

CfE

HIGHER PSYCHOLOGY



BrightRED Study Guide

CfE HIGHER

PSYCHOLOGY



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# INTRODUCTION

## STUDYING CFE HIGHER PSYCHOLOGY

The Higher Psychology course consists of two sections: Social psychology and individual psychology. The research topic is assessed by marking the content of your course assignment, but the research topic can also feature in any part of the exam. The final grade on your certificate is assessed by the question paper and the research assignment. This guide is designed to help you achieve an A grade.

### HOW THIS BOOK WILL HELP YOU

You're presented with lots of information in the classroom during your course year at school or college. Your tutor will use handouts, books, photocopies, notes, mind-maps, posters and flashcards. So, what do you revise? What do you need to know and what can you miss out? This is called 'intelligent selection'. But, how do you intelligently select and narrow down what to study? This guide is here to help you.

It includes the key information needed for the whole Higher Psychology course, allowing intelligent selection during your precious revision time. Here, you'll find the essential material for passing the course (the assignment and the exam) in an easy-to-digest and concise form.

Use this book and, the chances are, your Higher Psychology grade will improve.

### WHY STUDY HIGHER PSYCHOLOGY?

This will depend on your ambition. You may want to gain some insight into your friends' and family's behaviour. You may want to understand the workings of the human brain, or know why people seem so odd and hard to fit in with. Perhaps you want to go to university to study the social sciences and become a criminologist. Maybe you want to become a Sports Psychologist for the Olympic team, or become a nurse and interpret people's social behaviour. It could be you want to become a primary school teacher and study child development. Alternatively, you may wish to write books or pursue a career in expressive drama.

Studying Higher Psychology will develop the critical skills necessary for pursuing any of these goals. It will help you to analyse different human perspectives, evaluate emerging theories, explain scientific concepts and interpret empirical evidence. Completing the Higher Psychology course is a strong leap onto a springboard to advance your ambition.

My ambition is for there to be fewer conflicts in the world. I want to encourage people to talk together. I want to get rid of the prejudices in society and encourage everybody to get along. Studying Higher Psychology can help us all get closer to this goal.

This course has every chance of improving your quality of life. It has an applied component to health and wellbeing in all topics, so studying Higher Psychology helps promote mental health and wellbeing throughout Scotland and abroad. Not bad for a set of SQA tests!

### HIGHER PSYCHOLOGY COURSE ASSESSMENT

This course has an external exam. This is a closed-book question paper and represents most of the total mark. There is also a research assignment to complete for the rest of the total mark and this is usually sent by your centre to the SQA well before the end of the course.

### THE EXTERNAL ASSESSMENTS: TWO COMPONENTS TO COMPLETE

#### Component 1: Question Paper

The question paper will sample your psychological knowledge and analytical skills. You are asked to explain human behaviour from a range of perspectives and for

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a range of topics. The quality of your answers, in terms of explanation, evaluation and analysis, are used to determine how many of the total marks you will get.

There are two sections of the question paper. Section 1 tests your knowledge of the research process and research topics. Section 2 samples your knowledge of topics from the psychology of individual behaviour. Section 2 asks questions on topics from the psychology of social behaviour.

#### Component 2: Research Assignment

Your research assignment takes the form of a report on an investigation carried out by you, first hand. The report is written by you and should document how you planned, carried out, analysed and evaluated a psychological research investigation you did during the course. You need to plan this research assignment with your tutor. The quality of your final report determines how many of the total marks you get.

The research assignment requires you to carry out your own primary research on a topic or brief chosen by you and your tutor. This gives you the chance to use your communication and research skills to generate, select, organise, interpret, analyse and evaluate real psychological data.

### HOW TO EXPLAIN

Good **explanations** come from well supported points linked to what you are explaining. A key skill for Higher is how to explain theories, concepts and psychological factors. Do this by referring to supporting research evidence and relevant examples. Here's a tried and tested way to explain:

#### Point-Evidence-Explain (The PEE technique of Explaining)

In all sections of the Higher Psychology exam you can approach questions with a technique called 'Point-Evidence-Explain'. The PEE technique will keep your answers relevant to the task and supported by psychological research.

#### The PEE Sandwich – it sounds disgusting, but it works:

**POINT:** Make an unsupported point about some behaviour or psychology (1 mark)

**EVIDENCE:** Give an example of research or behaviour as evidence to support your point. This evidence will be relevant to your point. (1 mark)

**EXPLAIN LINK:** Explain *how* the example research evidence or everyday behaviour supports the point. Remember to link it back to the question or task. (1 mark)

### HOW TO ANALYSE

Good **analysis** comes from explaining the links between one effect and another. You can achieve ANALYSIS by comparing one piece of research with other research. You can also explain the importance of any research.

A key phrase to use for analysis is '*This matters because...*'

#### The GRAVES technique

The GRAVES technique uses an analysis mnemonic to help remember relevant **analysis paragraphs**.

You can add the GRAVES technique to extend your analysis of research:

G = Is the research general?

R = Is the research reliable?

A = Is the research applicable and important to everyone?

V = Is the research valid when taken out of the laboratory?

E = Is the research ethical?

S = Is the sample representative for general conclusions?

Analysis paragraphs will include the consequences of research, why the research is useful and how important the research or theory is to society. So, when analysing, explain why this research or theory matters. Remember, GRAVES and '*This matters because...*'.



The question paper and the research assignment will be marked externally by SQA.



Remember, if you work for a very good mark in your research assignment, you're close to achieving one third of the course marks.

## INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR

## COGNITIVE THEORIES OF SLEEP AND DREAMS 1

Cognitive theories of sleep and dreams are also proposed in psychology for why we sleep and dream. These claim that sleeping and dreaming can improve cognitive functions – that is, there may be internal mental processes that require periods of sleep or dreaming to function well. Cognitive theories of sleep differ from biological theories of sleep in that they suggest sleep is mainly for maintenance and growth of the mind rather than maintenance or growth of the body.

## Example:

Sleep and cognition



## DON'T FORGET



Cognitive theories of sleep do suggest that gaining more sleep will restore cognitive skills after a sleep debt or sleep deprivation. However, cognitive theories of sleep *do not* suggest we will get cognitive superpowers if we continue to have very long sleeps.

## COGNITIVE: CRICK AND MITCHISON'S (1983) REORGANISATION THEORY OF SLEEP

One main cognitive theory of sleeping and dreaming, proposed by Crick and Mitchison (1983), is the reorganisation theory of sleep. According to this consolidation theory, we 'prune' useless memories during REM sleep.

Crick and Mitchison argue that sleep-time allows us 'downtime' to find redundant memories, and dream-time is when this pruning is done (that is, during REM sleep). REM sleep is when we dream, according to Dement & Kleitman (1957), and this is when our mind works through our long-term memories and we forget redundant, useless memories in order to free up space for only what's relevant to us.

Crick and Mitchison (1983) claim that dream sleep (REM sleep) is the time for information consolidation, and this is in line with Stickgold (1998) who sees sleep as an important time for 'offline' memory reprocessing.

Axmacher et al (2008) have developed the memory consolidation theory further by proposing an **initial learning phase** in memory formation (for example, during the day, learning something new). Then there is an **information consolidation phase** that may

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become saturated during the day, so a period of sleep is needed to allow the second phase of information consolidation to complete. They conclude from monitoring EEG patterns around the hippocampal region (see page 32) during rest that sleep facilitates memory recall. They conclude that memory transfer from the hippocampus to the neocortex is facilitated during the first resting state immediately following encoding.

It may be that different cognitive skills benefit from different types of rest or sleep. For example, REM sleep may be preferentially important for the consolidation of procedural memories, while deep, slow wave sleep might be critical for long-term, episodic memory.

Evidence for this comes from Plihal and Born (1997) who compared sleep intervals (REM and NREM) with waking intervals after participants learned either a verbal, paired list or a procedural, mirror-drawing task. Their results, from a sample of 20 people, showed REM rich sleep improved memory for paired associate words better than SWS did. The word pair association memory task can be described as a **declarative** memory task. They also found that performance on a mirror-drawing task was improved *more* after a similar interval of rest rich in deep sleep rather than rich in REM sleep. The mirror-drawing task is described as a **procedural** memory task.

## COGNITIVE: HOBSON AND MCCARLEY (1977) ACTIVATION-SYNTHESIS THEORY

Some theories consider dreams to be meaningful, personal and significant in revealing unconscious wishes, along the lines of Freud's (1900) wish-fulfilment theory. However, Hobson and McCarley's activation-synthesis theory states otherwise.

They explain dreaming as random cognitive events that are triggered by incidental neural firings while asleep. These random activations are synthesized by our cortex into a coherent dream 'story'. According to Hobson (2002), dreams are simply by-products of our sensory system struggling to make sense of meaningless, and apparently random, neural activations in our brains during the sleeping period.

Hobson and McCarley's (1977) activation-synthesis theory fits well with the subjective experience of dreaming. It explains the often-bizarre nature of dreams that can move from one conception to another without the constraints of waking reality, while, at the same time, our dreaming mind tries to maintain a coherent perception of random neural firings.

In Hobson's (2002) view, the side effect of internal, neural activations (such as occasional PGO waves of activation, characteristic of dream sleep, from the limbic system to the cortex) is that our perceptual systems cognitively construct a likely interpretation of all the ongoing neural firing.



## THINGS TO DO AND THINK ABOUT

## Keep a dream diary for seven nights

Hall and Van de Castle (1966) analysed the content of 10 000 dreams by classifying their content into designated categories. They found dream content was related to age, gender and social class.

Why not keep a sleep diary for one week? Choose ten categories of dream **before** you write up a record of your dreams.

Then, look at which category is most frequent. Keep a note of some key sleep variables, like TST, SOL and NWAK for seven nights. This could give you an idea for your research assignment!



## VIDEO LINK

Watch the Pixar movie *Inside Out*. This animation gets close to representing Crick and Mitchison's information-consolidation theory in long-term memory with a vacuum cleaner!



## DON'T FORGET

It is worth remembering that PGO waves are activation spikes detectable during sleep in the brain that occur while dreaming. PGO waves flow from the pons area in the limbic system to the lateral geniculate nucleus and then to the occipital lobe (the visual processing area of the brain).



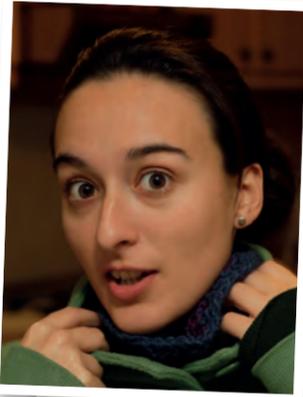
## ONLINE TEST

To test your knowledge of the theories of sleep, head to [www.brightredbooks.net](http://www.brightredbooks.net)

## INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR

## THE PSYCHOANALYTIC APPROACH TO MEMORY 1

The starting point for Freud's theory of memory is 'motivated forgetting'. Freud claimed that memory is emotionally motivated. Memory involves choosing what to remember and, he claimed, unconsciously selecting what to forget.



## FREUD'S THEORY OF FORGETTING

Freud was curious why something believed forgotten a long time ago, could suddenly be recalled into consciousness. Why is memory so obstinate like that? Does the unconscious defend the psyche from reliving bad experiences?

## Motivated remembering and forgetting

Freud's theory of memory is that memories are motivated by instincts and drives. According to the psychoanalytic approach, both the processes of memory and forgetting are driven by unconscious forces. Freud claimed that what we recall and retrieve is very carefully chosen, unconsciously, by the psyche.

Freud argued that what we store of an event is very personal to each individual. Similarly, retrieval from memory is motivated and hardly passive. We are partial to store certain memories, and we select what to remember of events. This biased selection results in unique and personal accounts of the same situations.

## DON'T FORGET



In Freud's view, the psyche consists of the id, ego and superego. These three components can conflict in motive and cause neurosis and anxiety.

## DON'T FORGET



Freud: 'The tendency to forget what is disagreeable seems to me to be quite a universal one.'

## ONLINE



Why not visit Freud's Apartment in Vienna, Austria, or plan a trip to the Freud Museum in London? If you can't visit in person, you can find the Freud Museum online using the link at [www.brightredbooks.net](http://www.brightredbooks.net)

## MOTIVATED FORGETTING AND REPRESSION

Not only did Freud claim that memory is selective, but forgetting is too. Freud's theory of repression is that forgetting is an ego defence mechanism. The whole psyche actively defends the balance of the ego by using ego defence mechanisms such as repression, displacement, denial and projection from unpleasant memories and sensations.

## Motivated encoding

Freud recognised the encoding process of memory is motivated by personal taste, individual selection and unconscious wishes. He also explained that retrieval failure is just as motivated. For example, you might forget an appointment with your dentist. However, you won't forget an appointment with your favourite celebrity.

Freud theorised that behind a misplaced object, such as a lost book, there may be a chilling memory, a dark association or an unpleasant history that, if retrieved from the unconscious, would threaten the balance of the psyche. In many cases, Freud claimed, when the dark association is removed or resolved to a more favourable association, forgetting will cease and the memory will be retrieved. For example, behind mislaid keys, there is likely to be a repressed desire to lose them.



Freud uses many everyday case examples to explain his theory of motivated memory.

## Example:

Freud includes a story about Erna, who put some ginger cake in a cupboard, but forgot which cupboard. She lost the ginger cake while a friend was visiting her house. Freud explained that her inability to find the ginger cake in the kitchen when a visitor was arriving was motivated by a desire to keep it for her own eating. Freud depicts this as 'motivated forgetting'.

In every case from his book, *The Psychopathology of Everyday Life*, Freud claimed 'forgetting' was based on a motive of avoiding displeasure. According to Freud, 'distressing memories succumb especially easily to motivated forgetting'.

## SIGNS OF MOTIVATED FORGETTING AND REMEMBERING IN EVERYDAY BEHAVIOUR

## Parapraxis (slip of the tongue or 'Freudian slip')

Parapraxis is the term used to describe a type of motivated error in retrieval from memory. One example Freud gives of parapraxis is using the name of a favoured person rather than the person you are dealing with. Parapraxis involves replacing accurate recollections with a preferred alternative.

## Example:

Freudian slip: 'Hello Sarah! Oops! I mean, Susan'. If you say the wrong name for your girlfriend, that is parapraxis.

Freud explains slips of the tongue as motivated errors in speech. Word recall errors might disclose the true associations within the speaker for the topic under discussion. Freudian slips are motivated by unconscious forces. For example, saying 'bad to meet you' rather than 'glad to meet you' is a Freudian slip that reveals a hidden displeasure.

## Bungled actions

According to Freud, there are few 'innocent' mistakes. Freud claimed action slips and procedural fails do not happen accidentally. They are caused by neurosis, anxiety and motivated drives against success. Bungled actions happen 'on purpose' and in a motivated fashion. Failure to complete an action successfully because of accident or error usually reveals unconscious anxiety and a motivated desire to fail the task.

## Forgotten appointments

Freud's explanation for forgotten appointments is deterministic. Losing an invite to a dull party does not occur by chance; forgetting is a deliberate ego defence against attending the event. It's repression. In the same way, ending up at the wrong address may be part of an unconscious desire to avoid an unwanted meeting.

## KEY RESEARCH: BREUER AND FREUD (1895), 'STUDIES ON HYSTERIA', THE 'ANNA O' CASE STUDY

One famous case study called 'Anna O', first reported by Breuer and Freud in 1895, supports the Freudian theory of motivated repression of memories.

The patient, 'Anna O', reported that the prescription of a 'talking cure' benefited her feelings and removed some of her anxious and hysterical symptoms. Freud believed that her 'profoundly melancholy fantasies', experienced in her turns of absent-minded daydreaming to Breuer, could be removed with free association and expression.

Freud analysed Anna O's concerns and linked these to the symptoms from Breuer's case history as revealing repressed, hysterical concerns (anxious, neurotic symptoms) from the past that could be recalled, discussed and removed.

Anna O compared the new psychoanalytic 'talking therapy' to 'chimney sweeping' for the psyche. Psychoanalysis aims to remove the repression of difficult memories and resolve unconscious conflicts, thus removing the sources of anxiety in the psyche. (For more about Anna O, see pages 98–99.)

## THINGS TO DO AND THINK ABOUT

Imagine a world without Freud! Whether you like psychoanalytic theory or not, imagine if Freud had repressed his theory of psychoanalysis. How would the world be now? It's fair to conclude that psychiatry, psychology, art and literature would all suffer a loss.

Now, list as many psychoanalytic terms that you can that are a direct result of Freud's work. If you have time, explain these terms by building a Freudian glossary:

unconscious	psyche	denial	repression
libido	id	ego	superego
			regression



## VIDEO LINK

Watch the biographical documentary by NOVA about Freud's life called 'The Father of Psychoanalysis' at [www.brightredbooks.net](http://www.brightredbooks.net)



## DON'T FORGET

Nowadays, speech errors that make underlying desires public are known as Freudian slips.



## ONLINE TEST

Test yourself on the psychoanalytical approach to memory at [www.brightredbooks.net](http://www.brightredbooks.net)

## SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR

## COGNITIVE THEORIES OF PREJUDICE: SOCIAL IDENTITY THEORY

What are the minimal conditions for the establishing of prejudice between groups? In 1978 Tajfel proposed a **cognitive** theory of **social identity** to explain *prejudice* and *discrimination*.

## DON'T FORGET



Tajfel's (1970) 'minimal groups' research suggests that any grouping or categorisation can lead to in-group/out-group prejudice.

## DON'T FORGET



The **cognitive approach** to explaining prejudice relies on defining prejudice as an **affective** bias in cognition, with in-group favouritism and out-group discrimination. Tajfel's Social Identity Theory (SIT) presumes no prejudiced type of person and no special environmental conditions that promote prejudice, merely minimal grouping is enough. This occurs in everyday cognition.

## DON'T FORGET



Tajfel's main insight in his 'minimal groups' research was that social categorisation alone was enough to produce prejudice and discrimination.

## DON'T FORGET



A profound conclusion of Tajfel's minimal group theory and research is that prejudice is **universal** to all societies and is an inevitable cognitive **side-effect** of all in-group/out-group categorisations.

## TAJFEL'S (1978) SOCIAL IDENTITY THEORY

Tajfel developed his Social Identity Theory in 1978 which recognised that **self-categorisation** forms part of our personal **identity** and is involved in forming our own social identity. Self-categorisation affects self-definition, interpersonal behaviour, self-perception and self-esteem.

**Social categorisation** produces prejudice and discrimination because of a cognitive bias in the processes of the mind to accentuate **similarity** within any category and **difference** from other categories.

To support SIT, Turner (1982) reports a simplifying cognitive tendency to **exaggerate differences** between groups and a tendency to **minimise group differences** within. In-group and out-group discrimination was directly created, observed and tested in a Bristol school in 1970 during Tajfel's minimal groups research.

## TAJFEL'S (1970) MINIMAL GROUPS RESEARCH: EXPERIMENTS IN INTERGROUP BEHAVIOUR

We are brought up to conform to group affiliations by social learning and we acquire a web of self-categorisations. There's a social identity of 'we' and 'us' that inevitably creates a 'you' and a 'them'. This social construct, known as our social identity, forms then becomes our social reality.

## Experiments in intergroup behaviour

**Aim:** The aim of Tajfel (1970) was to establish the minimal conditions for the creation of prejudice and discrimination in intergroup behaviour. Are there cognitive causes of prejudice rather than social and cultural determinants?

**Hypothesis:** Is there conformity to a norm of discrimination against the out-group and a preference for the in-group, even if the groupings are minimal, trivial, arbitrary and meaningless?

**Sample:** Sixty-four Bristol school-boys, aged 14–15 years old

## Method

The boys were told they were taking part in a study of visual discrimination and asked to make judgements about arrays of dots on a screen. They were asked to quickly judge how many dots were on the screen for a series of 18 dot pictures. They were then classed into two groups (unknown to them, randomly) as either 'underestimators' or 'overestimators'. This trivial visual discrimination task established the minimal groups.

The boys were then asked to individually fill in a survey of matrices where in-group choices and out-group choices could be made, along with intergroup choices about how much reward each group should get. In a private booth, each boy was asked to judge how much participants in the rest of the groups should be rewarded in 'pennies'. They were told they, personally, would not receive any reward.

A typical matrix in the survey would have two numbered participants, one from each group, and the boy filling the matrix in would have to discriminate how to treat the other boys. They had to decide how much reward to allocate to each participant.

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The interesting question was: which strategy would be used to reward the participants? Would the boys choose a strategy of complete fairness (F) or in-group favouritism (MIP: maximum in-group profit)? Would they choose to maximise overall reward (MJP: maximise joint profit) or to maximise out-group discrimination (MID: maximise in-group difference)?

#17 overestimator	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
#12 underestimator	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0

The strategy of fairness (F) is circled here, as the boy has chosen equal rewards for in-group and out-group.

#10 overestimator	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
#14 underestimator	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0

The strategy of maximum in-group difference (MID) is circled here, as the boy has chosen to reward his in-group member (#10 overestimator) and not the out-group member (#14 underestimator).

## Results

Fairness or groupness? Two strategies emerged as popular. When the participants in the matrix were from the same group, fairness (F) overall was the most common strategy for resource allocation. This suggests there is resistance to prejudice. However, when an in-group/out-group distinction could be made in the matrix, another popular strategy was to maximise group difference (MID). This is prejudice emerging just from minimal grouping.

Interestingly, in a ranking of more complex matrices, rarely was a strategy of maximising joint profit (MJP) chosen, and a strategy of maximum in-group profit (MIP) was unpopular.

## Conclusion

Tajfel (1970) concluded that individuals will choose a strategy of resource allocation that maximises the relative advantage of their own group rather than maximising resource allocation per se. In other words, sometimes group members will refuse resources, if they can maximise advantage to their own group. This is true for the Bristol schoolboys studied and for minimal groups.

## Evaluation

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
Follow-up studies give supporting results for Tajfel's minimal grouping theory.	This study was meant to be a baseline study to reveal individual and situational factors that increase or decrease prejudice, much like the Asch's (1951) lines study did for the topic of conformity. However, Tajfel's study did not reveal factors.
In a follow-up study, Tajfel surveyed three groups of 16 boys (a total of 48 participants) who were randomly allocated to each group and minimally categorised as either preferring a painting by Klee versus a group preferring a painting by Kandinsky.	Tajfel's research mostly showed the obvious; that we need <b>very little basis at all</b> to establish in-group favouritism and out-group discrimination.
Even on the basis of these minimal groupings, when it came to allocating rewards to participants, in-group prejudice occurred and out-group discrimination followed.	The intergroup experimental tasks lacked mundane realism as children rarely organise the payment of rewards using money.

## THINGS TO DO AND THINK ABOUT

Brown et al (1986) followed up the minimal groups study and found that, with just an openly declared coin toss and the creation of two groups called Group A and Group B, there was sufficient basis for competition and prejudice. Try these questions:

1. What is Tajfel's cognitive explanation of prejudice? (Hint: SIT) (2 marks)
2. Explain why **in-group favouritism** occurs, according to Social Identity Theory, even in minimal groups. (4 marks)
3. How does Tajfel's (1970) study of Bristol schoolboys support a cognitive theory of prejudice? (4 marks)



## DON'T FORGET

According to this cognitive theory, prejudice is NOT based on specific group characteristics or individual personality traits.

## VIDEO LINK

Watch Kevin Durrheim explain Social Identity Theory and Tajfel's minimal group studies in an accessible YouTube lecture at [www.brightredbooks.net](http://www.brightredbooks.net)

## ONLINE TEST

Head to [www.brightredbooks.net](http://www.brightredbooks.net) to test yourself on this topic.

## Which do you prefer?



In Engelshut, Paul Klee



Composition IX, Vasily Kandinsky



# PSYCHOLOGY

Alistair Barclay

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