

Summer Term Term 3 **Psychology** Year 10

Name: _____

Tutor: _____

Care to Learn

Learn to Care



Year 10 Homework Timetable

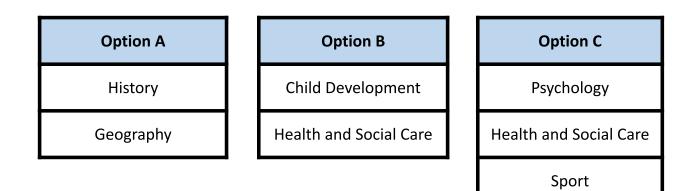
| Monday | English | Option A | Option C |
|-----------|-------------------|-------------------|----------|
| | Task 1 | Task 1 | Task 1 |
| Tuesday | Option B | Sparx | Science |
| | Task 1 | Maths | Task 1 |
| Wednesday | Sparx | Option C | Sparx |
| | Maths | Task 2 | Science |
| Thursday | Option A | Sparx | Option B |
| | Task 2 | Science | 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



| | Half Term 5 (5 weeks) - Year 10 | | |
|---------------------------|---|--|--|
| Week / Date | Homework task 1 Cornell Notes | Homework task 2 Exam Question | |
| Week 1 21st April 2025 | Cornell Notes on: Amnesia | Question : Explain what Ivana is likely to find if the patient has retrograde amnesia. (2 marks) | |
| Week 2 28th April 2025 | Revision Cards on: Reconstructive Memory | Question : Explain why Leah's memory of the event at the park could have changed. You should refer to the Theory of Reconstructive Memory in your answer.(2 marks) | |
| Week 3 5th May 2025 | Cornell Notes on: Bartlett's War of the Ghosts | Question : Explain what is likely to happen with Ellis's memory of the story. You should refer to Bartlett (1932) War of the Ghosts study in your answer. (4 marks) | |
| Week 4 12th May 2025 | Revision Cards on: Reductionism and Holism | Question: Describe the difference between the terms 'reductionism' and 'holism'. (2 marks) | |
| Week 5 19th May 2025 | Cornell Notes on: Early Brain Development | Question : Describe the medulla during brain development. (4 marks) | |

| Half Term 6 (7 weeks) - Year 10 | | | |
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| Week / Date | Homework task 1 Cornell Notes | Homework task 2 Exam Question | |
| Week 6 2nd June 2025 | Cornell Notes on: Piaget's stages of development | Question : Explain why Christie's daughter called the baby koalas 'puppies'. You should refer to schemata/schemas in your answer. (2 marks) | |
| Week 7 9th June 2025 | Revision Cards on: Three Mountains Experiment | Question : Individual questions based on facts about Three Mountains Task (2 marks) | |
| Week 8 16th June 2025 | Cornell Notes on: Dweck | Question : Explain which stage of cognitive development Sarah's daughter is in according to her statement. You should refer to Piaget and Inhelder (1956) Three Mountains task in your answer. (4 marks) | |
| Week 9 23rd June 2025 | Mock Exams | Mock Exams | |
| Week 10 30th June 2025 | Mock Exams | Mock Exams | |
| Week 11 7th July 2024 | Cornell Notes on: Willingham | Question : Explain one way that Martha could praise Emily to try to encourage a growth mindset. You should refer to growth mindset in your answer. (2 marks) | |
| Week 12 14th July 2025 | Revision Cards on: Gunderson | Question : Explain one conclusion you could make from Table 1 regarding social learning to improve social development. (2 marks) | |

| TERM 3 Knowledge Organiser | | |
|----------------------------|---|---|
| Session | Key words | Knowledge |
| Week 1: Amnesia | Amnesia: memory loss, often through accident, disease or injury. Anterograde amnesia: a memory condition that means new long-term memories cannot be made; this is typically caused by injury to the brain. Retrograde amnesia: a memory condition that affects recall of memories prior to an injury to the brain. | Although the capacity of long-term memory is potentially limitless and its duration can be up to a lifetime, we do still forget things. Sometimes people experience a special type of forgetting, called amnesia. Amnesia is a condition characterised by forgetting or memory loss, particularly after a brain trauma. There are two types of amnesia that affect long-term memory: anterograde and retrograde. Anterograde amnesia Anterograde amnesia is the inability to store any new long-term memories following a brain injury. A patient with anterograde amnesia has an intact short-term memory, so can process sensory information in that moment of time. But they are unable to lay down any new memories that last beyond a few minutes. It seems their ability to transfer information from short-term to long-term memory is damaged. As anterograde amnesia affects memory following a brain injury, it is typical for a patient to retain their long-term memories from before the incident. Retrograde amnesia is where a patient who has suffered a brain injury cannot remember information from before the injury. This type of amnesia can be specific to one memory, such as the traumatic incident that caused the injury, or it can be limited to a specific time frame. In severe cases, patients can forget who they are |
| Week 2: | Active reconstruction: memory | and where they come from. It is possible for people with retrograde amnesia to regain some or all of their lost memory. Before we thought of the brain as a computer, psychologist Sir Frederic Bartlett came up with a theory of how |
| Reconstructive Memory | is not an exact copy of what we experienced, but an interpretation or reconstruction of events that are influenced by our schema (expectation) when we remember them again. Schema (memory) : a packet of knowledge about an event, person or place that influences how we perceive and remember. | memory worked. His theory is called the Theory of Reconstructive Memory. Memory and schemas Bartlett proposed that memories are not stored as an exact form as in a computer. Instead, our memories are notes about what we experience, like jotting down a brief outline on a notepad. When we come to recall these memories, we simply retrieve the notes and elaborate on them using our general knowledge about similar events. This means that memories are not exact copies of an event but an interpretation – an active reconstruction. Bartlett referred to this general knowledge as schemas. They are unique to us and develop over time through our own experiences. Schemas are packets of information, a bit like scripts, about events or situations. For example, we have a schema for going to a restaurant, which includes a general understanding of that event: being ushered to a table, selecting food from a menu, paying the bill and so on. When we recall going to a specific restaurant, we draw upon this schema to reconstruct the event itself. This may mean that we recall choosing a meal from a menu when in fact there was a set menu, which results in a subtle reconstruction of the original event. |

| | | How schemas are formed According to Bartlett, our schemas are formed throughout our lives through experiences. Just as we build language through an increasing vocabulary, we build schemas through personal experiences. This means that although some schemas are shared within a particular culture, such as what is meant by going to school, other schemas are unique and personal to us. How schemas influence memory Using various pictures and stories, Bartlett tested how schemas influence memory. He found that, over time, people recalled the pictures and stories differently because they were influenced by their schemas. Schemas influence our memory and cause us to ignore or change details when we recall them. In particular, Bartlett found that recall displayed: Omissions - we leave out unfamiliar, irrelevant or unpleasant details when remembering something. Our schema simplifies the information. Transformations - details are changed to make them more familiar and rational. Familiarisation - we add details into our recall to give a reason for something that may not have originally fitted with a schema. |
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| Week 3: Bartlett's War of the Ghosts | Serial reproduction: a technique where participants retell something to another participant to form a chain; this is how folk stories are passed down through cultures. Repeated reproduction: a technique where participants are asked to recall something again and again. | Background to the study In his book, Remembering, Bartlett wrote about experiments that he conducted using pictures and folk stories. One such story was a North American folk tale called 'The War of the Ghosts'. Bartlett chose this story because it would have been unfamiliar to the students and colleagues at Cambridge University who were involved in the study. He hoped the unfamiliarity of the story would shed light on the reconstructive nature of memory because his participants would be more likely to draw on their schemas to recall it. Aims To test the nature of reconstructive memory using an unfamiliar story, looking at whether or not personal schemas influence what is remembered from the story. Procedure Participants were asked to read 'The War of the Ghosts' twice and then were later asked to recall it. Bartlett used both serial reproduction and repeated reproduction to test the recall of the story. For serial reproduction, participants were asked to read the story and then retell the story to another participant 15 to 30 minutes later. The second participant then told the story to a third participant, and so on. For repeated reproduction, the same participant was asked to write out the story after 15 minutes. They were then asked to recall the story several minutes, hours, days, months and years later. Results Bartlett used qualitative analysis to look for and interpret changes to the stories that were recalled. He found that repeated reproductions tended to follow a similar form, which means that the theme or outline of the first |

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| | | of the 'odd' story by giving it meaning. This resulted in additions or changes such as making connections or giving reasons for events. This is known as rationalisation. For example, participants often recalled the original sentence of 'Something black came out of his mouth' as 'a man's dying breath' or 'foaming at the mouth'. Participants also tended to leave out unfamiliar or unpleasant parts of the story, particularly the unfamiliar place names. Lots of details became familiarised and simplified. For example, 'canoe' became 'boat' and 'hunting' was recalled as 'fishing'. |
| | | Conclusion Bartlett interpreted the results as evidence for the active and constructive nature of memory. Participants did not recall the story fully or accurately. Instead, they omitted details that did not fit with their schema and some details were altered by the influence of their schema. |
| Week 4: Reductionism and Holism | Reductionism: the theory of explaining something according to its basic constituent parts. Holism : the theory of explaining something as a whole. | 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. |
| | | 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. |

| | | Forebrain Brainstern Midbrain Medulla oblongata Spinal cord |
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| Week 6: Piaget's Stages of Development | Cognitive : thinking, including problem-solving, perceiving, remembering, using language and reasoning. Operations : how we reason and think about things. Object permanence : knowing something exists even if it is out of sight. | Jean Piaget suggested that we go through distinct stages of development. Each stage is fairly long and our thinking abilities do not change much during these stages. A change in thinking indicates when the next stage is reached. During the transition from one stage to another, features of both stages are sometimes there in a child, and sometimes not. During each stage there is consolidation of developing abilities in preparation for the next stage. Sensorimotor stage (birth to 2 years) Infants use their senses and movements to get information about their world. At first they live in the present rather than understanding time and space around them. They learn by linking what they see, hear, touch, taste or smell to objects they are using, for example by grasping and sucking objects. They begin with reflex actions and then learn to control their movements. At around 6 months, they develop object permanence, which means they learn that objects exist even when they cannot see them. By the end of this stage, the child has a sense of themselves as existing separately from the world around them. |
| | | Pre-operational stage (2 to 7 years) There are two stages within the preoperational stage, the symbolic function stage and the intuitive thought stage. |
| | | The symbolic function stage (2 to 4 years) Children start imitating others and can use objects as symbols. Symbolic play involves using one object to represent different objects, such as using a box as a stool and using role play. Children think in pictures and use symbols. They start to use words as symbols for objects, which is the beginning of language development. Children see the world through their own eyes, not through someone else's (this is known as egocentrism). Animism can also be seen where children believe objects can behave as if they are alive. |

| | | Intuitive thought stage (4 to 7 years) This is the start of reasoning. Children ask a lot of questions as they realise that they know a lot and want to know more. They can only consider one aspect when something is complex (this is known as centration). Conservation is not yet achieved – children do not realise that changing how something looks does not change its volume, size or weight. There is also irreversibility, referring to a child not being able to use thought to reverse events, such as knowing that if water from a wide glass is poured into a tall glass so it looks as if there is more water, when the water is poured back into the wide glass it will look the same as it did. |
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| Week 7: Three Mountains Experiment - Aims and Procedure | Egocentrism: focus on themself. | The 'three mountains' task is part of a series of experiments that Jean Piaget and Bärbel Inhelder carried out to study children's ways of looking at the world. Piaget and Inhelder wanted to look at a children's understanding of groups of objects. They set up a study using a model of a group of mountains where children on different sides would have different views of each mountain. Aims Piaget and Inhelder wanted to look at: • the extent to which children of different ages were able to take the view of another person • children's overall system of putting together a number of different views of what they see. |
| | | Procedure In total, 100 children were studied. Children under 4 years old were not involved in the study as they were considered too young for the task. |
| | | Four main pieces of equipment The study involved building a model of three mountains using sheets of paper pasted together to form card. The model was one metre square and ranged from 12 to 30 centimetres high. The lowest mountain was green and had a house on top, the next highest was brown and had a red cross on top and the highest, which was grey, had a snow-covered top. The smaller green mountain had a path winding down it while the middle-sized brown mountain had a stream coming down it. These were the important features of the model. |
| | | Ten pictures of the three mountains model were taken from different positions around it. The pictures were taken so that the features were visible and the colours were clear. There were three pieces of card the same colour as the mountains, which the child could arrange to represent the mountains according to a certain viewpoint. There was a wooden doll, around three centimetres high, with no facial features. |
| | | Ways of questioning the child The child was asked to use the cardboard shapes to show how the mountain scene looked from different viewpoints. They were asked to place the shapes to show the view they themselves were looking at. They were also asked to place the shapes to show what the doll, positioned by the researcher around the model, could 'see'. The child was shown ten pictures of the model and asked to pick out the picture that represented what they could see from different positions. They were also asked to choose the picture the doll could 'see', again from different positions the doll was placed in. |

| | | • The child chose a picture and then had to position the doll so it could 'see' that viewpoint. |
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| Week 8: Dweck | Mindset: a set of beliefs someone has that guides how someone responds to or interprets a situation. Ability: what someone can do, such as maths ability or ability to play tennis. Dweck suggests ability can be seen as either fixed and innate or as able to be improved. Effort: when you try to do better using determination. Fixed mindset: believing your abilities are fixed and unchangeable. Growth mindset: believing practice and effort can improve your abilities. | Carol Dweck is an American psychologist who has focused on helping students to achieve more, specifically by considering how praise affects children's development. A child can be praised for being good at something. According to Dweck, they may then draw the conclusion that ability is fixed at birth. If a child is not praised for something, the child may assume they do not have that ability is fixed at birth. If a child is working hard to achieve it. It is better to praise children for effort, as they then believe they can achieve something and so they carry on trying. Children need to avoid thinking they have or do not have an ability and instead believe they can put in the effort to achieve. This is a more positive way of looking at things. Key points of Dweck's mindset theory • Children can develop a fixed mindset about a particular ability they think they do not have and give up, fearing they will not be successful because the ability is not 'in them'. They stop taking on challenges. With a fixed mindset, a person can become depressed and stop trying. A growth mindset allows for the idea of effort bringing success. Challenges become worthwhile and feedback is taken notice of. • Teachers also have fixed or growth mindsets, which affect how they respond to a child. A teacher with a fixed mindset can see children as lacking a particular ability, whereas a teacher with a growth mindset sees that a child can improve with perseverance. In one of Dweck's experiments (Mueller and Dweck, 1998), it was found that praising students' ability led them to a fixed mindset and they were vulnerable to issues such as coping with setbacks. In contrast, praising effort or use of strategy taught a growth mindset, leading to students persevering more. In another study by Yeager and Dweck (2012) of more than 1500 students, it was found that learning. |
| Week 9: Mocks (Independent Revision) | | Your Assessment Point 2 will be on the following topics: Research Methods Social Influence Memory All lessons can be found on Google classroom to help aid in your revision. |
| Week 10: Mocks (Independent Revision) | | Your Assessment Point 2 will be on the following topics: Research Methods Social Influence Memory All lessons can be found on Google classroom to help aid in your revision. |

| Week 11: Willingham | Working memory: has different parts for processing information coming in from our senses, | Knowing facts helps when building the skills of problem-solving and reasoning. An issue with learning and developing skills is that previous knowledge is often needed. For example, if a child reads 'she has more likes than me', they would need previous knowledge about the idea of 'likes' to understand what was being said. |
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| | including visual and sound data, and also involves a decision- making part. Short-term memory: our initial memory store that is temporary and limited. Rehearse: repeat information | Knowledge can also free up space in our working memory to allow us to use mental skills such as problem solving. Working memory involves different processes, working on information that comes in through our senses. Visual information is stored and processed separately from sound information. A part of working memory is used for making decisions about the information and working memory is limited. Willingham suggests that what someone already knows leaves them more processing power to solve a problem and aids understanding. For example, factual knowledge that priests wear special clothing can help someone to understand a problem about how a priest might trip on their robes. |
| | over and over to make it stick. Long-term memory : a memory store that holds potentially limitless amounts of information | Willingham emphasises that practice and effort enable us to master knowledge and skills. It is important to practise enough to be able to do things automatically. This is necessary in order to leave enough working memory for learning new things. Practice is not the only thing that's important – a skill must be repeated many times and kept up. |
| | for up to a lifetime. Motor skills : actions that involve muscles and brain processes, resulting in movement. | Importance for building knowledge Short-term memory involves practice, which means rehearsing what is to be remembered. What is learned then goes into the long-term memory where material has to be reviewed and practised in order to remember it. There comes a time when there has been enough practice and effort. The material is fixed in the long-term memory so well, that it is much less likely to be forgotten than if it was not practised and focused on. Ways of practising to build knowledge include doing quizzes or different tasks to help you learn the material. |
| | Importance for building skills Problem-solving and creative thinking are skills a student needs to learn and these skills use working memory. Skills need to be developed so that they become automatic and use little space in working memory. For example, reading becomes automatic once there has been enough practice and effort. | |
| Week 12: Gunderson | Framework: a basic understanding of ideas and facts that is used when making | Research has shown that the way parents praise their young children impacts a child's later ideas about reasons for behaviour and beliefs. For example, it is found that praising children's effort rather than their ability leads to the idea (framework) that working hard can change achievements. |
| Person praise: someone put the individual rather than they are doing. Process praise: someone put what is being done, not the individual. | decisions. Person praise : someone praises the individual rather than what | Many studies have used experiments to show this. Elizabeth Gunderson et al.'s (2013) study set out to see whether looking at parents praising children in the home – a natural setting – would support these experimental findings. |
| | Process praise: someone praises what is being done, not the | Person and process praise Parents can praise a child personally (person praise), they can praise a child's behaviour (process praise) or they can use a different type of praise. Person praise seems to lead children, though not through conscious processes, to the idea that they are born with or without an ability. This in turn leads to fixed theory, known as entity theory or entity motivational |

| framework: a belief that behaviour or ability results from a person's nature. Incremental theory/ motivational framework: a belief that effort drives behaviour and ability, which can change. Ecological validity: the extent to which the findings still explain the behaviour in real life situations. | framework. The result is that children might not try as hard on a task they think they are not good at. Process praise, which involves praising behaviour and effort, appears to lead children to see a link between effort and success. They are likely to see (again not consciously) ability as changeable and are more likely to keep trying to do better. This change theory is known as incremental theory or incremental motivational framework. Building on experimental evidence These ideas draw on Dweck's mindset theory (Carol Dweck was involved in this study). Mindset theory uses experimental evidence. One issue with this is that experiments, by using an artificial environment, can measure unnatural behaviour and give unnatural findings (they lack ecological validity). Consequently, Gunderson et al. wanted to use a natural setting when gathering their data. |
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What: Immediately after class, discussion, or reading session.

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- 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: Amnesia | Revision guide page: 33 |
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Summary

WEEK 1: Exam Question (Homework task 2)

Question: Ivana is a psychologist who has been sent a patient who may have developed retrograde amnesia in the past six months.

To assess whether the patient has retrograde amnesia, Ivana decides to give the patient a test. The test involves giving the patient a set of photographs of 20 famous people who appeared in the news regularly for a five-year period prior to the test.

Explain what Ivana is likely to find if the patient has retrograde amnesia.

You should refer to retrograde amnesia in your answer.

(2)

Answer:

WEEK 1: Exam Question review and improvement (Classwork)

Question:

WEEK 2: Exam Question (Homework task 2)

Question: Leah is six years old and is in the park with her mum. She sees a small dog approaching her. The dog does not bark, but jumps up at Leah. Leah pulls her hands away from the dog but does not cry.

Later that day, Leah's dad asks her what happened at the park. She says that a large dog barked at her which made her cry.

(a) Explain why Leah's memory of the event at the park could have changed.

You should refer to the Theory of Reconstructive Memory in your answer. (2)

Answer:

WEEK 2: Exam Question review and improvement (Classwork)

Question:

WEEK 3: Cornell Notes (Homework task 1)

| Topic: Bartlett's | War of the Ghosts | Revision guide page 40 |
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Summary

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WEEK 3: Exam Question (Homework task 2)

Question: Ellis is told a new story by his grandfather about an elephant who decided to go walking one day.

Ellis is told that the elephant played volleyball with a coconut with villagers, sang a song with lemurs who played guitars, and went on a treasure hunt for mangos with a giraffe.

The elephant story went on for some time and there were lots of details in the story. Ellis wants to tell his father the story the next day. He is trying to remember all the parts to the story and the order of the events.

Explain what is likely to happen with Ellis's memory of the story.

You should refer to Bartlett (1932) War of the Ghosts study in your answer. (4 marks)

Answer:

WEEK 3: Exam Question review and improvement (Classwork)

Question:

WEEK 4: Exam Question (Homework task 2)

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

Answer:

WEEK 4: Exam Question review and improvement (Classwork)

Question:

WEEK 5: Cornell Notes (Homework task 1)

| Topic: Early Infant Brain DevelopmentRevision guide | | Revision guide page 4 |
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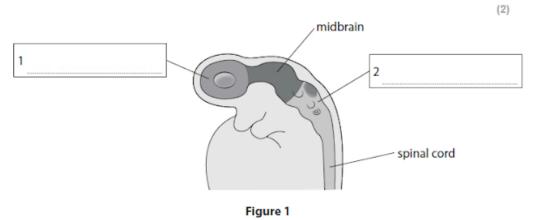
WEEK 5: Exam Question (Homework task 2)

Question: Figure 1 shows a human brain at approximately three weeks into its development.

(a) Complete the boxes provided with the missing terms.

Figure 1 shows a human brain at approximately three weeks into its development.

(a) Complete the boxes provided with the missing terms.



(b) Describe the medulla during brain development.

(2)

WEEK 5: Exam Question review and improvement (Classwork)

Question:
Answer:

WEEK 6: Cornell Notes (Homework task 1)

| Topic: Piaget's | Stages of Development | Revision guide page 5 |
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Summary

WEEK 6: Exam Question (Homework task 2)

Question: Christie took her daughter to the zoo. At the zoo, her daughter pointed to the baby koalas and called them 'puppies'. Christie explains that the baby koalas in the zoo are called 'joeys' and not 'puppies', like the baby dog they have at home.

(2)

(a) Explain why Christie's daughter called the baby koalas 'puppies'.

You should refer to schemata/schemas in your answer.

Answer:

WEEK 6: Exam Question review and improvement (Classwork)

Question:

WEEK 7: Exam Question (Homework task 2)

Question: (a) Identify the number of 20 x 28cm pictures the participants were shown in Piaget and Inhelder's (1956) Three mountains task. (1)

A 8

- **B** 9
- **C** 10
- **D** 11

(b) Identify the overall sample size in Piaget and Inhelder's (1956) Three mountains task.

(1)

- **A** 90
- **B** 100
- **C** 110
- **D** 120

(Total for Question = 2 marks)

Answer:

WEEK 7: Exam Question review and improvement (Classwork)

Question:

WEEK 8: Cornell Notes (Homework task 1)

| Topic: Dweck | | | Revision guide page 10 |
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Summary

WEEK 8: Exam Question (Homework task 2)

Question: Sarah is investigating whether her daughter is able to see the world from the perspective of other people.

She took her daughter to the local park and asked her to look at the playground equipment. She placed a toy robot in a different location to her daughter (see **Figure 1**)

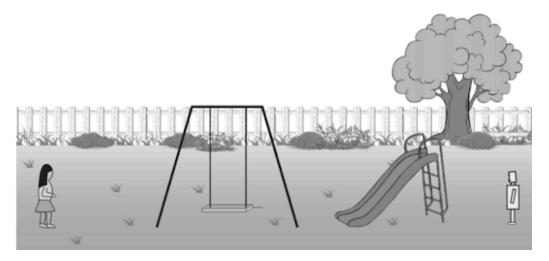


Figure 1

Sarah then asked her daughter to tell her what the toy robot can see.

Her daughter stated that the toy robot can see the swings at the front and the slide at the back.

(a) Explain which stage of cognitive development Sarah's daughter is in according to her statement.

You should refer to Piaget and Inhelder (1956) Three Mountains task in your answer. (4 marks)

WEEK 8: Exam Question review and improvement (Classwork)

Question:
Answer:

WEEK 9: Assessment Week Revision (Homework task 1)

WEEK 9: Assessment Week Revision (Homework task 2)

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WEEK 10: Assessment Week Revision (Homework task 1)

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WEEK 10: Assessment Week Revision (Homework task 2)

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WEEK 11: Cornell Notes (Homework task 1)

| Topic: Willingham | Revision guide page 12 |
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Summary

WEEK 11: Exam Question (Homework task 2)

Question: Emily is trying to solve a maths puzzle given by her teacher. She is struggling to get the solution. Martha is a teaching assistant who is sitting with Emily and wants to encourage Emily to develop a growth mindset. Emily is trying to solve the puzzle again.

(2 marks)

Explain **one** way that Martha could praise Emily to try to encourage a growth mindset.

You should refer to growth mindset in your answer.

Answer:

WEEK 11: Exam Question review and improvement (Classwork)

Question:

WEEK 12: Exam Question (Homework task 2)

Question: James is a teacher at a school. He wants to see whether social learning can be used to help the social development of his pupils.

He splits a group of 10 pupils in half, keeping five of the pupils in his classroom while another teacher takes the other five pupils to their classroom. James shows them how to share and take turns on a scooter and asks them to practise this whilst he watches and supervises them. The other teacher just gives the pupils a scooter and supervises only. This is done once a day for a week.

The following week James observes his whole class and gives each of the 10 pupils a score for their ability to share and take turns. The pupils were scored from 1 to 10, where 1 indicated very poor ability to share and take turns and 10 indicated excellent ability to share and take turns.

| Supervised by James | | Supervised by the other teacher | |
|---------------------|--|---------------------------------|--|
| Pupil | Ability to share and take turns (1–10) | Pupil | Ability to share and take turns (1–10) |
| А | 8 | F | 4 |
| В | 9 | G | 5 |
| С | 8 | н | 5 |
| D | 7 | Π. | 4 |
| E | 9 | L | 6 |

Table 1 shows the scores given to each pupil by James.

(a) Explain **one** conclusion you could make from **Table 1** regarding social learning to improve social development. (2 marks)

WEEK 12: Exam Question review and improvement (Classwork)

Question:

| Answer: | |
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Week 2

| Revision Card on Reconstructive Memory | Answers |
|---|---------|
| What is a schema? How many factors affect schema formation? What are omissions? What does familiarisation mean? What does rationalisation mean? | |

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Week 4

| Revision Card on Reductionism and Holism | Answers |
|---|---------|
| What is reductionism? Provide an example of reductionism. What is holism? Provide an example of holism. Which is seen as a desirable scientific practice? | |

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Week 7

| Revision Card on Three Mountains Experiment | Answers |
|--|---------|
| Give one of the aims of this experiment. How many participants took part? What were the ages of the participants? How many photographs were used? What did the experimenters make? | |

Week 12

| Revision Card on Gunderson | Answers |
|---|---------|
| What is person praise? What is process praise? What mindset does person praise lead to? What mindset does process praise lead to? What setting did Gunderson use when completing this experiment? | |