

Psychology AS **for WJEC**

The Complete Companion

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Dedication

A Welsh book for my Welshman – Robert George Jones. Cara Flanagan.

For my family: Dad, Mum, Lee. In particular to Mum: ‘If I could be “just half” the person you have been to me’. Lucy Hartnoll.

Thanks to my family, real and fake. You sustain and challenge me every day. Rhiannon Murray.

Acknowledgements

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Cara Flanagan, Lucy Hartnoll and Rhiannon Murray



Picture acknowledgements

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How to use this book

The contents of this book are mapped exactly on to the WJEC AS specification. The book is divided into two units, matching the exam structure.

- **Unit 1 Approaches in Psychology** covers the four approaches you need to study. Each spread in this unit deals with one of the exam questions – the assumptions, theories, therapies, evaluation and methodology for each of the approaches.
- **Unit 2 Core Studies and Applied Research Methods** covers the 10 core studies in the specification, plus all the research method concepts.

Each **unit** begins with a detailed list of the **contents**. This is followed, on the next page, by the full details of the **specification** to be covered by the unit, along with information about the organisation of the unit.



On most spreads there is an **introduction** to the topic, at the top left. This explains what the topic is about and might identify some key issues or links to previous topics.

The **main text** for the spread is in the middle of the page.

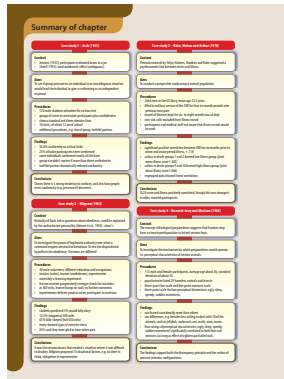
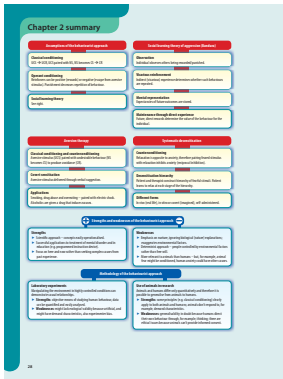
On most spreads, there is a **Do It Yourself** box with ideas for activities that will increase your understanding of the topic.

Throughout the book we have included:

Diagrammatic summaries

For example, for approaches...

...and for core studies

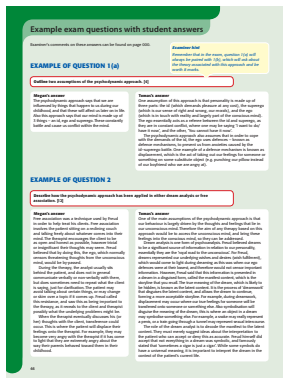


The text is mapped closely on to the demands of the specification – for example, in Chapter 5 we have covered the **context and aims** of one core study that matches one of the exam questions.

In Chapter 6 we have often included tables to summarise advantages and disadvantages.

Review activities

Example exam questions with student answers (with examiner's comments at the end of the book)



We have, as far as possible, included up-to-date research. But you can look at our website to get bang up-to-date information. We are constantly adding information about new research that we think might interest students. See: www.folensblogs.com/psychcompanion/blog/.

The WJEC AS examination

The AS examination consists of two papers:

Unit 1 PY1 Approaches in Psychology

40% of AS Level marks 1¼ hours

Candidates answer five compulsory questions. The questions are always the same – what changes will be the approach/theory that is named in each question.

1. a) **Outline** two assumptions of the ____ approach. [4]
b) **Describe** the ____ theory. [8]
2. **Describe** how the ____ approach has been applied in either ____ or ____ therapy. [12]
3. a) **Evaluate** two strengths of the ____ approach. [6]
b) **Evaluate** two weaknesses of the ____ approach. [6]
4. **Compare and contrast** the ____ and the ____ approaches in terms of similarities and differences. [12]
5. **Explain and evaluate** the methodology used by the ____ approach. [12]

Health warning

The exam information given on this spread is correct at the time of writing. However, exams evolve and there are often changes. You can find any updates on our website (folensblogs.com/psychcompanion/blog/), as well as on the official WJEC website (www.wjec.co.uk).

Unit 2 PY2 Core Studies and Applied Research Methods

60% of AS Level marks 1¾ hours

This paper is divided into **three** sections. In Sections A and B, the questions relate to identified core studies. Section C is on applied research methods.

Section A All three questions are compulsory and focus on **A01**.

1. Summarise the aims **and** context of _____. [12]
2. Outline the procedures of _____. [12]
3. Describe the findings **and** conclusions of _____. [12]

Section B All three questions are compulsory and focus on **A02**.

These three questions can be one of two types.

- Evaluate the methodology of _____. [12]
- With reference to alternative evidence, critically assess _____. [12]

There will always be a mixture of the two types of question: perhaps one methodology question and two alternative evidence questions; or two methodology questions and one alternative evidence question.

Section C Candidates answer one question from a choice of two.

Each question will consist of a brief description of a study (experiment, observation, etc.) and be divided into parts (a)–(f).

- a) Outline **one** advantage and **one** disadvantage of using [*the named method*] in this research. [3]
- b) Identify **one** issue of reliability in this research and describe how you could ensure reliability. [3]
- c) Identify **one** issue of validity in this research and describe how you could ensure validity. [3]
- d) Outline **one** advantage and **one** disadvantage of [*the named sampling method*] in this research. [3]
- e) Discuss **one** ethical issue that might arise in this research. [3]
- f) State **one** conclusion that can be drawn from the [*the named data*] in this research. [3]

ADVICE ON ANSWERING EACH KIND OF QUESTION

Throughout this book you will find advice on answering the different kinds of exam questions.

PY1

- **Question 1** is always divided into part (a), worth 4 marks, and part (b), worth 8 marks. Both will relate to the same approach. In part (a), remember that **two** assumptions should be identified and explained.
- **Question 2** In order to gain the full 12 marks, your answer must provide a link between the aims of your therapy and the main assumptions of the approach from which it is derived.
- **Question 3** is always divided into parts (a) and (b), each worth 6 marks. Remember that **two** strengths/weaknesses are needed in each part. These must each be identified and elaborated to obtain full marks.
- **Question 4** When answering a 'compare and contrast' question, remember that you must explain *why* the two approaches are similar and different, using the key issues and debates. There is specific advice on answering the compare and contrast questions on pages 60–61.
- **Question 5** When considering the methodology used by an approach, use specific examples of appropriate research to highlight to the examiner that you understand how this method has been used within the specific approach. Generic descriptions of a method such as 'lab experiments' will gain very limited credit.

PY2

- **Section A questions** Include only relevant material. If the question is asking about findings and conclusions, any description of aims, context or procedures is irrelevant to the question being asked and will not be credited by the examiner. Including irrelevant material only wastes your time in the exam.
Try to be as precise as you can when describing details of the core studies. Remember, top band answers need to be well detailed *and* accurate.
- **Section B questions** When evaluating the methodology of the core studies, use the themes in Section C questions to give your answer a coherent structure, i.e. include commentary on the method, reliability, validity, sampling and ethics. When assessing 'with reference to alternative evidence', make sure that you have made clear, overt links to the core study. Explain why the alternative evidence supports, contradicts or develops the core study.
- **Section C questions** In order to gain high marks, it is essential to make links between your methodological knowledge and the novel situation, i.e. *contextualise* your answers.

AO1 MARK SCHEME GRID

Some of the exam questions assess **AO1** (assessment objective 1), demonstrating your knowledge and understanding.

The **AO1** marking criteria below are used for **PY1 question 2**, and **PY2 questions 1, 2 and 3**.

Marks	Content	Material is used in...	Elaboration	Depth and range	Use of language (including grammar, punctuation and spelling)	For question 2: link between assumptions of the approach and therapy
10–12	Accurate and well detailed	... a highly effective manner	Coherent elaboration	Both depth and range	Relevant, well structured, coherent and accurate	Clearly demonstrated
7–9	Reasonably accurate, but less detailed	... an effective manner	Evidence of elaboration	Depth or range	Accurate, structured and clear	Evident
4–6	Basic detail	... a relevant manner but limited	Some elaboration		Some inaccuracies	Limited or none
1–3	Superficial	... muddled and/or incoherent at times	Little or none		Errors	Limited or none
0	No relevant knowledge or understanding					

PY1 question 1(a) carries a maximum of 4 marks (**AO1**). The mark scheme is:

- 3–4 marks for two relevant assumptions.
- 1–2 marks for one detailed, relevant assumption, **or** two assumptions identified briefly.

PY1 question 1(b) uses a mark scheme similar to the one above except that the five bands are:

7–8 marks, 5–6 marks, 3–4 marks, 1–2 marks and 0 marks.

AO2 MARK SCHEME GRID

Some of the exam questions assess **AO2** (assessment objective 2), demonstrating your skill at analysis and evaluation.

The **AO2** marking criteria below are used for **PY1 question 4** and **PY2 questions 4, 5 and 6**.

Marks	Analysis and evaluation	Elaboration	Depth and range	For PY1 question 4	For PY2 questions: reference to alternative evidence
10–12	Clearly structured and thorough	Coherent elaboration	Depth and range	Similarities and differences	Overt, more than one
7–9	Reasonably thorough	Some coherence	Depth or range	Similarities and differences	Clear, more than one
4–6	Appropriate but limited			Similarities and/or differences	Some
1–3	Superficial and/or muddled	Muddled and/or incoherent			Muddled
0	No relevant evaluation or analysis				

For **PY1 question 3**, the strengths and weakness can earn a total of 6 marks (**AO2**). The mark scheme is:

- 4–6 marks for **two** strengths/weaknesses, clearly and thoroughly explained.
- 1–3 marks for **one** strength/weakness (clearly and thoroughly explained), **or** two (lacking clarity/detail).

AO3 MARK SCHEME GRID

PY1 question 5 assesses **AO3** (assessment objective 3), demonstrating your understanding of research methodology.

The **AO3** marking criteria below are used for **PY1 question 5**.

Marks	Method(s)	Relevance to approach	Evaluation	Strengths and weaknesses
10–12	Appropriate and clearly explained	Clear relevance	Thorough, clearly structured	Clear evidence of strengths and weaknesses
7–9	Appropriate and reasonably explained	Has relevance	Reasonably thorough	Evidence of strengths and weaknesses
4–6	Appropriate and explained in a limited manner		Limited	Evidence of strengths and/or weaknesses
1–3	May be muddled and/or incoherent	May be inappropriate	Superficial	Superficial or absent
0	No relevant evaluation or analysis			

PY2 Section C

The marking criteria that are used for **PY2 Section C** are discussed in Chapter 6. See page 171 for a summary.

Effective revision

Get yourself motivated

People tend to do better when they are highly motivated. We have taught many mature students who all wished they had worked harder at school the first time around. You don't owe success to your teachers or your parents (although they would be delighted), you owe it to the person you will be 10 years from now. Think what you would like to be doing in 10 years' time, and what you need to get there, and let that thought prompt you into action now. It is always better to succeed at something you might not need later, than to fail at something you will.

Work with your memory

In an exam, it is harder to access information learned by rote. When people feel anxious, it is easier for them to recall knowledge they *understand* well. Just reading or writing out notes is likely to do little to help you create enduring memories or to understand the content. However, if you do something with your knowledge it will increase your understanding and make it more likely that material will be accessible when you need it. Psychologists call this 'deep processing', as opposed to the 'shallow processing' that takes place when you read something without really thinking about it. Constructing 'spidergrams' or mind-maps of the material, or even explaining it to someone else, involves deep processing and makes material more memorable.

Become multisensory

Why stick to using just one of your senses when revising? Visual learners learn best by seeing what they are learning, so make the most of text, diagrams, graphs, etc. In contrast, auditory learners learn best by listening (and talking), taking in material using their sense of hearing. You might associate more with one of these styles than the other, but actually we can make use of *both* these types of learning styles. As well as *reading* your notes and *looking* at pictures and diagrams, try *listening* to your notes and *talking* about topics with other people – and even *performing* some of the material such as role-playing a study.



Short bursts are best

One of the problems with revision is that you can do too much of it (at one go that is!). As you probably know all too well, your attention is prone to wander after a relatively short period of time. Research findings vary as to the optimum time to spend revising, but 30–45 minutes at a time appears to be the norm. What should you do when your attention begins to wander? As a rule, the greater the physiological change (i.e. go for a walk rather than surfing the internet), the more refreshed you will be when returning for your next 30–45 minute stint. There is another benefit to having frequent planned breaks – it increases the probability of subsequent recall.

Revisit regularly

Have you ever noticed that if you don't use an icon on your computer for a long time, the cunning little blighter hides it. Your computer seems to take the decision that as you are not using it regularly, it can't be that important, so neatly files it away somewhere. Your brain works in a similar way, knowledge that is not used regularly becomes less immediately accessible. The trick, therefore, is to review what you have learned at regular intervals. Each time you review material, it will take less time and will surely pay dividends later on!

Work with a friend

Although friends *can* be a distraction while you are trying to study, they can also be a very useful revision aid. Working together (what psychologists call 'collaborative learning') can aid understanding and make revision more interesting and more fun. Explaining something to someone else is a useful form of deep processing (see above), and by checking and discussing each other's answers to sample questions, you can practise your 'examiner skills' and therefore your understanding of what to put into an exam answer to earn the most marks.



Psychology is the science of human behaviour and experience. You have probably already studied science and therefore know some things about the **scientific method**. You know, for example, that scientists:

- Conduct experiments and other kinds of studies.
- Try to find out about the causes of things.

In order to explain the causes of behaviour, psychologists use different approaches. An 'approach' is a belief about the world and about what causes people to behave in certain ways. These beliefs will affect what they choose to study and how they choose to study it. Such beliefs are based on a set of assumptions – beliefs that are held without any need for proof.

The first unit of this book looks at four of the main approaches in psychology – the **biological, behaviourist, psychodynamic** and **cognitive** approaches. Each of these approaches has a set of assumptions that are the signature tune of the approach, and it is this tune that you need to understand in the first part of the course.



APPROACHES IN PSYCHOLOGY

This is a very brief outline of the four main approaches.

- The **biological approach** believes that behaviour can be explained in terms of inheriting characteristics, such as the tendency to be aggressive.
- The **behaviourist approach** believes that the way a person is and behaves is due to life experiences. A person may be rewarded or punished for certain behaviour, and this determines how they behave in future. People might also imitate what they see others doing.
- The **psychodynamic approach** believes that our behaviour is influenced by emotions that are beyond our conscious awareness. Such emotions are buried in the **unconscious** mind as a result of events in early childhood.
- The **cognitive approach** believes that behaviour is best explained in terms of how a person thinks about their actions. For example, the expectation that a concert will be brilliant will increase the likelihood that it will be a great experience for you.

DO IT YOURSELF



Construct your own psychology timeline from the brief history below. Conduct some further research, finding out about the history of psychology.

A BRIEF HISTORY OF PSYCHOLOGY

Early thinking about human behaviour The Greeks considered questions about human behaviour. For example, Hippocrates (400BC) proposed that individual differences in personality were related to body 'humours' (fluids), for example too much black bile (in Greek *melan* [black] *kholé* [bile]) led to depression (melancholia). Until the late 19th century, human behaviour was the province of philosophers and physiologists. In the 17th century, the British philosopher John Locke argued that the human mind was a blank slate (*tabula rasa* in Latin), and that children were innately neither good nor bad.

The birth of psychology The origins of psychology are often traced to 1879, when Wilhelm Wundt, who had trained as a physiologist, set up the first psychology laboratory at Leipzig University in Germany. His aim was to make the study of mental processes more systematic using introspection. He trained psychology students to make objective observations of their thought processes, and used the results to develop a theory of conscious thought. Students from all over the world journeyed to Leipzig to learn about scientific psychology.

The behaviourist approach Many scientists were not impressed by the methods of introspection. Psychology probably owes its true claim to scientific status to John B.

Watson (1913), an American who recognised that the work of Ivan Pavlov could be used to create a really objective and therefore scientific psychology, which he called behaviourism (it is said that he suffered from 'physics envy'). Pavlov (1902), experimenting with salivation in dogs, developed the principles of classical conditioning that provided Watson with a simple observable behaviour – conditioned reflexes. Later, B.F. Skinner (1938) became the main advocate of behaviourism, introducing the concept of **operant conditioning**.

The psychodynamic approach At about the same time as behaviourism first took hold in the USA, Sigmund Freud (1856–1939) delivered his introductory lectures on **psychoanalysis** to audiences there, and soon became the second force in psychology.

The cognitive approach In the 1950s, the computer revolution changed the way people thought, including how they thought about human behaviour. Information processing offered an analogy for human thinking. In turn, this new cognitive approach influenced behaviourism, leading Albert Bandura to develop **social learning theory (SLT)** in the 1960s. SLT emphasised the importance of indirect reinforcement in the learning process. In order for social learning to take place, an individual must form mental representations of events. Therefore SLT, unlike behaviourism, includes the consideration of cognitive factors.

On this spread, we have introduced the four main issues and debates in psychology. They are issues, because they are so important that we can't really ignore them. They are debates, because there is no simple answer about which is right or wrong, better or worse. On the facing page is a scenario about a young boy called John. On the far right we have suggested how all four approaches might explain John's behaviour. The blank boxes are for you to fill in using the issues and debates introduced on this page – see the Do It Yourself box on the facing page.

ISSUES AND DEBATES

The issues and debates will be very important in helping you to evaluate each of the approaches studied in Unit 1 (and examined in PY1). They are also crucial for comparing and contrasting the approaches, another requirement of PY1. On this page, we explain the four main issues and debates in psychology, and on the facing page there is an activity to help you understand how the issues and debates relate to the approaches.

DETERMINISM OR FREE WILL

Determinism is the view that an individual's behaviour is shaped or controlled by internal or external forces rather than the individual's will to do something. This means that behaviour is predictable and lawful.

Free will is used to refer to the alternative end position in which an individual is seen as being capable of self-determination. According to this view, individuals have an active role in controlling their behaviour, i.e. they are free to choose and are not acting in response to any external or internal (biological) pressures.

Any approach such as behaviourism or the biological approach that takes the view that our behaviour is determined by factors other than our free will implies that people are not personally responsible for their behaviour. For example, according to the biological approach, low levels of **serotonin** may lead some individuals to behave aggressively. This poses a moral question about whether a person can be held personally responsible for his or her behaviour. We might argue that this is not acceptable, that people are responsible for their behaviour, and this kind of argument is therefore a limitation of such determinist explanations.



NATURE OR NURTURE

The **nature/nurture debate** suggests that people are either (mainly) the product of their **genes** and biology (**nature**) or of their environment (**nurture**). The term nature does not simply refer to abilities present at birth, but to any ability determined by the genes, including those that appear through maturation. 'Nurture' is everything learned through interactions with the environment, both the physical and social environment, and may be more widely referred to as 'experience'. At one time, nature and nurture were seen as largely independent and additive factors. However, a more contemporary view is that the two processes do not just interact, but are inextricably entwined. It is no longer really a debate at all but a new understanding of how genetics works.

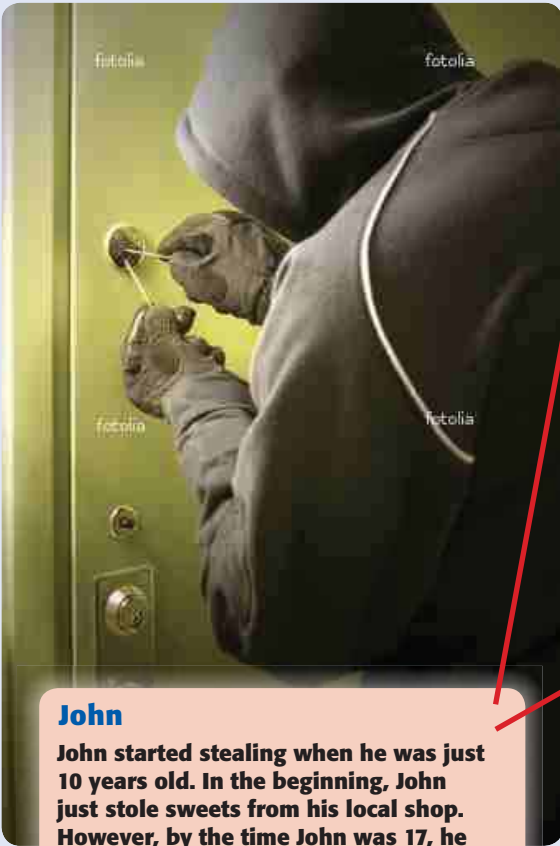
REDUCTIONISM OR HOLISM

Reductionism involves breaking down a complex phenomenon into more simple components. It also implies that this process is desirable because complex phenomena are best understood in terms of a simpler level of explanation. Psychologists (and all scientists) are drawn to reductionist explanations and methods of research because reductionism is a powerful tool that underlies experimental research (reducing complex behaviour to a set of variables).

The 'opposite' of reductionism is **holism**, or the holistic approach. Holism is the view that systems should be studied as a whole rather than focusing on their constituent parts, and suggests that we cannot predict how the whole system will behave from a knowledge of the individual components. Cognitive systems such as memory and intelligence are examples of the value of a holistic approach. They are complex systems, the behaviour of which is related to the activity of neurons, genes and so on, yet the whole system cannot be simply predicted from these lower level units.

IDIOGRAPHIC OR NOMOTHETIC

The **idiographic** approach involves the study of individuals and the unique insights each individual gives us about human behaviour. The **nomothetic** approach involves the study of a large number of people and then seeks to make generalisations or develop laws/theories about their behaviour. This is the goal of the scientific approach – to produce general laws of behaviour.



John

John started stealing when he was just 10 years old. In the beginning, John just stole sweets from his local shop. However, by the time John was 17, he had joined a local gang. Along with the other members of the gang, he started stealing cars and breaking into houses to steal. An important part of being a gang member was acting tough and aggressive, regularly getting into fights with other gang members.

The biological approach

might explain John's behaviour in terms of a physical cause. For example, he might have inherited aggressive genes from his father, or maybe John has particularly high levels of **testosterone**, which makes people behave more aggressively. Such high levels of testosterone might be inherited, or perhaps some environmental pollutants have raised his testosterone levels.

Nature or nurture?

Determinism or free will?

Reductionism or holism?

Idiographic or nomothetic?

The behaviourist approach

might say that John's behaviour is learned from the environment. He may have learned this directly because he got rewards such as gaining attention when he behaved aggressively. Or he may have learned to behave aggressively indirectly, by seeing others behaving like this and **modelling** his behaviour on them.

Nature or nurture?

Determinism or free will?

Reductionism or holism?

Idiographic or nomothetic?

The psychodynamic approach

would suggest that John's aggressive drives were **innate**, and that his early experiences had failed to channel them in a more positive direction. The psychodynamic approach might also suggest that his behaviour was driven by **unconscious** conflicts stemming from traumatic experiences in early childhood.

Nature or nurture?

Determinism or free will?

Reductionism or holism?

Idiographic or nomothetic?

The cognitive approach

would explain John's behaviour by looking at his internal thought processes. John's perception of stealing is that it is acceptable, and he has developed an expectation that aggression is the way to resolve conflicts such that he is 'programmed' to behave in an aggressive manner.

Nature or nurture?

Determinism or free will?

Reductionism or holism?

Idiographic or nomothetic?

DO IT YOURSELF



1. In pairs or small groups, carry out some further research on the assumptions of the four approaches and then see if you can elaborate further the explanations on the right.
2. Fill in the empty boxes using the key issues and debates described on this page. Discuss how each approach fits in with these issues and debates.
3. Make up your own case histories like John's and use the four approaches – you may need to do some research on the internet.

There is one final issue/debate to consider – the question of whether an approach is scientific or not.

The reason science is desirable is because that is the only way to demonstrate whether a particular theory or explanation is ‘true’ – by testing the theory using a research study.

However, some theories (approaches) are not very easy to test, and we cannot therefore demonstrate their ‘truthfulness’. Some people might argue that there are other ways to gather knowledge (such as through reasoned argument or simply because you believe in something). Scientists (and psychologists), however, aim to conduct well-controlled, objective and **empirical** studies. Such knowledge enables us to control our world, for example build bridges and treat schizophrenia. If the knowledge is not true, our bridges will collapse and our treatments won’t work.

In order to uncover ‘truths’ about the world, scientists use the **scientific method**.

AN EXAMPLE OF THE SCIENTIFIC METHOD

- 1. Observe behaviour in the natural world** The evolutionary psychologists John Lycett and Robin Dunbar (2000) observed two interesting facts about mobile phones. First, apparently a lot of people have fake mobiles. Second, they noticed (when sitting around in a pub) that men seem to play around with their phones more than women do. Men would take their phones out and place them on the bar counter or table for all to see. Women generally kept their phones in their handbags and only got them out if the phone rang or they wanted to make a call. Why would men be more interested in displaying their phones than women?
- 2. Propose a theory** Lycett and Dunbar proposed that men were using mobile phones as a form of courtship display, in the same way that a male peacock displays his magnificent tail as an indicator to females that he is worth mating with (a phone advertises financial status and the owner’s importance in a social network).
- 3. Test a hypothesis** In order to test their theory, Lycett and Dunbar set up a study. Their hypothesis was: ‘Men and women differ in their mobile phone behaviour – men are more likely to display their phones and also to “play” with them in public places.’ The researchers observed the behaviour of men and women in pubs, recording who used their phones or displayed them, and how they handled the phone. Over their study period, 32% of the men were observed to display a mobile phone, whereas only 13% of the women did. The researchers also noted that the amount of time the men spent toying with and displaying their phones increased significantly as the number of men relative to women increased, rather as male peacocks fan open their feathers more vigorously the greater the number of competing suitors in view.
- 4. Draw conclusions** These findings support the hypothesis proposed by Lycett and Dunbar that men use mobile phones in a different way than women, and support their explanation that this might be a form of mating display.

AN EMPIRICAL TEST



▲ The top picture is of a burger from a well known fast food outlet. This is what you are led to expect you will get. But what about the reality? You may think you know something, but unless you test this empirically you cannot know if it is true. The picture under it is the *empirical* evidence of what the burgers are really like. ‘Empirical’ refers to information gained through direct observation. Science uses empirical methods to separate unfounded beliefs from real truths.

(Thanks to Professor Sergio della Sala for this tasty and memorable example of empiricism.)

Science and pseudoscience

The two main features of science are:

- It aims to be objective and systematic.
- It is verifiable, i.e. you can check the results of a study by repeating it, or cross-referencing it with another study in order to see whether the findings are true.

Without science, people are susceptible to superstition and charlatans, beliefs in miracle cures and ‘knowledge’ of the future. Some people use science to sell their products or their services – they say this drug or that programme is ‘scientifically proven’ – but is it? One of the reasons for studying science is so that you, too, can learn to control your world and separate science from pseudoscience.

DO IT YOURSELF



1. From what you have learned about each psychological approach, discuss in small groups whether you would consider each one to be scientific or non-scientific. Explain your reasons.
2. Once you have decided, present your answers to the class. If you disagree, have a class debate.
3. Try some investigations yourself. Select some behaviour you have noticed about people. Perhaps it might also be related to the ways they use mobile phones, or behaviour on Facebook! Propose an explanation. Work out a way that you might test the behaviour and see what you discover.
4. Do some research on the internet to find out about psychological research. On Google, use search terms such as ‘psychology experiments’, ‘classic psychology studies’ or ‘brilliant psychology studies’. Work in pairs. Find one study you think is really interesting, and then present it to your class.