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Please note that all references for this issue are available online at www.yusu.org/psychout.
Welcome to Issue 7 of PsychOut! As the new editors, we’d like to start off our little editorial note with a big thank you to everyone who filled out our survey to improve the magazine. This is something we will strive to continue, so if you have an opinion or would like to help us out, please follow the link to the survey which is found on the website’s homepage, or just email us at: psychout@yusu.org.

Leading us to our big news: to coincide with the beginning of the coming improvements for the magazine, we’ve created a PsychOut website for you to find all the past issues. Here you will also find extras including: a forum for discussions on articles and other psychology related topics, psychology in the news, and featured articles in this month’s The Psychologist, with more to come soon.

Check it out at: www.yusu.org/psychout.

Every term we’ll bring you a new and enthralling themed issue; this term’s forensic psychology issue presents articles on a wide variety of other subjects too, in fact two of which coincidentally also seem to be found in the September issue of The Psychologist! What can we say, our writers know a hot topic when they see one! So we’d like to thank this term’s writers for contributing their hard work:

Jennifer Ashton
Daniel Bennett
Alix Dixon
Charis Goodyear
Laura Porter
Tanya Vasunia.

as well as Nick Barraclough and Paul Summers for taking part in our Staff Section.

A special thank you also to our new illustrator Jessica True.

Francina Clayton and Marianne Cezza
PsychOut editors

Want to get involved in the production of PsychOut?
Simply email us at psychout@yusu.org, no previous writing experience is required!!
Recently there have been an increasing number of television programmes centred on crime scene investigations and forensic psychology, such as *Criminal Minds* and *CSI: Crime Scene Investigation*, to name but a few. Consequently, it is no coincidence that in recent years the field of forensic psychology has grown rapidly, as shown by a rise in the number of students enrolling on these courses and the increasing presence of clinical psychology practices in the legal system (Huss, 2001).

However, the accurate portrayal of Forensic Psychology by these programmes is questionable. These programmes often seem to suggest that the success of forensic psychology is dependent on the investigator developing some sort of mental link and entering into the criminal’s mind. It is important to note that many of the features of these criminal dramas are highly sensationalised and as a result are not guaranteed to be 100% reliable. Not unique to the field of Forensic Psychology, TV programmes of a medical nature, including *ER*, have encouraged many students to embark on a medical career (O’Connor, 1998). This impact has led to the notion that television programmes are capable of shaping the social identity of a person by acting as “a medium that moulds viewers’ attitudes and behaviors” (O’Connor, 1998, p.854).

*CSI, Criminal Minds* and the like have not only influenced the number of people opting for a career in Forensic Psychology, but also the manner in which forensic evidence is viewed. As a result, the phenomenon known as ‘the CSI Effect’ has emerged. Patry et al.

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**The Powerful Influence of Crime Scene TV Programmes**

**Laura Porter** investigates the relationship between TV crime dramas and real life Forensic Psychology.

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**The powerful effect of CSI and Criminal Minds on the jury’s belief about the accuracy of forensic evidence.**
(2006, as cited in Smith, Patry & Stinson, 2007) described this effect as an increase in the number of students choosing courses such as Biology, Psychology and Anthropology as the result of viewing TV crime shows. Additionally, this phenomenon can be viewed by considering how our opinions of forensic evidence are influenced after watching crime shows.

Smith et al. (2007) conducted two studies to investigate the CSI Effect. First of all, the number of hours per week that participants watched CSI and Law & Order was recorded. Participants then received an account of a piece of forensic evidence before being asked to evaluate its reliability and accuracy on Likert scales ranging from 1 (not at all) to 7 (very). Overall, a positive correlation was observed between the number of hours for which the TV shows were watched and the participants’ rating of the evidence’s reliability. Moreover, a positive correlation emerged between the rating of the forensic evidence’s accuracy and hours of crime shows viewed.

An additional study carried out by Smith et al. investigated the accuracy and reliability ratings of individuals who were not regular viewers of CSI and Law & Order. The study involved some participants watching CSI episodes before evaluating the accuracy and reliability of certain types of evidence. These ratings were then compared with participants who had not been shown episodes of the crime scene show. It was discovered that reliability ratings were greater for those who watched CSI, especially for data such as fingerprints and DNA. Furthermore, the participants who viewed CSI episodes reported greater belief in forensic evidence and advocated its use within the field of law enforcement.

Despite the perceived accuracy and reliability of forensic evidence as highlighted in the studies discussed, it is clear that the public’s understanding of the reliability of evidence is highly influenced by TV programmes, which are significantly dramatized. Therefore, it is fundamental that the influence of these TV shows is explored further; decisions made by the police and jurors (which may have life-long consequences for defendants) may be coloured by the unrealistic, yet highly influential, nature of these crime dramas.

"...it is clear that the public’s understanding of the reliability of evidence is highly influenced by TV programmes, which are significantly dramatized."

Finally, on a different note, it is important for students who are contemplating a career within the field of Forensic Psychology to ensure they are fully informed about the range of work in which Forensic Psychologists are involved, and that they do not simply aspire to become a sensationalised profiler from the latest crime scene drama!
The Consequence of Innocence

Jennifer Ashton discovers the methodology of eliciting false confessions, and the consequences for the reliability of a confession as courtroom evidence.

One of the most powerful forms of evidence in the courtroom is a confession. Historically confessions were treated as convictions and there are many cases where an individual has confessed, been convicted based on this confession, and sentenced to death; only to be exonerated years later by DNA evidence (Drizin & Leo, 2004). One example of DNA evidence leading to exoneration is that of Bobby Ray Dixon, who served a 30 year sentence for rape and murder, after giving a false confession under the threat of the death penalty (Innocence Project, 2010).

Today, courts take a highly cynical view of confessions, with false confessions being a major issue for the judicial system. The strength and power a confession has can be explained by the fundamental attribution error: a bias to attributing behaviour to the person’s disposition as opposed to situational factors (Gilbert & Malone, 1995); it is therefore essential to review the processes of interviewing and interrogating a suspect. By understanding both the psychological and situational factors that lead to a confession, the justice system can become more effective. This brings us to an interesting question: what techniques do police officers use to obtain a false confession?

The Reid Technique
The Reid technique is a two-stage method used to question a suspect and to assess their credibility.

Stage 1:
The first stage is a non-confrontational interview where provoking questions are asked and signs of deception are detected. Such signs are taken from the verbal and non-verbal behaviour the suspect displays (Kassin, Appleby, & Perillo, 2010). For example, deception may be indicated by rehearsed responses, frozen posture, gaze aversion, or by behavioural attitudes such as appearing anxious or guarded. Although empirical research has shown these signs not to be typically diagnostic of deception, Horvath, Jayne, & Buckley (1994) have suggested that individuals trained to use the Reid Technique can detect guilt to an 85% level of accuracy. This level of accuracy however is questionable; further research suggests that trained police do not perform any better than chance when detecting guilt. Research also reveals a significant correlation between an individual’s response bias and the level of experience/specialist training (Kassin, 2005). Alarmingly, trained police officers are more likely to deem a suspect guilty, with a high level of confidence. An ability to distinguish between truth and deception would ensure that innocent people are not over-interrogated, eradicating false confessions.
Stage 2:
The second stage of the Reid technique is confrontational and tactical; by definition this stage is guilt-presumptive, with the aim being to obtain a confession (Kassin, Appleby, & Perillo, 2010). As a consequence, the interrogator has pre-set beliefs and expectations, setting in motion a process of behavioural confirmation. The interrogator will interpret any responses from the suspect in a way that confirms their pre-set beliefs. Investigators led to believe their suspect was guilty, asked guilt-presumptive questions and exerted more pressure to obtain a confession (Kassin, Goldstein and Savitsky, 2003). This highly aggressive form of questioning therefore creates an incriminating loop for innocent people; the more they are questioned and pressured the more anxious and defensive they appear, validating the interrogators false belief of guilt and resulting in a more aggressive interrogation. Denials and defiance appear as a guilty person’s resistance, only increasing the efforts of the interrogator to gain a confession.

What therefore makes a person falsely confess to a crime?
As the second stage of the Reid technique is to elicit a false confession, nine key steps are followed; it is these situational factors that are thought to increase the risk of false confessions. Kassin (2005) reduces these steps to: isolation, confrontation and minimization. Isolation increases the stress of suspects, especially over increased periods of time. By depriving a suspect of sleep their ability to make complex decisions becomes impaired (Harrison & Horne, 2000), making them act uncharacteristically. In a review of false confessions by Drizin and Leo (2004), it was found that the mean length of interrogation time for cases of false confession was 16.3 hours, compared to routine interrogations that typically last less than 2 hours. Once isolated, the suspect is confronted and accused of the crime; they may be presented with evidence and prevented from claiming innocence. The use of false evidence to elicit a confession is a very successful technique, and evidence such an incriminating fingerprint or blood stain significantly increases the chance of a false confession (Horselenberg, Merckelbach, & Josephs, 2003).

"...the interrogator has pre-set beliefs and expectations, setting in motion a process of behavioural confirmation."

The third process, minimization, is to sympathise and provide moral justification for the crime, for example describing the crime as accidental, drug-induced or provoked. This justification allows the suspect to confess to a crime that they now believe to be inconsequential. By confessing, the innocent individual is able to escape from the highly stressful and demanding interrogation.

How can we protect innocent people?
There are many processes at different points within the interrogation, which put an innocent suspect at risk. Situational factors, such as the length of time a suspect is under interrogation, the use of false evidence, and the use of tactics such as bullying and coercion, should be taken into strong consideration by jurors. The use of such strategies should be monitored and, if used, they should be highly justifiable. One way to protect all suspects is to videotape the interrogation, videotaping not just the suspect but also the context of the confession. In this way, both verbal and physical behaviour can be assessed at a later date, and by multiple professionals, to determine the guilt or innocence of a suspect (Kassin, 2005). This simple strategy would reduce the number of false confessions made, making the judicial system more effective, and our streets safer.
What is forensic psychology, and how does it differ from criminology?

Unfortunately, there is no universal definition for 'Forensic Psychology'. However, generally speaking, it's all about applying psychological knowledge or methods to aspects of the Criminal Justice System. As far as research is concerned, forensic psychologists are interested in issues as diverse as what makes testimony more accurate, how juries make decisions, what's the best way of rehabilitating a sex offender and whether there is a connection between poor mental health and criminal behaviour. Forensic Psychologists working in applied settings are usually involved in conducting risk assessments, delivering one-to-one or group interventions and/or advising senior management staff on issues such as recruitment, staff retention or critical incidents. Although there will inevitably be some degree of overlap between the two subjects, criminology is more concerned with the incidence, causes and consequences of crime and is much less 'hands on'.

What are the current employment opportunities for students wanting to pursue a career in forensic psychology?

Prospective students should be in no doubt that they are entering a highly competitive field and having a good first degree and relevant postgraduate qualification is now regarded as standard for those wishing to pursue this career. A few years ago, only a small number of MSc courses existed (including York). Since then, more and more institutions have started to offer programmes in Forensic Psychology. This has led to a surplus of excellent graduates competing for a relatively small number of positions in forensic settings. When the current public sector cuts are factored in, things can appear rather bleak to a person interested in pursuing this career. However, this is not to say that job opportunities no longer exist. Prisons and secure units do still advertise for Assistant Psychologists - generally seen as the first rung on the career ladder. So long as the field continues to develop, prison numbers keep rising, the Government continues to support the idea of rehabilitation and the BPS continue fine-tuning the Chartership route, the number of posts should increase. Even if a student is not interested in pursuing a career 'in prison', the MSc is still a valuable addition to their CV and can certainly support their applications for the Clinical Doctorate or a PhD in (Forensic) Psychology. In short, it is certainly possible to pursue a career in this
field so long as you have the enthusiasm and patience to keep going.

**How easy is it to gain valuable work experience in the field as an undergraduate? Any recommended contacts?**

Obtaining work experience can be difficult due to the demands providing placements can have on establishment resources and the fact that students are highly likely to require some degree of security clearance to work in a forensic setting. The latter can sometimes take quite a while to come through, especially for overseas students. However, I would certainly encourage prospective students to start contacting local establishments as early as possible, preferably while still undertaking their first degree. Showing a willingness to do anything to help (e.g. photocopying, filing, making coffee) goes a long way. Alternatively, students should consider contacting drug charities, youth offending teams and organisations such as Victim Support. In the early stages of a career, the kind of work a student undertakes is less important than involving themselves in the Criminal Justice System in some capacity (albeit on the right side of the law!). So, volunteering to work with victims or helping to run a needle exchange is just as valuable as helping members of staff in a prison psychology department. The point is to make prospective employers know just how much you are willing to sacrifice in order to succeed in this field, even if it means working in a cramped office for no money during your holidays. This is what sets an applicant apart from their peers.

**What kind of person does it take to work in prisons?**

Working in prisons is not for everyone. Attempting to rehabilitate some of the most vulnerable members of society can be a thankless task and there are certainly days when, as a practitioner working with a problematic offender, it feels like you are taking one step forward and two back. This, when combined with the fact that forensic settings can be noisy, intimidating and potentially dangerous places to work needs to be taken into account by anyone considering working in such a setting. Some of the most essential skills for people working in a prison are rarely spoken about in academic circles. In my experience, one of the most neglected qualities for a psychologist is having a sense of humour. This can act as a powerful protective factor, particularly if you are working with individuals who have committed crimes that you often struggle to comprehend. Being able to maintain professional boundaries, assume a non-judgemental approach and stay resilient when faced with setbacks are also essential. We try to cultivate these skills as much as possible on the MSc in the hope that our graduates can leave the programme confident that, in addition to having a sound understanding of relevant psychological concepts, they are also able to withstand and/or overcome the less positive aspects of working with offenders.

Are you up for the challenge?
MSc in Applied Forensic Psychology/ MSc in Forensic Psychology Studies

If you want to pursue your interest in forensic psychology to postgraduate level, York offers two Masters courses.

So, how do I choose between them?

The Masters in Forensic Psychology Studies will suit students who would like to complete a postgraduate qualification in Forensic Psychology but who do not possess an undergraduate degree granting them the Graduate Basis for Registration (GBR) with the British Psychological Society (BPS).

In plain speak, the two courses follow the same programme of study and both are examined to the same high standard, but if you are aiming to become a Chartered Forensic Psychologist following completion of your BSc in Psychology at York, you should consider the MSc in Applied Forensic Psychology.

"Some of the most essential skills for people working in a prison are rarely spoken about in academic circles. In my experience, one of the most neglected qualities for a psychologist is having a sense of humour."

Modules include:

- Forensic Psychology in practice
- Research Design and Statistics
- Legal and Contextual Issues
- Transferrable Skills
- Additional Research Methods
- Forensic Mental Health
- Forensic and General Skills

Additionally, an empirical research project (dissertation) will be completed in Term 3. Assessment methods are varied and include short answer papers, briefing papers, case studies, essays, open assignments, multiple-choice papers and the empirical research project.

Many students organise voluntary placements in forensic settings in addition to the course team organising visits for students. In previous academic years, visit locations have included HMP Doncaster, HMP Askham Grange, Fulford Road Police Station, York Crown Court and York Magistrate Courts.

How will the course help me pursue a career in Forensic Psychology?

The MSc in Applied Forensic Psychology aims to:

- Train you in methods of research
- Raise your level of critical reflection and intellectual ability
- Provide requisite practitioner-based skills, understanding, and knowledge to work effectively in a forensic setting
- Provide you with leading edge information technology, presentation and communication skills required for a wide variety of administrative roles
- Facilitate chartership within the BPS Division of Forensic Psychology for students who go on to undertake a further two years of forensic practice

For more information on both the advanced third year modules and MSc course, see the department website.
Forensic Psychology as a Third Year Advanced Module

This year, York is introducing a brand new module, ‘Introduction to Forensic Psychology’ for students interested in this fascinating field, particularly those considering pursuing the subject to MSc level.

So what topics will be covered in the module?

Forensic Psychology: Myth and Method
What is forensic psychology? What do forensic psychologists do and how accurate are public perceptions of the field? A general introduction to the module.

Theories of crime
What psychological theories have underpinned the evolution of the modern day criminal justice framework?

Victims and the law
How can psychology inform the assessment and treatment of victims?

Psychological processes and bias in the courtroom
What factors impact on jury decision-making?

Assessing and treating offenders
How are offenders assessed and treated in custodial settings?

Crime and mental disorder
Is there a relationship between mental disorder and offending behaviour?

Ethical issues in forensic psychology
How important is it for psychologists working in secure settings to abide by ethical guidelines when working with offenders?

What can I read if I’m interested?
Daniel Bennett investigates the neuroscience behind love and attraction.

We might as well face it, we’re addicted to love and it’s a good job too!

Love is one of the very reasons we are still here today from our incomprehensibly long past. It is the glue that holds us, and many species, together and is a complex mechanism that has evolved to make and maintain the best couples; it’s likely to happen to you and everyone you’ll ever meet. The feelings these mechanisms create dominate our culture, permeating every corner of the arts from the earliest novels to the latest film and music.

Love often takes its toll on us. Flying us to the highest heights but also dropping us to the darkest depths. Pre-‘proper science’, the heart was given the role of love. This was probably because the notably increased heart rate of being infatuated and the physical chest pain of heartbreak would have clued them off - but of course we love within our brain, using a cocktail of behaviour-shaping neurochemicals to do so! It seems a shame to demystify this beautiful phenomenon, but the apparatus hidden backstage is, in my opinion, just as fascinating as the show itself.

Helen Fisher, Professor of Biological Anthropology at Rutgers University, splits “love” into 3 core brain systems: lust, attraction, and attachment. Lust, as you would expect, is thrust into action by the sex hormones, testosterone and oestrogen, creating the initial desire to have sex with somebody. A brain in lust looks different to a brain in love; if shown erotic images in an fMRI, a participant in lust shows activity in the hypothalamus and amygdale that deal with primitive needs and general arousal respectively, whereas a person in love shows activity in neither area.

With attraction, the brain serves up a hearty dose of adrenaline and dopamine.
These immensely powerful hormones generate that exhilarating ‘crazy in love’ feeling, that ‘I would do anything for love’ feeling! But why the excitement? Falling in love activates the stress response that in turn increases adrenaline and cortisol in your blood. This has the adorably embarrassing effect of making your heart race, your palms sweat and your mouth go dry... it makes the situation very noticeable to you. The next ingredient, dopamine, then powerfully floods the caudate nucleus exactly the same way as when you take cocaine, which may help to explain the lyrics: ‘You are always on my mind’ and N-Dubz’s ‘I need you’. So now we know we are attracted and addicted to one another, what next?

Attachment is purported to be the mechanism that ensures we stay together long enough to rear children, (the mechanism you don’t often witness on the Jeremy Kyle show). Oxytocin is largely released during orgasm and is what makes couples feel a lot closer to each other after sex; incidentally, it also induces sleep in males. Interestingly, if you stop the release of oxytocin in sheep they reject their young, and if you inject it into virgin female rats, they fawn over others young.

So now we know more of how the magic works, where would this article be without a simple guide to falling in love? Professor Arthur Arun at York University in Canada (sadly) asked pairs of strangers to reveal intimate details to one another for half an hour, before staring at each other’s eyes in silence for four minutes. Many participants later admitted feelings of strong attraction towards their participating partner, and one couple even went on to get married! If only PEEBS offered such experiments...
A Brief History of Psychosurgery and its Uses in Today’s Clinical Settings

Alix Dixon finds out about the history of mental illness under the knife.

When many people hear the word ‘psychosurgery’ they think about the brutal depictions of lobotomies turning patients into zombies. But is this really the truth? And what bearing does this history have on the way that psychosurgery is used today?

The term psychosurgery is properly used when a clinician uses surgical or invasive techniques to purposefully alter the patient’s psychology. It was first seen as a technique at a conference in London in 1935. Carlyle Jacobsen and colleagues presented the results of their experimentation on primates; they discovered that by removing the pre-frontal parts of a chimps pre-frontal lobes, aggressive behaviour was significantly lessened (Jacobsen and Wolfe, 1935). Sitting in the audience of this conference was a man who would develop these results into something more recognisable to today’s readers as psychosurgery.

António de Egas Moniz (1874-1955)

A Portuguese neuropsychiatrist, António de Egas Moniz, impressed with Jacobsen's findings, began to use similar techniques on his schizophrenic patients in order to control aggressive behaviour. This became known as a leucotomy (or pre-frontal lobotomy), and involved severing neural connections between the pre-frontal lobes and the hypothalamus and thalamus, believing that it would disconnect rational thought from emotion. Moniz's technique, known quite disturbingly as the 'apple-corer technique' involved drilling a hole on each side of the head through the skull, into which a blunt instrument was inserted and dragged in a vertical arc. This crude technique was claimed to have a 70% 'cure' rate by Moniz (1937), and earned him the Nobel prize for medicine in 1949.

At the same London conference in 1935 was an American neurologist named Walter Freeman who brought Jacobsen’s findings back to the USA, and despite not being
surgically trained, began to apply the technique to patients, along with his colleague James Watts. They developed the technique now known as the transorbital lobotomy, involving the entering of a sharp instrument through the upper part of the eye socket and rotating at various angles inside the pre-frontal lobes, thus severing several neural connections. This surgery became hugely popular in American medicine and was practised widely during the 1940s; in fact Valenstein (1980) puts the number of lobotomised patients at around 25,000. Findings indicate that many of these patients became permanently disabled, showing little intellectual ability, with many others dying from complications due to the roughness of the surgery.

There have been many accounts of the various side-effects of lobotomies, including apathy, seizures, and memory loss. One of the largest issues with the older techniques is their inconsistency, resulting in a lack of appropriate evaluation. Today, due to the advent of pharmaceutical techniques within clinical psychology, psychosurgery is often only considered as a last resort, when all other methods have been exhausted. Newer techniques still involve creating two holes in the skull, but unlike the above techniques, the rods inserted are radioactive and so kill tissue in a different way. This technique is believed to be more precise and generates more consistent results. Research findings suggest that although the technique shows some effectiveness, it is not as consistent as hoped; Verkaik (1995) reports that psychosurgery can reduce suicidal tendencies in those patients with severe depression. Hay et al. (1993) also suggest that by using a specific psychosurgical technique called a cingulotomy, where the cingulum bundle is cut, psychosurgery can provide effective treatment for obsessive-compulsive patients.

There are still many debates when it comes to the use of psychosurgery in clinical psychology, including ethical and medical issues, and of course, psychosurgery is still tainted by its somewhat barbaric past. However, for me this article is best concluded by a quote from Valenstein (1973):

‘There are certainly no grounds for either the position that all psychosurgery necessarily reduces all people to a “vegetable state” or that it has a high probability of producing miraculous cures. The truth, even if somewhat wishy-washy, lies somewhere between these extreme positions.’
This August, the nation’s attention was captured by an explosion of riots across England’s cities. As the week unfolded and the riots escalated with violence and looting, they appeared a far cry from the peaceful march from which they were born. The riots sparked shock, controversy and debate, as the nation asked the question: how could once peaceful citizens become criminals?

Mr Hyde?
Theories of crowd behaviour stretch back to the turn of the century when Le Bon (1908) defined the phenomenon as: ‘degradation from civilised to savage behaviour’. In a similar vein, Freud (1921) believed the crowd to be capable of releasing unconscious urges; thus it can be seen that historical theories of crowd behaviour have a ‘Jekyll and Hyde’-like quality to them, which although imaginative, have little place in modern psychology.

Anonymity?
The theory of deindividuation offers an explanation for crowd behaviour, by suggesting that the anonymity of crowds results in a loss of identity, and consequently morals, thereby resulting in antisocial behaviour (Zimbardo, 1970). The relationship between anonymity and violent attacks was investigated by Silke (2003), who assessed 500 violent attacks in Northern Ireland finding that disguised criminals carried out 206 of these attacks. He found disguised perpetrators caused worse injuries, attacked more people at the scene of the crime, carried out more vandalism and were more likely to threaten victims after the attack. With this theory in mind, perhaps the sheer number in the crowds, the hoods and masks worn by the London Rioters provided the anonymity required to facilitate their criminal acts.

Ambiguity?
Emergent Norms Theory argues that crowd behaviour results from individuals finding themselves in an ambiguous situation, of which there is no obvious standard way of behaving. This means that individuals act in accordance with what they perceive to be the norm behaviour. This occurs through the process of ‘milling’, in which members of the group express and exchange opinions. There are certain members called ‘key-noters’, who are more resolute in giving their opinion and it is these views that are adopted by the group (Reicher, 2001). Thus, this theory may suggest that the London riots were simply a response to an ambiguous situation.

The In-group?
Social Identity Theory (SIT) explains crowd behaviour as the result of conflicts between groups. SIT distinguishes between a personal
and social identity; in crowd situations the personal identity of the individual is replaced by the shared social identity of the group (Wren, 1999). Therefore, crowd behaviour results from individuals consciously attempting to promote in-group goals (Reicher, 2001). Analysis of the St Paul’s riots supports SIT, as the rioters expressed a clear group identity. Moreover, their behaviour specifically targeted the police, financial institutions and shops owned by outsiders, which represented the out-group (Reicher, 1984; Reicher & Potter 1985). If applying SIT to the London riots, the violence directed towards the police and the looting of shops, may be interpreted as specific targeting of the out-group, by those who consider themselves to be members of the in-group.

The Out-group?
The Elaborated Social Identity Model (ESIM) extends SIT, by taking into account the role of the out-group on crowd behaviour. The model states that both the out-group’s actions and their conceptions of crowd members, can alter the individuals identity (Reicher, 2001). Snyder and Swann (1978) found that if individuals were perceived to be hostile, rather than non-hostile, they were more likely to display hostility. In light of this research, it could be suggested that the riots in London were a self-fulfilling prophecy, brought about by the government’s prolonged war on ‘hoodies’. Perhaps the rioters’ antisocial behaviour was just confirming society’s expectation?

Minority Influence?
Minority influence is when individuals reject the norm of the group for the stance held by a minority of its members. A classic study by Moscovici et al. (1969) used a colour identification task to measure minority influence; he found that when the minority were consistent in their (incorrect) answers, participants agreed with them on 8.42% of trials. Recent research carried out by the Social Cognitive Networks Academic Research Centre (SCNARC) claims that when 10% of the population hold steadfast beliefs, the rest of the population will adopt their views (Xie et al, 2011). Whilst it is highly unlikely that the minority position of the London rioters will be taken up by the rest of society, minority research may still help to explain the ‘copy-cat’ riots that occurred across other cities in England.
Morality?

Kohlberg (1973) defined three main stages for development of morality: pre-conventional, conventional and post-conventional. It is only at the conventional level that individuals respect authority and obey laws. Studies suggest a relationship between morality and crime. The results of a meta-analysis found that juvenile delinquents had immature moral reasoning (Nelson, Smith & Dodd, 1990). The current statistics from the London riots show that 20% of those who appeared in court were aged between 10 and 17, and 31% were aged between 18 and 20 (Ministry of Justice Statistics Bulletin, 2011). Could it be that their involvement in the riots was due to them not yet having attained conventional morality?

Overall, it can be said that there are a number of diverse theories that attempt to explain crowd behaviour and multiple variables (of which conformity and morality are just a couple) that may also play a role in our understanding of behaviour and crime. However, until statistical analyses are carried out in relation to the London riots, we can only speculate at what makes a citizen a rioter. Was it a desire to protest against self-satisfied authorities presiding over a decaying economy, or simply the want of a new T-shirt?
Psych Soc was set up to raise awareness of Psychology and the issues and debates the science creates, both within the department and on a wider scale throughout the university. These are at the core of everything we do however with new committees come new ideas and this year Psych Soc want to give you more value for money...

This year on top of lectures given by world leading researchers, faster access to job and research opportunities within the department, the annual BPS conference visit and termly staff student sports event, PsychSoc wants to give you the opportunity to go out and have fun whilst helping you get the grades you want. Who said education must come at the cost of a social life!

PsychSoc this year will offer you the member the opportunity to meet with other members of the society at heavily subsidized socials organised by and run by the committee, with great drinks deals and perks... if we can’t do it for free, that is!

So to give you a taste of what you can expect if you come and join PsychSoc here are some of the things we have done and stuff to look forward to. If you want to socialise with your course mates or need ingenious ways to improve those grades PsychSoc is the society for you.
Would you like to know more about a particular career in the field of Psychology? If yes, then become a regular reader of our interview section! In each issue, we will interview a guest who will tell us about their attitude towards psychology, their individual career paths and hopefully provide students with success tips.

What can you do with a Psychology degree?

Alix Dixon asks Judith Carter, Senior Adviser for Complex Needs/Vulnerable Children at the Children’s Services Professional Development Centre in Norwich, about her profession.

Where did you study?
My first degree was a BA (Hons) in Psychology, Sociology and Social Anthropology at Keele University.

What was it that first attracted you to Psychology?
Ironically, it was Sociology! Sociology was a ‘new’ A-level subject at my 6th form. I finally found the subject that ‘clicked’! I then found out about universities and I liked the sound of a dual honours degree. Psychology appealed as it was a study of the individual interacting within society, and Sociology was a study of the society on the individual!

Did you have a career in Psychology mapped out for yourself early on (and if not what inspired you about Educational Psychology)?
No! I wanted to teach. I loved being a primary teacher, but in my second year I had the privilege of teaching a little girl with Autism; she changed my life! It was my first real insight into Special Educational Needs (SEN) and barriers to learning. I read a lot and found ways of adapting my teaching to assist her learning. We formed a special bond and I was so proud of her achievements. At the end of the year she went in to another colleague’s class (in a shared bay) where I watched her being shouted at and alienated, and at one point even climbing out of
the window. I was devastated, as my attempts to support, intervene, and advise my colleague were ignored. I then realised that I wanted to support the development of teaching. A new initiative of an Assistant Educational Psychologist was introduced in Essex, and I applied for the role. I spent 18 months in that role, where I worked directly with 6 Educational Psychologists (EPs) and had an insight into the role, prior to gaining a funded MSc at the University of East London. So in terms of the ‘inspiration’, I guess it was more ‘frustration’ with the system, and a desire to effect change for children using psychology as that tool.

What has been the most defining moment of your psychological career?
That is really hard to answer. I have moments that I am very proud of. Not least, my recent involvement with Professor Tony Booth on the revised Index for Inclusion. But also, where you see a shift in attitudes towards a child; in one setting, I remember the SEN Children's Officer describing a child as: “a nasty boy, who had no friends, which was hardly surprising”. I then worked with his class directly and introduced a circle of friends, and about 6 months later, the same boy was described as “a real hard worker.” There are so many moments involving children and families directly, but also empowering staff.

Have there been any experiences that have enriched/broadened your career?
Same as above really. Every child, family or colleague has the potential to enrich your career, if you engage in that interaction.

Finally, do you have any words of wisdom for aspiring educational psychologists?
If only I knew some words of wisdom! What I would say however, is that Psychology is a wonderful framework, a language for interpreting interaction. But it also is the interaction, therefore do not view it as ‘fixed’ or ‘static.’ Go with it! ‘Catch yourself’ using the framework and dare to try something new. At a time of huge change for the profession, I would say don’t be afraid of ‘job titles’ or labels. Ironically, I use far more psychology in my day-to-day role as a Senior Adviser than I did as an EP. So trust your instinct. I wanted to use psychology to make a difference for children and families, and I continue to strive towards that!

For more information on the path to embark upon if you wish to become qualified as an educational psychologist, please visit http://www.bps.org.uk/careers-education-training/careers-resources/careers-resources
Psychology is, to put it simply, the science or the logic behind the thoughts and actions of the brain that have an effect on not only individuals, social behaviour and perception, but personal actions and functions. But the question is: ‘Is psychology accepted by everyone?’ From my research, the answer appears to be no. There have been many cases where individuals with mental disorders have turned to religion or society’s “healers or witch doctors” rather than seeking professional help. One of the most famous examples of such a case is the story of Anneliese Michel.

Anneliese Michel was born on September 21st 1952 in Klingenberg, Bavaria. If the name doesn’t ring a bell, then she is the girl on which William Friedkin’s film [The Exorcist] and the 2005 Exorcism of Emily Rose was based. For those of you who are not familiar with these films, I shall provide you with a quick summary. Anneliese Michel suffered, since the tender age of 17, from convulsions for which she was diagnosed with epilepsy. After this she started experiencing ‘devilish hallucinations’. She also began to hear voices.

In 1975, convinced their daughter was possessed, Anneliese Michel’s parents gave up on the doctors from the psychiatric clinic and chose to rely solely on the exorcisms for healing ([washingtonpost.com]). After this, Anneliese’s symptoms developed into those of schizophrenia and she died a year later ([telegraph.co.uk]). Unlike the films, the court case of Anneliese Michel found four defendants guilty of negligent homicide and
sentenced to six months in prison. They were Father Arnold Renz, Pastor Ernst Alt, and Anneliese Michel’s parents, Josef and Anna (washingtonpost.com). The trial revealed that given the right medical help, Anneliese would have survived and even gone on to lead a normal life.

Across the world, many people choose to avoid consulting psychologists. In many cases, primitive tribes still turn to healers and witch doctors. Although some have claimed to be cured by witch doctors or healers, there are a number of cases that have resulted in the death of sick individuals. When government agencies stepped in to provide medical assistance to the tribes, they discovered that the tribes were happy to go to the doctors for physical problems but for mental problems they continued seeking the help of their witch doctor. Medicine men claim to cure all sorts of illnesses, from viral fevers to snake bites, they also try to cure other illnesses with mantras (sacred chants). What is worrying is that witch doctors generally fall short when cases of mental disorders are brought to them and more often than not, they make the patient worse.

Even modern societies tend to avoid counselling; 50% of marriages in America end in divorce and of those only two-thirds of the couples seek counselling. It is clear that psychology is struggling for acceptance, the question is, will this new science ever be fully accepted or is actually understanding the way we think far too intimidating for us?
Nick Barraclough

1. So you are coming from Hull University; what prompted you to move, and how does York compare so far?

The main reason that I moved from Hull to York was to further my research career. Psychology teaching is largely similar between the two Universities. In terms of research, however, the Psychology department at York has some first class facilities and I will have some fantastic colleagues in my area with whom I hope to collaborate.

2. What is psychology for you?

Psychology for me is what brains do.

3. Why and when did you choose psychology as your field of expertise?

I didn’t choose psychology at all! I am actually a biologist that has sort of ended up here. I was always interested in most sciences at school, but was particularly fascinated by the idea that something as complicated as a human being could be explained by sets of simple understandable processes. I think I decided I wanted to be a career scientist a year or two before university and choose to study Neuroscience, as the brain was the most complicated biological system I could think of, and therefore I wouldn’t run out of things to study during my career. As for choosing a field of expertise, as an undergraduate I had a particularly good lecturer in vision, also vision is also a field where you can really get to grips with what the brain is actually doing rather than speculating too much.

4. How did you develop your career in psychology?

I went straight from an undergraduate degree in Neuroscience at Edinburgh to do a PhD at UCL recording from single cells in the monkey visual system. After not quite seeing eye-to-eye with my PhD supervisor (long story...) I moved to Nottingham to do more of the same sort of research and was awarded my PhD from there. I then took a few months off surfing in Central America to contemplate my research career, before eventually returning to do a post-doc recording from more monkey single cells. I gave up the technique when I took a lectureship at Hull as the complexity, facilities and money needed for that type of research is beyond most UK universities. I do a lot of psychophysics now, however, I have been moving increasingly into doing human cognitive neuroscience with TMS, and will be using the fMRI scanner here at
work I’m now doing and don’t ever regret moving away from recording single cells.

5. Tell us about your research area...

My research looks at how the brain enables us to see and make sense of other peoples’ actions and behaviour. Understanding other peoples’ behaviour is perhaps one of the most important things we do as humans, allowing us to function and interact appropriately in a social world. I’m interested in revealing and understanding the physiological processes that enable us to do such a complex thing.

6. What is it about that that particularly interests you?

I think what’s most exciting is that the perception of human actions could be achieved by a set of simple brain processes. Scientists have studied how we see very simple stimuli, like gratings, and gone a long way to explain how the brain deals with them. I think it is particularly exciting that we can study perception of human behaviour in the same way. If we know these simple processes, perhaps we can work out why they can be biased, or go wrong in some people, maybe we can improve human perception.

7. What is your current project and who will you be working with here at York?

One of my main projects is looking at the perception of actions with immersive Virtual Reality techniques. I am working with Dr Bruce Keefe, a research fellow in the department, to recreate full-sized 3D naturalistic environments that can contain our human actors. In collaboration with the Police, we will investigate how we see trustworthy and untrustworthy behaviours; hopefully we can improve how the Police make decisions about other people’s behaviour.

I also have plans for a few other projects. With Dr. Tim Andrews I intend to look at the mechanisms underlying interactions between faces and actions within different contexts. Another project will involve building computer controlled avatars that we can use to test perception of almost any action, even impossible ones.

8. What has been the highlight of your career to date?

Being awarded a large amount of money from the ESRC to do our Virtual Reality research was nice. Although perhaps the most “fun” was being flown out to Princeton, USA for 24 hours to give a talk on face perception to a select group. I was a first year post-doc, and all the other speakers were world-famous. All my expenses were paid, expensive hotel, taxis to and from New York – I really thought I’d arrived!

9. And now, what’s the worst experiment you’ve ever run?

As a first year PhD student I was once asked to carry out an experiment by my supervisor that was so important, and so secret, that even I was not allowed to know what it was about! I spent a long time recording the responses of cells in a mystery area of the brain and then the data disappeared, never to be seen again. I don’t think it was ever published...

10. What modules will you be teaching this year?

I will be teaching 2nd year students on the Perception and Cognition strand. This will be on High-Level Perception; the topic extends from Pete Thompson’s lectures on lower-level vision, and will be a good primer for those studying faces, actions or social neuroscience in their 3rd year. I will also be doing a 3rd year advanced module called “Perception of Actions and Human Behaviour”, as well as a lecture and seminar on Psychophysics on the MRes course.

11. Finally, any advice for this year’s freshers?

Don’t spend your time worrying about exams. Enjoy studying and learning new things about Psychology; immerse yourself in the topic. If you enjoy what you are studying, the exam marks will take care of themselves.