Bentley Wood
High School for Girls

Psychology
GCSE to A level

Bridging Work
Year 11 into 12 for 2023/24

Please complete this booklet if you have NOT completed GCSE Psychology

Name: _____

Tutor Group: _____

Teacher: _____

Psychology Bridging Booklet

Please complete this booklet if you have NOT completed GCSE Psychology

Year 11 into Year 12

Beginning Sept 2023

Student Name:

GCSE English Language Grade:

GCSE English Literature Grade:

GCSE Mathematics Grade:

GCSE Core Science Grade:

GCSE Additional Science Grade:

Welcome to A Level Psychology

Introduction

The purpose of this booklet is to give you essential information and resources to support the beginning of your A Level in Psychology. This booklet will also help you to understand and develop the skills you will need.

To prepare you for your first lesson, please ensure you have a lever arch folder and file dividers ready to organise your notes.

Expectations

- Bring folder and all notes every lesson
- Bring all equipment, such as pens, highlighters, rulers and a calculator
- 100% attendance and punctuality
- 5 hours a week extra study outside of class time for Psychology. Your lessons are merely a support to guide you through Psychology A Level, the hard work has to come outside of class too, to ensure for success.
- You can expect all work to be marked and returned within two weeks of you handing it in

Suggested textbooks for A level Psychology:

The Complete Companions: AQA Psychology Year 1 and AS Student Book (Fourth Edition) (Complete Companion Psychology) Paperback– 12 Mar 2015: Mike Cardwell and Cara Flanagan

AQA Psychology for A Level Year 1 & AS - Student Book. Paperback– 23 Mar 2015: Cara Flanagan, Matt Jarvis & Dave Berry

Whichever textbook you decide to buy, please ensure that it is for the AQA A Level specification and it is for the new changes (new changes came about in 2015).

What is Psychology?

Psychology is the scientific study of human and animal behaviour. Psychologists are always trying to discover why people do the things they do, whether those things are normal or abnormal. Psychologists are also interested in differences between various groups such as males & females, cultural & subcultural (e.g. Welsh & English) groups, and so on. Sometimes we have to look at animal behaviour in order to get a better understanding of our own behaviour and to answer questions like 'how do we learn?' From a personal perspective, you should find the fundamental questions of the psychologist interesting:

- Why do I behave like this?
- Why do I feel like this?
- Why do I think like this?

As part of the psychology course, you will study the following topics;

- Social Influence
- Memory
- Attachment
- Research Methods
- Psychopathology
- Approaches
- Biopsychology
- Relationships
- Aggression
- Eating Behaviour

Students who have completed GCSE psychology will already have ***SOME*** knowledge of; social influence, memory and research methods. The rest of the topics are brand new for everyone. This means you will need to spend some time catching up on these three topics. We will spend ***some*** lesson time learning these but you will fall behind if you do not complete the following tasks in this booklet.

Below is a table of the content outline that you need to know for A Level Psychology for the three topics that have already been studied by students who have a GCSE in psychology. The topics, however, differ slightly between GCSE and A Level. The colours in the table indicate which parts the GCSE students will already know and therefore the parts that you need to study. All of the yellow topics are covered in this booklet to help you to catch up!

Yellow = GCSE student knows this	Green = GCSE student doesn't know this
Content outline Memory	• The multi-store model of memory: sensory register, short term memory and long-term memory. Features of each store: coding, capacity and duration. • Types of long-term memory: episodic, semantic, procedural. • The working memory model: central executive, phonological loop, visuo-spatial sketchpad and episodic buffer. Features of the model: coding and capacity. • Explanations for forgetting: proactive and retroactive interference and retrieval failure due to absence of cues.
	• Factors affecting the accuracy of eyewitness testimony: misleading information, including leading questions and post-event discussion; anxiety. • Improving the accuracy of eyewitness testimony, including the use of the cognitive interview.
Social Influence	• Types of conformity: internalisation, identification and compliance. Explanations for conformity: informational social influence and normative social influence, and variables affecting conformity including group size, unanimity and task difficulty as investigated by Asch. • Conformity to social roles as investigated by Zimbardo. • Explanations for obedience: agentic state and legitimacy of authority, and situational variables affecting obedience including proximity, location and uniform, as investigated by Milgram. Dispositional explanation for obedience: the Authoritarian Personality. • Explanations of resistance to social influence, including social support and locus of control. • Minority influence including reference to consistency, commitment and flexibility. • The role of social influence processes in social change.
Research Methods	• Students should demonstrate knowledge and understanding of the following research methods, scientific processes and techniques of data handling and analysis, be familiar with their use and be aware of their strengths and limitations:

	• Experimental method. Types of experiment, laboratory and field experiments; natural and quasi-experiments. • Observational techniques. Types of observation: naturalistic and controlled observation; covert and overt observation; participant and non-participant observation. • Self-report techniques. Questionnaires; interviews, structured and unstructured. • Correlations. Analysis of the relationship between covariables. The difference between correlations and experiments. • Aims: stating aims, the difference between aims and hypotheses.
	• Hypotheses: directional and non-directional. • Sampling: the difference between populatiorematic, sampling techniques including: randon opportunity and volunteer; implications techniques, including bias and generalisatior • Pilot studies and the aims of piloting. • Experimental designs: repeated measures, independent groups, matched pairs. • Observational design: behavioural categories; event sampling; time sampling. • Questionnaire construction, including use of open and closed questions; design of interviews. • Variables: manipulation and control of variables, including independent, dependent, extraneous, confounding; operationalisation of variables. • Control: random allocation and counterbalancing, randomisation and standardisation. • Demand characteristics and investigator effects. • Ethics, including the role of the British Psychological Society's code of ethics; ethical issues in the design and conduct of psychological studies; dealing with ethical issues in research. • The role of peer review in the scientific process. • The implications of psychological research for the economy.

	• Quantitative and qualitative data; the distinction between qualitative and quantitative data collection techniques. • Primary and secondary data, including meta-analysis. • Descriptive statistics: measures of central tendency – mean, median, mode; calculation of mean, median and mode; measures of dispersion; range and standard deviation; calculation of range; calculation of percentages; positive, negative and zero correlations. • Presentation and display of quantitative data: graphs, tables, scattergrams, bar charts. • Distributions: normal and skewed distributions; characteristics of normal and skewed distributions. • Introduction to statistical testing; the sign test.

In order to complete the following tasks, you will need to do some research. You can log into the online textbook here to help (if you cannot log in, use simplypsychology.com);

Website: Illuminate.digital/aqapsych1

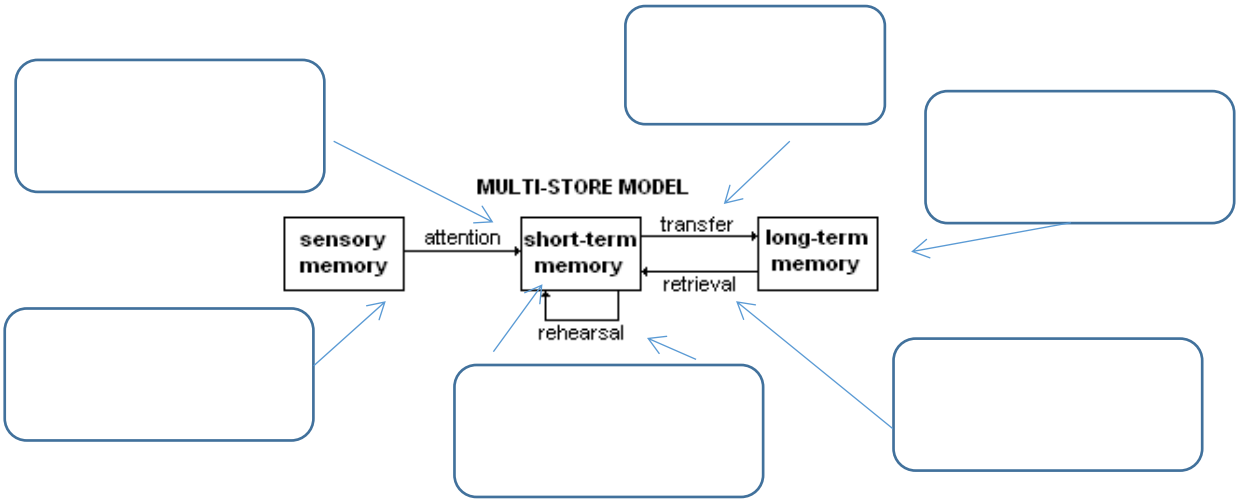
Username: SBENTLEYWHS

Password: STUDENT

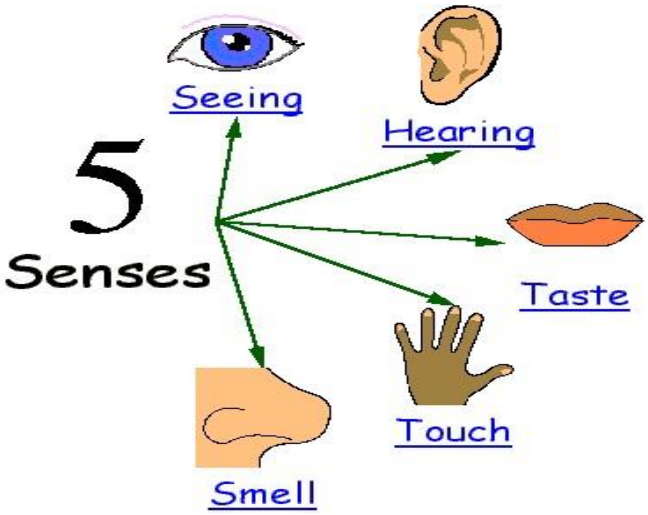
MEMORY

TASK: Annotate these diagrams – what do the components do, what do the arrows represent?

Multi Store Model of Memory – Atkinson and Shiffrin 1968:



Sensory Memory



TASK: Sensory Memory:

The SM takes info from one of the sense organs and holds it in that same form.

Define these terms…

Iconic memory:

Echoic memory:

Short Term Memory:

Coding:

- **Conrad (1964)**
- Visually presented students with letters one at a time
- Found that: letters which are acoustically similar (rhyming) are harder to recall from STM than those which are acoustically dissimilar (non-rhyming) TASK: Capacity:

Duration:

- The duration for which STM can retain info is **temporary** – a very short time
- Not much research interest of this aspect, but some findings suggest only **a few seconds** before it fades/decays (unless we **rehearse** it)

TASK: Long Term Memory:

Coding:

Capacity:

Duration:

TASK: What are the three types of LTM?

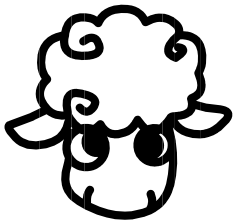
Who came up with this division?

……..

SOCIAL INFLUENCE

What is Conformity?

TASK:



Types of Conformity

What are the types and explanations of conformity? Complete the table by giving definitions.

Explanations	***Types***
Normative Social Influence	***Compliance***
Informational Social Influence	***Identification***
	Internalisation

TASK: Here are some real-life examples of conformity. For each one, identify the type of conformity (compliance or internalisation) and the explanation for why that person has conformed (normative or informational influence).

Emma is a student. When she first went to university, she made friends with a group of students who were passionate about animal rights. At the time, Emma didn't have very strong opinions on animal research but over the past few months she has become very much against it. Now she has joined a campaign against animal research and has started attending public demonstrations with her friends.

Explanation for conformity:

Type of conformity:

Sam has just started work in an office. On his second day there, his colleagues had a discussion about asylum seekers coming to the UK. His colleagues thought that they received favourable treatment from the government and that this should stop. Sam doesn't agree with this view, but when he was asked what he thought, he said that his colleagues were right.

Explanation for conformity:

Type of conformity:

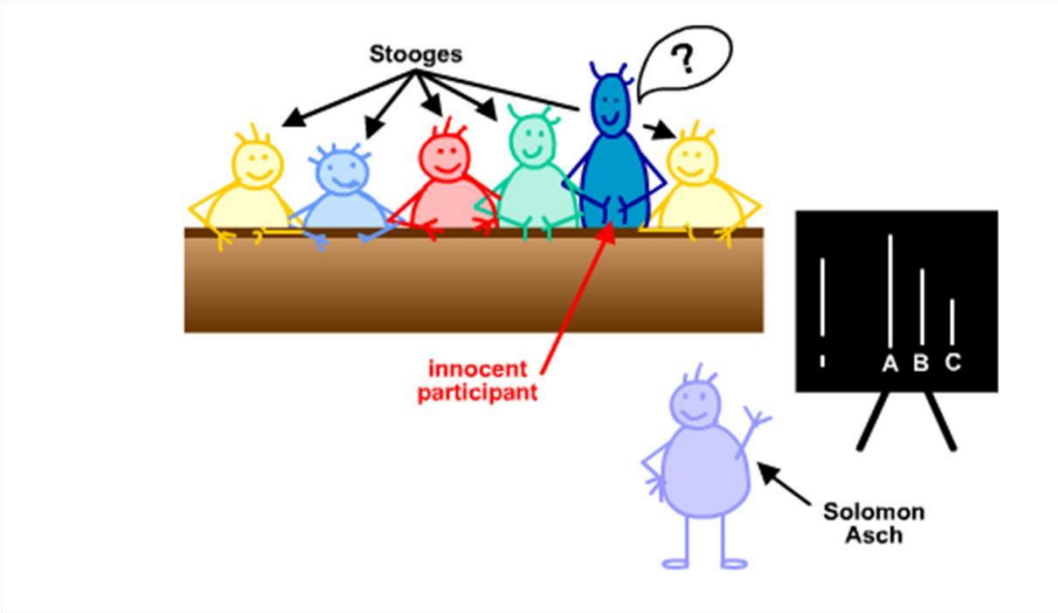
It is Jim's first day of college, but he has arrived late and missed the part where a lecturer told all the new students what they should do during induction. He sees a group of students filing off towards a corridor and decides to follow them. **Why do we conform?**

Explanation for conformity

Type of conformity:

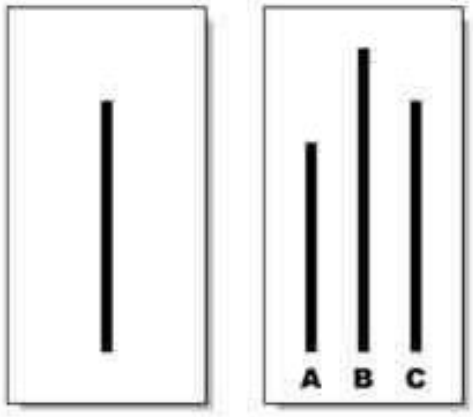
STUDY ONE

Conformity – Asch (1951)



Asch believed that the main problem with Sherif's (1935) conformity experiment was that there was no correct answer to the ambiguous autokinetic experiment. How could we be sure that a person conformed when there was no correct answer? Asch (1951) devised an experiment whereby there was an obvious answer to a line judgement task. If the participant gave an incorrect answer it would be clear that this was due to group pressure.

Aim: Solomon Asch conducted an experiment to investigate social pressure from a group could affect a Conformity.



Procedure: Asch used a lab experiment to study conformity. Using the line judgement task Asch put a naive participant in a room with confederates, (seen above), and the seven confederates had agreed in advance what their responses would be when presented with the line task. The real participant did not know this and was led to believe that the other seven participants were also real participants like themselves. Each person in the room had to state aloud which comparison line (A, B or C) was most like the target line. The answer was always obvious. The real participant sat at the end of the row and gave his or her answer last. In some trials, the seven confederates gave the wrong answer.

There were 18 trials in total and the confederates gave the wrong answer on 12 trails. Asch was interested to see if the real participant would conform to the majority view.

Results: Asch measured the number of times each participant conformed to the majority view. On average, about one third (32%) of the participants in each trial went along and conformed to the clearly incorrect majority. Three quarters of the participants (75%) conformed on at least one trial.

Conclusion: Why did the participants conform so readily? When they were interviewed after the experiment, most of them said that they did not really believe their conforming answers, but had gone along with the group for fear of being ridiculed or thought "peculiar". A few of them said that they really did believe the group's answers were correct.

TASK (you will need to look up these terms to expand on them appropriately):

Evaluate the study:

Ecological Validity:

Population Validity:

Ethics:

STUDY TWO

The Stanford Prison Study – Zimbardo et al (1974)

Aim:

To see whether people will conform to new social roles.

Method:

The participants were all male psychology students at the prestigious Stanford University in California. They volunteered to take part in the study and were randomly allocated to two groups prisoners and prison guards. The prisoners were to spend two weeks locked in 'cells' in a wing of the university. The prison guards were there to look after the prisoners and to keep them under control.

The prisoners were arrested at home (unexpectedly) and taken to the university. They were stripped, deloused and given a prison uniform and prisoner number. From now on they were referred to by number, not by name. They were to spend 23 hours a day locked in their cells for two weeks.

The prison guards were given uniforms, including sticks and mirrored sunglasses. They worked shifts and went home at the end of their shift.

Results:

The experiment was called off after only 6 days. The guards had become so brutal to the prisoners that two prisoners had some form of nervous breakdown, one developed a nervous rash all over his body and one went on hunger strike!! While the guards were giving their orders, the prisoners became apathetic. They did not stand up to the guards and simply did as they were told, even though it caused them distress.

Conclusion:

One explanation for why the participants' reactions were so extreme in this study could be that they conformed to **social roles**. A role is a part you play during your life. Each role requires different behaviour. If you are given a new role, e.g. when you start a new job, you change your behaviour to suit. In Zimbardo's study, the students were given new roles - prisoner or guard - and simply conformed to the behaviour of these roles.

Deindividuation may also help to explain the behaviour of the participants; especially the guards. This is a state when you become so immersed in the norms of the group that you lose your sense of identity and personal responsibility. The guards may have been so sadistic because they did not feel what happened was down to them personally – it was a group norm.

TASK; Evaluate this study:

Strengths	Weaknesses

Obedience

TASK: What is obedience?

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STUDY THREE

Milgram's Study into Obedience

Research the aim, procedure, findings and conclusions of Milgram's study

Aim:

Procedure:

Findings:

Conclusions:

His findings were because of Agentic State which means……

Evaluation:

Locus of Control

One factor that psychologists believe may have an effect on independent behaviour is whether we have an internal or external locus of control.

TASK explain what internal/external locus of control are:

Internal Locus of Control:

External Locus of Control:

TASK: Application of locus of control to real life situations

For each of these examples, identify whether the person is displaying an internal or external locus of control:

1. Amanda doesn't bother applying to be her class representative because she feels she is not popular enough to win.

2. Saima checks her horoscope every day to see if she is going to have a good or a bad day.

3. Harry feels confident that he will get the job he applied for because he has good exam results and did well in the interview.

RESEARCH METHODS

Research methods is an important topic, which helps us to understand the important components in planning how to conduct psychological research. This topic is weighted most heavily in your exams so you must understand the following.

TASK: Types of Experiments

Type of experiment	Description	Example	Advantages	Disadvantages
Laboratory experiment				

Field experiment				
Natural experiment				
Quasi experiment				

TASK: Types of Observations

Type	Explanation [Give one study example]	Strength	Limitation
Natural Observation			
Controlled Observation			
Covert Observation			
Overt Observation			
Participant Observation			
Non-Participant Observation			

Self-Report Techniques

Type	Explanation [Give one study example]	Strength	Limitation
Questionnaires			
Structured Interview			
Unstructured Interview			
Case Study [Idiographic Approach]			

Correlations Vs Experiments

Type	Explanation [Give one study example]	Strength	Limitation
Correlation			
Experiment			

Aims and Hypotheses

Aims

An aim identifies the purpose of the investigation. It is a straightforward expression of what the researcher is trying to find out from conducting an investigation. The aim typically involves the word “investigate" or “investigation".

For example:

- Milgram (1963) investigated how far people would go in obeying an instruction to harm another person.
- Bowlby (1944) investigated the long-term effects of maternal deprivation.

Types of Hypotheses

A hypothesis (plural hypotheses) is a precise, testable statement of what the researchers predict will be the outcome of the study.

This usually involves proposing a possible relationship between two variables: the independent variable (what the researcher changes) and the dependant variable (what the research measures).

In research, there is a convention that the hypothesis is written in two forms, the null hypothesis, and the alternative hypothesis (called the experimental hypothesis when the method of investigation is an experiment).
Briefly, the hypotheses can be expressed in the following ways:

- The null hypothesis states that there is no relationship between the two variables being studied (one variable does not affect the other). It states results are due to chance and are not significant in terms of supporting the idea being investigated.

- The alternative hypothesis states that there is a relationship between the two variables being studied (one variable has an effect on the other). It states that the results are not due to chance and that they are significant in terms of supporting the theory being investigated.

In order to write the experimental and null hypotheses for an investigation, you need to identify the key variables in the study. A variable is anything that can change or be changed, i.e. anything which can vary. Examples of variables are intelligence, gender, memory, ability, time etc.

A good hypothesis is short and clear should include the operationalized variables being investigated.

TASK: Identify whether these hypotheses are directional or non-directional:

[a] Young children prefer chocolate to Brussels sprouts:

[b] Lack of sleep makes people irritable:

[c] Boys commit more crime than girls:

[d] The quality of service in a café affects its popularity:

[e] Age affects memory:

TASK: For each of the following studies write:

- A suitable directional alternative/experimental hypothesis
- A suitable non-directional alternative/experimental hypothesis

[a] A researcher conducts a study on students to see if the amount of fish eaten affects IQ scores

Directional:

Non Directional:

[b] A study investigates the length of time babies spend looking at simple shapes or human faces Directional:

Non Directional:

[c] A gardener compares the number of tomatoes produced by plants in 'grow bags' or in the ground

Directional:

Non Directional:

[d] A researcher investigates the relationship between IQ at the age of 11 and the IQ at the age of 16 Directional:

Non Directional:

TASK: Sampling

Type	Explanation [Give one study example]	Strength	Limitation
Random			
Stratified			
Opportunity			
Volunteer			
Matched Pairs			

TASK: Experimental Designs

Type	Explanation [Give one study example]	Strength	Limitation
Repeated Measures			
Independent Groups			
Matched Pairs			

Task: Observational Design

<u>Sampling observational data</u>

Sometimes observations are made continuously where the observers record everything that happens in detail? perhaps with a video camera. Sometimes researchers use a sampling technique as it may be difficult to record everything. Two techniques are event sampling and time sampling.

Event sampling

Event sampling consists of the researcher recoding an event every time it happens. For example, ticking a box every time somebody picks their nose. Although behaviours should not be missed as in time sampling, if too many observations happen at once it may be difficult to record everything.

Time sampling

Time sampling occurs when the researcher decides on a time say 5 seconds and then records what behaviour is occurring at that time. A problem with time sampling is that some behaviours will be missed and therefore the observation may not be representative.

Designing a Questionnaire Survey

When designing a questionnaire, there are several ways you can approach the study:

- Use closed questions (fixed choice of answers), to generate data for easy analysis.
- Use open questions (space to write any answer) for more detailed individual answers.
- Keep questions and instructions clear and easy to understand.
- Ask purposeful questions to help find information needed for the study.
- Pre-code closed questions for quick analysis of the answers.
- Carry out a pilot study first, a test run, making changes if needed.
- Use attitude scales to test strength of feeling.

Strengths and weaknesses of questionnaires

Strengths:	Weaknesses:
Many people can be tested quickly. It is easy to generate quantitative data and easy to analyse.	Social desirability - people say what they think looks good.

Used to collect large amounts of data about what people think as well as what they do!	People may not tell the truth, especially on sensitive issues, for example, sexual behaviour.
Convenient - researcher does not need to be present as answers can be mailed so respondent has time to consider answers.	If researcher is present then this may affect answers. Also, postal surveys may have low response rate.
Can quickly show changes in attitudes or behaviour before and after specific events.	Difficult to phrase questions clearly, you may obtain different interpretations of questions.

Interviews

Interviews are face-to-face conversations, these can be unstructured, apparently informal chats, or they can be formal, structured interviews with pre-determined questions. For example, clinical tests used in psychiatry. Interviews are often recorded for later, in-depth analysis.

Strengths and weaknesses of interviews

Strengths	Weaknesses
Greater attention to individual's point of view this is important in clinical psychology.	Difficult to analyse if unstructured and qualitative in nature.
Detailed information can be obtained and avoids oversimplifying complex issues.	Time-consuming, expensive.
Unstructured, casual interviews may encourage openness in answers.	Possible interviewer effects. For example, people affected by attractiveness of interviewer!

TASK: Variables

Define the following terms and provide an example:

Independent Variable:

Dependent Variable:

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Extraneous Variable:

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Confounding Variable:

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TASK: Control

Use the words in the box to fill in the gaps

There are several ways in which research can be controlled to eliminate extraneous variables.

Random allocation of participants is an extremely important process in research. In order to assess the of one variable on another, all variables other than the variable to be investigated need to be . Random allocation greatly decreases systematic error, so in responses or ability are far less likely to consistently affect results.

Counterbalancing is a method used to deal with effects caused by order effects that arise when using a measures design. The sample is split in half with one half completing the two conditions in one order and the other half completing the conditions in the reverse order. Eg, the first 10 participants would complete condition A followed by condition B but the remaining 10 participants would complete condition B then A. Any order effects should be balanced out by the opposing half of participants.

Randomisation is used in the presentation of trials to avoid any errors that the order of the trials might present.

Standardisation refers to the process in which procedures used in research are . Great attention is taken to keep all elements of a procedure , so that methods are sensitive to any change in performance. Under these circumstances changes in data can be attributed to the I.V. In addition, it is far more likely that results will be replicated on subsequent occasions when research is , which means that data reflects a meaningful pattern and was not a one-off chance result.

Demand characteristics occur when a participant tries to make sense of the research situation, and as a result . This distorts results, as a participant might intentionally try to demonstrate what the researcher is investigating, or display the opposite (the screw you effect). Participants sometimes try to present themselves in a light rather than producing genuine responses/ behaviours, this is known as .

Investigator Effects occur when the presence of the investigator themselves affects the outcome of the research. E.g. during an interview the participants might feel selfconscious or might be influenced by from the researcher (nodding, smiling, frowning etc.).

Effect	identical	standardised	changes their behaviour
individual differences	extraneous	systematic	
Controlled	positive	repeated	kept the same
social desirability bias	behavioural cues		

Ethics

Ethical issue	Definition
Consent	The participant must give permission to take part knowing the true aims of the study and must know what they are expected to do. This is not always convenient and there are ways around this.
Right to Withdraw	Participants must have the option to leave the study and withdraw all of their data at any time.
Protection from harm	Participants must not experience any more harm than they would in every day life. Eg- severe embarrassment would be considered psychological harm as would distress,

Confidentiality	All information collected must be published in a way that does not identify the participant. From the researchers point of view this is difficult but they can promise anonymity. From the participants point it is a legal requirement.
Deception	This is when participants have been told a false purpose for the research. This is sometimes needed to prevent participants acting in a unnatural way.
Privacy	Some research makes it hard to not invade participants privacy. Eg observing someone in a shop. Participants may not mind being observed in public places but it would be unacceptable to observe in their private home.

TASK: Write an example study for where each ethical issue has occurred

Ethical Issue	Example Study
Consent	
Right to Withdraw	
Protection from harm	
Confidentiality	
Deception	
Privacy	

Data Handling

Quantitative vs Qualitative

Types of Data

Scientists collect two different types of data: qualitative data and quantitative data.

Qualitative Data: Qualitative data are descriptions in words of what is being observed. They are based on some quality of an observation, such as colour, odour, or texture.

Quantitative Data: Quantitative data are numeric measurements. The data are objective- they are the same no matter who measures them. They include measurements such as mass, volume, temperature, distance, concentration, time, or frequency.

Example

Suppose a marine biologist observes the behaviour and activities of dolphins. She identifies different dolphins within the group and observes them every day for a month. She records detailed observations about their behaviours. Some of her observations are qualitative data and some are quantitative data.

Qualitative data examples

- Dolphin colours range from grey to white.
- Dolphins in a pod engage in play behaviour.
- Dolphins have smooth skin.

Quantitative data examples

- There are nine dolphins in this pod.
- Dolphins eat the equivalent of 4-5% of their body mass each day.
- The sonar frequency most often used by the dolphins is around 100kHz.

Notice the qualitative data are descriptions. The quantitative data are objective, numerical measurements.

Qualitative vs. Quantitative

TASK: Identify Data Types

Suppose that you are a biologist studying elephants in their natural habitat in Africa. You observe their behaviours and interaction, and take photographs of their interactions to study later. Examine the photograph of the elephants shown to the left.

1. Give two examples of qualitative data that could be obtained from the photograph of the elephants.

2. Give two examples of quantitative data that could be obtained from the photograph of the elephants.

<u>TASK: Qualitative vs. Quantitative Sorting Activity</u>

1. Decide whether the data is qualitative or quantitative.
2. Sort and number the data on the chart provided

The dogs were small.

The gummy worm increased by 2 inches.

The sample contained 3 different types of bacteria.

There were four dogs in the group.

The patient complained of aches and pains.

The patient had a temperature 102 degrees.

The chimp identified 12 pictures correctly.

The parrots range from bright green to dark red.

The balloon increased in size from 5 inches to 8 inches around.

The birds were young.

The rock sample consisted of 25 grams of quartz

The rock sample was reddish brownish

TASK: Data

What is Primary Data:

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What is Secondary Data:

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Types of Descriptive Statistics

Tables	**Measures**	**Graphics**
Frequency tables	Central tendency Mean, Median, Mode	Bar charts
Tables of raw scores	Dispersion Range, Standard deviation	Histograms
Frequency distribution scores	Correlation coefficients	Graphs
		Frequency polygons
		Scattergrams

- Mean is the arithmetic average of a set of data.
- It is calculated by adding up all the scores and then dividing the total by the number of scores.
- It is useful when the scores are fairly distributed about the central value.
- Median is the middle value in a set of numbers that has been rank ordered. It is not sensitive as mean as not all values are reflected in the median.
- Mode is the most frequently occurring value in a set of data.
- Shows the most important value of a set of scores in nominal data set (data measured in categories).

Mean	Median	Mode
Advantages		
Sensitive measure of central tendency	Fairly easy to calculate	Simple, Easy to find out
Uses all data available	Unaffected by few extreme scores	Unaffected by few extreme scores
	More representative of the centre of a small set of values than the mode.	
Disadvantages		
Affected by extreme values in the data	Lacks sensitivity as it ignores most values in a data set	Unreliable with small sets of data as a few small changes in the data set can alter the mode.
	Unreliable with small sets of data	Lacks sensitivity as it often ignores most values in a set of data

		How to calculate it	Advantages	Disadvantages
Measures of central tendency (what the relationship is of the values with the central point)	**Mean** = the average	To calculate this, you add up all numbers and divide by number of numbers	• it makes use of all the numbers in the data set, and so is a sensitive measure.	• it is affected by extreme scores (high or low) and can misrepresent the • numbers as a result It can only be used with certain types of data (eg. ratio or interval data, with a zero)
	Mode = the most common number	This is calculated by putting similar scores together, and counting which one occurs the most frequently	• it can be used with nominal (categorical) data, and that it provides information about frequency	• the data may have several modes (bimodal = 2 modes)
	Median = central value	This is calculated by arranging scores in order and finding the mid point	• it is not affected by extreme scores • it can be used with ordinal data	• A disadvantage is that it is not as sensitive as the mean, as not all values are reflected

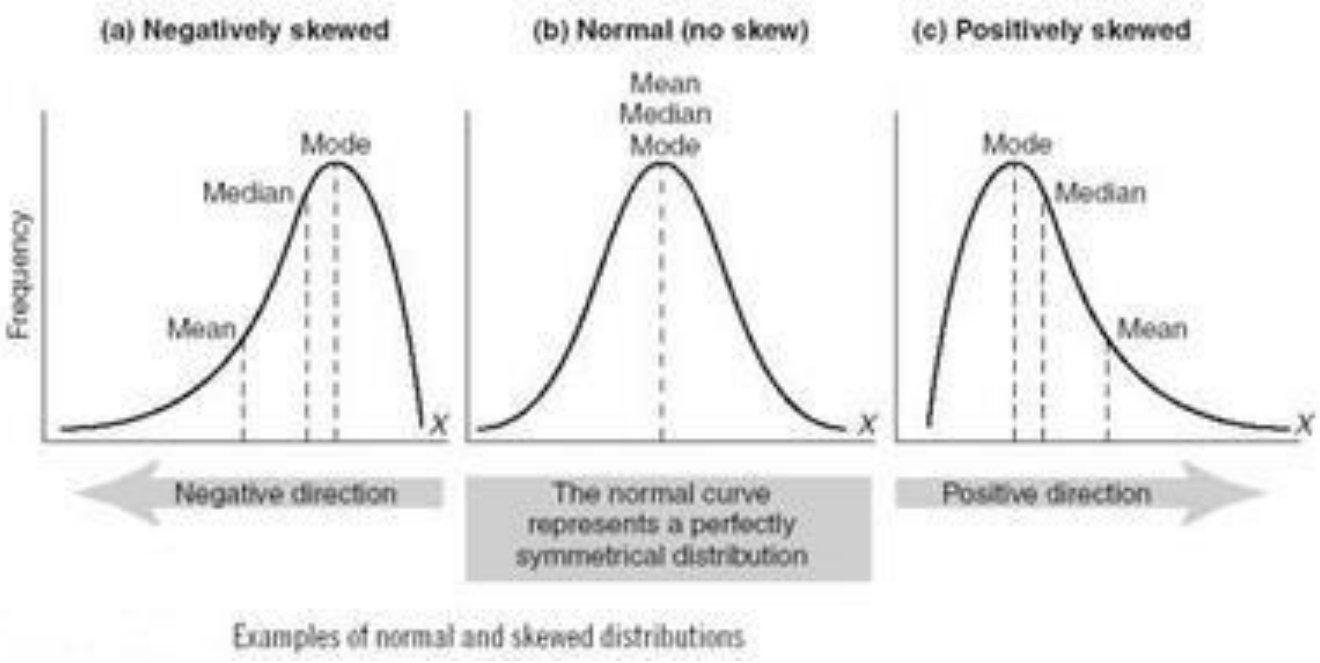
Measures of dispersion	**Range**	The range is the a measure of the spread of a set of scores, shown by the difference between the highest value and the lowest	• it's easy to calculate, and shows extreme values	• it is affected by extreme values, and does not take into account the number of observations in the • data set; it does not give info on whether the scores are clustered around the mean or spread out
(how dispersed or spread out the data are)				
	Standard deviation	This is the **measure of the spread of data around the mean**. The higher the value the more variation in your scores.	• it gives a more precise and sensitive measure of dispersion than the range, as all values are taken into account	• it is more complicated to calculate than the range it may hide • some characteristics of the data

Skewed Distributions

Skewed distribution is a statistical term that measures "asymmetry" (lack of similarity) in a "bell curve" (the bell-shaped graph that occurs when plotting data based on normal meaured traits).

In "normal distribution" there should be a roughly equal number of occurrences of a measured trait on both sides of the mid-point of the bell curve.

The “skewness” (percent of difference) statistic measures how great a change there is in the number of trait occurrences on either side of the mid-point of the curve.



Examples of normal and skewed distributions

This is the end of your bridging work! If you have engaged with this work thoroughly, you’ll be well caught up to work alongside the students who completed GCSE Psychology. Well done! If you have not, you will struggle in September and may not be able to continue with A Level Psychology.

Enjoy your summer – we look forward to having you in our sixth form classes ☺

Bentley Wood
High School for Girls

Psychology

Bridging Work

Summer Holiday Bridging Work 2023

Please complete this booklet if you HAVE completed GCSE Psychology

Name: _____

Tutor Group: _____

Teacher: _____

Psychology Bridging Booklet

Please complete this booklet if you HAVE completed GCSE Psychology

Year 11 into Year 12

Beginning Sept 2023

Student Name:

GCSE English Language Grade:

GCSE English Literature Grade:

GCSE Mathematics Grade:

GCSE Core Science Grade:

GCSE Additional Science Grade:

Welcome to A Level Psychology

Introduction

The purpose of this booklet is to give you essential information and resources to support the beginning of your A Level in Psychology. This booklet will also help you to understand and develop the skills you will need.

To prepare you for your first lesson, please ensure you have a lever arch folder and file dividers ready to organise your notes.

Expectations

- Bring folder and all notes every lesson
- Bring all equipment, such as pens, highlighters, rulers and a calculator
- 100% attendance and punctuality
- 5 hours a week extra study outside of class time for Psychology. Your lessons are merely a support to guide you through Psychology A Level, the hard work has to come outside of class too, to ensure for success.
- You can expect all work to be marked and returned within two weeks of you handing it in

Suggested textbooks for A level Psychology:

The Complete Companions: AQA Psychology Year 1 and AS Student Book (Fourth Edition) (Complete Companion Psychology) Paperback– 12 Mar 2015: Mike Cardwell and Cara Flanagan

AQA Psychology for A Level Year 1 & AS - Student Book. Paperback– 23 Mar 2015: Cara Flanagan, Matt Jarvis & Dave Berry

Whichever textbook you decide to buy, please ensure that it is for the AQA A Level specification and it is for the new changes (new changes came about in 2015).

What is Psychology?

Psychology is the scientific study of human and animal behaviour. Psychologists are always trying to discover why people do the things they do, whether those things are normal or abnormal. Psychologists are also interested in differences between various groups such as males & females, cultural & subcultural (e.g. Welsh & English) groups, and so on. Sometimes we have to look at animal behaviour in order to get a better understanding of our own behaviour and to answer questions like 'how do we learn?' From a personal perspective, you should find the fundamental questions of the psychologist interesting:

- Why do I behave like this?
- Why do I feel like this?
- Why do I think like this?

As part of the psychology course, you will study the following topics;

- Social Influence
- Memory
- Attachment
- Research Methods
- Psychopathology
- Approaches
- Biopsychology
- Relationships
- Aggression
- Eating Behaviour

The topics which cross over from your GCSE are social influence, memory and research methods. These topics have some similarities but some differences to your GCSE. See below the table for the similarities/differences. The booklet will introduce you to a new topic initially where you will need to research the Approaches in Psychology. Then you will be asked some A Level exam questions based on what you already know from GCSE.

Complete all tasks in preparation for starting your course.

Key	GCSE Students Know This	GCSE Students Don't Know This

Content outline	
Memory	• The multi-store model of memory: sensory register, short-term memory and long-term memory. Features of each store: coding, capacity and duration. • Types of long-term memory: episodic, semantic, procedural. • The working memory model: central executive, phonological loop, visuo-spatial sketchpad and episodic buffer. Features of the model: coding and capacity. • Explanations for forgetting: proactive and retroactive interference and retrieval failure due to absence of cues. • Factors affecting the accuracy of eyewitness testimony: misleading information, including leading questions and postevent discussion; anxiety. • Improving the accuracy of eyewitness testimony, including the use of the cognitive interview.

Social Influence	• Types of conformity: internalisation, identification and compliance. Explanations for conformity: informational social influence and normative social influence, and variables
	affecting conformity including group size, unanimity and task difficulty as investigated by Asch. Conformity to social roles as investigated by Zimbardo. • Explanations for obedience: agentic state and legitimacy of authority, and situational variables affecting obedience including proximity, location and uniform, as investigated by Milgram. Dispositional explanation for obedience: the Authoritarian Personality. • Explanations of resistance to social influence, including social support and locus of control. • Minority influence including reference to consistency, commitment and flexibility. • The role of social influence processes in social change. •
Research Methods	• Students should demonstrate knowledge and understanding of the following research methods, scientific processes and techniques of data handling and analysis, be familiar with their use and be aware of their strengths and limitations: • Experimental method. Types of experiment, laboratory and field experiments; natural and quasi-experiments. • Observational techniques. Types of observation: naturalistic and controlled observation; covert and overt observation; participant and non-participant observation. • Self-report techniques. Questionnaires; interviews, structured and unstructured. • Correlations. Analysis of the relationship between co-variables. The difference between correlations and experiments. • Aims: stating aims, the difference between aims and hypotheses. • Hypotheses: directional and non-directional. • Sampling: the difference between population and sample; sampling techniques including: random, systematic, stratified, opportunity and volunteer; implications of sampling techniques, including bias and generalisation.

	• Pilot studies and the aims of piloting. • Experimental designs: repeated measures, independent groups, matched pairs. Observational design: behavioural categories; event sampling; time sampling.
	• Questionnaire construction, including use of open and closed questions; design of interviews. • Variables: manipulation and control of variables, including independent, dependent, extraneous, confounding; operationalisation of variables. • Control: random allocation and counterbalancing, randomisation and standardisation. • Demand characteristics and investigator effects. • Ethics, including the role of the British Psychological Society's code of ethics; ethical issues in the design and conduct of psychological studies; dealing with ethical issues in research. • The role of peer review in the scientific process. • The implications of psychological research for the economy. • Quantitative and qualitative data; the distinction between qualitative and quantitative data collection techniques. • Primary and secondary data, including meta-analysis. • Descriptive statistics: measures of central tendency – mean, median, mode; calculation of mean, median and mode; measures of dispersion; range and standard deviation; calculation of range; calculation of percentages; positive, negative and zero correlations. • Presentation and display of quantitative data: graphs, tables, scattergrams, bar charts. • Distributions: normal and skewed distributions; characteristics of normal and skewed distributions. • Introduction to statistical testing; the sign test.

In order to complete the following tasks, you will need to do some research. You can log into the online textbook here to help (if you cannot log in, use simplypsychology.com);

Website: Illuminate.digital/aqapsych1

Username: SBENTLEYWHS

Password: STUDENT

APPROACHES IN PSYCHOLOGY

The Origins of Psychology

Who is Wilhelm Wundt - what is he known for?
What is meant by introspection?
What is the emergence of science?

The Behaviourist Approach

Define classical conditioning
Define operant conditioning

The Cognitive Approach

Define a schema in cognitive psychology
What is cognitive neuroscience?
Define the role of the theoretical and computer models in psychology.

The Biological Approach

What are genotypes and phenotypes?
What are neurotransmitters? What are serotonin and dopamine used for?
What are hormones? What is testosterone used for?

Complete the following exam questions to revise your knowledge of Social Influence, Memory and Research Methods. The question are A Level questions and therefore will be more challenging than GCSE but your effort and knowledge of content is what I am grading (as opposed to exam technique – for now)!

SOCIAL INFLUENCE

Q1.

Outline and briefly evaluate locus of control as an explanation of resistance to social influence.

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(Total 6 marks)

Q2.

Daniel and Matthew are in the same class at school but have very different views on success. Daniel is convinced that success is due to hard work and determination, whilst Matthew believes that luck and fate determine success.

The class is putting on a play and neither Daniel nor Matthew wants to participate. Their friends are trying to persuade them to take part.

(a) Using your knowledge of locus of control, identify which boy is most likely to resist the social influence of his friends. Explain why.

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(4)

(b) Another boy in the class, Tom, refuses to take part in the play.

Explain how Tom's refusal to take part might affect Daniel's and Matthew's ability to resist social influence.

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(2)

(Total 6 marks)

MEMORY

Q1.

Complete the following statement about long-term memory. Shade **one** box only.

Information stored with reference to time and place refers to:

A Episodic memory ⬭

B Procedural memory ⬭

C Semantic memory ⬭

(Total 1 mark)

Q2.

Identify the main type of coding used in **each** of the following components of the multi-store model of memory. (2 marks)

Short term memory

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Long term memory

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Q13.

Describe **and** evaluate the multi-store model of memory.

(Total 12 marks)

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RESEARCH METHODS

Q4.

Read the item and then answer the questions that follow.

A psychologist wanted to see if verbal fluency is affected by whether people think they are presenting information to a small group of people or to a large group of people.

The psychologist needed a stratified sample of 20 people. She obtained the sample from a company employing 60 men and 40 women.

The participants were told that they would be placed in a booth where they would read out an article about the life of a famous author to an audience. Participants were also told that the audience would not be present, but would only be able to hear them and would not be able to interact with them.

There were two conditions in the study, **Condition A** and **Condition B**.

Condition A: 10 participants were told the audience consisted of 5 listeners.

Condition B: the other 10 participants were told the audience consisted of 100 listeners.

Each participant completed the study individually. The psychologist recorded each presentation and then counted the number of verbal errors made by each participant.

(a) Identify the dependent variable in this study.

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(2)

(b) Write a suitable hypothesis for this study.

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(3)

(c) Identify **one** extraneous variable that the psychologist should have controlled in the study **and** explain why it should have been controlled.

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(3)

(d) Explain **one** advantage of using a stratified sample of participants in this study.

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(2)

(e) Explain how the psychologist would have obtained the male participants for her stratified sample. Show your calculations.

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(3)

(f) The psychologist wanted to randomly allocate the 20 people in her stratified sample to the two conditions. She needed an equal number of males in each condition and an equal number of females in each condition. Explain how she would have done this.

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(4)

(Total 17 marks)

YOU HAVE COMPLETED YOUR BRIDGING WORK. WELL DONE! IF YOU HAVE ENGAGED WITH THIS WORK THOROUGHLY, YOU WILL STRIVE IN SEPTEMBER.

HAVE A FAB SUMMER AND WE LOOK FORWARD TO WELCOMING YOU INTO THE SIXTH FORM ☺