Oxford Cambridge and RSA Examinations

OCR AS GCE in Psychology (3876)

OCR Advanced GCE in Psychology (7876)

Teacher Support: Notes for Guidance
Second Edition

This booklet is designed to accompany the OCR Advanced Subsidiary GCE and Advanced GCE specifications in Psychology for teaching from September 2004.

Contents

1   Introduction to OCR Psychology

OCR Psychology
More than a list of names and dates

The OCR Psychology course is designed to challenge and excite candidates and to encourage further study in psychology. We are interested in what candidates take away from the course. In the first instance, they take away a grade which they can use for university entrance or other career choices. They will also take away a greater awareness of themselves and others, how they behave, how they feel and how they think. By embedding psychological research into everyday issues and events, we hope that candidates come to reflect on themselves and the world in which they live.

Psychology is prominent in our everyday explanations of events. It is common on newscasts for expert comment to be offered by psychologists. This comment is of variable quality and we therefore see it as an ambition of the OCR specification to give candidates the skills to evaluate this comment. The focus on psychological methods allows candidates to see the value of psychological evidence and also to be aware of some limitations. In particular it is common for commentators to extrapolate results from their original context to more general situations and we hope candidates will develop a healthy scepticism of this.

The OCR specification aims to be teacher friendly and candidate friendly. It aims to engage with teachers and respond to their concerns and comments. This has become more difficult as the number of centres has grown but the ambition remains the same. We aim to be candidate friendly by creating a course that is stimulating and by using assessments that are fair. We see no value in trick questions or obscure questions or papers that examine only a small part of the course. We aim to provide papers that cover a good range of the available material, that are challenging and allow the candidate to show what they know, understand and can do.

There is a strange demand characteristic in this country for education to be serious. It is worth noting that seriousness is not in the assessment criteria and that the course can be delivered with a smile. In fact, it might well be possible to allow the odd chuckle during lessons. Coursework might be a particular avenue for some light jocularity.

The 20 key studies in the AS have been chosen to reflect the breadth of psychological research and methods. Although many of the studies are quite old, they all deal with topical issues. For example, the paper by Thigpen and Cleckley describes one of the earliest scientific accounts of multiple personality but raises issues that still cause great controversy today. In fact, it links up with one of our other studies by Elizabeth Loftus who has used her work on memory to challenge some of the false memory debate still raging today. We believe that by studying a selection of key studies candidates will acquire a good feel for how psychology is conducted and how theories are developed.

The areas of applied psychology in the A2 course allow candidates to see how psychological ideas have been used to respond to a range of problems. For example, they might consider how to deal with disruptive behaviour in schools, or how to encourage patients to respond positively to medical advice or to consider how the weather affects behaviour. This part of the course encourages the evaluation skills that we hope can be transferred beyond this course and beyond the classroom.

We hope that at the end of the course our candidates have developed a healthy scepticism for the information they come across but that they also retain a sense of wonder for the world around them and the behaviour of the people in it. We also hope that teachers and candidates enjoy taking the course and feel it is a positive experience regardless of the grade they achieve.

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2   Core Studies 1 (2540)

Teacher Support materials Core Studies 1 (2540)

The Examination

- There are always 20 questions, one per core study. The questions sometimes go over the page and candidates need to make sure they turn over to answer all 20 questions.

- Some questions ask the candidate to 'identify'. In this case short answers will suffice e.g. *'Identify one of the questions asked of the children in the study by Baron-Cohen'*.

- Some questions ask the candidate to 'outline'. In this case a more detailed answer is required. Sometimes expansion of a point is required for full marks, e.g.: *Outline one of the conditions in the study by Samuel and Bryant on conservation. Participants were shown the objects once they had been transformed and then asked the post transformation question*.

- The short answer questions can be on:

  o AO1: Knowledge and understanding
  o AO2: Analysis, evaluations and application

- Details to know about the core studies

  o Information in the studies
  o The methods used in the studies
  o The way the results were analysed and presented
  o The conclusions that can be drawn from the studies
  o The context of the studies
  o The general psychological issues illustrated by the studies
  o Evaluations of all of the above

Teaching Ideas

- Role plays

- Leaflets

- Letters for a specific audience e.g. from Freud to Little Hans

- Newspaper reports

- Story boards

- Cartoon strips

- Display work

- Presentations (Power Point)

- Debates

- Juries

- Internet activities/research

- Peer teaching
- Quizzes
- Board games
- Textbook brainstorming
- Group essays

Some Ideas for Teaching the Core Studies

What follows are some ideas that may help you to get some of the main ideas of the core studies across to your candidates in a way that will aid their understanding. These ideas are not complete lesson plans, they are just ways of introducing some of the main issues covered by the core studies. The examples are not exhaustive, but may provide you with a slightly novel way of engaging your candidates in what are, very often, difficult concepts.

Cognitive Psychology

Loftus and Palmer – Eyewitness Testimony
One obvious activity here, is to show your candidates a video, preferably of something that they are unlikely to have seen (some BBC News 24, footage, for example!), and then ask them a series of questions about the video… one of which should be a leading question, embedded amongst others. Alternatively, you could arrange for a real-life incident, such as an argument between a group of candidates in the corridor outside the classroom window, and then ask questions about the incident.

Deregowski – Pictorial Perception
Give each of your candidates a concept, such as peace, justice, intelligence, worthiness and so on, and ask them to draw a picture that defines the term they have been given. Other candidates then have to try and identify the concept that the picture relates to. This should bring out the idea that pictures are not a lingua franca, and we have to be taught how to read them.

Baron-Cohen, Leslie and Frith – Theory of Mind
A role-play in which a candidate assumes some of the characteristics of autism is a good starting point here. Another alternative is to re-create the study using dolls, or, better yet, glove puppets.

Gardner and Gardner – Project Washoe

As this study was about teaching a chimpanzee to use sign language, you could spend some time in getting the class to communicate only via gestures. Indeed you could start off the lesson and get what the study is about, across to the candidates without using words. Another idea is that you get the candidates to play charades, but, instead of acting out the names of films, books, songs etc., they have to convey the similar sorts of things that Washoe was encouraged to do, such as asking for food, to play outside, etc.

Developmental Psychology

Samuel and Bryant – Conservation

The obvious activity here is to conduct one or more of the conservation experiments with your candidates as participants. I would imagine, however, that they will all be able to conserve, but by asking a slightly different question – which piece of plasticine looks as if it is bigger? – you can convey the idea that young children's thinking is dominated by their visual perception and what they see is reality. Additionally, only conducting the fixed array condition, may well result in some candidates failing the conservation task. This can then lead to a discussion on experimental controls, significance, chance, etc.

Bandura, Ross and Ross – Imitation of Aggression

If you can get hold of it, there is an excellent episode of the Simpsons (Episode #7F09: Itchy & Scratchy and Marge) which explores not only the idea of imitation of aggression (Maggie tries to kill Homer after watching The Itchy and Scratchy Show on TV) but also considers ways of reducing aggressive behaviour. I have often started this study by asking my candidates how many of them when they were younger did up only the top-button of their coat to turn it into a cape and pretended they were Superman! This immediately gets them tuned in to the idea of imitation of behaviour. From this you could then generate a list of the sorts of behaviour they imitate, and how powerful a form of learning this is, especially in childhood.

Hodges and Tizard – Social Relationships of Ex-institutional Adolescents

Ask your candidates to identify friendships in the class, and what information they used to decide whether or not two people were friends. Compare this with Hodges and Tizard's approach.

Freud – Little Hans

Ask a candidate to recall a dream and ask the rest of the group, independently, to write down what they think the dream means. You should get a variety of meanings, discuss these and why the differences occur. This brings across the subjective nature of the psychodynamic approach to dream interpretation. Alternatively, ask the candidates to draw the following things, without giving them any more detail than as follows:

- a house

- a tree

- a snake

- a path

Then inform them that the house represents their view of themselves and the details of the drawing reveals different things about them. For example, a large front door, suggests that they are approachable; the presence/absence of curtains and the extent to which they are drawn back/closed indicates how open/secretive they are about their innermost thoughts and feelings. The tree represents their mother, the snake their father. The relationship of these to the house and each other relates to the nature of their relationships in real life… the closer they are together in the drawing, the closer they are, emotionally, in real life. The path represents their view of their future, a straight path suggests they know what they want out of life and how to get there, a wandering path suggests the opposite. This, again, brings across the subjective nature of symbolic interpretation.

Physiological Psychology

Schachter & Singer – Emotion
Start off the lesson by scaring your candidates - a loud banging of the board-rubber on the desk or some other loud, unexpected noise usually works. Ask them how they reacted physically and how they felt. Then ask them why they felt that way. This immediately gets over the idea that emotion, at least according to Schachter & Singer, consists of both physiological and cognitive elements.

Dement and Kleitman – Sleep and Dreaming
Show your candidates a picture of an EEG reading taken whilst someone was asleep (there's one in the original study, or you could get one with no description on it) and ask them to identify which pattern represents REM sleep, waking etc. Ask those of them who have dogs to carry out an observation of their pet when it is sleeping, noting how its legs, eyelids etc, move at different times. Give them a number of different dream scenarios, either verbally or as pictures, and ask them to match the dream sequence to the direction of eye movement (horizontal or vertical).

Sperry – Split Brains
For this exercise, you will need a range of different objects on a table and two volunteers. Have the two volunteers stand close together side-by-side. The person on the right of the pair represents the right hemisphere of a split-brain patient, and the person on the left represents the left hemisphere. Ask the person on the left side to close their eyes whilst the one on the right picks up one of the objects on the table with their left-hand. They then replace the object. The left-hand person is then asked to open their eyes and, either name the object that was picked up, or to draw the object that was picked up or to pick up the same object themselves (with their right hand!). This should allow the class to get the idea of contra-lateralisation etc.

Raine, Buchsbaum and LaCasse – Brain Scanning
Engage your candidates in a bit of phrenology - reading the bumps on each others' heads in order to assess their personalities. Discuss the limitations of this and ask them to identify more scientific ways of investigating the brain. This should bring up the idea of scanning. You could then get them to do an internet search for brain-scanning techniques, or, alternatively, direct them to: Brain Imaging.

Social Psychology

Milgram – Obedience

Have your school Head-teacher/ College Principal/ Community Police Officer or some other authority figure come into your class and order the candidates to march in single file outside the building (even better if it is raining!). Discuss reasons why they did/did not obey. A useful summary of the study and links to other related resources can be found here.

Haney, Banks and Zimbardo – Prison Simulation

Give some of your candidates responsibility for running the classroom for 10 minutes. They have to control the situation in an effective, efficient manner. Discuss whether or not they achieved this, what they felt like being in control, how the other candidates behaved towards them, and so on. Then ask them to draw up a set of rules for the running of a prison, and discuss the effects these may have on the prisoners/guards. If you live near a prison, why not invite a guard and/or an (ex-)offender in to talk to the class about the reality of prison life. One essential website that candidates should visit is the Stanford Prison Experiment.

Piliavin, Rodin and Piliavin – Subway Samaritanism

About two weeks or so before you do this study, arrange for someone, preferably unknown to your candidates, to drop a pile of papers/ folders/ books or whatever, outside your classroom just as your class are leaving it. Note who helped and who didn't. Question them about the reasons for helping/not-helping as a way of introducing this study.

Tajfel – Intergroup Discrimination

Get your candidates to draw an abstract picture based on the information contained on a sheet of paper you will give them. Tell them that they are not allowed to share that information with anyone else. On half of the pieces of paper write: Draw an abstract picture that represents 'fun'. On the other half of the pieces of paper write: Draw an abstract picture that represents 'fun'. However, the two sets of instructions should be on different coloured paper, so half the class get the instruction on, e.g. yellow paper and the other half on green paper. Then give those with the yellow instruction sheet some yellow paper to draw their picture on, and those with the green instruction paper, green paper. In this way you will have set up the idea that they have been divided into two groups.

Then collect the pictures in and randomly select two yellow and two green pictures and show them one at a time to the class. Ask candidates to rate them out of 10 for artistic merit. Record the scores in a table something like this:

		Yellow Paper Scores			Green Paper Scores		
		Picture Scores		Total Score	Picture Scores		Total Score
Yellow Instruction Sheet	Candidate 1	Picture 1			Picture 1		
		Picture 2			Picture 2		
	Candidate 2	Picture 1			Picture 1		
		Picture 2			Picture 2		
	Candidate 3	Picture 1			Picture 1		
		Picture 2			Picture 2		
	Candidate 4	Picture 1			Picture 1		
		Picture 2			Picture 2		
Green Instruction Sheet	Candidate 1	Picture 1			Picture 1		
		Picture 2			Picture 2		
	Candidate 2	Picture 1			Picture 1		
		Picture 2			Picture 2		
	Candidate 3	Picture 1			Picture 1		
		Picture 2			Picture 2		
	Candidate 4	Picture 1			Picture 1		
		Picture 2			Picture 2		

Discuss any differences found in the scores given to each group, by members of that group and members of the other group.

Psychology of Individual Differences

Gould – IQ Testing

Devise a short quiz based on, for example, general knowledge of, say, North Korea. Give this to the candidates to take, informing them that it is a type of IQ test. Then discuss the reasons why they appear to not be very intelligent! Those of you with access to the technology, could even set this up as an interactive quiz on a virtual learning environment.

Hraba and Grant – Racial Preference

Give your candidates this website address http://www.dressupgames.com and tell them to go and dress-up a doll! Ask them to print out the finished image and bring it with them to the class. Discuss why they have chosen to dress the doll in the way that they have. This should enable you to bring in things about self-image/ self-identification / racial preference and so on.

Rosenhan – Sane in Insane Places

Show the film 'One Flew Over The Cuckoo's Nest' (but be warned, it lasts over two hours!) as a way of showing your candidates one view of the issues involved in caring for people in a psychiatric institution. Give your candidates labels, such as hard worker, original thinker, creative, and so on to wear for a day, and ask them to report back on how others responded to the labels.

Thigpen and Cleckley – Multiple Personality Disorder

A role-play, in which two candidates act as Eve Black and Eve White is possible here. All you need to make it work is a pair of headphones (attached to a music player) and a blindfold to prevent 'Eve White' from knowing what Eve Black is saying and doing. Eve Black, of course, is aware of Eve White's actions, and makes the decisions about when to 'come out' and when to withdraw. You could even get both of them to complete written memory and IQ tests!!

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3   Core Studies 2 (2541)

Introduction

Paper 2541 is one hour in total and two essays need to be completed. What do Examiners want in paper 2541?

For paper 2541 (as with many other papers) Examiners want to help candidates develop useful skills. Rather than just set an essay with a banded mark scheme and let candidates blurt out everything at once, with little structure or thought, paper 2541 requires candidates to:

- Structure their answer;

- Think a little more carefully about what they write;

- Consider what is involved in a good answer

What is interesting is that in the desperation for teachers to achieve better and better examination results, teachers have increasingly compromised the understanding Examiners are trying to develop in candidates.

Paper 2540 concerns the core studies themselves. Paper 2541 considers the issues, methods and approaches related to the methods. The emphasis of the two papers is very different and often it is assumed that teaching core studies only will be appropriate preparation for both 2540 and 2541 papers.

2540 has twenty questions, half of which are allocated 4 marks and half of which are allocated 2 marks, totalling 6 marks. A core study could be worth just 2 marks.

2541 in Section A has a choice of 6 studies (in the two questions) from which candidates choose one study. This is worth 6 marks, but the other studies are not written about at all. In Section B there is a choice of 8 studies (in the two questions) from which candidates write about four (each 3 marks only).

Overall, fourteen studies appear on the paper, candidates write about 5 of them. One study of 6 marks, four studies of 3 marks and fifteen studies score no marks at all! Core studies are allocated just 18 of the 50 marks available. So what gets the remaining 32 marks? Well, 24 marks are given to a consideration of the strengths / advantages and weaknesses / disadvantages / problems.

It is this aspect which needs to be taught in addition to core studies, and it is this aspect that should be uppermost in the minds of candidates sitting the examinations and in the minds of teachers preparing them. Examination bit first, then teaching technique.

Examinations: Question part (b) answers

To clarify (if you don't have a paper to hand):

Section A: one question from two, (a) 6 marks, (b) 12 marks, (c) 8 marks. One chosen study only.

Section B: one question from two, (a) 12 marks for each of four named studies, (b) 12 marks.

Consider the following two part (b) questions as examples:

Section A

(b) Briefly discuss **two** advantages and **two** disadvantages of observing behaviour with examples from your chosen study. [12]

Section B

(b) Briefly discuss **four** problems psychologists have when they try to carry out useful investigations with examples from any of these studies. [12]

For the observant, these two questions are taken from the June 2004 paper but with the 'new' wording format used from January 2005, referred to in the Report on the Units (June 2004) sent to centres after the summer exam session.

To state the obvious, the above two Question parts carry 24 marks out of the 50 available, so it is essential that Question part (b)'s are done correctly. The mark scheme for Section A is exactly the same as for Section B, except the examples for Section A must come from the same chosen core study whereas for Section B the examples must come from the four named studies.

What do Examiners want from Candidates in Question Part (b)?

We want candidates:

- to consider the wider issues, methods and approaches in psychology;

- to consider what is good and not so good about these issues, methods and approaches;

- to be able to apply the wider issues to core studies, showing some understanding of that relationship;

- to be able to comment on the issue and study together, whether it is an implication, evaluation or application.

In some respects this is quite a tall order, particularly as it has to be done in thirty minutes or so. But, if a mark scheme is clear and it is understood by both teachers and candidates, then all should be happy.

Examination Technique

Before continuing, a brief comment about the 'done in thirty minutes' I mentioned. A suggested strategy for good examination technique would be as follows:

		Marks	Time allocation	Writing length
Section A	**(a)**	6	7 mins	½ side A4
	(b)	12	15 mins	1 side A4
	(c)	8	8 mins	½ side A4
Section B	**(a)**	12	15 mins	1 side A4
	(b)	12	15 mins	1 side A4

These are approximates and we would not wish candidates to look at their watches every few seconds to follow timings precisely, but significant numbers of candidates do 'run out of time' so it is helpful to bear this in mind.

Question Part (b) Mark Schemes

The mark scheme for Question part (b)'s state:

"Candidates should provide a general point related to the question. They should give an example from their chosen study to illustrate the point and they should make a comment about the point which may be evaluation or implication."

"*Assessment includes point, example and comment"*

*"Important note: As candidates are required to **discuss**, the point must be explained and not merely identified; the example must be explained and not just stated; the comment must be explained or show understanding and not just stated."*

Three components are thus required: a general point, an example from a study to support the general point and then a comment. The mark scheme goes on to allocate actual marks:

0   No answer or incorrect answer

1 mark   Any one of the three [point/example/comment]

2 marks   Any two of the three [point/example/comment]

3 marks   All three [point/example/comment]

Perhaps the most appropriate way of approaching the question is for teachers to ask candidates "What problems would you (or any psychologist) have to consider if you wanted to conduct research that would be useful." This would provide a general point that applies to any research. The example used to illustrate this would be from a listed core study. The comment would then be added.

The best way to clarify what I mean is to give a number of sample answers.

Sample Answers

Hopefully things are becoming a little clearer! Now, there are correct ways of answering questions and there are incorrect ways. Let us look at the incorrect way first. In June 2004 examination candidates at some Centres took the mark scheme to an extreme and wrote answers of which the following is typical;

> One problem is ethics, e.g. Milgram and this affects the reliability and validity. Another problem is sample, e.g. Raine and this affects the reliability and validity. A third problem is children e.g. Samuel and this affects the reliability and validity. Finally ethnocentrism e.g. Milgram and this affects the reliability and validity.

It would be interesting to know what mark you would give to this. Let's just say this answer is not the best way to score marks. The candidate shows very little, perhaps no understanding. S/he does not say what the problems actually are; does not say how the studies relate to the problem and whilst reliability and validity may be applicable sometimes, the candidate does not show s/he understands what they are or how they apply, merely writing them every time in the hope that credit will be given. And, by the way, what question do you think this is an answer to? Clearly it is 'multi-purpose' and is not specific to any question! Perhaps this answer would have been written whatever the question was.

To the same question consider the following answer:

> One problem is that a study may need to be unethical to be useful. Milgram deceived his participants in many ways during his study. Firstly he told them that the role allocation was random and the shocks they were giving were real, both of which are lies. This is unethical as it is not informing participants fully of the study they are doing. If a study is unethical, participants may wish to withdraw from it and some people may heavily criticise the findings of the study. Psychologists try to make their studies as ethical as possible but sometimes, as shown in Milgram, this is impossible if the study is to work. One more problem is that studies carried out in laboratories may not be as useful as studies carried out in everyday settings as they are low in ecological validity. For example the study by Milgram… (obvious example omitted). If a study is to be useful it must be as true to real life as possible so that people can relate it to situations that happen everyday.

If you haven't realised, the question related to the example is:

(b) Briefly discuss **four** problems psychologists have when they try to carry out useful investigations with examples from any of these studies. [12]

So what mark would you give to this? Only two points have been included but the other two points continue in the same style. Is this better than the above answer? Can you guess what the question is? Does the candidate show understanding of psychology?

Examiners are instructed to put brackets around the sentences to identify the point, example and comment. Have a go at breaking down the answer above, before reading further (or will you cheat and look at the answer?)

[One problem is that a study may need to be unethical to be useful.]

This general point would score 1 mark. Relevant point and true. Doesn't need anything more. Relevant answers can be as brief as this;

[Milgram deceived his participants in many ways during his study. Firstly he told them that the role allocation was random and the shocks given were real, both of which are lies.]

This specific example would score 1 mark. Milgram was a named study and that example is correct; in order to be useful participants had to be deceived. So what about a comment? This needs to be an implication or an evaluation or a comment that goes beyond what has already been said. Consider it as a 'So what?' or 'So what if we do carry out unethical studies?' The answer says

This is unethical as it is not informing participants fully of the study they are doing. If a study is unethical participants may wish to withdraw from it and some people may heavily criticise the findings of the study. Psychologists try to make their studies as ethical as possible but sometimes, as shown in Milgram, this is impossible if the study is to work.

This comment would score 1 mark. The first sentence merely restates the point and receives no credit. The sentence that participants may wish to withdraw is becoming relevant but perhaps better is the comment that people may heavily criticise the findings if the study is unethical. This would score 1 mark. The final sentence summarises what has been said and although it shows understanding there are no more marks available. Note that the quality of the answers is not considered; the challenge is to provide four different points with examples and comments and not to consider the depth of these.

One more problem is that studies carried out in laboratories may not be as useful as studies carried out in everyday settings as they are low in ecological validity.

This point would score 1 mark. It is clear and correct.

[For example in the study by Milgram, participants thought they were giving shocks and this is not something they do in everyday life. Real life behaviour may be very different.]

This example would score 1 mark. It is appropriate and it does help when the candidates write "for example"!

[If a study is to be useful it must be as true to real life as possible and should not be carried out in a laboratory as that would be low in ecological validity.]

This comment would receive 0 marks. This comment is the same as the point made above, and if it is repetition then it scores no marks.

Hopefully this will have given you an idea of how 2541 question part (b) is marked. It should also reinforce the view that whereas a single phrase ("one problem is ethics") is sufficient, not a great deal of detail is needed to score good marks.

Teaching strategies

It is not possible to perform adequately on paper 2541 if core studies alone are taught. My breakdown of the allocation of marks above shows how few marks are allocated to core studies and how many marks are allocated to strengths and weaknesses. Teaching of strengths and weaknesses is, therefore, essential.

4   Psychological Investigations (2542)

New Teachers may be concerned about the amount of work required for this unit. Be reassured, this should **not** be interpreted as four practical reports. The aim of this unit is to give candidates a taste of four of the most commonly used ways of collecting / analysing data. These are Questions, Observations, Comparing Two Conditions and Correlation.

Some key points to bear in mind:

- Keep activities short and simple.

- There is no need to collect large amounts of data (10 participants is generally plenty)

- Don't worry about candidates producing 'perfect' research – the evaluation process is a crucial part of the assessment.

- Avoid designing the activities yourself and simply using the candidates as participants – they will struggle to evaluate what has been done. Aim to involve candidates fully in the design process.

- Avoid 'ready made' practicals, they are generally too long and are often difficult for candidates to evaluate.

- Focus on the strengths and weaknesses of the method used and possible improvements and their effects – not on the theoretical background to the research.

When candidates sit their examinations, they are allowed to take their Practical Work Folder into the exam room with them. This will contain notes on the aim, method and results of their data collecting activities. Candidates are allowed to add graphs on additional pieces of paper or computer print outs of statistical analysis. These are not necessary however, and the best folders have short bullet point information which is easy for the candidate to refer to in the examination.

> Candidates will be asked questions that are not in their folders and these will be of two types. They may be asked about **general issues** relating to psychological research (strengths and weaknesses of method, ethical issues, reliability and validity etc) and about **issues relating to the research that they have done** (weaknesses and how to overcome them, improvements, alternative methods of measuring variables, changes to sample / procedure and the effects pf these).
>
> It is therefore important that you spend **at least as much time** considering these issues as you spend on the actual data collection and the enclosed additional folder (not to be taken into the examination) may help.

Finally, it is possible to overlap the data collecting. For example you may design a questionnaire looking at attitudes to AS study and report on general findings for Activity A. For Activity C you could compare the responses of male candidates and female candidates to one particular question. The rationale behind Unit 2542 is that candidates experience the different methods and so overlapping the activities in this way can often illustrate how the same topics can be investigated in a number of different ways.

A word of warning, Combining activities in this way may be of benefit for tutors with limited amounts of teaching time but some candidates are confused by this and may get the activities mixed up in their examination. Make sure you explain fully the aim of each individual activity (e.g. the aim of Activity A may be to investigate sixth formers' attitudes to study and the hypothesis for Activity C may be that there is a significant difference in the ratings of male and female candidates liking of sixth form (two tailed).

Please note that the same ethical guidelines apply to 2542 and 2543.

Suggested Activities

Activity A

Attitudes to television violence

Candidates are often interested in this topic and also find the Core study by Bandura et al a fascinating one. However it is obviously not appropriate for them to consider conducting experimental work into this question. One alternative might be to suggest questionnaire research into some aspect of this topic.

Ideas might include:

- Candidates' attitudes to television violence

- Candidates' attitudes to censorship issues

- Candidates' attitudes to violent video games

- Candidate self reports of the number of hours watching television / playing video games etc

- Parental attitudes to television violence

- Parental opinions on the effect of television violence on their children

It is not necessary to have two groups of participants for this activity, but the ideas above would all lend themselves to comparisons between two groups. For example, you could compare candidates' attitudes with parents' attitudes (mature candidates, teachers or candidates' parents could be the comparison group) or you could compare male and female attitudes or male and female television watching / game playing behaviour. Note that as these suggestions involve two groups, they would also be appropriate for Activity C.

Candidates should be involved in the preparation of the questionnaire for this activity. If you are running this as a whole group activity, you could have a planning session where small groups of candidates submit questions and a small selection are chosen. Alternatively, candidates could work in small groups designing their own questionnaires, perhaps on slightly different aspects of the same general research question.

Remember that candidates will need to be able to evaluate their questionnaires and may be asked to suggest alternatives / improvements to their design. With this in mind, it is not necessary to make the final questionnaire perfect. If candidates experience some of the problems associated with asking unambiguous questions or in coding the responses, they will find the evaluation far easier.

The questions that follow would be appropriate:

1. Please state the age of your child / Children

(What does the respondent do if they have more than one child? Are they giving different answers for each child? Could this be incorporated into the design by having separate columns for the answers for each child?)

2. How much television on average does your child watch each day?

(This could be left open-ended or respondents could be given choices. This could generate an interesting debate about the advantages and disadvantages of each type of question)

3. What type of television programmes do they watch?

Children's programmes

Soap operas

Sport programmes

Other – please state

(Again this might generate a debate. Will respondents include videos in their response to this question? Can all programmes be easily categorised like this e.g. where would you put The Simpsons? . Are there any other categories that should be included?)

4. Are you concerned about the violent content of the programmes your child/children watch?

Yes

No

(This may look like a straightforward question but the responses may be difficult to interpret. Does a No mean 'No I am not concerned about them watching violence' or does it mean 'No because I don't let them watch anything violent'? Should there be a 'Don't Know' option here or not?)

5. On a scale of 1-10 (where 1 means 'not at all' and 10 means 'very') do you think that your children are affected by watching violent television programmes?

There are several issues to discuss here, first we know that different respondents will interpret numerical scales differently. Hence two different parents who both think that their children are a bit more 'excitable' after they have watched violence on television may respond with very different numbers. Secondly, this question does not take into account the amount of censorship exerted by the parent. Hence a parent who does not allow their child to watch violence may respond with a 1 or they may respond with a much higher number because they feel that their child would be affected and this is why they censor their viewing. Finally the answers to this question tell us nothing about how children are

affected. Are they more violent, more active, more excited, do they get upset, do they wake up in the night, do television programmes ever give them nightmares?)

Having made all of these comments on the above questions, I would still allow a candidate to go ahead and use this questionnaire. It does not contain any overly personal or distressing questions and no-one is likely to be offended by it (you are not asking parents to comment on how aggressive their child is for example). It will be relatively easy to administer and relatively easy to collate the results. More importantly, the candidate should learn for themselves how difficult it is to ask unambiguous questions and hopefully will be able to conclude their activity by making a number of suggestions for improvements.

EVALUATION SHEET – NOT TO BE TAKEN INTO THE EXAMINATION

ACTIVITY A: Questions, Self reports and Questionnaires

Outline TWO strengths of the questionnaire / self report method of collecting

1.

2.

Outline TWO weaknesses with the questionnaire / self report method of collecting

1.

2.

Outline ONE ethical issue that should be considered when using the questionnaire / self report method in psychological research

What is meant by RELIABILITY?

How could you ensure that your questionnaire / self report was reliable?

What is meant by VALIDITY?

How could you ensure that your questionnaire / self report was valid?

Outline TWO improvements that could be made to your questionnaire / self report. (Hint – think about the different ways of asking questions, or alternative ways of asking people to answer, such as open-ended questions, fixed choice questions or likert scales.)

1.

2.

Suggest how each of the improvements outlined above would affect the results of your questionnaire / self report?

1.

2.

Can you think of any other improvements that could be made to this Activity? (For example, the instructions you gave to participants, the environment in which people completed the questionnaire / self report etc.)

Which sampling method did you use to select your participants?

Evaluate the sampling method that you have described above.

Any other comments on this Activity.

EVALUATION SHEET – NOT TO BE TAKEN INTO THE EXAMINATION

ACTIVITY B: Observation

Outline TWO strengths of the observation method of collecting.

1.

2.

Outline TWO weaknesses with the observation method of collecting.

1.

2.

Outline ONE ethical issue that should be considered when using observational methods in psychological research.

What is meant by RELIABILITY?

How could you ensure that your observation was reliable? (Hint – how would you ensure that you had inter-rater reliability?)

What is meant by VALIDITY?

How could you ensure that your observation was valid?

Outline TWO improvements that could be made to your observation. (Hint – if you were going to repeat the observation would you keep the same categories?   Can you think of any changes to the categories or any additional categories?)

1.

2.

Suggest how each of the improvements outlined above would affect the results of your observation? (Think about reliability and validity)

1.

2.

Can you think of any other improvements that could be made to this Activity? (For example, where you chose to observe, the length of time of the time of day, the number of participants observed etc.)

Which sampling method did you use to select your participants?

Evaluate the sampling method that you have described above.

Any other comments on this activity.

EVALUATION SHEET – NOT TO BE TAKEN INTO THE EXAMINATION

ACTIVITY C: Comparison of data to investigate the difference between two conditions

There are a number of ways of investigating the difference between two conditions. Manipulating one variable and measuring another is EXPERIMENTAL research and this could either be conducted in the laboratory (controlled conditions) or in the 'field' (in real life settings). Comparisons can also be made between already existing groups such as different age groups or between the sexes and this is termed a natural or quasi experiment.

Which of the above methods did you use?

Outline ONE STRENGTH and ONE WEAKNESS of the method that you used.

Strength:

Weakness:

You will also have had to select an experimental DESIGN. You may have used REPEATED measures where you tested the same participants in each condition or you may have used INDEPENDENT measures where you tested different people in each condition.

Which DESIGN did you use for this activity?

Outline ONE STRENGTH and ONE WEAKNESS with the design that you used.

Strength:

Weakness:

Outline ONE ethical issue that should be considered when using the experimental method in psychological research.

Suggest ONE alternative way of measuring your dependent variable. (For example, if you tested memory by asking people to 'free recall' you could suggest using a 'recognition' test instead.)
What EFFECT do you think that this alternative would have on the results of your activity?
Outline TWO improvements that could be made to your activity. (Hint – think about the procedure that you used and the conditions in which participants were tested.) 1.   2.
Suggest how each of the improvements outlined above would affect the results of your activity? 1.   2.
Which sampling method did you use to select your participants?   Evaluate the sampling method that you have described above.
Any other comments on this activity?

EVALUATION SHEET – NOT TO BE TAKEN INTO THE EXAMINATION

ACTIVITY D: A Correlation

Correlation is a method of data analysis rather than a measure of data collection. Outline ONE STRENGTH and ONE WEAKNESS of the correlation method.

Strength:

Weakness:

In a correlation design, you measure both variables. For EACH variable, think of an alternative way that this could have been measured.

Variable 1:
Alternative

Variable 2:
Alternative

For each of the alternatives you have described above, suggest how they might effect the results of your correlation.

Alternative 1:

Alternative 2:

Outline TWO further improvements that could be made to your correlation. Hint – think about the conditions in which participants were tested, or the instructions that they were given

1.

2.

Suggest how each of the improvements outlined above would affect the results of your observation?

1.

2.

Which sampling method did you use to select your participants?

Evaluate the sampling method that you have described above.

Any other comments on this activity.

Activity B - An Observation

Territorial Behaviour

Although this does not directly link to any topic on the AS course it is a relatively straightforward topic to introduce to candidates. It is covered in GCSE textbooks and would link to the A2 Psychology and Environment unit. It would make an interesting topic for an observation because it has some psychological basis and allows candidates to observe in public places where they will not risk infringing the ethical guidelines. As with Activity A, it is not necessary to have a comparison group, although this might give the activity a clearer aim. Candidates could observe:

- How people mark their territory in different situations (common room, library, canteen, bus);

- Gender differences in territorial behaviour (amount / type);

- Age differences in territorial behaviour;

- Responses to invasion of personal space (happening naturally in a library or café for example, not as a manipulation).

Candidates should be involved in the preparation of the coding scheme / categories that will be used for their observation and as with Activity A this could be done as a planning session with the whole class suggesting ideas or with small groups designing their own coding schemes possibly on slightly different aspects of the same question. Keep the number of categories low – even three or four categories will generate plenty of data.

Example of coding scheme to investigate gender differences in territorial behaviour in libraries.

The first twenty people the library alone were observed.

Gender (Male/ Female)	Distance from nearest person (<1m / >1m)	Use of territorial markers (bag / coat / books / other/ none)	Body language (turned away from neighbour / towards neighbour / hunched over books / other)
Male	>1m	bag	away
Male	>1m	bag	hunched over
Female	<1m	Bag / coat	away
Male	<1m	Coat	Away / other - headphones
Female	<1m	books	away

As with the previous activity, this coding scheme immediately highlights some of the difficulties involved in observing behaviour. Observers need to decide how their observation will be conducted. Here we have chosen to look at people as they enter the library rather than observing those that are already there. This may first reduce the problem of not knowing if people are sitting by friends or who sat at a table first. However, this problem may still exist as the coding scheme does not code greeting or sign of recognition between the person entering the library and the person they sit closest to. Could this be incorporated into the scheme? Is the <1m / >1m category the most appropriate one? Distance might be quite hard to judge and you could suggest that observers practise this before they observe. Alternatively the categories could be related to the seating available in the library, for example

sits next to another person of the same sex;

sits next to another person of the opposite sex;

sits directly opposite ….;

sits diagonally opposite ….;

Sits at an empty table.

In this case I would advise labelling the options A-E and simply putting the appropriate code in the coding scheme.

Coding the territorial markers is probably fairly straightforward, but there may be other markers not included in the coding scheme. A Brief pilot observation might ensure that the most popular category was not 'other'. The same point is probably true of the final category. Are there other ways of marking territory other than these? Are these easy to code? Would two observers agree on the correct code in all (or most) cases? This might be a good time to introduce the notion of inter-rater reliability.

Despite the obvious problems, this coding scheme would be ideal for the observational activity and should allow candidates plenty of scope to evaluate and suggest improvements.

Activity B - Comparison between Two Conditions

Factors affecting memory

There are numerous small-scale two-condition experiments that can be carried out by candidates. Avoid preparing this for the candidates and allow them to participate in the design and preparation of materials. One way to do this would be to set a class topic (memory seems to be the most popular) and allow small groups to design their own study based on that topic. Remember that you have to include a statistical analysis for this activity and so it might be better to specify that all candidates must use a particular design (independent measures or repeated measures) so that you can take them all through the same analysis!

Some suggestions for investigating the factors affecting memory might include:

- Comparing memory for written versus aural information (independent measures, same information presented in different formats to different groups);

- Comparing memory for organised and random lists (independent measures, same information presented in organised / random fashion);

- Comparing memory for images with and without written labels (either design);

- Comparing memory for common words and unusual words (either design);

- Comparing memory at different times of the day (either design);

- Comparing memory with and without distractions / interface (either design);

- Comparing memory for salient / non-salient information;

- Presenting two kinds of information simultaneously and comparing memory for each (these last three suggestions overlap the topic of memory with the topic of attention / divided attention).

Ways in which the last suggestion could be investigated are as follows:

1. **Video a news or sport bulletin from a channel which combines the presenter 'reading the news' with additional information running along the bottom of the screen. This need only be a five minute clip. Produce some questions based on both sets of information.**

This could be tested in a number of ways. Participants could simply be tested on both sets of information, giving a repeated measures design and hence paired scores which could be analysed using a Wilcoxon test (or even a sign test for the maths-phobic!). Alternatively one group could be shown the clip with no instructions and another group could be told to pay particular attention to the written information. Both groups are then tested on the written information. This would give you independent measures which could be analysed using a Mann-Whitney U test.

You would probably set a two-tailed hypothesis for the repeated measures design which simply states that there will be a difference in the amount of aural and written information recalled (independent variable = type of information and dependent variable – amount of information recalled). The second suggestion using independent measures could produce a one-tailed hypothesis stating that those participants who are instructed to attend to the written information will recall more of this information than those given no instructions (independent variable = instructions given or not and dependent variable = amount of information recalled).

2. **Video a weather forecast for the whole of the UK. Produce a number of questions which test memory for the weather forecast in the local area and in the rest of the country.**

This would give you repeated measures which could be analysed using either a Wilcoxon or a sign test. Here your hypothesis could be one-tailed stating that participants will recall more information about the weather in their local area than the rest of the country. (Independent variable is forecast for local area versus forecast for rest of country and the dependent variable is amount of information received.)

3. **Design a simple memory task (learning word pairs, reading a simple story, 'Kim's game etc) and test participants in one of two conditions (independent measures). The first condition would be a quiet environment with no distraction. The second condition would involve the same task with a distraction. This could be anything: someone interrupting to deliver a message, a staged conversation between two 'confederates' or a television playing in the background. Participants are tested on their memory for the original task. An alternative study might be looking at memory for the distraction (what was the person wearing? What did they say? etc) where one group are warned that someone will come in and the other group are not.**

This would give you independent measures and the data could be analysed using a Mann Whitney U test. The hypothesis would be one tailed: Participants will recall more word pairs in a quiet room than in a room with a television playing. (Independent variable is whether there are any distractions or not and the dependent variable is the number of word pairs recalled.)

Each of the above activities can be evaluated. What variables have not been controlled? What individual factors might influence memory and so on? For example, if someone has recently moved to your area, it is likely that they will focus on another part of the country in the weather forecast study. If someone is a sports fan they might pay more attention to one type of information than another in the first study out of interest. Ensure candidates are aware of these issues and their effects and discuss possible improvements / alternatives with them.

Activity D - A Correlation

Self ratings correlated with actual scores.

There are numerous variables that can be correlated, although you need to take care that you do not ask candidates to provide personal information that they may find embarrassing. This would include asking them for their GCSE grades. Suggestions include:

- Correlating self rating of extraversion with friend's rating;

- Correlating liking for sport with score on a sport related quiz;

- Correlating self rating of ability with score on computer game;

- Correlating confidence with score on eye witness testimony task.

One way to test this final suggestion is as follows:

Variable One: Design a simple eye-witness testimony task. This could be a short video clip of an event and some written questions or a real life event such as asking someone to come into the room and then asking some questions about what happened. You can also buy simple 'identikit' sets designed for children to play with which candidates can have great fun using for their activities. Make a face and colour photocopy it. Show it to participants for a short period of time and then ask them to try and make the face themselves. Design a simple scoring system for this variable.

Variable Two: Decide what the self rating is going to be. You could ask people to rate how good they think their memory is (perhaps on a 1-10 scale) before you do anything else. Alternatively you could ask them after they have seen the video / identikit etc to rate how confident they are that they have remembered all the important aspects and then test them to estimate what they think their score will be.

This would give you paired scores which could be easily correlated using the Spearman's rho test. Data should also be plotted on a scattergraph. The measurement of both variables can be evaluated and candidates be able to identify the strengths and weaknesses of what they have done and make suggestions for improvements.

Introduction to A2 from the Chief Examiner

One of the big dangers in any academic course is LEARNING too much material and not UNDERSTANDING very much about it. My tip is to LEARN LESS and MAKE MORE of what you know.

Psychology is a relatively simple subject. We have methods for investigating people and their behaviour, we have theories about that behaviour, and we have studies that test out those theories. We also have some applications that put those observations and theories into practice. You need to know about the above and be able to comment on them.

General points

The key questions for candidates to consider on the A2 course are,

- What are the key terms and concepts?

- What is the psychological evidence?

- What can we say about the quality of this evidence?

- How can we apply this evidence?

There are also some supplementary questions to consider including,
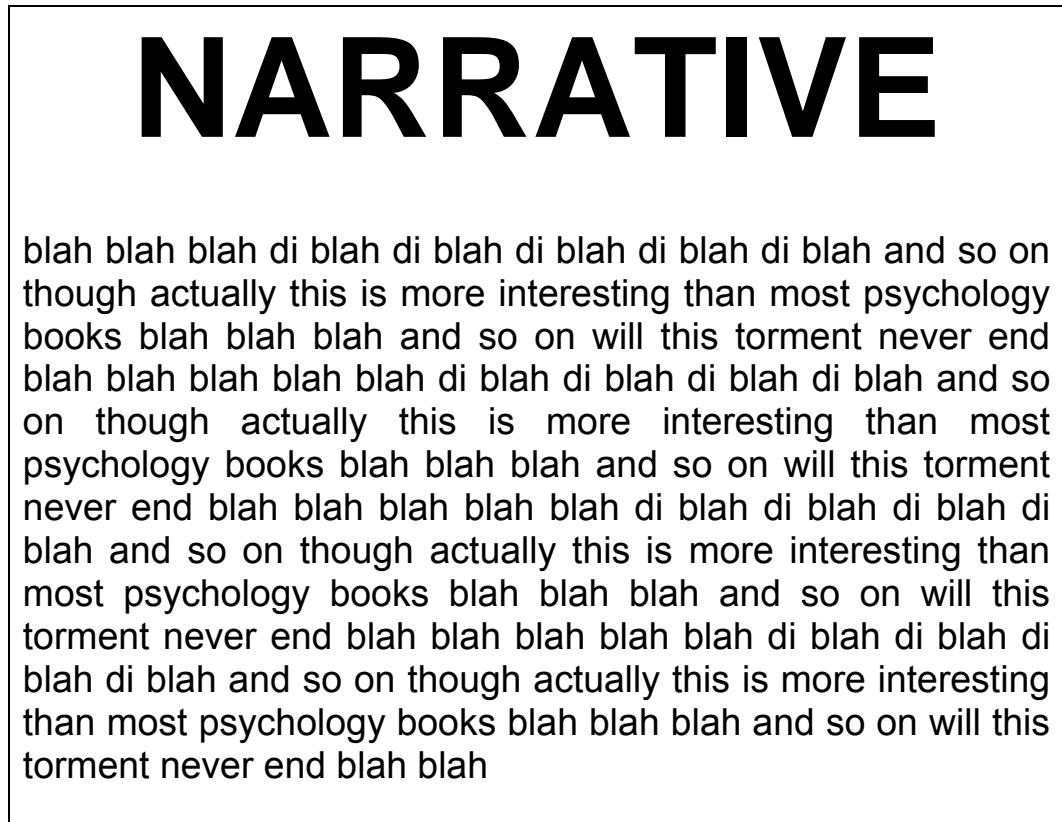
- How does this information relate to the core areas?

- How does this information relate to the themes?

- What is the context for this information?

When you look at any research questions in applied psychology; (for example, why don't people do what the doctors tell them to do?), you will soon guess that there is not a simple answer to any of them. In fact, there is probably not even a complicated answer. You are therefore not expected to provide solutions to the problem, but you are required to **identify** some evidence that is relevant to the question, **evaluate** that evidence by saying how much we can rely on it, and **apply** the evidence to a small problem. So, you need to know some evidence that is relevant to the issues in your applied option. If you can find a piece of evidence that is relevant to all issues in your option, then all well and good and you have reduced the amount of information you will have to learn. I'll return to this point.

Writing an Essay for A2

When you write an essay you basically have to write a story. I'm not going to call it a story because that implies that you make it all up. I'm going to call it a narrative. You have to use psychological knowledge to create a narrative that answers the question. It needs to have a beginning, a middle and an end, it needs to have some important components and it needs to follow a certain style. At a distance it will look like figure1 (see below).
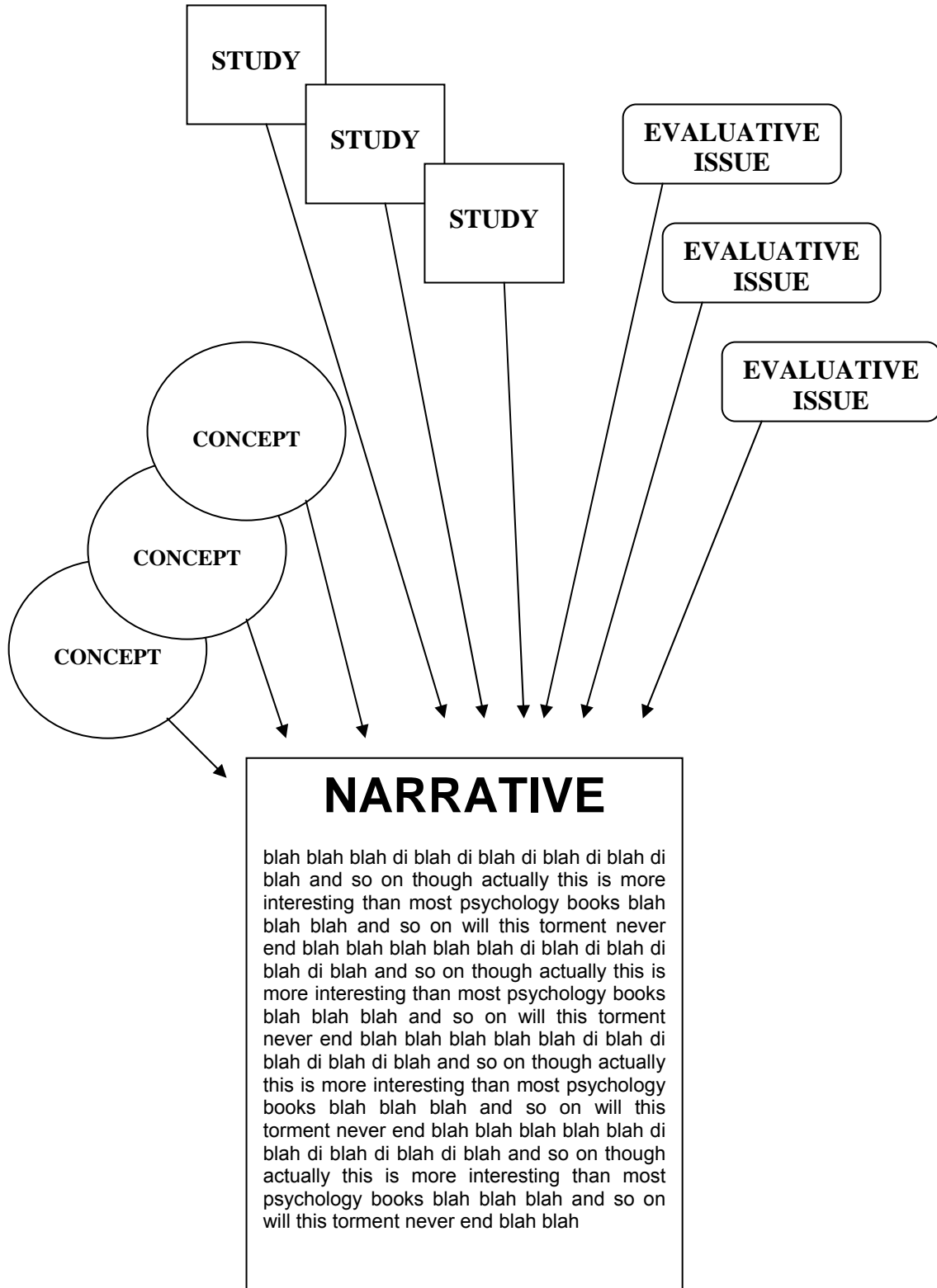
Figure 1, The narrative

NARRATIVE

blah blah blah di blah di blah di blah di blah di blah and so on though actually this is more interesting than most psychology books blah blah blah and so on will this torment never end blah blah blah blah blah di blah di blah di blah di blah and so on though actually this is more interesting than most psychology books blah blah blah and so on will this torment never end blah blah blah blah blah di blah di blah di blah di blah and so on though actually this is more interesting than most psychology books blah blah blah and so on will this torment never end blah blah blah blah blah di blah di blah di blah di blah and so on though actually this is more interesting than most psychology books blah blah blah and so on will this torment never end blah blah

So what is this narrative made up of? The simple answer is

(a) evidence

(b) concepts

(c) evaluative points

All answers have to have some psychological evidence in them, which can take the form of studies or theories. You need to show why you chose this evidence, what this evidence means and how we can evaluate that evidence. So the first thing you need to do is identify a range of concepts, studies and evaluative points that might be used in your answer (see figure 2)

*Figure 2, The concepts, studies and issues*

STUDY

STUDY

STUDY

EVALUATIVE ISSUE

EVALUATIVE ISSUE

EVALUATIVE ISSUE

CONCEPT

CONCEPT

CONCEPT

NARRATIVE

blah blah blah di blah di blah di blah di blah di blah and so on though actually this is more interesting than most psychology books blah blah blah and so on will this torment never end blah blah blah blah blah di blah di blah di blah di blah and so on though actually this is more interesting than most psychology books blah blah blah and so on will this torment never end blah blah blah blah blah di blah di blah di blah di blah and so on though actually this is more interesting than most psychology books blah blah blah and so on will this torment never end blah blah blah blah blah di blah di blah di blah di blah and so on though actually this is more interesting than most psychology books blah blah blah and so on will this torment never end blah blah

When you have chosen a selection of these components, you then have to put them together to make a narrative (see figure 3). As you can see in the diagram they don't quite fit, and this is often the case when you create the narrative. You have to adapt some items to make them fit into your essay.

Figure 3, Creating the narrative for an examination answer

NARRATIVE
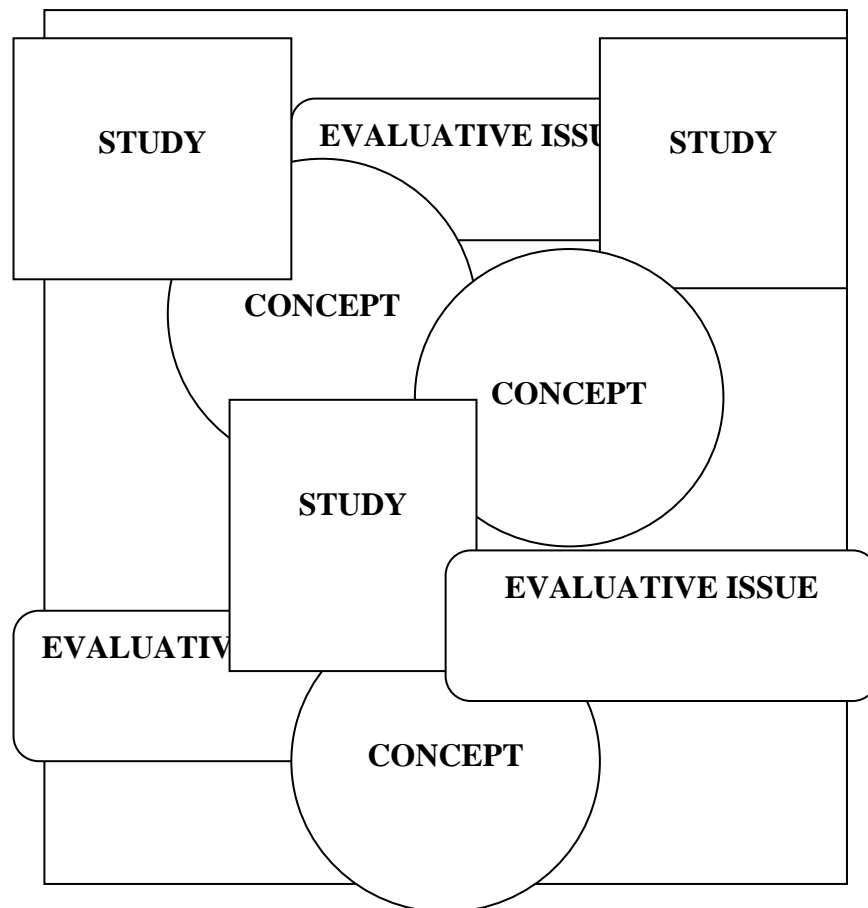
When you get your notes together it might be useful to follow the pattern suggested above and divide up what you know into studies, concepts and evaluative issues (see figure 4). Once you have all your information together in the three piles, you can start matching them up to the specification. In Figure 4, I have identified a few items of information and shown which points in the health option of the specification they can be applied to. What you need to do is to get enough bits of information to cover all the points in the specification.

Figure 4, Example use of nuggets
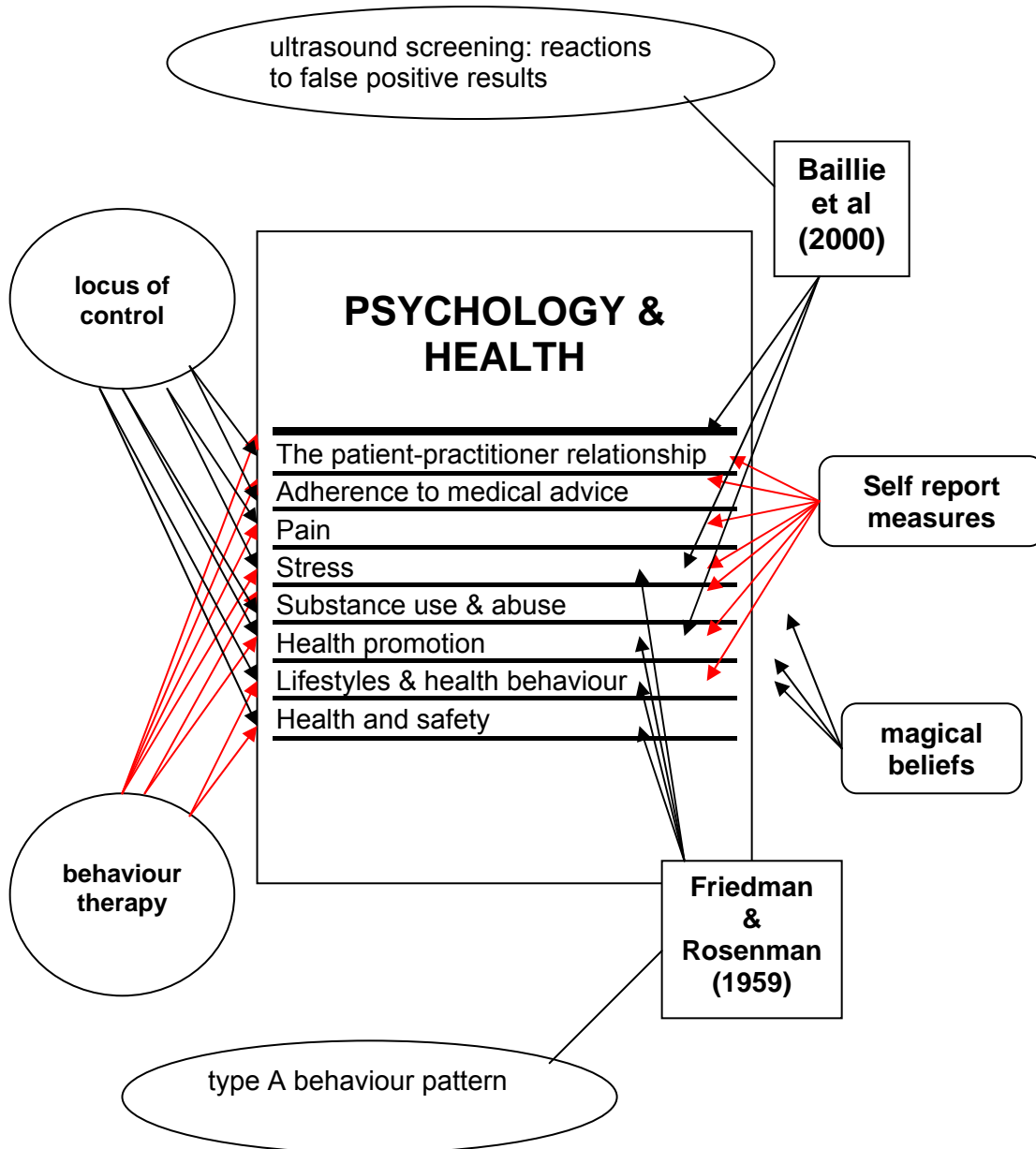
[DISCLAIMER: There are many ways to organise notes and do your revision, this is just one suggestion].

NUGGETS for A2 Psychology

I tend to refer to the useful bits of information as NUGGETS. I have included below a couple of general all purpose nuggets to get you started. The nuggets shown below are briefly described in enough detail. They also have a **nuggetability** rating to show how they might be used. You might like to try this approach with some other information that you have studied. The nuggets presented here are **concepts**. The next section in the article briefly covers some of the **issues** you may use in your answers.

NUGGET 1. Behavioural Techniques

Behavioural techniques are among the most commonly used methods to change behaviour. Behavioural techniques have been derived from Learning Theory and Social Learning Theory. The theory started with animal work of Ivan Pavlov (Russia) and Edward Thorndike (USA) who developed some laws of learning. A distinction is made between Classical Conditioning (CC) which is concerned with reflex behaviour and Operant Conditioning (OC) which is concerned with voluntary behaviour.

This early work was amplified by the behaviourist B. F. Skinner, who argued that all behaviour in human or non-human animals is caused by, shaped and maintained by its consequences. The consequences can shape behaviour in the following ways

- Positive reinforcement occurs when a pleasant consequence follows a particular response. It strengthens that response, making it more likely to happen.

- Negative reinforcement occurs when an aversive stimulus is removed or avoided by making a particular response. It strengthens the response, making the behaviour more likely to happen again.

- Punishment occurs when an aversive stimulus follows a behavioural response. In theory, it weakens that response and makes it less likely to recur.

Social Learning

As the century progressed, the research led to a major challenge to behaviourism, led by Albert Bandura. Bandura maintained that human learning did not consist entirely of stimulus-response associations, but also encompassed cognitive and social forms of learning, such as learning by imitation and through identifying with role models. Bandura's social learning theory presented a view of the human being as able to learn large sequences of behaviour, and to generate role-appropriate behaviour, in a way that was quite different from the mechanistic S-R assumptions of behaviourists.

There are numerous techniques that have been developed from these basic principles, including:

- Desensitisation (CC) where people are encouraged to associate a positive feeling with a feared stimulus

- Aversion therapy (CC) where people are encouraged to pair an unpleasant stimulus with an unwanted behaviour

- Incentives (OC) where people are given rewards to encourage certain behaviours

- Partial reinforcement (OC) where the schedule of rewards is manipulated to bring about different types of learning

- Imitation and modelling (OC) where people are shown examples of behaviours that they might imitate

- Time outs (OC) where people are removed from an environment that might give them any reinforcement for bad behaviour

- Token economics (OC) where people are given rewards for a range of behaviours that the people in charge want to encourage

- Biofeedback (OC) where people are taught how to control some of their bodily functions through concentration

Nuggetability

Behaviourism is psychology's most enduring theory and the techniques to change behaviour are still widely used in a wide range of situations. You are going to be unlucky if you can't at least mention behavioural techniques at some point in the examination.

NUGGET 2. Social and Group Norms

Belonging to social groups also means conforming to group norms. We learn how to behave, socially, from the other people around us, and that social behaviour is regulated by unconscious expectations about what counts as "normal" or acceptable behaviour. These expectations are known as social norms. Conforming to social norms involves acting in ways which are predictable and appropriate to the social role which the individual is playing at the time. Goffman (1959) argued that when an individual is first learning a social role, they act out the part as if they were participating in a play; but that later it becomes internalised and part of their personal repertoire of social action. Garfunkel (1967), in a series of studies, showed that when people are faced with someone acting in a manner which is inappropriate to their role, they become agitated and sometimes even distressed.

The peer group is the group of similar others with whom the individual is in contact, and this provides a major source of information about social expectations and acceptable social behaviour. Reference groups also provide social role models, particularly for those who have aspirations or ambitions in a given respect: a woman who is fond of music, for example, may take other musicians as her reference group when learning social behaviours.

The issues around social norms that have been investigated by psychologists include,

(i)   Peer pressure; where people respond to the real or perceived   demands of their peers. These demands might include 'drink more beer', 'work harder', 'smoke behind the bike sheds', 'take more risks', etc.

(ii)   Consumer decisions; buying products as diverse as baked beans and T shirts and washing machines have all been shown to be influenced by perceived by peer pressure.

(iii)   Group polarisation (for example, risky-shift); where people take different decisions by themselves to what they take in the company of others.

(iv)   Groupthink ; where a closed group of people develop a narrow view of a problem with possibly catastrophic outcomes.

Nuggetability

Much of our behaviour is affected by the people around us. In the option on health, for example, our choice of food or health protective behaviours or safety behaviours are all affected by our family and friends. Once again, only bad luck will prevent you commenting on the role of the social influence in the examination.

Issues

There are a number of issues on this course that can be used in your answers. You first came across these issues during the AS course, and you now have the opportunity to use these issues to make your own evaluation of applied psychology.

The following gives a brief definition of these issues.

Brief definitions

Application of psychology to everyday life refers to the attempt to explain our behaviour and experience using psychological concepts. For example, we might explain the behaviour of the traffic warden in terms of the uniform they have been given and the role they take on, just like guards in the prison simulation.

Determinism is the view that we do not have much control over our behaviour or our destiny, but are controlled by factors such as our biology or genetics or by the reinforcements we are given.

Ecological validity refers to how well a laboratory experiment in social psychology reflects on or can be related to, everyday real life. Experiments with high ecological validity can be readily generalised to our social lives; those with low ecological validity cannot be generalised. Experiments low in ecological validity may be of limited value in social psychology.

Ethics are a set of rules designed to distinguish between right and wrong, in terms of research.

Ethnocentric bias refers to the tendency of seeing the world from the viewpoint of people like yourself (your group). This often leads us to believe that our ethnic group, nation, religion, scout troop or football team is superior to others.

Nature (in the sense of 'nature and nurture') refers to the part of us that is inherited and genetic, as distinct from **nurture** which refers to all influences after conception, i.e. experience.

Psychometric tests are instruments that have been developed for measuring mental characteristics. Psychological tests have been developed to measure a wide range of things, including creativity, job attitudes and skills, brain damage, and, of course, 'intelligence'.

Qualitative data are data which describe meaning and experience rather than providing numerical values for behaviour such as frequency counts.

Quantitative data are data which focus on numbers and frequencies rather than on meaning or experience.

Social control refers to the attempt to influence the behaviour of people and so encourage them to behave in a passive way.

Reductionism is the tendency to explain complex psychological phenomena by reference to only one factor, such as learning or biology.

Reinforcement is anything that increases the probability that a behaviour will recur in similar circumstances. The term is usually used in connection with learned associations, acquired through operant or classical conditioning, but it may also be applied to other forms of learning.

The **reliability** of a psychological measuring device (such as a test or a scale) is the extent to which it gives consistent measurements. The greater the consistency of measurement, the greater the reliability of the tool.

Usefulness of psychological research refers to the contribution that psychology makes to human welfare. Miller (1969) argued that psychology should aim to improve the quality of life, and that it should be useful to everyone rather than a commercial opportunity for the few.

Validity is concerned with whether an experiment or procedure for collecting data actually measures or examines what it purports to measure or examine

Summary

So there you have it. Find your nuggets. Treasure them and make them your friends. Use them wisely to comment on the various issues of applied psychology.

5   Psychological Research Report (2543)

Introduction

As a development of the skills acquired in the practical activities for AS Psychology candidates are expected to carry out their own practical investigation and write a report. The investigation is most commonly a simple personalised experiment, although some candidates choose to carry out correlations on the data collected. A coursework advisor must approve a proposal for an investigation, before beginning the collection of data. The ethical guidelines are provided below with some suggestions for investigations. A suggested outline for the report is provided in Appendix B of the specification. The number of words must not exceed 1400.

Candidates are also expected to complete an assignment, which involves conducting a literature search to provide psychological evidence relevant to a real life event described in a source, usually a newspaper or magazine. The evidence can then be applied to the event by addressing the three tasks from the specification to:

1)   identify the underlying assumptions in or issues raised by the source;

2)   describe and relate psychological evidence to the source;

3)   suggest ways in which psychological evidence can affect the issues raised.

The number of words must not exceed 1000.

Some 'DOs and DON'Ts for the Coursework

THE PRACTICAL PROJECT

DO

- Get your candidates to think of their own ideas;

- Tell candidates to begin with a theory or empirical research;

- Keep it ethical – show them the guidelines before they start looking for ideas;

- Help them make an idea ethical or ask your advisor for help;

- Keep it simple;

- Fill in the proposal form and get approval BEFORE collecting data;

- Take a copy of the proposal form when you send it to your coursework advisor in case it gets lost in the post;

- Let them enjoy it;

- Try to check details like hypotheses are operationalised, results are analysed with the correct test and have visual displays of the data, references are complete and any materials are supplied in the appendices.

DON'T

- Allow more than one candidate to do the same project;

- Exceed the word limit;

- Allow unethical work to be put forward on the proposal form;

- Get too stressed

THE ASSIGNMENT

DO encourage candidates to

- Treat this as a piece of research, a mini-literature search, and an opportunity for independent work;

- Choose their own source;

- Use sources published in the last year;

- Encourage them to choose short sources;

- Read and understand their source;

- Write clearly and concisely, use sub-headings if they wish;

- Number the parts of the assignment in line with the specification;

- Ensure all the references are presented clearly;

- Submit the source.

DON'T let candidates

- Hunt for sources using key words without reading and understanding the rest of the source;

- Identify an issue just because it has some connection to a core study;

- Describe the first piece of research they find because it has a tenuous link to the issue;

- Describe a 'standard' set of evidence to fit all sources: Milgram, Zimbardo, Bandura and Tajfel are often used inappropriately;

- Exceed the word limit;

- Think it can be written in a weekend.

Some Answers to Frequently Asked Questions about the Practical Project

It is not always possible to give a definitive answer, as the conduct and report of each practical project must depend on the project itself.

Must the proposal form be included?

Yes, signed by the advisor and adhering to any proviso made.

What is meant by independent hypotheses?

Within class sets candidates are expected to investigate their own individual hypotheses with different variables or by different methods and not just use their own version of the hypothesis that means the same as another member of that teaching set. Differently operationalised hypotheses would use different methods, which is acceptable, for instance where one uses an observation and another uses a questionnaire. It is not sufficient to use different types of sweet in a jar in a bogus questionnaire conformity experiment.

Can candidates work together?

Candidates can co-operate on the collection of data. However, each candidate within a teaching set, must be investigating their own individual hypothesis. I would see the most productive way is for two candidates to share the construction and distribution of a questionnaire and then analyse it so that one candidate investigates gender and the other investigates age as the independent variables. The reports must be written completely independently.

Do the practical projects have to be based on the core studies or the options?

No. Candidates can use core studies as the basis of an investigation but as many are extremely complex, a simplified ethical personalised version would be better. On the other hand candidates can use any of the A2 options or even a study they have read in other A level texts. It is important to keep projects simple with experiments having only two conditions or correlations using only two variables.

Do candidates have to do an experiment?

No, many candidates do correlations although they are frequently not well understood and sometimes suggest they are investigating differences rather than comparing two variables.

Do candidates have to use inferential statistics?

There are very few instances when some form of inferential statistics are not appropriate. If an inferential test has not been used when it was appropriate to do so, then the marks gained for the results section would be in a lower band than if an appropriate test had been used. This means candidates need to think carefully about how to collect and analyse their data. The A2 part of the course was required to show progression from AS and the independent use of inferential statistics is one of the aspects that can demonstrate progress.

Can candidates write in the first person?

Practical project reports are not normally written on the first person. I would recommend candidates do not use personal pronouns as it can make the writing appear anecdotal.

What is included in the word count for the practical project?

It is easier to state what is not included and that is: references, appendices, tables, charts and headings. Dates are relevant to the information being reported so should be included.

Can the practical project exceed 1400 words?

No, this is a maximum. Teachers and lecturers should stress to all their candidates that to falsely declare the wrong number of words could be an issue for malpractice, which could delay the publication of their grades or cancel them entirely.

Some Answers to Frequently Asked Questions about the Assignment

It must be remembered that there are no definitive answers to some questions as it depends on the source and the nature of the assignment.

In relation to Part 2 the evidence, how many studies should be offered 1, 2 or more per issue?

I take a study to mean a theory, a model, or a description of a single piece of empirical research. The number depends on what is available in ordinary A level texts. It can be one piece where details of the investigation and findings are available. It might be appropriate to describe a theory and use a less detailed piece of empirical research to support it or, in some cases, a 'body of evidence' is acceptable because the area in question, perhaps the brain, would benefit from a diagram and a summarised discourse from a main text rather than Sperry. There might also be occasions where several 'single sentence' studies are most appropriate. The evidence should be driven by the source. The level of detail depends on the number of studies used and must be kept within the overall word limit. If the candidate is going for breadth, then there is less detail in each study. If more than one piece of evidence is being cited on one issue, then links and coherence might become an issue. It must also be remembered that the findings must be linked back to the source.

How much evidence is required to support the suggestions in Part 3?

The evidence can be an explicit reference back to the issue. However, other evidence might be more appropriate depending on the issue and suggestion. One suggestion could be a recommendation therapy where it might then be more appropriate to cite a study on the evaluation of that type of therapy.

What evaluation is required to support the suggestions in Part 3?

The mark scheme uses the word 'evaluation', but it might be easier to think of this as 'critical comment', that is any comment that shows understanding of the suggestion or the evidence on which it is based or the likelihood of success.

What is required in the reference section of the assignment?

If Freud (1929) appears in the text, then it should also appear in the reference section.I If it was taken from a general text, then it should be 'cited in' and the reference for the general text given as well. I recommend Harvard referencing, but essentially if all the information is there to get to the actual reference that was used, then that is enough. The 'Presentation & Communication' marks also depend on the length, within the word limit, and the general level of coherence, including spelling, grammar, correct use of terms, and clear

communication so that it is easy for the examiner to understand the arguments being made and the points being discussed.

Are dates included within the word limit?

Yes, as they are necessary to access the correct reference. However, titles, headings and all of the reference section are not counted.

Can the assignment exceed 1000 words?

No, this is a maximum. Teachers and lecturers should stress to all their candidates that to falsely declare the wrong number of words could be an issue for malpractice, which could delay the publication of their grades or cancel them entirely.

HELPFUL HINTS and ETHICAL GUIDELINES for 2542 & 2543

Candidates should:

- Understand that ethical guidelines are based on respect and care for the individuals involved

- Appreciate the feelings and reactions of potential subjects to their investigations

- Undertake simple investigations that allow them to develop the skills of psychological investigation and an ability to evaluate practical activities

- Analyse the data collected, for examined coursework, which test their own individual hypotheses.

In general candidates must NOT

- Cause stress, distress or embarrassment

- Cause or risk potential harm to themselves or their subjects

- Engage or be party to any illegal activity

- Deceive their subjects in any way that leads to embarrassment or harm

Specifically, candidates should NOT	Alternatively candidates should
• Manipulate negative variables such as aggression	• Manipulate positive variables such as smiling
• Use 'set ups' where behaviour of stooges, confederates or changes in the environment are manipulated to investigate changes in subjects behaviour	• Use a 'vignette' or story and ask about expected behaviour
• Use subjects less than sixteen years of age in investigations where variables are manipulated	• Undertake participant observation of under 16s in public with naturally occurring manipulation of variables such as gender
• Undertake non-participant observations of subjects under sixteen	• Use participant observations of over 16s in public behaviour where subjects would not be embarrassed if they knew they were being watched

…continued

Specifically, candidates should NOT	**Alternatively candidates should**
• Investigate sensitive issues such as sleep deprivation, stress or pain	• Investigate less sensitive issues such as sleep patterns, hassles or headaches
• Use identifiable photographs of people	• Use photos with faces obscured, where the subject cannot be recognised, or obtain written permission with full explanations of the purpose of the photograph

• Ask questions about
 	
  o Sensitive issues such as suicide, or abortion
 	
  o Potentially negative emotions such as self esteem, psychoticism
 	
  o Illegal activities such as under age consumption of alcohol or use of illegal drugs
 	
  o Negative stereotypes
 	
  o Traumatic life event, eating disorders, physical appearance
 	
  o Personal or confidential issues such as qualifications
	• Choose
	
	  o Less sensitive issues such as altruism or motivation
	
	  o Positive emotions such as happiness or extroversion
	
	  o Legal activities such as chocolate consumption or cigarette smoking [over 16]
	
	  o Positive stereotypes or
	
	  o Daily hassles of healthy eating habits
	
	  o Ask for ratings of performance or liking of activities

• Use 'full blown' psychometric tests	• Use parts of tests or puzzles

Ideas for Practical Projects

General points:

- Always begin from a theory or another empirical study and look for a way of 'personalising' it.

- Allow candidates to peruse general A level text books to find their own ideas from topics of interest.

- Remember your project must be ethical.

- Think about how you will analyse your data, you will have better opportunities to show understanding and visually display ordinal data.

- If they have difficulty suggesting their own ideas, here are some suggestions. All the studies below come from Banyard & Grayson [2000].

BASIS: ORIGINAL STUDY	IDEAS
Asch: Conformity Do people conform?	IV: blank or bogus questionnaire DV: differences from the mean estimate
Nisbett: Fundamental Attribution Error Do people excuse their own behaviour with situational reasons? Do people assume other people's personality is the reason for their behaviour	IV: self or others DV: total of situational reasons for dropping litter + being late + not doing homework etc or DV: total of dispositional reasons for dropping litter + being late + not doing homework etc
LA Pierre: Attitudes vs actions Do attitudes influence actions?	V: rating strength of opinions V: the frequency of the behaviour actually occurring [e.g. donating to charity, spending time with family, importance of spending time on homework]
Festinger & Carlsmith: Cognitive dissonance	IV: membership of a gym DV: rating of the benefits of exercise higher
Bales: What factors influence the roles people take in groups?	IV: leader or non-leader DV: extroversion
Skinner: Pigeons & reinforcement	V: frequency of playing the lottery V: level of winning

…continued

BASIS: ORIGINAL STUDY	IDEAS
Seligman: Learned helplessness	IV: rating of potential success in psychology DV: rating of how hard they try on a difficult piece of homework
Rawlins: Hierarchy in rhesus monkeys	IV: gender [Mother/Father, or Brother/Sister] DV: rating of importance of opinion on decisions made in the family
Tinbergen: Territoriality	IV: gender DV: number of ways they personalise their bedroom or DV: how often they tidy their room
Calhoun: Crowding	IV: crowd density DV: any measure or rating of behaviour e.g. pulse rate, smiling
Kitto: Gender terms & job descriptions	IV: gender terms in job description [girl/woman] DV: any rating of job e.g. salary, level of responsibility
Dweck: Learned helplessness in the class room	IV: gender DV: rating of liking of a school subject [e.g. French, Music or Science]
Koff: Body image	IV: age [16-18 vs 40+] DV: rating of liking of an outline of a body
Bem: Androgyny	Vs: subjects self rating of any two variables from the masculinity or femininity categories
Forer: Gullibility and the Barnum Effect	IV: gender or age or ethnicity DV: rating of belief in horoscopes
Nobles: Self concept	V: rating of racial self concept V: rating of knowledge of racial history
Smith & Glass: Outcome of psychotherapy	IV: before and after reading summary of Smith & Glass DV: rating of belief in the efficacy of psychotherapy
Harlow: Attachment	IV: gender DV: rating of the importance of women being able to cook

BASIS: ORIGINAL STUDY	IDEAS
Kohlberg: Morality & justice	IV: gender
	DV: morality score/level
Gilligan & Attanucci: Morality & care	IV: gender
	DV: rating or score on caring
Condon & Sander: Synchronised speech	IV: gender
	DV: turn taking score or rating
Fernald: Motherese	IV: language or culture
	DV: amount of motherese used
Labov: Non-standard English	IV: gender or age [16-18 vs 40+]
	DV: amount of non-standard English used
Bartlett: Remembering pictures	IV: labelled or unlabelled pictures
	DV: number of items recalled
Craik & Lockhart: Levels of processing	IV: level of processing
	DV: number of items recalled
Holmes & Rahe: Stress	V: number of hassles
	V: number of headaches
Billings & Moos: Coping strategies	V: amount of sleep, exercise or coping strategies used
	V: number of hassles experiences or headaches
Friedman & Rosenman: Personality & Health	IV: personality type [A or B]
	DV: number of health problems
Melzack: Pain	IV: rating of pain involved in last headache
	DV: time since last headache
Orne: Demand characteristics	IV: labelling questionnaire Psychology
	DV: rating on question about memory or mood
Rosenthal & Jacobson: Self fulfilling prophecy	V: self assessment of performance
	V: observer rating of competence
Sears: Psychology's subjects	IV: subject at A level [Psychology or no psychology]
	DV: rating of any aspect of candidates' achievement, attributes or behaviour

All references from Banyard p & Grayson A [2000] Introducing Psychological Research 2nd ed, Basingstoke, Palgrave

6 Psychology and Education (2544)

Introduction

Psychology of Education helps candidates to understand what has really been going on in their school lives for the previous 12 to 13 years. Thus all candidates can relate their own experience of classrooms, teachers and learning to the material.

As with all the 6 units in their current form, there is scope for teachers to select material within each sub-topic which matches that of their own or their candidates' interests. Topics which candidates find particularly interesting include: Dyslexia and Special Educational Needs, Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder and Disruptive Behaviour, Summerhill School and Humanist Applications.

The Psychology of Education can also deal with questions very pertinent in today's schools, such as looking at whether girls are doing better than boys at school; why black males are more frequently excluded from school than other groups.

This unit, perhaps more than any other of the specialist options, allows candidates to gain a thorough theoretical background in psychology. This can help provide candidates with a valuable basis for those candidates wishing to study psychology at Higher Education.

Possible Activities within the Psychology of Education Unit:

1. General introduction: "Good teacher / Bad teacher." Perhaps a useful way to introduce the whole unit is by getting your candidates to write down, either individually or in small groups, examples of what makes a teacher a good teacher vs. what makes a teacher a bad teacher, before relating these to the class as a whole. Candidates' anecdotes can be related to many areas of the specification e.g. a teacher's ability or otherwise to manage a class (Disruptive behaviour); the way that some teachers can successfully motivate and inspire candidates (Motivation and educational performance); a teacher's ability to explain information clearly (cognitive applications) or relate to candidates on a more human level (Humanist perspectives). Thus, candidates can experience a taste of much of the specification.

2. Special Educational Needs and Giftedness: candidates can watch some or all of Little Man Tate (dir: Jodie Foster 1991), an entertaining and interesting film about an extremely gifted boy. This can provide a useful platform for debating the relative merits of inclusive education versus segregated education for such children. Also, it can provide a review of definitions of giftedness, as found in most textbooks.

3. Educational Design and Layout: in groups, candidates can design their ideal libraries/learning resource centres on OHTs and present to the class, explaining their reasons. This can work well at the end of the topic area, as an activity for part (c).

4.   Disruptive Behaviour in school: Candidates can do an exercise designed to help candidates think about and empathise with the effects of bullying. In pairs or small groups, candidates arrange the following 9 cards in a "diamond-nine".

This exercise can lead helpfully into a review of a very recent study by Shogakusei [2003] in to the *effects* of bullying that can be located on the web at:

http://www.childresearch.net/CYBTATY/EDATA/MONO/BULLYYING/

This is quite a useful study to cover as there is plenty of detail, as well as some, perhaps, more surprising results, for example, that a significant proportion of people who reported bullying responded that it had improved or developed their personalities. Additionally, the Shogakusei study links to a range of evaluative issues such as the method by which the data was collected, generalisability etc.

Bullying Cards – Instructions

Here are nine ways people can bully. We are all bullied sometimes and we bully too.

Read the cards in your group and arrange them in a "diamond-nine", with the worst type of bullying at the top. (see over the page).
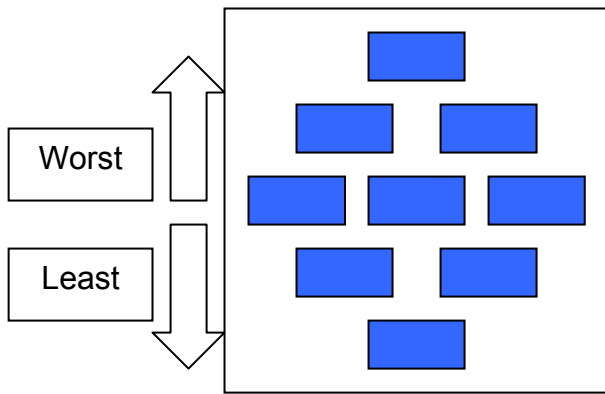
Discuss the following question as you go:
- Which type of bullying is the worst – why?
- What do you think it feels like to be bullied in this way?
- Has it ever happened to you or someone you know?
- Tell the group what happened, but only if you want to.
- How could you cope with this kind of bullying?
- Would there be any long-term effects of this type of bullying?

Physical Hurt

There are many ways to get physical with people – bumping, shoving, tripping – as well as hitting and punching.

Sometimes what starts as a row between two people gets outs of hand and other people soon join in.

They may think it is fun, but it's not.

The Evils
People can look at you in a way which says many things and none of them very nice. Looks can be threatening, or they can say you look or smell horrible. Sometimes people may look down on you so that you just feel very small. Often, other people don't see the looks, so its difficult to get anyone to take it seriously.

Being Different
There are many ways people can look different – hairstyles, jewellery, no brand-named clothing, weight, height, colour… Sometimes people choose to be different, others can't help it. It is very difficult in a school where there is often pressure for people to be the same.

Property Damage

People often borrow each others' things - clothes, pencils, books even shoes. Sometimes they accidentally get damaged. At other times however, people may steal your property or damage it deliberately by writing over it, or breaking it. It's wrong to borrow without asking and no-one likes to lose something that is important to them.

Being Good – Being Not So Good
There is no reason to feel embarrassed or ashamed about being able to do something well – or indeed the opposite – about not being able to do something well.

Yet people often get teased so much that they give up on sport, music, doing homework because it is easier than people finding out and taking the mickey.

Laughing
It has probably happened to everybody. You walk past a crowd of people and they are laughing. You imagine that it is you they are laughing at and maybe that's because of the way you are feeling that day. However, at other time, it is you they are laughing at. Maybe you have just done something silly but often you don't know why they're laughing – and that makes you feel uncomfortable.

Name Calling

There are many forms of name calling – 'geek, 'boffin', 'slag', as well as nicknames. Sometimes people do not mean to hurt you it just becomes a habit.

But it is wrong and can make people feel very unhappy

Whispers

People love to gossip. Sometimes they tell a secret that you shared in confidence. At other times they make up lies.

Usually, whispers take place behind your back and it feels awful when you find out people have been talking about you.

Being Left Out
It can happen to anyone at any time. People go into groups in class and you find you are left working on your own. Or, you find out your mates are all going somewhere and they haven't invited you. Sometimes people stir and others take sides, then you end up left on your own.
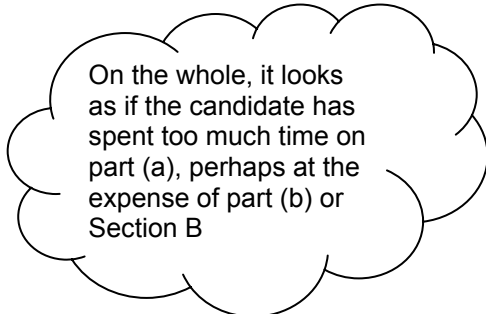
Section A Question (June 2004)

a) Outline one cognitive application to education (6)

b) Evaluate how the cognitive perspective has been applied to learning.[10]

Candidate response

On the whole, it looks as if the candidate has spent too much time on part (a), perhaps at the expense of part (b) or Section B
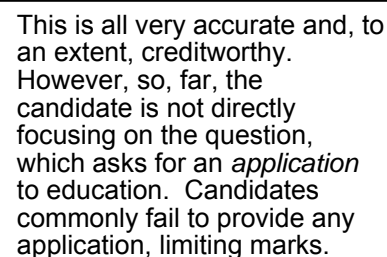
1(a) One cognitive application to education comes from Piaget. Piaget developed a stage theory of cognitive development which has been hugely influential. According to Piaget, there are four main stages in the way that children think about the world: Sensorimotor Stage (age 0-2), Pre-Operational stage (age 2-7), Concrete Operational Stage (7-11) and Formal Operational Stage (11-15). Each of these stages has particular characteristics or patterns of thinking. For example, in the pre-operational stage, children cannot conserve. This means that children cannot tell that an object's volume remains the same despite being poured into a different shaped beaker.

This is all very accurate and, to an extent, creditworthy. However, so, far, the candidate is not directly focusing on the question, which asks for an application to education. Candidates commonly fail to provide any application, limiting marks.

Piaget himself never applied his theory to education, but numerous people have e.g. Brainerd (1983) who says that there are three main applications of the theory of education. These are (i) Readiness. Because children's thought is limited by which stage they are in, and their age, Piaget's theory suggests that children cannot learn some concepts unless they are cognitively mature enough e.g. there is no point in teaching something like abstract philosophy to a child who is not in the formal operational stage. This links into Brainerd's second idea which is what should be taught in the curriculum and when.

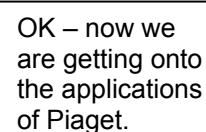*OK – now we are getting onto the applications of Piaget.*

Another application from Piaget is to do with learning methods. As Piaget says that children learn through active self discovery, the implication for he teacher is to facilitate such active self discovery. i.e. teachers should set up candidate-centred tasks or puzzles that involve a child working out the solution, the child may move through disequilibrium and then accommodation. This means that the role of teacher should be a care facilitator, choosing tasks and monitoring them, rather than teaching children through demonstrations or lecturing.
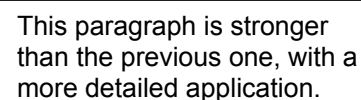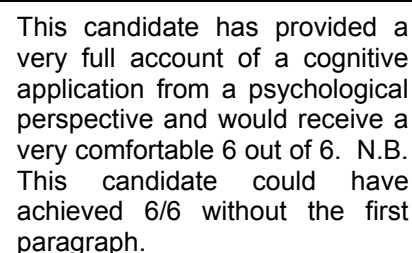
This paragraph is stronger than the previous one, with a more detailed application.

This candidate has provided a very full account of a cognitive application from a psychological perspective and would receive a very comfortable 6 out of 6. N.B. This candidate could have achieved 6/6 without the first paragraph.

1(b) On the whole, cognitive methods are effective methods in the classroom. The role of teachers as facilitators has many strong points. For instance, children are more actively engaged in the tasks, rather than just learning passively. This increases the child's actual learning. However, for the tasks to be successful as a learning tool, they have to be set up very thoughtfully and carefully and monitored very carefully. This creates practical problems for teachers in the classroom as they cannot help or guide all 30 children equally. Another problem is that the tasks may not engage the children and they may just 'muck around' and not achieve anything. One more problem of Piaget's idea of active self-discovery is that it opposes the usefulness of 'lecturing' methods. Candidates, in reality, can learn from packets of knowledge. There is some contradiction within the cognitive approach as Ausubel backed "expository learning" and said that "lecturing" is an effective application if the knowledge is structured logically.

Vygotsky's work has been applied a lot – Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) and scaffolding. This highlights the usefulness of helping children individually as what a child can do with structured guidance (or scaffolding one day), is what they can do on their own the next day. Much research has backed up the usefulness of scaffolding (e.g. Rogoff). However, one problem with it is time – for a teacher to help each child to develop through their own personal ZPD would be very time consuming in a class of 30 children. However, scaffolding is a useful way of introducing new tasks to whole groups of children, e.g. a teacher may give a lot of guidance about the first A level essay, and gradually withdraw guidance throughout the course.

The candidate has launched straight into an opposite evaluation issue. The question has asked for an evaluation of cognitive applications (not theory), and thus effectiveness of the teaching techniques is much more credit worthy than say evaluating the

This candidate is particularly good at explaining and elaborating their points, demonstrating thorough evaluative skills.

The candidate does not waste any time here describing these newly introduced applications. This is advantageous as there are only marks available in part (b) for AO2 (evaluation and analysis)

Again, the candidate elaborates an evaluative point, in this case by use of example.

In part (b) this candidate has focused very well on the question. All points made have been coherently explained and elaborated, rather than making throw-away or superficial comments. This candidate would achieve 10/10.

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7   Psychology and Health (2545)

Adherence to medical advice

Contexts

Traditional approaches in psychology

The popular work from social psychology that is described in introductory text books gives a picture of people as compliant automatons who readily conform to most social pressures and obey authority without much hesitation. The work of Asch, Crutchfield and Milgram is used as evidence to support this pessimistic view. A good discussion of this appears in many books so I will not repeat it here. This work is an important psychological context for the problem of adherence to medical advice.

Types of request

One of the issues to consider with adherence to medical advice is the type of behaviour we are asking someone to demonstrate. In the social psychology studies (above) the person under study was usually isolated from their friends and, in the Asch studies, asked to carry out simple and transparently pointless tasks. In the Milgram study, they were asked to carry out something very unusual in a very unusual situation. The requests for medical compliance, on the other hand, are usually made in familiar situations and the behaviour can be discussed with friends and family.

The types of request fall into a number of categories;

(a)   Requests for short term compliance with simple categories;
For example, "take these tablets twice a day for three weeks"

(b)   Requests for positive additions to lifestyle;
For example, "eat more vegetables and take more exercise"

(c)   Requests to stop certain behaviours
For example, "stop smoking"

(d)   Requests for long term treatment regimes
For example, diabetic diet or renal dialysis diet

A cursory look at these types of request reveals some striking differences and suggests that the problem of adherence to medical advice might be different for the different types of medical request. For example, with short term requests I have to make an effort for a short time and even then it is unlikely to impose any strain on the way I conduct my life. On the other hand, the dietary requirements for renal dialysis are severe and patients should restrict their fluid intake which not only cuts out a Friday night down the Dog and Partridge, but also leaves them feeling thirsty and uncomfortable much of the time.

Methods and Data

How compliant are people to health requests, and how reliable is our data?

Developing an accurate picture of adherence to medical advice can be tricky, because the estimates which have been made about whether people conform to their treatment instructions vary widely. This is partly a matter of definition. Taylor (1990), for example, suggested that 93% of patients fail to adhere "reasonably closely" to their treatment regimes about 78% of the time for short-term treatments, and about 54% of the time for chronic conditions. In other words, the two researchers were using different definitions: Taylor was talking about precise conformity to every detail of the recommended treatment conformity, but Sarafino was allowing for the way that most people "customise" their treatments to fit in with their lifestyles, but recognising that they may still be complying with the general features of the treatment.

Sarafino also found that the average adherence rates for taking medicine to prevent illness is roughly 60% for both long-term and short-term regimes, but compliance with a requirement to change one's lifestyle, such as stopping smoking or altering one's diet, was generally quite variable and often very low. There are limits, it seems, as to how far people will conform to medical demands if they seem to involve too great a change.

In some conditions the lack of adherence to medical advice is quite dramatic, for example a survey of diabetics by Wing et al (1986) reported that 80% of patients administered insulin in an unhygienic manner; 58% of them regularly administered the wrong dose of insulin; 77% tested their urine incorrectly or made incorrect interpretations of the result; 75% did not eat the prescribed foods; and 75% did not eat with sufficient regularity.

Non-adherence to medical advice is not just a Western phenomena. For example, Barnhoorn and Adriaanse (1992) found a similar problem in India. They interviewed two groups of patients who had completed or not completed a tuberculosis control programme. The researchers found that the two groups were different in a number of ways. One of the most important was social support – people who had completed the tuberculosis control programme were more likely to report that at least one family member helped them in taking anti-tubercular medication. This is just one indication of the way that, in order to be effective, health professionals have to take into account a whole range of personal, relationship and social variables.

Ways of measuring compliance

1.   Ask a practitioner to estimate the compliance of their patients – Sarafino suggests that they generally overestimate it.

2.   Ask the patient – again you are likely to get an over-estimation because the patients know that they should follow doctor's orders and therefore tend to give biased answers.

3.   Pill or quantity counting – count the number of pills left in the bottle and compare it against the number that should be there.

4.   Medication-recording dispensers which automatically record when the dispenser is used – expensive and not fool proof.

5.   Biochemical tests such as blood and urine – measures the general health of the patients and their adherence to the treatment can be inferred.

All the methods can give us some useful information, but they all contain an element of error.

Example Problem

Breast Self Examination (BSE) and Testicular Self Examination (TSE)

- 1 in 14 British women will develop breast cancer during their lifetimes;

- Each year, in the UK 13,000 women die of breast cancer;

- Breast cancer is the most common cancer in women accounting for 20% of all female cancer deaths;

- If it is detected and treated when it is localised then the 5 year survival rate is 85%;

- BSE is simple, safe, economical and effective at detecting breast tumours at an early clinical stage;

- The most recent surveys suggest that less than 30% of women practise BSE monthly.

TASK 1

List as many reasons as you can why women do not practise BSE.

TASK 2

Carry out the same task for men and TSE. Are there any differences between the reasons suggested for the behaviour of men and women?

TASK 3

Look at the list of reasons you have developed and try to match any psychological concepts you have studied to your list of common reasons.

Source: Pitts, M., and Phillips, K. (eds) (1991). The Psychology of Health. London: Routledge.

Notes for the example problem

Adherence to medical advice.

Breast Self Examination (BSE) and Testicular Self Examination (TSE)

Likely answers to TASK 1

- Fear

- Embarrassment

- Don't know what to do

- Feeling silly

- Touching body is associated with sexual activity

- Lack of privacy

- Bad memory

- "I'll do it later"

Extra answers for TASK 2

- men unable to discuss health
- men unable to talk sensibly to each other about anything personal
- touching genitals
- not aware of body changes

Points to note

- BSE does not reduce the chances of contracting breast cancer
- In fact, it increase the likelihood of finding a lump and hence surgery
- Barriers to BSE that have been identified include;
- Confidence level
- Lack of knowledge concerning the ability to detect lumps
- Lack of privacy to practise BSE
- Lack of social support
- Age – older women are less likely to practise BSE
- Cultural taboos about the body
- Similar issues for TSE

Possible answers for TASK 3

- Locus of control
- Modelling
- Learned helplessness
- Self efficacy
- Reinforcement
- Social scripts
- Conformity
- Social roles
- Self image
- Self esteem

Psychological Explanations

The explanations of the problem can come either from research findings or from general psychological concepts that are applied to the problem. Some of the explanations will also be useful for other problems, so although there appears to be a long list of explanations, it might well contain items that you have already discussed in other parts of the course.

1. Communication

(a) Style of communication

A study which had a large impact in terms of teaching health care professionals was described by Ley et al., in 1973, who investigated how accurately people remember medical statements. Patients attending a general practise surgery were given a list of medical statements and were then asked to recall them. The same list was also given to a group of candidates. The statements were either given in an unstructured way, or were preceded by information about how they would be organised. For example, a structured presentation might involve the researcher saying something like "I'm going to tell you three things: firstly, what is wrong with you; secondly, what tests we will be doing, and thirdly, what is likely to happen to you".

When they were tested to see how much they remembered, Ley et all. found that structuring the information had made a very clear difference. The patients who had received the information in a clearly categorised form remembered about 25% more than those who had received the same information in an unstructured way. The candidates, who were more used to learning information, were about 50% better if they received categorised information than if it were unstructured. The clear implication of this study is that giving people a means of processing or coding information can help them to store it more effectively, which suggests that practical benefits, in terms of remembering what the doctor said, can be achieved by applying levels of processing approaches in real-life settings.

In a further study in this area Ley (1978) undertook a study of memory for medical information. After people had visited the doctor, they were asked what the doctor had instructed them to do. This would be compared with a record of what had actually been said to them, and the differences were noted.

Ley found that people were quite inaccurate in remembering medical information. In general, patients remembered about 55% of what their doctor had said to them. But the inaccuracies were not random ones. In particular, Ley found that patients:

- Remembered the first thing that they had been told well (the primacy effect)

- Did not improve their memorising as a result of repetition – it did not matter how often the doctor repeated the information

- Remembered information which had been categorised (like, say, which tablets they should be taking) better than information which was more general

- Remembered more than other patients if they already had some medical knowledge

Each of these findings could be deduced from existing psychological knowledge about memory processes. In a follow-up to the study, Ley prepared a small booklet giving advice to doctors on how to communicate more clearly with their patients. Patients whose doctors had read the booklet recalled on average 70% of what they had been told, which was a significant increase on the previous figure.

2. Models of decision making and health behaviour

For example, the Health Belief Model.

This model was originally proposed by Rosenstock in the mid sixties and later modified by Becker. According to the health brief model, the likelihood that individuals will take preventive action depends directly on two assessments that they make;

(i)   Evaluating the threat

(ii)   Cost-benefits analysis

There are several factors that can influence a person's perceived threat of illness, including; perceived seriousness, perceived susceptibility, and cues to action. Also likely to affect this assessment are; demographic variables, socio-psychological variables and structural variables.

The cost-benefit assessment looks at whether the perceived benefits exceed the perceived barriers. The barriers might be financial, situational (difficult to get to a health clinic), social (don't want to acknowledge getting old). The benefits might be improved health, relief from anxiety, and reducing health risks.

The model has attracted a large amount of research and much of it is supportive of the basic theory. However, there is no standard way of measuring the variable in the model such as perceived susceptibility. Also there are a number of health behaviours that do not fit the model, such as habits (for example teeth brushing).

3. Behavioural explanations

(a)   The role of habits

(b)   Imitation, for example one of the biggest factors for smoking in young people is whether their parents smoke

(c)   Reinforcement, for example, the reinforcement for short term treatment programmes is the you feel better quickly, whereas, the reinforcement for long term behavioural changes is far from clear to the individual.

4. Defence mechanisms

The psychoanalytic approach suggests that we protect our ego by a variety of means, for example, avoidance (smokers are known to avoid information about the harmful effects of smoking), and denial.

5. Conformity

It is possible to turn the whole problem on its head and see how people fail to comply to medical requests because they are conforming to a variety of social norms, for example men being 'macho' and not complying.

6. Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is a belief that you can perform adequately in a particular situation. Your sense of capability influences your perception, motivation and performance. Bandura (1989) argued that self-efficacy beliefs are important to us, because they are connected with what we believe we are capable of. If we believe that we are able to engage in certain types of actions successfully, then we are more likely to put effort into doing so, and therefore we are more likely to develop the necessary skills.

Bandura argued that the self-efficacy beliefs which people hold about their own capabilities directly affect how much effort they are prepared to put into achieving things, to completing tasks. If you believe that you are capable of achieving something, you will be likely to stick at it until you succeed. If, on the other hand, you doubt whether you are capable of doing it successfully, you are unlikely to try as hard, and will give up more easily. Because of this, Bandura argued that it is a good thing if people have beliefs about their self-efficacy which are slightly higher than the evidence would suggest, because this encourages them to aim high, and by so doing, try harder and so develop their skills and abilities even further.

We make judgements of self-efficacy primarily on the bases of our achievements. Other sources of these judgements include;

(a)   Observations of the performance of others

(b)   Social and self persuasion ("Oh, you know you can do it really")

(c)   Monitoring our emotional states, for example, if we are feeling anxious then this would suggest low expectations of efficacy

7. Locus of control

Rotter (1966) suggested that people differ in the way they experience their locus of control – in other words, where the control over events in their life comes from. Some people experience themselves as having an external locus of control, which means they do not feel in control of events: they perceive their lives as being controlled by outside forces. Things happen to them. On the other hand, some people experience themselves as having an internal locus of control, which means they experience themselves as having personal control over themselves and events. They make things happen, rather than passively waiting for them to occur. Rotter went on to argue that locus of control represented a significant factor in psychological well-being, in that feeling unable to control events – a "victim of circumstance" – is inherently stressful, and can lead to ill-health and psychological problems.

Enhancing Adherence to Medical Advice

1. Presentation of the information

(a)   Doctor patient communication – for example, see previous pages.

(b)   Health promotion materials and strategies – cross reference to work on health promotion

2. Social and motivational influences

For example, recruiting social support such as family involvement in the treatment of a patient, or encouraging the patient to join a support group such as weight watchers or a phobics group.

3. Behavioural methods

- Feedback (reinforcement)
- Self-monitoring
- Tailoring the regime
- Increasing sense of control
- Prompts and reminders
- Contingency contract
- Modelling

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8   Psychology and Organisations (2546)

There are several strengths in looking at Organisational Psychology as a possible module. Whatever combination of other subjects being taken, or future courses, everyone will end up in employment. This unit will be directly related to the mechanisms of day-to-day workplace psychology. It can help focus on the processes involved in getting a job, including the attributes that aspire to leadership, and can provide an insight into the mechanisms of working with others, communication, and aspects of working conditions that include the quality of working life. It is, thus, a module that they will use, or at lest relate to during the future.

Another disadvantage relates to the immense amount of practical research undertaken, and when asking an Internet search engine for particular topics, there is usually a work-place focus in the references provided.

In terms of weakness, firstly, we are talking about the future rather than the here and now. It may be difficult for some candidates to relate to their future employment at a time when they are only thinking a few years ahead.

Secondly, there are less detailed 'key studies' easily available that allow for in-depth evaluation, although Heinemann's 'Themes in Psychology' - *Psychology and Organisations* [0 435 80657 2] – provides a few key studies. Further support can come from a publication by Fiona Lintern and Merv Stapleton.

Study Guide for OCR Psychology: A2 Level
In terms of the syllabus, Hodder and Stoughton's *Psychology in Practice: Organisations*, provides a good basis for the syllabus content and will make a good text. For teacher reference, dipping into others such as McKenna (recommended in the OCR Spec), or *Work Psychology* by Arnold, Cooper and Robertson [publication Pitman 0-273-60324-5] will help to enrich the course. Both have useful case-study scenarios worth considering when covering the theory, with the latter book (Arnold) also having some practical examples via questionnaires.

Much research in Organisational Psychology has focused on observation, interview and questionnaire. The general principles of strengths and weaknesses in these research methods can be used in answering questions requiring 'evaluation'. Hence a useful reminder to teachers, on this can be found in Coolican's book on *Research Methods and Statistics in Psychology [Hodder and Stoughton; 0-340-60082-9]*.

Many candidates have direct experience of organisations, albeit through part-time work in such places as fast food outlets, supermarkets and stores. Their families will have experience in work, and can often comment on work-based quality of environment and working conditions. Work experience can also be tapped into within this unit. Hence, to try to bring the topics alive, it is worth considering the anecdotal evidence that can be brought out in any topic discussion.

In order to make the unit interesting, it is perhaps worth considering a reference text for the teacher on the practical applications of the varying topics. One such book is *Applied Industrial/Organizational Psychology* by Michael Aamodt. [Brooks/Cole. Wadsworth, 0-534-35881-0]. In addition to having a very clear and detailed theory content, it has, at the end of each chapter, a variety of possible practical exercises. Although it uses American examples, it is still a very useful resource material for those colleagues who want a more practical approach to the topics. Beware, however of the copyright laws with all of these publications.

In the first section of the syllabus, *Selection of people for work*, a useful ploy is to start with the job analysis (which comes in the second section of the syllabus) in that it can help frame any scoring system used with application forms as part of the screening process. It relates well with 'weighted applications blanks' and indeed to get a few real application forms will give more impact. The use of biodata methods can also link to job analysis, in that it can help in the selection of biodata questions to use. The Aamodt book has an interesting exercise in biodata, and when adapted with some fictitious data of your own, shows how the system works, but also provides scope for much criticism on the method when candidates actually try it out.

There are a variety of potential psychometric tests that are used in selection, and whichever is chosen should have some detail to allow for evaluation. This can be difficult since the ones often used in reality – HPI, 16PF, HJ17, etc., are quite rightly restricted; however others can be referenced in the texts. One of the leadership questionnaires, which in theory could be used in a management selection process, is a psychometric exercise, and can be openly found on the internet – search for 'Blake and Mouton' – and the questionnaire will come up. It is simplistic in describing styles of leadership (Managerial Grid Theory) but it shows the limitations of the items used in the questionnaire, as well as a lack of clarity in some of the items.

The use of any psychometric or other questionnaires needs to be considered with care, and the theoretical elements behind the construction of the questionnaire should be broadly considered. Reference to show understanding of key aspects such as 'standardised', and the 'norms' that were used in its development are important. What samples were used in its development? In addition to the usual comments on reliability and validity, is it a 'fair' test? Is it recent?

The section on 'Interviews' can produce a lively scenario if attempting a role play on e.g. interviews for the candidate representative on the Governing Body, or School Captain. The various reasons for lack of interview validity can be drawn out during preparation, e.g. poor intuitive ability, questions that lack job relatedness, primacy effect, contrast effects, negative information bias, interviewee-interviewer similarity, appearance, nonverbal cues etc. and they can all be covered here. The use of Critical Incident Technique (CIT) can also be introduced here, ahead of the appraisal section in the syllabus.

Human Resource Practices is a fascinating section, and although the psychological principles behind 'appraisal' are paramount, the search engine on this topic produces both negative and positive responses to its use in organisations. The section on reward systems can cross reference to motivation as well as job satisfaction. The unusual 'Premack Principle' does not seem to feature in many text books, but it is an interesting concept.

Besides the internet descriptions of groups and decision-making, a useful debate comes with the consideration of Belbin versus Furnham, Steele and Pendleton, which approaches team roles from two types of research. Although Belbin team roles are well understood by many candidates, with text books providing the details of the various roles, it is in research that debate ensues. Farnham does not seem to appear to accept the labelling of the team roles as having any predictive or construct validity. Belbin disagrees, and each has produced arguments to demonstrate their points. *The journal of Occupational and Organisation Psychology (1993), 66, 259-260* provides a useful Belbin reply that encapsulates the argument. However, it is in the mention of the types of validity under question where perhaps candidates can gain. It is also a useful reminder that psychology is nothing but controversial!!

Interpersonal communication can hold a lot of interest, e.g. in the Chinese whispers experiment to show message distortion. Try it out – give person A a typed, perhaps somewhat involved message, person A reads it to B, B has to remember it and relates it to C, C to D etc. By the time you get to end of a class of about 20 candidates, in comparison with the original, it is usually totally different.

Body language can be fascinating. Get a candidate to think of a fictitious account and one that was true. The accounts are given to the class. There should be a difference in the body and paralanguages that candidates can detect. A simple paralanguage illustration can also be useful to demonstrate part of its meaning: ["I did not say Bill stole your car"]; try repeating the sentence, each time with emphasis on a different word. The current research into the use of e-mails (as mentioned in the *Psychology in Practice* book) along with other communication channels provides a useful introduction to burnout and stress. Networks can be demonstrated using incomplete messages on bits of paper, with say 4 different bits of paper needed to make sense. However, it is time consuming especially with some networks, which is the outcome you want.

Motivation in the work-place can be a highly motivating topic! The many theories are relatively easy to understand, and the one everyone seems to know, i.e. Maslow, is excellent to use as a general motivation theory but without much empirical support in work-place motivation. Get your candidates to try to work out a way the hierarchy of needs could be measured. Goal setting has the most positive research allied to the work-place. A simple exercise is for the candidates to write a paragraph on setting goals they want to accomplish in the next few years, and once set, how they plan to reach the goals. So for example, if the goal is getting a job that pays £50,000 a year, they need to write what they are going to do that will achieve the goal, and what help is needed on the way.

Work stress is something candidates will relate to already, and candidates can suggest many potential causes. The effects can link in nicely with some work on the Type A personality. Methods of measuring job satisfaction have been interesting - try the smiley face approach (Kunin, 1955). Do candidates feel patronised? How is the 'face' validity of this approach? How else could it be measured?

The final section of the syllabus can also be interesting to candidates. Work environments have a lot of research related to them, from ergonomics to colour psychology, from personal space to territorial ownership. Consider employees working in shops with 'muzak'. Temporal conditions also have a lot of research related to the types of temporal working and work output/stress etc., hence from the negative effects, candidates seem to be able to see how to overcome these effects easily.

Psychology and organisations can also provide some useful sources of practical work for paper 2543, especially for those working part-time in organisations. Although following strict ethical guidelines especially when considering anything with customers, there are aspects they can consider – especially if they have a friendly manager. The various texts indicated at the start of this section show much of the questionnaire, observation and interview work that goes on in the workplace. This can be reduced down in scale to provide some interesting and unique pieces of practical work.

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9 Psychology and Environment (2547)

This option considers how individuals interact with their environment and how the environment can affect or influence their behaviour. The areas covered are aspects or effects of the environment that candidates will experience themselves in everyday life or are topics they see in the media that affect other people in other parts of the world. This makes it a good choice for internet searches for some of the topic areas (e.g. natural disasters and technological catastrophe, architecture and behaviour)

As with other Specialist Choice options, there are no prescribed studies, candidates may select any relevant research, theories, models for each of the eight topic areas.

Which Textbooks to Use?

There are various textbooks available to candidates and to teachers.

The following are comprehensive textbooks with detailed information on environmental topics and will tend to be used mainly by teachers or very able candidates.

Bell P. A., Greene T. C., Fisher J. D., Baum A. (2001) Environmental Psychology, (5th ed.) Harcourt College Publishers, (0-15-508064-4).

Cassidy T (1997) Environmental Psychology – Behaviour and Experience in Context, Psychology Press (0-86377-481-4).

Gifford R (1997) Environmental Psychology, (2nd ed.) Allyn & Bacon (0-13-2822351-9).

Veitch R & Arkkelin D (1995) Environmental Psychology, Prentice-Hall (0-13-2822351-9).

Bonnes M. & Secchiaroli G (1995) Environmental Psychology, Sage (0-8039-7906-1).

The following paperback books are candidate-friendly and are reasonably priced for purchase by candidates.

Cave S. (1998) Applying Psychology to the Environment, Hodder & Stoughton (0-340-64757-4).

Oliver K. (2002) Psychology in Practice – Environment, Hodder & Stoughton (0-340-84495-7).

Roberts C., Russell J. (2002) Angles on Environmental Psychology, Nelson Thornes (0-7487-5978-6).

What to Teach?

The content of the Environment option is listed on page 39 of the specification. There are eight topics and they may be covered in any order. Each of the eight topic areas has three 'bullet points' relating to the topic and the candidates should cover all of these bullet points when studying the topic.

So, for example the first topic area is 'Environment stress, noise'.

<div style="border:1px solid black; padding:10px;">

a)   **Environment stress, noise:**
- (i)   definitions and sources;
- (ii)   negative effects on performance, social behaviour and health;
- (iii)   positive uses of sound (music)

</div>

Candidates must consider research into the negative effects of noise on performance **and** social behaviour **and** health – as well as how sound can be used positively.

In the examinations, candidates are required to answer two questions, one from Section A (from a choice of two) and one from Section B (from a choice of two). Here are typical examples of the two types of question, taken from recent examinations.

<div style="border:1px solid black; padding:10px;">

Section A

- a)   Describe **one** study relating to the positive use of sound   (6marks)
- b)   Discuss the difficulties of investigating the positive use of sound
                                             (10 marks)

     Total 16 marks   (June 2004)

Section B

- a)   Describe what psychologists have found out about the effects of climate and weather   (10 marks)
- b)   Evaluate what psychologists have found out about the effects of climate and weather   (16 marks)
- c)   Using psychological evidence, suggest a way of overcoming the effects of climate and weather on health. Using your knowledge of psychology, give reasons for your answer.   (8 marks)

     Total 34 marks   (January 2004)

</div>

Section B (part a) questions will focus on the general topic heading, in this case 'Climate and Weather' or will cover at least two of the bullet points and candidates should describe evidence of their choice from this topic area. **Section A** (part a) questions are more specific and will focus on one part of a bullet point – for example 'negative effects on performance' or, in the example above – 'positive uses of sound'. Therefore, if candidates cover all aspects of the bullet points, they should be able to answer a more specific Section A (part a) question and can use the same evidence for a Section B (part a) more general type question.

How to Introduce a Topic Area

Often a useful way to introduce a new topic is to begin with a Section B (part c) question from a recent past paper and ask candidates, individually or in groups to offer suggestions to answer the question. This often raises issues or ideas relevant to the topic under discussion. When they have completed the topic, they can revisit the question and see if they would then answer it differently. The Section B (part c) question is often taken from the third 'bullet point' in the explanation of the topic.

So for example, in the topic Density and Crowding,

---

a) **Density and crowding:**
  (i)   definitions, measurements and animal studies;
  (ii)   effects on human health, social behaviour and performance;
  (iii) preventing and coping with effects of crowding.

For the third bullet point, 'preventing and coping with effects of crowding, a typical question has been,

> *Your school or college has been awarded a grant for a new common room. At certain times of the day this is likely to become very crowded. Using psychological evidence, suggest ways to reduce the impact of crowding. Give reasons for your answer. (June 2003)*

Similarly, in the topic Crowds/Collective Behaviour,

---

b) **Crowds/collective behaviour:**
  (i)   definitions and types of crowds;
  (ii)   crowd behaviour; crowds in emergency situations;
  (iii) controlling crowds and preventing problems.

A typical question might be,

> *You have been asked to take charge of safety at a large outdoor music festival this summer. Using your psychological knowledge, suggest how to control the crowd in order to prevent problems. Give reasons for your answer. (January 2003)*

It is helpful if candidates begin by defining the topic area, for example differentiating between 'density' and 'crowding' or between 'climate' and 'weather' – they could either come up with their own definitions or search text books for a succinct definition.

There are a number of theories which can be applied to environment and it is useful to teach these at the beginning of the course and then candidates can be encouraged to apply these theories to relevant topics.

The environmental option tends to be more methodologically based than other Specialist Choice options. Therefore, another valuable exercise to carry out (individually or in groups) when introducing a new topic is to look at how the subject matter could be measured. Candidates can consider any problems or advantages with the different methods they suggest. This should ensure that even less able candidates are able to discuss relevant methodological and other evaluation issues, when they come to examine specific research within that topic.

Here is an example of how to introduce the topic Environmental Disaster and Technological Catastrophe.

Candidate Activity:
Environmental Disaster and Technological Catastrophe

(i)   Definitions, characteristics and causes;
(ii)   Examples of, behaviours during, and effects on individuals;
(iii)   Psychological intervention before and after events.

_____

Activity

In small groups of 3-4 – you are all psychologists who have just been sent in to help after either:-

recent floodings in your area / an earthquake / a volcanic eruption / a hurricane   (<u>natural disasters</u>)

a train crash / Zeebrugge ferry disaster / Chernobyl nuclear disaster
                                (<u>technological catastrophe</u>)

Think about

- How would these people be feeling at the time of the disaster/catastrophe?
- How might these people be feeling just after it?
- Would everyone react in the same way? How might they differ?
- How can you help them now?
- What could have been done beforehand to make things easier for them now?
- Would it make a difference if the problem was:-
  totally unexpected (e.g. flooding where there had never been any flooding in the past) or
  a possibility (e.g. earthquake in a country where earthquakes were common) or if there had been a warning beforehand?

In your discussion did you mention all these points listed below. If there are any you are not sure of, look them up in your text book and make a note about them below. In your exam you will gain marks for good use of psychological terms.

Social support

Post traumatic stress disorder

Survivor guilt

Personality/individual differences

Past experience

Locus of control

Learned helplessness

Social cohesiveness

Self efficacy

Antisocial behaviour, e.g. looting

Now think about how you could measure the effects of this disaster on an individual

What issues might be relevant here?

Ideas for Coursework from the Environment Option

Personal space and territory

- observation of personal space invasion in a nightclub/refectory/library

- questionnaire on effects of personal space invasion on an individual (e.g. in different settings or invasion by same/opposite gender etc.)

Environmental stress, noise

- questionnaire on how participants are affected by noise

- experiment on learning word lists (or some other memory or performance measure) to different types of music or music compared to silence or on the Mozart effect

Climate and weather

- mood ratings on sunny/rainy days

- questionnaire on behaviour or feelings during different weather/temperature/seasons

Environmental cognition

- comparison of maps drawn by old/young, male/female, types of errors found in cognitive maps

Density and crowding

- correlation between self-rating for stress levels and density of classroom or rectory

Candidates should:

- be able to describe and evaluate the areas below in the light of psychological theories, studies and evidence.

- always seek to apply psychological methods, perspectives and issues.

- actively seek to apply theory and evidence to the improvement of real-life events and situations.

- explore social, moral, cultural and spiritual issues where applicable.

- consider ways in which the core areas of psychology (cognitive psychology, developmental psychology, physiological psychology, social psychology and the psychology of individual differences), studied in the AS course, can inform our understanding of psychology and the environments.

a)   Environmental stress, noise:

(i)   definitions and sources;

(ii)   negative effects on performance, social behaviour and health;

(iii)   positive uses of sound (music).

b)   Climate and weather:

(i)   definitions, types climatological determinism;

(ii)   effects on performance and social behaviour (one aspect of climate/weather only);

(iii)   effects on health such as seasonal affective disorder.

c)   Density and crowding:

(i)   definitions, measurements and animals studies;

(ii)   effects on human health, social behaviour and performance;

(iii)   preventing and coping with effects of crowding.

d)   Crowds/collective behaviour:

(i)   definitions and types of crowds;

(ii)   crowd behaviour; crowds in emergency situations;

(iii)   controlling crowds and preventing problems.

e)   Environmental disaster and technological catastrophe:

(i)   definitions, characteristics and causes;

(ii)   examples of, behaviours during, and effects on individuals;

(iii)   psychological intervention before and after events.

f) **Personal space and territory:**

    (i)   definitions, types and measures;

    (ii)   effects and consequences of invasion;

    (iii)   defending territory and space.

g) **Architecture and behaviour: housing design and urban renewal:**

    (i)   theories and effects of urban living on health and social behaviour;

    (ii)   urban renewal and building design;

    (iii)   community environmental design.

h) **Environmental cognition:**

    (i)   definitions, measures, errors and individual differences in cognitive maps;

    (ii)   designing better maps; way finding;

    (iii)   the scenic environment.

10   Psychology and Sport (2548)

Sports Psychology - An Introduction

- People who are interested in sport will all have an opinion about aspects of sports, sometimes verging on the psychological.

- Fans may not be conversant in the psychological shortcomings of a performance, or wish to comment on the biomechanics of the situation, but they will all have a view on the psychology. He has lost confidence since his injury', 'He just wasn't at the races today', 'I reckon she could play at a higher level', 'We're really psyched up for this one'.

Sports Psychology gives us certain tools to understand the behaviour and performance levels of sports practitioners, and the principles which inform this understanding. Sports Psychologists can teach these principles to athletes and coaches. This helps athletes develop the psychological skills for performance enhancement. More broadly, all people, young and old, who enjoy a sporting activity at whatever level, can use Sports Psychology as a vehicle for improving the quality of their life.

Psychology and Sport - OCR Psychology A Level

There are 8 areas of Sports Psychology dealt with under this area. As with the other option choices on the OCR specification, the content is really a vehicle for developing generic skills necessary for A level Psychology.

In the following table, I have attempted to indicate a possible teaching approach for the content of the 24 subsections of the specification. I have left these as no more than notable ideas so as to avoid being prescriptive. They are intended to provoke ideas which teachers may use to develop their own lessons in their own styles. This will help with the "knowledge and understanding" part of the specification. I have also identified possible issues which could be raised, to address the "evaluation" part of the specification. Again, this must not be seen as prescriptive. In reality, most evaluation issues can be applied to most content areas, but I have made suggestions that I feel may lend themselves more easily to a particular area, as well as providing a broad range of suggestions.

A good "knowledge" answer (Section A, part a; section B, part a) will include identification and description of relevant material, addressing the question and demonstrating understanding beyond churning out a 'Blue Peter' answer (i.e. one I prepared earlier).

A good "evaluation" answer (Section A, part b; section B, part b) will identify relevant issues and relate them to the question, exemplify those issues, analyse maybe by comparing exemplifications and structure an effective argument.

Section	Sub-section	Activity	Possible evaluation issues refers to whole section
Personality	Theories Measures P. and sport performance	Class booklet TAT/inkblots Handout (Cox)	Validity and reliability Ecological validity Reductionism
Aggression	Defns., types & measures Theories Reduction and control	Sport and non sport ref: Gross Reduction studies + above	Validity and reliability Nature-nurture Ethnocentrism Ethics
Motivation and self confidence	Defns. and models – mot Models of SC Improving M+SC	Trad Ψ, used for Ψ, sports Ψ Handout (Cox) refer above	Usefulness Ethnocentrism Ecological validity Generalisability (samples)
Arousal and anxiety	Theories of arousal Anxiety: types + measures Reducing and optimising	Handouts (Cox) " "	Ecological validity Validity and reliability Limited sample
Attitudes to exercise and sport	Attribution Ex., health + mental health Burnout and withdrawal	ref: Cardwell Teacher, Woods + Health Ed. Auth	Validity Usefulness Individual differences
Social influence	Group cohesion Audience effect Home advantage	ref: Zajonc's cockroaches ref: Woods and Cox "	Extrapolation Ethnocentrism Generalisability
Leadership and coaching	Theories Leadership and coaching Coach-performer compatibility	ref: Gross + Woods " "	Nature-nurture Usefulness Methodology (e.g. sampling)
Attention and imagery	Defns. + types of attn + imagery Attn-measures, styles, strategies Imagery and mental practice	ref: Gross + Woods ref: Woods ref: Gross, Woods + Cox	Ecological validity Generalisability Usefulness

11   Psychology and Crime (2549)

This is one of the most popular A2 options and attracts candidates because of the high profile that crime has in our society and the exciting and sometimes glamorous portrayal of the psychological profiler who magically solves an intractable crime when it seems impossible. Candidates are genuinely interested in the lives and thought processes of criminals especially the gruesome serial killer.

This interest is, on the one hand, a great advantage because many wish to contribute their experiences and opinions. On the other hand, it is all too easy to deviate into non-psychological territory and sadly, the examination room is no exception. Another issue is the use of sociological explanations in psychological essays which sometimes completely cross the grey area between the two subjects frequently taught by the same person. The skill of teaching this option is to keep the interest but harness it by teaching a structure right from the beginning.

An example:

You might be having a discussion on victims of crime. There are usually a few who have been burgled or robbed. (Make sure to immediately stop discussion of anything too personal.) You would probably ask them how they felt, what they did, when they reported it, how has it changed or affected them in the long term. These questions can then be developed by saying "What would a psychologist call that?" "How would a psychologist explain that?" Basically you are trying to get them to think like psychologists before they come to write anything. If they are sociologists as well it should probably go one stage further to "In what way is the sociological explanation of this crime different from the psychological?" There are some areas of common ground but, in some cases, candidates have offered explanations in the exam based on political ideology and social policy which could only be relevant as context and will not gain maximum marks in a psychology exam.

The other great problem with crime is the sheer quantity of material which is out there and how to keep it reasonable.

The Chief Examiner's suggestion is to use basic nuggets of information which can be used throughout the unit and limit the quantity of material to learn. This works well and could be taught before starting crime proper perhaps at the end of the summer term. Once the material becomes familiar, it gives confidence to candidates and at least you know they will be using some psychology in the exam!

Here are some of the most useful:

- Attribution theory, locus of control, actor observer effect, the fundamental attribution error, and the 'just world hypothesis';

- Rosenthal, Hawthorne and Barnum effects;

- Classical and Operant conditioning;

- Social learning theory;

- Self-esteem;

- Deindividuation;

- Pathology of power;

- PTSD;

- Reliability and Validity of all kinds related to all types of methodology;

- Advantages and disadvantages of different types of samples;

- Freudian defence mechanisms and Oedipus complex.

In addition to using the above, candidates should:

- be able to describe and evaluate the areas below in the light of psychological theories, studies and evidence;

- always seek to apply psychological methods , perspectives and issues;

- actively seek to apply theory and evidence to the improvement of real-life events and situations;

- explore social, moral, cultural and spiritual issues where applicable;

- consider ways in which the core areas of psychology (cognitive psychology, developmental psychology, physiological psychology, social psychology and the psychology of individual differences), studied in the AS course, can inform our understanding of psychology and crime.

Content

a) **Explanations of criminal behaviour:**

    (i)   theories of criminal behaviour;

    (ii)   individual and cultural differences in criminal behaviour;

    (iii)   social psychology of the criminal.

b) **Criminal thinking patterns:**

    (i)   morality and crime;

    (ii)   social cognition and crime;

    (iii)   rationality and choice.

(c) **Crime-victim interaction:**

    (i)   who are victims; fear of crime;

    (ii)   victim responses;

    (iii)   crime reporting and intervention.

(d)   Offender profiling:

    (i)   definitions, approaches and developing a profile;

    (ii)   biases and pitfalls in profiling;

    (iii)   applied profiling (one case study only).

(e)   The police and crime:

    (i)   policing; the police personality;

    (ii)   determining and processing suspects;

    (iii)   interviewing and negotiation techniques.

(f)   Psychology of testimony:

    (i)   cognitive processes and testimony;

    (ii)   variables influencing accurate identification of suspect/event;

    (iii)   aids to recall/recognition: identikit and identity parades.

(g)   Psychology of the courtroom:

    (i)   trial procedures and persuasion techniques;

    (ii)   jury selection and decision-making;

    (iii)   children as witnesses.

(h) Offender punishments and treatments and preventing crime:

    (i)   types and effectiveness of punishments;

    (ii)   offender treatment programmes;

    (iii)   environmental crime prevention.

Candidate Activity: Psychology of Crime

'The sad but highly educational story of Tracy and Phil, two lifetime criminals born in the late 1980s'.

In Chapter 1 try to find all the psychological explanations of crime.
There are 15! Write them in the space at the side

Chapter 1 Criminal Beginnings	
Tracy is 15 years old and the girlfriend of Phil a 17 year old. They met while at school. Over the last few years they have been cautioned by the police for such petty crimes as shoplifting and vandalism. Tracy however has started to get into more serious crimes to feed her newly acquired drug habit. Tracy's mum had her at the age of 15 and since then she has had lots of boyfriends and 5 more children. Tracy's father is now in jail for dealing and handling stolen goods. Like her mother before her Tracy is a heavy smoker. Tracy's mum could not even give up when she was pregnant. She says she needs the cigarettes to help her cope. There have been a number of occasions when Tracy has witnessed one of her mother's boyfriends beat her mother and she is afraid that he might attack her too. However she is more wary of the latest partner who has sexually abused her without her mother's knowledge. Phil's mother had a tough upbringing spending time in care and now turns increasingly to alcohol to help her forget her problems. She did not take proper care of herself when she was expecting Phil and he was born with webbed fingers and toes and now appears swarthy with a big jaw. He also has an extra Y chromosome and has been using a lot of body-building steroids to further increase his musculature to impress Tracy.	

To add to his troubles, Phil was shaken repeatedly by his mother when he was a baby when he wouldn't settle. Phil doesn't know who his father is having been brought up solely by his mother,

Tracy and Phil live in a caravan near a chemical disposal plant which is suspected by local people of leaking chemicals in the groundwater and through its old chimney. They both left school with no qualifications having repeatedly truanted and found school boring. Tracy finds reading and writing especially difficult which has meant school was a challenge for her. Phil always found it hard to sit still and concentrate on one topic and this meant that he was always in trouble with teachers.

With this set of circumstances behind them, it was not surprising that the two teenagers embraced a life of crime which they found exciting and lucrative and in which they were unlikely to get caught. Then one day they decided to try something new and break into a car to strip out the stereo. What they didn't realise is that they were being recorded on a CCTV camera. So while enjoying the rewards from selling the stolen stereo there was a knock on the door….

Chapter 2 – Down at the police station

Tracy and Phil were arrested on suspicion of breaking into a vehicle with the intent to steal the stereo and they were taken to the police station. They were read their rights and taken separately to the police station. The first person to meet them there was the custody sergeant who took away and recorded all their possession, their belts and shoe laces and informed them that they had three rights. They were then put into a cell while the police waited for the duty solicitor. Tracy was only 15 so was entitled to have a parent called but things were different for Phil.

Write the answers to the questions below on a sheet of paper.

1. What were the three rights?

Two hours later, the solicitor arrived and the interviews began. The police wanted a confession from the two suspects and tried various interview tactics to get them to admit the truth. Phil was angry and refused to be cooperative and Tracy decided to say nothing at all. This meant that the police had to seek other evidence and so the two were released on police bail to reappear in two weeks time. They had been in the police station for 3 hours in total and this was important for the police to know. The police detective who conducted the interview noted Phil's shaven head and pierced lips and tongue and the aggressive tattoos emblazoned in both his forearms. His questions were often objected to by the duty solicitor.	**2. Why the difference?** **3. What interview methods could be used?** **4. Why was this important?**
Two weeks later the police tracked down the receiver of the stolen stereo who agreed to testify against the pair in order to get a lesser sentence himself. They were therefore ready to mount a case against Tracy and Phil. After a second interview lasting another hour, they were remanded to appear at the magistrates' court in three weeks time to face charges.	**5. What might the policeman be guilty of?**
Chapter 3 The courts	**6. Why did they dress up?**
On the appointed day, Tracy and Phil suitably dressed for the occasion, turned up to face the magistrates who asked them whether they were pleading guilty or not-guilty to the charge. They both replied not-guilty and what's more demanded that their case go before a jury. The magistrates felt that this was a complete waste of taxpayer's money but had no option but to agree. They did point out to the pair though that should the case go against them, then the county court had greater powers and could give a harsher sentence. The case was the put on the listings until a time slot was available and the two were again released on bail. Some months later, the case came up once	**7. Why did they want a jury?** **8. What is the difference in power between magistrates and county courts?**

again and they dressed smartly and appeared in the dock of the county court.	
The prosecution opened the case and said that they had two witnesses to the theft plus the video evidence that would convince the jury of their guilt.	**9. What can you say about the eye witness testimony?**
Their defence was that they were forced to steal the stereo by another person who was controlling Tracy's drug supply. By now she was heavily in debt to this guy and he was threatening her with violence unless she produced the money quickly. They would not name the dealer because the consequences of doing that were far greater than facing a prison sentence.	**10. What has been discovered about ear witness testimony?**
The jury of 7 females and 5 males listened impassively to this.	**11. How can a child be helped to give accurate testimony?**
The case continued with the calling of the first witness, an elderly lady with poor eyesight but with especially good hearing. She was certain that she had heard the two discussing the possibility of breaking into that car while she was weeding her garden out of sight behind a wall. The second witness was a young child, who gave her evidence from behind a screen. She had been playing outside her house when the break in occurred and the two teenagers had paid her no attention figuring that she was no real risk to them. Tracy and Phil had no convincing reasons for why they should have entered the car and the case was over quickly with jury taking no more than an hour to reach a guilty verdict for both of them.	**12. Was this the right sentence? Is it likely to work?**
The judge decided that Phil should do 120 hours community service with a asocial skills training course and Tracy should go into a drug rehabilitation program with her sentence of three months suspended for two years.	

Exemplar Essay (2549)

Exemplar Essay on Profiling (approximately 1000 words and written under exam conditions)

a)   **Consider psychological studies of offender profiling. (10)**

b)   **Evaluate psychological studies of offender profiling. (16)**

c)   **Suggest what the aims of offender profiling should be. Give reasons for your answer.**

a)   One study of profiling which has been widely reported is the American FBI study conducted by Hazelwood into profiling serial sex orientated murders. He interviewed 36 convicted prisoners and from the interviews decided that these murderers could be categorised as organised or disorganised and furthermore their crime scenes could be categorised in the same way. This led to the development of typologies for different offences including murder, rape and telephone stalking and to the American approach being described as 'Top-down'. This concept means that there are sufficient similarities in the behaviour of murderers and will fit into a typology called 'organised'.

Another study of profiling was carried out in order to find out how satisfied the police were with profiling. It was carried out by Copson in 1996 and was dubbed 'The Coals to Newcastle study'. Copson's method was to use a questionnaire to find out police attitudes. His sample was made up of police officers who had used profilers. His results showed a disappointing picture for offender profiles in actually catching offenders (3%) but overall the police were happy that the profiles helped them to be more thoughtful and structure their investigation. The profiles were seen as helping and worth the time and effort.

Finally, there have been studies of the British approach to profiling which is sometimes called statistical profiling and which was developed by David Canter. His approach is described as 'Bottom-up' because he builds his profile uniquely for each case from a close analysis of the crime scene and then making statistical correlations with information kept on the police database which then narrows down a list of suspects. The most famous study of effectiveness of this method is the case study of John Duffy, the railway rapist. When Duffy was caught he was found to closely match the profile created by Canter. The profile had allowed the police to move him from 1505th on the list of suspects right to the top. Surveillance was then mounted and he was caught.

b) The first issue to consider when evaluating studies of profiling is the **methodology** used. Hazelwood interviewed a small sample of a rare criminal group and only those who had been caught. It is very unlikely that this sample as well as being unrepresentative of the majority of murderers were unlikely to be completely honest to the FBI. They are very manipulative and are highly likely to give socially desirable answers. This means that this study is unreliable and lacking validity.

Copson's study used questionnaires and had a reasonable response rate over 80% and it is likely that the police would have given more open and honest answers to an anonymous questionnaire than a direct interview. The sample was representative and we can be reasonably confident that the questionnaire is giving a valid picture of what police really think. However, if repeated, it might be heavily influenced by the success or otherwise of recent high profile cases. The case study of John Duffy is bound to be unrepresentative of all rapists as it is the study of one individual. However, the method allowed for a very detailed examination of how accurate the profile had been in this one case. It has been used to provide support for Canter's Circle Theory of Crime which has been further supported by other case studies.

Another issue with which to evaluate these case studies is their **usefulness**. Both the American and British approach have their supporters and the Copson study with other similar satisfaction studies have generally agreed that profiling s useful even though it may not lead to the conviction of the offender in ever case. (Douglas 1981, Britton 1992)

A third issue is the **validity** of the approach. The typology method has been used with several other crimes and is used by police forces in the UK as well as the USA. It has the strength of being easy to teach in training and can be applied by any investigator. However its weakness is that it relies on the police databases being very accurate and we know from studies of Eye-witness testimony that this is often not the case. It is also harder to train someone to use.

c) Holmes and Holmes (1996) suggested that the three goals of profiling should be social and psychological assessments, psychological evaluation of belongings and interviewing suggestions and strategies. These three goals would be worked on by examining the crime scene and making logical deductions about the evidence to create a behavioural profile. Support for this idea comes from Canter who believes that an offender carries their usual behavioural characteristics into the crime scene therefore there will be clues to the offender by the way he or she has acted at the scene.

However the more educated and clever the criminal, the less they are likely to leave traces at a crime scene, meaning that those committing passionate crimes in the heat of the moment are going to be easier to profile. Another difficulty is that in some crimes there is no presence at the scene such as the Anthrax killer in America in 2001. This means that profiling is unlikely to help.

The third goal of profiling which is to help in interviewing strategies is supported by Holmes and Holmes (1996). They found that using a profiler helped to get enough damaging information from their suspect who had been described by the profiler as being someone who needed to feel in control and suggested that it would be a good idea to ask him for help in solving the death of his step-daughter.

Copson and others have shown that even though profiles do not often catch the criminal, they are very useful in directing the investigation.
In this section, candidates find it hard to remember to include their psychology. They can make pragmatic suggestions of their own making but would then need to evaluate their usefulness. Even so, they will not move into top band without the psychological evidence. This section should also relate to the previous ones in its use of evidence.

Suggested Activities and Resources for Teaching the Psychology of crime

a)   **Explanations of criminal behaviour:**

   i)   Theories of criminal behaviour

Create a comparative visual display of the various theories which have quite good illustrations with high impact such as Phineas Gage and scans for Raine, Lombroso etc. which you can use throughout the term to point out flaws in method and other weaknesses. Laminate the material for extra impact.

   ii)   Individual and cultural differences in criminal behaviour

A research activity works well here. Divide the class into groups and get them to find evidence of age, gender, cultural, and mental illnesses from media and official government sources on line. Pool the data and then go to the explanations in the textbooks.

   iii)   Social psychology of the criminal

Get a copy of your local crime figures as published by your police force. Get candidates to map statistics onto a map of your local area and see if the research is supported. Lead to a discussion.

b)   **Criminal thinking patterns:**

   i)   Morality and crime

Write some moral dilemmas which are appropriate to your class and then pass around groups and get written answers. Then try to apply Kohlberg's stages. Even though this is difficult, it will make the point about the subjective nature of his method and if one of your dilemmas is like Heinz and unlikely to happen to them, it makes the point about socially desirable answers and a lack of validity.

   ii)   Social cognition and crime

Find a questionnaire on locus of control on line at the link below and et candidates to complete. http://www.psych.uncc.edu/pagoolka/LocusofControl-intro.html

Then relate to Rotter.

   iii)   Rationality and choice

Rettig (1966) gave candidates a hypothetical scenario describing an opportunity to commit a crime. He found that out of all factors it was the degree of punishment that had the most effect on their decision to commit the crime. Replicate this study and see if your candidates are the same.

c)   Crime – victim interaction:

i)   Who are victims; fear of crime

Get the class to bring in a selection of newspapers. Find a common story and compare how it has been presented. Discuss the implications for fear of crime.

ii)   Victim Response

Find some accounts of victim's responses to crime and use to apply psychological concepts rather like the assignments requires them to do.

iii)   Crime reporting and intervention

Get an abbreviated copy of the British Crime Survey from http://www/statistics.gov.uk/StatBase/Source.asp?vlnk=1397&More=Y

This is really clear and is a very useful basis for evaluation.

National Police Crime statistics can be obtained in an accessible form from a quality newspaper website.

d)   Offender profiling:

i)   Definitions, approaches and developing a profile

Profiles can be obtained from the FBI and other American websites. Write a series of cue questions based on the profile and then give the candidates the case history without the profile. Using your cues they try to create a profile. At the end of this you will usually find that their common sense is very similar to the professional profile and so you can get them to evaluate the whole idea. I have used the Anthrax Killer following 9/11 and now the Collar Bomber which was recently followed up in the Independent and is still unsolved. Putting the name into a search engine should find a profile.

ii)   Biases and pitfalls in profiling

Peter Ainsworth's book on offender profiling is the best source for this and the good book on profiling generally. Candidates need to be aware of how the history and background of the profiler influences the way they think about a profile. Canter is very scientific and statistically orientated. Britton comes at cases from his psychiatric perspective. This will create a kind of bias in their thinking.

iii)   Applied profiling (one case study only)

John Duffy is the easiest for this and is well covered in Diana Dwyer's Angles book.

e)   **The police and crime**

   i)   Policing; the police personality;

   ii)   Determining and processing suspects;

   iii)   Interviewing and negotiation techniques.

Visit your local police custody suite.

Contact your local police liaison/education officer and explain that you would like some input on the police interview and for candidates to be talked through the arrest and interview procedure. Some police stations are quiet enough to have you visit, alternatively; the police officer will come and talk to you. You can also ask him or her if s/he agrees with the police personality research. I have given our officer copies of the past exam questions in this area and he has become very interested in what we do.

f)   **Psychology of testimony**

   i)   Cognitive processes and testimony;

Re enact Bartlett's war of the ghosts' story which is in every major psychology textbook. Send all bar 3 or 4 candidates out of the room. Read the story to the remainder. They then have to recount to the next 3 or 4 and so on until the last candidates are back in. The last candidates write down the story and then you draw attention to the issues raised and relate to reconstructive memory.

   ii)   Variables influencing accurate identification of suspect/event;

Watch a video of a 'Crime Watch' incident and then give out questions including leading questions. Ideally the clip should contain a weapon so that you can do 'weapon focus' effects.

   iii)   Aids to recall/recognition: identikit and identity parades.

Why not stage an ID parade. Get another member of staff to send a candidate from another year group into your lesson on some pretext. At a convenient later time get him or her back with a set of 'foils' and test your class. They will usually find it really difficult. Alternatively, use the eye witness testimony video produced by Halovine.

g)   **Psychology of the courtroom**

If you can and numbers are not great, consider a courtroom visit to you local crown court. The court listing officer will help you to book a visit. Most courtrooms take a maximum of 15 in the gallery so classes could spread out over two or three rooms and go twice in one week. If this is not possible, there are virtual tours of Courts which you can access online (e.g. Southampton Crown Court) which are quite fun. The BBC website is also excellent for the structure of the British Justice System and some gruesome case studies. (There is a warning)

   i)   Trial procedures and persuasion techniques

http://lexisone.com/index for excellent article on the psychology of storytelling in the courtroom by Joni Johnson.

ii)   Jury selection and decision-making

There is an excellent activity in Diana Dwyer's 'Angles of Crime' book which can be typed up and used as a group activity. It uses the same scenario as Pennington and Haiste. We do it as a comparison of the size of the jury with some groups of three, six and twelve. The small group will reach a verdict first and can then be out with another group of differing opinion. Allow plenty of time!

iii)   Children as witnesses

Candidates can use the Gary Sturt free on-line site for much research on this. Get them to choose 3 or 4 studies which all use different methods. Evaluate these methods in the context of the difficulty of doing ethical research in such a sensitive area.

If you do a courtroom visit, you will be able to see the video link system.

h)   Offender punishments and treatments and preventing crime

i)   Types and effectiveness of punishments;

A link to British Sentencing guidelines can be found on

http://www.justice.org.uk/images/pdfs/cjbsentencing.pdf

http://www.homeoffice.gov.uk/docs/frame12.html

In groups get candidates to research different punishments and find out their effectiveness and compile.

ii)   Offender treatment programmes

To research this topic, the key words in your search should be 'what works offender treatment programs' this should give you lots of research material. The probation service procedures statistics on the following link:
http://www.probation.homeoffice.gov.uk/files/

iii)   Environmental crime prevention

Lots of good links on this site: http://www.crimereduction.gov.uk/ Why not have a design out crime competition after looking at:
http://www.shu.ac.uk/schools/cs/cri/adrc/dac/home.html

Other possibilities are a talk from the police on crime prevention measures. Some forces have an environmental crime prevention person who works with lanners and architects designing out crime who may be willing to come and do a talk.