GCSE REVISION BOOKLET

GCSE Psychology

Revision booklet

Unit 1: (Making sense of other people – Memory, Non-verbal communication, Development of personality, Stereotyping, prejudice and discrimination, Research methods).

Unit 2: (Understanding other people – Learning, social influence, Sex and Gender, Aggression, Research Methods).

Time allocation: Think in terms of 'a mark per minute' – the exams are 90 minutes long and worth 80 marks, so if you work on the basis of 15 minutes for the first four sections and 20 minutes on research methods you will have 10 minutes for checking.

Read the questions very carefully: Make sure you know what you are being asked to do.
If you are asked to describe a study with the instruction to use continuous prose, make sure you DO NOT use side-headings. Instead write in sentences and paragraphs.
If asked to evaluate, do not describe.

If the question gives you an article or a piece of conversation and asks questions on it, make sure you refer to the article or conversation throughout.

Questions that start 'From your study of psychology' require you to write about studies or theories you have learned. Do NOT make up 'common sense' reasons from your everyday experience. Use your psychology!

Look at the mark allocation for each question: This gives you are really strong clue as to how much you should write. If a question is only worth 1 mark you should be very brief – if it is worth 4 marks you obviously need to write more.

DO NOT JUST RELY ON THIS BOOKLET – YOU NEED TO USE THIS REVISION BOOKLET ALONGSIDE YOUR CLASS NOTES FOR THE BEST POSSIBLE GRADE.

REVISON CHECKLIST – GCSE Unit 1

Can I….	Revised	Know it
1. RESEARCH METHODS 1		
Formulate hypotheses?		
Define independent and dependent variable and identify them in experiments		
Outline two strengths and two limitations of the experimental method, including ecological validity		
Define what is meant by independent groups, repeated measures and matched pairs design. Explain two strengths and two limitations of each design		
Understand ethical issues as outlined by the British Psychological guidelines - Understand ways of dealing with these issues		
Be able to explain target populations and samples and be able to identify these Define what is meant by random, opportunity, systematic and stratified samples and give strengths and limitations of each**.**		
Explain what is meant by the terms standardised procedures, extraneous variable, random allocation and counterbalancing. Be able to explain how to use all of the above in an experiment.		
Calculate the mean, mode, median and range of a set of data		
Present data in graphs and charts		
2. MEMORY		
Describe the flow of information in memory		
Distinguish between encoding, storage and retrieval		
Describe and draw the multi-store model of memory (MSM) & evaluate the MSM		
Describe and evaluate a study that supports the MSM explanation of memory		
Describe 2 practical applications of MSM and their benefits and drawbacks		
Describe and evaluate the levels of processing (LOP) explanation of memory including the structural, phonetic and semantic levels		
Describe and evaluate a study that supports the LOP explanation of memory.		
Describe 2 practical applications of LOP and their benefits and drawbacks		
Describe and evaluate the reconstructive model of memory		
Describe and evaluate a study that supports the reconstructive model of memory		
Describe 2 practical applications of reconstructive model of memory		
Describe how interference effects memory including the difference between retroactive and proactive interference		
Describe and evaluate a study, such as Schmidt into interference theory and its evaluation		
Describe how context affects memory and describe and evaluate a study such as Godden and Baddeley(1975) and its evaluation		
Describe how brain damage affects memory and a case study such as Miller (1968) and its evaluation.		
Describe practical applications of theories of forgetting including their benefits and drawbacks.		
Identify at least 2 factors that affect eyewitness testimony and the definition of eyewitness testimony.		
Describe at least 2 studies that have investigated factors that affect eyewitness testimony including research by Loftus and Palmer.		
Evaluate at least 2 factors that affect eyewitness testimony		
Describe at least 2 practical applications of factors that affect eyewitness testimony including their applications and benefits.		

3. DEVELOPMENT OF PERSONALITY		
Define personality and temperament		
Describe and evaluate a study of temperament carried out by Thomas		
Describe and evaluate a study of temperament carried by Buss and Plomin		
Define extraversion, introversion and neuroticism		
Describe and evaluate Eysenck's type theory of personality		
Describe the EPI and EPQ personality scales		
Define what is meant by Anti-social Personality Disorder (APD) and identify at least three characteristics of APD		
Describe the biological causes of Antisocial Personality Disorder – and describe and evaluate the study by Raine into biological causes of APD		
Describe the situational causes of Anti-social Personality Disorder – and describe and evaluate the study by Farrington into situational causes of APD		
Describe implications of research into APD		
4. NON VERBAL COMMUNICATION		
Outline the characteristics of verbal communication (including paralinguistics) and non-verbal communication and be able to give examples of each		
Outline at least two studies of verbal communication and assess their strengths and weaknesses		
Describe the functions of eye contact		
Outline at least two studies of nonverbal communication including eye contact and assess their strengths and weaknesses		
Distinguish between categories of facial expression		
Describe the link between facial expressions and the hemispheres of the brain		
Identify practical implications of eye contact and facial expression		
Recognise different types of body language		
Describe and evaluate studies of body language		
Outline at least two studies of body language and assess their strengths and weaknesses		
Describe factors which affect personal space		
Describe and evaluate studies of factors which affect personal space		
Discuss practical implications of eye contact, facial expression and body language		
5. STEREOTYPING, PREJUDICE AND DISCRIMINATION		
Define stereotyping		
Be able to describe studies that show how stereotyping occurs and leads to positive and negative evaluations such as Williams and Best		
Explain at least 2 ways in which research into stereotyping can be applied to everyday situations		
Describe explanations of prejudice and discrimination		
Describe and evaluate the work of Adorno		
Describe and evaluate the work of Tajfel		
Describe studies by Aronson, Sherif, Elliott and Harwood and evaluate these studies		
Describe ways of reducing prejudice and discrimination using evidence from the work of Sherif, Aronson, Elliott and Harwood		
Explain at least 2 ways that research into stereotyping can be applied to everyday situations		

Research methods 1

Aim: one sentence that clearly highlights what the researcher is intending to investigate
Experimental hypothesis: predicts the outcome of research – states there will be a difference between groups/variables.
Null hypothesis: does not predict a difference. 'There will be no difference between…..'

NOTE: when writing a hypothesis, make sure you do this in terms of what is being measured, it MUST be precise. For example, do **NOT** say *'children are more likely to be aggressive when watching an aggressive model compared to watching a non-aggressive model'* – because you have not said how you are measuring aggression.

Independent variable (IV): The experimenter alters or manipulates this

Dependent variable (DV): The experimenter measures this.

Lab experiment: Carried out in very tightly controlled condition.
Advantages: confounding variables can be controlled, allowing conclusions about cause and effect to be made
Disadvantages: The study may lack ecological validity because it does not reflect normal behaviour

Field experiment: Experiments carried out in everyday situations but still with the control of the IV
Advantages: Behaviour in the field is more natural than in a lab so has greater ecological validity
Disadvantages: it is not possible to have control over all variables in the field (i.e. weather)

Natural experiment: studies a natural situation that cannot be manipulated – the IV occurs naturally (i.e. gender)
Advantages: very high ecological validity because it looks at completely natural behaviour
Disadvantages: Cannot draw conclusions about cause and effect because there are too many uncontrolled variables.

Advantages of experiments:
- Can control variables so can identify cause and effect
- The experimenter can be sure there are no other factors affecting the DV
- Can be repeated by other researchers because they are controlled and standardised
- They are objective because experimenter bias is controlled

Disadvantages of experiments:
- Artificial setting that is unrealistic to people's everyday lives – lack ecological validity
- Demand characteristics may exist because participants change their behaviour (please you/screw you)

There are 3 types of experimental design:

Repeated measures: When participants take part in all conditions of the experiment

Advantages: All participants do each activity so you don't have a clever group for example.

Disadvantages: Participants might guess the aim of the study because they do all tasks, they can get bored or better because they have practiced the tasks (because they have repeated them)

Matched pairs: When participants are matched with another group (for IQ or age or gender etc.) and complete only one condition of the experiment.

Advantage: Participants are matched on key variables so you don't end up with a clever group for example

Disadvantage: Matching takes a long time and is difficult

Independent groups: Participants only complete one condition of the experiment

Advantage: There are no order effects and participants are unlikely to guess the aim of the study

Disadvantage: Participants in each group may be very different in terms of ability

Ethics: The British Psychological Society has a list of ethical guidelines that studies and psychologists should follow. These include:

Consent – participants should be told the aim of the research at the start and what they will have to do in the experiment

Deception – participants should not be lied to about what will happen in the experiment

Debriefing – participants should be fully informed at the end of the research about what has happened and offered psychological help if required.

Right to withdraw – participants have the right to withdraw at any time from the research and should be told this at the start, throughout and reminded in the debrief

Confidentiality – participant's details should be stored in a secure location and no details about them should be recorded

Protection from harm – participants should leave the experiment in the same physical and psychological state they entered it in.

Observational research – should only be conducted where participants expect to be observed anyway – not in bathrooms etc.

Sampling: this is about where a psychologist gets their participants from. The target population is the group of people you are interested in, the sample is the small group you look at. There are a number of methods of sampling:

Random: Every member of the target population has an equal chance of being selected – for example by putting all names in a hat.

Advantage: Not biased

Disadvantage: Might not be generalizable (might end up with all males)

Opportunity: Use whoever is available and willing to take part at the time

Advantage: Quick and easy to get participants

Disadvantage: the researcher might only ask women – so get a biased, unrepresentative sample

Systematic: You use a system to select people (for example, every 5th name from a list)

Advantage: Not biased, can be conducted quickly

Disadvantage: Might not be generalizable (might end up with all males)

Stratified: You identify sub-categories in your target population (for example, 50% white British, 20% black, 10% Asian, 10% Australian, 10% mixed race) and then select people in the same proportion for your sample

Advantage: Unbiased, very representative

Disadvantage: Takes a long time to organise sub-groups

Standardised procedures: A set order of carrying out a study, which is applied to all participants taking part.

Random allocation: A procedure for allocating participants into groups, by chance

Counterbalancing: A procedure for evening out the order in which participants complete both conditions of an experiment.

Instructions: The verbal or written information given to participants during the experiment

Extraneous variables (EVs): variables other than the IV that might affect the DV if they are not controlled – for example, the temperature.

Presenting data

Mean: sum of all scores divided by number of scores
Median: middle number in a data set after you have placed them in rank order
Mode: most frequent score
Range: Largest score minus smallest score

If there is one very unusual result this may distort the data – this is called an **anomalous score.** The median or mode will not be affected by this score and so give a fair representation of the results. But, the mean and range will be affected by it – therefore if you have one anomalous result, you are best not to use the mean or range, but instead, use the median.

Tables: used to summarise data
Bar charts: Used to summarise data that are already in separate groups
Line graphs: used to plot data that is continuous, and you want to show a trend.

Example exam questions on Research methods (experiments)

A psychologist conducted an experiment to investigate pupil dilation. His aim was to find out if the pupils of participants' eyes were wider when they looked at a picture of a smiling face or a picture of an angry face. This is what he did:

• He used 10 volunteers to take part in both conditions of his experiment.
• In Condition A, he showed each participant a photograph of a person who was smiling.
• He then used a special camera to measure the width in millimetres of each participant's pupils.
• In Condition B, he showed each participant a photograph of the same person but this time the person had an angry face.
• He then measured the width in millimetres of each participant's pupils again.

1. Write a suitable hypothesis for this experiment (2 marks)

2. a. Identify the independent variable in this research (1 mark)
   b. Identify the dependent variable in this research (1 mark)

3. Read the following statements about experimental designs and decide if they are true or false:

- A disadvantage of a repeated measures design is that participant variables could affect the results. (1 mark)
- A disadvantage of an independent groups design is that more participants are needed than for a repeated measures design. (1 mark)
- A disadvantage of a matched pairs design is that it can be time-consuming. (1 mark)

4. Identify one extraneous variable that the experimenter controlled in this study: (1 mark)

- The person used in the photograph.
- The sex of the participants.
- The width of the participants pupils

5. Identify the sampling method used in this study (1 mark)

6. The results are shown in the table below:

Table showing the width of participants' pupils in millimetres when shown a smiling face and an angry face:

Participant	Condition A (smiling face)	Condition B (angry face)
1	8	5
2	7	4
3	8	3
4	7	4
5	9	4
6	2	5
7	6	4
8	8	3
9	6	5
10	9	3
Total	70	40

a. The mean width of participants pupils in Condition A is: (1 mark)

- 5mm
- 7mm
- 70mm

b. Identify one anomalous result in Condition A and state what effect this has on the mean width of participants' pupils (2 marks)

c. The range in Condition B is: (1 mark)

- 2mm
- 4mm
- 5mm

7. Explain one disadvantage of using the experimental method in psychological research (3 marks)

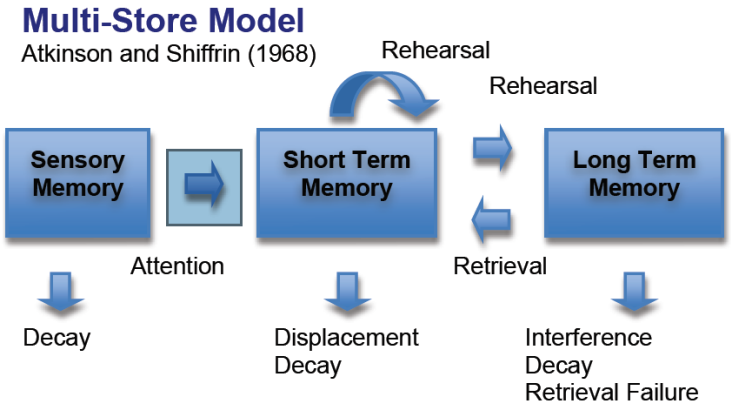
8. a) Identify one ethical issue the psychologist should have considered before conducting his experiment (1 mark)

   b) Outline one way the psychologist could have dealt with the ethical issue you have identified in your answer to 8a (2 marks)

Memory

Encoding: taking in of information from our senses.
Storage: keeping information so that we can use it again if necessary.
Retrieval: taking information from our memory system so that we can use it.

The Multi-store model of memory



Sensory memory takes information from our senses – this information is only taken further if we pay attention to it. If we pay attention it enters our short term memory (STM) this has a limited capacity (around 7 items) and memories last around 15-30 seconds. If we rehearse the information it passes into our long term memory (LTM) – here it can be stored forever and capacity is unlimited.

Evaluation:

- Research from brain damaged patients (see your memory workbook on HM and patients with amnesia) shows that there seems to be separate short and long term stores.
- Murdock (see your memory workbook) showed that short term memory has a limited capacity – and that a serial position curve occurs (where the most recently heard words are recalled last, as they are in STM and the words heard first are recalled last – these are in LTM).
- The multi-store model cannot explain how some information goes right into LTM without it being rehearsed (said over and over again) – such as important and emotional memories.

Reconstructive model of memory

This was proposed by Bartlett – who thought that we might reconstruct what we think we saw to help us remember. Bartlett (1932) proposed that our memory is affected by our attitudes and feelings at the time we processed the information.
Allport and Postman showed participants a picture of a scruffy looking white man holding a razor arguing with a black man in a suit – participants remembered the black man holding the razor – this demonstrates that the participants' memory of the photo was affected by their schemas or stereotypes.

Bartlett also tested reconstructive memory by suing a passage from a Native American story – 'The War of the Ghosts' – after a couple of months the story had completely changed when participants had to retell it – details were changed and the parts about Native American culture were left out so that the story sounded more like an English one. This is likely to be because participants schemas (or ideas) about stories didn't fit in with the story they were told.

Evaluation:

- The theory emphasises the importance of previous knowledge and explains why people from different cultures might remember stories differently.
- The War of the Ghosts study that the theory is based on is confusing
- The theory is important for eyewitness testimony as it tells us why people are not reliable eyewitnesses – we reconstruct our memory for events depending on our stereotypes

Levels of Processing theory

This was proposed by Craik and Lockhart (1974) – they thought that long term memories are recalled differently because of the way they are processed. They proposed 3 levels of processing:
Structural – what does the word look like? Is it in capital letters?
Phonetic – what does the word sound like? Does it rhyme with water?
Semantic – what does the word mean? Does it fit into a sentence?

Craik and Tulving investigated this theory by giving participants a list of words. They were asked if the word was in capital letters, if it rhymed with something else, or if it fit into a sentence. They then had to identify which words they had seen from a big list. Participants were much more able to identify words they had processed semantically than those they had processed structurally.

Evaluation:

- The theory doesn't explain why words processed in a semantic way are more likely to be recalled – it is a descriptive theory (doesn't explain why)
- The studies it is based on may lack ecological validity (just looking at word lists
- It is a helpful theory in telling us how to revise – by looking at information semantically (i.e. making mind maps, writing questions and answers) rather than structurally (just looking at notes)

Forgetting

Interference:

Proactive (when previously learned information interferes with new information)
Retroactive (when new information interferes with something you have already learned)

Schmidt asked participants to recall as many street names and label them on a map from the town they had grown up in. He found that the more the participant had moved house, the less street names they could recall. This is due to retroactive interference – the new street names had interfered with the previously learned information. This study has high ecological validity as it asks participants about 'real' information they already know and is not a list of random words.

Context dependant forgetting:

This theory proposes that we forget because we need cues to help us remember.

Godden and Baddeley gave participants some words to remember – either under the sea or on the beach. They found that participants recalled more words when they were tested in the same environment as they learned them (so they had cues). This experiment lacks ecological validity because it asked participants to learn a list of random words which doesn't reflect information we learn on a daily basis.

Forgetting due to brain damage:

HM was a patient who had brain surgery (on the temporal lobe) to fix his epilepsy. After surgery his short term memory was unaffected (he could still remember 7 items for 15-30 seconds) but he could no longer transfer this information to long term memory (Miller, 1968).

Clive Wearing contracted a virus that damaged his brain (the temporal lobes and hippocampus) – this caused brain damage which meant he was unable to form new memories. He was unable to transfer memories to long term stores and essentially his world restarts every 18 seconds or so.

However, research with HM and Clive Wearing cannot be generalised to the whole population as they are case studies and both had problems with their memory.

Practical applications of forgetting research:

- We know that memory is better if information is recalled in the place it was learnt – this means we may perform better on exams in the classroom rather than an exam room. This is not always possible so instead, we could imagine being in the classroom where we were taught.
- Also, we can make the room where we revise as much like the exam room as possible, such as sitting upright at a desk, quiet environment with no TV, phone or Facebook distractions.

Eye witness testimony

Psychologists are interested in how reliable our memory is – as eyewitnesses might not be able to recall important information from a crime scene.

Loftus and Palmer investigated eyewitness testimony by getting participants to watch a car crash on a video – they were asked questions about the crash and asked to estimate the speed the car was travelling. There were 5 groups of participants – some were asked how fast the cars were travelling when they hit each other, in the remaining groups the word hit was replaced by smashed, collided, bumped and contacted. Participants were also asked a week later if they saw any broken glass during the crash.
It was found that participants who were asked about the cars smashing estimated the speed at almost 10 mph faster than those asked about them contacting. Also, those hearing the word smashed were much more likely to report seeing broken glass. This study demonstrates that the way a question is worded to an eyewitness can affect their recall of an event.

Evaluation:

- Well controlled study, meaning the IV (leading question) affected recall
- Students were used – these may have a better memory so results cannot be generalised
- Study lacks ecological validity – the participants watched the crash on TV so didn't experience the anxiety or shock normally experienced by an eyewitness.

Other factors that can affect eyewitness testimony include: (read about these in your memory workbook)

- Familiarity
- The context the incident takes place

Practical applications of research into eyewitness testimony:

- When talking to witnesses police should avoid using leading questions and adopt a neutral style of questioning.
- When taking part in an identity parade, witnesses should be warned that the offender may or may not be present in the parade, and caution should be used when relying on this testimony – other evidence is needed as well.
- Cognitive interviews have been developed through work on memory – here the witness is interviewed in a similar environment to the crime scene as possible.

Example Exam Questions on Memory

1. Describe what is meant by the term encoding. Use an example in your answer (3 marks)

2. Describe the levels of processing theory of memory (4 marks)

3. Outline how brain damage may affect our memory. You may wish to use case studies in your answer (5 marks)

4. Evaluate the Loftus and Palmer study into leading questions.

Development of Personality

Personality: a relatively stable set of behaviours, thoughts, and feelings that a person shows to others.
Temperament: your natural disposition in terms of personality traits – i.e. the personality you are apparently born with.

Thomas looked at around 136 children in a longitudinal study. Researchers collected data about the children and their behaviour from parents, school observations and teachers. Three different groups emerged – 'easy' (happy and found it easy to adapt), 'difficult' (demanding, less flexible) and 'slow to warm up' (did not react well to new environments). These traits remained stable over time, which led Thomas to conclude that we are born with a temperament. This was a longitudinal study so able to follow the children over a long period of time. The children were all from middle class families so results may not be generalizable to other social classes.

Buss & Plomin looked at the personality of 228 identical twin pairs and 172 non-identical twin pairs. Correlations were much higher for identical twins which led Buss & Plomin to conclude that temperament is largely genetic. However, identical twins are likely to share a similar environment so it could also be due to upbringing as well as genes.

Eysenck's personality type theory:
Eysenck created two questionnaires – the Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI) – which measures introversion-extraversion and neuroticism and stability. The second questionnaire is the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ) to measure extraversion, introversion, neuroticism, stability and psychoticism. Both questionnaires used yes/no questions. Eysenck believed personality was genetic. He came up with 3 personality factors:

Extraversion (E score) – people scoring high on this scale tend to be more sociable and impulsive compared to low scorers (introverts), who tend to be more cautious and less sociable.

Neuroticism (N score) – people scoring high on this scale tend to be more anxious, depressed and tense compared to low scorers (stable), who tend to be more relaxed.

Psychoticism (P score) – people who score high on this scale tend to be more aggressive, egocentric and cold compared to low scorers, who tend to be warm, more aware of others and not aggressive.

Eysenck believed that introverts have higher levels of brain activity compared to extraverts – therefore extraverts are stimulus hungry – as their brains need to be stimulated more than introverts.

Evaluation of Eysenck's type theory:
There is some support for a genetic element to personality – neuroticism has been shown to be 80% inherited (Eysenck, 1951) and extraversion has been shown to be 62% inherited (Eysenck, 1956).

Eysenck's research was conducted on military men so findings may not be generalizable.

The theory of personality is based purely on questionnaires – people may not always be completely honest in these.

Antisocial personality disorder (APD)

APD involves a disregard for the rights of others that has been going on since the person was 15 years of age or younger. Only people over the age can be diagnosed with this disorder.

The DSM-IV states that a person with APD must have or show signs of the following symptoms:

- Taking no notice of rules and breaking the law
- Telling lies and being deceitful
- Acting on impulsive rather than planning ahead
- Being aggressive
- Being irresponsible
- Not being in the least sorry if they hurt other people
- Disregard for safely

Biological causes of APD:

Brain dysfunction – APD may be caused by malfunction of part of the brain, particularly two areas:

- The amygdala, which is responsible for learning through negative consequences of our actions
- The prefrontal cortex, which enables people to learn social and moral behaviour

Raine (2000) attempted to find out if people with APD have abnormalities in the prefrontal cortex. He looked at MRI scans of 21 men diagnosed with APD who had a history of serious violent crimes and compared them to 34 men with no history of violence. The APD group had an 11-14% reduction in the nerve cells. Raine concluded that APD may be caused by deficits in the prefrontal cortex – this area of the brain is responsible for a child's ability to feel remorse and develop a conscience.

However this study only looked at men making generalisations to women difficult and participants were volunteers who again may behave differently than people who do not volunteer. Lastly, this study only looks at the brain, other factors such as childhood experiences may be important.

Situational causes of APD:

This focuses on the childhood experiences a person has – several factors have been implicated including, low income, poor housing, poor parenting, low school achievement and/or leaving school early.

Farrington (1995) carried out a longitudinal study of the development of antisocial behaviour in 411 males from London. The study started when they were aged 8 and continued until they were 50. Parents and teachers were interviewed and criminal records were looked at. 41% of the men were convicted of at least one crime – the most important factors for offending were: criminal activity in the family, low school achievement, poverty and poor parenting. Farrington concluded that situational factors lead to the development of antisocial behaviour.

However, the study was not an experiment – other factors may have led to the criminal behaviour, for example biological factors. Also, interviews can lead to socially desirable answers or people can lie.

Practical implications of research into APD:

Because the cause of APD is not known, it makes APD difficult to treat. Psychologists who believe it is caused by our biology have tried treating it with drugs but this hasn't been successful. If APD has a situational cause, reducing childhood problems should lower the risk of it developing.

Example exam questions on Development of Personality

1. Outline what is meant by the term personality (2 marks)

2. a) Briefly describe Eysenck's type theory of personality (4 marks)

   b) Evaluate Eysenck's type theory of personality (4 marks)

3. Below is a list of characteristics. Tick the two that describe antisocial personality disorder according to the DSM-IV. (2 marks)

- Happy go lucky attitude
- Dependency
- Deceitfulness
- Lack of intelligence
- Disregard for your own safety
- Surliness

4. Describe and evaluate the study by Raine (2000). Include in your answer the method used in the study, the results obtained, the conclusion drawn and an evaluation of the study. (Use continuous prose) (6 marks).

Non-verbal communication

Verbal communication – conveying a message using speech or in written form.

Non-verbal communication – involves conveying messages that doesn't include words. This includes the expression in the voice, gestures, body language, posture and facial expression.

Paralinguistics: non verbal elements of language that express emotion and the meaning of the message. Includes pitch, urgency of expression and speed of talking.

Eye contact: provides feedback to others on our mood and personality. Signals other person's turn to speak in conversation. Kendon showed that eye contact shows us when the speaker wants to continue talking and when they want to stop. Eye contact also expresses emotion – Hess found men's pupils dilated by around 18% when viewing a picture of a naked woman. Hess also showed the people found faces more attractive if they had larger pupils (as this signals attraction to us).

Facial expression: Ekman demonstrated that facial expressions such as surprise, fear, anger, disgust, happiness and sadness are universal across different cultures. Sackeim showed that the left hand side of the face is more expressive than the right – and because the left hand side of the face is controlled by the right hand side of the body, Sackeim concluded that emotions are controlled by the right hemisphere of the brain.

Open posture: one in which we can see the body, with arms and legs uncrossed and shoulders back.

Closed posture: closes up the body to a more stooped posture with the arms across the body, or arms folded and legs crossed if sitting down. A defensive posture – shows lack of self confidence or nervousness.

Postural echo: The tendency of two people, when sitting together, to adopt postures that are mirror images of each other.

McGinley (1975) had a confederate approach participants in a social setting and have conversations with them. Half of the confederates echoed the posture of the participants and half did not. It was found that when postural echo was used, people liked the confederate and thought they got on well together. When postural echo was not used, the confederate was not liked as much and the conversation felt awkward. McGinley concluded that postural echo gives an unconscious message of friendliness.

Gestures: some gestures are universal (the same in every culture). Saitz found that pointing, shrugging, nodding the head, clapping, beckoning, waving and thumbs down were common in more than one culture. These features may have evolved to serve a certain function. But, the meaning of some gestures vary from culture to culture.

Touch: the most primitive form of social communication. Unwritten 'rules' about touching vary between cultures and can be a major source of embarrassment and awkwardness – touch can cause offence if used inappropriately. Willis found that in all cultures it is more accepted for females to touch other females than for men to touch other men, but there were large differences between cultures in their tolerance for same-sex touching (in France, men kiss each other – this would be considered inappropriate in Britain).

Argyle, Alkema and Gilmore found that non verbal cues have far more effect than verbal cues. When there was a discrepancy between the message and the style it was read in (i.e. a friendly message read in an unfriendly style) the verbal content was virtually ignored.

Personal space: like an invisible bubble surrounding us into which people cannot move without causing us discomfort. Roughly circular but with more space in front than behind.

- Personal space and culture: Different cultures have very different norms for how close they stand to others and how much they teach each other. For example Greek people will stand closer than British people.

- Personal space and status: People of unequal status (boss and employee) tend to stand further apart than equals.

- Personal space and age: Willis showed that people tend to stand closer to people of their own age, than to people who are much older or younger.

- Personal space and gender: Argyle and Dean found that we prefer to have a greater amount of personal space between ourselves and members of the opposite sex during normal conversation.

Practical implications of studies of non-verbal communication

Lie detection: non-verbal communication may give clues as to when people are lying, since they tend to fidget, have a high pitched voice or a quiver in the voice. This has useful practical implications as it can be used by the police to see if a person is likely to be lying during an interview.

Counsellors may deliberately use postural echo to develop a close, trusting relationship with clients. Sales people might use open postures because it might help them to make a sale.

Waiters and waitresses who squat or kneel down to take orders at tables are more likely to receive higher tips, as customers are likely to view this as a friendly gesture.

Example exam questions on non-verbal communication

1. George and Bill are having a conversation that is very polite and appears quite friendly if it is only judged on what is said. However, their body language indicates that they are quite hostile to one another.
   a) What is meant by non-verbal communication? (1 mark)
   b) Give examples of two types of non-verbal communication shown by George or Bill that might indicate that they are not friendly but in fact are quite hostile to each other (4 marks)

2. Describe one study of non-verbal communication that looks at the relationship between facial expressions and the hemispheres of the brain (e.g. Sackeim).
   Include in your answer why the study was conducted, the method used, the results obtained and the conclusion drawn (4 marks)

3. a) What is meant by personal space? (2 marks)
   b) What has research told us about the differences in how males and females use personal space? (4 marks)

Stereotyping, prejudice and discrimination

Stereotype: An oversimplified, generalised set of ideas that we have about others. Most stereotypes are negative but they can also be positive.

Williams and Best (1994)
Looked at sex stereotyping in 30 different countries by asking participants to look at 300 characteristics and decide if they were associated with males, females or both. The findings showed that across the 30 countries, the same characteristics were associated with males (reckless, determined) and females (emotional, warm). The researchers concluded that there are commonly held stereotypes of male and female characteristics.

Stereotypes can apply to our everyday life for several reasons:
- They can stop us seeing the real person when we meet someone for the first time
- They can promote harmful images
- We might make mistakes about people

Prejudice: A rigid set of attitudes or beliefs towards particular groups of people.

Discrimination: The way an individual behaves towards another person or group as a result of their prejudiced view. This can involve speaking in a different manner, paying them differently, ignoring them, using an unfriendly voice.

Adorno (1950) – Authoritarian personality
Interviewed hundreds of people using the F-scale (a questionnaire with a series of yes/no questions). He found a relationship between personality and prejudiced views and concluded there is an 'authoritarian personality' and people who have this type of personality are highly likely to be prejudiced towards others. He believed that this personality type was caused by having harsh, strict, critical parents. This type of personality is:
- Likely to dislike Jews
- Likely to be resistant to change
- Likely to hold traditional values and beliefs
- Obedient to those in higher authority
- Likely to look down on those of lesser status.

However, the theory doesn't explain why people are only prejudiced to some groups of people (Muslims, blacks, Jews) but not other groups (Christians, Asians). It was based on a questionnaire – people can lie in these or give socially desirable answers.

Sherif: wanted to find out why people become prejudiced. He conducted an experiment on boys at a summer camp in 1961 called the Robber's Cave Experiment. 22 white, middle class boys aged 12 were randomly split into two teams (the Rattlers and the Eagles) and the teams were kept away from one another for a few days and then they were in competition for the Silver Cup. They started to fight with one another, called each other names and expressed dislike for anyone on the other team. Sherif concluded that prejudice is caused by competition for resources.

However, the study only used 12 year old white, middle class boys in America so we may not be able to generalise the results to other groups.

Tajfel (1970)
Wanted to show how easily people will discriminate against someone in an out-group. 14-15 year old boys played a game where they had to allocate points to their team and another team. Tajfel found that the boys would allocate points that meant the biggest difference between the groups – not the pairings that would give them the most points. He concluded that people will discriminate against others just because they are a member of an outgroup.

However, boys aged 14-15 were participants, this may mean we cannot generalise to females or different ages. Also, the groups were artificially created; in real life we choose our own groups.

Reducing prejudice

Sherif – in the Robber's Cave Experiment Sherif tried to get the boys to become friends, this was very difficult and the best way was to set up a situation where they all needed to work together (pushing a truck out of the mud). Sherif concluded that co-operation is the way to reduce prejudice. However this is difficult in real life – how do we get groups to join in in the community?

Aronson – had to reduce prejudice in a school in Texas – students were black or white. He used the jigsaw method so that each study (put in a mixed race group) had to each take responsibility for a part of the learning (becoming experts on a topic and passing this on to their group). Aronson concluded that this was a successful way to reduce prejudice – but this only worked inside the classroom, outside the students only mixed with their own race – so therefore it might not generalised to different settings.

Elliott – wanted to teach her students what it felt like to be a victim of discrimination. She set up two groups (brown eyed and blue eyed) and told the children that one group was better than the other and could have special privileges (playing outside, drinking from the fountain). The children became arrogant and vicious to others in the other group. The following day she said she had made a mistake and reversed the groups – a similar result was found, children fought with one another. Elliott concluded that if you can help people to understand what if feels like to be the victim of discrimination, they will be more tolerant to others. However, children must experience this at an early age.

Harwood – wanted to investigate children's views of the elderly. Children were interviewed and it was found that children who had more contact with older people had more positive views on the elderly. Harwood concluded that contact with grandparents is a good predictor of children's view of the elderly.

Applying stereotyping research to everyday situations/real life:

- We need to understand how it feels to be discriminated against to prevent discrimination or prejudice.
- Working together on a task will also help to reduce prejudice and discrimination.
- Role models in the media now have non-gender stereotyped personalities and jobs – this is due to research which shows children learn what is expected of them through the media.

Example exam questions on stereotyping, prejudice and discrimination

1. Read the following conversation between two students:

Mary: *'When we do practical work, why does Mr Jones (the science teacher) always pay more attention to your group than ours?'*

Tom: *'Because we're boys and you're girls and he thinks boys are more interested in science than girls.'*

Mary: *'Well that's not fair, it's discrimination.'*

With reference to the conversation:

a. Explain what is meant by the term stereotyping (3 marks)

b. Explain what is meant by the term discrimination (4 marks)

2. Describe one study by Sherif on prejudice and discrimination. Include in your answer the reason why the study was conducted, the method used, the results obtained and the conclusion drawn. (4 marks)

3. Using your knowledge of psychology, describe and evaluate one way in which prejudice could be reduced (Use continuous prose) (6 marks).

REVISON CHECKLIST – GCSE Unit 2 (18/05/11 @ 9.30am)

Can I….	Revised	Know it
1. RESEARCH METHODS 2 (page 22)		
Describe how a survey (including an interview and questionnaire) is carried out		
Explain the difference between an open and closed question		
Explain the difference between a structured and unstructured interview		
Describe strengths and weaknesses of surveys		
Describe observational studies – including categories of behaviour		
Explain inter-observer reliability and how to establish it		
Describe the advantages and disadvantages of observational studies		
Describe the method used in case studies		
Describe the advantages and disadvantages of case studies		
2. AGGRESSION (page 24)		
Describe how hormones and an extra Y chromosome can affect aggression levels		
Describe and evaluate a study into biology and aggression – such as Raine or Cairns		
Explain how brain disease affects aggression, including the case of Charles Whitman		
Describe how the id, ego, superego and defence mechanisms are involved in aggression		
Describe and evaluate the frustration-aggression hypothesis and a study – such as Barker		
Describe and evaluate how modelling, punishment and monitoring are involved in aggression and the Social Learning Theory		
Describe and evaluate a study into the social learning theory, such as Bandura		
Describe and evaluate how drugs and psychosurgery can be used to reduce aggression		
Describe and evaluate how aggression can be reduced by using alternative activities to redirect aggressive impulses – such as catharsis		
Describe how role models can be used to reduce aggressive behaviour		
3. LEARNING (page 26)		
Explain how Pavlov investigated classical conditioning using salivation in dogs		
Explain how learning occurs through association		
Define the terms: unconditioned stimulus, unconditioned response, conditioned stimulus, conditioned response, extinction, spontaneous recovery, generalisation, discrimination		
Explain how Thorndike produced the Law of Effect in operant conditioning		
Describe Skinners research into operant conditioning with rats		
Understand the difference between positive conditioning, negative conditioning and punishment		
Explain how flooding, systematic desensitisation, token economies and aversion therapy are conducted. Be able to evaluate each treatment		
Describe the ethical implications of each treatment		

4. SEX AND GENDER (page 29)		
Describe the difference between sex and gender identity		
Describe the biological differences between males and females including hormones and chromosomes		
Describe and evaluate the psychodynamic theory of gender development		
Describe a study to support the psychodynamic theory of gender development (Freud – Little Hans)		
Describe and evaluate the social learning theory of gender development		
Describe and evaluate a study (such as Perry and Bussey) to support the SLT of gender development		
Describe and evaluate the gender schema theory of gender development		
Describe and evaluate a study (such as Martin) to support the gender schema theory of gender development		
5. SOCIAL INFLUENCE (page 31)		
Define obedience		
Describe and evaluate (including ethical issues) studies that show obedience – including Milgram		
Describe 2 factors that influence obedience		
Define conformity		
Describe and evaluate (including ethical issues) studies that show conformity – including Asch		
Describe 2 factors that influence conformity		
Define deindividuation		
Describe and evaluate studies (including ethical issues) that show deindividuation – including Zimbardo		
Describe 2 factors that influence deindividuation		
Describe social loafing		
Describe and evaluate studies (including ethical issues) that show social loafing – including Latane		
Describe 2 factors that affect social loafing		
Define bystander intervention		
Describe and evaluate studies (including ethical issues) that show bystander behaviour – including Latane and Darley and Bateson		
Describe 2 factors that affect social influence		

Research Methods 2

Survey: method of collecting standardised information from a specific population – often using a questionnaire or interview.
Advantages: Can study large numbers of people fairly easily
Disadvantages: might be difficult to gain a representative sample of the population and people may lie or not remember

Questionnaire: A list of questions given to participants. Useful in finding out people's opinion. Can include 2 types of questions:

- Open: give the opportunity for the participant to respond freely, saying as much as they like
- Closed: fixed responses – such as yes/no or agree/disagree

Structured interview: involves a list of questions that requires the interviewee to choose from a selection of possible answers. Basically a questionnaire that is read out to the participant.
Advantages: Easy to compare participants' results as they all have the same questions
Disadvantages: Don't gain in-depth data, answers are limited

Unstructured interview: aimed at a detailed understanding of a person's mental processes. There are no set questions – the questions depend on the participant's answers to previous questions
Advantages: provide a rich insight into the thoughts of the participant
Disadvantage: It is impossible to interview every person in the same way so it is impossible to compare the results of different participants.

Observations: involves watching people or animals and recording and analysing their behaviour. Requires all observers to be trained in what they are observing and how to record information using a coding system and to use either a recording device (camera) or more than one observer.

Categories of behaviour in observations: The researcher has to decide on the categories of behaviour they are interested in – for example, for aggression it could be punching, kicking, hitting, shouting, swearing and so on.

Inter-observer reliability: observers looking at the same behaviour should categorise it in the same way. Inter-observer reliability is the extent to which there is agreement between observers. Observers need to be trained to improve inter-observer reliability.

Advantages of observations: High ecological validity, especially if participants do not know they are being observed. You can observe participants in lots of different situations.

Disadvantages of observations: it is not easy for observers to remain inconspicuous, so they may affect the behaviour they are observing (leading to demand characteristics). There are ethical issues if participants do not know they are being observed.

Case studies: An in-depth (detailed) investigation of a single person or small group of people.
Advantages: Useful for investigating unusual experiences such as brain damage. Lots of data can be collected over a long period of time.
Disadvantages: Only relate to one person so results cannot be generalised to others. The researcher may get very involved and might not be unbiased (experimenter bias)

Example exam questions on Research methods 2

A psychologist working in a young offenders' institution wanted to assess the effectiveness of two different anger management programmes, called '*control*' and '*keep calm'*. This is what she did:

- From the target population of all the offenders who had been on anger management programmes, she randomly selected 10 participants who had been on *'control'* and 10 who had been on *'keep calm'*

- A week after their programme ended, all participants were given a questionnaire asking them to assess whether they thought their anger management was better, worse or unchanged by the programme. In addition they were asked about other aspects of their behaviour.

1. Describe one way in which the psychologist could have chosen a random sample of participants who had been on the *'keep calm'* programme. (2 marks)

2. Identify one advantage of random sampling (1 mark)

3. The following questions were on the questionnaire. In each case, say whether they were open or closed questions:
    a. I feel less angry now than before I started the programme (1 mark)
    b. Describe any changes in how you feel about the staff since going on the programme (1 mark)

4. Without using the examples given above, give one example of another closed question the psychologist could use (2 marks)

5. Without using the examples given above, give one example of another open question the psychologist could use (2 marks)

6. a. Outline one advantage of open questions (2 marks)
    c. Outline one advantage of closed questions (2 marks)

7. The psychologist found that in the group that took part in the 'keep calm' programme:

- One participant said that their anger had increased
- Four said they felt no different
- Five said they felt less angry

She converted these scores into percentages.
    a. What percentage felt less angry? (1 mark)
    b. What percentage felt their anger had increased? (1 mark)

8. Identify one disadvantage of using questionnaires in psychological research (1 mark)

9. Identify one advantage of using questionnaires in psychological research (1 mark)

10. The psychologist decides to carry out a case study on the young offender who was angrier than before the programme started. Identify one ethical issue the psychologist would have considered before carrying out the case study and how she would have dealt with it. (3 marks)

Aggression

Aggression: the intention to inflict some form of harm upon others.

Biological explanations of aggression

Hormones – testosterone may be associated with aggression – males have higher levels than females, which would account for why men are more aggressive than women.
Experiments on mice show that aggression increases dramatically if they are injected with extra testosterone. Dabbs, Frady and Carr found that testosterone levels of violent male criminals may be higher than those of the ordinary population.

Genetics – some people may inherit genes that make them naturally more aggressive than others. Experiments such as Cairns (1990) interbred the most aggressive mice over 25 generations and found that each generation was progressively more aggressive.

Brain injury – Injuries to the brain (caused by accident, tumour, stroke etc.) may cause an increase in aggression. Evidence comes from case studies of Charles Whitman who had a tumour pressing on his limbic system and committed murder and Phineas Gage whose frontal lobe was damaged in an accident causing him to become aggressive. Raine (1997) found that murderers had lower activity in their prefrontal cortex than non-murderers.

Chromosomes – the male abnormality XYY (normal is XY) may lead to aggressive behaviour. There is a higher proportion of XYY men in prison.

Evaluation of biological explanations of aggression:

- There is evidence that there is a correlation between testosterone levels and aggression – however correlations do not show cause and effect, other factors might cause aggression
- Animal studies or case studies might not be generalizable to other people
- Aggression could run in families due to learning and social influence rather than genes

Biological methods of reducing aggression:

Drugs – The drug Ritalin, which is used to treat people with Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) has been found to stimulate activity in the brain which reduces aggression. However, drugs have side effects which might cause problems for the patient.

Psychosurgery – a probe is inserted to a very precise location in the brain and is heated up to destroy nerves. Because research has shown that the limbic system is responsible for aggressive behaviour it is usually the limbic system that is destroyed. However, psychosurgery is irreversible and can cause problems for the patient.

Psychodynamic explanations of aggression

Freud believed that we are all born with a death instinct (thanatos) that becomes an aggressive instinct. The id causes us to want to express these aggressive desires and the ego tries to control them by using defence mechanisms – such as displacement.

The frustration-aggression hypothesis – this theory states that frustration always leads to aggression and all aggression is caused by frustration.

Evaluation of psychodynamic explanations of aggression:

- There is no way to prove that thanatos, the ego and the id actually exist

- Freud's theories are untestable
- Sometimes frustration doesn't lead to aggression but leads to something else such as depression.
- Aggression can also be caused by other factors such as a noisy environment.

Psychodynamic methods of reducing aggression:
Catharsis - Freud believed that a psychologically healthy way of reducing or controlling aggression is to release it by means of catharsis. This can be achieved by indirect methods such as playing physical sport or watching a violent film. However, most evidence suggests that watching violent films or real life violence doesn't actually reduce our aggressive urges – in fact, it tends to make us more violent. There is much evidence to suggest that playing sport also increases aggression.

Social Learning Theories of Aggression

According to this theory, aggression is learnt by observation and imitation of role models. Children observe and imitate important people in their lives. If parents are aggressive, then their children are likely to be. Other significant people are peers and role models from the media – so if children watch a lot of violent TV they are likely to be aggressive.

Bandura demonstrated how children imitate aggressive models in his Bobo doll experiment. The children watched a model behaving aggressively or non-aggressively with a Bobo doll. Children who had observed a model behave aggressively displayed physical and verbal aggression in their play. Children who had seen a non-aggressive model played with the toys in a non-aggressive manner. Boys reproduced more aggressive behaviour than girls and were more likely to be aggressive if they had seen a male model rather than a female one. Girls were more likely to be aggressive if they had observed a female model rather than a male one. Bandura concluded that children copy new types of behaviour if they observe a model.

Evaluation of social learning theories of aggression:
- The findings have important implications for everyday life, since children watch a lot of aggressive behaviour on television and in films
- Bandura's experiment lacks ecological validity because it was carried out in artificial conditions and so we might not be able to generalise to everyday situations

Social Learning Theory methods of reducing aggression:
If the models a child encounters in their everyday lives are non-aggressive then aggression should be reduced. It is important not to reward aggression (through attention) and to discourage from an early an age possible. Television and video games should be monitored so that children are not observing aggressive models. However, although reducing the amount of media violence a child experiences is likely to reduce aggression, this can only ever be a partial solution. Children also need a stable loving home that emphasises the importance of cooperation and caring.

Example exam questions on Aggression

1. Describe and evaluate the way in which social learning theory would suggest that aggression could be reduced (use continuous prose) (6 marks)

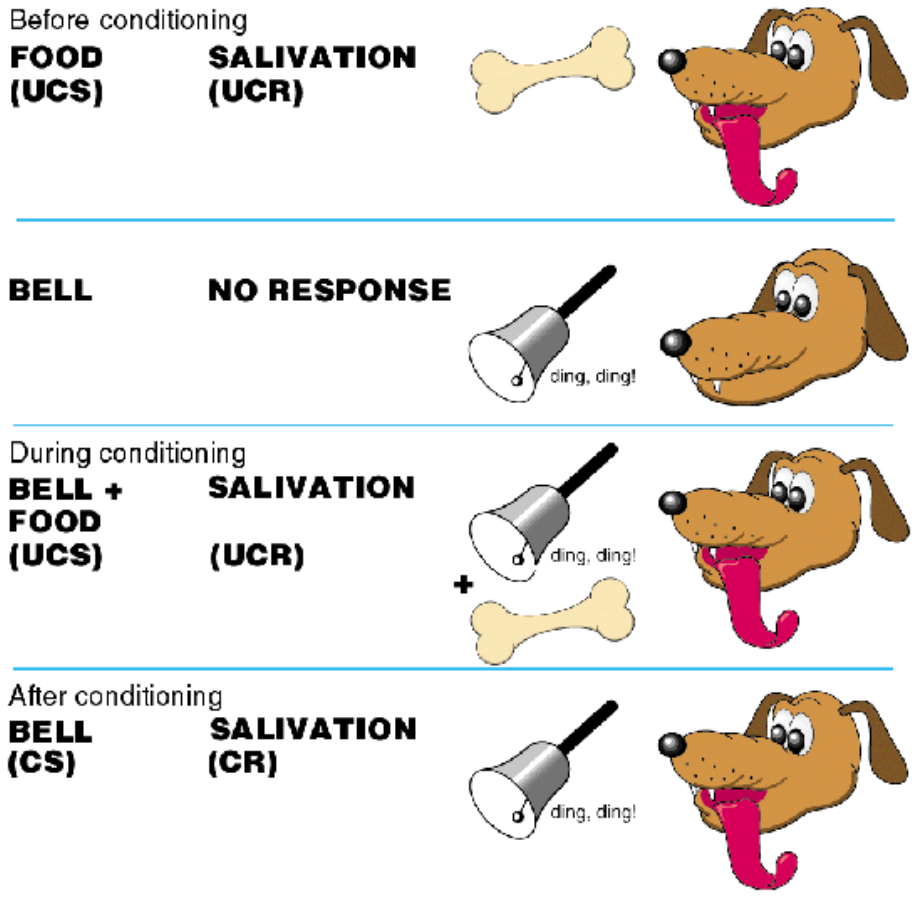
2. Outline an explanation of aggression based on the frustration-aggression hypothesis (4 marks)

3. Describe one study of the development of aggression (4 marks)

Learning

Classical conditioning: a procedure during which an animal or person learns to associate a reflex response with a new stimulus.

This is all about learning through association.



Pavlov already knew that dogs salivate when they smell meat. Every time the meat was given to the dogs he sounded a bell. He repeated this a few times. Then he sounded the bell without the meat and noticed that each dog still salivated.

Generalisation: this occurs when we produce a conditioned response to a stimulus that is similar but not the same as the conditioned stimulus (i.e. a different tone, or type of bell)

Extinction: This occurs when the conditioned stimulus no longer produces the conditioned response.

Spontaneous recovery: this occurs after extinction. Suddenly, in the presence of the conditioned stimulus, the conditioned response reappears!

Discrimination: this occurs when we produce a conditioned response to only one specific stimulus, even if there a similar ones in the environment (i.e. the dog only salivates to one tone)

Operant conditioning: Learning through consequences. A form of conditioning using reinforcements (rewards) or punishment.

Thorndike: Placed a hungry cat in a puzzle box, with food outside. On the first trial the cat took a long time to escape, each time it was placed inside the box it escaped more and more quickly. From his study he created the Law of Effect, which states that if behaviour is followed by a pleasurable experience it is likely to be repeated. However if the behaviour is followed by something that is not pleasurable, then the behaviour is less likely to be repeated.

Skinner introduced a series of terms to explain how operant conditioning works:

Positive reinforcement: the addition of something nice that increases the probability the behaviour will be repeated (i.e. food, pocket money, praise)

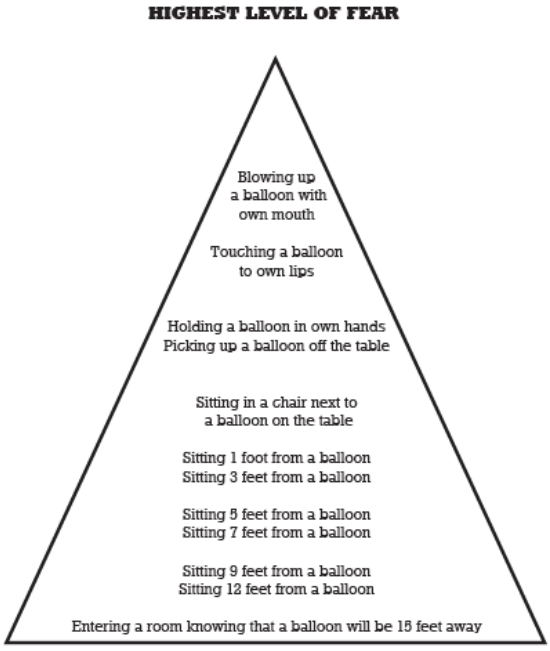
Negative reinforcement: the removal of something bad that increases the probability that behaviour will be repeated (i.e. not getting shouted at if you clean your room, putting a jumper on so you don't feel cold, taking paracetemol to treat a headache)

Punishment: Something bad that decreases the probability that behaviour will be repeated (i.e. being told off for stealing, removing TV or video games).

Skinner investigated this using rats and a Skinner box. A hungry rat was placed in the box – it would need to press a lever to get a pellet of food. Every time the lever was pressed the behaviour of 'lever pressing' was positively reinforced by a food pellet.

Behaviour therapy

Systematic desensitisation: based on the idea that a phobia can be unlearnt using classical conditioning. The end point should results in the person being able to interact with their phobia. Teaches a conditioned response of relaxation rather than fear. The patient is taught relaxation techniques so that they understand how it feels to be relaxed. The patient then works with the therapist to come up with a hierarchy of fear – you only move onto the next stage when the patient is able to relax at that stage of the hierarchy.



Evaluation:

- Capafons showed that patients with a fear of flying were much less fearful following a treatment of systematic desensitisation.
- There is a lack of follow up studies to see if the patient is still cured of their phobia
- The patient is able to move at their own pace through the hierarchy which means that they are in control of their own treatment.

Flooding: the patient is exposed to the largest-anxiety provoking stimulus straight away. Obviously this results in the patient feeling extreme levels of fear but this dies off quite rapidly as the body cannot maintain such a high level of arousal for a long time. The patient quickly learns that there is now nothing to be afraid of. The association between the phobic stimulus and fear has been broken.

Evaluation:

- Many psychologists believe this treatment is unethical as it causes distress, both physiologically and psychologically to the patient.
- This treatment cannot be used with children as they are unable to give their consent.
- Not many studies have been conducted to test its effectiveness.

Aversion therapy: this follows the principle of associating a noxious stimulus (something really bad) with an already conditioned stimulus to produce a new response. After repeated new associations, the unwanted behaviour decreases – as it is now associated with something really bad. Aversion therapy is used to treat alcoholics and drug users. An example is taking an emetic drug (which makes you vomit) every time you drink an alcoholic drink.

Evaluation:

- If the aversion therapy is combined with some social skills training, it has been shown to be effective in treating paedophiles (Davison and Neale, 1998)
- It can be extremely unpleasant for the patient
- It only works while taking the emetic – if the person starts drinking again afterwards they will no longer be sick.

Token economy: Used in institutions (such as prisons, hospitals, schools) where people are rewarded for appropriate behaviour that can be exchanged for privileges and other rewards. The tokens themselves are worthless but can be exchanged for something that is needed, such as food or access to activities. People exchange their tokens at the rates set by the institution. The overall theme of the token economy is to promote good and appropriate behaviour with rewards, whilst ignoring inappropriate behaviour.

Evaluation:

- There is an ethical dilemma of deliberately changing a person's behaviour without their consent. There could be problems of people in authority abusing the system
- Can result in instutionalisation – the outside world does not give out tokens for appropriate behaviour.

Example exam questions on Learning

1. What is the law of effect? (2 marks)

2. Describe what happens during classical conditioning (5 marks)

3. What is punishment? (2 marks)

4. Describe and evaluate one technique to change unwanted behaviours in humans. In your answer you may wish to consider ethics (8 marks)

Sex and Gender

Sex identity: the biological status of being a male or female. This is based on chromosomes and genitals.

Gender identity: the psychological status of being a male or female. It includes an awareness of which gender you consider yourself.

Biological differences between males and females:

	Males	Females
Chromosomes	XY	XX
	Y from sperm	X from sperm
Hormone	Testosterone	Oestrogen
	Produced in the testes and adrenal glands	Produced in the ovaries

Psychodynamic theory of gender development:
Freud believed that our early experiences plus our unconscious mind help us to develop our sense of being a male or female. We pass through a number of stages, and it is in the phallic stage (at around age 4-5) that we develop our sense of gender.

Males	Females
Oedipus complex Boy's libido creates desire for his mother	*Electra complex* Girl has the same unconscious desire for her father
Father may become angry if he finds out about this desire	But, she also fears the loss of her mother's love
The boy does not necessarily know this as it happens in the unconscious	The girl does not necessarily know this because it happens in her unconscious
Boy fears that his father will castrate him, causing castration anxiety	Noticing that her mother does not have a penis, the girl experiences penis envy
The boy starts to identify with his father so that he doesn't castrate him	The girl feels that she has already been castrated
Boy starts to imitate the father's behaviour and personality and so adopts the gender roles attached to being a male	The girl starts to imitate her mother's behaviour and personality and so adopts the gender roles attached to being a female.

Evaluation:

- Freud based his theory on himself and on Little Hans who had a fear of horses who Freud said represented his father. Once Hans identified with his father the phobia disappeared.
- It is impossible to test Freud's ideas in a scientific way because it is all about the unconscious
- Freud says children do not develop a gender identity until age 4-5, however studies show that children can identify their gender from around age 2.
- According to Freud, children who do not have a traditional 2 parent family (mum and dad) will grow up with psychological problems or may be homosexual – there is no evidence for this.

Social learning theory of gender:
We learn by observing, imitating role models and through vicarious reinforcement.

Attention: The child pays attention to the same-sex parent's behaviours and attitudes
Retention: After observing the same-sex parent, the child retains the information for future use.
Reproduction: The child has to be capable of reproducing the behaviour they paid attention to and retained. However sometimes this can be difficult to do (fixing a car, using an iron)
Motivation: this can be internal and external. External motivation can come from the child being reinforced for showing gender-appropriate behaviour. Internal motivation can come from the child getting satisfaction from what they have done.

Evaluation:

- Fagot & Leinbach found that children do encourage gender-appropriate behaviour in children as young as 2.
- The theory cannot explain how some gender-appropriate behaviour is shown by children who have never observed that behaviour
- The theory portrays children as being passive and easily manipulated by models. Children are quite active in their behaviour.

Gender schema theory of gender:
Schemas are pockets or pieces of information that we have about certain things in the world. Martin and Halverson (1987) thought that we have gender schemas to help us understand the complex nature of sex and gender. These are an organised set of beliefs about how each gender should behave.

Stage 1: children learn what things are associated with their own gender. This usually takes the form of toy choice – so boys play with cars, girls with dolls.
Stage 2: a new type of schema emerges around age 4 or 5. The child begins to make links between existing schemas, to allow a more complex understanding of the world. For example, children think about what boys can do and what girls can do with toys, and how they behave.
Stage 3: from around 8 years of age, the final schemas begin to emerge. The child begins to formulate new schemas based on the opposite sex, to get a more complete view of the world based on sex and gender. This is when children begin to think about what sorts of jobs men do and what sorts of jobs women do, and how they themselves would be viewed.

Evaluation:

- Parents are important in the development of gender – gender schema ignores the role parents' play.
- The theory describes how gender schemas develop but doesn't explain WHY.
- It doesn't explain why some children are more gender schematised than others or why gender begins to develop at age 2.

Example exam questions on Learning:

1. Distinguish between sex identity and gender identity (2 marks)

2. Describe and evaluate the psychodynamic explanation of gender development (6 marks)

3. Outline the gender schema theory of gender development (4 marks)

4. Explain, using psychological theory, why Billy wants to be a mechanic when he is older (5 marks)

Social Influence

Conformity: when people behave in a certain way because of the pressure exerted on them by other group members

Obedience: when people behave in a certain way because they comply with the demands of an authority figure

Social loafing: refers to situations when a person is likely to put in less effort in a group task when the group is working towards a common goal.

Deindividuation: refers to situations when a person, in a group, loses their sense of individuality or personal identity and responsibility for their actions. This is due to decreased awareness of one's actions when part of a large group of people.

Bystander apathy: doing nothing in an emergency when someone is in need of your help.

Studies into obedience:

Milgram (1963) set up an experiment to investigate the Germans are different hypothesis. He used male participants who thought they were being tested on a vision test. It was actually a test to see if people would blindly obey an authority figure and give shocks to a 'learner' despite the facts that these shocks were harmful. Milgram found that all of the participants gave 300 volt shocks and 65% gave the maximum level of 450 volt shock – despite it having an XXX description. Milgram concluded that people will obey an authority figure even if they know it is causing distress.

Evaluation of Milgram:

- Lab based study so may lack ecological validity
- Milgram could be confident that the situation the participant were placed in led to their obedience
- Very unethical but Milgram followed up the participants years later and found the majority said they were glad to have taken part.

Factors affecting obedience:

- Closeness of the learner
- Closeness of authority figure
- The environment

Studies into conformity:

Asch (1955) set up an experiment to see if people would conform in an unambigious test (the answer was very clear). He used around 7 male college students in a classroom and unknown to the participant, the other people were all confederates of the experimenter. In all there were 123 participants. The experimenter held up two cards and asked the group which line matched the stimulus line. The participant gave their answer last or second to last. Confederates were told to give the incorrect answer in around two thirds of trials. Asch found that in the trials where the confederates gave the wrong answer, partiicpants also got it wrong (i.e. they conformed) on 37% of them. However, 25% of participants never conformed (i.e. they never gave an incorrect answer). Asch concluded that most people will conform to the majority even if the answer is incorrect.

Evaluation of Asch:

- Took place in a lab so lacks ecological validity
- Because it took place in a lab, Asch was able to control variables such as where participants sat and how may incorrect answers they heard.
- The participants were put under some stress so there are some ethical issues.

Factors affecting conformity:

- Size of group
- Status of group members
- Task difficulty
- Culture

Studies into deindividuation:

Zimbardo used groups of four female college students. They were asked to deliver electric shocks to another participant (really a confederate). Some participants wore a hooded coat and no names were used, others had to wear a name badge and no hoods were worn. Zimbardo found that participants in the deindivuated group (hoods and no names) gave shocks for much longer than the other group. The study shows that deindiviudation makes people show more antisocial behaviour.

Evaluation of Zimbardo:

- Only used American female students – so cannot generalise the findings to other groups.
- Some ethical issues – deception and psychological harm

Factors affecting deindividuation:

- Group size
- Physical anonymity

Studies into social loafing:

Latane, Williams and Harkins assessed the role of social loafing in cheering and clapping behaviour. Participants were asked to clap or cheer as loudly as possible – they did this either alone, in a pair or in groups of 4-6 people. The amount of noise produced decreased sharply as the number of students in the group increased. The findings support the idea of social loafing – the group put in less effort when there were more people around.

Evaluation:

- The task was quite artificial and may lack ecological validity.
- Because it was an experiment, Latane et al could be confident that it was the size of the group that affected the amount of effort.

Factors affecting social loafing:

- Size of project or task
- Group size
- Peer or teacher evaluations

Studies into bystander intervention:

Latane and Darley looked at whether being in a group affected the reporting of an incident. Male participants were seated in a room and asked to complete a questionnaire. As they completed it, the experimenter introduced smoke through a vent in the wall. The time taken to report the smoke was noted. Participants were much less likley to report the smoke if there was 2 other people in the room (10%) comapred to when they were alone (75% reported it). Latane and Darley concluded that being in a group affected the reporting of the incident.

Evaluation:

- Only used male participants – this makes it difficult to generalise the results to other groups.
- There were ethical issues, participants may have been under psychological stress during the experiment

Factors affecting bystander intervention:

- Group size
- Characteristics of the victim

Example essay questions for Social Influence:

1. Using an example, define the term obeidence (2 marks)

2. Describe one study into conformity and evalute it in terms of one strength and one weakness (6 marks)

3. Outline two factors that can affect bystander intervention (4 marks)