

# Research in Context: Activities

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## 2. Descriptive Statistics

### Activity 2

Aim: - To introduce students to the Excel package for calculating Measures of Central Tendency and Measures of Dispersion.

Resources: - Class notes below, Computer with Excel Software.

### Measures of Central Tendency

Hopefully you remember these from GCSE Maths!!

To Recap: -

**Mode** – the most frequently occurring value

**Median** – the middle value when scores are arranged in descending order

**Mean** – the arithmetic average (add up all scores and divide by the number of scores)

The **mean** can be calculated by using Excel. Input all the scores into a worksheet (in a column) and use the following formulae e.g. **=average(A1:A10)**, (A1:A10 refers to cell references so these will change.

e.g.

A	B
1	
2	
5	
9	
1	
7	
6	
4	
3	
8	
=average(A1:A10)	Mean

The **Mode** can easily be calculated by eye, but remember a set of scores can have more than one mode and all scores can be modal if no score is repeated. The most common use of the mode in everyday life is clothes sizes, these are the most popular sizes e.g. 10, 12, 14, 16 etc. or waist sizes 28, 30, 32, 34 etc.

The **Median** can be calculated in Excel by using the sort function. Simply enter scores into a worksheet and then use A-Z sort function from toolbar. If two scores are in the middle, the **median** is calculated by adding the two scores up and dividing by two.

## Research in Context: Activities

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e.g.

A
1
2
5
9
1
7
6
4
3
8

Highlight and sort

A
1
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9

Median is between 4 and 5, therefore it is 4.5

## Research in Context: Activities

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Calculate, using Excel, the mean, median and mode of the following sets of scores. Annotate your print out with the formulae you used.

	Set of Scores	Mean	Mode	Median
1	4 5 5 7 7 8 9 10 12 15 17			
2	12 20 31 35 39 48 55 71 85			
3	2 14 5 12 7			
4	25 53 37 17 62 93 41 27 33 19			
5	1.5 1.7 1.8 1.9 2.0 2.0 2.1 2.2			
6	4 5 5 7 7 7 8 9 9 10 12 12 12 12 13			
7	26 27 29 25 31 33 27 32 28 27 33			
8	3 5 1 6 2 5 4 8 1 5 7 2 1 5 4 3 6 9 4 1 6 7			

The **mode** is most commonly used with nominal, discrete data when the frequency of each category is important.

The **mean** is the most sensitive measure, as it uses every score and is used with ordinal, interval ratio and continuous data; however, it can be skewed by anomalous results.

If a set of scores has anomalous results it is often more useful to use the **median**.

However, the **median** can be skewed by anomalous results in the middle of the data,

### Measures of Dispersion

These examine variability in data sets. They help us understand whether scores in a data set are very similar or very different. In other words how spread out scores are.

**Range** – This is the simplest measure of dispersion. It tells us over how many numbers a distribution is spread. It is the difference between the highest and the lowest score. The problem with this is that extreme values affect the result. e.g.

10 11 11 12 12 13 13 13 14

10 11 11 12 12 13 13 13 20

One single figure changes the range from 4 to 10.

Calculate the range for the following data sets and comment on what it tells us.

1. 12 10 8 4 18 8                      Range =

2. 0 0 4 5 20 22 19                      Range =

3. 0 19 21 18 22                      Range =

4. 2 3 3 3 4 4 4 4 5 5 5 6                      Range =

**Standard Deviation** – This is a much more useful measure of dispersion, as it tells us how far, on average, each score is from the mean. The smaller the standard deviation the more scores are clustered around the mean, the larger the standard deviation is the more spread out are the scores.

Those of you who did the higher tier in GCSE maths will already be familiar with the calculations for standard deviation and know it is pretty complicated. However, we are going to make things easy by using excel. Simply, input your data in exactly the same way

## Research in Context: Activities

that you did for calculating the mean. The formula is **=stdev(A1:A10)** (A1:A10 refers to cell references, so will change).

e.g.

A	B
1	
2	
5	
9	
1	
7	
6	
4	
3	
8	
=stdev (A1:A10)	Standard Deviation

Calculate the standard deviation for the following data sets and comment on what it tells us.

1. 12 10 8 4 18 8                      sd =
2. 0 0 4 5 20 22 19                    sd =
3. 0 19 21 18 22                        sd =
4. 2 3 3 3 4 4 4 4 5 5 5 6            sd =

**Interquartile Range** – when data is put in order, find the first quartile (Q1) and the third quartile (Q3), simply subtract Q1 from Q3. Notice that the second quartile is the median

E.g. 3, 4, 7, 7, 8, 9, 12, 14, 17, 17, 18

          ↑          ↑          ↑  
      Q1      Q2      Q3

$17 - 7 = 10$  (Q3 – Q1 = Interquartile range)

interquartile range = 10

The advantage of the interquartile range over the range is that it is less affected by outliers (anomalous scores).

## Research in Context: Activities

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### Activity 3

Aim: To enable students to evaluate the use of each measure of central tendency and dispersion and know which test is appropriate to apply to a specific set of data.

Resources: - Class notes and textbooks

Measures of Central Tendency and Dispersion are used in pairs. The following table shows, which go together: -

<b>Measure of Central Tendency</b>	Mean	Mode	Median
<b>Measure of Dispersion</b>	Standard Deviation	Range	Interquartile Range

Using textbooks and class notes ask students to find the relative advantages and disadvantages of each of these measures of Central Tendency and Dispersion.

### Measures of Central Tendency

<b>Mean</b>		<b>Mode</b>		<b>Median</b>	
Advantages	Disadvantages	Advantages	Disadvantages	Advantages	Disadvantages

## Research in Context: Activities

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### Measures of Dispersion

Range		Standard Deviation		Interquartile Range	
Advantages	Disadvantages	Advantages	Disadvantages	Advantages	Disadvantages

As an extension activity you could provide students with sets of data and ask them to decide, in groups, which measures of central tendency and dispersion would be the most appropriate.

# Research in Context: Activities

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## 3. Data presentation

### Activity 1

Aim: To enable students to practice graphical technique using Excel.

Resources: - Class notes, Computer, Excel Software, PowerPoint for examples

### **Graphs**

Graphs are pictorial presentations of data. They should be chosen to enable the data to be displayed in the most effective and clear way possible. All diagrams must be fully labelled, and care must be taken to select an appropriate scale so the data is not in any way capable of misrepresentation. All graphs should be accompanied by a sentence or two of explanation.

Using Excel draw the following graphs, remember to label them and comment on them (What do they tell us?).

### Bar Charts and Histograms

A bar chart is a diagram consisting of columns (bars), the heights of which sometimes indicate frequencies. A bar chart displays discrete data (categories) on the x-axis and frequencies on the y-axis. A histogram is similar to a bar chart, but without gaps between columns. Unlike a bar chart, a histogram can be used to display continuous data on the x-axis; if a line joins the bars it becomes a frequency polygon.

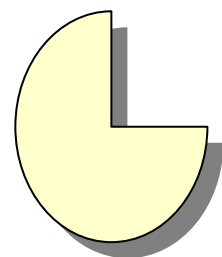
Display the following data in a histogram.

<b>Children In Family</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
Zero	8
One	11
Two	17
Three	8
Four	5
Five	1

(Note: type in the words "Zero, one etc., not numbers!

### **Pie Charts**

A pie chart is particularly suitable for displaying how a population is divided up into different parts and what proportion of the whole each portion represents. The bigger the proportion, the bigger the slice of pie! Pie charts are difficult to draw manually as you have to convert your proportions to proportions of 360 degrees and use a protractor, but using Excel they become easy.



## Research in Context: Activities

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Display the following data in a pie chart: -

Modes of Transport

Walking	12
Cycling	8
Bus	26
Train	33
Car	11

### Line Graphs

Line graphs are used to show a trend over time or how a participant's experiences change. The x-axis on a line graph must always use continuous units of measurement, for example time.

Display the following data in a line graph: -

Participants were asked to practice playing "keep-it-up" with a ping-pong ball and bat. Display the following data in a line graph:

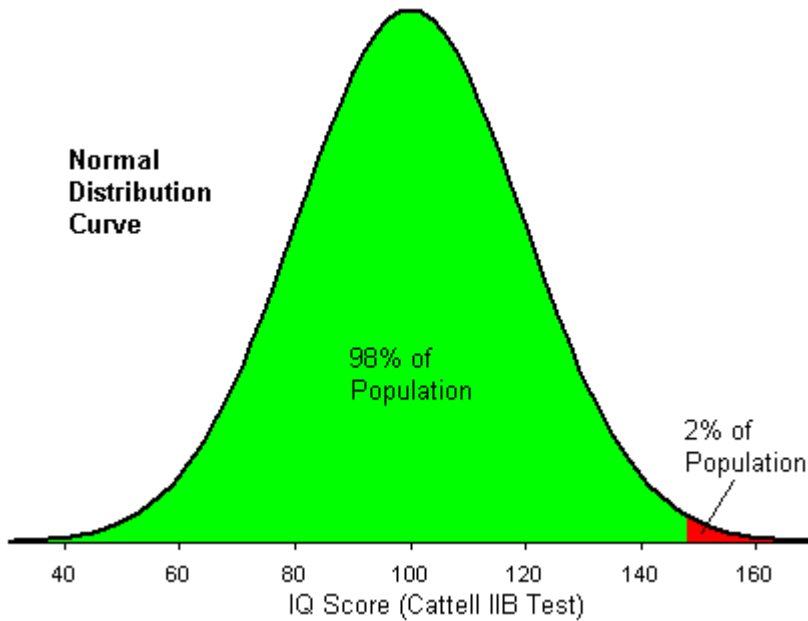
<b>Time practiced (hours)</b>	0	1	2	3	4	5
<b>No of hits</b>	3	12	26	35	40	41

### Normal Distributions

Intelligence is said by psychologists to be normally distributed throughout the population. This means that if you plotted everyone's IQ on a graph you would get a bell shaped curve. The average IQ is 100 (Mental age/Chronological age X 100 e.g.  $17 \div 17 = 1 \times 100 = 100$ ), and most people's IQ is between 70 and 130. Height and weight can also be said to be normally distributed throughout the population.

## Research in Context: Activities

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Characteristics of a normal distribution curve, also known as a bell-shaped curve or a Gaussian curve: -

- a) It is bell-shaped
- b) It is symmetrical
- c) The mean, median and mode all fall on the same central point.
- d) The two tails never touch the horizontal axis.

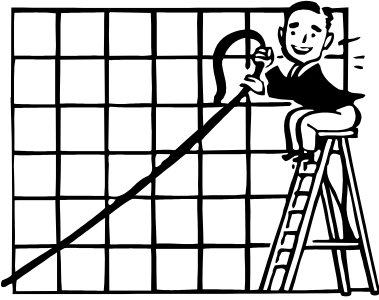
Plot the following four distributions on separate graphs, remembering to join up points with a smooth curve. Mark the mode, mean and median on each graph.

<b>A</b>		<b>B</b>		<b>C</b>		<b>D</b>	
Marks x	Students y	Marks x	Students y	Marks x	Students y	Marks x	Students y
20	10	20	20	20	10	20	20
40	15	40	35	40	15	40	30
60	30	60	60	60	20	60	40
80	45	80	40	80	25	80	30
100	50	100	30	100	30	100	20
120	45	120	20	120	40	120	20
140	30	140	15	140	45	140	30
160	15	160	10	160	50	160	40
180	10	180	5	180	40	180	30
				200	30	200	20

As well as normal distributions, curves can be positively skewed, negatively skewed or bi-modal. The above data shows all of these types of distributions.

## Research in Context: Activities

### Correlations



Correlations look for a relationship between two variables. This is not to say that one thing causes another, simply that one thing varies in accordance with another.

For example there is a relationship between the colour of grass and ice-cream sales. The more yellow the grass gets the more ice cream is sold. However, in this case the causal variable is obviously temperature.

Psychologists have suggested a correlation between watching TV violence and aggressive behaviour; this does not suggest that TV violence causes aggressive behaviour simply that there is a relationship between them.

#### What other variables might cause aggressive behaviour?

Correlations are shown on scatter graphs. Correlation co-efficients tell us about the strength of the relationship. A co-efficient of +1 is a perfect positive correlation, -1 a perfect negative correlation and 0 no correlation. Sketch these three graphs below: -

Positive Correlation +1	Negative Correlation -1	No correlation 0

## Research in Context: Activities

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### Example of correlational analysis

It is expected that if a person likes the group Blue, they are unlikely to also like Slipknot!

What sort of correlation would this show?

When 10 participants were asked to rate these two groups on a scale of 1-10 the results were as follows: -

Blue	Slipknot
4	9
5	7
10	2
8	3
9	5
1	9
5	5
3	6
8	2
7	7

Copy these results into EXCEL and draw a scatter graph, don't forget the line of best fit. (Click on Chart on the tool bar when you have completed your graph and then add trend line to do this)

What does your graph show?

We are now to going calculate the correlation co-efficient. Enter the following formula into excel: =correl(A2:A11,B2:B11)

The A2:A11 and B2:B11 refer to the cell references in excel.

What does your correlation co-efficient tell you?

## Research in Context: Activities

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### Activity 2.

Aim: To allow students to practice collecting secondary data via content analysis and to display results graphically.

Resources:

- Notes on original study: - Waynforth & Dunbar (1995) in Cardwell et al (2000) Psychology for A Level London Collins Page 233, (extension activity study by Huston & Schwartz (1995) on Gay Lonely Hearts Columns)
- Copies of lonely hearts columns collected by students (local newspapers or internet),
- Coloured Highlighter pens,
- Computer with Excel or graph paper.

A couple of weeks before you intend to carry out this practical activity ask students to begin collecting lonely hearts columns. Students will need to have one set of lonely-hearts adverts between two.

Before starting the activity either give students a copy of the studies or ask them to research them and make notes.

**Task 1:** Who places lonely-hearts adverts and who are they looking for?

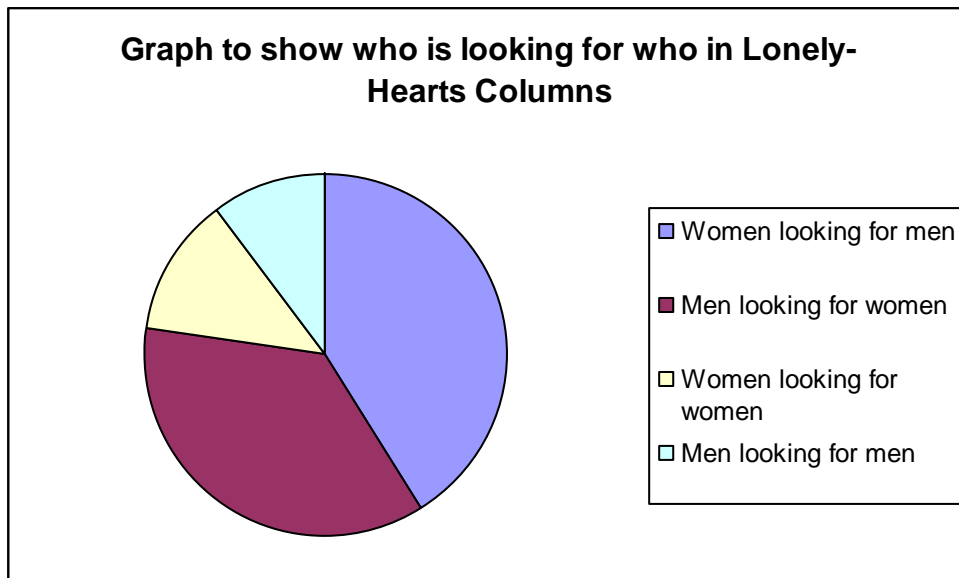
This task involves analysing the adverts to see what proportion of adverts are women looking for men, men looking for women, women looking for women and men looking for men.

Ask students to record the data in a tally chart and then display in a pie chart.  
e.g.

Women looking for men	Men looking for women	Women looking for women	Men looking for men
40	35	12	10

## Research in Context: Activities

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Ask students to comment on their findings. What do they show? What do they mean? Then ask them to compare their results with other students. What does it tell us about the sources of these adverts?

### Task 2:

**Waynforth and Dunbar (1995)** found that women advertised their attractiveness whereas men advertised their economic status. This task involves analysing heterosexual adverts to see if women do advertise their attractiveness and men their economic resources. Ask students to use a pink highlighter for attractiveness and a blue highlighter for economic resources. e.g.

Male 55 **OHAC (Own house and Car)**, likes most things in life, seeks reliable honest, similar aged female for friendship relationship.

**Beautiful, attractive, sexy**, romantic 31-year-old female. Searching for the right man 31-45 for a proper relationship.

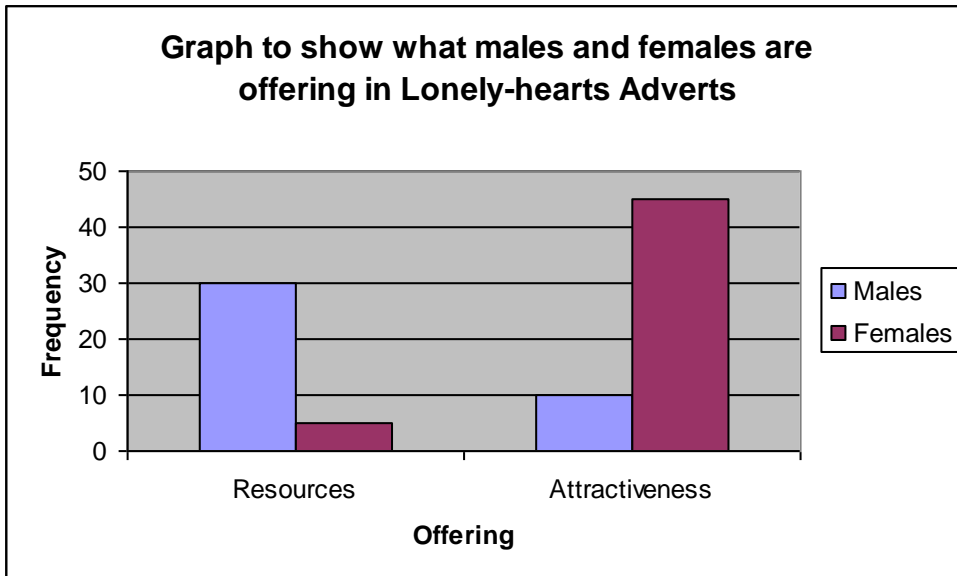
Adjectives that describe resources include: - Own house, Own Car, Professional, Businessman, Wealthy, or any mention of occupation.

Adjectives that describe attractiveness include: - Beautiful, pretty, slim, blonde, blue-eyed, attractive etc.

The most difficult part of this task is deciding what adjectives actually mean, for example, describing oneself, as a fireman could be less about economic resources and more about stereotypes of physical strength and being macho.

Ask students to put their findings into a table and then display their results in a bar chart: e.g.

## Research in Context: Activities



Ask students to comment on their findings and compare their results with others. Have things changed since Waynforth and Dunbar's study? If so, why? How would you evaluate Waynforth and Dunbar's study?

Extension Activity: -

Look at Gay adverts to see what they are offering. (Huston & Schwartz 1995)

Analyse adverts to see if women are seeking economic resources in a man and if men are seeking attractiveness in a woman.

Analyse adverts for personality traits. Are there any differences between what men and women, heterosexual and gay people are looking for in terms of personality?

## Research in Context: Activities

### Task 3:

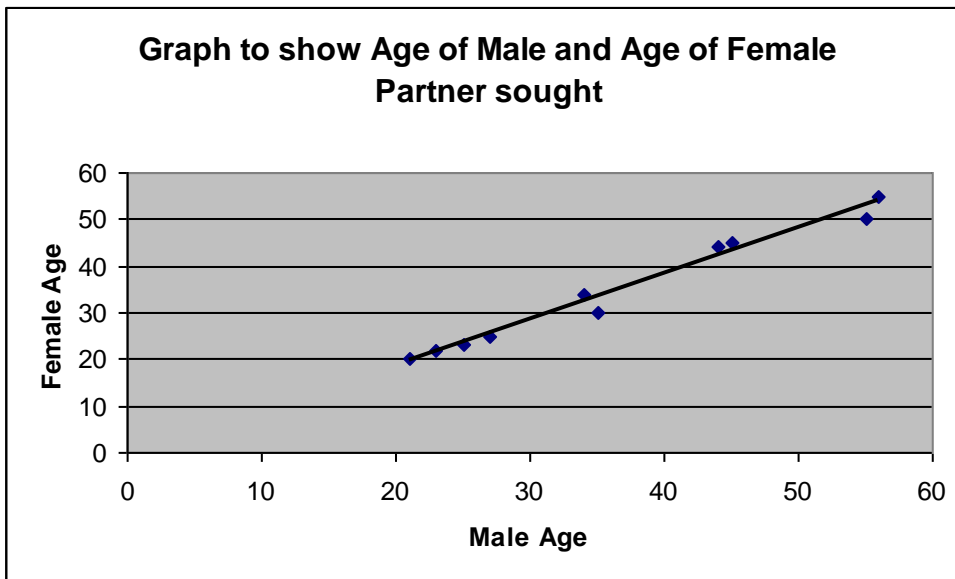
What age are the people placing adverts and what age partner are they looking for?

Analyse the adverts to see if people are looking for a partner of a similar age or if men are looking for a younger woman and women an older man.

This information can be correlated and placed on a scatter graph.

What sort of correlation would be expected if people looked for a partner of a similar age and what sort of correlation if men looked for younger women?

e.g.



Ask students to comment on their graphs and compare their results with others. Why do people look for a partner of a similar age? Why do men look for younger women and vice versa?

As an extension students could work out the correlation co-efficient using the formula  $=\text{correl}(A1:A10, B1: B10)$  (A1:A10 etc. refers to the cell references so will change). Students could also analyse gay adverts.

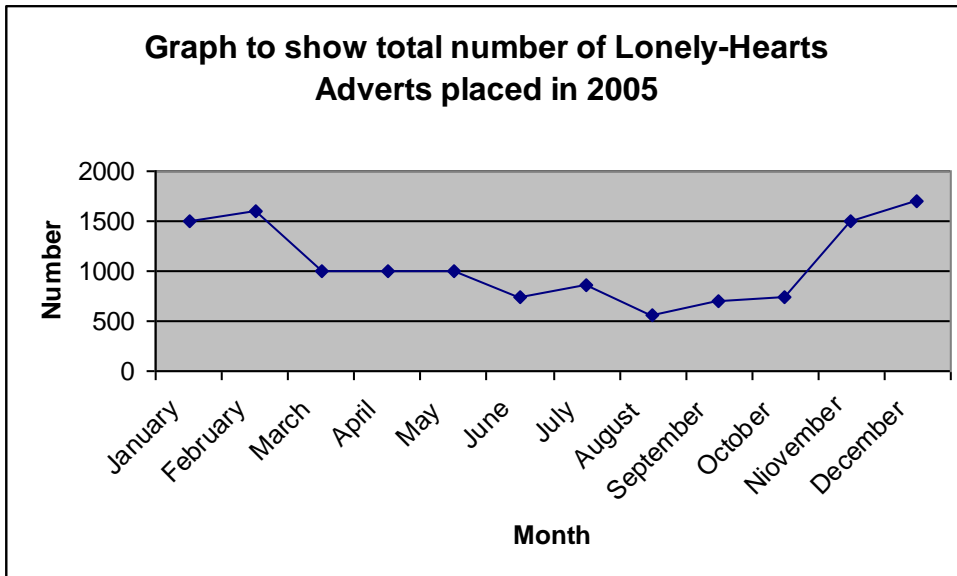
### Task 4

It has been suggested that people are more likely to feel lonely and want a partner at certain key times in the year, e.g. Christmas and Valentine's Day. Do lonely-hearts adverts peak at certain times of the year? For this activity you will need to obtain data about the total number of adverts for each month of the year from one publication. You could find this information from the Internet or provide students with the data they will need.

This information can then be displayed on a line graph: e.g.

## Research in Context: Activities

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Ask students to comment on their findings. Are the results as expected?  
Is it better to be single at some times of the year rather than others? If so, why?

## Research in Context: Activities

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### Activity 3

Aim: To introduce concept of analysis of qualitative data

Resources: Class notes

Doing a content analysis of lonely-hearts columns is one way of finding out what someone is looking for in a partner. However, it is fairly limited as not everyone advertises and the adverts do tend to follow a formula. A much better way of finding out what someone wants in a partner is to conduct an interview.

Put students into pairs and ask them to design a short interview schedule (about three question with prompts). E.g. What are you looking for in a partner? Describe your perfect partner to me. Does height matter? Etc.

Once you have checked the interview questions, ask the students to interview another pair of students. One student will be the interviewer and the other will make notes. Repeat the process until all four students have been interviewed. (Depending on time available, they could conduct more interviews).

In the original pairs, students now need to analyse their two interviews. Encourage them to look for and summarise the similarities and differences between the two transcripts. What quotes would they use to illustrate certain points?

Now ask students to evaluate the interviews and the interview process. What went well, what would they change etc.?

# Research in Context: Activities

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## 5. Data Interpretation

### Activity 1.

Aim: - To demystify the concept of probability

The aim of inferential statistics is to discover if your results are statistically significant. A statistically significant result is one that is unlikely to have occurred through chance. Usually, psychologists use the **5%** level (0.05), this means that just 1 in 20 of results could have occurred due to chance. This level is used because it represents a balance between making a type I and a type II error. We express our results in terms of the **Null Hypothesis**; if a result is statistically significant we can **reject** the null hypothesis, if the result is not statistically significant we must **accept** the null hypothesis.

### Probability Task

Look at the following list of events. How likely do you think they are to happen? Rate them on a scale of 1-100 (1 – extremely unlikely – 100 – being certain)

1. You will think about elephants before you next go to sleep.
2. It will rain tomorrow.
3. You will catch a bus in the next 7 days.
4. You will win the lottery in the next year.
5. You will have time off because you're ill in the next term.
6. You will become a parent at some time in your life.
7. You will visit Australia at some time in your life.
8. You will go on holiday in the next year.
9. You will pass your A levels.
10. You will go to University.
11. You will get a job in McDonalds.
12. You will marry someone famous.
13. You will never marry.
14. The world will end in your lifetime.
15. Global warning will mean London will be completely underwater in 50 years.

You will have given all of these possible events a score out of 100.

If you said the probability of you thinking of elephants before you next went to sleep was 5: -

- That figure can also be represented as a fraction  $5/100$  (simplified to  $1/20$  (5 goes into 5 once and 100, 20 times))
- A ratio - 1 in 20
- A percentage - 5%
- A decimal - 0.05 as it is seen in critical value tables (convert to this decimal value by moving the decimal point on the percentage figure two places.)

e.g.

## Research in Context: Activities

---

$10/100$  ( $1/10$ ) = 1 in 10 or 10% or 0.1

$1/100$  ( $1/100$ ) = 1 in 100 or 1% or 0.01

$50/100$  ( $1/2$ ) = 1 in 2 or 50% or 0.5

Go through your probabilities and turn them into fractions, ratios, percentages and decimals.

As already mentioned in most psychology investigations 5% is usually used. This means that psychologists are prepared to accept that 1 in 20 of their results were due to chance. However, if you were a drugs manufacturer a 5% significance level would not be stringent enough. Imagine saying this drug will work fine for 19 of you, however one of you will suffer severe side effects and die!

**What sort of significance level would you be willing to accept if you were a drugs company?**

## Research in Context: Activities

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### Activity 2.

Aim: - To enable students to interpret results from a key study and evaluate it effectively

### **HOLMES AND RAHE (1967) - SOCIAL READJUSTMENT RATING SCALE (SRRS)**

- **AIMS**

The main aim for this study was to construct an instrument for measuring stress. Holmes and Rahe defined stress as the amount of change an individual has had to deal with during a particular period of time. They claimed that the degree of stress is related to both physical and psychological illness. People are more likely to show symptoms following periods of stress. The greater the stress the more serious the illness is likely to be.

- **PROCEDURES**

Holmes and Rahe examined the medical records of 5,000 patients (all American service men). From these, they put together a list of 43 life events that seemed to precede (come before) illness.

They told 100 people ('judges') that 'marriage' had been given an arbitrary value of 500. The judges then had to give a number to each of the other life events, indicating how much readjustment they'd involve relative to marriage.

So, death of a spouse was judged (on average) to require twice as much readjustment as marriage. The average (mean) of the numbers given to each event was then divided by 10. The resulting values became the weighting (numerical value) of each life event. For example, the weighting for death of a spouse was 100 (1000 divided by 10).

The amount of life stress a person has experienced in a given period (e.g. 12 months) is measured by the total number of life change units (LCUs). These units are calculated by adding the mean values (in the right hand column of the table on the next page) associated with the events the person has experienced during that time. The ranks (left hand column) simply denote the order in which the life events appear in the SRRS.

*(NB- When participants are given the SRRS, they're presented only with the list of life events without mean values and asked to tick the ones that apply to them.)*

## Research in Context: Activities

---

<b>Rank</b>	<b>Life Event</b>	<b>Value</b>
1	Death of a spouse	100
2	Divorce	73
3	Marital separation	65
4	Jail term	63
5	Death of a close family member	63
6	Personal injury or illness	53
7	Marriage	50
8	Fired at work	47
9	Marital reconciliation	45
10	Retirement	45
11	Change in health of family member	44
12	Pregnancy	40
13	Sex difficulties	39
14	Gain of new family member	39
15	Business readjustment	39
16	Change in financial state	38
17	Death of a close friend	37
18	Change to a different line of work	36
19	Change in number of arguments with spouse	35
20	Mortgage or loan over \$10 000	31
21	Foreclosure of mortgage or loan	30
22	Change in responsibilities at work	29
23	Son or daughter leaving home	29
24	Trouble with in-laws	29
25	Outstanding personal achievement	28
26	Wife begins or stops work	26
27	Begin or end school	26
28	Change in living conditions	25
29	Revision of personal habits	24
30	Trouble with boss	23
31	Change in work hours or conditions	20
32	Change in residence	20
33	Change in schools	20
34	Change in recreation	19
35	Change in church activities	19
36	Change in social activities	18
37	Mortgage or loan less than \$10 000	17
38	Change in sleeping habits	16
39	Change in number of family get to-togethers	15
40	Change in eating habits	15
41	Vacation	13
42	Christmas	12
43	Minor violations of the law	11

(Holmes & Rahe 1967)

## Research in Context: Activities

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- **FINDINGS**

Most life events were judged to be less stressful than getting married.

But 6, including death of a spouse, divorce and personal injury or illnesses were rated as more stressful.

Holmes and Rahe found that people with high LCU scores for the preceding year were likely to experience some sort of physical illness the following year.

For example, someone scoring over 300 LCUs had about an 80% chance of becoming ill, a LCU of between 150-300 gives a 51% chance and under 150 a 35% chance of becoming ill.

Holmes & Rahe found a positive correlation co-efficient of 0.118.

- **CONCLUSIONS**

Holmes and Rahe concluded that stress could be measured objectively as an LCU score. This, in turn, predicts the person's chances of becoming ill (physically and/or mentally) following the period of stress. They concluded that stress and illness are positively correlated. They went further and suggested that stress actually makes us ill.

- **EVALUATION**

- Task

1. Look at the list of life events, see if any apply to you and work out your LCUs score.
2. In groups, complete the evaluation table of Holmes and Rahe.  
You need to consider: -
  - Is this SRRS useful?
  - Are any of the events ambiguous?
  - Are any missing?
  - What about their sampling?
  - Does it matter if change is unpredictable or not? Did Holmes and Rahe take this into account?
  - Are all life events viewed the same by people- think about divorce?
  - Could the relationship between life events and illness be the other way round?
  - The data is retrospective - people are asked to recall the last 12 months- why is this a problem?
  - What does the correlation co-efficient tell us?

## Research in Context: Activities

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### Holmes & Rahe SRRS

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES

## Research in Context: Activities

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### Activity 3.

Aim: To allow students to practice administering and drawing conclusions from the results of a questionnaire.

Resources: - Copy of aggression questionnaire and score sheet.

Photocopy the following questionnaire. Students will need to collect data by asking people to fill it in. You have a choice of variables to examine; you could look at gender differences, age differences or social class differences etc. (simply amend question 1 on the questionnaire). Once students have collected data and analysed it, using an appropriate statistical test (Mann Whitney U Test), conclusions can be drawn. The main point of this task is to evaluate the questionnaire. Is it a good way of measuring aggression (obviously not!)? How could it be improved? Etc. Look at each question individually. Consider the reliability and validity of this investigation.

As an extension activity look on the Internet for further examples of questionnaires. Or you could replace the agree/disagree response with likert scaling to make the data analysis a bit more complicated. **Buss & Perry (1992)** is a good source for an aggression questionnaire with a more complex five-point scoring system.

### Questionnaire

Thank you for agreeing to fill in this questionnaire as part of my psychology studies. Please answer all the questions below as honestly as you can, simply by circling agree or disagree. All your responses are completely confidential. Please feel free to ask, if you have any further questions.

1. Gender	Male	Female
2. Once in a while I get this urge to really harm someone.	Agree	Disagree
3. I can never think of a good enough reason to hit someone.	Agree	Disagree
4. If someone hits me first I usually hit back.	Agree	Disagree
5. If anyone insults my family or me they are asking for a fight.	Agree	Disagree
6. People who continually pester you are asking for a punch.	Agree	Disagree
7. I very rarely strike back even if someone hits me first.	Agree	Disagree
8. I would say I get into fights about as often as the next person.	Agree	Disagree
9. When I lose my temper I am really capable of slapping someone.	Agree	Disagree
10. If I have to resort to physical violence to defend myself I will.	Agree	Disagree
11. I have known people who pushed me so far that we came to blows.	Agree	Disagree
12. When I disapprove of my friends' behaviour. I usually let them know it.	Agree	Disagree
13. I often find myself disagreeing with people.	Agree	Disagree
14. I can't help getting into arguments when people disagree with me.	Agree	Disagree
15. I demand that people respect my rights.	Agree	Disagree
16. Even when I am very angry I do not use strong/bad language.	Agree	Disagree
17. If someone annoys me I usually tell them what I think of them.	Agree	Disagree
18. When people shout at me I shout back.	Agree	Disagree

## Research in Context: Activities

19. When I get annoyed/angry, I say nasty things.	Agree	Disagree
20. I couldn't put someone in their place, even if they needed it.	Agree	Disagree
21. I often make threat I don't really mean to carry out.	Agree	Disagree
22. If I am arguing with someone I tend to raise my voice.	Agree	Disagree
23. I generally try to hide my bad opinions of other people.	Agree	Disagree
24. I would rather give in than get into an argument over something.	Agree	Disagree

### Scoring

No:	Agree	Disagree
2	1	0
3	0	1
4	1	0
5	1	0
6	1	0
7	0	1
8	1	0
9	1	0
10	1	0
11	1	0
12	1	0
13	1	0
14	1	0
15	1	0
16	0	1
17	1	0
18	1	0
19	1	0
20	0	1
21	0	1
22	1	0
23	0	1
24	0	1

Obviously, the higher the score the more aggressive a person is perceived to be. You may also wish to evaluate the scoring system as this is far from perfect too.

## Research in Context: Activities

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### Further References

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[www.theatp.org](http://www.theatp.org) For list of useful links