Scott
Scott Medical and Healthcare College

Summer Term
Term 3

Psychology

Year 11

Name: _____

Tutor: _____

Care to Learn,

Learn to Care

GREENSHAW LEARNING TRUST

Year 11 Homework Timetable

Monday	English Task 1	Option A Task 1	Option C Task 1
Tuesday	Sparx Science	Option B Task 1	Sparx Maths
Wednesday	Sparx Maths	Science Task 1	Option C Task 2
Thursday	Option A Task 2	Sparx Catch Up	Option B Task 2
Friday	Science Task 2	English Task 2	

Sparx Science

• Complete 100% of their assigned homework each week

Sparx Maths

• Complete 100% of their assigned homework each week

Option A
Geography
History
Spanish

Option B
Geography
Psychology
Health and Social Care

Option C
Childcare
Drama
Psychology
Sport

Half Term 5 (5 weeks) - Year 11		
Week / Date	**Homework task 1 Cornell Notes**	**Homework task 2 Exam Question**
Week 1 21st April 2025	**Cornell Notes on:** Issues and Debates - Morality (links to Development)	**Question**: Describe the difference between pre-conventional and conventional stages of morality. (2 marks)
Week 2 28th April 2025	**Revision Cards on:** Issues and Debates - Reductionism and Holism (links to Memory)	**Question**: Describe the difference between the terms 'reductionism' and 'holism'. (2 marks)
Week 3 5th May 2025	**Cornell Notes on:** Issues and Debates - Nature versus Nurture (links to Psychological Problems)	**Question**: Define the term 'nurture' in relation to addiction. Use an example in your answer.(2 marks)
Week 4 12th May 2025	**Revision Cards on:** Issues and Debates - How Psychology has Changed Over Time (Links to the Brain and Neuropsychology)	**Question:** Assess how psychological understanding of the brain has changed over time. (4 marks)
Week 5 19th May 2025	**Cornell Notes on:** Research Methods - Variables	**Question**: Name the independent variable (IV) for Winston's investigation. Calculate how many participants were male as a fraction of all participants. You must give your answer in the lowest form. (2 marks)

<table>
<tr><th colspan="3">TERM 3 Knowledge organiser</th></tr>
<tr><th>Session</th><th>Key words</th><th>Knowledge</th></tr>
<tr><td>Week 1: Issues and Debates - Morality (links to Development)</td><td>Morals: standards of right and wrong behaviour that can differ between cultures and can depend on the situation.
Moral development: children's growing understanding about right and wrong.
Heteronomous: rules put into place by others.
Autonomous: rules can be decided by the individual person.
Norms: society's values and customs, which a person in that society would be governed by.</td><td>Piaget's (1932) theory of moral development
Piaget suggests that moral understanding develops, as with cognitive development, through stages.
• From about age 5 to 10 years, a child believes rules cannot be changed.
Their ideas of morality come from others around them, such as parents and teachers. At this age, they tend to focus on an action's consequences. For example, breaking the rules leads to punishment, so they obey the rules. This stage is 'heteronomous' (directed by others).
• From about 10 years old, a child knows that the intentions of the action are important. An action with bad consequences can be a good action if the intention was good. A child understands that it can be right to change rules to benefit others and if everyone agrees. Morals are seen as agreed between people and the child knows that following rules is about more than the consequences of not following them. This stage is 'autonomous' (the individual decides).

Kohlberg's (1958) theory of moral development
Lawrence Kohlberg, like Piaget, used stories to find someone's stage of moral development. Kohlberg suggests that there are three levels of moral reasoning, each with two stages.

<table>
<tr><td>Level and ages</td><td>Stages and explanations</td></tr>
<tr><td>Level 1: pre-conventional morality (aged up to about 9 years old)</td><td>Stages 1 and 2: the child believes rules cannot be changed. It is the consequence of the action – whether there is punishment or reward – that makes it a good or bad action. Stage 1 focuses on the child obeying in order to avoid punishment. Stage 2 is about self-interest and 'what's in it for me', including what benefit can be gained from moral actions. These two stages are found in children and are a basic view of right and wrong.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Level 2: conventional morality (most young people and adults)</td><td>Stages 3 and 4: the young person or adult sees themselves as a good member of society and that is their starting point for what is moral behaviour. Reasoning comes from group norms. Stage 3 is about being seen as 'good' and conforming to social rules - wanting to be liked. Stage 4 is about maintaining social order by obeying authority, which is a duty.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Level 3: post- conventional morality (only about 10% of</td><td>Stages 5 and 6: the individual has their own ideas about what is good and bad. They understand that there are moral principles that are</td></tr>
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<tr><td>people reach this level)</td><td>universal (for everyone) rather than being for one society. Stage 5 is about laws being social contracts which individuals enter into, so there can be differences in morality between individuals according to which laws they have agreed to. Democracy is an example of Stage 5 reasoning. Stage 6 is the understanding that moral reasoning is abstract and there are universal ethical principles that 'must' be followed. This stage emphasises right and wrong actions beyond individual laws. These two stages go beyond social laws to what the individual has as moral principles.</td></tr>
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Weaknesses of these theories
• Both Piaget and Kohlberg used stories that were artificial and might not represent real thinking (they lack ecological validity). There were no real consequences in the stories from the decisions that were made.
• Carol Gilligan (1977) criticised Kohlberg, saying his male-only sample meant his theory was about male morality.
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<td>Week 2: Issues and Debates - Reductionism and Holism (links to Memory)</td>
<td>Reductionism: the theory of explaining something according to its basic constituent parts.
Holism: the theory of explaining something as a whole.</td>
<td>Reductionism is the scientific theory of describing something using its basic parts or the simplest explanation. Reductionism is based on the belief that any human behaviour or cognitive (thought) process can be best explained by looking at the parts that make up that behaviour or process to understand how it works. Scientists often reduce complex behaviour into basic parts because it means that we can be more certain that one thing causes another. This helps us investigate what causes a behaviour. For example, if we explain aggression as a result of a certain gene, we can test for the gene and see if it is associated with someone being more aggressive than a person without that gene.

Reductionism is associated with scientific methods such as laboratory experiments, where factors that may explain a behaviour can be isolated and tested under controlled conditions. A theory or study that describes a behaviour by a single, simple explanation can be said to be reductionist. Reductionism is a desirable scientific practice and can be appropriate in circumstances where there is a clear, single explanation. However, reductionism can result in an explanation that is overly simplistic. It may mean that we ignore other causes of that behaviour or the interaction effects between multiple causes. For example, in explaining aggression according to a single gene, we may miss other social factors that could contribute to aggression, such as upbringing, or miss the interaction between the aggression gene and other factors.

Holism is the opposite of reductionism, so can be explained as the theory of trying to understand the whole behaviour rather than its parts. To be holistic is to try to understand the whole person. This approach takes into account the fact that many different factors work together to cause a behaviour, and therefore dividing up these factors is not useful in understanding the behaviour as a whole. For example, a cake can be described by a list of ingredients that went into making it. Each ingredient contributed to the taste, texture and smell of the cake. However, you need all the ingredients working together, interacting during the baking to make the cake, otherwise it would not work. Holistic psychologists believe that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts.</td>
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		Holistic psychologists tend to use qualitative methods to gain greater insight into the causes of behaviour and try to understand the whole person and their beliefs. In practice, holism can be difficult to achieve because understanding the whole individual means investigating lots of variables at the same time. It is also regarded as unscientific because the findings can only apply to a particular individual – the resulting theories cannot apply to everyone else. **How the reductionism/holism debate applies to human memory research** The area of cognitive psychology concerned with memory, and other cognitive processes, is generally regarded to be reductionist. Atkinson and Shiffrin's (1968) Multi-store Model of Memory can be seen as reductionist as it describes our memory as a series of component memory stores with specific functions, such as rehearsal. Research using experiments that investigate how memory works can also be regarded as reductionist as experiments tend to isolate variables to investigate, without considering other factors that could also explain the behaviour. However, Bartlett's work cannot be considered reductionist because of the way he conducted his research. Bartlett used qualitative analysis to explore the reconstructive nature of memory by understanding how each individual's schemas influenced their recall of stories and pictures. He spent considerable time establishing the character and backgrounds of his participants in order to understand how their schemas were formed. For example, he found out what jobs they had in order to see whether their training and employment might have influenced how they remembered things.
Week 3: Issues and Debates - Nature versus Nurture (links to Psychological Problems)	**Nature:** the biological factors that can influence a person's behaviour **Nurture**: the environmental factors that can influence a person's behaviour	Nature Nature refers to the biological factors that can influence a person's behaviour, and these are generally in place even before we are born. One example is the genes we inherit from our parents. These genes determine how our body will develop, and we often accept that we will all be physically different because of the different genes we have. For example, the genes we inherit will affect our hair colour, eye colour and height. However, some psychologists also think that behavioural characteristics are hard-wired into us by our genes. Some people believe that, for example, being a criminal, building relationships and developing mental health problems could all be explained by looking at our genes. Nurture Nurture refers to the environmental factors that can influence a person's behaviour, mostly after they are born. One example is the influence that watching family members has on a person's behaviour. Those who look at the influence of nurture on behaviour tend to think that we are born as a 'blank slate' and that all our experiences throughout life then get written into us. The process of writing onto the blank slate is what influences human behaviour, so it is our experiences that influence our behaviour. One example might be children copying violent behaviour they have seen on television, or learning to speak by copying the words their parents say.

		The nature and nurture debate and mental health problems The debate over what influences behaviour most – nature or nurture – has been a big issue in the study of psychological problems because it can have an impact on how we should treat those with mental health problems. There are explanations of mental health problems that claim genes have a strong influence, supporting the nature side of the debate. For example, Caspi et al. (2003) found evidence that having a specific version of a gene that affects the amount of serotonin available in the nervous system (5-HTT) could influence whether someone was likely to develop depression after a stressful life event. If we assume that becoming depressed or developing an addiction is due to genetics, we can explain why some people do not develop these psychological problems – because we inherit different genes. If these mental health problems are influenced by genes, then we have to consider that patients will find changing these behaviours very difficult – we cannot change a person's genetic make-up. So, for people with the short version of the 5-HTT gene that predisposes them to depression after a life event (Caspi et al., 2003), the depression might be more likely to return even after treatment because they still have that version of the gene. This means that any future life event could trigger a relapse. There are also explanations for psychological problems that support the nurture side of the debate, such as the cognitive explanation of depression and learning theory as an explanation of addiction. Both of these explanations assume that the psychological problems are learned as a result of events that happen in a person's environment. If we assume that mental health problems like depression and addiction have been learned, other ways of behaving can be learned to replace them. This could form the basis of treatment. This would explain why cognitive behavioural therapy can be used to treat both depression and addiction, by training patients to think differently and then change the way they behave. The fact that this therapy is so effective for treating both of these types of psychological problems would support the claim they are caused by nurture and not nature. Other explanations for mental health problems claim that there is an interaction between nature and nurture factors that causes symptoms. Caspi et al. (2003) found that a combination of the short version of the 5-HTT gene and a stressful life event increased the risk of developing depression. The genes make some people more prone to developing a mental health problem, and then a stressful event from the environment will trigger the symptoms.
Week 4: Issues and Debates - How Psychology has Changed over Time (links to the Brain and	**Neuroscience:** the scientific study of the brain and nervous system. **Post-mortem:** an examination of a body after death, often to work out how or why the person died.	Psychology is defined now as 'the scientific study of the human mind and its functions, especially those affecting behaviour in a given context' (Oxford English Dictionary, 2017). Psychology has been developing over the past 200 years. It started as a philosophical discipline and is now widely regarded as a science alongside biology, chemistry and physics. The way psychologists work and how they study behaviour has also changed over time. This section will explore just how psychology has changed since the very beginning – from the early work of Wilhelm Wundt in the 1870s to the modern work of psychologists, including the development of neuroscience.

Neuropsychology)	**EEG (electroencephalograph)**: a method of measuring brain activity using electrodes placed on the scalp. **MRI (magnetic resonance imaging)**: a method of studying the brain using electromagnets. **PET (positron emission tomography)**: imagery showing the amount of energy being used throughout the brain.	**How has the study of psychology changed over time?** Psychology was 'born' in 1875 when researcher Wilhelm Wundt opened a laboratory in Leipzig, Germany, to study people's thoughts. Before this, people had not really considered what happened inside our heads, they were more interested in the anatomy of the brain itself rather than what it does. Cases like Phineas Gage, who had his accident in 1848, had started to encourage doctors to investigate how the brain itself was involved in the control of specific behaviours. Studying the brain at that time was only really possible after someone had died, when the brain could be removed during a post-mortem. Although Gage lived a further 12 years after his accident, the level of understanding of how the brain and behaviour were connected was still very limited. After the study of psychology as we know it began with Wundt, people began to make more connections between the physical brain and human behaviour. This then led to more modern forms of brain scanning such as MRI (magnetic resonance imaging) and PET (positron emission tomography) scans that give us more detailed information about how the brain works. These scans can show detailed pictures of what the brain looks like or images that show how active different parts of the brain are at different times. An advantage of using brain scans to study the living brain, rather than post-mortem studies, is that it provides the opportunity to help people living with brain damage. If we can see where the damage is, and understand how that area is working (or not working), then help can be given. This then led to more modern forms of brain scanning such as MRI (magnetic resonance imaging) and PET (positron emission tomography) scans that give us more detailed information about how the brain works. These scans can show detailed pictures of what the brain looks like or images that show how active different parts of the brain are at different times. An advantage of using brain scans to study the living brain, rather than post-mortem studies, is that it provides the opportunity to help people living with brain damage. If we can see where the damage is, and understand how that area is working (or not working), then help can be given.
Week 5: Research Methods - Variables	**Independent variable (IV):** the variable directly manipulated by the researcher. **Dependent variable (DV):** the variable being measured in a study. **Operationalisation:** making the variables in an investigation detailed and specific. **Extraneous variable:** a variable that is not controlled, which	An independent variable (IV) is the variable (factor) in research that is directly manipulated by the researcher in order to examine its effect. The IV can have two or more levels, which are seen in the conditions (parts) of an investigation. For example, if you are examining the influence of caffeine on performance, the IV is caffeine and the researcher may alter the levels given to participants. In one condition of the investigation, participants may be given 1 mg of caffeine and in the second, 2 mg of caffeine. To identify the IV of an investigation, you need to look at the factor being altered between the conditions of the study. A dependent variable (DV) is the variable that is being measured by the researcher. The DV should be affected by the manipulation of the IV, so it is the outcome of the study. To identify the DV, you should look for the variable that is being measured in the investigation. For example, if the IV is the level of caffeine, the DV could be a person's work performance. Performance should change as a result of different levels of caffeine. It is important that both the IV and DV are operationalised, so that they are testable and measurable. When we operationalise variables, we make them specific and detailed so that another researcher can know what was measured and changed, and how.

	could affect the results of a study. **Confounding variable:** an extraneous variable that affects the results of the study so that the effect of the IV is not truly being seen. **Situational variable**: an extraneous variable present in the environment of the study. **Order effects**: when participants improve or worsen in the second condition because they have practised or become fatigued. **Demand characteristics:** when the participant alters their behaviour in response to the perceived aims of the investigation. **Investigator effect:** when a researcher unintentionally gives clues to participants, altering their behaviour. **Participant variables**: extraneous variables specific to the participants of an investigation, for example their mood, ability or personality.	Extraneous variables are factors in an investigation that may interfere with the IV or DV and affect the findings of the study. Extraneous variables may be associated with the situational conditions of the study or the participants involved in the study, and they need to be controlled to prevent them from affecting the outcome of a study. If an extraneous variable is not controlled, and so has an effect on the outcome, it is known as a confounding variable. This is because it confounds (damages) the results. Situational variables are present in the environment of the investigation, and typically include noise, distractions, light levels and temperature. These variables can influence the outcome of a study if they vary between conditions. For example, if one group of participants is trying to perform a written task in poor light, their ability may be worse than a group who performs the same written task with good lighting conditions. How the study was conducted (the procedure) can introduce situational variables. If a study requires participants to repeat a test, this can cause problems. For example, participants may improve just because they have repeated the test, or they may become tired or bored, and so do less well. This is known as order effects. Participants may also change their behaviour to meet the perceived aims of the study, which are known as demand characteristics. Investigator effects can also encourage demand characteristics. This is when a researcher unintentionally gives participants clues about how to behave, for example they may nod when a participant gives a correct answer. Participant variables are associated with the participants involved in an investigation. Participants bring with them various abilities, attributes and tendencies that can influence the outcome of the results, particularly if a certain type of participant is found in one condition of the study and not the other. Participant variables can include personality type, physical ability, substance tolerance, memory ability, life experiences, mood, upbringing and many others. The researcher only needs to consider what participant variables are likely to influence the findings of their study. For example, driving ability is unlikely to influence the outcome of a short-term memory experiment.

STEP 2: CREATE CUES

What: Reduce your notes to just the essentials.

What: Immediately after class, discussion, or reading session.

How:

- **Jot down key ideas, important words and phrases**
- **Create questions that might appear on an exam**
- **Reducing your notes to the most important ideas and concepts improves recall. Creating questions that may appear on an exam gets you thinking about how the information might be applied and improves your performance on the exam.**

Why: Spend at least ten minutes every week reviewing all of your previous notes. Reflect on the material and ask yourself questions based on what you've recorded in the Cue area. Cover the note-taking area with a piece of paper. Can you answer them?

STEP 1: RECORD YOUR NOTES

What: Record all keywords, ideas, important dates, people, places, diagrams and formulas from the lesson. Create a new page for each topic discussed.

When: During class lecture, discussion, or reading session.

How:

- **Use bullet points, abbreviated phrases, and pictures**
- **Avoid full sentences and paragraphs**
- **Leave space between points to add more information later**

Why: Important ideas must be recorded in a way that is meaningful to you.

STEP 3: SUMMARISE & REVIEW

What: Summarise the main ideas from the lesson.
What: At the end of the class lecture, discussion, or reading session.
How: In complete sentences, write down the conclusions that can be made from the information in your notes.
Why: Summarising the information after it's learned improves long-term retention.

WEEK 1: Cornell Notes (Homework task 1)

Topic: Issues and Debates - Morality (links to Development)	Revision guide page: 24-27

Links **Questions**	**Notes**

Summary

WEEK 1: Exam Question (Homework task 2)

Question: Describe the difference between pre-conventional and conventional stages of morality. (2 marks)

Answer:

WEEK 1: Exam Question review and improvement (Classwork)

Question:

Answer:

WEEK 2: Exam Question (Homework task 2)

Question: Describe the difference between the terms 'reductionism' and 'holism'. (2 marks)

Answer:

WEEK 2: Exam Question review and improvement (Classwork)

Question:

Answer:

WEEK 3: Cornell Notes (Homework task 1)

Topic: Issues and Debates - Nature versus Nurture (links to Psychological Problems)	Revision guide page 76-77

Links **Questions**	**Notes**

Summary

WEEK 3: Exam Question (Homework task 2)

Question: Define the term 'nurture' in relation to addiction. Use an example in your answer. (2 marks)

Answer:

WEEK 3: Exam Question review and improvement (Classwork)

Question:

Answer:

WEEK 4: Exam Question (Homework task 2)

Question: After conflicts such as the First or Second World Wars, victims were left with damaged brains. Soldiers who returned home with damaged brains found their level of functioning was impaired. Some also returned home suffering from psychological problems. Case studies of brain-damaged patients have helped researchers to study the brain and from this they have attempted to propose how the structure and function of the brain affect human behaviour and processing. Damage to a specific brain area can lead to theories about the function of that region, which may change over time as greater knowledge is amassed through research using improved technology. Assess how psychological understanding of the brain has changed over time. (4 marks)

Answer:

WEEK 4: Exam Question review and improvement (Classwork)

Question:

Answer:

WEEK 5: Cornell Notes (Homework task 1)

Topic: Research Methods - Variables	Revision guide page 132-134

Links	**Notes**
Questions	

Summary

WEEK 5: Exam Question (Homework task 2)

Question: Winston investigated gender differences in pro-social and anti-social behaviour. He placed a mobile phone on a seat near the local police station and recorded the responses of male and female passers-by to the mobile phone.

(a) Name the independent variable (IV) for Winston's investigation. (1)

The results for Winston's investigation are shown in Table 2.

	Number of male passers-by	Number of female passers-by
Took the mobile phone to the police station	3	7
Walked away with the mobile phone	8	8
Walked past the mobile phone	7	15

Table 2

(b) Calculate how many participants were male as a fraction of all participants. You must give your answer in the lowest form (1)

Answer:

WEEK 5: Exam Question review and improvement (Classwork)

Question:

Answer:

Week 2

Revision Card on Reductionism and Holism 1. What is reductionism? 2. Provide an example of reductionism. 3. What is holism? 4. Provide an example of holism. 5. Which is seen as a desirable scientific practice?	**Answers**

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Week 4

Revision Card on Issues and Debates - How Psychology has Changed Over Time (Links to the Brain and Neuropsychology) 1. What is neuroscience? 2. Which case study is linked to the development of psychology? 3. Give one advantage of using brain scans to help understand behaviour. 4. What does PET measure? 5. How could brain scans help understand brain damage?	**Answers**