survival.

Cerebellum: This is also split into two hemispheres and is a structure visible outside the cerebral hemispheres. It is involved in voluntary muscle movements, and signals formed during higher thinking are processed here before being sent to the muscles.

Pons: This structure is a 'bridge' towards the midbrain structures. Four cranial nerve nuclei are located in the pons and these nerves have sensory functions such as hearing, taste, eye movement and swallowing. The pons is considered to be important in balance and motor control.

Medulla oblongata: This is a section of the lower brainstem and is in reality an extension of the spinal cord. It is the 'oldest' part of the brain and deals with autonomic behaviours such as breathing, coughing, vomiting and cardiac functions. Therefore, this structure is important for our basic needs and survival.



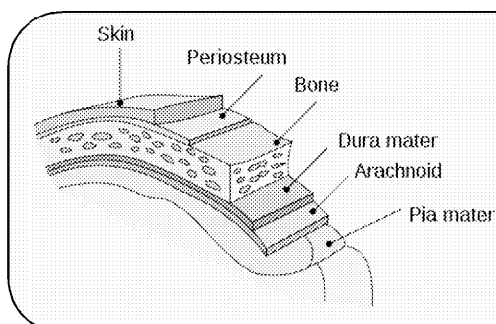
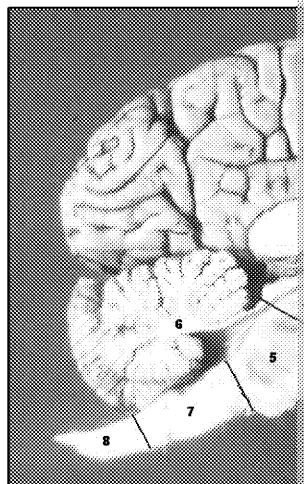
Much of our understanding of the cerebellum comes from studies of what happens when things go wrong. A common symptom of cerebellar damage is ataxia, or a lack of coordination. Individuals with ataxia have difficulty with the cerebellum's role in coordinating the fine-tuning of movement. The function of the cerebellum is often called neuropsychology, and what brain injuries can do to it.

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What does it look like in real life?

1. Cerebrum
2. Thalamus
3. Hypothalamus
4. Midbrain
5. Pons
6. Cerebellum
7. Medulla oblongata
8. Spinal cord



Protecting the brain...

The sheer importance of the brain may explain the importance of protection it receives. Not only is it protected by the periosteum, a protective layer that covers the bone, but it is also protected by three different layers of protective tissue: the dura mater, the arachnoid, and the pia mater. These layers form the blood-brain barrier which protects the brain from toxic blood.

Consider!

Our body, including our brain, has been evolutionarily designed over millions of years. Many aspects of our body might have been formed this way.

The spinal cord

The spinal cord receives information from the body and carries this information to the brain. Information from organs related to specific senses (eyes, ears, nose, mouth, skin), along with information from muscles, is carried to the brain.

The brain will then decide what to do with the information. For example, if you have been running for a while and the muscles in your legs are hurting, your brain could tell you to either ignore the pain and keep on running or stop and take a break. It might also tell you to take a break in five minutes' time. These instructions are received by your brain and travel down your spinal cord to the rest of your body.

Spinal cord damage

Damage to nerves in the spine can lead to loss of the ability to move limbs or detect sensations in these parts of our bodies. Quadriplegia is a result of brain or spinal cord injury and results in the loss of the use of limbs and senses below the injury. These individuals are unable to move much of their body and require round-the-clock care.

However, while their quality of life is largely determined by the extent of their injury, it is important to recognise that it is also moderated by psychological factors. For example, if a person has a personality that promotes active problem-solving coping, then they are more likely to be involved in regular physiotherapy.

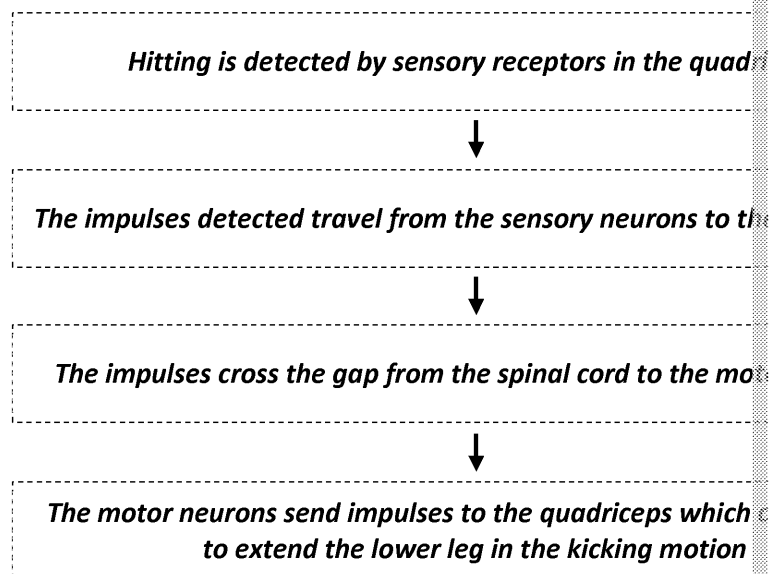
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Reflexes: not all actions require the brain

Although the brain is vital in all cognition, it is not necessary in some actions. Reflexes do not involve the brain, although the brain is notified during or after the response. One reflex you have heard of is the knee-jerk reflex. Hitting just below the knee produces a reflexive action.

The pathway of actions that cause the behaviour is called a reflex arc. Here is how a reflex reaction works:



Note: Don't worry if you find it difficult to understand this at the moment, you will understand it better later in this chapter.

Practical application: Doctors can use reflexes to test whether a person's nervous system is working properly. People also demonstrate individual differences in their reactions and doctors have used this to make their diagnosis.

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The Peripheral Nervous System

The peripheral nervous system consists of the nerves other than the central nervous system. They connect the limbs and organs to the central nervous system.

Neurons and nerves

A neuron is a type of cell which is specialised to communicate information throughout the body. They have a long fibre called an axon that carries the signal across the cell, and dendrites where the signal is received. Nerves are groups of axons from many neurons, and as such send and receive many impulses at once. There are 12 cranial nerves which connect to the brain and 31 spinal nerves which connect to the spine.

The somatic nervous system

The somatic nervous system receives and transmits sensory and motor information. This nerve system connects to the organs and limbs and allows for the transmission of information via the spinal cord. The somatic nervous system is made of two kinds of nerves: efferent (motor) nerves and afferent (sensory) nerves.

Here the central nervous system sends signals for movement or action via efferent nerves to the muscles and sensory organs:



Here the muscles and sensory organs send signals they have received about their state to the central nervous system via afferent nerves:



The somatic nervous system only deals with voluntary control of our muscles, that is, making them start moving or stop moving.

Autonomic nervous system (ANS)

The autonomic nervous system is concerned with involuntary actions.

The autonomic nervous system is divided into two branches:

- Sympathetic branch: concerned with expending energy, particularly in the high-cost energy response of fight or flight
- Parasympathetic branch: concerned with saving and restoring energy; our rest and digest response

The sympathetic branch tends to 'excite' functions and the parasympathetic branch tends to 'calm' functions.

Homeostasis

Although the sympathetic branch is concerned with the fight or flight, it is also active in order to maintain a balance called homeostasis. In this way the sympathetic and parasympathetic branches are complementary and promote balance when in a state of rest. When in a highly stressed situation the sympathetic branch overrides our normal state to allow for the high-energy state that is fight or flight. Chronic stress can cause difficulties as the balance between the two branches is thrown out.

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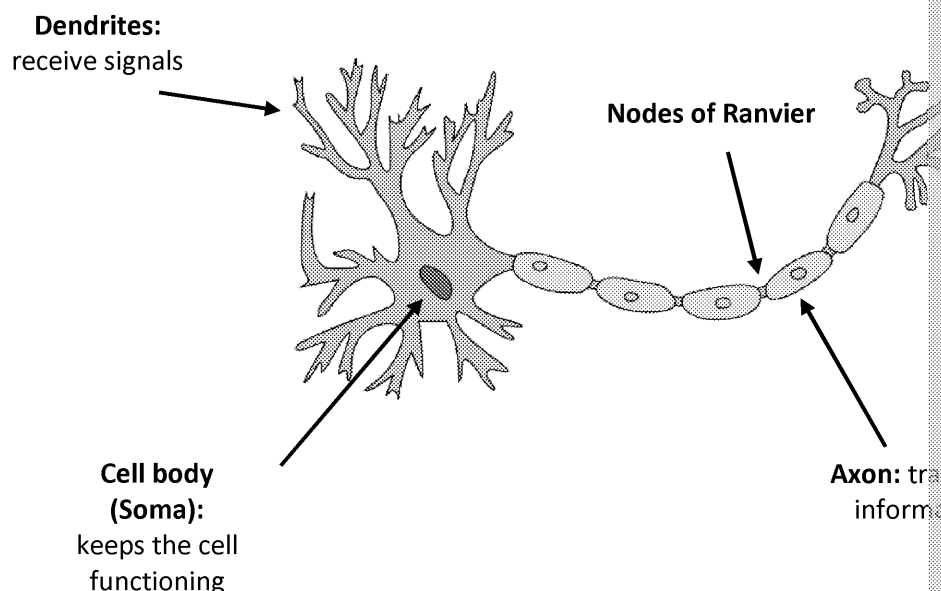


Neurons

The brain and body are covered by neurons or nerve cells that allow the different parts of the body to be connected together. The majority of these neurons are in the brain, where billions of neurons process information.

The structure of a neuron

Here is the basic structure of a neuron:



The cell body

The soma or cell body is responsible for keeping the neuron functioning normally. It contains the nucleus, which holds the genetic information for how to build proteins, along with mitochondria that help provide energy.

The dendrites

The dendrites are where the nerve cell receives signals from other neurons and the brain. They are often designed to provide a huge surface area so that the dendrites are able to receive many signals at once.

The axon

The axon is a long fibre that allows for communication between different parts of the body. It is often split into branches to allow the axon to communicate with several different parts of the body. The axon is covered in a fatty substance called myelin sheath which insulates the axon; this helps to speed up transmission of impulses. Multiple sclerosis is a condition where the immune system attacks the myelin sheath and this affects how well nerves can transmit information.

There are regular breaks in the cover of myelin sheath called nodes of Ranvier. These allow the signal to jump from one node to the next. This increases the speed of transmission compared to axons without myelin.


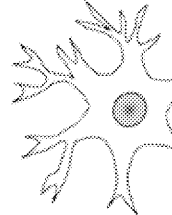

The terminal buttons

Terminal buttons are the end points of the neuron and this is where the transmission of information to other neurons usually occurs.

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Types of neurons and their different roles

| Type of neuron | Role in communication | |
|----------------------------|---|---|
| Sensory | <p>Transmit sensory information from receptors via the spinal cord to the brain.</p> <p>Receptors are different depending on the sense; for example, photoreceptors are found in the retinas of your eyes and these are sensitive to light. Photoreceptors convert the light into signals that then can be transmitted to and understood by the brain.</p> |  |
| Motor | <p>Transmits information to muscles and glands from the central nervous system.</p> <p>Signals from the spinal cord travel to the muscle and this results in movement. Many of the neurons deal with voluntary (somatic) behaviour but some, called general visceral efferent (GVE) fibres, are neurons of the autonomic nervous system and deal with non-voluntary movements such as sending signals to the heart muscle.</p> |  |
| Relay (interneuron) | <p>Transmits information between neurons to allow communication between different parts of the central nervous system.</p> <p>This type of neuron is found in the spinal cord and the brain and connects the sensory neurons to the motor neurons. With reflexes, such as pulling your hand away from something that is very hot, relay neurons allow for the signal to go directly from sensory neurons to the motor neurons, missing out the brain from the action.</p> |  |

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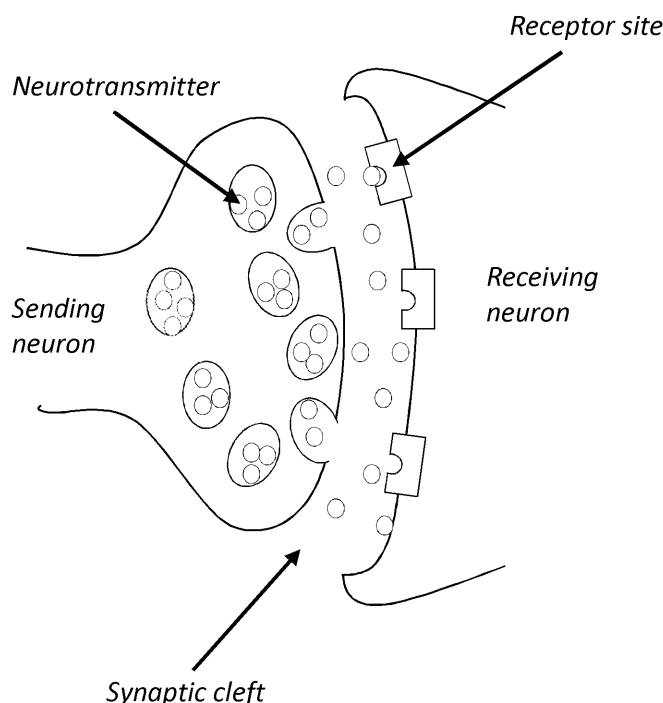
The function of neurotransmitters

While they are close to one another, neurons do not touch, and instead information is passed between them called the synaptic cleft. Chemicals called neurotransmitters are released from the sending neuron across the synaptic cleft and bind to receptors on the receiving neuron.

The processes involved will be outlined and explained below:

What are neurotransmitters?

Neurotransmitters are chemicals that communicate information between two neurons. They are released at one end of a neuron and go across a gap called the synaptic cleft to bind to receptors on cells in the other neuron.



The receptor site is like a lock and key, meaning that only specific neurotransmitters can bind to it.

Some key neurotransmitters

Dopamine

Dopamine has been implicated heavily in motor control. For example, L-dopa, a drug used to treat Parkinson's disease, a degenerative disorder in which the person loses the ability to produce dopamine. Increasing the amount of dopamine (which suggests that Parkinson's may partially be caused by a lack of dopamine).

Dopamine imbalances have also been implicated in disorders such as schizophrenia. Excessive use of drugs (e.g. cocaine) that involve an increase of dopamine can cause paranoid psychosis with symptoms that mirror schizophrenia. Additionally, treatments that reduce the amount of dopamine (e.g. chlorpromazine) diminish the symptoms of schizophrenia, further implicating dopamine in the disorder.

Note: This is the dopamine hypothesis of schizophrenia. While there is some evidence suggesting that dopamine is involved, it is very difficult to study neurotransmitters in the brain, making it difficult to prove.

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Epinephrine

Epinephrine, more commonly known as adrenaline, has an important role in the stress response. Adrenaline produces changes in heart rate, breathing and muscle tension, among other changes that are designed to cope with physical stressors. As you may be aware, these changes occur even when we need to deal with non-physical demands such as exams.

While heightened physiological arousal may not be suitable for an exam, epinephrine does have other beneficial effects such as increasing our alertness and wakefulness. This is also part of the stress response, so that a person is aware of and able to quickly process their environment.

Our pupils
the f
bene
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GABA

GABA's main function is to reduce or 'inhibit' other neurons by binding to receptors. Research has researched the effects of directly administering GABA to 13 participants in a stress test. The administration of GABA reduced stress as compared to a placebo. This suggests that GABA may be as a stress reducer.

Glutamate

While GABA is 'inhibitory', glutamate is the primary 'excitatory' neuron in the CNS. Glutamate and the amount of glutamate are stimulants. As such, both GABA and glutamate balance each other out to maintain excitation in the brain. Too much excitement is toxic to neurons and is involved in conditions like epilepsy.

Acetylcholine

The first neurotransmitter to be discovered, acetylcholine is also generally excitatory. It is involved in muscle contraction, particularly in voluntary movement. It also plays a role in memory, particularly in encoding memories. Alzheimer's disease has been associated with a loss of acetylcholine, and some treatments target this by trying to stop the breakdown of acetylcholine.

Neurotransmitters and mental health

An imbalance of neurotransmitters has been linked to many health disorders:

- Obsessive compulsive disorder and low levels of serotonin
- Schizophrenia and too much dopamine
- Anxiety disorders and low levels of GABA
- Depression and low levels of dopamine and serotonin

How clear is the link?

It is difficult to measure the levels of neurotransmitters in the brain directly with current technology. Examinations have revealed that in some cases there are more receptors in some areas of the brain for a neurotransmitter than controls, whereas others have found no differences. Other than there being more receptors, the difference is in the sensitivity of the receptors. However, the link between certain neurotransmitters and mental health comes from the fact that treatments are effective when targeting specific neurotransmitters.

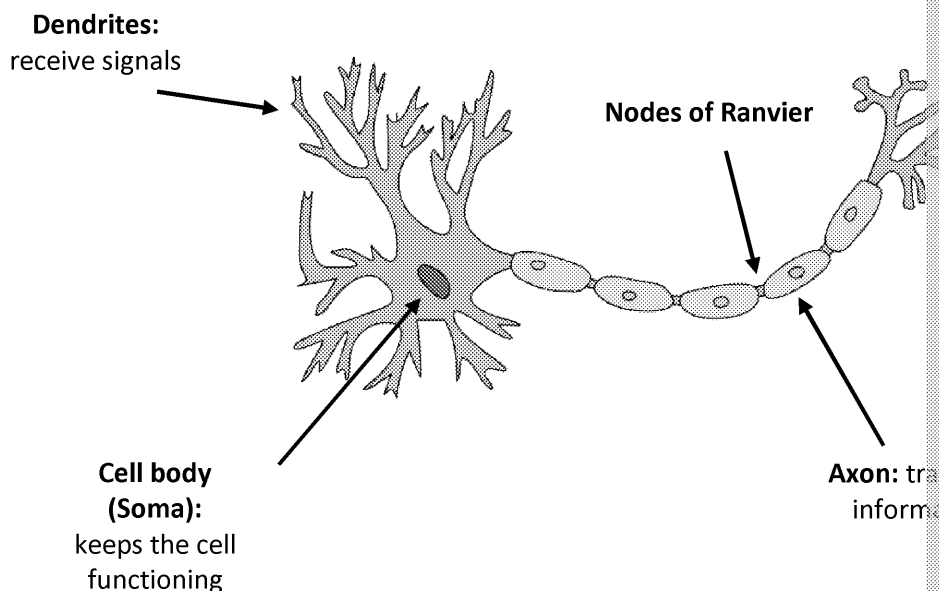
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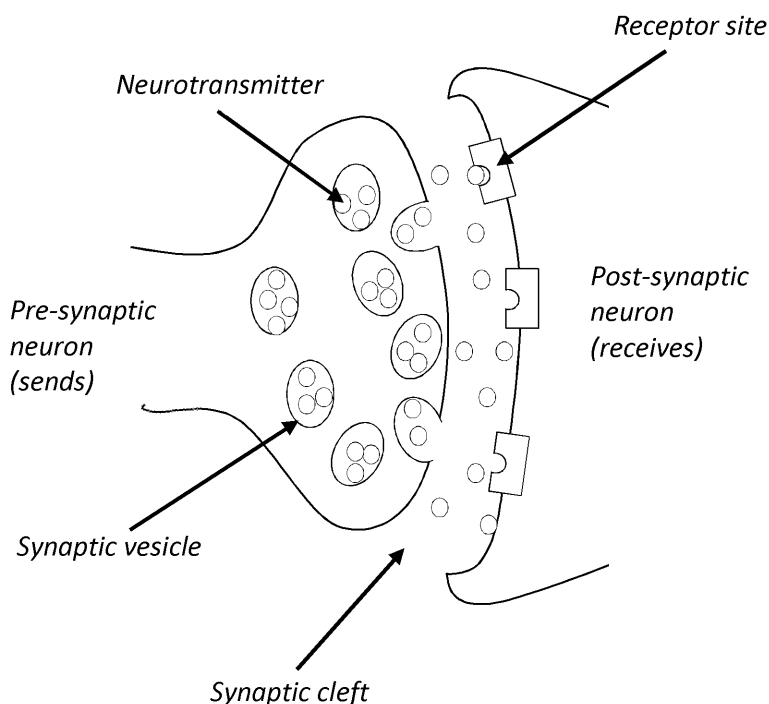
Communication between neurons: Synaptic transmission

Synaptic transmission (also called neurotransmission) is the process of communicating between two neurons. This is achieved by a neuron releasing neurotransmitters into the synaptic cleft. The neurotransmitters then bind onto the receptor sites of the receiving neuron.

In the previous diagram we identified the terminal buttons as being responsible for the release of neurotransmitters into the synaptic cleft.



The terminal buttons are filled with synaptic vesicles that store different neurotransmitters. When an action potential has been carried down the axon, it causes the synaptic vesicles to release their neurotransmitters into the synaptic cleft.



The neurotransmitter travels across the synaptic cleft and binds to receptor sites located on the post-synaptic neuron.

There are different types of neurotransmitters, each with specific effects on the post-synaptic neuron.

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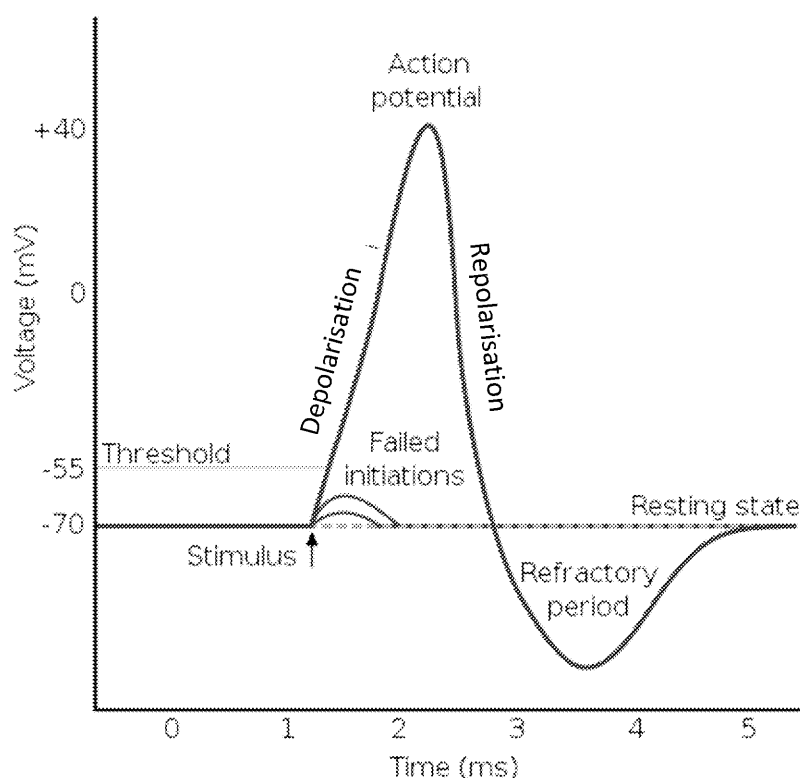


Action potentials

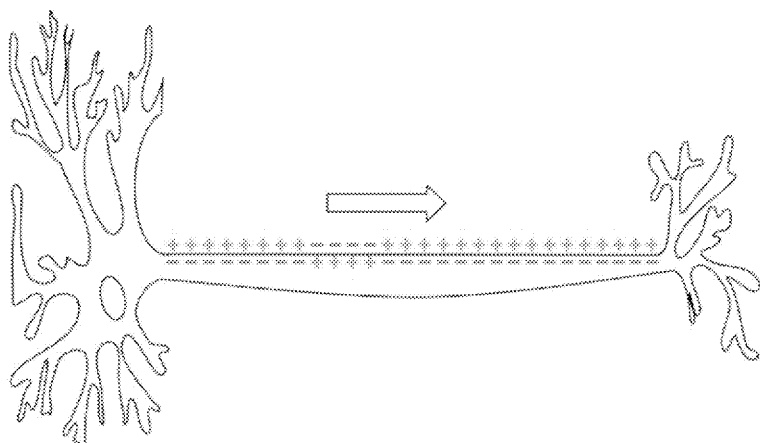
Neurotransmitters are released when an impulse is received in the terminal button. Impulses are messages that are sent through the neuron.

When a neuron is not sending a signal it is at a resting state and the inside is more negative than the outside. When the neuron is at resting state it is said to be at resting potential. A neuron contains a high concentration of positively charged potassium ions (K^+ ions) and a low concentration of positively charged sodium ions (Na^+ ions) and negative charged proteins. The membrane contains proteins that create ion channels that are specific to different ions. At resting potential the potassium channel lets in more potassium than the sodium channel lets in sodium. This means more ions are leaving the neuron than are entering and overall this leads the inside of the neuron to be more negatively charged than the outside.

When the neurotransmitter binds with the receptor of this neuron it triggers for a change in the membrane potential. Positively charged sodium ions enter the cell, causing the inside of the cell to become more positively charged. If this charge meets a certain threshold then the action potential is fired.



This triggers a reaction which leads the sodium channels to open along the axon, allowing sodium ions to enter, causing depolarisation. After each channel closes the potassium channels open, allowing potassium ions to leave the neuron, returning it to its negatively charged state (repolarisation).



The
button

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Excitation and inhibition

When the neurotransmitter reaches the other neuron it binds with the receptors. This either increases or decreases the chances of producing an action potential.

When the neurotransmitter binds to an excitatory receptor this makes it more likely to fire an action potential because the bindings lead to depolarisation and the membrane becomes more positive. If it binds to an inhibitory receptor it is less likely to fire the action potential because it leads to hyperpolarisation and the membrane becomes more negative.

The other neuron receives many different signals from several neurons, and whether it fires an action potential is dependent on the number of excitatory and inhibitory bindings.

Reuptake

To avoid a never-ending number of action potentials the neurotransmitter is reabsorbed and recycled so that it can be used again. This is known as reuptake. The membrane has transporters to allow the neurotransmitters to cross the membrane and be reabsorbed. Some neurotransmitters are large to go through the membrane. There is also an additional process called enzymatic degradation (where enzymes bind to the neurotransmitter and break it down) where enzymes bind to the neurotransmitter and break it down at the receptor site. Both of these processes are important to help regulate neuronal activity.

LINK TO CHAPTER 2

What happens if reuptake is prevented?

In chapter 2 we take a look at how different drugs affect neurotransmission.

The pleasurable and euphoric feeling that drug users experience from many addictive drugs is the result of increased amounts of the neurotransmitter dopamine. Methamphetamine causes dopamine to be released and then blocks the transporters from reabsorbing dopamine back into the sending neuron.

The result is large amounts of dopamine in the synaptic cleft, leading to more dopamine binding to dopamine receptor sites and leading to more action potentials. This results in a sustained and long-lasting feeling of euphoria.

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Chapter 1 Activities

Check your understanding!

1. Describe the function of the dendrites in a neuron cell. (1 mark)
2. Distinguish between excitation and inhibition. (2 marks)
3. Describe the function of one neurotransmitter. (4 marks)
4. Describe the spinal cord's function in the central nervous system. (4 marks)
5. Describe the process of synaptic transmission. (6 marks)
6. Briefly describe the central nervous system. (6 marks)

Exam-style questions

1. Define the terms 'neuron' and 'neurotransmitter' as they are used in biological psychology. (2 marks)
2. When Laura was crossing the road, a fast car turned, came around the corner and quickly rushed out of the way. Laura's teacher said that epinephrine helped her respond to the situation.

Explain, using knowledge of epinephrine, how epinephrine helped Laura respond to the situation. (3 marks)

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Chapter 2: Recreational Drugs and the Central Nervous System

Overview

In this chapter we will take a brief look at the effect of recreational drugs on the central nervous system. We will examine two recreational drugs (methamphetamine and alcohol) in greater detail and build on our understanding of neurotransmitters.

Learning outcomes

After studying this chapter you should be able to:

- ☐ Understand the relationship between recreational drugs and the reward system
- ☐ Describe how two recreational drugs affect the central nervous system
- ☐ Evaluate these effects

Key Terms

| | |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| CNS stimulant | A drug that increases the activity of the central nervous system and makes the user feel more alert and awake |
| CNS depressant | A drug that slows down the activity of the nervous system and makes the user feel relaxed and sleepy |
| Dopamine | A neurotransmitter involved in reward and pleasure |
| Excitation | Encourages an action potential |
| Gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) | The primary inhibitory neurotransmitter in the brain |
| Glutamate | The primary excitatory neurotransmitter |
| Glycine | The primary inhibitory neurotransmitter in the brain |
| Inhibition | Discourages an action potential |
| Neurotransmitter | A chemical that transmits information between neurons |
| Post-synaptic neuron | The receiving neuron |
| Pre-synaptic neuron | The sending neuron |
| Receptor site | An area on the receiving neuron that neurotransmitters bind to |
| Recreational drug | A drug taken for pleasure rather than for medical purposes |
| Reuptake | The process of reabsorbing the neurotransmitter into the presynaptic neuron |
| Reward system | A group of structures and neural pathways in the brain that are involved in the experience of pleasure and in reinforcing behaviours |
| Synaptic vesicles | Store neurotransmitters in the axon |



Scene-Setting Questions

- What do recreational drugs do to our behaviour?
- What do we mean by the terms 'stimulant' and 'depressant'?
- Which neurotransmitters are involved in reward?

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What are recreational drugs?

Recreational drugs are used for enjoyment rather than for medical reasons. Alcohol, nicotine and caffeine are examples of recreational drugs that are legal in the United Kingdom. Most often when people refer to recreational drugs they are talking about drugs that are illegal. Examples of illegal recreational drugs include cocaine, ecstasy, heroin, cannabis and LSD. Although many of these drugs initially produce pleasurable feelings, over repeated use they can lead to addiction, health problems and damage to social relationships.

The reward system and the brain

The reward system is a group of structures and neural pathways in the brain that are involved in reinforcing behaviours.

Early insights: A reward centre in the brain

In 1954, Olds and Milner were interested in whether stimulating different areas of the brain would reinforce behaviour. An electrode was implanted into different areas of a rat's brain. The rat was placed in a box with a lever. If the rat pressed the lever it would result in the stimulation of the brain.

If the rat continued to press the lever down many times then it was assumed that the stimulation was pleasurable and rewarding. Therefore, the rewarding feeling was reinforcing the behaviour of pushing down the lever and encouraging the rats to repeat the behaviour. In contrast, if the rat did not press the lever down again or avoided the lever, the stimulation was assumed to be unpleasant and punishing. The rat therefore would be motivated to avoid the lever.

Of the 15 rats tested, all four of the rats which had the electrode in the septal area pressed the lever, suggesting that the septal area was producing pleasure and reinforcing the behaviour. Similar results were also found for the cingulate cortex (two out of two rats) and mammillary body (one out of two rats), which were also rewarding and reinforcing the lever pushing behaviour.

Olds and Milner suggested that there may be a set of structures in the brain responsible for activating these structures motivate us to repeat rewarding behaviours.

In the same way that the rats were motivated to repeat the lever-pressing behaviour, humans are motivated to repeat drug use because of the same pleasurable feeling created by the drug.



Is it more motivating?

Consider!

This chapter looks at neural rewards for drug-use behaviour. What non-biological factors might motivate an individual to use or continue to use drugs? Consider both legal and illegal drugs.

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Dopamine and the reward system

The primary neurotransmitter in the reward system is dopamine. Dopamine is important in reinforcing our everyday behaviours by producing pleasurable feelings when we do them. For example, eating a delicious meal is rewarding, and food is necessary for survival so this behaviour is reinforced. These pleasurable feelings motivate us to repeat the behaviour.

In addition to rewarding normal everyday behaviours, dopamine is also responsible for the feelings we get when we use addictive drugs. Many recreational drugs produce feelings of pleasure, so we often feel motivated to take the drug again and recreate the feelings they experienced. However, dopamine and pleasure are not possible from everyday behaviours and so drug use becomes a feeling by taking the drug again.

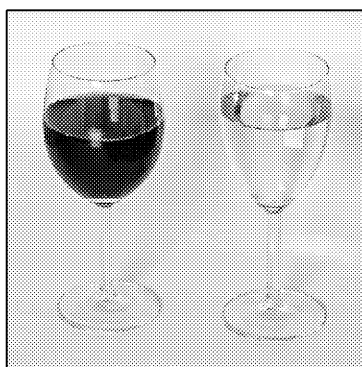
Classifying recreational drugs

There are many different types of drugs, which vary in their use, their effects, their risks, and how dangerous they are.

For the purpose of this chapter, we're going to classify drugs by their effect on the central nervous system.



CNS stimulants: Speed up the activity of your central nervous system and make you feel more alert and energised (e.g. caffeine)



CNS depressants: Slow the activity of the nervous system and make you feel relaxed and drowsy (e.g. alcohol)

This chapter is going to briefly look at stimulants and depressants. You will learn more about these in the Health Psychology topic next year.

CNS stimulants

CNS stimulants speed up the activity of the brain and body. Stimulants make you feel more alert and energised. Well-known CNS stimulants include caffeine, nicotine, cocaine and methamphetamine.

Did you know?

Some CNS stimulants are used for medical reasons rather than recreational use. For example, narcolepsy is characterised by excessive daytime sleepiness and falling asleep suddenly. CNS stimulants can help with this throughout the day, reducing the chances of falling asleep, and improving the patient's quality of life.

CNS stimulants have also been used in the treatment of Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD). However, due to the high potential for addiction and drug abuse, using stimulants as medicine remains controversial. Courses of treatment should be ruled ineffective before turning to stimulants.

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Methamphetamine

Methamphetamine (aka meth) is a strong CNS stimulant that can be taken as a powder or in rock-crystal form (crystal meth). Users of methamphetamine experience a feeling of euphoria, an increase in alertness and wakefulness, and lowered inhibitions. However, less desirable effects include agitation, paranoia, aggression, confusion, mood swings and a rapid heart rate. Methamphetamine is highly addictive and there are anecdotal reports of people becoming addicted from a single use.

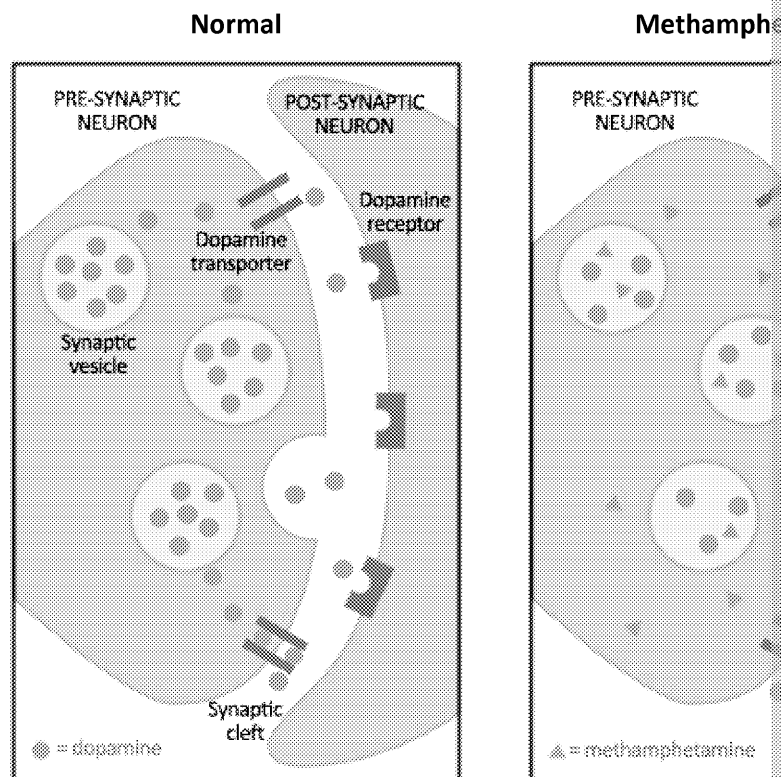
Methamphetamine and dopamine

Like other addictive drugs, the pleasurable feelings of using methamphetamine are due to dopamine. Methamphetamine enters the bloodstream and crosses the blood-brain barrier. It acts on a neuronal level.

Methamphetamine works by causing dopamine to be released by the synaptic vesicles in the pre-synaptic neuron. The synaptic vesicles release dopamine into the synaptic cleft with the dopamine receptors on the post-synaptic neuron.

Methamphetamine also blocks the reuptake of dopamine. Reuptake is a process where the neurotransmitter (dopamine) is reabsorbed into the pre-synaptic neuron. Reuptake stops the effect of the neurotransmitter and is therefore important in regulating synaptic transmission.

The diagram below illustrates the changes:



Taking methamphetamine results in an initial rush and then a more sustained high. Increasing the effect of dopamine and blocking its reuptake results in large amounts of dopamine in the synaptic cleft and an increased number of bindings to dopamine receptors. Blocking reuptake prolongs the effect of the drug as dopamine stays in the synapse for longer.

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Methamphetamine and other neurotransmitters

Methamphetamine also affects norepinephrine and serotonin.

Norepinephrine is an important neurotransmitter that is involved in stress responses such as fight-or-flight. It is responsible for the increased alertness and attention that a user experiences after taking the drug.

The neurotransmitter serotonin is affected also by using methamphetamine. Serotonin is important for a number of brain functions, but is particularly known for its involvement in mood regulation. Methamphetamine kills both dopamine and serotonin neurotransmitter cells which results in feelings of depression. Long-term users of methamphetamine become less and less able to feel joy. The intense reward produced by methamphetamine cannot be produced by normal behaviour and long-term users no longer find everyday behaviours rewarding.

Factors that alter the intensity of the drug

Methamphetamine can be smoked, swallowed, snorted or injected. How the drug is used affects the experience of the user. Injecting and smoking methamphetamine give the user a more intense experience because these methods deliver to the brain quickly. In contrast, swallowing the drug gives a less intense experience because the drug is sent first to the stomach. Therefore, different methods of use affect the intensity of neurotransmission.

CNS depressants

CNS depressants decrease the activity of the brain and body. Depressants are not called depressants because they make you depressed; the word depressant refers to the slowing down and calming effect they have on the user. Examples of CNS depressants include alcohol, benzodiazepines (e.g. Valium used for anxiety disorder) and barbiturates (used for epilepsy). Just like CNS stimulants there are negative consequences to using too much of these drugs.

Alcohol

Alcohol is widely consumed across the world and in many cultures alcohol plays an important role in socialising. When consumed in moderation, alcohol causes an improvement in mood (euphoria), improved self-confidence, reduced anxiety and an increase in sociability. However, larger amounts of alcohol can cause a significant impairment in judgement and coordination, blurred vision, slurred speech, drowsiness and memory problems. Heavy long-term use can cause damage to the liver and alcoholism.

Alcohol and inhibitory neurotransmission

In neurotransmission, there is a careful balance between inhibition and excitation. Inhibitory neurotransmitters decrease how responsive other neurons are. In contrast, excitatory neurotransmitters increase how responsive other neurons are to other stimuli.

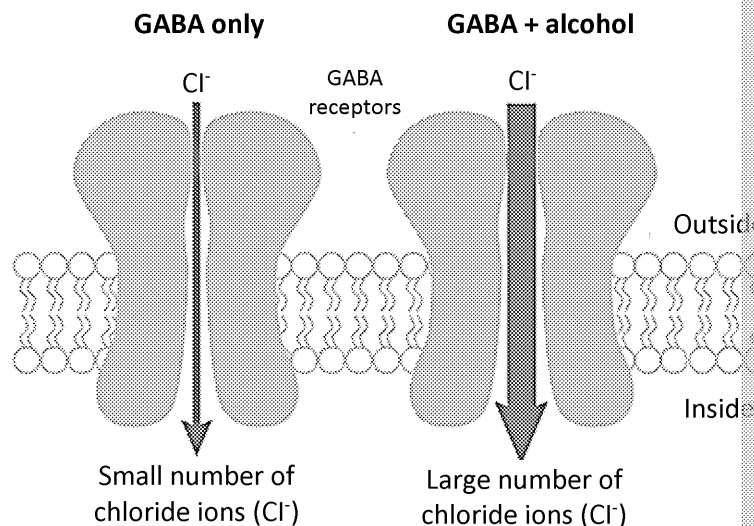
In the short-term, alcohol acts as a depressant by:

Increasing the effect of inhibitory neurotransmitters

Gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) is the primary inhibitory neurotransmitter in the brain. When released into the synaptic cleft it binds to the GABA receptors on the post-synaptic neuron. When the chloride channel opens, negatively-charged chloride ions enter the neuron and the neuron becomes more negatively charged. A negatively-charged neuron will not fire because it does not meet the threshold of positive charge. This results in an inhibitory effect on the neuron.

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Glycine is the primary inhibitory neurotransmitter in the brain stem and spinal cord (CNS) and is involved in sensory and motor functions. As with GABA, the inhibitory Glycine is thought to contribute to the psychomotor problems a person may experience (e.g. stumbling, poor fine motor coordination).

Decreasing the effect of excitatory neurotransmitters

Glutamate is the most important excitatory neurotransmitter. When glutamate binds to its receptors, it increases the movement of positive ions entering the cell which makes action potentials more likely.

Consumption of alcohol inhibits the excitatory effect of glutamate receptors. Low concentrations of alcohol (0.03%) inhibited the NMDA glutamate receptor. This suggests that glutamate receptors are particularly sensitive to alcohol. Alcohol results in a depressant effect on the CNS.

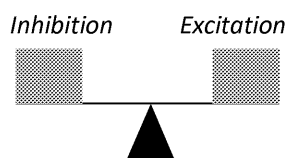
Issues and Debates: Psychology as a science

Synaptic transmission looks at how the brain communicates on a neuron-to-neuron level. This method is scientific as it focuses on electrical impulses and neuron cells. These concepts are well established within psychology.

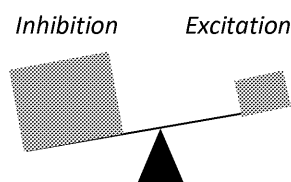
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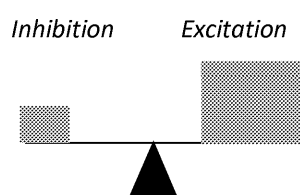
Long-term alcohol consumption and the inhibitory–excitatory balance



Without alcohol, neurotransmission is carefully regulated and the inhibitory and excitatory system is in balance. This allows for normal functioning but also regulates neurotransmission so that it does not become overactive.



In the short term, when alcohol is consumed it reduces the activity of the inhibitory system. The number of action potentials is reduced and the CNS is depressed.



Long-term consumption results in the body trying to compensate by increasing the amount of excitation. When an individual stops alcohol use they often experience withdrawal symptoms such as shaky hands and even seizures, and this is the result of the balance in favour of excitation.

Evaluation of recreational drugs on the central nervous system

Strengths

- **Supported by evidence:** Vast amounts of research are conducted into this area. Findings (e.g. Olds and Milner, 1954) support the idea that there are particular brain areas involved in pleasure, reward and addiction.
- **Deeper understanding:** Research in this area has led to a deeper understanding of the brain and reward.
- **Useful applications:** Understanding how drugs work on a neural level can help in finding possible biological solutions to addiction and withdrawal.

Weaknesses

- **There are individual differences:** Our abilities to manage drug use are related to many factors (Wichers, et al., 2013) whereas this approach suggests that drugs affect everyone in the same way.
- **Drugs often involve several neurotransmitters:** Research tends to focus on one neurotransmitter but in fact drugs involve multiple neurotransmitters that often influence one another.
- **Over-simplistic explanation:** Focusing purely on the neural side of drug use can lead to a simplistic understanding. For example, we have shown that drugs that affect the dopamine system are pleasurable and addictive, but not why some individuals are more likely to be addicted than others.
- **Animal research may not be generalisable to humans:** Many studies investigating neurotransmission use animals in laboratory settings. It may not be possible to directly compare animals to humans. Although the process of neurotransmission is the same for animals, it is far more complex in humans.
- **Difficult to study:** In some cases it can be difficult to study certain drugs, e.g. using a multitude of different drugs and this makes it difficult to isolate the effects of a single drug.

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Chapter 2 Activities

Check your understanding!

1. Describe the main difference between CNS stimulants and CNS depressants. (2 marks)
2. Identify and explain one weakness of Olds and Milner's (1954) study. (2 marks)
3. Briefly describe the role of GABA in the brain. (3 marks)
4. Briefly describe how one drug affects the central nervous system. (4 marks)

Exam-style questions:

1. Define the terms 'excitatory neurotransmitter' and 'inhibitory neurotransmitter'. How are they used in biological psychology. (2 marks)
2. James watched a documentary on drug use and noticed that methamphetamine was mentioned. James' teacher said that dopamine might be responsible.

Explain, using knowledge of dopamine, why methamphetamine is very addictive.

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Chapter 3: The Brain

Overview

This chapter examines the different brain areas and their involvement in aggression. We also take a look at different brain-scanning techniques and what we can learn from them. This chapter includes the Classic Study, Raine et al. (1997).

Learning outcomes

After studying this chapter you should be able to:

- ☐ Describe the structure of the brain
- ☐ Describe and evaluate evidence of the role of the brain to aggression
- ☐ Describe and evaluate brain-scanning techniques
- ☐ Describe and evaluate a classic study

Key Terms

Computer axial tomography (CAT scans)

A scanning technique that uses a rotating X-ray machine to learn about the brain's structure.

Computerised tomography (CT scans)

A more modern version of CAT scans using a more powerful X-ray machine to generate a 3D image.

Functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI)

A scanning technique that uses strong magnetic fields to detect changes in blood oxygen level in different areas of the brain during activity.

Limbic system

A collection of structures within the brain that are involved in emotion and memory.

Positron emission tomography (PET)

A scanning technique that uses a radioactive tracer to detect changes in different areas of the brain.

Reductionism

Reducing a complex problem down into simpler parts to gain a simpler but less complete understanding.

Social control

Regulating human behaviour, usually through laws and social norms.



Scene-Setting Questions

- How do we describe the different parts of the brain?
- Why do psychologists study brain injuries?
- Can we generalise from animal studies of the brain to human behaviour?

The brain and our behaviour

The brain is responsible for almost all of our behaviour. Studies of brain damage show just how crucial our brain is for language, decision-making, moving and so much more. In this chapter we take a look at different areas of the brain and how they relate to our behaviour.

Two hemispheres

The brain is divided into two equal parts: a right hemisphere and a left hemisphere. The two hemispheres communicate via a band of nerve fibres called the corpus callosum. Although the two hemispheres look similar, there are subtle differences, for example, the Broca's and Wernicke's Areas which are involved in language are usually found in the left hemisphere.

Right hemisphere

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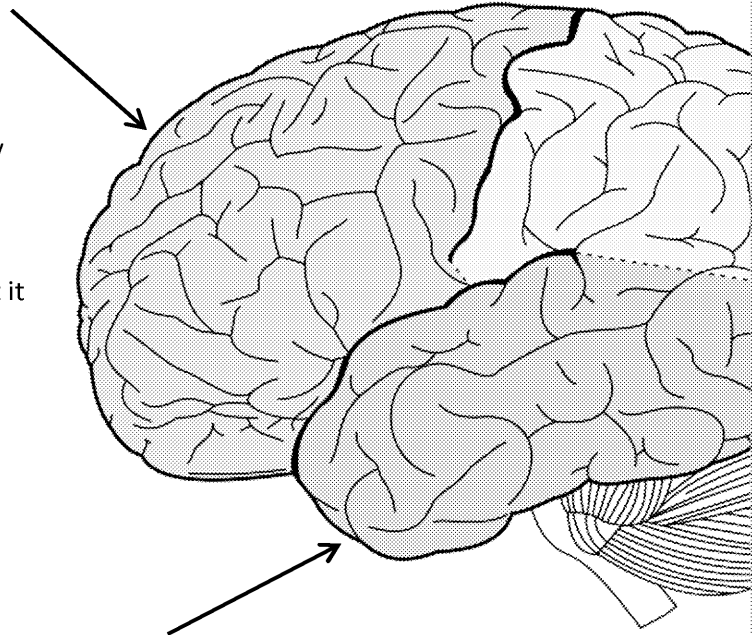
The lobes of our brain

Our brain has been further subdivided into four lobes.

Frontal lobe

The largest lobe of the brain, the frontal lobe houses the primary motor cortex. The primary motor cortex is one of the most important areas of the brain for planning and executing movement. Organising our movement is surprisingly complex due to having to carefully control muscles, time movements and work out the correct amount of force needed (imagine holding a glass so tight it cracks!).

A lateral surface view of the brain



Temporal lobe

The temporal lobe is involved in processing sensory information, particularly auditory, and memory and recognition. The primary auditory cortex, which is part of the temporal lobe, is involved in organising and processing sound.

Cerebellum

The cerebellum is not the largest part of the brain, but an important structure in our voluntary movement. The cerebellum helps us coordinate fine muscle movements of the brain results in precision and mistiming our movements.

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Learning about the brain: Brain scanning techniques

Our understanding of the brain is increasing in proportion to the advances in technology that are providing new ways to research the brain. Below we consider different brain scanning techniques:



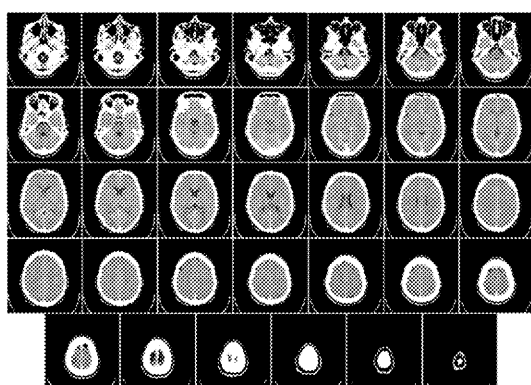
EXAM TIP: In the exam, write down the full name of the acronym in brackets.

Computer axial tomography (CAT scans) and Computerised tomography (CT scans)

Computer axial tomography (CAT) scans were the first type of modern brain scanning machine to learn about **brain structure**.

How does it work?

The scan involves taking a series of x-ray images at different angles which are then combined to produce a 3D representation of the brain. Each image shows a 'slice' of the brain and when put together it forms a picture of the whole brain. To get a full picture of the brain, the participant lies down and the X-ray machine rotates around them.



The picture above shows CT scans of the human brain, going from the base of the skull to the top of the skull

X-ray machines form their images by measuring the density of the tissue. When having a scan, the machine takes a series of x-rays in different angles and/or block x-rays in different angles to create different densities. On a CT scan, areas of different densities are shown in different colours. For example, bone tissue is a medium grey and air is black.

Computerised tomography (CT) scans is an updated technique. In CT scans the machine rotates around the subject to develop a 3D image. Nowadays, researchers use CT scans, but the term CAT scan can still be used to refer to a CT scan.

| Advantages | Disadvantages |
|--|---|
| Learn about the structure of the brain and skull CAT and CT scans can provide detailed information about the brain's structure. This can be useful in detecting brain abnormalities such as tumours. | No insight into brain activity CAT and CT scanning techniques provide structural insights into what is happening in the brain, but not into what is happening at a particular task. |
| Objective Scanning is an objective measurement and cannot be influenced by the researcher's beliefs. As such it is a scientific method. | Use of radiation People should avoid having a scan as it can damage the tissue and increase the risk of cancer. X-ray scans are not recommended for pregnant people. |

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The latest developments in fMRI

One of the disadvantages of fMRI is that it shows fairly large regions of activity of blood oxygen level, a new technique called vascular space occupancy (VASO) measures vessel size. Only vessels that are very close to the activated neurons are identified.

| Advantages | Disadvantages |
|---|---|
| Non-invasive An fMRI machine is safe to use for both humans and animals meaning that the same scan can be done several times. This is an advantage as it can allow researchers to track changes across time; for example, if there are any improvements or changes that have occurred as a result of treatment. | Not at an individual neuron An fMRI scanner does not show activity at an individual neuron but rather large groups of neurons. This limits understanding more limited areas of the brain associated with multiple tasks. It does not provide clear understanding of the underlying processes. |
| High spatial resolution A high resolution fMRI machine can identify the brain region up to an accuracy of 1 mm. This allows for a good accuracy of the region being activated by the task. | Expensive An fMRI machine is very expensive. They are very powerful, meaning that even a short time is very expensive to study the brain using an fMRI machine. |

Note: fMRI scanning is an extremely popular method: a search on ScienceDirect article database, found 6,115 different studies related to fMRIs were conducted in 2018, the number increasing yearly – what might this say about the acceptance of the fMRI technique?

Issues and Debates: An understanding how psychological understanding has changed over time

Efforts to map the brain are the current preoccupation of neuroscientists. The development of a number of techniques has led to a rapid expansion of information about the brain into what we know about the brain today:

- Since the 1970s, CAT scans have been used to learn more about injuries to the body and head. This allows the researcher to learn about the structure of the brain and skull, and identify abnormalities. CAT scans are non-invasively, although the research does expose the patient to mild levels of radiation.
- Shortly after the invention of CAT scans, PET scans provided the first insight into activity of the brain. PET scans show the flow in the brain. As the technique was refined, the researchers could learn more about which regions of the brain are involved in certain tasks. This provided some insight into the function of particular areas of the brain.
- Raymond Vahan Damadian (1936–) was the first to perform a full body scan to investigate cancer using an MRI machine. Later Paul Bottomley performed the first localised scan on the human brain after adjusting the machine. This technique produces detailed images of the brain's structure. MRI is more useful in diagnosing brain disorders as it does not expose the patient to radiation.
- Seiji Ogawa (1934–) realised the importance of blood oxygen level in determining neural activity. This led to the development of fMRI, now possible to get accurate information about the location of activity in the brain.

Issues and Debates: Practical issues in the design and implementation

Although brain scanning is a popular technique for learning more about the brain, there are a number of practical issues in the design and implementation and measuring the complexity of the brain.

Some of the problems include:

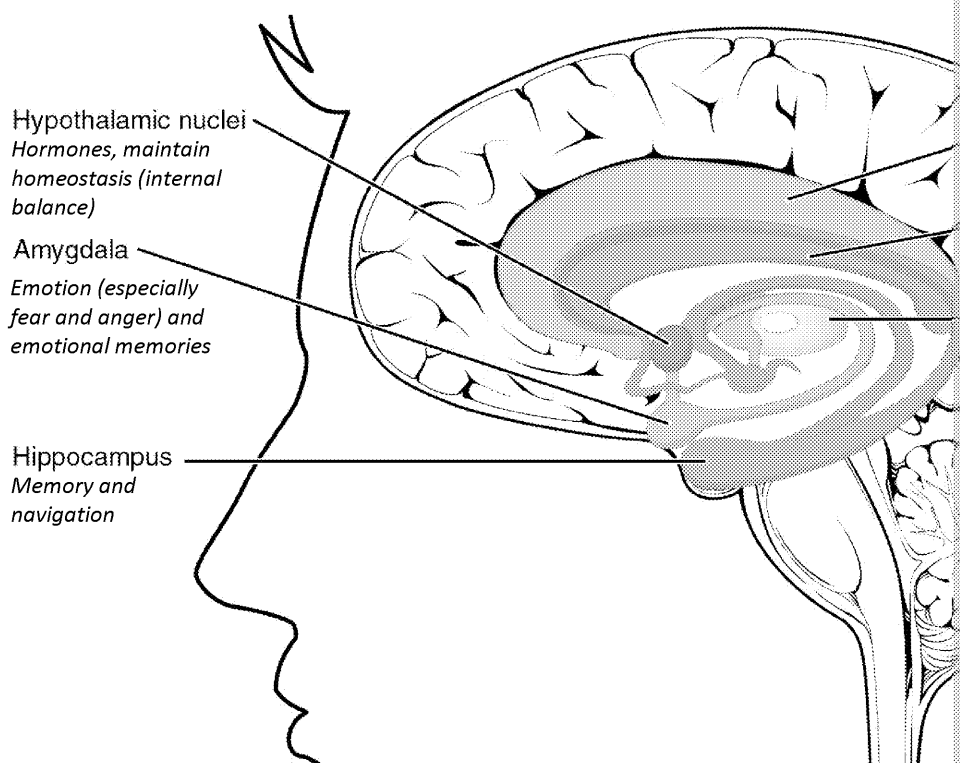
- Imaging resolution is often too poor to fully capture the complexity of the brain. Scanning techniques are often at a millimetre level, but in reality, resolution needs to be much higher to understand such a complex system at the level of individual neurons which cannot be measured by scanning.
- When scanning for brain activity related to a particular task, there is also a lot of 'noise' (extra activity). Some of this noise will be related to other activities of the brain, and other noise will not have anything to do with the task. It is difficult to separate the activity that is related to the task and noise.
- Within brain scanning studies there are problems reproducing the results, and repetitions often give different results. This suggests that there may be problems in the sensitivity and accuracy of the technique.

Brain functioning and aggression

A growing body of research has linked particular areas of the brain to aggression.

Role of the Limbic System

The limbic system is a collection of structures within the brain that are thought to be involved in emotion and memory. With recent advances in neuroscience, the structures of the limbic system have been identified and these changes. At present the limbic system consists of:



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Some psychologists argue that the notion of there being a single system should be thought of as an interconnected whole rather than formed of separate systems, but this is not to be referred to in textbooks and articles today.

Are neural explanations incompatible with other explanations?

The neural explanation can be viewed as another level of behaviour rather than a separate explanation. In this sense, neural explanations are a reflection of behaviour at the same level. In the same sense, in chemistry you can view behaviour at the level of single atoms or compounds. This means that neural and behavioural explanations are compatible with different views of behaviour.

The Amygdala

The amygdala is located within the temporal lobes and is often considered the brain's 'emotion centre'. It has particularly strong roles in the primal emotions of fear and anger and is involved in our detection and evaluation of threats.

Corresponding behaviour:

Fear —————→ Avoidance

Anger —————→ Aggression

Animal studies

Animal research has suggested a strong role for the amygdala in aggression.

For example, in Primbram et al.'s (1954) study of eight male rhesus monkeys, a type of monkey that often uses aggression to maintain or establish social position, they made lesions to the most dominant monkey's amygdala in the hierarchy. The monkey became much less aggressive and as a result was demoted to the bottom of the hierarchy as it no longer reacted to challenges to its position.

In humans

Groves and Schlesinger (1982) found that removing the amygdala (an amygdalotomy) in humans who showed uncontrollable violent behaviour reduced the incidence of this behaviour, but also resulted in a lack of avoidance of fearful stimuli and a flat state of emotion.

Issues and Debates: Social Control

Aggression and violence is seen as an undesirable behaviour for society and there have been many attempts to control it. One method that has been used is psychosurgery. Psychosurgery is surgery of the brain. The focus was on destroying certain brain tissues related to aggression. An amygdalotomy is a type of psychosurgery where the amygdala is destroyed using surgical methods. The amygdala plays an important role in aggression and studies show that amygdalotomies reduce the amount of aggression displayed. However, the amygdala also has other functions. People who have had an amygdalotomy may fail to show normal fear responses after the procedure. Psychosurgeries such as amygdalotomy are controversial because they take away the individual's ability to perform a societally undesirable behaviour.

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Today: Psychosurgeries such as lobotomies and amygdalectomies used to be carried out frequently but today they are only used as a last resort.

Matthies et al. (2012) used brain scans on participants without psychiatric illness to measure the effect of removing participants' amygdala. They found that participants with the highest scores on a measure of aggression had the lowest amygdala volume that was 16–18% smaller than the control group.

Determinism, reductionism and the law

Neural explanations can be seen as reductionist as they ignore that our behaviour is influenced by social and environmental interactions and how learning can mediate our response to stimuli. While neural explanations can determine behaviour it ignores the importance of how social and environmental factors interact to produce a person's behaviour.

Neuroscience is increasingly finding its way into criminal trials with defendants' behaviour being explained by brain function abnormalities. This has significant implications for the law as research is applied to real life as the idea of biological determinants goes against the idea of individual responsibility for our actions.

Oscar Pistorius went on trial for killing his girlfriend after allegedly being startled by an intruder. The defence suggested that Pistorius experienced high levels of anxiety and would react more sensitively and activate the fight-or-flight response more readily.

Hypothalamus

The hypothalamus is another area that research has strongly suggested is involved in aggression.

Animal studies

In the 1920s Hess conducted a series of studies on cats where the hypothalamus was stimulated using electrodes implanted in the brain. He found that stimulation of the hypothalamus produced a reaction very similar to if they encountered a threat; for example, they would growl, hiss and their fur would stand on end. When they were further stimulated they would act out an attack on an invisible threat. When stimulation was stopped the cats went back to their original calm state.

Region- and type-specific aggression

Researchers often distinguish between two different types of aggression: predatory aggression and affective aggression. Predatory aggression occurs when an animal attacks with the purpose of gaining reward, such as food, whereas affective aggression occurs when there is a threat the animal reacts to. In the 1960s Flynn carried out experiments stimulating different areas of the hypothalamus.

| Stimulated | Produced |
|----------------------|------------------------|
| Medial hypothalamus | → affective aggression |
| Lateral hypothalamus | → predatory aggression |

When the cats were given the option to attack a nearby rat:

- Those who had their medial hypothalamus stimulated showed a strong reaction but rarely attacked
- Those who had their lateral hypothalamus stimulated showed a much lesser reaction and ate the rat quietly

This suggests that there is a neural basis for the different forms of aggression!

In humans

The first research indicating a role for the hypothalamus in human aggression was by James Watson, who lesioned the hypothalamus of violent patients. The lesioned area included the lateral hypothalamus. The result was a reduction of, or in some cases a complete

The area that Sano et al. lesioned later became known as the 'triangle of Sano' and has been studied by many researchers since. For example, Bejjani et al. (2002) found that stimulating the triangle of Sano in Parkinson's disease produced aggressive behaviour.

Further support for the involvement of the triangle of Sano comes from Franzini-Ardesi et al. (1987) who used electrodes in this area in two male patients who showed impulsive aggression, and for whom drug treatments had failed to work. The electrodes continuously stimulated the triangle of Sano and the patients' aggressive behaviour was completely abolished.

Issues and Debates: Reductionism

The brain is a highly complex organ and focusing only on aggression fails to take into account the complexity of the brain. This approach of studying the brain is reductionist because it focuses only on what we are interested in, rather than the whole. In reality, the components of the brain do not work in isolation, however, when we study aggression we focus on the brain areas involved. By studying the brain this way we do not gain a full understanding of the brain or aggression.

Prefrontal cortex (PFC)

Compared to most other mammals, humans have a much larger and more developed prefrontal cortex.

The area is traditionally associated with complex cognitive functions such as decision-making, inhibition and planning. It is thought that the prefrontal cortex is involved in the planning of behaviour, particularly chosen or voluntary actions.

Damage to the frontal area of the brain is associated with problems with impulse control and impulsive behaviour.



An early case study example of frontal brain damage is Phineas Gage's case in 1848 which resulted in a large iron tamping rod going through his brain. This case suggests that Gage experienced a number of personality changes, becoming more impulsive, using profanities, making poor decisions and having a shorter temper. However, sources of information about these changes are not reliable.

Individual differences: Brain damage

Individuals with brain damage are often studied after the event and it is assumed that the damage is the cause of the behaviour. However, there may also be individual differences before the incident, which could influence their present behaviour, but because they are only studied post-incident this is not known. Instead, it is assumed that there are no individual differences.

Later studies have confirmed a link between the prefrontal cortex and impulse control. The prefrontal cortex is involved in inhibiting impulses and delaying gratification.

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Classic Study: Raine et al. (1997) Brain abnormalities in murder positron emission tomography

This study examined whether there were differences in the brains of people who had been convicted of murder and pleaded not guilty by reason of insanity, compared to normal controls. Any differences might provide insight into aggression.

Aims

The aim of the study was to investigate the differences between the brains of a group of people convicted of murder and a control group.



EXAM TIP
This study might also be asked about in this one.

What did Raine et al. predict they would find?

Raine et al. (1997) predicted that the group convicted of murder would show brain abnormalities in areas associated with previous research on violent behaviour. In particular, they expected to see differences in the prefrontal cortex, amygdala, hippocampus and the corpus callosum.

Who were their participants?

The experimental group were 41 people (39 males and 2 females) who had been convicted of manslaughter but pleaded Not Guilty by Reason of Insanity (NGRI). The experimental group had a mean age of 34.3 and had been free of medication for two weeks before the brain scans took place to avoid medication effects.

The experimental group was compared with a control group of 41 people who were matched for similar age (mean 31.7). The control group did not take medication and were split into two groups: one with schizophrenia and these were compared to the NGRIs who had no mental health issues.

Research methods: The use of control groups

Control groups are an important part of research, experimental psychology in particular. The experimental group is compared to the control group which acts as a baseline. Control groups may be used to control for a variable so that the researcher can be sure that changes are the result of the topic of the study, not a confounding variable, such as age or gender.

What was their method?

Both groups of participants were injected with a glucose-based tracer which responds to metabolic activity. Both groups did a continuous performance task for 32 minutes and then a resting scan. Two techniques were used to identify brain regions:

Cortical peel technique (lateral brain areas): The brain was scanned in 10 mm horizontal slices. The first 10 slices which show the prefrontal, temporal, parietal and occipital areas of the brain were used for comparison. To identify brain regions, the researchers used the same technique for other regions in the slice. They worked out values for three prefrontal regions: superior frontal gyrus and inferior frontal gyrus. Additional measures of bilateral temporal areas were averaged across the slices.

Box technique (medial brain areas): Using coordinates of the brain regions, a 3 x 3 grid of interest (the pixels themselves were 2 mm²). The metabolic rates for these areas were compared across different slices.

Issues and Debates: Psychology as a science

One key feature of science is that the findings should not be influenced by the researcher's beliefs or expectations. Brain scanning is an objective method of studying the brain because the researcher cannot influence the image.

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Key findings...

NGRIs had lower glucose metabolism in the lateral and medial prefrontal cortex

Damage to the prefrontal cortex has been linked to increased behaviour. Those with damage to this area become focused on the action and lose sight of the negative future consequences of their aggression because the individual does not focus on the consequences of their aggression, e.g. arrest and imprisonment.

➔ **Evaluation:** We do not know if the participants' criminal makers distinguish between premeditated (planned) murder. It may have been that the murders committed were premeditated and therefore their aggression is not

Additionally, the prefrontal cortex has been linked to problems voluntarily regulating emotions. For example, you would not try to calm yourself down when you're angry. Phan et al. (2004) conducted a meta-analysis on PET and fMRI studies and found that the medial prefrontal cortex was activated in nearly 50% of studies investigating emotion and responses to positive and negative stimuli. This suggests that the medial prefrontal cortex may play a large role in emotional processing and regulating emotions.



Study

NGRIs had lower glucose metabolism in parietal regions

The parietal cortex helps to integrate our sensory information and abstract concepts, which may explain the cognitive and perceptual deficits often found in violent offenders. The left angular gyrus is associated with deficits in reading and arithmetic. Violent offenders have verbal skills and an increased number of learning deficits, which may have predisposed them to failure in education and could have encouraged them to turn to crime.

NGRIs showed an increased amygdala activity in the right hemisphere and decreased amygdala activity in the left hemisphere (relative to controls)

Studies on animals have found that stimulating the amygdala leads to increased aggression and sexual arousal.

In 1966, Charles Whitman killed his mother, his wife and then a further 14 people in the area surrounding the main building of The University of Texas at Austin. A further person died as a result of their injuries much later and Whitman himself was shot by an officer.

Prior to the shooting, Whitman noticed that with the smallest provocation he would feel aggressive and hostile. He went to a doctor seeking help for his strong aggressive urges. In his suicide note, he requested that an autopsy be carried out to see if there was a biological cause for his recent aggressive impulses.

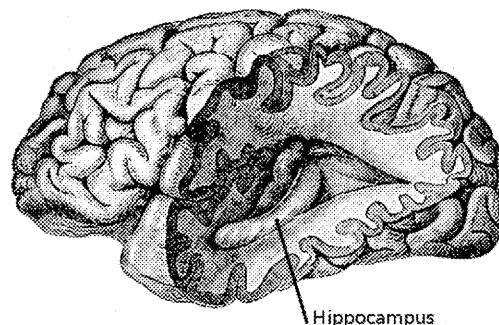
The autopsy revealed that Whitman had a brain tumour pressed up against his amygdala.

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The corpus callosum connects the two hemispheres and allows them to communicate. The left hemisphere is thought to be linked to inhibiting behaviours, whereas the right hemisphere is dominant for negative emotions. The authors suggest that problems in the corpus callosum may mean that the left hemisphere does not properly regulate the negative emotions of the right, which could result in aggression. In rats, severing the corpus callosum results in an increase in mice-killing which suggests that the left hemisphere usually inhibits the right-hemisphere aggression.

These findings are supported by other brain scanning research by Zetzsche et al. (2007). Patients with borderline personality disorder often have problems with impulse control and aggression. Research by Zetzsche et al. (2007) using MRI scanning has found that lower hippocampal volume in the left hemisphere was associated with a history of lifetime aggression.

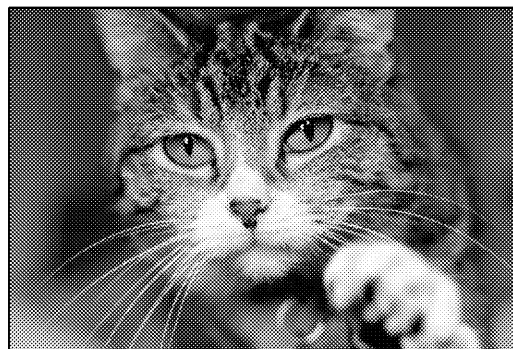


The hippocampus is part of the limbic system which is involved in emotion and memory.

The thalamus is thought to be involved in regulating aggressive behaviour. MacDonnell and Flynn (1964) found that electrical stimulation of the medial thalamus in cats lead them to attack rats, whereas stimulation of other areas of the thalamus inhibits attack.

The role of the thalamus in aggression is still poorly understood. Animal studies can stimulate or lesion the area to learn more about its function.

However, it seems likely that the thalamus is part of an interconnected network that is involved in modulating aggression. Therefore, these studies can only tell us so much.



capital lobe glucose metabolism
ences for midbrain and cerebellum activity
ence on the continuous performance task

authors concluded that multiple regions are involved in violent behaviour. They argue
ces do not determine violent behaviour but instead violence is due to a combination of
gical, cultural and situational factors which predispose the person to aggression.

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Task 3.1: Evaluating Raine et al. (1997)

With the person next to you, discuss each evaluation point for Raine et al.'s study. Jot down any

Internal validity

Can the findings be accounted for by other explanations?

External validity

Are the findings generalisable?

Sample

Is the sample representative of who you are?

Psychology as a science

Is the method scientific?

Reductionism

Is the approach reductionist?

Use of animals

Are the findings useful?

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Chapter 3 Activities

Check your understanding!

1. Identify and explain one weakness of brain scanning studies. (3 marks)
2. Identify and explain one problem with using research obtained from o
3. Briefly describe one study that links a brain region to aggression. (3 m
4. Describe Raine et al.'s (1997) sample. (3 marks)

Exam-style questions:

1. Functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) is a brain-scanning tech
used to study the brain's activity.
Describe functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) as a brain-scan
2. Explain one strength and one weakness of using brain-scanning studie
understanding of human behaviour. (4 marks)
3. Evaluate one classic study that has been used to explain human aggress

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Chapter 4: Evolutionary and Natural Selection Aggression

Overview

In this chapter we take a close look at the evolutionary explanations of aggression. We focus on evolutionary explanations of rape, homicide and responses to infidelity. We also learn about Darwin's Natural Selection theory and how this relates to evolutionary theory.

Learning outcomes

- After studying this chapter you should be able to:
- ☐ Explain different aggressive behaviours in terms of evolutionary explanations
 - ☐ Understand Darwin's Natural Selection theory
 - ☐ Evaluate evolutionary explanations of aggression

Key Terms

| | |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| Adaptation | The evolutionary process of becoming more suited to our environment |
| Evolution | A theory of how our population has changed over a long period of time as the result of genetics |
| Infidelity | Cheating; can be emotional (e.g. love) or sexual |
| Intrasexual competition | Competition between the same sex (e.g. males and males) |
| Mate poaching | The act of deliberately stealing another's mate |
| Natural selection | An evolutionary theory formed by Charles Darwin that states that survival and reproductive benefits become more common over time |
| Parental investment theory | An evolutionary theory that argues that men and women invest different amounts in their offspring |
| Survival of the fittest | A term from Herbert Spencer which describes how the fittest individuals are more likely to survive and reproduce |



Scene-Setting Questions

- What is evolution?
- What would be the benefits of being aggressive in our evolutionary past?
- What are the benefits of being aggressive in our modern-day life?

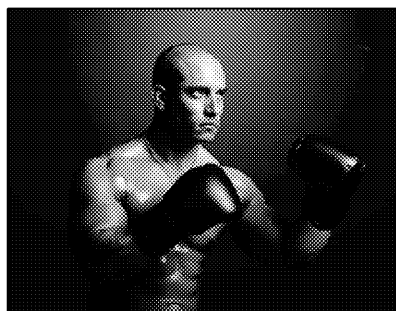
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What are evolutionary explanations of behaviour?

Evolution is a theory of how our population has changed over a long period of time. Evolutionary explanations look back at the lives of our first human ancestors and try to explain our behaviours today. Evolutionary explanations argue that behaviours that helped our ancestors to survive and reproduce would have gone on to have both our current behaviours.

The lives of our hunter-gatherer ancestors were very different from ours; without modern tools they would spend large amounts of their time trying to make sure they had enough food to survive. Men would go out and hunt animals; work which was often very physically demanding. Women would forage from vegetation in the landscape and raise the children.



One part of evolutionary theory is that these differences between men and women might explain some of our behaviour.

For example, men are physically stronger and more likely to use physical aggression as a method of achieving their goals.

What is natural selection?

Natural selection is a theory by Charles Darwin which he published in his book *Origin of Species* (1859). His theory argues that when a particular trait leads to reproductive advantages (a higher rate of surviving and reproducing) then this trait will, over time, become more common in the population. This is because individuals with these traits are more likely to reproduce and the genes for these traits are passed on into the next generation. Over several generations, many people will have the same traits and if the process continues the entire population may have this advantageous trait.

Note: Natural selection and evolution are not the same. Natural selection is a process or mechanism by which evolution occurs.

Survival of the fittest

'Survival of the fittest' is a phrase often used to mean natural selection. The phrase was coined by Herbert Spencer, who was commenting on Darwin's research, rather than Darwin himself. It does not mean physically fit, but rather that those who are best suited to their environment are more likely to survive and reproduce.

Consider!

What traits do humans possess that would make them well suited to their environment? What traits would help them survive their hunter-gatherer lifestyle? Are there any traits that other animals possess that would be useful for humans to have?

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Adaptation

Adaptation refers to the evolutionary process by which we become more suited to our environment and therefore more likely to survive.

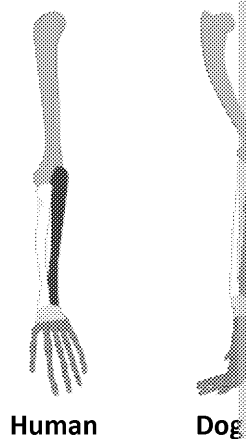
According to natural selection theory, humans are more likely to inherit adaptive traits because those with those traits are more likely to reproduce.

Over a long period of time, humans have become well adapted to our environment.

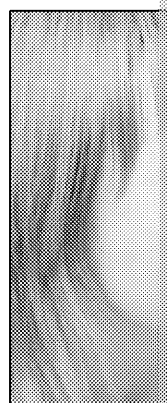
Why are we not all the same?

Natural selection can only occur where there is genetic variation. Genetic variation occurs naturally, for example, some people will be taller or shorter, or have blue eyes rather than brown. Natural selection does not stop people from mating if their genes do not provide reproductive advantages. However, genes that lead to reproductive disadvantages may become extinct if the person does not survive long enough to reproduce.

Genetic variation can occur because of gene mutations. You may have heard of diseases, such as Huntington's Disease, which are caused by a gene mutation. Huntington's Disease affects cognition, emotion and movement, and gets progressively worse until the sufferer dies. Huntington's Disease is inherited and a parent with the gene for Huntington's will have a 50% chance of giving it to their offspring. However, many other genetic mutations are completely harmless and can account for our individual differences. Parents may pass down their genetic mutations to their children and this leads to genetic variance in our population.



*Different animals
this is reflected in
bodies have adap*



*We inherit
parent, but
mutations wi*

Developmental psychology: The role of evolution in human development

According to evolutionary psychology, natural selection plays an important role in the development of the human mind across time. Natural selection argues that, by chance, some people have traits that make them more likely to reproduce and survive. As such, these people are more likely to pass on their genes and this trait to their offspring. Those without this trait are less likely to survive and their genes are not passed on. Over a long time, the majority (or all) of the population will have the trait. Through this slow process, over many generations, humans have developed and become now more likely to survive and reproduce.

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Evolutionary Explanations of Human Aggression

The evolutionary approach argues that our present-day behaviours have evolved. Behaviours that are argued to have increased the chances of survival and reproduction, and led to the survival of the fittest.

Investigating evolutionary explanations

Evolutionary approaches to explaining behaviour are often highly theoretical because they are based on what our ancestors' lives were like. One possible method of investigation is to study tribes that have had relatively little contact with the modern world. However, there are difficulties in investigating their behaviour; for example, the presence of researchers may change their behaviour, language problems, and the danger of researchers imposing their own culture-for example, by interpreting another culture's behaviour.

Since we cannot directly study our ancestors, evolutionary explanations often lack credibility and are not always desirable within modern psychology. However, one question that is frequently asked is whether behaviour is universal. Evolutionarily adaptive behaviours should be found in all cultures. If a behaviour is (learnt) differences because they would be passed down through genes. Adaptive behaviours are those that increase the chance of survival and reproduction which over a period of millions of years would lead to the survival of the person inheriting this beneficial behaviour.

So for every behaviour discussed here, think: *'Is the behaviour universal?'*

Men and women are different

One of the core concepts of the evolutionary approach is that there will be sex differences because men and women have different reproductive challenges. Having different reproductive challenges leads men and women to behave and think differently because this will ensure their best chances of passing down their genes.

Parental investment theory

Men and women differ in the amount of parental investment they make in ensuring the existence and survival of their offspring.

Apply this
Reproductive
motivations
approach
Whenever
here, think
increase the
reproductive

| Sex | Amount of parental investment |
|----------------|---|
| Males | Men have a very low level of parental investment, and only need to impregnate her and then are not obligated to do anything further. If offspring a male might invest time and resources into looking after it. At the same time, it is evolutionarily beneficial for males to mate with many females to increase the chances of having many offspring. |
| Females | For females, having a child is very costly and parental investment is high. A female only releases one egg per month and the woman carries the child. The pregnancy itself places strain on the woman's body and after birth she must expect the child to be dependent on her for food and resources for a long time. |

Men and women want different things

Due to these differences in parental investment, men and women often look for different partners. Men are concerned with finding a partner that will produce healthy offspring with them. Women look for a partner that will commit to investing in her and her children and has the resources to do so.

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Infidelity and Jealousy

Why are people unfaithful?

The evolutionary approach argues that infidelity occurs because it increases a person's reproductive success. Rather than limiting ourselves to our own partner, we may seek partners who can provide us with a higher status than our current partner.

Infidelity may be more likely to occur when a partner's status has changed. For example, if a partner becomes unemployed, status change, physical decline (e.g. weight gain or signs of aging) may lead a person to view their partner a lower value than before.



Vanity?

Taking care of your appearance is often a key factor in mate selection. Evolutionarily, men care more for the physical appearance (e.g. genes and fertility) of their female partners than resources. Women may therefore be more likely to invest in their appearances to ensure that they are attractive when providing mates. Make-up can be used to enhance attractive traits such as large eyes (seen to be an indicator of good health) and smooth skin (seen to be an indicator of good health).

Why not leave?

While directly leaving a partner would result in reduced reproductive and survival success, some individuals may seek a higher-value mate clandestinely and leave their partner once they have secured a new partner. In such cases, the individual may never intend to leave their original partner.

A woman may seek a sexual partner with the hope of being impregnated by someone with a higher status than their current partner but to maintain receiving their current partner's resources. Given the limited parental investment, a man may try to impregnate multiple women to ensure he has offspring. A man may not leave his current partner because he will lose out on the resources he has already made.

Mate poaching

Newer research and theory has not only examined why people are unfaithful but also why some people are unfaithful partners. The evolutionary approach seeks to explain why some people are unfaithful. Using Davies et al.'s (2006) stricter definition, mate poaching is when an individual attempts to seduce someone who is already in a relationship while knowing that they are not available.

Schmitt and Buss (2001) offered an evolutionary explanation for the phenomenon of mate poaching. They argued that mate poaching occurred because seeking both available and unavailable mates was more advantageous than seeking only available mates. By seeking only available mates it limits the number of possible mates which reduces the individual's chances of reproductive success.

Remember
Over a period of time, a person's status can change. If a person's status changes, they may become unattractive to their current partner if they don't have the resources to reproduce.

How common is mate poaching?

A study by Davies et al. (2005) found that 27% women admitted to having tried to seduce someone who was already in a relationship. 15% of women had reported that someone else had tried to poach them.

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What can we do about infidelity?

While infidelity increases the individual's reproductive success, it also reduces the evolutionary behaviours have developed to discourage infidelity and to protect the relationship.

Jealousy occurs when a person believes that there is a threat to the relationship. If the threat is real or imagined, jealousy can have serious and aggressive consequences. Jealousy is adaptive because it promotes activities that protect and secure the relationship.

Infidelity in today's society

Infidelity is a highly stigmatised behaviour today. Even when the quality of a marriage is low and the partner may be on the receiving end of domestic abuse, infidelity carries harsh punishments.

In some countries infidelity is illegal; for example, in the USA adultery is illegal in 21 states, although laws are rarely implemented and punishments usually very minimal (usually a small fine). In other countries, infidelity can result in more serious and aggressive consequences. Although sometimes controversial, these consequences are often seen as understandable reactions to infidelity.

Honour killings

Honour killings are when a person is deliberately murdered by their family or community for bringing shame upon them. The honour killing is seen as a way to restore the family's status by being an open rejection of their actions. Infidelity is perhaps the most common reason for honour killings, but other reasons include someone that the family does not approve of or asking for a divorce. Pakistan is a country where hundreds of honour killings occur every year, typically of women by men. Laws against honour killings are rarely implemented, with the killings being seen as a problem for the community.

Stoning

Stoning to death is one method of execution; designed to be slow and painful. The person is tied up to their head and rocks are thrown at them which are designed to be large enough to hurt but not large enough to kill quickly. It can be as a capital punishment in the official legal system or outside the law as implemented by community mobs. Iran is one country where stoning is a punishment for adultery, but the punishment is rare compared to other punishments. There must be strong evidence such as witnesses or confessions in order for the punishment to be carried out. Both men and women are punishable for adultery, but in reality it is more likely to be women.

Crimes of passion

A crime of passion is when a person is thrown into a rage and acts aggressively without premeditation about what they are doing, described often as 'seeing red'. In UK law under the Homicide Act 1957, infidelity was seen as a defence for murder under the grounds that it was a provoked act. This defence was repealed and now infidelity can no longer be seen as a complete defence for murder. However, that certain triggers cause a 'loss of control' which can result in murder. Infidelity can be a factor but can only be a partial defence; this created controversy between judges who argued that it was sufficient to lead to a complete loss of control. Offenders who commit crimes of passion often receive reduced sentences because of the ingrained belief that the partner of the unfair

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Sex differences in jealousy

Buss et al. (1992) investigated whether there were sex differences in jealousy inspired by either emotional or physical infidelity. They surveyed college students and asked them to imagine situations where either their partner was cheating on them sexually (sexual infidelity) or their partner was in love with another person (emotional infidelity). Which did they think was worse?

The findings:

- 60% of men found sexual infidelity worse
- 83% of women found emotional infidelity worse

Buss et al. also looked at physiological measures including pulse and skin conductance (stress) and found that their physiological reactions to the scenarios tended to agree.

Universal differences?

Buunk et al. (1996) repeated Buss et al.'s approach but in three different cultures: the USA, Germany and the Netherlands. Despite the fact that there were differences in the cultures' attitudes towards infidelity (with the Netherlands having much more liberal attitudes), in all three cultures men were more concerned about sexual infidelity. The authors argued that this consistency across different cultures was evidence of universality. However, there were also some variations between the cultures; men were more concerned about sexual infidelity in the USA compared to the other two countries. If differences in jealousy may be universal, they are also sensitive to the norms of the culture.

Alternative explanation

Note that the sex differences may be a result of how and when the study was conducted.

What causes sex differences?

Symons (1979) argued it was the different reproductive challenges that led to sex differences.

Contrary to the present day where medical tests can be done, men could previously not be sure if they were the father of the child. Men fear unwittingly investing their resources in the child ('cuckolding') and therefore sexual fidelity would be seen as very important.

In contrast, women do not want to lose the support and resources of their partner. Their investment to be the biggest predictor to the continual supply of resources. That is, if a man is promiscuous this does not mean that he will invest their resources in the offspring. A woman sees emotional infidelity as a sign that she may lose her resources.

An alternative explanation

DeSteno and Salovey (1996) argue that while there are sex differences, the cause is not necessarily biological. Their 'double-shot' hypothesis argues that:

- For men a woman's sexual infidelity means likely emotional infidelity (i.e. they are in love with someone else because they love them)
- For women a man's emotional infidelity means likely sexual infidelity (i.e. if he is in love with someone else he will also be having sex with them)

So in DeSteno and Salovey's view, both men and women are concerned with both types of infidelity.

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Rape

The evolutionary explanation argues that rape occurs because the individual typically has insufficient resources to attract a desirable mate. High-value mates usually mate with those who have the greatest amount of resources.

Those with fewer resources have to settle for lower-value mates; for example, older mates who are therefore less fertile.

| Many resources | High-value mate |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Older – more likely to have resources | Youthful – fertile |
| Physically attractive – good genes | Physically attractive – |
| Physically strong – able to protect | Physical signs of fertility |
| Employed – resource security | Healthy – produce healthy |
| Status – respected in the community | likely to survive |

* Note that women's breast shape is not determined by milk but by fatty tissue; other males that human females have evolved this way to attract mates.

| Few resources | Low-value mate |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| Unemployed – less support and security | Older – less fertile |
| Physically injured – perceived as weak, not able to provide physical protection | Less attractive – |
| No status – women gained status through their mates | May have other children, new children |

How can a male with few resources have a chance of having offspring with a high-value mate? The evolutionary approach argues that rape is one option.

Parental choice: Parents often play an important role in the decision of who their children marry. In India arranged marriages are a cultural norm and although both parties often have a large influence in determining partner choice. In some cultures, either the bride or groom brings money (a dowry) to their future partner's family as part of the marital agreement. It is traditional for the groom to pay a dowry to the family of the bride which increases the status of the bride. A bride that is high-status, a virgin and well educated are seen as desirable. Parents want the best for their children.

Female choice: It is common in Western society for females to have autonomy over who they marry or have sexual relations with. Even marriage, as in the case of arranged marriages, does not mean that a woman will have sex with her marriage partner.

Rape is one way of circumventing these barriers. This offers an explanation of why rape occurs.

Rape within intimate relationships

Rape also occurs when a male has secured a female as a partner, and according to the evolutionary approach the primary reason is suspected infidelity.

The evolutionary approach argues that for males, the cost of cuckoldry is high and for females, it is relatively low. Suspected infidelity triggers male jealousy which causes males to take measures against possible infidelity. Rape increases the chances of reproductive success by impregnating the female. If successful, the male is protected against the female mating with another male for at least the duration of the pregnancy, along with the female now being committed to him for several years to come.

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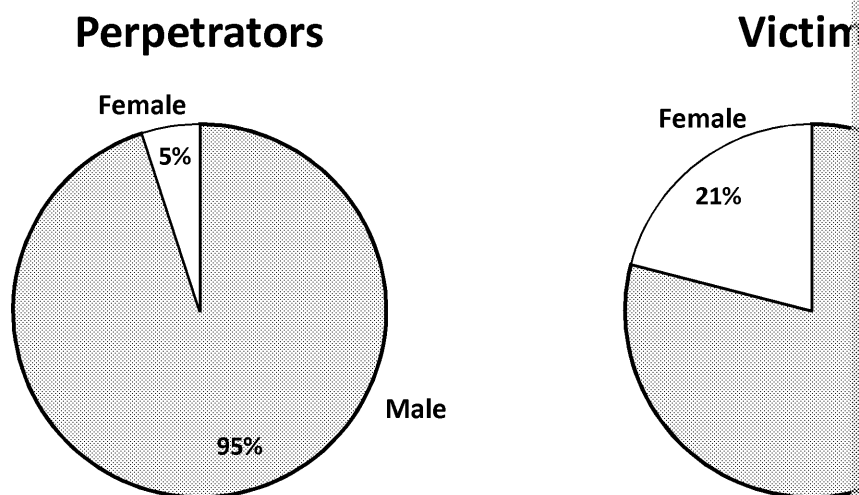


Supporting this is research from Goetz and Shackelford (2006) who found that the males believed that the risk of their partners being unfaithful was high. Since the cost of the female in rape, rape serves as a deterrent against future infidelity.

Since the cost of cuckoldry is so high in males, it makes evolutionary sense for males to look for any cues that may indicate infidelity and to become jealous quickly.

Homicide

Overwhelmingly, the majority of perpetrators and victims of homicide (the act of killing) are males. Statistical analysis by the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime found that 95% of the perpetrators and 79% of victims of homicide (UNODC, 2013).



Despite this, it should be noted that there are variances in the situation and methods of homicide within intimate relations, women make up two-thirds of the victims globally (UNODC, 2013).

Competition can be split into two types: intersexual (between men and women) and intrasexual (between the same sex). Given that the majority of perpetrators and victims are male, it suggests that homicide is the result of intrasexual competition.

Why do men compete with other men?

The evolutionary approach argues that the main reason for intrasexual competition is that women only have a single egg per month and that parenthood requires high investment, making them choosier about who they select as mates.

A male needs to protect his status as threats to his status reduce how desirable he is. The appearance of weakness suggests that he will be unable to protect his mate from predators and resources can be taken easily by others.

War

Humans are unique in that they are the only species to engage in war: organised conflict between groups. Although there are some cultural variations and recent changes that are seen in front-line combat, war is predominantly a male enterprise.

The purpose of war is primarily to compete for territory, with the victor earning the right to live in the people in the territory and the resources the land provides.

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Competition for mates

Since males have no obligation to provide for their mates or their offspring, wartime rape is an effective way of improving their reproductive success. Men, particularly those with few resources, may use war as a chance to impregnate many women and continue their genes on. Historically, there are numerous incidences of mass wartime rapes. For example, in World War Two, the Japanese Imperial Army made use of thousands of women and girls known as comfort women who were forced into sexual slavery.

Repercussions for rape during wartime tend to be less severe. To this day, some Japanese political figures deny that there is any evidence for comfort women, while others argue that their use was necessary to the war effort.



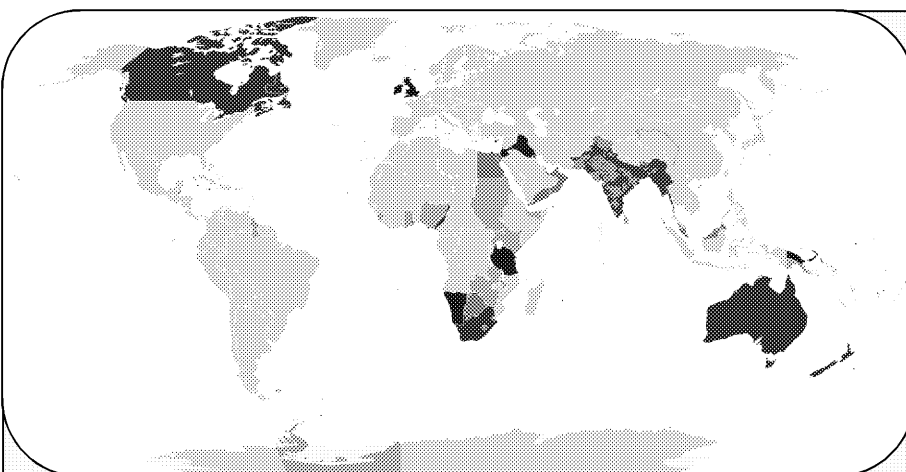
Chinese and Malay women taken to work as comfort women during World War II.

Competition for resources

Just as men must compete with each other for access to the best mates, men must also compete for resources. Territory provides additional resources such as food are scarce, can provide the incentive for competition.

Evidence for this includes that homicide is most common among males who are of low economic status (Kruger, 2010), and these are also typically the type of individuals who join the military.

As humans live in groups, males with low levels of resources can be seen as providers of resources to the group.



The costs of war can be illustrated by 'total war' during WWI and WWII where the home front and abroad was contributing to and affected by war.

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Evaluation of the Evolutionary Explanations of

Compatible

Tinbergen (1963) argues against the idea that the evolutionary approach conflicts with other levels of explanation. He views the evolutionary explanation as being just one level of explanation in a series of representations. The evolutionary approach is the ultimate reason for a particular behaviour, with other explanations being more proximal (closer). For example, we eat because we find the taste enjoyable, but the ultimate reason for eating is to provide energy for life. Both of these explanations of eating are equally valid and both should be acknowledged.

Task 2.1

Can you draw a diagram to try to represent how there can be different levels of explanation to explain the same thing?

Face validity

Face validity is whether the measure appears to measure what it intends to. On the surface, the evolutionary approach appears to have good face validity as the explanations make sense about differences in both male and female aggression and reproduction.

Unfalsifiable

The evolutionary approach is theory-based and makes post hoc (after) assumptions about behaviour. It is not possible to see the effects of evolution and therefore the evolutionary approach lacks supportive empirical evidence.

Often ignores individual and cultural differences

Although some research indicates that on the whole there are trends such as male promiscuity and female infidelity, there were also considerable within-sex variations suggesting that aggression is not universal. We cannot go against this. Individuals can react differently to the same situation and some may react aggressively to infidelity. For example, in an open relationship, or non-monogamous relationship, partners may have sex with other people while maintaining the relationship structure.

There are also cultural differences in aggression; for example, the !Kung San of Kalahari do not show aggressive behaviour, suggesting violence is not universal and the differences may be due to socialisation.

Gender stereotypes

The focus on gender differences reinforces gender stereotypes. While it is true that there may be different reproductive costs for men and women, society is now putting greater emphasis on equal rights. Males now have the option of taking maternity leave while the women return to work, there is greater equality for women to be provided for and women can gain social status without being married.

Are evolutionary theories still applicable today?

There is a danger of overemphasising gender differences (gender bias) when it means that there are no gender differences.

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Chapter 4 Activities

Check your understanding!

1. Briefly describe Charles Darwin's theory of natural selection. (3 marks)
2. Describe a real-life example of how infidelity is discouraged. (3 marks)
3. Explain how war might be explained as competition for resources. (3 marks)
4. Identify and explain one weakness of the evolutionary explanation of aggression. (3 marks)
5. Describe parental investment theory. (4 marks)

Exam-style questions

1. *Nick and Tara have been together for a long time and they have a child together. Tara is an attractive woman and often receives compliments and attention from other men. Nick has been spending a lot of time with a male co-worker and Nick has been feeling jealous.*
 - a) From your understanding of evolutionary explanations of aggression, identify two features of this situation that could lead to Nick being aggressive. (2 marks)

Nick decided that it was not a good idea to be aggressive.

- b) Explain one factor, using the evolutionary explanations of psychology, that could account for Nick's behaviour. (2 marks)
2. Tony found that he and his male friends behaved differently whenever they were around attractive women. Tony's teacher said that evolutionary explanations could explain this.

Explain, using evolutionary explanations, why Tony and his male friends behave differently around attractive women. (3 marks)

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Chapter 5: The Biological Explanation of Aggression

Overview

This chapter provides an overview of the different biological explanations of aggression. It introduces Freudian psychodynamic explanations of aggression and looks at the comparison between the two.

Learning outcomes

After studying this chapter you should be able to:

- ❑ Describe and evaluate biological explanations of aggression
- ❑ Describe, evaluate and compare Freudian psychodynamic explanations of aggression to biological explanations

Key Terms

| | |
|------------------------------------|---|
| Catharsis | The process of releasing pent up or unconscious emotions |
| Defence mechanisms | A protective unconscious process designed to reduce anxiety |
| Dopamine | A neurotransmitter involved in reward |
| Ego | A structure of personality that balances the demands of the id and superego |
| Hormones | Chemicals that regulate the body |
| Id | A structure of personality that is concerned with meeting its own needs and seeks immediate gratification |
| Monoamine Oxidase A (MAO-A) | An enzyme that breaks down serotonin, dopamine, and adrenaline |
| Repression | A defence mechanism in which unacceptable thoughts and feelings are pushed into the unconscious |
| Serotonin | A particular neurotransmitter; low levels of serotonin are linked to aggression |
| Superego | A structure of personality concerned with societal ideas of right and wrong and reality |
| Testosterone | A male sex hormone produced in the testes that is important for sexual development in males |
| Unconscious | What is unknown to us and difficult to access |



Scene-Setting Questions

- Can you inherit aggression?
- What can studying twins tell us about the influence of genes on aggression?
- Should someone with a predisposition for aggression receive medication to prevent them from committing a violent crime?

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Biological explanations of aggression

Biological explanations focus on biological causes, including genetics, evolution, and neurobiology. This chapter will provide an overview of each of these topics and the concepts for comparison.

Are aggressive tendencies inherited?

One biological explanation of aggression is that there is a genetic component to aggressive behaviour and that certain individuals may be predisposed to aggressive behaviour as a result of their genes.

How do we study the genetic explanation?

Studies examining whether aggression has a genetic basis have compared identical and non-identical twins. Identical twins are expected to be more likely to both be aggressive than non-identical twins as they share twice as many genes.

Twin studies

Biological research methods: How do twin studies work?

There are two types of twins: monozygotic (identical) and dizygotic (non-identical). Monozygotic twins share 100% of the same genes, whereas, dizygotic twins share 50% of the same genes.

In a twin study, the researcher decides which traits or behaviours they are interested in. They then compare the similarity of monozygotic and dizygotic twins for those traits or behaviours.

- The similarity of monozygotic twins for that trait or behaviour
- The similarity of dizygotic twins for that trait or behaviour
- The two similarity ratings

What does this information tell us?

If the similarity of monozygotic twins is much greater than the similarity of dizygotic twins, then the trait or behaviour has a strong genetic component. This is because the monozygotic twins share 100% of their genes and therefore the difference is attributed to genetics. If the trait or behaviour has a strong environmental component, we would expect to see a 100% similarity rating in the monozygotic twins and a 50% similarity rating in the dizygotic twins.

If aggression is inherited then... identical twins are expected to be more likely to both be aggressive than non-identical twins as they share twice as many genes. If aggression was completely inherited, we would expect identical twins to be 100% the same as one another in regard to aggression. However, this is not the case and this suggests that other factors are also important in aggression.

The majority of studies look at criminal behaviour rather than measuring aggression directly. This is because criminal behaviour goes undetected, for example. More research needs to attempt to measure aggression directly.

Issues and Debates: Nature-nurture

The nurture side of the Nature-Nurture debate argues that behaviour is the result of learning and the environment. The concordance rates in twin studies suggests that there are environmental influences in aggression. The nurture side argues that aggressive impulses are more likely to be acted on if they are frustrated. For example, a driver who is stuck in traffic is more likely to show signs of 'road rage' than a driver who has nowhere he or she needs to be. When someone is unable to change the situation and this promotes frustration as it prevents problem-solving strategies, aggression is suggested that the environment triggered the aggression.

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Adoption studies

One factor that may be responsible for the higher amount of shared aggression in identical twins is that they share a more similar environment. Identical twins are more likely to be treated similarly and exposed to the same environment, and there may be something in this environment that leads them to become aggressive.

Adoption studies look at the levels of aggression in adopted children and compare them to their biological and adoptive parents.

Hutchings and Mednick (1975) used Danish criminal registers to investigate the extent to which criminal behaviour was the result of hereditary or environmental factors. They found that the number of convictions biological fathers had and the number of convictions their sons had were correlated, despite the fact that the sons had been adopted into another family. This suggests that it is not environmental factors (e.g. modelling the parent's behaviour) but genetics.

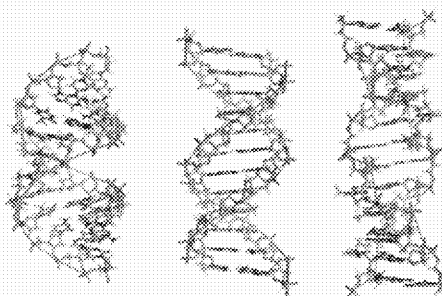
In addition, they found no correlation between the number of convictions of the adopted children and those of their non-biologically related siblings, suggesting it was not something in the adoptive environment that caused the aggression.

Overall

Miles and Carey (1997) conducted a meta-analysis of 24 twin and adoption studies, finding a significant genetic component to aggression, but as the children got older the influence of the environment became more important. A review by Tuvblad and Baker (2011) of twin and adoption studies found that 50% of the differences in aggressive behaviour could be explained by genes, the

Issues and Debates: Issues related to socially sensitive research

One of the founding principles of ethical research is the avoidance of psychological harm. It is important to avoid harming the research participant, their family/friends and others who may be implicated in the violent aggression it is important to maintain confidentiality. It may be harmful for the aggressor's family if their aggression is linked to genetics because they share the same genes.



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Contemporary study: Brendgen et al. (2005) Examining genetic effects on social aggression: A study of six-year-old twins.

This study investigates social aggression in six-year-old twins.

Background information

When people think of aggression they often think of physical aggression. You might think of extreme scenarios such as gang rivalry, domestic violence or murder. However, there are other types of aggression in which the harm done is to another person's relationship, social standing, and self-esteem, rather than their body.

There are three types:

- Indirect aggression is a form of covert aggression (e.g. spreading nasty rumours about someone)
- Relational aggression can be covert and overt (e.g. threatening to tell secrets)
- Social aggression includes both covert and overt aggression, and nonverbal aggression behaviour (e.g. refusing to speak to or acknowledge someone)

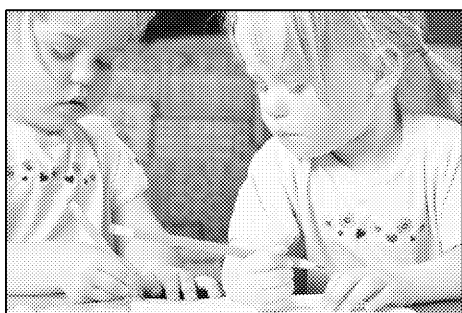
Brendgen et al. (2005) were interested in social aggression in six-year-old twins.

There is much interest in whether physical aggression or social aggression is due to genetics. The consensus is that it is a combination of both. Researchers are interested in the role of genetics and the environment. One method used to investigate this is twin studies.

Aims

- Investigate whether the difference in social aggression can be attributed to genetics
- Investigate if there is a relationship between physical and social aggression

Participants



Participants were drawn from an ongoing study (the Newborn Twin Study) which had recruited twins. Twins were recruited at birth between November 1996 and November 1997.

To determine if the twins were monozygotic or dizygotic, same-sex twins were assessed using their physical appearance. A subset of 123 same-sex twin pairs was given a DNA sample which compared them on 8 markers. There was a 94% agreement between the two measures.

At the study's start there were 322 twin pairs.

By age six this had dropped to 234 pairs of twins. Of these there were:

- 44 sets of monozygotic male twins
- 50 sets of monozygotic female twins
- 41 sets of dizygotic male twins
- 32 sets of dizygotic female twins
- 67 sets of dizygotic mixed-gender twins

Evaluation of sample:

- Only representative of 6-year-olds
- It is not always accurate to assess whether twins are identical/non-identical based on their appearance and therefore some twins may have been placed in the wrong category
- Sample attrition (88 pairs left) – are these pairs different?

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Method

The researcher asked teachers and peers to provide ratings for each twin.

| Teacher ratings |
|---|
| <p>A questionnaire in English/French (both languages are spoken in Quebec) was given to the teachers. In the questionnaire teachers had to rate each child on the following six statements:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tries to make other children dislike a child • Becomes friends with another child for revenge • Says bad things or spreads nasty rumours about another child • Gets into fights • Physically attacks others • Hits, bites or kicks others <p>Teachers rated them with a score of 0 (never), 1 (sometimes), or 2 (often).</p> <p>The first three statements measure social aggression and the scores for these were added together to produce an overall score for social aggression. The last three statements measured physical aggression and these were added to produce a physical aggression score.</p> |

| |
|---|
| <p>Children were given a questionnaire and provided with photos of the children. They were told to circle the photos of the children who best fit a given descriptor.</p> <p>The descriptors were:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tells others not to play with them • Tells mean secrets • Gets into fights • Hits, bites, or kicks others <p>The first two descriptors measured social aggression, and the last three measured physical aggression.</p> <p>For each descriptor, the mean score of the nominations was calculated and then adjusted to account for the number of children nominated.</p> |
|---|

Evaluation of method:

- Questionnaires make it possible to replicate the study
- There may be slight differences in the wording between French and English
- Ethics: May have a negative impact on friendships



Some peers might be reluctant to tell the truth if their friends are behaving badly

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Results...

Brendgen et al. found that:

- Teachers rated boys more physically aggressive than girls
- Teachers rated girls more socially aggressive than boys
- Peers rated boys more physically and socially aggressive than girls
- Monozygotic twins were rated to be twice as physically aggressive as same-sex dizygotic twins

Overall:

- 50–60% of **physical aggression** could be attributed to **genes**
- 40% of **physical aggression** could be attributed to the **non-shared environment** (e.g. different friends)
- 20% of **social aggression** could be attributed to **genes**
- 20% of **social aggression** could be attributed to the **shared environment** (e.g. parenting strategies)
- 40% of **social aggression** could be attributed to the **non-shared environment**

Evaluation of results:

- Correlations do not prove causation
- In cases where both children were in the same class, other children may have been based on stereotypes about them being the same
- Looks at genetics and environment (more holistic than reductionistic)

Conclusions

They concluded that physical aggression is mostly genetics (nature) and social aggression is mostly environment (nurture). Genetics may predispose a child to be social aggressive, but this will only be encouraged if the environment encourages it.

Real-life application: Bullying

The knowledge that social aggression does not have a strong biological influence suggests that social aggression and bullying can be reduced if the environment is right. If family and friends are an important influence on social aggression then group-based interventions could help children alter their behaviour. Children are likely to model those they see around them and therefore it's important that parents and older siblings act in a positive way with each other.

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Task 5.1: Discussion on Brendgen et al. (2005)

Samantha and her teacher are having a discussion about Brendgen et al.'s (2005) study. By taking into account the merits and weaknesses of the study.

I think Brendgen et al. (2005) is a POOR study because...

I think...



Teacher

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Is there a gene for aggression?

Monoamine Oxidase-A (or MAO-A) is an enzyme that breaks down neurotransmitters, therefore important in influencing aggression. The 'warrior gene' or the MAO-A gene (there are variants that produce a low level of MAO-A and variants that produce a higher amount of serotonin and other neurotransmitters) are associated with aggression.

Evidence

McDermott et al. (2009) found that the warrior gene produced more frequent and intense aggression when participants were placed in a situation that provoked aggression as compared to controls. However, a situation which was less provoking did not predict greater aggression.

Further evidence comes from a Dutch family who had a high incidence of habitual violent offenders, and members of this family were found to have a mutation of the MAO-A gene (Brunner et al., 1993).

Issues and Debates: Ethics

While certain genes such as those that affect MAO-A may be associated with increased aggression and antisocial behaviour, remember that this is only an association. The evidence is far too insubstantial to be support for biological determinism, genetic testing, and researchers need to be very careful about how their results are used and interpreted.

Gene–environment interaction

Caspi et al. (2002) investigated several variants of the MAO-A gene and examined correlation with antisocial behaviour (measurements of convictions for violent crime, several antisocial disorders and an assessment of their acceptance of violence). They followed and examined over 1,037 male babies over regular intervals until 26 years of age.

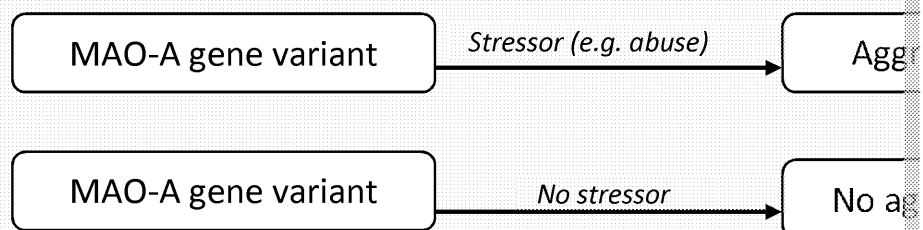
They found no association between the types and antisocial behaviour, but those who had the variant of the MAO-A gene that led to lower levels of MAO-A showed more antisocial behaviour than those who were maltreated and had the variant of the gene that led to higher levels of MAO-A.

Those who had the low-MAO-A gene variant and experienced maltreatment made up 44% of violent crime convictions.

The Diathesis–Stress Model

This research on MAO-A brings up a core problem of the biological approach... it suggests that genes can predispose people to aggression.

Genes rarely act alone but interact with the environment. The diathesis–stress model of aggression suggests that a gene–environment interaction can explain the offenders' behaviour:



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Task 5.2: Debate

Start a short debate on: Should those with the MAO-A gene variant that predisposes an individual to aggressive behaviour be given special consideration in criminal law?

There have been several attempts to use the MAO-A gene as a defence for criminal behaviour.

- **Mobley (1995):** the defendant was charged with murder and genotyping for mutations of the MAO-A gene. Genotyping was refused and the defendant was sentenced to life imprisonment.
- **Waldroup (2009):** charge of murder, attempted murder and kidnapping was found. The defendant also experienced childhood abuse (environmental consideration) and was sentenced for 32 years rather than execution.
- **Bayout (2009):** defendant was previously assaulted and bought a knife to attack the assailants. Killed the wrong person by mistake which may be due to possible schizophrenia (environmental consideration). MAO-A defence was accepted and sentence being reduced by a year.

One point to consider is that predispositions do not make it impossible to resist. Often crimes involve a deliberate and voluntary component. If you have the predisposition, is it possible to resist?

MAO-A and socially sensitive research

Socially sensitive research is any research that has wider implications for the population involved, beyond those that are typically considered on ethics (e.g. protection from harm, right to withdraw, etc.).

MAO-A and genetics research may have significant implications for the future of criminal law.

Imagine the scenario: a family member is on trial for a violent attack and genetic testing shows he or she has a variant of the MAO-A gene associated with aggression. What should the court decide?

- The person has the gene, so their aggression is completely justified
- A person cannot go against genetics – they were doomed to aggress to some extent
- If I have the gene then if I behave aggressively that's acceptable
- The law has no right to prosecute those who have the gene

The debate: Should socially sensitive research be conducted?

| Yes – it should be conducted! | No – it should not be conducted! |
|--|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Most research that psychologists are interested in could be considered socially sensitive • This type of research could have considerable benefits to our understanding and sometimes policy • Psychologists do not interpret the results in a way that has negative impact; this is the work of the media | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Psychologists should be more careful about the way their research is presented • Research that suggests a link between genes and behaviour has not been 'proven' (e.g. small sample size) could have a negative impact, e.g. in criminal law • The drawbacks of this research outweigh the advantages |

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Evolutionary explanations of aggression

Evolutionary explanations argue that aggression is rooted in behaviour that would have helped our ancestors survive. These explanations are difficult to falsify and therefore these explanations lack validity. Go back to **Chapter 4**

Homicide

The majority of perpetrators and victims are male. This suggests that homicide might be explained by competition between the sexes. Competition could be for the same mate (love triangle killing) or to gain status within the community.

Support: United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime found that, globally, males made up 95% of the perpetrators and 79% of victims of homicide (UNODC, 2013).

Evolutionary explanations for aggression

Male sexual jealousy

Males are worried about investing their resources in a woman's children only to find out that they are not his own (cuckoldry). Men use threats of / actual violence to discourage women from being unfaithful as this reduces the risk of cuckoldry.

Support: Buss et al. (1992) survey found that men found sexual infidelity worse and women found emotional infidelity worse.

Support: Buunk et al. (1996) found Buss et al.'s results were similar in the USA, Germany and the Netherlands, suggesting universality.

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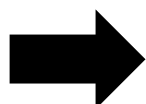
Hormones and aggression

This section is a brief introduction to hormones. Hormones and their influence on particular, will be covered in depth in the **next chapter**.

Hormones are chemicals that play an important role in regulating the functions of our body. For example, the hormones leptin and ghrelin help to regulate our feelings of hunger and satiety.

The hormone explanation of aggression argues that having too much or too little of certain hormones could increase the likelihood of aggressive behaviour.

One hormone that you may have heard of in relation to aggression is **testosterone**.



Key question: Does testosterone *cause* aggression?

Testosterone in animals

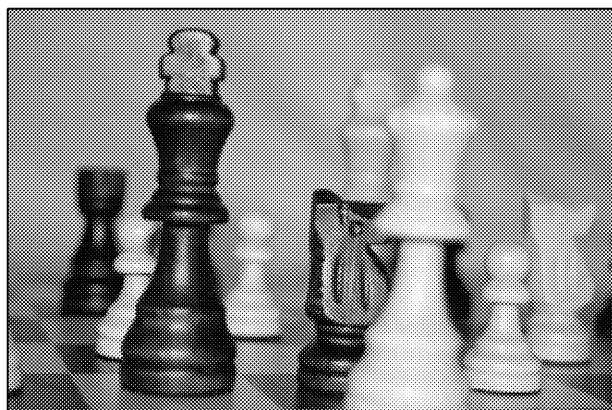
Castration results in a reduction of testosterone. Wagner et al. (1979) found that if you castrated mice their aggression levels dropped. When testosterone was injected into the castrated mice, their aggression levels rose. They became more likely to bite other mice.

This is strong evidence that testosterone may cause aggression in mice... but what about humans?

Testosterone in criminal males

Dabbs et al. (1995) wanted to research whether testosterone was related to the (violent or non-violent). They took saliva samples of 692 male prisoners and used this to measure testosterone levels. They then compared this to records about what type of crimes the prisoners committed.

They found that higher levels of testosterone were associated with more violent crimes, including homicide. Those with high testosterone were also more likely to behave aggressively.



However, this research is *correlational* and cannot prove cause! It might be that aggression causes higher testosterone levels, or it is an effect of aggressive behaviour.

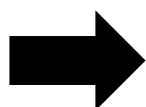
In addition, Mazur et al. (1993) found that testosterone was higher in chess players who won than those who lost. This suggests a link between testosterone and winning and losing.

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The brain and aggression

This is a brief overview of what we covered in **chapter 3**, go back there to find full details.



Key question: Which areas of the brain are responsible for aggression?

Animal research

It is easier to study the brain in animals because researchers are able to use methods that would not be ethical to use on humans. For example, they might deliberately damage a certain area of the brain to see if it increases or decreases aggression.

Example: Primbram et al (1954) conducted a study of eight male rhesus monkeys. Rhesus monkeys use aggression to maintain or establish social position. They found the most dominant monkey in their social hierarchy and made lesions to the monkey's amygdala. The result was that the monkey became much less aggressive and eventually fell to the bottom of the social hierarchy. It no longer responded when other monkeys tried to take over its position. This suggests that the **amygdala** is an important region in the brain for aggression.

Problems with this method:

- Some, but not all, humans use aggression to maintain social position.
- There are structural and functional differences between animal and human brains.
- Humans can often choose whether to aggress or not to aggress, whereas animals are driven by impulses.

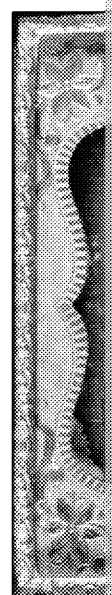
Human research

Although researchers cannot deliberately damage the brain, they can study brain causes to aggression.

Example: In the 1840s, Phineas Gage damaged the frontal lobe of his brain in an accident that pushed a metal rod through his skull. People remarked on his personality changes since his accident. He became more impulsive, made poor decisions and used profanity. These changes were attributed to damaging his **prefrontal cortex** which is involved in the regulation of impulsive behaviour.

Problems with this method:

- When humans damage their brains they often hurt more than one area. This makes it difficult to narrow down the cause of their behaviour.
- The human brain works in a very interconnected way and this makes it difficult to see the function of individual components.
- Damage to the human brain does not necessarily tell us about how it works when it is functioning normally.
- Damage to the brain is individual and no two cases are the same.



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Neural explanations

Role of serotonin

Although several neurotransmitters have been linked with aggression, the one that has received the most attention and empirical support is the link with serotonin.

Serotonin seems to function as an inhibitor of aggression; the higher the levels of serotonin, the fewer the aggressive behaviours. It is likely that serotonin regulates our day-to-day levels of aggression to ensure that while we may feel angry, this does not translate into the costs of behaving this way are high.

Evidence

The drug fluoxetine, used to treat depression and obsessive-compulsive disorder, is a serotonin reuptake inhibitor. By preventing reabsorption (reuptake) of serotonin this leads to there being more serotonin in the synapse. Individuals on this drug experience reduced levels of aggression, suggesting that aggression is inhibited by serotonin.

Research on serotonin has suggested that it is involved in impulsivity and impulsivity. Male rats showed intense aggression and impulsivity when the system that regulates serotonin was disrupted (Chiavegatto et al., 2001).

Virkkunen et al. (1995) found that impulsive offenders who behave aggressively were related to low serotonin turnover.

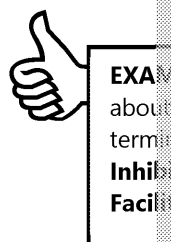
Interacts with testosterone

While serotonin inhibits aggression, testosterone facilitates aggression. The interaction between these two hormones plays a large role in determining whether we act on our aggressive behaviours. Low levels of serotonin and high levels of testosterone produce a tendency for aggressive behaviour.



Giotakos et al. (2003) studied rapists and found that the levels of testosterone were related to the production of serotonin was lower than controls.

Adaptive: Imagine that we did not control our aggressive impulses and always acted on them. This would greatly reduce our survival chances if we tried to aggress an animal or person we were not beating.



Remember
interaction
function

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Role of dopamine

Along with low levels of serotonin, there is also evidence suggesting that high levels of dopamine are associated with aggression. For example, aggression in psychotic patients is reduced by drugs that block dopamine receptors (Chengappa et al., 1999).

Interacts with serotonin

A review by Seo and Patrick (2008) concluded that it was probable that low levels of serotonin and higher levels of dopamine. Thus, both serotonin and dopamine were associated with aggression. Serotonin exacerbated this effect due to its modulation of the dopamine system.

Link to the prefrontal cortex (PFC)

The prefrontal cortex is an area that is associated with aggression and is thought to be involved in the inhibition of emotional behaviour. Davidson et al. (2000) proposed that impulsive aggression was the result of 'faulty emotional regulation' and implicated the prefrontal cortex as an important area in this.

It is proposed that the interactions between serotonin and dopamine in the prefrontal cortex may be responsible for this decrease in prefrontal cortex activity. However, more research is needed on the interactions in this brain area.

Free will and determinism (AO3)

Biological approaches are highly deterministic; for example, stimulating the hypothalamus can elicit a clear aggressive response. However, in humans it may not be so deterministic. Humans can exercise greater control over their impulses. In reality human behaviour is a complex interaction of biology, past experiences, environmental conditions and our own decisions.

Biological explanations completely undermine the idea that we have free will, which supports views that we are responsible for our own behaviour. If we take the biological approach, then we would not be accountable for our own behaviour.

Issues and Debates: Nature-nurture

The nature side of the Nature-Nurture debate argues that behaviour is the result of biology, genetics. Research into areas of the brain to aggression (localisation) suggest that aggression has a strong biological component. Damaging our brains and damaging certain areas such as the prefrontal cortex results in higher levels of aggression.

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Freud's psychodynamic explanation of aggression

Sigmund Freud believed that behaviour, including aggression, could be explained. He argued that often we do not understand or recognise our own true motives for behaviour as much of this information is below our consciousness. Although much of this information is believed to be unconscious, Freud argued that unconscious conflicts could influence real life and even produce psychological disorders. He believed that by bringing our unconscious conflicts to our awareness you could control your behaviour.

The structure of personality

Freud believed that personality was divided into three structures which interact:

Id – The id strives to satisfy the individual's basic needs, such as to survive and reproduce. The id is unconscious and operates on the pleasure principle and seeks immediate gratification.

Superego – The superego represents the ideals and societal norms we have been taught and have accepted. These are not necessarily bound by reality and may not be suitable in real life, for example, the ideal to be generous and charitable may conflict with having little means for yourself. It should also be noted that societal ideals and norms are changeable which can result in a change in behaviour.

Ego – The ego acts as a mediator between the id, the superego and reality. It is on the reality principle, and controls the id in order to meet the demands of reality. Ego strength increases with age and the individual can now defer gratification.



EXAM TIP: Remember

You could help remember the different structures of personality by imaging them as different parts of a person. Who would they be? Do they remind you of anyone you know?

Real-life example:

You were minding your own business when someone shoves you out of the way and you hit your arm on the wall. What is your reaction?

Id: I'm angry! I want to yell at them and shove them back.

Superego: I should always avoid unnecessary violence and aggression.

Reality: Starting a fight may result in getting hurt further.

Ego: Although I am angry I should not act on this as this will not achieve anything.

In this example the ego makes the reasoned decision that brings the individual the least damage. However, there are plenty of incidences when we act on impulse despite our better intentions. In these situations, our ego has failed to control our impulses and delay gratification. In some cases, the id, superego and reality will align and will also allow extreme responses. For example, a person may have internalised norms that promote anger or aggression in certain circumstances, such as aggression towards the supporters of the opposite football team.

Individual differences: Aggression and ego strength

Ego strength is the ability of the ego to deal with inner conflicts and challenges. Some people have difficulties controlling the aggressive and sexual impulses of their Id. Those people are often impulsive and react strongly (and often poorly) to bad situations. In contrast, some people are unwaveringly calm in the face of adversity. They handle situations which might cause anger with calmness and use problem solving to overcome challenges. While aggressive people seek immediate gratification, those with a strong ego can defer gratification and focus on long-term goals.

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Aggression: An instinct

Freud believed that aggression was an instinctive drive rather than being caused by external factors. He thought that aggression was inevitable and it was just a matter of controlling and channelling it. He thought that the Id, the ego, superego, and the reality of the situation, were involved in aggression. Without a developed ego and superego, a person could become aggressive with their environment. Children may have aggressive temper tantrums because the ego and superego are not fully developed.

The role of the unconscious

Freud believed that our behaviour is often driven by unconscious forces and that we are not always aware of our reasons. A Freudian slip is when we make a verbal mistake that reveals our true feelings. For example, you might call your new boyfriend by your ex's name. Freud believed that such slips reveal unconscious beliefs.

Freud believed that there were three stages of consciousness:

Conscious: Everything that we are aware of

Preconscious: Unconscious at the moment but available to be recalled

Unconscious: Memories, thoughts, and feelings we are not aware of and are difficult to access

The majority of our thoughts, feelings and memories are unconscious.

A good way to think about consciousness is to imagine an island surrounded by water.

The island represents consciousness and what we are aware of

Shallow water represents preconsciousness and when the tide changes we become aware of the preconscious

The deep water represents our unconsciousness; what is vast and inaccessible to us and which we can only explore with help

Note that the deep water is much vaster than the island itself.

Task

Draw a diagram to represent the above concept and make sure to label and describe what each level is

When we experience sexual or aggressive urges that are not appropriate for us to act on, we repress them into the unconscious as a protective measure. This is termed repression. However, even when repressed, these urges motivate our behaviour in ways that we are not aware of.

Repression and aggression

In our lives, there are many opportunities for conflict and yet we rarely act on our aggressive impulses. Freud argued that people often repress aggressive impulses and place that desire in the unconscious. This leads to a build-up of conflicts that result in physical or verbal aggression.

However, Freud also argued that repressed aggression also influences our behaviour. Freud thought that depression was one result of repressed aggression and that the aggression has been directed towards the self. For example, self-criticism is a form of aggression towards the self. Unlike physical aggression, aggression towards the self is a more accepted form of aggression.

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Defence mechanisms

Defence mechanisms are unconscious processes to reduce the experience of anxiety. They are not always useful in coping with events that are unexpected or cause us disappointment, but they can lead to beneficial outcomes. Defence mechanisms are important in regulating and preventing emotional distress. Just some of his defence mechanisms are illustrated below:

Repression: When we exclude unacceptable thoughts or feelings from conscious awareness and store them in the unconsciousness.

For example, a person with a severe phobia of snakes had a traumatic snake experience. They may not remember how they came to develop their phobia.

Denial: Maintaining that things are not what they seem to be.

For example, for a long time an alcoholic may deny that their drinking behaviour is affecting others' lives.

Displacement: When we transfer impulses that are unacceptable onto non-threatening targets.

For example, a man who is angry at being fired now spends one or two hours playing video games.

Catharsis

Catharsis is the process of expressing pent up emotions, such as aggression. Freud was a key figure in this component of his therapy. He believed that behaviour was influenced by repressed emotions and that this led to mental illness. His therapy involved accessing the unconscious and expressing these emotions. Freud, this led to immediate relief of the symptoms.

Later theories focus on catharsis as a way of releasing the pressure of emotions that have been suppressed. For example, Scheff (2001) argued that crying helps us deal with hurtful emotions. Suppressing these emotions could have negative consequences. Playing aggressive video games is used to help release the build-up of anger in a safe way.

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Evaluation of the psychodynamic approach of aggression

Defence mechanisms

People do show evidence of defence using defence mechanisms, such as denial. However, such as repression have been called into question. Cases of childhood abuse who have recovered repressed memories with the assistance of a therapist have had difficulty holding onto the memories. Often the patient has recalled false memories, which while the patient believes strongly are likely the result of their therapy.

Support for repression of aggression

Megargee (1966) found that criminals who had committed extremely aggressive acts had repressed emotions. They were often polite and good-natured and the act of aggression was argued that they had repressed their anger and this had led to a build-up of tension leading to the aggressive act.

Mixed evidence for catharsis

Frustration acting as catharsis is supported by Verona and Sullivan (2008) who found that the opportunity to shock a frustrating confederate showed reduced heart rate, skin conductance and arousal. However, Bushman et al. (1999) found that release of aggression actually increased aggression, suggesting that frustration does not act as catharsis.

Unfalsifiable

Some of Freud's theory is not possible to test, such as his idea of repression. It is the unconscious so it is difficult to know what has been repressed and what never has been.

Small homogenous sample

Most of the evidence for this approach comes from a small number of case studies. Most showed disorders of neurosis (disorders that cause distress but typically concern the ego) so it is difficult to generalise these results to people in general.

Expanded on

Dollard et al.'s (1939) frustration-aggression hypothesis is an extension of Freud's theory with the idea of frustration being innate but argued that aggression would only be triggered by frustration. This theory acknowledges both the role of biology and the environment, which is an expansion of Freud's original theory.

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Issues and debates: Comparison of ways of explaining aggressive behaviour

| Biological approach | Freud's psychodynamic theory |
|---|--|
| <p>By multiple different biological factors:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Genetic predisposition to aggression – Hormone levels in the body – Stimulation of certain brain areas and damage to the brain (e.g. the prefrontal cortex) – Evolutionary motivations <p>Some drugs have been found to reduce aggression levels, for example, chlozapine, which is often used in patients who show extreme aggression and violent behaviour. However, on the whole many of the biological approach's causes cannot be modified, for example, genetic predisposition or evolutionary motivations.</p> <p>Individuals differ in their genes and hormone levels and this contributes to differences in aggression. Cases of brain damage are individual and no two cases are the same.</p> <p>Numerous studies have provided strong evidence for the influence of biological factors in aggression. However, biological factors do not account for aggression completely and other factors such as social and environmental are also important in explaining aggression.</p> <p>Much of the research supporting the biological approach has used animals. It may not be appropriate to generalise the findings of animal research to humans because we have different motivations for aggression. In addition, studies on brain damage can only be generalised to the individual and not the normal healthy population.</p> | <p>An instinctive drive which is part of the Id and controlled and suppressed by the Ego and Superego. Failure to adequately control the impulses can result in aggression. Repression or other defence mechanisms can result in aggression being expressed in different ways.</p> <p>Controlling aggression is the job of the ego and superego. The superego opposes aggression on moral grounds, whereas the ego tries to account for all aspects of personality and the demands of the situation (reality). Aggressive impulses can be repressed rather than acted on. Catharsis can also allow for the release of aggressive tension in a more manageable way.</p> <p>Individuals vary in their ability to control aggression. Individuals with a strong ego can successfully manage their aggressive impulses, whereas those with a weak ego are controlled by their Id.</p> <p>It has been difficult to establish the internal validity of Freud's theory. For example, the idea of repression is not testable because we cannot easily access the unconscious. There is some evidence for the use of defence mechanisms such as denial. On the whole, Freud's theories are considered to have poor internal validity.</p> <p>Much of Freud's ideas and observations come from case studies of his patients. His patients were middle-class Viennese people who had come to him for treatment. Therefore, his theories may not be generalisable to the general population.</p> |

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Chapter 5 Activities

Check your understanding!

1. Identify and explain one weakness of Brendgen et al.'s (2005) study. (3 marks)
2. Explain why research into the MAO-A gene can be considered socially sensitive. (3 marks)
3. Briefly describe Freud's theory of personality. (4 marks)
4. Identify and explain one way in which the biological and psychodynamic explanations of aggression differ. (3 marks)

Exam-style questions

1. Jessica is a new employee and she's been working very hard for her first week. She has taken little or no time to relax or look after herself. When she gets home on Friday evening, her boss turns up with a stack of paperwork and starts heading home.
 - a) From your understanding of the psychodynamic explanation of aggression, identify two features of this situation that could lead to Jessica being aggressive. (2 marks)

Jessica decided that the best thing to do was to get on with the work and finish it off.

 - b) Explain one factor, using knowledge of psychodynamic explanations of aggression, that might account for Jessica's behaviour. (2 marks)
2. Twin studies are used to investigate the heritability of behaviours.
 - a) Describe twin studies as a method of investigating the heritability of behaviours. (2 marks)

Brendgen et al. (2005) conducted a twin study.

 - b) Give one aim of Brendgen et al.'s (2005) study. (1 mark)
 - c) Give one conclusion of Brendgen et al.'s (2005) study. (1 mark)
 - d) Explain two weaknesses of the methodology used in Brendgen et al.'s (2005) study. (4 marks)

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Chapter 6: The Role of Hormones in Human Aggression

Overview

In this chapter, we look at hormones, the body's chemical messengers, and how they influence our behaviour. We look at hormones involved in aggression in more detail, for example, testosterone. After examining a wide range of evidence, we consider to what extent different hormones do influence aggression.

Learning outcomes

After studying this chapter you should be able to:

- ☐ Understand what a hormone is and what it does in the body
- ☐ Explain aggression as a result of hormones
- ☐ Evaluate the impact of hormones on aggression

Key Terms

| | |
|---------------------------------|--|
| Androgens | A group of hormones (for example, testosterone) that play a role in the development of male characteristics; male sex hormones |
| Correlation | A relationship between two variables; does not indicate causation |
| Cortisol | A type of glucocorticoid hormone which is linked to stress |
| Fight-or-flight response | A biological response we make in extreme situations when we need to flee to survive; adapted over the process of evolution |
| Glands | Part of the endocrine system that produces and regulates hormones |
| Glucocorticoids | A group of steroid hormones which are involved in the immune system |
| Hormone | A slower-acting chemical messenger that regulates functions in the body; transported by the blood (endocrine hormones) |
| Testosterone | A male sex hormone produced in the testes that is important for sexual development in males |



Scene-Setting Questions

- What are hormones?
- Does testosterone cause aggression?
- What makes women less aggressive than men?

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Hormones

A hormone is a chemical that helps to regulate different functions of the body. It causes long-lasting changes or regular cycles as the effects of hormones are not immediate. Examples familiar with include insulin, growth hormone, adrenaline, testosterone, melatonin.

Hormones and the endocrine system

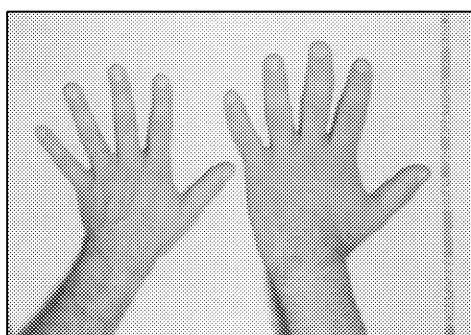
The endocrine system concerns the hormones in our body and the glands that produce them. Hormones transmit information to cells via the bloodstream and the endocrine system is responsible for regulating the levels of these hormones. Hormones adjust the activity of specific organs or functions by binding to specific receptors on the organ's cells, much like a lock and key process. Like a balancing act, when there is too little hormone, the glands stimulate its production to increase the amount and when there is too much, the glands stop producing the hormone.

Other chemical messengers

Unlike neurotransmitters, the body's other chemical messengers, hormones can transmit over a much wider area but take seconds or minutes rather than milliseconds because they have to travel through the blood.

What do hormones do?

Just some of the functions of hormones are listed below:



On the left is a normal hand and on the right a hand belonging to someone with acromegaly, a disorder in which too much growth hormone is produced.

- **Growth:** Human Growth Hormone is responsible for helping us reach their natural height and also plays a role in metabolism by affecting protein metabolism
- **Sexual development:** Hormones such as testosterone and oestrogen are important in the development of sex both in the foetus and later in life
- **Fight or flight:** Hormones such as adrenaline are very important in the evolutionary survival of the body ensuring the body has enough available energy
- **Heart rate:** Heart rate is affected by hormones. During pregnancy the female hormones may increase heart rate (heart palpitations)

Developmental psychology: The role of hormones in human development

Hormones influence our development throughout our lifespan. For example, hormones influence the formation of sex differences in the brain. During foetal development males are exposed to higher testosterone levels which has an effect on the newly developing brain cells. For example, the sexually dimorphic nucleus is 2.5 times larger in men than in women. Brain differences lead to behavioural differences until later in life.

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Glands

A gland is an organ that produces hormones.

There are a number of different (endocrine) glands in the body; here are some of

Hypothalamus

Sit just above the brain stem (an area that connects the brain to the spinal cord and, therefore, the rest of the body), the hypothalamus is important for regulating the pituitary gland. It releases hormones that transport through an artery to the pituitary gland and, therefore, its importance lies in influencing other glands. The hypothalamus also plays an important role in homeostasis, a state of equilibrium which is needed for survival.

Pituitary gland

Also called the master gland, the pituitary gland is responsible for the production of many hormones and is considered the most important part of the endocrine system. The pituitary gland secretes growth hormone which targets many cells in the body and is important in determining height in children. In adults, growth hormone is important for increasing muscle mass, among other functions.

Thyroid gland

The pituitary gland is also very important for influencing other glands. For example, the pituitary gland stimulates the thyroid gland, of which the hormones influence cell metabolism (speed). Hyperthyroidism is when our thyroid gland is producing too few thyroid hormones (so our cells are working too slowly), and hypothyroidism is when our thyroid gland is producing too many thyroid hormones (so our cells are working too quickly), and this is an example of misregulation by the pituitary gland.

Our thyroid is found below our Adam's apple, although some individuals are born without one. This is called congenital hypothyroidism and is treated as soon as diagnosed as it can lead to failure to grow.

Hormones and aggression

One hormone you might have heard of being associated with aggression is the male

Role of testosterone

To the lay person testosterone is linked to the idea of 'masculineness' along with along with masculine traits, might be said to be 'testosterone fuelled'.

... But how much truth is there to this?

Animal studies

Research conducted on animals has provided enough evidence to conclude that there is a link between testosterone and aggression.

The typical method of investigation is through castration and replacement of testosterone. For example, the testes when removed in rats reduce aggression and when testosterone is replaced their levels of aggressive behaviour return (Albert et al., 1987).

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In humans

The current research findings on humans about the proposed link between testosterone are clearer than the popular perception.

Dabbs et al. (1995) examined 692 male prison inmates and measured their saliva levels of testosterone. Prisoners who had committed more aggressive and violent crimes (e.g. rape and murder) showed higher levels of testosterone compared to those who had committed less aggressive crimes (e.g. theft). These inmates were also more likely to behave aggressively while in prison and break rules.

Archer et al. (2005) conducted a meta-analysis of 30 testosterone and aggression studies, finding a positive, correlation of $r = 0.08$ suggesting that there is a link between the hormone and aggression.



An evolutionary function

Bernhardt et al. (1998) found that testosterone levels increase following watching sporting events. Following a win, testosterone levels increase, and following a loss there is a decrease. Since testosterone is said to facilitate aggression, the increase following defeat promotes withdrawal from further competition and aggression against a stronger opponent, which is an evolutionary function.

Halpern et al. (1993) examined the relationship between aggression in 100 teenage males and the increase of testosterone they experience at this time. They found no significant relationship between testosterone and aggression.

In contrast, Finkelstein et al. (1997) conducted a randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled study of children who were experiencing delayed puberty. They found that hormone replacement therapy resulted in an increase in self-reported aggression in both sexes. However, not all types of aggression led to an increase; verbal aggression did not change whereas physical aggression was reported to have increased, along with impulsiveness.

Research methods: Randomising to groups

In some studies it is necessary to allocate people to different groups. Where possible, participants should be allocated randomly to ensure that there are no differences between the attributes of the participants in each group.

Aggression or dominance?

Mazur and Booth (1997) argue that a distinction should be drawn between dominance and aggression. They argue that the motive for many aggressive acts is to influence other people and gain status. They argue that there are relatively few acts of aggression that are not dominance; examples include euthanasia, surgery and suicide. Aggression is often exerted without the use of aggression, for example in sports events and political contexts. Competing for dominance produced changes in male testosterone; it increased with challenge and afterwards the winner's testosterone increased while the loser's decreased. Testosterone may not be as clearly linked with aggression as once thought, highlighting the importance of context.

The definition of 'aggression' itself is not black and white, and different definitions are used in different contexts.

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Testosterone and sex differences

A review by Bettencourt and Miller (1996) agreed that men are more physically aggressive than women and are also more likely to commit aggressive crimes (Stephenson, 1995).

Is testosterone responsible?

Girls born with congenital adrenal hyperplasia (CAH) have a higher-than-normal level of androgens. Androgens are also known as male sex hormones and this group of hormones is responsible for the development of male characteristics. This leads CAH girls to develop a more masculine appearance. Do they also develop the more masculine trait of aggression? Research by Pasterski et al. (2000) on 11 girls with CAH show more aggressive behaviour than their siblings without CAH. CAH girls also showed higher levels of aggressive behaviour, along with being more active in general.



However, is there really a sex difference?

When aggression is operationalised in terms of physical aggression then in Western cultures men are more aggressive than females. While men show more physical aggression, women show more verbal aggression (for example, gossiping).

Evolutionarily speaking, males and females are both aggressive but females lack the same physical strength as males. Such, it makes evolutionary sense for males and females to show aggression differently, for example in terms of conflict resolution.

Glucocorticoids

Along with androgens (such as testosterone), glucocorticoids fall under a class of steroid hormones. One glucocorticoid hormone you have already come across is cortisol. Cortisol has many important functions; for example, stress responses and the amount of glucose in the blood.

Animal studies

In animal studies, it has been found that chronically high levels of glucocorticoids (Summers et al., 2005), whereas reduced levels in rats produce increased aggression. This suggests there are inter-species differences, making it difficult to generalise any findings to another species.

In humans

The first study investigating glucocorticoid hormones was Virkkunen (1985) who found that frequent violent offenders had lower levels of glucocorticoids than frequent non-violent offenders. One criticism is that this study examines the offender's past aggressive history but measures the present level of glucocorticoids, which may change to reflect their environment; for example, non-violent offenders and violent offenders may be placed in different institutional conditions.

Issues and Debates: Gender

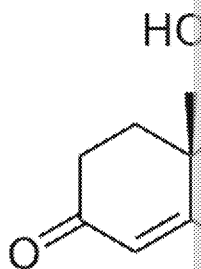
Most people would argue that men are more aggressive than women and may even cite testosterone. However, research suggests, testosterone is related to aggression. However, it may be that testosterone is related to aggression indirectly. It has been shown that women aggress equally but indirectly. There are many more male violent offenders than female violent offenders. Gender differences in aggression may account for this.

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A closer look at cortisol...

In a pilot study by Brown et al. (2008) looking at salivary samples from five university students, they found that high levels of testosterone and low levels of cortisol showed higher self-reported anger. One proposed explanation is that low levels of cortisol result in inappropriate fear responses. This results in a display of aggression rather than the aggression being inhibited.



However, not all research suggests that aggression is associated with low levels of cortisol. For example, van Bokhoven et al. (2009) conducted a longitudinal study of cortisol levels in adolescent boys. They compared the levels of boys who had conduct disorder to those who did not. Conduct disorder is a disorder where children show a persistent pattern of aggressive behaviour often includes aggressive actions such as fighting and cruelty to people, frequent lying, and violating norms and rules. They found that cortisol levels were lower in boys with conduct disorder compared to those who did not. Additionally, cortisol levels were lower in boys with aggressive forms of conduct disorder compared to those who had less aggressive forms of conduct disorder. This suggests that low cortisol is associated with aggression.

Moffitt (1993) identifies that the age of onset of conduct disorder may be an important factor in examining aggression in this group. Those who develop the disorder in childhood tend to show higher levels of aggression across their life than those who develop the disorder in adolescence. This suggests that the age of onset within this population may vary.

What is conduct disorder?

Conduct disorder is a behavioural and emotional disorder that can only be diagnosed during childhood and adolescence. One of the key features of the disorder is aggressive behaviour. It is diagnosed by looking at previous behaviour that breaks the law or seriously violates social norms or rules (also called 'antisocial behaviour').

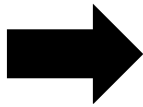
There is a high comorbidity with ADHD, substance use disorders and learning disabilities which suggests a complex interaction of factors.

Issues and Debates: The use of psychological knowledge within society

A better understanding of the causes of aggression can be beneficial for society. Society sees most of its resources go towards trying to prevent and reduce incidences of aggression. The research study above found that higher levels of testosterone and lower levels of cortisol are associated with more aggressive forms of conduct disorder. Cortisol is a hormone that increases in response to stress. If we have more information we may be able to reduce the amount of aggression by encouraging less stressful environments or teaching these young people how to cope with stress.

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Key question: What are the implications for social policy if aggression is found to be caused by nature not nurture?







The 'nature' approach is the idea that our behaviour is the result of biological factors. This argues that we inherit genes which are formed over the process of evolution. In contrast, the 'nurture' approach is the idea that our behaviour is the result of our experiences.

The issue

In our society most forms of aggression and violence are discouraged and often punished. The common punishment for violent aggression is to be sentenced to prison. Our legal system is strongly influenced by the idea that we have a choice in our actions (nurture) and therefore if we choose to behave in a violent and aggressive manner and hurt other people then we should be punished for our actions.

In this course companion we have focused on the biological explanation of aggression. The evidence that biology has a role in aggression. Biological explanations are firmly based on the idea that biological factors we have discussed, such as genetics, cannot be changed. This could have implications for society because we could be punishing people for behaviour that is not out of their control.

Should we punish those whose biology plays a part in their aggressive behaviour?

| Punish? | Applying concepts and research from this course |
|---|--|
|  | Research into genetics has found a link between genetics and aggression. Caspi et al. (1993) found that those with the MAO-A gene had a high incidence of aggression. This cannot be changed and therefore it would be wrong to punish those whose aggression is caused by their genetics predispose them to it. |
|  | Caspi et al. (2002) examined the gene-environment interaction in aggression. They found that those who had been maltreated as children had the lowest levels of aggression. However, the gene-environment interaction make it more likely to aggress, but do not mean it inevitable. |
|  | Some hormones, for example testosterone, have been associated with aggression. Pasterski et al. (2007) found that girls born with congenital adrenal hyperplasia (CAH) had higher levels of testosterone than normal androgens (male sex hormones) including testosterone. Their siblings who did not have congenital adrenal hyperplasia. People with CAH should not be punished. |
|  | Research by van Bokhoven et al. (2005) found that boys with aggression (a disorder characterised by persistent antisocial behaviour) had higher levels of testosterone (a hormone) than those who had a less aggressive forms of the disorder. This suggests that the individual may have some control over the levels of testosterone in stressful situations. |
|  | Evolutionary explanations argue that people are driven by motivational factors inherited from our ancestors. For example, males may use aggression to compete with other males for mates or for limited resources. Our evolutionary motivations are chosen. |
|  | The evolutionary explanations ignore individual differences. Different people in the same situation and respond differently. This goes against the idea that aggression is insurmountable and suggests that we have choice in our behaviour. |

There are certainly great amounts of evidence that biology plays a role in aggression. However, it is important to note that biology predisposes us to aggression, rather than causes it. Genes, hormones and environment do not force us to behave aggressively but make it more likely. The person's past history is likely to influence whether aggression actually occurs. Therefore, both nature and nurture play a role in aggression.

Our law system currently favours the nurture idea that aggression and violent behaviour is a choice. The evidence confirms this but also suggests that the choice is influenced by biology. Our law system should place a greater value in biological influences than they do at present.

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Chapter 6 Activities

Check your understanding!

1. What do animal studies reveal about the influence of testosterone? (1 mark)
2. Identify and explain one problem with using research obtained from other species. (2 marks)
3. Describe the main role of the hypothalamus in the endocrine system. (2 marks)
4. Briefly describe one study that investigates the relationship between glucose and aggression. (3 marks)
5. Discuss the use of animals in aggression research. (6 marks)

Exam-style questions

1. Explain one strength and one weakness of using studies of violent crime to improve our understanding of aggression. (4 marks)
2. Explain two strengths of the methodology used in animal research. (4 marks)

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Chapter 7: Research Methods in Biological Psychology

Practical Investigation

Overview

In this chapter we learn about correlational research and then design our own practical investigation which examines the relationship between two variables. For our investigation we learn how to design and conduct our correlational research and how to analyse and interpret the results.

Learning outcomes

After studying this chapter you should be able to:

- ☐ Understand correlation
- ☐ Design and conduct a practical investigation
- ☐ Analyse and interpret results

Key Terms

| | |
|--|---|
| Abstract | A section of a research article or report in which provides a brief overview of their research |
| Alternate/experimental hypothesis | A prediction on the outcome of the research |
| Cause and effect | The idea that changing one variable causes a change in another variable. The most accurate prediction possible |
| Closed questions | A question with a fixed response, e.g. 'yes', 'no', 'how a person can respond to the question |
| Confidentiality | Experimenters are not to disclose confidential information. Data is stored in such a way that the participant is not identifiable. For example, participant names are replaced by numbers |
| Confounding variables | A variable that has not been controlled for that may be shown in the DV instead of being caused by the IV |
| Correlation | A measure of the association between two variables |
| Correlation coefficient | A number that describes the strength and direction of the correlation |
| Correlational research | A type of research which aims to uncover a relationship between two variables. It does not manipulate either of these variables to see the effect |
| Covariables | The variables measured in correlational research |
| Critical value | The value we use to determine whether to accept or reject the null hypothesis |
| Dependent variable | A variable which measures the presumed effect of the independent variable |
| Directional hypothesis | The researcher predicts the direction of the effect |
| Discussion | A section of a research article or report where the researcher goes back to past research and evaluates their own research |
| Independent variable | A variable which is manipulated to produce a predicted effect on the dependent variable |
| Informed consent | The participant knows exactly what is going to happen and agrees to take part. Differs from just consent when the participant knows the exact experiment but agrees to take part. |
| Interval data | Equally spaced data |
| Levels of measurement | A way of classifying types of data based on their properties |
| Likert scale | A type of closed question where a person responds on a five-point continuum scale |
| Linear correlation | A relationship between covariables that forms a straight line on a scatter graph; the ratio of change is constant |
| Negative correlation | As one variable increases, the other variable decreases |
| Nominal data | Categorical type data |
| Non-directional hypothesis | The researcher predicts that there will be an effect but does not predict which direction the effects will be |
| Non-linear correlation | A relationship between covariables where the relationship is not linear |

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Key Terms

| | |
|----------------------------------|---|
| Null hypothesis | States there will be no effect |
| Observed value | The value we obtain from carrying out an inferential test |
| One-tailed test | A test that only looks in the direction of interest |
| Open questions | A question that allows the person to respond with their own qualitative data |
| Ordinal data | Ordered or ranked data that may not have an equal distance between values |
| Positive correlation | As one variable increases, the other variable also increases |
| Protection from harm | Participants should be protected from psychological and physical harm and made aware of anything that may present a risk to their health |
| Right to withdraw | It should be made clear to participants that they have the right to withdraw at any point and that any data from the study can be destroyed |
| Sampling | The method of selecting participants from the required population for your study |
| Scatter graph | A graph that shows correlational data where each point represents an individual participant |
| Statistically significant | A result that researchers have interpreted to be true or false based on the evidence |
| Spearman's rho | An inferential test used to measure the relationship between two variables at the ordinal level |
| Two-tailed test | A test that looks at both directions because the researcher does not know the result |
| Type I error | When we reject the null hypothesis when we should have accepted it |
| Type II error | When we accept the null hypothesis when we should have rejected it |



Scene-Setting Questions

- What is a correlation?
- What do researchers mean by 'significant'?
- How can we conduct ethical research?

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The practical investigation

As part of your course you will design and conduct a practical investigation into a topic. In this chapter we will examine how to design and conduct a correlational study into a topic in psychology.

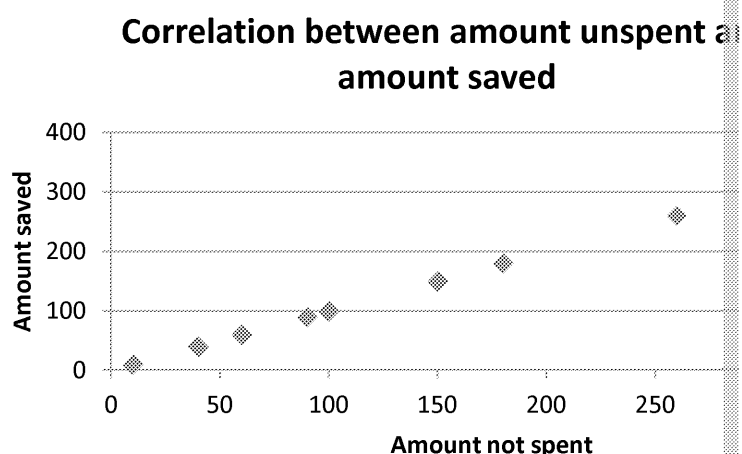
To design a high quality study, you must fully understand how correlational research works. As we go along we will apply the concepts to our study as we go along.

Throughout this chapter, we will be working through the example of investigating the relationship between height and self-rating of aggressive tendencies.

Correlational research

A relationship or link between two variables is termed a correlation. The two variables are termed **covariables** because the study measures the changes in both variables. This contrasts with an experimental study where the researcher changes one variable (the independent variable) and measures the effect on the other (the dependent variable).

A correlation can help us predict results. For example, in the graph below, if you know the amount of money not spent, you would expect a large amount of money saved.



This graph shows a correlation between amount of money not spent and the amount saved.

Perfect correlations

Above is an example of a perfect correlation.

If you can draw a straight line and it goes through the centre of every point you have, then you know the value of one variable, a perfect correlation allows you to predict the value of the other.

Very few correlations are perfect in research because usually one variable may be influenced by other factors. However, in real life, there are several examples.

For example, if every penny you did not spend went into your savings, the amount of money not spent and the amount you saved would form a perfect correlation.

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Correlation coefficients

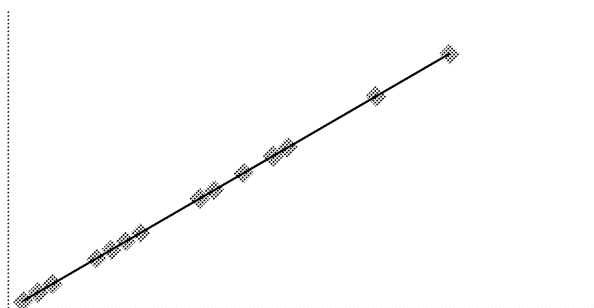
Correlation coefficients tell us about the strength of the correlation. Using a graph you can see if a correlation exists and the strength of it by looking at how close the data points are to the line. The closer the points are to the line, the stronger the correlation.

As a general rule of thumb, for A Level Psychology you should consider correlation coefficients of the following strengths:

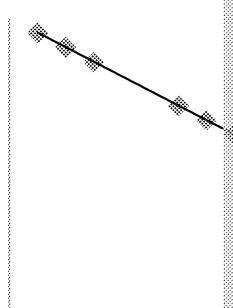
| Correlation coefficient | Strength of correlation |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| 0.1 to 0.3 | Weak |
| 0.4 to 0.6 | Moderate |
| 0.7 to 1 | Strong |

Perfect correlations have a correlation coefficient of 1. This is extremely rare in research. It is very rare to come across research that has a coefficient of 1.

A perfect positive correlation (coefficient +1)

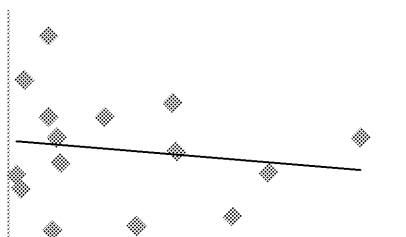


A perfect negative correlation (coefficient -1)

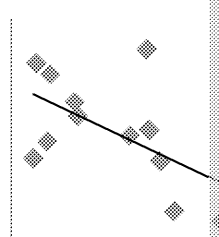


The majority of correlations found in research are not perfect. Using a graph you can see if a correlation exists and the strength of it by looking at how close the data points are to the line. The closer the points are to the line, the stronger the correlation.

Correlation coefficient = -0.15



Correlation coefficient = 0.4



Sometimes we might have points that differ a lot from the other points, these are called outliers. They are sometimes excluded from the results to avoid the data being affected by extreme values.

In real research the strength of a correlation is dependent on how big the sample size is. Even a small trend is quite important, but if a sample is very small, then even having all points heading in the same direction could form a fairly strong correlation.

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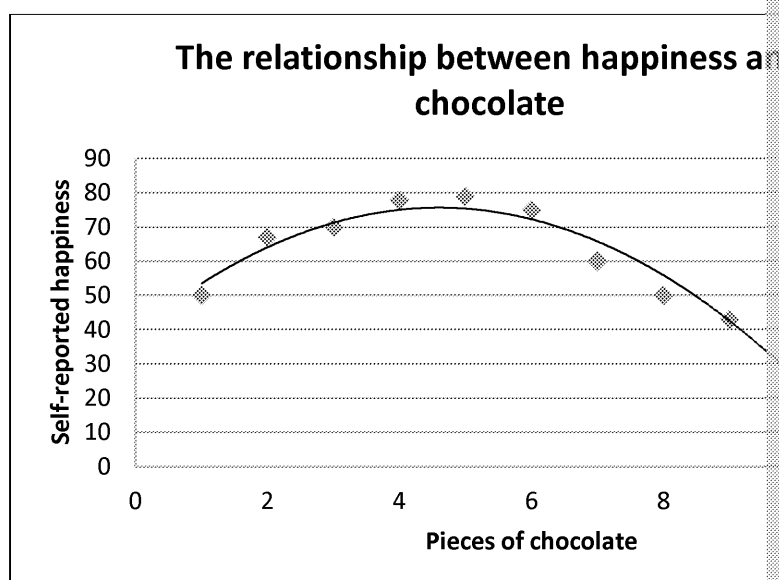
Zero correlations

Sometimes the data is completely random, that is, there is no relationship between



In the example above, the points are widely distributed with no apparent order or trend, indicating no relationship between the variables, having 'zero correlation'.

Something to consider: Non-linear correlations



The correlations shown so far have been linear, that is, they form a straight line.

Something to bear in mind, a correlation does not have to be linear; it is about the relationship between the variables. In the example above it is very clear that there is a strong relationship between chocolate eaten and self-reported happiness.

You may expect the relationship to be linear – that the more chocolate you eat, the happier you become. In reality the first few pieces produce pleasure and the pieces following after become less pleasurable (This has been shown on brain scans, after eating too much chocolate the reward system in the brain lights up!)

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Issues surrounding the use of correlations in psychology

Correlations and experiments are different on a number of key matters:

- **Cause and effect:** Experiments are able to determine cause and effect because they control for variables that may influence the results. Experiments attempt to ensure that all participants are in the same environment so that the only change is the change they make to the independent variable. In contrast, correlations do not directly manipulate the independent variable and therefore cannot control for other variables, which makes it impossible to infer cause and effect.

Important note! Experiments can rarely truly prove cause and effect because there are always other variables that cannot be controlled and accounted for. This is even more so in psychology where it is not possible to control for the participant's history, personality, and other factors. Therefore, experiments at best can form 'causal relationships' but cannot prove the cause.

- **Lack of control and confounding variables:** Unlike experimental research, correlations cannot attempt to control all the other variables. An unfortunate result of this is that correlations can be affected by other variables. A confounding variable is a hidden third variable that produces a relationship between the independent and dependent variable. If confounding variables are not controlled then a study can be misleading.

A memorable example that illustrates this is:

Ice cream sales \longleftrightarrow Number of homicides

Ice cream sales \longleftarrow Heat \longrightarrow Number of homicides

The number of ice creams sold and the number of homicides is positively correlated. Are they really related? It is likely that the extraneous variable heat is to blame. Heat increases ice creams sold and increases the likelihood of aggression.

- **Interpreting correlation coefficients:** Correlations may not be linear and this is why we test for the strength of the correlation. In addition, sample size needs to be taken into account at the strength of the correlation, for example, a small sample size may not be a good indicator of strength.

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Designing and conducting a correlational study

As part of your practical investigation you will be designing a correlational study. This section will walk you through the process using the example of investigating whether there is a relationship between height and self-rating of aggressive tendencies.

Deciding on a research question

Your research question is the question you are trying to answer with your study. You will need to narrow down your field of interest to a more precise topic that you can investigate.

For this Biopsychology module, your research question should be linked to aggression or attitudes to drug use.

Practical investigation: An investigation into whether there is a relationship between height and self-rated aggressive tendencies

Our research question is: Is there a relationship between height and self-rated aggressive tendencies?

This question is clearly linked to aggression as one of our covariables is self-rated aggressive tendencies. We can use our research findings to consider how our research compares to other research.

Forming a hypothesis/prediction

Experiments

Before we conduct an experiment we form a hypothesis. A hypothesis is a precise, testable prediction about what the researchers expect to happen in their study. For an experiment, researchers define the hypothesis in terms of the independent variable and the dependent variable. The independent variable is the variable that is being changed (e.g. temperature of a room) and the dependent variable is the variable we expect to measure change on (e.g. displays of anger during a frustrating task).

Two hypotheses are written:

1. **Alternate/experimental hypothesis** is a hypothesis that there will be an effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable.
2. **Null hypothesis** is a hypothesis that says that there will be no effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable.

The researcher hopes that the research findings will allow him/her to reject the null experimental hypothesis.

Alternate/experimental hypotheses can be either **directional** or **non-directional**. A directional hypothesis is written if previous research has suggested that there will be a particular effect. If there is no previous research or conflicting research then you should write a non-directional hypothesis.

- Directional example: I hypothesise that the hotter the room is, the more likely I am to display anger during a frustrating task.
- Non-directional example: I hypothesise that room temperature will have an effect on the display of anger during a frustrating task.

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Correlational studies

Some researchers do not like using the term 'hypothesis' when you are conducting correlational research because in correlational research you do not manipulate the variables and therefore there is no experimental hypothesis. Instead, you might prefer to use the term 'prediction'.

Correlational studies express the hypothesis/prediction in terms of covariables. Correlational studies are used to investigate the relationship between which you expect to see a relationship.

Here are some examples:

- 'I hypothesise/predict there will be a positive correlation between the number of previous criminal convictions and the likelihood of a person going to prison in the next two years.' (directional)
- 'I hypothesise/predict there will be a negative correlation between the amount of counselling a person receives for anger and the number of aggressive incidents.' (directional)
- 'I hypothesise/predict there will be a correlation between regularly doing aggressive sports (e.g. boxing) and physical aggression in real life'. (non-directional)

Like in experimental research, you should also form a null hypothesis. For correlational research, the null hypothesis will state that you expect **no relationship** between your two covariables.

Practical investigation: An investigation into whether there is a relationship between height and self-rated aggressive tendencies

There has been little research into the relationship between height and aggression. Most research has focused on our physical traits, for example, previous research found that facial features are related to aggression. This suggests that there could be a relationship between height and aggression. However, there is insufficient previous research to state the direction of the relationship. We don't know if shorter people might be more aggressive or if taller people might be more aggressive.

Here is our prediction/hypothesis:

There will be a correlation between height and self-rated aggressive tendencies.

Our null hypothesis:

There will be no relationship between height and self-rated aggressive tendencies.

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Sampling

Sampling is the method we use to select people to participate in our study. There are a number of different methods of sampling.

Opportunity sample

Choose whoever is available at the time.

Pros: Easy, good for universal processes

Cons: Biased sample by not accounting for the types of people who are not present

The aim of sampling is to make sure your sample represents the people (the population) you are interested in.



Volunteer sample

People respond to an advert or invitation to participate.

Pros: Allows for a wider sample, suitable for universal processes

Cons: Restricted to those who have seen the advert; those who self-select may be different from those who choose not to respond

Systematic sample

Using a list and selecting people at a fixed interval (e.g. every third person). Start from a random point on the list.

Pros: Less time-consuming than random sampling, good coverage of the population

Cons: Sample is not necessarily random

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Special criteria/exclusion criteria

Along with your sampling choice, you need to think about any special criteria that or anything that should exclude them from the study. For example, if you are concerned about memory, you should exclude people who have impairments in their memories. For example, memory might act as a confounding variable if they are the true reason behind your results.

Practical investigation: An investigation into whether there is a relationship between aggression and height

For our study we are going to use an **opportunity sample**. An opportunity sample is a sample that is collected from a convenient source and we do not expect the topic we are studying to vary within the population.

In choosing our participants, we have chosen three important criteria:

1. **Participants are all males:** Some past research has found that differences exist between how males and females aggress and/or their levels of aggression. Therefore, this study will just focus on males to avoid the potential confounding variable of gender on our results.
2. **Participants have not been diagnosed with a disorder that is associated with high levels of aggression** (e.g. antisocial personality disorder, autism, substance-related disorders, etc.): If our participants have a disorder with a known connection to aggression this could be a confounding variable because the aggression scores may be the result of the disorder rather than height.
3. **Participants must be over 18:** Participants younger than 18 require the parental consent and special ethical consideration because they are a vulnerable group. For this reason, we have decided to use adult participants. Additionally, it is likely that children and teenagers aggress differently from adults and physical playing could be confused with aggression. Finally, at age 18, many people will have reached their maximum height. This may be a more important biological marker than current, but ever changing, height of a child or teenager.

Note: By restricting who can be a participant in our study we are improving the internal validity but are affecting our external validity. Our results are now less generalisable to the general population as our participants do not represent the general population; for example, we cannot say anything about females.

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Ethical considerations

Psychologists have a moral and professional responsibility to conduct ethical research. Guidelines have been published to help inform and guide psychologists in their research.

Issues and Debates: Ethics

The five main ethical guidelines are:

1. Protection from harm: The research should not cause long-term psychological or physical harm.
2. Informed consent: The participant should know about the nature of the study and agree to take part.
3. Deception: The participant should not be unnecessarily deceived about the study. If deception is used, the true nature of the study should be explained afterwards.
4. Right to withdraw: The participant has the right to leave the study at any time and have any data collected destroyed.
5. Confidentiality: The information the participant provides the researcher with should be kept confidential.

Task 7.1: Ethical considerations

Using the table below, consider how we can make sure our investigation meets the ethical guidelines for psychological research.

| Ethical guideline | How will we uphold this ethical guideline? |
|----------------------|--|
| Protection from harm | |
| Informed consent | |
| Deception | |
| Right to withdraw | |
| Confidentiality | |

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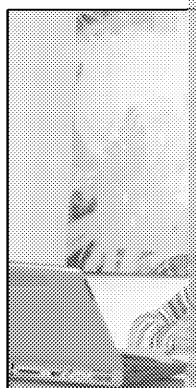


Data collection tools

Now that we know what we want to investigate, we have to choose how we collect data.

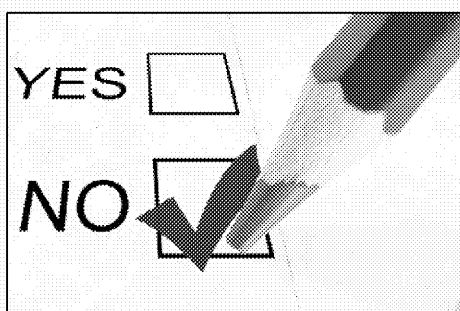
Here are some of the methods that psychologists use to collect data:

- **Experiments:** Experiments manipulate a variable termed the independent variable. If this manipulation produces a change in another variable termed the dependent variable, then the manipulation is said to have caused the change. Experiments carefully control all other factors and the environment of the study is as natural as possible.
- **Observations:** Observations involve observing a person or group of people in a natural setting or in a controlled setting. It is termed 'covert observation' if participants do not know they are being observed, and 'overt observation' if they do. In 'overt observation', participants are aware they are being observed and may even be asked to take part and be observed.
- **Questionnaires:** Questionnaires involve a written list of questions that are answered by the participant and provide information on a particular topic. Questionnaires usually concern the participant's experiences or opinions and often some level of demographic information (age, gender, ethnicity, etc.).
- **Interviews:** Interviews involve asking a person a list of questions, and this is typically done face-to-face. Unlike questionnaires, which involve fixed questions, some styles of interview allow the interviewer to form new questions as the interview progresses.
- **Case studies:** A case study is an in-depth study of a particular individual or group of individuals. Unlike most experiments, case studies do not manipulate the independent variable but rather look at the effects of natural variation in the independent variable. Case studies look at how the individual differs from either their past behaviour or from the behaviour of others regarded as normal or typical behaviour by the majority of the population.



Each method has its own strengths and weaknesses. For example, experiments are likely to be more controlled than observations.

Practical investigation: An investigation into whether there is a relationship between aggression and self-report data



As mentioned previously, we are interested in the relationship between aggression and self-report data. For the purpose of collecting self-report data, we will use questionnaires.

Our two types of data collection methods are questionnaires and interviews. We will use questionnaires because it is more practical and it is well suited to correlational analysis.

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Questionnaire design

There are two different question types:

Open questions

Open questions allow the responder to provide their own answer to a question.

Examples on the topics of gender and stereotypes:

- *Why do you think that men and women often do different types of jobs?*
- *What can be done to encourage young women to pursue careers in 'male' disciplines?*
- *What would you think of a male nurse?*
- *What do you know about feminism?*

This last question tests the knowledge of the responders. Open questions can be used to reduce the risk of correctly guessing.

You can also have open questions regarding quantities.

For example, *'How many times do you exercise during a week?'*

This could have various answers such as:

- 'Three to four times a week'
- 'It depends on my work schedule, usually about twice a week'
- 'I alternate weeks, one week I'll exercise four to five times a week and other times a week'

These can often be more valid than categories for measuring quantities as they measure the category the behaviour should go in.

Closed questions

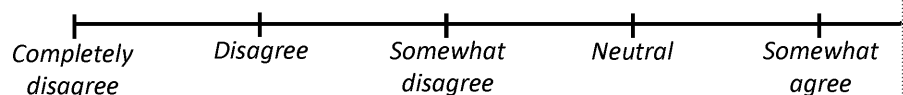
Closed questions involve the responder choosing from a fixed set of answers. For example, 'yes'/'no' questions, fixed categories such as ages 18–25, or scale responses.

Likert scale

Closed questions often employ the use of Likert scales; the responder is shown a range of points and asked which of the identified points best match their attitude.

For example:

To what extent do you agree that happiness is determined by the individual themselves?



In order for scales to be effective, they must cover the whole possible range of answers that participants may have mentioned if they had been given an open question.

Open questions provide rich detail and give the responder the chance to say what they think. Closed questions are easier to answer and analyse.

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Practical investigation: An investigation into whether there is a relationship between aggressive tendencies and height

Here is our questionnaire.

INSTRUCTIONS: For each question tick the option that best describes your behaviour. All responses are confidential and it will not be possible to identify you from your responses.

| In the last seven days I have: | | Never | Rarely | Sometimes |
|--------------------------------|---|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1 | Physically hurt someone with the intent to harm them (e.g. slapping, pushing, etc.) | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 2 | Deliberately caused physical injury to someone (e.g. bruising, cuts, etc.) | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 3 | Verbally threatened someone with violence | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 4 | Verbally threatened someone with damage to their reputation | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 5 | Called someone names or harshly teased them with the aim of hurting them | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 6 | Used sarcasm to ridicule someone | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 7 | Deliberately ignored or excluded someone | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 8 | Spread malicious rumours or lies about someone | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 9 | Encouraged others to dislike someone | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 10 | Encouraged others to ignore or exclude someone | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| 11 | How tall are you? | | | |

When we have collected our results they will be scored. A response of never will be scored 0, rarely 1, sometimes 2, and always 3. A score of 0 will be the minimum score indicating no self-reported aggression, the maximum and indicates extreme aggression.

All heights will be converted into the nearest whole centimetre so that they can be compared.

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Practical investigation: An investigation into whether there is a relationship between height and aggressive tendencies

Considerations when we designed our questionnaire:

- **Number of questions:** 10 questions can provide us with detail on our results, but not so long that people lose interest and choose randomly
- **Likert scale:** Likert scales provide more detail than yes/no questions and allow participants to indicate that they have 'rarely' or 'sometimes' behaved aggressively than 'yes' to indicate they have behaved aggressively
- **Considered variety of different types of aggression:** Aggression is not just physical aggression, but also verbal and indirect aggression. We target each type
- **Specified time frame:** This provides details about time frame that people are asked to consider. The time frame is not so long that people might forget about their aggressive tendencies

Raw data

Now that you have conducted your study, you can collate the data in a table.

If you have used a self-rated measurement, you need to produce a single score for each participant by scoring the results and then totalling them.

Reverse scoring: Note that if your questions vary in what a high score means (e.g. some questions where a high score means very aggressive and others a high score means non-aggressive) you need to reverse score some questions so that the meaning of a high score is consistent.

Practical investigation: An investigation into whether there is a relationship between height and aggressive tendencies

Table 1
Participant data on height and overall self-rated aggression

| Participant | Self-rated aggression score | Height (cm) |
|-------------|-----------------------------|-------------|
| 1 | 9 | 172 |
| 2 | 2 | 160 |
| 3 | 4 | 171 |
| 4 | 11 | 168 |
| 5 | 1 | 170 |
| 6 | 16 | 179 |
| 7 | 8 | 169 |
| 8 | 15 | 180 |
| 9 | 8 | 175 |
| 10 | 24 | 187 |

Note: Minimum self-rated aggression score is 0; maximum is 40.

Presenting your data: Scatter graphs

Correlational information is typically presented in a scatter graph.

One variable is placed on the x-axis and the other on the y-axis. It does not matter which variable goes on which axis. Each participant is represented by a single point.

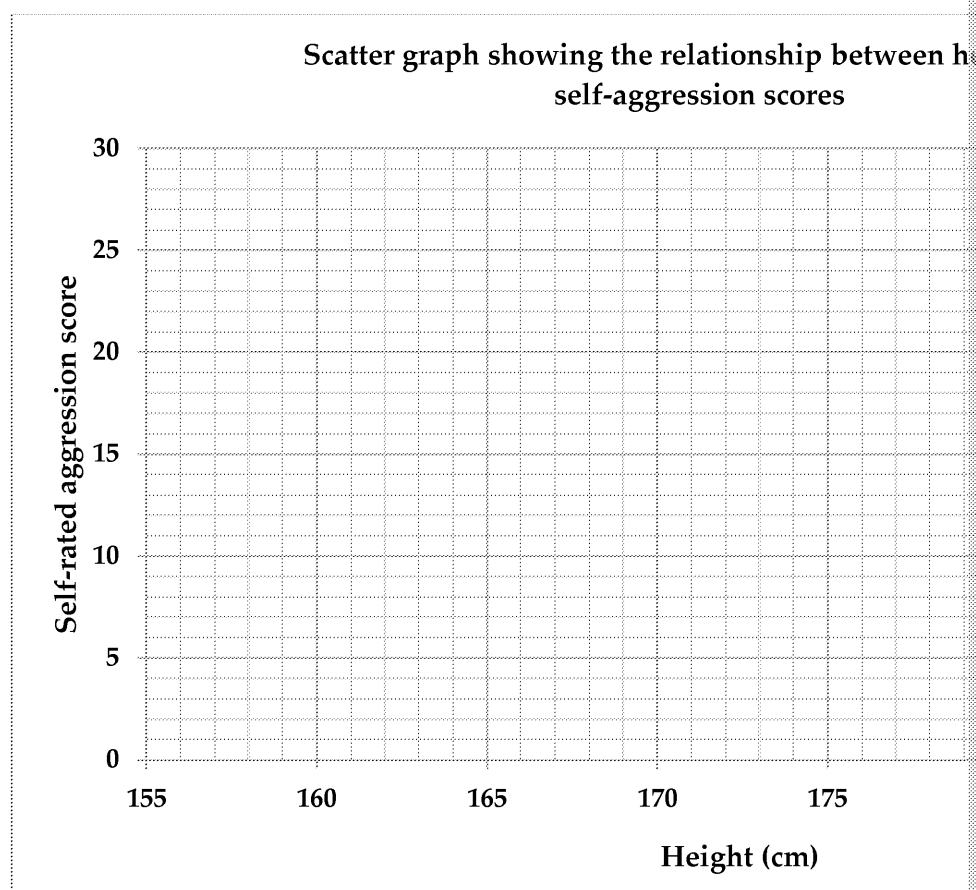
By using a scatter graph we should be able to gain some insight into **descriptive statistics** which are used to summarise the data. For correlations we are interested in the **strength** and **direction** of the correlation.

A strong correlation will have all the points close to the line of best fit. A perfect correlation, will have all the points exactly on the line. You should not expect a perfect correlation in your research. The direction of the correlation refers to whether it is positive or negative. In a positive correlation, as one variable increases, so will the other. In a negative correlation, as one variable increases, the other variable decreases.

Task 7.2: Presenting results in a scatter graph

Use the table of our results to produce a scatter graph.

Once you have plotted all the points, draw a line of best fit.



Delete words as appropriate:

The scatter graph shows *no/weak/moderate/strong* correlation. The correlation is *positive/negative* as the participant's height increases, their self-reported aggression score *increases/decreases*.

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Analysis of correlational data: Spearman's rho

For your practical investigation, you need to know how to use Spearman's rho (also known as the rank correlation coefficient).

Choosing Spearman's rho

When you are interested in the relationship between two variables

Spearman's rho is used for correlational data. It tells you the strength and direction of the relationship between two variables.

Spearman's rho only works for monotonic relationships.

In a monotonic relationship:

- As one variable increases, the other variable increases
- OR**
- As one variable increases, the other variable decreases

Spearman's rho works for both linear and non-linear relationships. In a linear relationship, the points will form a straight line. In a non-linear relationship, the points will form a curve. In a linear relationship, a straight line of best fit can be drawn. In a non-linear relationship, a curved line of best fit can be drawn. A strong relationship will have the points near the line or curve.

Levels of measurement: When you have ordinal or interval data

You can only use Spearman's rho if you have data that is ordinal or interval level.

Data can be described as different levels of measurement:

Nominal

- Data that is split into categories
- Measurement is by counting the frequency of each category
- For example, you could count the number of each of the answers to a 'yes' or 'no' question

Interval

- Scale that has equally spaced data
- For example, temperature is equally spaced; the space between 29 and 32 degrees is equal to the space between 32 and 35 degrees

Ordinal

- Data is ordered or ranked
- Distance between the data may not be equal
- For example, a list of your favourite subjects may be in a ranked order but the difference between the first and second subject and the next might vary

Data for Spearman's rho needs to be interval or nominal or ordinal so that it can be ranked. The ranking is based on the order by which we give our data values (ranks) based on their relative position. For example, if you have a list of shoe sizes, a size 5 shoe; it would be possible to rank these sizes.

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Here is a guided example of how to carry out Spearman's rho...

Practical investigation: An investigation into whether there is a relationship between self-rated aggression and height

Step 1: Set up a table, such as the one below:

| Participant | Self-rated aggression | Rank 1 | Height (in cm) | Rank 2 |
|-------------|-----------------------|--------|----------------|--------|
| 1 | 9 | | 172cm | |
| 2 | 2 | | 160cm | |
| 3 | 4 | | 171cm | |
| 4 | 11 | | 168cm | |
| 5 | 1 | | 170cm | |
| 6 | 16 | | 179cm | |
| 7 | 8 | | 169cm | |
| 8 | 15 | | 180cm | |
| 9 | 8 | | 175cm | |
| 10 | 24 | | 187cm | |

Rank 1 is our column for our ranking of self-rated aggression

Rank 2 is our column for our ranking of height

d is our difference (Rank 2 – Rank 1)

d² is our difference squared

Next we are going to rank our data.

Step 2: To rank your scores, start with the lowest number and give that a rank of 1, then go on to the next lowest number and give that a rank of 2, and so on.

| Participant | Self-rated aggression | Rank 1 | Height (in cm) | Rank 2 |
|-------------|-----------------------|--------|----------------|--------|
| 1 | 9 | 6 | 172cm | 6 |
| 2 | 2 | 2 | 160cm | 1 |
| 3 | 4 | 3 | 171cm | 5 |
| 4 | 11 | 7 | 168cm | 2 |
| 5 | 1 | 1 | 170cm | 4 |
| 6 | 16 | 9 | 179cm | 8 |
| 7 | 8 | 4.5 | 169cm | 3 |
| 8 | 15 | 8 | 180cm | 9 |
| 9 | 8 | 4.5 | 175cm | 7 |
| 10 | 24 | 10 | 187cm | 10 |

If two of your results are the same you give a joint ranking. We have two 8s, which are participants 7 and 9, so we give them both a ranking of 4.5. The next lowest score will be 6.

Note: Multiple joint rankings, especially in a small sample size, decreases the accuracy of the results.

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Step 3: To work out d (the difference) we subtract our rank 1 scores from the rank 2 scores.

Rank 2 – Rank 1 = difference

| Participant | Self-rated aggression | Rank 1 | Height (in cm) | Rank 2 | |
|-------------|-----------------------|--------|----------------|--------|--|
| 1 | 9 | 6 | 172cm | 6 | |
| 2 | 2 | 2 | 160cm | 1 | |
| 3 | 4 | 3 | 171cm | 5 | |
| 4 | 11 | 7 | 168cm | 2 | |
| 5 | 1 | 1 | 170cm | 4 | |
| 6 | 16 | 9 | 179cm | 8 | |
| 7 | 8 | 4.5 | 169cm | 3 | |
| 8 | 15 | 8 | 180cm | 9 | |
| 9 | 8 | 4.5 | 175cm | 7 | |
| 10 | 24 | 10 | 187cm | 10 | |

So work out d^2 (difference squared) we simply square our d result.

Remember that you are squaring the sign too $(-5)^2 = 25$

A negative multiplied by a negative gives us a positive.

All of our answers should be positive.

Step 4: Calculate $\sum d^2$

$\sum d^2$ means the 'sum of' all of our d^2 results. To do this we have to add them all together.

$$\sum d^2 = 0 + 1 + 4 + 25 + 9 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 6.25 + 0$$

$$\sum d^2 = 48.25$$

Step 5: Work out N

Your N value is your number of participants.

$$N = 10$$

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Step 6: Put the information in the formula

Here is the formula for Spearman's rho:

$$r_s = 1 - \frac{6 \sum d^2}{n(n^2 - 1)}$$

Remember that $\sum d^2 = 48.25$ and $n=10$

$$r_s = 1 - \frac{6 \times 48.25}{10(10^2 - 1)}$$

$$r_s = 1 - \frac{289.5}{990}$$

$$r_s = 0.71 \text{ (2 d.p.)}$$

0.71 is our **observed value**

Note: Our observed value is +0.71 which indicates a moderate/strong positive correlation as our scatter graph suggested.

Significance and levels of significance

Our observed value is the result we got from performing our Spearman's rho test. To determine if our observed value is statistically significant.

In correlational research, 'statistically significant' means that the relationship between variables has reached a certain threshold and that we can reject our null hypothesis and accept our alternate hypothesis.

To find out whether our result is significant we compare our observed value to a critical value. If our observed value is equal to or greater than the critical value then we reject our null hypothesis and accept our alternate hypothesis.

To use critical value tables you need to understand two concepts:

1. Levels of significance

For most research conducted you use a level of significance of 0.05. This means that there is a 5% chance that the result is not due to chance. When it is very important that the result is not due to chance, researchers might use 0.01 as their level of significance. This means that they are 99% sure that the result is not due to chance. For example, it can be important to make sure that medicines are safe. It is important that the changes seen are not simply due to chance.

2. One-tailed/two-tailed tests

To understand this you need to think back to our directional and non-directional hypothesis. When testing a directional hypothesis you choose a one-tailed test. This is because you are only interested in one direction you are interested in. If you wrote a non-directional hypothesis you would choose a two-tailed test. This means you are testing in both directions.

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Practical investigation: An investigation into whether there is a relationship between height and self-rated aggression

Here are the critical values for Spearman's rho:

| Level of significance for a one-tailed test | | | | | |
|---|-------|--------------|-------|-------|--------|
| | 0.05 | 0.025 | 0.01 | 0.005 | 0.0025 |
| Level of significance for a two-tailed test | | | | | |
| N | 0.10 | 0.05 | 0.025 | 0.01 | 0.005 |
| 5 | 0.900 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 |
| 6 | 0.829 | 0.886 | 0.943 | 1.000 | 1.000 |
| 7 | 0.714 | 0.786 | 0.893 | 0.929 | 0.964 |
| 8 | 0.643 | 0.738 | 0.833 | 0.881 | 0.905 |
| 9 | 0.600 | 0.700 | 0.783 | 0.833 | 0.867 |
| 10 | 0.564 | 0.648 | 0.745 | 0.794 | 0.830 |
| 11 | 0.536 | 0.618 | 0.709 | 0.755 | 0.800 |
| 12 | 0.503 | 0.587 | 0.678 | 0.727 | 0.769 |
| 13 | 0.484 | 0.560 | 0.648 | 0.703 | 0.747 |
| 14 | 0.464 | 0.538 | 0.626 | 0.679 | 0.723 |
| 15 | 0.446 | 0.521 | 0.604 | 0.654 | 0.700 |
| 16 | 0.429 | 0.503 | 0.582 | 0.635 | 0.679 |
| 17 | 0.414 | 0.485 | 0.566 | 0.615 | 0.662 |
| 18 | 0.401 | 0.472 | 0.550 | 0.600 | 0.643 |
| 19 | 0.391 | 0.460 | 0.535 | 0.584 | 0.628 |
| 20 | 0.380 | 0.447 | 0.520 | 0.570 | 0.612 |
| 21 | 0.370 | 0.435 | 0.508 | 0.556 | 0.599 |
| 22 | 0.361 | 0.425 | 0.496 | 0.544 | 0.586 |
| 23 | 0.353 | 0.415 | 0.486 | 0.532 | 0.573 |
| 24 | 0.344 | 0.406 | 0.476 | 0.521 | 0.562 |
| 25 | 0.337 | 0.398 | 0.466 | 0.511 | 0.551 |
| 26 | 0.331 | 0.390 | 0.457 | 0.501 | 0.541 |
| 27 | 0.324 | 0.382 | 0.448 | 0.491 | 0.531 |
| 28 | 0.317 | 0.375 | 0.440 | 0.483 | 0.522 |
| 29 | 0.312 | 0.368 | 0.433 | 0.475 | 0.513 |
| 30 | 0.306 | 0.362 | 0.425 | 0.467 | 0.504 |

The calculated value must be equal to or exceed the critical value in this table for the result to be significant.

Our value was 0.71, which is greater than 0.648. Therefore, our result is significant.

This means that we can **reject our null hypothesis** that there would be no relationship between height and self-rated aggression. Therefore, we can **accept our alternate hypothesis** that there is a relationship between height and self-rated aggression.

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Issues of statistical significance

Many researchers will rejoice when they find out their result is significant, but what if it isn't?

There are two types of error you need to be aware of:

Type I error (false positive): When we reject the null hypothesis, but we should have accepted it. This is more likely when we choose a less strict level of significance. This is because our result does not have to be as large to meet the threshold.

Type II error (false negative): When we accept our null hypothesis, but we should have rejected it. This is more likely to happen when we choose a strict level of significance.

Discussing your study and writing it up

Strengths and weaknesses

Here is some general evaluation of correlational research. This information is important for your practical investigation.

| Strengths | Weaknesses |
|---|--|
| Uncovers relationships: Correlations can be an excellent place to start researching a new area and identifying relationships. As evidence for the existence of a relationship between two variables, correlations can help promote later experimental research. | Not cause and effect: Correlation does not tell a researcher whether change in one variable causes a change in another. Correlation only shows an association between two variables. A third hidden variable is likely to be responsible for the association between the variables. |
| High mundane realism: The raw data used in correlational analysis is usually produced in natural rather than experimental settings. Unlike an experiment, variables are highly relevant to real life. | Directionality: It can be difficult to determine the direction of the correlation. For example, being nice to strangers is correlated with being happy. Is being nice making you happy, or being happy making you more nice to strangers? |
| Self-report: Much of the data used in correlational analysis comes from self-report techniques such as questionnaires. Using questionnaires can be advantageous as it allows the researcher to gain a lot of data quickly and affordably. Completing a questionnaire is seen as being less effortful than taking part in an experiment, so it may be easier to get data from a greater number of participants which improves generalisation. | Self-report: Self-report has many disadvantages. Unlike experiments, participants have low levels of control. Participants are being asked to report on their own behaviour, which may not be accurate. This can affect the results. |

You need to be able to apply these to your own investigation. Here are some examples:

Practical investigation: An investigation into whether there is a relationship between aggression and aggressive tendencies

One weakness of our design is the use of a self-reported measure of aggression. Participants may disapprove of displays of aggression and therefore participants may not have been honest about their behaviour. They may have tried to downplay their aggressive behaviour by giving low scores, which could affect the validity of our findings.

However, we felt that the use of a self-report questionnaire was preferable over an experimental design. There are ethical qualms with inducing aggression and self-report measures avoid this. Additionally, participants may not aggress openly in an experimental situation because of disapproval.

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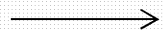
Possible improvements

It is important to acknowledge any shortcomings in your design and just as important to suggest ways to improve them. You should consider how changing aspects of your design could improve validity.

Practical investigation: An investigation into whether there is a relationship between aggression and testosterone levels

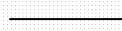
Problem

Participants may lie on self-reported measures if the topic is sensitive

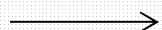


Improvement

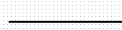
Hide target questions among filler questions to conceal topic of interest



Use of only men means that the findings cannot be generalised to women.



Conduct a future study that includes women as well as men.



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Writing the abstract

When researchers are looking to find out more information about a topic they often do research rather than reading about it in a textbook! To help decide if they want to read more they can read a short summary called an abstract.

An abstract is at the very beginning of the research paper and provides a very brief overview of the research that has been conducted. It includes information such as the research question, design used (experimental, correlational, etc.), and the key findings. Other researchers can quickly read this information and decide if it will be relevant to what they want to know.



EXAM TIP
The abstract should summarise some of the key points of the comparison available.

As part of your practical investigation you need to be able to write an abstract.

The task below will guide you through the process.

Task 7.3: Writing an abstract

Using the table below, write an abstract to summarise our investigation into the effects of priming on rated aggression. Aim to be brief but write your answers in prose rather than bullet points.

| Subsection | Write one or two sentences on each |
|--|------------------------------------|
| What background research is there to our topic? Or if there is none, why did we decide to investigate this topic? | |
| What topic did we investigate? | |
| What method did we use? What are our (co)variables? How did we measure them? | |
| What was our main finding? | |
| What was our main conclusion? | |

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Writing the discussion

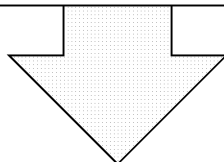
The last section of a research report or article is the discussion section. In the discussion you explain what your research means.

There are a number of different sections to a good discussion:

1) Remind the reader of your hypothesis and describe your results

This section should be short and to the point:

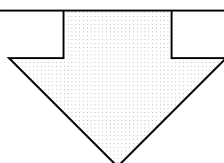
Example: *The goal of this study was to investigate whether there is an association between self-rated aggression and height. We found that there was a moderate-to-strong positive relationship between self-rated aggression scores and height. The findings confirm our prediction that there would be a positive relationship between the two covariables.*



2) Link your research to other research in the area and try to explain your findings

This should be a large section of your discussion. If this is a new area of research, you should try to explain your findings in the light of other research.

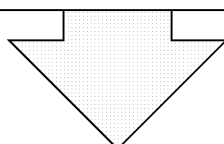
Example: *Previous research into facial-width-to-height ratio suggested to us that there is a link between physical biological markers for aggression. We proposed that height could be a biological marker for aggression. Our research confirmed that there was a positive relationship between height and aggression. Other research suggesting a link between testosterone and aggression and it is further suggested that testosterone can result in stunted growth in males. Therefore it is possible that height may be linked to both higher levels of aggression and taller heights.*



3) Evaluate your study: Strengths, weaknesses and improvements

As we were practising earlier, you need to be able to apply evaluation to your research. You should be able to separate your research and also talk about strengths and how problems can be resolved.

Example: *One weakness of our study design was the use of only male participants. This may not allow us to generalise our findings. We saw this as a necessary precaution because of the possibility of having a mixture of male and female participants on aggression and height. A possible improvement would be to conduct research using both males and females and control for age, intelligence, and mixed sex.*



4) Conclusions, implications and future research

In the final section of the report we wrap up by reminding the reader of our findings, the possible implications (why are our findings important?) and suggesting future research.

Example: *Our research found a positive correlation between height and self-rated aggression. One implication for this is the use of biological markers as predictors for aggression. A future research suggestion would be to replicate this study on a larger scale and use both males and females to allow for a more generalisable conclusion.*

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* A Level exam-style questions

1. Describe the central nervous system. (4 marks)
2. Recreational drugs affect the central nervous system.
Explain how one drug affects the central nervous system. (3 marks)
3. Describe brain scanning as a method of investigating brain activity. (4 marks)
4. Describe the theory of natural selection. (4 marks)
5. Joseph is trying to revise for his exams. The material is difficult and he is sitting next door to a neighbour who is having construction work done and the noise is unbearable. One day, while looking out of his window he sees his neighbour. Joseph decides to go and do his revision.
Using Freudian personality theory, explain why Joseph did not behave differently towards his neighbour. (4 marks)
6. *In the eyes of the law people are responsible for their criminal actions and should be punished accordingly. However, research has increasingly shown the role of biological factors in aggression. Some proponents argue that if aggression is the result of nature not nurture it cannot be changed.*
Discuss the key issue for society of the implications if aggression is found to be due to nature not nurture, using concepts, theories and/or research from biological psychology. You must make reference to the context in your answer. (8 marks)

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Chapter 1

Check your understanding!

1. **Describe the function of the dendrites in a neuron cell (1 mark)**

The dendrites are the parts of the neuron that receive signals from other neurons

1 mark for signals

2. **Distinguish between excitation and inhibition (2 marks)**

Excitation refers to bindings made to the excitatory receptor sites, where binding increases the likelihood of releasing an action potential (1). In contrast, inhibitory refers to bindings made with the inhibitory receptors, where binding decreases the likelihood of releasing an action potential (1).

1 mark for each definition

3. **Describe the function of one neurotransmitter (4 marks)**

One neurotransmitter is epinephrine, which is involved in the stress response (1). It is implicated in the state of extreme heightened physiological arousal known as the fight or flight response results in a series of changes that prepare our body to deal with physical stressors that were dangerous in our evolutionary past (1). For example, heart rate increases as a response to more blood being pumped round the body and, therefore, faster transportation of oxygen and nutrients (1).

4 marks for description of the role of one neurotransmitter, possible points include: what it is, where it is released, the person and what effect it has on the body

4. **Describe the spinal cord's function in the central nervous system (4 marks)**

The spinal cord is part of the central nervous system and links information from the brain to the rest of the body (1). It is responsible for relaying information from the brain to the rest of the body (1). Sensory information is interpreted by the brain and then the orders for action are sent from the spinal nerves to the motor neurons (1). Evidence of this role comes from the fact that damage to the spinal cord can result in quadriplegia, where the person cannot move or detect sensations from the lower half of the body (1). The spinal cord also plays an important role in reflex actions (1). It performs an action (e.g. removal from source) in response to a stimulus (e.g. touching a hot object) without the brain's involvement (1).

Marks for discussion of the spine's role, could include: connection to peripheral nerves, how it interacts with the brain, reflex actions, damage and resulting effects

5. **Describe the process of synaptic transmission (6 marks)**

Synaptic transmission is the process of communicating information between two neurons (1). An action potential arises due to depolarisation of the neuron's membrane and travels down the axon (1). This leads to the release of the neurotransmitter across the synaptic cleft from the sending neuron (1). The neurotransmitter is released from the terminal buttons and crosses the synaptic cleft (1). It binds to receptors on the receiving neuron (1). The receptor is shaped specifically for a certain type of neurotransmitter (1). A neuron receives many different impulses and if the number of excitatory impulses reaches a certain threshold, an action potential will be released and the signal will travel up the neuron (1). This process allows information to be spread across to different regions of the brain (1).

6 marks for covering the process of synaptic transmission, possible points include: what it is, how it works, information between neurons, neurons have a gap between them called the synapse, action potential occurs at the terminal buttons, neurotransmitters bind to receptors on the other neuron, dendrites which have a greater surface area to receive signals

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6. Briefly describe the central nervous system (6 marks)

The central nervous system consists of the brain and the spinal cord and is responsible for processing information. The brain is composed of millions of interconnected neurons which allow for transmission of information to and from areas of the body (1). Sensory signals are interpreted here, for example, the brain can help determine the direction of sound (1). The spinal cord is responsible for relaying information from the rest of the body to the brain and the brain will connect this information to the appropriate muscles (1). If the spinal cord is damaged, the brain no longer receives signals from the rest of the body and is unable to control the body either (1). This means that the individual is unable to move the lower sections of the body from it (1).

6 marks for consideration of the main features of the central nervous system; point of entry and exit, sensory and motor movement, spinal cord and motor movement, brain damage and spinal cord damage, how the central nervous system works as a whole

Exam-style questions:

| Question number | Answer |
|-----------------|---|
| Q1. | <p>AO1 (2 marks)</p> <p>1 mark for a definition of 'neuron' and 1 mark for a definition of 'neurotransmitter'</p> <p>For example:</p> <p>Neuron</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A type of cell that is found in the brain and body that is used to communicate information throughout the body (1) <p>Neurotransmitter</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A chemical which is released by the axon terminals of neurons and carries information to other neurons (1) <p>Credit other appropriate points</p> |

| Question number | Answer |
|-----------------|--|
| Q2. | <p>AO2 (1 mark), AO3 (2 marks)</p> <p>1 mark for identification of a reason (AO2)</p> <p>Up to 2 marks for an explanation of the reason (AO3)</p> <p>Examples:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Epinephrine causes an increase in alertness and primes the body for action (1) This would have helped Laura to process her environment quickly and respond accordingly (1) The body was also physically primed to move quickly which helped Laura to escape (1) <p>Credit other appropriate points</p> |

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Chapter 2

Check your understanding!

- Describe the main difference between CNS stimulants and CNS depressants (2 marks)**
CNS stimulants increase the activity of the central nervous system and result in the calming effect (1). In contrast, CNS depressants reduce or slow down the activity of the central nervous system (1).
1 mark each for descriptions of how CNS stimulants and depressants work
- Identify and explain one weakness of Olds and Milner's (1954) study into reward (2 marks)**
One weakness of Olds and Milner's study is that they used animals rather than humans. Animals are unlikely to have the same motivations for behaviour because humans have greater cognitive abilities. Humans are unlikely to perform a behaviour simply because it is pleasurable and instead they take other motivations into account (e.g. possible consequences) (1).
1 mark for identification of a weakness, up to 2 marks for explanation of the weakness
- Briefly describe the role of GABA in the brain (3 marks)**
GABA is an inhibitory neurotransmitter and as such it inhibits action potentials (1). At GABA receptors it results in the negatively charged chloride ions entering the neuron, thus hyperpolarising the neuron (1). This prevents the action potential from being released which stops nearby neurons from firing (1).
3 marks for three points related to the role or function of GABA in the brain.
- Briefly describe how one drug affects the central nervous system (4 marks)**
Methamphetamine increases the activity of the central nervous system (CNS stimulation) by increasing dopamine transmission by causing dopamine to be released by the synapse. Methamphetamine prevents the normal functioning of neurotransmitter transporters, preventing dopamine from being reabsorbed into the pre-synaptic neuron (1). The result is that there is a far greater amount of dopamine in the synaptic cleft and a greater number of bindings to dopamine receptors than there would be if the system was working normally (1).
4 marks for four points that describe how one drug (likely methamphetamine/alcohol) affects central nervous system functions

Exam-style questions

| Question number | Answer |
|-----------------|--|
| Q1. | <p>AO1 (2 marks)</p> <p>1 mark for a definition of 'excitatory neurotransmitter' and 1 mark for a definition of 'inhibitory neurotransmitter'</p> <p>For example:</p> <p>Excitatory neurotransmitter</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A type of neurotransmitter which encourages action potentials by being positive (1) <p>Inhibitory neurotransmitter</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A type of neurotransmitter which discourages action potentials by being negative (1) <p>Credit other appropriate points</p> |

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| Answer | Mark |
|--|------|
| <p>AO2 (1 mark), AO3 (2 marks)</p> <p>1 mark for identification of a reason (AO2) Up to 2 marks for an explanation of the reason (AO3)</p> <p>Examples:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dopamine is a neurotransmitter that feels pleasurable and methamphetamine increases dopamine (1) Methamphetamine increases the amount of dopamine to much higher levels than a person can experience from normal behaviours (1) The only way for the user to feel the same level of pleasure again is by taking the drug again which can lead to addiction (1) <p>Credit other appropriate points</p> | 3 |

Rating Raine et al. (1997)

nts.

ty:

pair design allows for comparison

other common factors in NGRIs (e.g. low IQ, verbal problems, educational problems, past abuse)

t explain different brains

ity:

realisable to other types of aggression

realisable to normal, healthy population

sample size limits generalisability

sample (normal for brain scanning studies)

men included

participants had schizophrenia

representative of normal population

representative of other crimes/forms of aggression

standardised procedure

imaging techniques often have problems with replicability

a science:

imaging is highly scientific

as beliefs/expectations cannot influence images

:

focus on biological causes

social/environmental factors

attention

findings limited to NGRIs

few applications

focus on biological involvement in crimes/aggression

participants agreed to take part

participants were fully informed

participants believed would help them with their case

Check your understanding!

1. *Identify and explain one weakness of brain scanning studies. (3 marks)*

One weakness of brain scanning studies is that the poor image resolution limits the activity happens at the neuronal level whereas current brain scanning methods can only see larger (1). This means that current brain scanning methods are getting an incomplete picture of the brain (1).

1 mark identification, 2 marks explanation of the weakness

2. *Identify and explain one problem with using research obtained from offenders.* (3)

Research using offenders is not generalisable to all people as the aggression is much aggression (1). For example, there is a high incidence of mental health problems with influence on why they are being aggressive (1). These findings, therefore, cannot be aggression and explanations formed using findings from offenders may not be applicable

1 mark identify (e.g. not representative population sample, usually male, mental health children), 1 mark example or elaboration, 1 mark explanation of point

3. Briefly describe one study that links a brain region to aggression. (3 marks)

Matthies et al. (2012) used brain scanning to measure the volume of the amygdala in individuals who had not had a psychiatric illness and compared their amygdala volume to individuals who had a history of aggression (1). They found that those who had the highest scores on a measure of aggression had a 16–18% lower amygdala volume (1).

3 marks for a three-point description of a relevant study linking a region to aggression findings to aggression, etc.)

4. **Describe Raine et al.'s (1997) sample. (3 marks)**

Raine et al. (1997) used a sample of 41 people (39 males and 2 females) who had been convicted of murder/manslaughter and had pleaded Not Guilty by Reason of Insanity (1). A control group was matched to the experimental group for age, sex and psychiatric illness (1). All participants were scanned 4-6 weeks before the brain scans (1).

3 marks for three-point description of Raine et al.'s sample. Points may include: num
average ages, control groups, six in both groups with schizophrenia, medication

Exam-style questions:

| Question number | Answer |
|-----------------|--|
| Q1. | <p>AO1 (3 marks)</p> <p>1 mark per point related to fMRI which together forms a coherent description of the studies the brain's activity as that is in the question), up to 3 marks</p> <p>For example:</p> <p>A fMRI scan can provide detailed information about which regions of the brain are active during different tasks are performed (1). A fMRI uses strong magnetic fields to measure blood flow in the brain, which is oxygen-rich or oxygen-poor (1). Areas that are more active require more blood flow, so areas that are being activated by the task (2).</p> <p>Credit other appropriate points</p> |

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| Answer | Mark |
|---|------|
| <p>AO1 (2 marks), AO3 (2 marks)</p> <p>1 mark for the identification of each strength/weakness (AO1) 1 mark for justification of the identified strength/weakness (AO3) A maximum of 2 marks if only a strength OR weakness is identified and justified</p> <p>For example:</p> <p>Strength</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Brain-scanning studies use an objective measurement of brain activity/function (1). The machine determines the results and therefore the findings are not affected by the confounding variable of the researcher's own beliefs and expectations (1). <p>Weakness</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Brain-scanning studies focus solely on the biological side of behaviour and therefore are reductionist (1). These studies do not acknowledge the role of other important factors in behaviour and thus present an incomplete understanding of behaviour. <p>Credit other appropriate points</p> | 4 |

| Answer | Mark |
|--|------|
| <p>AO1 (4 marks), AO3 (4 marks)</p> <p>This mark scheme corresponds to using the classic study identified by the specification (Raine et al. (1997) Brain abnormalities in murderers indicated by positron emission tomography)</p> <p>Raine et al.(1997)</p> <p>AO1</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Compared the brains of those who had been charged with murder and pleaded not guilty by reason of insanity (NGRIs) to controls Controls were matched for sex and age Injected with a glucose tracer and completed a continuous performance task, followed by a PET scan Found that NGRIs had lower glucose metabolism in the prefrontal cortex, parietal cortex and corpus callosum Found that NGRIs had asymmetric glucose metabolism for amygdala and hippocampus (increased activity in right and decreased in left) Found that NGRIs had asymmetric glucose metabolism for thalamus (increased activity in the right, no difference in the left) Found NGRIs had higher occipital glucose metabolism in occipital lobe Conclusion: Multiple areas of the brain are related to violent behaviour. Brain areas predispose an individual to aggressive behaviour but other factors influence whether this predisposition is acted on. <p>AO3</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> PET scans are an objective and scientific method of learning about the brain The use of a well-matched control group allows better comparison Focuses on the biological causes and not accounting for other factors is a reductionist approach Raine et al. acknowledge that aggression is not purely biological and that other factors (e.g. social) influence aggression There may be differences in how the murders were committed (e.g. premeditated/impulse or violent/non-violent) Findings cannot be generalised to all violent behaviour, just people who were charged for murder and pleaded not guilty for reason of insanity The sample size is small which limits generalisability (but small sample sizes are common for brain scanning studies) There are strong implications for society and law if we explain violent crimes in terms of biological causes <p>Credit other appropriate points</p> | 8 |

| Mark | Descriptor |
|---|--|
| AO1 (4 marks), AO3 (4 marks) Candidates should focus equally on knowledge and their evaluation/conclusion. | |
| 0 | No credit-worthy material. |
| 1 – 2 marks | Candidate shows limited knowledge and understanding. (AO1) A generic conclusion may be present. Evidence supporting the argument will be limited. There is a partial attempt to answer the question. (AO3) |
| 3 – 4 marks | Candidate shows largely accurate knowledge and understanding. (AO1) Argument uses statement rather than logical chains of reasoning. There is some support for the argument using generally accurate factual details. A shallow conclusion is formed. (AO3) |
| 5 – 6 marks | Candidate shows accurate knowledge and understanding. (AO1) Arguments show mostly sound reasoning. Reasoning leads to the formation of a conclusion. The answer shows knowledge of different arguments but the evaluation may not be balanced. (AO3) |
| 7 – 8 marks | Candidate shows accurate and comprehensive knowledge and understanding. (AO1) The evaluation is logical and shows sound reasoning. The candidate shows a comprehensive knowledge of different arguments and forms a balanced conclusion. (AO3) |

Understanding!

Describe Charles Darwin's theory of natural selection. (3 marks)

Natural selection is a theory to explain the process of evolution (1). Natural selection argues that some of our ancestors had traits that made them more likely to survive, reproduce and pass on their genes to their offspring (1). Over time, these traits become common in the population because those who possess them are more likely to reproduce than those who do not (1).

For three points that together provide a coherent description of natural selection

Give a real-life example of how infidelity is discouraged. (3 marks)

In many cultures, infidelity is discouraged by extreme acts of violence against those who commit infidelity which serve as an example of what could happen if a person chooses the same path (1). For example, honour killings are sometimes carried out by the family of someone who has shown infidelity in order to restore the family's honour by showing that they completely reject the individual and their actions (1). Honour killings and other acts of extreme violence discourage this behaviour because the reduced prosecution of the perpetrators indicates society's acceptance of such behaviour (1).

For a description of violence and how it leads to a reduction of infidelity, does not necessarily refer to a cultural context but could refer to a specific couple and domestic violence

How war might be explained as competition for resources. (3 marks)

Generally speaking, females are attracted to high-resource-bearing males and war provides a method of males to acquire more resources (1). As humans live in groups, successful acquisition of territory can increase the amount of resources the group has (1). Males who often lack their own resources are more likely to go to war and through this they can be seen as providers and therefore more desirable (1).

For linking resources and low-resource-bearing males, female desire for resources and this increasing males' attractiveness to females

Identify and explain one weakness of the evolutionary explanation of aggression. (3 marks)

A weakness of the evolutionary explanation of aggression is that it is difficult or impossible to falsify (1). Evolutionary explanations are based on the lives of our ancestors who lived thousands of years ago and it is not possible to go back in time to observe them (1). Instead, evolutionary theory is based on assumptions of how they lived and information about modern-day hunter-gatherers, but this does not allow researchers to prove or disprove evolutionary theories (1).

For identifying a weakness, up to 2 marks for explanation of this weakness

5. **Describe parental investment theory. (4 marks)**

Parental investment theory argues that men and women behave differently according to the sex each sex makes in their offspring (1). Men require minimal investment and accordingly have many different partners, and this increases their chances of reproductive success (1). Women invest very heavily in their offspring and require a partner who can provide them the resources they need. This may explain differences in jealousy, a protective mechanism against infidelity; men are more concerned about infidelity and females over emotional infidelity (1).

Marks for highlighting difference in sex, that it changes behaviour, could link to aggression

Exam-style questions

| Question number | Answer |
|-----------------|--|
| Q1 a) | <p>AO2 (2 marks)</p> <p>1 mark for each feature that is identified, up to 2 marks maximum.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Nick has invested heavily in Tara and their child (1) Nick is competing with the male co-worker for Tara (1) Tara is attractive and a high-value mate (1) <p>Credit other appropriate points</p> |

| Question number | Answer |
|-----------------|---|
| Q1 b) | <p>AO2 (1 mark), AO3 (1 mark)</p> <p>1 mark for identification of a factor (AO2) 1 mark for an explanation of the factor (AO3)</p> <p>Examples:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The male co-worker may not be a threat if he has few resources to compete for Tara. Nick does not need to worry about competition (1) Tara wants to protect her child and receive Nick's resources (1), therefore she will not leave him (1) <p>Credit other appropriate points</p> |

| Question number | Answer |
|-----------------|--|
| Q2 | <p>AO2 (1 mark), AO3 (2 mark)</p> <p>1 mark for identification of a reason (AO2) 1 mark for an explanation of the reason (AO3)</p> <p>Examples:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Evolutionary explanations argue that males compete with one another for mates (1) Each male will want to come across as the best possible mate choice to attract a mate, so they will boast of their achievements (1) Therefore, males will change their behaviour when in front of a potential mate (1) <p>Credit other appropriate points</p> |

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Chapter 5

Task 5. 1: Discussion on Brendgen et al. (2005)

Suggested points:

I think Brendgen et al. (2005) is a POOR study because...

- Some twins may have been wrongly allocated
- May have caused problems in children's friendships
- Only generalisable to 6-year-olds
- French and English questionnaires may have been asking slightly different things
- Correlational research does not prove causation, there may have been other factors influencing the relationship
- A large number of pairs dropped out (attrition)

I think Brendgen et al. (2005) is a GREAT study because...

- Looks at genetic and environmental factors
- Used both peer and teacher ratings of aggression
- First study looking at social aggression in twins
- Easy to replicate – a larger study could be done in the future
- Real-life application: bullying could be reduced if it is environmental

Check your understanding!

1. **Identify and explain one weakness of Brendgen et al.'s (2005) study (3 marks)**

One weakness of Brendgen et al.'s study is that the findings are only generalisable to a specific age group. The usefulness of the findings because levels and methods of social aggression change as children develop. Brendgen et al.'s findings may only hold true for a short period of time (1).

1 mark for identification of a weakness, 2 marks for explanation of the weakness

2. **Explain why research into the MAO-A gene can be considered socially sensitive research (3 marks)**

Research into the MAO-A gene can be considered socially sensitive research because it challenges the way we view violence and aggression. The law and the way that violence is viewed by society (1). Our legal system is based on the idea that individuals are responsible for their actions but MAO-A gene research contradicts this with findings that suggest a genetic role in aggressive behaviour (1). Therefore, MAO-A gene research has implications for laws, and those who commit aggressive crimes (1).

3 marks for a three-point explanation of MAO-A as a socially sensitive research topic, including: making, influence on societal attitudes towards aggression, effect on family members

3. **Briefly describe Freud's theory of personality (4 marks)**

Freud believed personality was formed of three structures which interact with one another: the id, the ego, and the superego. The id is driven by a person's basic needs and seeks immediate gratification of those needs (1). The superego represents the moral standards and ideals that we have accepted (1). The ego tries to manage the needs of the id in addition to paying attention to the constraints of reality (1). Very young children only have the id, but as they grow older they develop a superego and ego and learn to delay gratification and focus on reality (1).

4 marks for a coherent description of Freud's personality theory, including mention of the id, ego, and superego and the way they interact

4. **Identify and explain one way in which the biological and psychodynamic explanations of aggression differ (3 marks)**

The biological approach to aggression has much higher internal validity in comparison to the psychodynamic approach (1). The biological approach relies on highly-controlled and scientific experiments to test hypotheses, which results in good internal validity (1). In contrast, much of the psychodynamic explanation of aggression (e.g. repression) and evidence comes from case studies which Freud has analysed and interpreted (1).

1 mark for identification of a difference, 2 marks for explanation of the difference

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Exam-style questions

| Question number | Answer |
|-----------------|---|
| Q1 a) | <p>AO2 (2 marks)</p> <p>1 mark for each feature that is identified, up to 2 marks maximum</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Jessica's id demands that she goes home now (1) • Feeling of frustration acts as a trigger to aggression (1) • Jessica has had little opportunity for catharsis (e.g. exercise) (1) <p>Credit other appropriate points</p> |

| Question number | Answer |
|-----------------|---|
| Q1 b) | <p>AO2 (1 mark), AO3 (1 mark)</p> <p>1 mark for identification of a factor (AO2) 1 mark for an explanation of the factor (AO3)</p> <p>Examples:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Jessica's ego is controlling the impulses of her id (1), therefore she has the idea to be aggressive towards her boss (1) • The feeling of frustration is insufficient to trigger aggression (1), therefore she does not act on her aggressive impulses (1) • Jessica cannot be aggressive because she might lose her job (1), therefore she uses a defence mechanism to manage this conflict (1) <p>Credit other appropriate points</p> |

| Question number | Answer |
|-----------------|--|
| Q2 a) | <p>AO1 (3 marks)</p> <p>1 mark per point related to twin studies which together form a coherent argument (that it is used to investigate heritability as that is in the question), up to 3 marks</p> <p>For example:</p> <p>Twin studies compare the similarity of monozygotic twins (identical) and dizygotic twins (fraternal) for particular behaviours or traits (1). If the rate for a behaviour is much higher than dizygotic twins this suggests that the behaviour is strongly influenced by genetics (1). If the similarity of monozygotic twins is 100% it suggests that the behaviour is completely genetic (1).</p> |

| Question number | Answer |
|-----------------|---|
| Q2 b) | <p>AO1 (1 mark)</p> <p>1 mark for providing an aim related to Brendgen et al.'s (2005) study</p> <p>For example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To investigate the extent to which differences in social aggression are due to genetic, shared environmental or non-shared environmental factors (1) <p>OR</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To investigate if there is a relationship between social aggression and physical aggression (1) <p>Credit other appropriate points</p> |

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| Answer | Mark |
|--|------|
| <p>AO1 (1 mark)</p> <p>1 mark for providing a conclusion of Brendgen et al.'s (2005) study</p> <p>For example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Genetics/biology is important in physical aggression, whereas environmental factors are important in social aggression <p>OR</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Children who were physically aggressive were more likely to be socially aggressive (interaction of genes and environment) <p>OR</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> As children age, they are more likely to use social aggression rather than physical aggression (due to social pressures) <p>Credit other appropriate points</p> | 1 |

| Answer | Mark |
|---|------|
| <p>AO1 (2 marks), AO3 (2 marks)</p> <p>1 mark for each weakness identified (2 AO1) 1 mark for justification of each weakness (2 AO3) A maximum of 2 marks if only one weakness is identified and justified</p> <p>For example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Brendgen et al. (2005) used teachers' ratings of the school children's aggression which may not be accurate (1). Teachers only see the child some of the time and may not accurately recall past information, therefore the rating may be incorrect (1). Brendgen et al. (2005) used twins from the Quebec Newborn Twin Study which had grouped the twins into monozygotic and dizygotic based on how physically similar they looked (1). Therefore, when allocating the twins to the dizygotic and monozygotic groups, some may have been placed in the wrong condition (1). <p>Credit other appropriate points</p> | 4 |

Chapter 6

Check your understanding!

1. **What do animal studies reveal about the influence of testosterone? (1 mark)**

Animal studies reveal a causal relationship between testosterone and aggression in

1 mark relationship between testosterone and aggression

2. **Identify and explain one problem with using research obtained from offenders. (3 marks)**

Research using offenders is not generalisable to all people as the aggression is much more influenced by mental health problems than testosterone (1). For example, there is a high incidence of mental health problems with offenders (1). These findings, therefore, cannot be applied to the general population (1). Aggression and explanations formed using findings from offenders may not be applicable to the general population (1).

1 mark identify (e.g. not representative population sample, usually male, mental health problems, children), 1 mark example or elaboration, 1 mark explanation of point

3. **Describe the main role of the hypothalamus in the endocrine system (2 marks)**

The main role of the hypothalamus in the endocrine system is to control the pituitary gland (1). The pituitary gland controls many of the hormones in the body, so the hypothalamus controls the other glands (1).

1 mark pituitary gland, 1 mark influencing other glands or referring to an example

4. **Briefly describe one study that investigates the relationship between glucocorticoids and aggression. (3 marks)**

Van Bokhoven et al. (2005) investigated the glucocorticoid cortisol and how levels of cortisol relate to aggression (1). They compared cortisol levels of the boys who had aggressive forms of the disorder (1) and cortisol levels of boys who did not (1). They found that cortisol levels were higher in boys with aggressive forms of the disorder (1) and highest in those with aggressive forms of the disorder (1).

3 marks for three points that describe a related study that could include: aims, methods, results, conclusion

5. **Discuss the use of animals in aggression research. (6 marks)**

One advantage of using animals in research is that there is a much greater degree of control over the environment of an animal can be born and live in the laboratory for the duration of their lives meaning that researchers can gain detailed knowledge and good control over their lives (1). A higher degree of control over the environment means we are more certain about attributing causation because the number of confounding variables is reduced (1). A disadvantage is that while animals share our basic physiology, we are not the same (1). Findings from animal research are not directly applicable to humans (1). For example, humans may weigh up the pros and cons of an action before acting accordingly; in contrast, animals are likely to act purely on impulse and without the ability to weigh up the pros and cons of their action (1). This suggests that there may be crucial differences in the motivation for aggression and accordingly assumptions should not be imposed on either (1).

3 marks (× 2) for discussion of an advantage or disadvantage that includes: identification of advantage/disadvantage, explanation. Does not need to be so split up; can be a more fluid discussion.

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Exam-style questions:

| Question number | Answer |
|-----------------|---|
| Q1. | <p>AO1 (2 marks), AO3 (2 marks)</p> <p>1 mark for each strength/weakness identified (2 AO1) 1 mark for justification of each strength/weakness (2 AO3) Maximum of 2 marks if only one strength or weakness is identified and justified</p> <p>For example:</p> <p>Strength</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Research into violent criminals has important real-life applications in understanding crime (1). By learning which factors increase crime we try to reduce the incidence of violent crime (1). <p>Weakness</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Studies of violent criminals can tell us little about normal everyday life, which limits the usefulness of this research to understanding extreme forms of behaviour (1). <p>Credit other appropriate points</p> |

| Question number | Answer |
|-----------------|---|
| Q2. | <p>AO1 (2 marks), AO3 (2 marks)</p> <p>1 mark for each strength identified (2 AO1) 1 mark for justification of each strength (2 AO3) Maximum of 2 marks if only one strength is identified and justified</p> <p>For example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Animal research uses high levels of control due to the fact that the animal is brought up from birth in the laboratory environment (1). This is advantageous as the researcher knows the animal's exact history and how this might influence the results (1). Researchers can use techniques such as castration or lesioning which are difficult to do in humans (1). This allows researchers to learn more about the effects of hormones on behaviour, which is difficult to study in humans due to the interconnectivity of the system (1). <p>Credit other appropriate points</p> |

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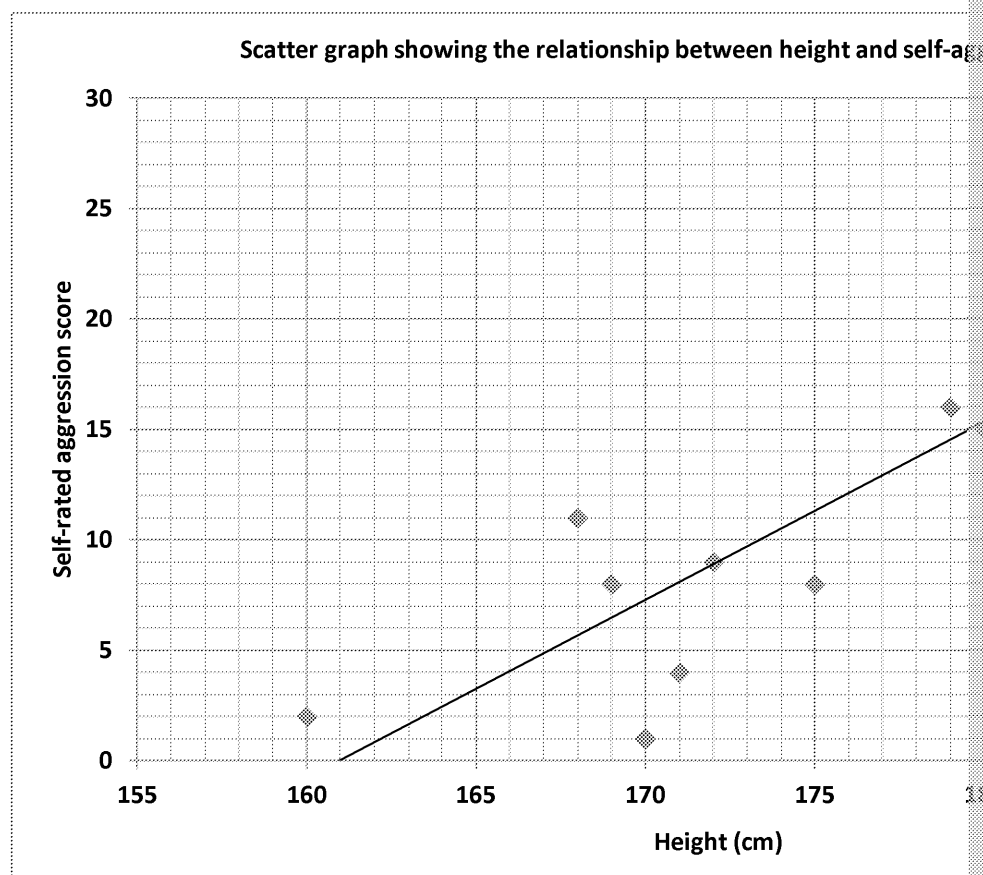


Chapter 7

Task 7.1: Ethical considerations

| Ethical guideline | How will we uphold this ethical guideline |
|----------------------|---|
| Protection from harm | Aggression is a sensitive topic and it is possible that participants may have memories of either being the victim of aggression or being aggressive. Participants are reminded that they can leave at any time and will be removed. If any participants experience distress, a first aid kit will be available that no long-term damage was caused. |
| Informed consent | Participants will be given general information about the study and the fact that it involves filling in a questionnaire about aggression. This information is provided afterwards that will inform the participants of the study. |
| Deception | Extreme forms of deception will not be used. Participants are given information about the study and the fact that it involves aggression. More detailed information will be provided to participants about the true nature of the study. |
| Right to withdraw | Participants will be told they have the right to withdraw at any time and will be reminded at the end of the study that they can withdraw. |
| Confidentiality | The questionnaire will not contain any identifying information about the addresses of participants. The questions themselves are anonymous to the participants. |

Task 7.2: Presenting your results in a scatter graph



Delete words as appropriate

The scatter graph shows a **moderate** correlation. The correlation is **positive**. As the participants' reported aggression score **increases**.

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Task 7.3: Writing an abstract

| Subsection | Write one or two sentences on each |
|--|--|
| What background research is there to our topic? Or if there is none, why did we decide to investigate this topic? | <i>Previous research has found that certain physical characteristics, such as height ratio, are associated with aggression.</i> |
| What topic did we investigate? | <i>This research examines whether another physical characteristic is associated with aggression.</i> |
| What method did we use? What are our (co)variables? How did we measure them? | <i>A correlational design was used and our covariates were self-rated aggression scores. Self-rated aggression was measured using a questionnaire consisting of 10 questions on a 5-point scale.</i> |
| What was our main finding? | <i>A significant positive relationship was found between height ratio and aggression scores. Taller participants tended to have higher aggression scores.</i> |
| What was our main conclusion? | <i>It was concluded that there was a relationship between height ratio and aggression.</i> |

*A Level exam questions

| Question number | Answer |
|-----------------|---|
| Q1. | <p>AO1 (4 marks)</p> <p>1 mark for each point (up to a maximum of 4 marks) related to the central nervous system and how they together produce a coherent description</p> <p>The central nervous system is responsible for processing information and controlling the rest of the body via the peripheral nervous system (1). The central nervous system consists of the brain, which is comprised of four lobes, each with different functions (1) and the spinal cord which receives information from the rest of the body and sends it to the brain. The brain interprets the information received and relays instructions down the spinal cord to the rest of the body (1).</p> <p>Credit other appropriate points</p> |

| Question number | Answer |
|-----------------|--|
| Q2. | <p>AO1 (3 marks)</p> <p>1 mark for identifying how a drug affects the central nervous system, and how it is affected</p> <p>Alcohol has the effect of depressing the central nervous system (1). This is done by increasing the effect of the inhibitory neurotransmitter GABA (1). When GABA binds to its receptors it makes the neuron more negative which results in an inhibition of the neuron (1).</p> <p>Credit other appropriate points</p> |

| Question number | Answer |
|-----------------|---|
| Q3. | <p>AO1 (4 marks)</p> <p>1 mark for each point (up to a maximum of 4 marks) which together produce a coherent description</p> <p>In functional brain scanning, a participant's brain is studied at baseline level while completing a task (1). The researchers connect the function to the brain area that is most active (1). In the fMRI technique the machine examines the increase in the blood-oxygen level to work out where the most active areas of the brain are. Areas that require more oxygen are related to the task because the brain has to work harder to complete the task (1).</p> <p>Credit other appropriate points</p> |

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| Answer | Mark |
|---|------|
| <p>AO1 (4 marks)</p> <p>1 mark for each point (up to a maximum of 4 marks) related to the theory of natural selection which together produce a coherent description</p> <p>The theory of natural selection is an evolutionary theory that describes how a population changes and evolves over time (1). Natural selection argues that some traits naturally carry survival and reproductive advantages (1). Individuals who carry these advantageous traits are more likely to survive and pass on their genes to their offspring (1). Over many years, these traits become common in the population because possessing them increases the likelihood of reproducing (1).</p> <p>Credit other appropriate points</p> | 4 |

| Answer | Mark |
|--|------|
| <p>AO2 (4 marks)</p> <p>1 mark for each point (up to a maximum of 4 marks) related to Freud's theory of personality which together produce a logical explanation</p> <p>The answer must use the scenario.</p> <p>For example: Joseph's behaviour could be explained in terms of his ego successfully managing the demands of his id and reality (1). Joseph's id would want to be aggressive and not focus on the consequences of behaving aggressively (immediate gratification) (1). The reality of the situation was that Joseph needed to revise and his current situation was making it difficult to achieve that (1). The ego decided that aggression was not the right solution and used problem-solving to choose the best possible option for Joseph (1).</p> <p>Credit other appropriate points</p> | 4 |

| Answer | Mark |
|--|------|
| <p>AO1 (4 marks), AO2 (4 marks)</p> <p>AO1</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The prison system aims to protect the rest of the population by keeping violent offenders away from the public Studies into biological psychology show that biological causes are related to aggression Higher levels of testosterone are linked to more violent crimes Neural explanations have found that neurotransmitters interact with testosterone and increase aggression Damage to certain areas of the brain (e.g. prefrontal cortex) is linked to inability to regulate impulsive aggression MAO-A gene is strongly related to aggressive crimes (Brunner et al., 1993) <p>AO2</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Biological explanations do not acknowledge the role of the environment Animal studies of aggression (e.g. castration studies in mice) have found that in animals biology can cause aggression, but in humans the matter is more complex Research in humans has not found that biological markers <i>cause</i> aggression Gene-environment interaction studies suggest that aggression is produced by an interaction of genetic vulnerabilities and environmental stressors, e.g. Caspi et al. (2002) found a high proportion of those violent crime convictions with a MAO-A variant had experienced maltreatment. Twin and adoption studies suggest that physical aggression is approximately 50% biological and 50% environmental (Tuvblad and Baker, 2011) Biology is likely to be a factor in aggressive crimes but not the cause <p>Credit other appropriate points</p> | 8 |

| Mark | Descriptor |
|--|---|
| AO1 (4 marks), AO2 (4 marks) | |
| should focus equally on understanding/knowledge and their application to the scenario. | |
| 0 | No credit-worthy material |
| 1 – 2 marks | Candidate shows limited knowledge and understanding. (AO1) Includes little or no relevant contextual evidence. (AO2) |
| 3 – 4 marks | Candidate shows largely accurate knowledge and understanding. (AO1) The discussion is not fully developed and is imbalanced or includes superficial content. Arguments are sometimes supported by relevant contextual evidence. (AO2) |
| 5 – 6 marks | Candidate shows accurate knowledge and understanding. (AO1) Discussion is mostly logical and developed. The student has a good understanding of the competing viewpoints but the overall discussion is not balanced or includes superficial content. Arguments are supported by application of relevant contextual evidence. (AO2) |
| 7 – 8 marks | Candidate shows accurate and comprehensive knowledge and understanding. (AO1) Discussion is well-developed and logical. The student demonstrates full awareness of the competing viewpoints and applies relevant contextual evidence throughout to support arguments. (AO2) |

Glossary

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| | |
|--|--|
| Abstract | A section of a research article or report in which the researcher summarises the findings of their research |
| Action potential | A neuronal impulse that transmits information |
| Adaptation | The evolutionary process of becoming more suited to an environment |
| Alternate/experimental hypothesis | A prediction on the outcome of the research |
| Androgens | A group of hormones (for example, testosterone) that promote the development of male characteristics; male sex hormones |
| Autonomic nervous system | Regulates involuntary actions, e.g. heartbeat |
| Axon | A long fibre which signals from the dendrites travel down the axon, covered in myelin sheath |
| Catharsis | The process of releasing pent-up or unconscious emotions |
| Cause and effect | The idea that changing one variable causes a change in another; a prediction possible |
| Cell body (soma) | Part of a nerve cell that keeps the cell functioning |
| Central nervous system | The brain and spinal cord; responsible for all of cognitive functions |
| Closed questions | A question with a fixed response, e.g. 'yes', 'no', 'always', 'never'. Only one person can respond to the question |
| CNS depressant | A drug that slows down the activity of the central nervous system, e.g. alcohol. Effect on the user is sedation |
| CNS stimulant | A drug that increases the activity of the central nervous system, e.g. caffeine. Effect on the user is increased alertness and wakefulness |
| Computer Axial Tomography (CAT scans) | A scanning technique that uses a rotating x-ray machine to create a 2D image of the brain's structure |
| Computerised Tomography (CT scans) | A more modern version of CAT scans, which uses a series of x-rays to create a 3D image of the brain's structure |
| Confidentiality | Experimenters are not to disclose confidential information about the study in such a way that the participant is not identifiable from the data. Names are replaced by numbers |
| Confounding variables | A variable that has not been controlled for that may influence the DV instead of being caused by the IV (a third hypothesis) |
| Correlation | A relationship between two variables; does not indicate causation |
| Correlation | A measure of the association between two variables |
| Correlation coefficient | A type of research which aims to uncover a relationship between two variables. It manipulates either of these variables to produce an effect |
| Cortisol | A type of glucocorticoid hormone which is linked to stress |
| Covariables | The variables measured in correlational research |
| Critical value | The value we use to determine whether to accept or reject the null hypothesis |
| Defence mechanisms | A protective unconscious process designed to reduce anxiety |
| Dendrites | Branches that receive signals from other neurons |
| Discussion | A section of a research article or report where the researcher discusses the results in the context of past research and evaluates their own research |
| Dopamine | A neurotransmitter involved in reward |
| Ego | A structure of personality that balances the demands of the id and superego |

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A theory of how our population has changed over a long period of time as the result of genetics

Encourages an action potential

A biological response we make in extreme situations where we may be required to fight or flee to survive; adapted over the process of evolution

A scanning technique that uses strong magnetic fields and records the changes in blood oxygen level in different areas of the brain to measure activity

Gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) is the primary inhibitory neurotransmitter in the brain

Part of the endocrine system that produces and regulates hormones

A group of steroid hormones which are involved in the immune system

The primary excitatory neurotransmitter

The primary inhibitory neurotransmitter in the brain stem and spinal cord

A slower-acting chemical messenger that regulates functions of the body and is usually transported by the blood (endocrine hormones)

Chemicals that regulate the body

A structure of personality that is concerned with meeting basic needs, such as survival, and seeks immediate gratification

A variable which is manipulated to produce a presumed change on the dependent variable

Cheating; can be emotional (e.g. love) or sexual

The participant knows exactly what is going to happen in the study and agrees to take part. Differs from just consent when the person does not have knowledge of the exact experiment but agrees to take part.

Discourages an action potential

Equally spaced data

Competition between the same sex (e.g. males and males)

A way of classifying types of data based on their attributes

A type of closed question where a person responds with a fixed answer on a continuum scale

A collection of structures within the brain that are thought to be related to emotion and memory

A relationship between covariables that forms a straight-line when plotted on a scatter graph; the ratio of change is constant

The act of deliberately stealing another's mate

An enzyme that breaks down serotonin, dopamine, norepinephrine, and epinephrine (adrenaline)

Used to transmit information to muscles and glands

A fatty substance often covering axons, which insulates and protects axons and enhances their transmission of impulses

An evolutionary theory formed by Charles Darwin that describes how traits that have survival and reproductive benefits become more common in the population

As one variable increases, the other variable decreases

A nerve cell, responsible for communication between different parts of the body and between areas of the brain

A chemical that transmits information between neurons

Categorical type data

The researcher predicts that there will be an effect but does not state whether which direction the effects will be

A relationship between covariables where the ratio of change is not constant

States there will be no effect

The value we obtain from carrying out an inferential test

A test that only looks in the direction of interest

A question that allows the person to respond with their own answer; generates qualitative data

Ordered or ranked data that may not have an equal distance between the sequences

Is involved in normal resting state; inhibitory

An evolutionary theory that argues that men and women behave differently because they invest different amounts in their offspring

Nerves that exist beyond the central nervous system and function to connect tissues and organs to the central nervous system

As one variable increases, the other variable also increases

A scanning technique that uses a radioactive isotope to measure activity in different areas of the brain

The receiving neuron

The sending neuron

Participants should be protected from psychological and physical harm and should be made aware of anything that may present a risk to them

An area on the receiving neuron that neurotransmitters bind to

An area on the receiving neuron that neurotransmitters bind to

A drug taken for pleasure rather than for medical purposes

Reducing a complex problem down into simple terms, which often offers a simpler but less complete understanding of a problem

A type of automatic response which does not involve the brain

Used to transmit information between neurons

A defence mechanism in which unacceptable thoughts are pushed out of consciousness

The process of reabsorbing the neurotransmitter back into the sending neuron

A group of structures and neural pathways in the brain that are involved in pleasure, cravings and in reinforcing behaviours

It should be made clear to participants that they have the right to leave the study at any point and that any data from the study can be destroyed if requested

The method of selecting participants from the required population to participate in your study

A graph that shows correlational data where each point represents two values

Used to transmit sensory information from receptors

A particular neurotransmitter; low levels of serotonin are associated with depression

Regulating human behaviour, usually to improve society

Transmits and receives sensory and motor information to and from the central nervous system

An inferential test used to measure the relationship between two variables at ordinal or interval level

A result that researchers have interpreted to be true rather than caused by chance

A structure of personality concerned with societal ideals and norms; it is not bound by reality

A term from Herbert Spencer which describes how those best suited to the environment are more likely to survive and reproduce

Is involved in the fight or flight response; excitatory

A junction between neurons where the neurotransmitter crosses

A gap between one neuron and the next over which neurotransmitters cross to transmit information

The communication process between neurons

These store neurotransmitters in the axon

The nerve endings where an action potential may be released

A male sex hormone produced in the testes that is important in normal biological development in males

A test that looks at both directions because the research has not predicted the direction of the result

When we reject the null hypothesis when we should have accepted it

When we accept the null hypothesis when we should have rejected it

What is unknown to us and difficult to access

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