Vacancies are available on the British Psychological Society’s (BPS) Occupational Testing Verifiers’ Group owing to the completion of the terms of office of a number of the existing verifiers.

The BPS standards in test use define and maintain standards of assessment use concerning ability/attainment, personality and related attributes. BPS Verifiers verify the assessment methods of assessors, ensuring that delegates on training courses meet the required test user competencies.

Applications are invited from Chartered Psychologists who are currently BPS Verified Assessors at the level of Test User: Ability and/or Personality.

**Commitment required:**
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- Attend Verifiers’ group meetings (4 meetings per annum).
- Maintain and develop knowledge relevant to the content and conduct of the BPS qualifications in psychological testing.
- Act as a representative of the BPS when undertaking verification and quality assurance duties.

**The appointee(s) will:**
- be involved in training and assessment in occupational test use;
- have a sound understanding of current issues in testing;
- have good interpersonal skills to facilitate positive and constructive relationships with colleagues, Assessors and test users;
- be willing to undertake professional development such as working towards Specialist in Test Use Verification.

Appointments are for one year initially. The full Verifier’s term being four years. Verifiers will be financially compensated at rates determined by the BPS (rates are available on request).

If you are interested in applying, please contact Mala Pancholi at the Psychological Testing Centre (PTC) at mala.pancholi@bps.org.uk for a Statement of Interest Form and Role Profile.
WELCOME to the Summer 2014 issue of Assessment & Development Matters (ADM). We have a range of thought provoking occupational and educational articles for your attention. First up, we are delighted to introduce a new series of commissioned articles by Hugh McCredie to commemorate the centenary of the First World War, which will span the ages of the testing milestones of the last 100 years. We also have the first of an occasional ‘paper in depth’ series. This first article is written by our ADM educational editor Jo Horne and reviews a paper by Souchal and colleagues (2014) that debates whether gender equality is attainable in scientific classes.

Elsewhere, Julie Betenson presents case study research with 4–6 year old children and investigates the factors contributing to weak maths development, and Carmel Capewell considers language and reading skills development issues in children with ongoing glue ear. Nancy Doyle and David McLoughlin, meanwhile, provide information on the development and work of the British Psychological Society’s Enabling Individuals Who Have Specific Difficulties in the Workplace Working Group, while Sanne Dijkema and Jess Pryce-Jones review behaviour analysis, discussing what it is and its potential use when working with senior or executive teams. Finally, Dan Hughes discusses the different methodologies for scoring situational judgement tests and, with average life expectancy increasing, Tatiana Gulko evaluates the impact of age on what we need from work.

Jan Bogg  
Senior Editor, on behalf of the Editorial Team

Assessment & Development Matters (ADM) features a wide range of articles on occupational and educational testing and brings practitioners the latest news and perspectives on assessment and development. If you would like to submit an article, please refer to the Submission Guidelines towards the back of the issue and available online at:  
www.psychtesting.org.uk

The views expressed in the following articles are those of the individual contributors and do not represent the views of the British Psychological Society (BPS) or the editors.
Scoring situational judgement tests: Evaluating different methodologies

Dan Hughes

Meta-analyses have shown that situational judgement tests (SJT) can be good predictors of performance (McDaniel et al., 2007) and also tend to have smaller ethnic group differences than cognitive ability tests (Whetzel & McDaniel, 2008). However, there are still significant gaps in our knowledge about design features, such as how best to score an SJT. This article evaluates a number of different methodologies for scoring SJTs.

The scoring for an SJT is typically defined by job experts, empirical data or theory. Depending on response format used (i.e. forced choice or Likert-type rating scale), a range of alternative scoring approaches can be used. However, only a few studies so far have evaluated different SJT scoring methodologies in a systematic manner.

Bergman et al. (2006) tested the effectiveness of 11 different scoring keys for an SJT measuring leadership skills. This included keys based on empirical data, leadership theory and job experts. In another study by McDaniel et al. (2011), three different expert scoring methods were compared for an SJT that used a Likert-type response scale. Both studies found variations in the effectiveness of different scoring keys in terms of validity and subgroup differences. In particular, McDaniel et al. (2011) found certain scoring methods substantially improved criterion-related validity while simultaneously reducing the size of black-white ethnic group differences.

These studies suggest that, holding SJT content constant, there is variability in how effective different scoring methodologies are. This study explored this further by evaluating four common methodologies for scoring SJTs which use a Likert-type response scale.

Method

Sample

- 9989 graduate applicants to a public sector organisation. Applicants completed the SJT as part of an initial online sifting stage within the selection process.
- 65 per cent were male; 35 per cent female.
- 35 per cent of applicants stated they were from an ethnic minority group, compared to 64 per cent of applicants who indicated they were white. Asian applicants were particularly well represented (17 per cent of the total sample).

Measures

The SJT used in the selection process was a generic test designed for entry-level graduates. The SJT consists of 20 scenarios relating to five competencies: Analytical Thinking, Planning & Organising, Communicating & Influencing, Relationship Building, and Achieving Results. Each scenario presents four potential responses. Candidates must rate the effectiveness of each response on a five-point Likert-type scale, ranging from ‘Counterproductive’ to ‘Very effective’.

To customise the scoring to the culture of the organisation, a sample of 24 job experts within the organisation (line managers of graduates) completed the SJT indicating how a
new graduate in their organisation should respond. Four alternative scoring keys were generated using these expert responses:

1. **Raw Mean scoring:** Considered to be the most common method of scoring SJTs which use a Likert-type scale (McDaniel et al., 2011). A candidate’s score on an item is calculated based on the distance between their rating of the response and the mean expert rating.

2. **Modal scoring:** Similar to the raw mean scoring method, but scores are calculated according to the distance between the candidate’s rating and the modal expert rating instead (Howard & Choi, 2004).

3. **Consensus Weighting:** For this method, a score is assigned to a candidate’s rating based on the proportion of experts who also endorsed the same rating point (Chan & Schmitt, 1997). A score of 2 is given if 50 per cent or more of the experts endorsed the same rating. A score of 1 is given if 25–49 per cent of experts endorsed the rating, and a score of 0 is given if less than 25 per cent of experts endorsed the rating.

4. **Standardised Mean scoring:** This approach was employed by McDaniel et al. (2011) to control for the impact of individual response tendencies (elevation and scatter) when using a mean scoring approach. A candidate’s responses are standardised using a within-person z-transformation so that they have a mean of zero and standard deviation of one across items. These responses are then compared to the mean of the standardised ratings of individual experts.

Performance on a final stage assessment event, which incorporated an interview and a presentation exercise, was used as a criterion measure. Ideally, we would have used job performance data, but it was not available for this sample. Data on the final stage assessment was available for 164 applicants.

**Evaluation criteria**

To evaluate the scoring methodologies, we used four criteria:

1. **Reliability:** Cronbach’s alpha was used to measure internal consistency reliability. While alpha is not the best method to assess SJT reliability because SJTs tend to be multidimensional, it is often the only measure of reliability available. We used alpha in this study because there was no test-retest reliability data for the sample.

2. **Validity:** The criterion-related validity of each scoring method was assessed using the overall score at the final stage assessment event.

3. **Fairness:** We evaluated the following subgroup differences for each scoring method: Male/Female, White/Asian and White/All Minority Ethnic (AME). The Asian group was included specifically because it was the only ethnic group with a sample size greater than 100. Group differences were quantified using Cohen’s d statistic, which indicates the practical size of the difference in standard deviation terms.

4. **Coachability:** Cullen, Sackett and Lievens (2006) identified a coaching strategy for SJTs using a Likert-type scale, where respondents are coached to avoid the extreme points at either end of the rating scale. This strategy could be particularly effective for SJTs using the raw mean scoring method, because the process of averaging across experts is unlikely to produce extreme scores for the scoring key. We simulated this by recoding any extreme responses on the five-point scale (1s and 5s) to 2s and 4s respectively, and then rescored each candidate’s SJT responses. We then examined whether there was an increase in the overall score for each scoring method compared to normal responding. This difference was also measured using Cohen’s d.
Results
The results are shown in Table 1. The best performing scoring method for each evaluation criterion is highlighted in bold.

The raw mean scoring method had the highest internal consistency reliability in this sample, while the Consensus Weighting method demonstrated the strongest criterion validity correlation. The Standardised Mean scoring method showed the smallest group differences and was the only method that was completely resistant to the simulated coaching condition.

Key findings
This study builds on previous research by showing that the choice of scoring method affects how an SJT performs in practice. The following key findings were observed:

- There was some variation in internal consistency between scoring methods.
- The standardised mean scoring method did not improve criterion-related validity, in contrast to the findings of McDaniel et al. (2011).
- There was no notable variation in gender differences.
- The standardised mean scoring method showed some reduction in ethnic group differences, which is positive from a fairness perspective. However, this reduction was modest compared to the results from McDaniel et al. (2011).
- The standardised mean scoring method was substantially better than all other scoring methods in terms of resistance to the coaching strategy.

These findings highlight the need for more research into scoring methods, with other samples and other SJTs, to identify any consistent trends. It would also be helpful to explore variations of the evaluation criteria used here, for example evaluating test-retest reliability, using actual job performance data and analysing performance of other specific ethnic minority groups. If common trends do emerge from further research, this would provide very valuable information to help guide practitioners when they are deciding how to score their SJTs.

Table 1: Comparison of situational judgement test scoring methods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scoring method</th>
<th>Reliability (α)</th>
<th>Criterion validity (r)</th>
<th>Male/Female (d)</th>
<th>White/Asian (d)</th>
<th>White/AME (d)</th>
<th>Coaching change (d)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>989</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>631/34</td>
<td>617/164</td>
<td>617/356</td>
<td>989</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raw mean</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.23** (0.32)</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modal</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>0.21** (0.31)</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consensus weighting</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.26** (0.34)</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standardised mean</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>0.21** (0.27)</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>-0.18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlations significant at p < 0.01. Correlations corrected for range restriction are shown in brackets.
The author
Dan Hughes, Chartered Psychologist; Director of Product Development, a&dc.

References


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ALTHOUGH over the past twenty years there has been an increased recognition that conditions such as dyslexia, dyspraxia, dyscalculia, attention deficit disorder (ADD)/attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) and Asperger’s syndrome persist across the lifespan, this has not necessarily been reflected through changes in definition, theory and practice. Most of the aforementioned are still understood as childhood disorders and considered within the context of education. Adulthood is the longest stage of human development and the greater proportion of people are adults. The majority of those who have specific difficulties will, therefore, need to function outside formal education, mostly in the workplace. Enablement comes from understanding others and self-understanding. These have been shown to be essential to success, and occupational psychologists are in a position to influence both; the latter through individual assessment and the former through staff awareness training and mediation.

It was interest in the reporting of assessment findings that motivated the founding members of the working group, who are members of the Society’s Division of Occupational Psychology (DOP). Diagnostic assessment in the field has largely been the preserve of educational psychologists. Inevitably, the emphasis has been on the educational needs of individuals and the adjustments that might be made in university and college environments. The recommendations made in reports produced are often, therefore, irrelevant to the workplace. Further, the language used in reports incorrectly assumes they will be understood by employers. Our first task has therefore been to produce a guidance document The Psychological Assessment of Adults with Specific Performance Difficulties at Work. This was prepared by members of the group, but has been reviewed by interested groups.

What’s in a name?
The working group now has its third official title. As there is increasing pressure from advocacy organisations and some professionals to adopt a social rather than a deficit–based medical model, ‘neurodiversity’ was discussed. However, many individuals experience their conditions as a disability, and it would be easy to gloss over the difficulties and discrimination they face. An alternative to ‘specific learning difficulties’ (SpLD) was also considered, as it is time to redefine the concepts for those people who continue to have difficulties after leaving education, including with work performance and daily life; thus ‘specific performance difficulties’. The emphasis on learning does not convey the lifelong effects, and many have learned very well, if differently. Using the names of the conditions we were looking at (dyslexia, dyspraxia, dyscalculia, ADHD and autism spectrum disorder) was also considered, but this would not make for an easy acronym. It was recommended that our name should reflect the end goal, hence our name is ‘Enabling in the Workplace’.
Enabling in the Workplace group’s current activities:

- Contributing to cross-disciplinary working parties on the assessment of ADHD.
- The guidance document, *The Psychological Assessment of Adults with Specific Performance Difficulties at Work*, is complete and can be accessed by joining our LinkedIn group: ‘DOP Enabling in the Workplace’.
- Promoting the guidance document to commissioners and end users of diagnostic services in the workplace to create a wider understanding of the service they can expect from an occupational psychologist.
- Supporting the Cognition and Brain Unit at Cambridge University to make an adult appropriate version of the Working Memory Rating Scale (Pearson, 2008), so as to help improve public understanding of Working Memory deficits as an issue that might be covered by Equality Act 2010.
- Conducting some initial surveys into the link between specific syndromes and stress in the workplace, to improve occupational health understanding of the wider impact.
- Scoping out need and liaising with other Society groups to provide consultation on a more pan-disability basis. For example, providing feedback to the Department for Work and Pensions about the role of occupational psychology in providing assessments and their plans for a health and work service.

Contacting the working group
There is a LinkedIn group, used to access the guidance document and engage in any discussions about the wider implications of the recommendations. A LinkedIn search for ‘DOP Enabling in the Workplace’ will lead to it. You are warmly invited to read the guidance and contribute to discussions.

Training
Members of the group will be delivering a CPD workshop on the 16 June through the Society’s Learning Centre. It will focus on best practice of working with specific difficulties in the workplace and is aimed primarily at occupational psychologists, as well as other British Psychological Society members who work, or would like to work, in this field.

The authors
Nancy Doyle, Genius Within & David McLoughlin, Independent Dyslexia Consultants
Research shows that senior leadership teams find it hard to perform as a team (Hackman, 1990). Feedback is seldom offered at senior level (Kaplan, 2011) but receiving it can really enhance performance (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996), particularly when it is specific and objective (Edmunds et al., 2010).

What is behaviour analysis?
Behaviour analysis is a form of interaction analysis used to observe behaviours (referred to as ‘utterances’) of individuals in a group and the overall behaviour of the group itself. It helps to identify behaviour patterns and is one of the most objective methods of observation analysis (Rae, 2002).

McCredie (1991) described a selection of behaviours determining discrete observation categories. The categories used include proposing, building, supporting, testing understanding, summing, seeking information, giving information, bringing in, shutting out and disagreeing, and defending/attacking.

Following practitioner and team feedback, six additional categories have been added:
1. Signposting offers structure to information given.
2. Requesting action and confirming request gives insight into relationships and interdependencies within the team.
3. Seeking opinions, seeking feelings, giving opinions and giving feelings offer granularity about the specific type of information given.
4. Social interaction indicates relationship beyond transactional processes.
5. Noise influences the efficiency of the meeting.
6. Positive fillers reveal mutual involvement and encouragement.

How it is implemented: Methodology
In order to reliably categorise behaviours, each meeting is observed, recorded and scripted. Once scripted, all verbal utterances made by the attendees are categorised and timed to quantify types of behaviours and timings by individual and group. After the meeting, attendees fill out a ‘perceived meeting effectiveness’ questionnaire. This questionnaire is based on items described by Jung & Sosik (2002). Perceived meeting effectiveness is then compared to behaviours and timings.

What reflections have emerged? Pros and cons
This tool has been used to observe five senior teams in three organisations. On the plus side, at individual and group level, the approach:
is objective and factual;
- offers detailed insight;
- allows comparison of multiple meetings;
- assesses perceived meeting effectiveness; and
- shows how different meeting roles involve different behaviours.

On the minus side, the approach:
- is time consuming;
- is potentially subject to interpretation;
- may be subject to observer effect; and
- offers nothing for assessing group dynamics or non-verbal behaviours.

Until now, little published research has been done on using behaviour analysis at senior level. Other practitioners who are interested in or currently deploying it, are warmly invited to get in touch.

The authors
Jess Pryce-Jones, Founding Director, iOpener Institute for People and Performance;
Sanne Dijkema, Intern with iOpener

Declaration of interests
The behaviour analysis tool used in this research paper was developed by the iOpener Institute for People and Performance.

References
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Mind the generation gap: How age affects what we need from work
Tatiana Gulko

Given our expanding life expectancy and the recent increase in retirement age, it is more important than ever to evaluate the impact of age on what we need from work. This study has found that age is an important factor in how comfortable people are with certain elements of their work. Implications, theories and research developments are discussed.

Average life expectancy is increasing. It has been estimated that the percentage of individuals over the age of 50 (in Europe and Central Asia) will rise from 28 per cent to 40 per cent in 2050 (World Bank, 2011, cited in Lieberman, Wegge & Muller, 2013). The recent elevation of the mandatory retirement age will create a more age-diverse workforce. It is more important than ever to evaluate the way in which age influences employees’ work perceptions.

Personality is an important variable that influences perceptions of our workplace. How does personality change over one’s lifetime? How does getting older influence both personality and work preferences? Are differences in work preferences in different age groups partly due to changes in personality? Answers to these, and other related questions, may lead to shifts in how we design the workplace, leading to improvements for the individual.

Research suggests that conscientiousness and agreeableness increase with age, while neuroticism decreases (Soto et al., 2011). Such findings provide an informative account of how age plays a role in personality. Further analysis is needed, however, using a larger set of traits, to fully understand what the age-personality link means for organisational psychology.

According to lifespan aging theories (e.g. Baltes & Baltes, 1990) characteristics of the workplace can influence individuals of varying ages differently. Therefore, we hypothesised that age will influence how comfortable people are with different job characteristics.

Method
Participants
A nationally representative sample of working age adults with an equal gender split (n = 1212) was used. Data was collected via an online data collection platform. Age ranged from 16 to 65 (mean age = 39.08).

Measures
Personality was measured using the 16PF 5th Edition Questionnaire (Cattell & Cattell, 1995). The 16PF measures 16 personality traits and provides a more fine-grained analysis of personality than the five-factor model alone.

Participants were asked questions about their work preferences (e.g. how comfortable someone would be working in a particular environment, such as a workplace with role clarity). Age was measured as a continuous variable.
**Results**

Linear regression was used to explore the relationship between age, personality and job characteristics, and to identify mediation effects. Significant results are presented below (Figures 1 and 2).

Regression analyses following the Baron and Kenny (1986) approach to mediation and Sobel tests showed the following mediation effects:

- Increased age leads to more comfort in an organisation where employees have responsibility for many areas: this relationship is partially mediated by higher emotional stability.
- Increased age leads to less comfort in an organisation where jobs are insecure, but there are opportunities for high pay. This relationship is partially mediated by lower liveliness.
- Increased age leads to more comfort in an organisation where employees have role clarity. This relationship is partially mediated by higher rule consciousness, higher self-reliance and lower abstractedness.
- Increased age leads to more comfort in an organisation with emphasis on employee loyalty. This relationship is partially mediated by lower abstractedness.

**Discussion**

These findings suggest that older people are more comfortable in jobs with characteristics such as greater role clarity and an emphasis on unique skills. Older workers are less comfortable in insecure jobs, despite the opportunity for higher pay. Age is associated with some personality traits, and personality traits themselves may also explain some of the age-work characteristic associations.

Emotional stability, apprehension and tension are all facets of the global Anxiety factor of the 16PF. The finding that emotional stability increases, while apprehension and tension decrease with age, are all consistent with trends that anxiety shows a decline as people mature (Soto et al., 2011). This is not surprising given that as individuals get older they become more efficient in emotion-regulation strategies (Helson & Soto, 2005). Our findings are also consistent with longitudinal data (Roberts et al., 2006).

![Figure 1: Age and personality traits](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personality trait</th>
<th>Relationship with age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotional stability</td>
<td>0.13*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liveliness</td>
<td>-0.17*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rule consciousness</td>
<td>0.11*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstractedness</td>
<td>-0.11*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apprehension</td>
<td>-0.12*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-reliance</td>
<td>0.19*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tension</td>
<td>-0.10*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p = 0.01
The finding that older workers are more comfortable in an organisation, with employees being responsible for many different areas, is consistent with work of Zaniboni et al. (2013), which found that older workers were less likely to have turnover intentions if they had increased skill variety. Zaniboni et al. (2013) propose that a theory called socioemotional selectivity theory (SST; Carstensen, 1991, cited in Zaniboni et al., 2013) accounts for such a finding. This theory proposes that younger adults focus more on pursuit of future-oriented activities, whereas older adults are less concerned with career development, and enjoy a job that allows them to use their wide-ranging skills and get more fulfilment.

SST can also explain our findings that younger workers are more comfortable working in jobs that are less secure but with higher pay. A job with higher pay may appeal to their future-oriented goals, which may involve financial investments. This study not only supports this theory, but can add more dimension to it, by adding personality as a factor.

This is a cross-sectional sample and causation cannot be implied. Furthermore, cohort effects may play a role, such that individuals born in a particular generation may have been growing up in a different environment, which may favour certain traits over others, and the effect, therefore, is unique to that generation (Soto et al., 2011). Nonetheless, the findings of this study are in line with findings observed by longitudinal studies (e.g. Roberts et al., 2006).

**Conclusion**

Given the imminent age diversification of our workforce, knowledge of the way in which age and personality influence perceptions of job characteristics can help employers with attraction, selection and retention of employees, as well as addressing the challenge of motivating employees of diverse age groups, perhaps with help of appropriate job redesign or employee assistance programmes. Such knowledge can also help individual employees to ensure that they craft a workplace in which they feel comfortable and fulfilled. After all, according to the Job Characteristics Model (Hackman & Oldham, 1976), job characteristics exert powerful influences on motivation and satisfaction.

This work was presented at the British Psychological Society’s Division of Occupational Conference 2014: ‘Age and Work Characteristics: The Role of Personality’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job characteristic (How comfortable would you be working in an organisation with the following...?)</th>
<th>Relationship with age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Role clarity</td>
<td>0.11*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphasis on employee independence</td>
<td>0.13*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphasis on employee loyalty</td>
<td>0.11*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People from many different backgrounds</td>
<td>0.09*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees with responsibility for many different areas</td>
<td>0.11*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insecure job, but with opportunity for high pay</td>
<td>-0.14*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small organisation where everyone knows each other</td>
<td>0.13*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees viewed as individuals, with unique skills</td>
<td>0.13*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p = 0.01
The author
Tatiana Gulko, Support Research & Development Consultant, OPP Ltd

Declaration of interest
The 16PF is published by IPAT, a subsidiary company of OPP Ltd.

References


Destructive leadership in Iran
Shaw and Erikson (2014) examined destructive leader behaviour in Iran. The measure used was the Destructive Leadership Questionnaire (DLQ) with 700 participants. The DLQ was developed by Shaw and colleagues (2011). A typology of destructive leader behaviour for Iran has been identified using factor analysis.

References

Machiavellianism and job performance
Zagenczyk et al. investigated machiavellianism and workplace performance. The researchers undertook four cross-sectional studies, with a total of more than 1000 employees, using the Machiavellianism scale developed by Dahling et al. (2009). It was found that Machiavellianism influences performance, as the employee construes the employment relationship differently. Participants scoring high for Machiavellianism were found to have reduced citizenship behaviour and increased organisational deviance. The authors suggest that future research should incorporate more personality measures, different performance measures and a longitudinal research design to help clarify the impact of personality and psychological contract.

References

Watch and learn – Power posing, or fake it till you make it!
Professor Amy Cuddy of Harvard Business School discusses how power posing (i.e. looking confident) is thought to influence what we and others think about us and can even influence testosterone and cortisol levels in the brain. Some of the points raised, or the link to the video, may be of use with your clients or students when discussing team-working, leadership, meeting or interview skills.

Reference
An introduction to a new series of articles

Heroes, landmarks and blind alleys in personality assessment

Hugh McCredie

This is a new series of four articles we have asked Hugh McCredie, a regular contributor to ADM and Vice-Chair of The Psychometrics Forum, to write to mark the centenary of the First World War. The articles will span the ages of psychological testing, and we hope you will enjoy reading about the testing milestones of the last 100 years.

It was coincidental, but quite apposite, that this series of articles on the history of personality measurement began to take shape at a time when the British Psychological Society and ADM decided to feature milestones in the development of psychological practice in the centenary following the start of World War I. It was apposite because the first known published measure of personality in the English-speaking world was Woodworth’s Personal Data Sheet (Woodworth, 1919) a ‘narrowband’ instrument published in 1919 to measure susceptibility to shellshock. This instrument is no longer generally available but Encyclopaedia Britannica’s online trail describes it as:

‘A widely used early self-report inventory… developed during World War I to detect soldiers who were emotionally unfit for combat. Among its ostensibly face-valid items were these: Does the sight of blood make you sick or dizzy? Are you happy most of the time? Do you sometimes wish you had never been born?’

However, the series reaches even further back in history to the personality models of Empedocles (circa 450 BC), Hippocrates (460–370 BC), and most importantly, the four temperaments of Galen (AD 131–200) which continue to receive empirical support in the 21st century.

Wherever possible, the series will draw on original sources and will include the actual words of those who first postulated the models and measures and described the research on which they were based.

The series will be published in successive editions of ADM and be featured on the Psychological Testing Centre website.

Series overview

Article 1 focuses on early type theories. In fact, Galen is the super-hero of the series and features in this article on early type theories, alongside the model of Carl Gustav Jung (1875–1961) and ‘Phrenology’. The latter, an early blind alley, was developed by Franz Joseph Gall (1758–1828) and supposed mental faculties located in specific areas of the brain detectable through bumps on the skull.

Article 2 reviews the early implicit measures of personality and the first psycho-lexical trait studies. The former included the Rorschach inkblot test and Murray’s Thematic
Apperception Test (TAT). The idea that personality constructs can be best revealed from
the study of everyday language goes back as far as Francis Galton (1822–1911) and Louis
Leon Thurstone (1887–1955). However, the heroes of this article are Gordon W. Allport
(1897–1967) and Raymond B. Cattell (1905–1998). The first categorised thousands of
personality descriptors and the second searched for their underlying factors without the
aid of a digital computer. In fact, Cattell spread out his initial correlations on the surface
of a vast table-top and tried to identify higher level factors visually.

Article 3 turns from lexical studies to measures originating in clinical data. The
Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (1939) receives a brief mention because of
its landmark status as a multivariate measure but it is not explored further because it
remained as a clinical instrument. The article chooses to feature Hans Jurgen Eysenck
(1916–1997) because his robust three factor Psychoticism-Extraversion-Neuroticism (P-
E-N) model, although originating in World War II clinical data, was developed for use in
a much wider constituency.

Article 4 returns to the lexical domain to track the emergence of the five factor model
of personality. After looking briefly at how Fiske’s (1949) identification of five major
factors was generally ignored, we shall explore how Tupes & Christal (1961) and Norman
(1963) re-analysed Cattell’s data and his scales, respectively. We shall be featuring the
heroic contribution of Lewis Goldberg in establishing and freely publishing Big Five
markers’ and Costa and McCrae’s development of NEO and NEO PI-R normed
commercial measures.

Article 5 features the work of Jeffrey Gray (1934–2004). Just as Cattell’s work was the
springboard for developments in the lexical tradition, so Eysenck’s work was the starting
point for the contribution of Jeffrey Gray. Gray’s challenge to Eysenck’s positioning of
neuroticism and extraversion in factor space proved something of a blind alley, but his
more detailed explication of the biological underpinning of these factors redeems him as
a hero.

Article 6 will explore the alternative ‘circumplex’ models of personality, and feature
the pivotal contribution of Jerry Wiggins (1931–2006). Such models examine the
positioning of narrowband traits falling between the tight Big Five clusters in a series of
pairings. They are called circumplex models of personality because the two bipolar axes
each pairing are displayed at right angles to each other, reflecting the quadrants of
a circle.

The series is a work-in-progress, but it is likely that later articles will include the work
of David Watson and associates on positive affect (PA) and negative affect (NA). As a Big
Five enthusiast, I was tacitly aware that these constructs had some association with
extraversion and neuroticism, respectively. I was, however, quite surprised when a recent
BBC2 Horizon programme titled ‘The truth about personality’ centred almost exclusively
on PA and NA, and suggested that the former could be raised and the latter lowered by a
method known as Cognitive Bias Modification. A further possible article may look at
personality profiles which can contribute to dysfunctional behaviour in the workplace and
elsewhere. Such an article would undoubtedly include Robert Hogan’s work on the ‘Dark
Side’ of personality.

The plan will be to draw the main threads of the series together in a closing article
featuring a circumplex model linking the Big Five factors back to Galen’s four temperaments.

The author
Dr Hugh McCredie, Chartered Psychologist; Vice-Chair, The Psychometrics Forum.
References

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**News from the Psychological Testing Centre**

**Recruitment of a Consultant Forensic Editor for ADM**

AS OUTLINED in the Spring 2014 issue of ADM, a British Psychological Society working group is currently developing standards for qualifications relating to testing in forensic contexts. The forensic qualifications in test use will be available in 2015. To help facilitate this, we will be recruiting a Consultant Forensic Editor for ADM. We are seeking applications from chartered psychologists with a Statement or Certificate of Competence in Forensic Testing, who have editorial experience and an interest in psychological testing. If you are interested in applying, please contact enquiry@psychtesting.org.uk for further details.

**Thanks from the PTC**

The Psychological Testing Centre Team would like to say a big ‘thank you’ to everyone who has completed the questionnaire giving their views on ADM and how it can be improved. Your feedback is very much appreciated and we will try to use your comments to improve future issues.

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**www.psychtesting.org.uk**
It has been suggested that failure to master basic mathematical skills in the early years of education can have a devastating effect on understanding of mathematics throughout school and adulthood (Parsons & Byner, 2006). Wilson and Dehaene (2007) suggest that poor verbal symbolic representations or deficient executive functions hindering fact retrieval add to arithmetic difficulties. Gathercole, Alloway, Willis & Adams (2006) agree that children with poor working memory have difficulty meeting the demands of the classroom, make frequent errors, and thereby make less progress. Mundy and Gilmore (2008) maintain that learning to count using a symbolic representation for a particular number necessitates connection to an existing non-symbolic understanding of that number and may be problematic. Levine et al. (2010) purport the benefit of exposure to number language at pre-school level, suggesting that links between the verbal and non-verbal representations need to be built up before meaningful manipulations can take place in the form of calculations, whereas Davis and Carr (2001), suggest that maths anxiety is a contributory factor.

Methodology
To investigate the contributory factors of weak maths development, case studies of four six-year-olds who had achieved one National Curriculum level lower than their peers were conducted. One-minute tests of basic number facts were given to ascertain competence in addition and subtraction when presented as symbolic number calculations (Westwood, 2000). An assessment tool was used to establish whether pupils had pre-requisite mathematical skills and semi-structured interviews were scrutinised using thematic analysis. The students received two half hour intervention sessions per week, for five weeks, which were adaptive to their individual needs. Each lesson contained finger training, based on the work of Gracia-Bafalluy and Noel (2007), designed to improve connections between verbal symbolic number and non-symbolic representation. Activities and games to improve subtilising and estimating skills included the use of non-symbolic representations of number such as dots on dice and dominoes.

Results and discussion
Pupil A’s responses were very impulsive and contained many mistakes. Confidence in maths ability was poor and distractibility high, demonstrating possible difficulties with short-term memory and executive function. The main additional focus of intervention was to reduce impulsivity. After intervention, correct responses had increased from 39 per cent to 72 per cent, with lack of understanding decreasing from 21 observations to 11. Distraction and refusal tactics reduced from 7 and 6 observations to 2 for each category. Memory difficulties remained constant, indicating one-to-one support had effected some positive changes in attitude and ability.
Pupil B was one of the youngest in the class and the maternal interview indicated that slower progress was due to this. The initial script demonstrated a reliance on memory to complete mathematical tasks and a weakness in connecting non-symbolic representations with rote learned memories for that number. The intervention placed a greater emphasis on demonstrating numbers with fingers in order to strengthen these connections. After intervention, memory and understanding difficulties decreased from 13 incidences to 8, and from 19 to 13 respectively. Distraction and refusals disappeared, leading to an increase from 53 per cent to 88 per cent correct answers. Addition and subtraction scores increased and informal maths assessment scores showed gains in basic skills, enabling completion of nearly all tasks.

Pupil C demonstrated a high level of difficulty in understanding and hesitated on 31 occasions, suggesting anxiety was a particular difficulty. It is unclear whether a lack of understanding lead to greater anxiety or vice versa. Further practice on count sequences, with the use of fingers to reinforce the link between the visual and verbal aspects of number, led to substantial gains in correct answers from 47 per cent to 76 per cent, and difficulty in understanding decreased to zero. Test scores increased substantially from critically low in addition and subtraction, to average for age and ability. This improvement was confirmed by both teacher and mother, who felt confidence had grown significantly and change in ability was evident.

Pupil D found it very difficult to settle during the first year in education and often displayed anger. The profile demonstrated problems with understanding (14 incidents) and memory (13 incidents), which resulted in needing more time to answer questions. However, the majority of responses fell into behaviour themes of distractions and refusals, noted on 17 occasions each. Additional practice with the pronunciation of numbers was given, to reinforce the correct sound with the correct symbolic and non-symbolic representation in order to help understanding of the value of number. Pupil D showed the lowest level of change after intervention, with correct answers increasing from 39 per cent to 61 per cent. The overall behaviour themes remained very high, but it was encouraging to see refusals being replaced by distractions, a less aggressive response.

Summary
Many factors may influence children’s early mathematical learning, including relative age in the peer group, language ability, level of support at home and impulsivity. This study has suggested that pupils’ ability to make initial progress in mathematics may be determined pre-school. The apparent progress of the pupils indicates that targeted intervention, concentrating on reinforcing connections between finger gnosis, numerosity and symbolic number patterns, appear to have positive effects on learning. Therefore, the use of this programme to ameliorate for pre-school differences in young children may be worthy of further investigation.

The author
Julie Betenson, PhD student, University of Bristol. Julie has many years experience in teaching, including working as a Principal of a school for students with dyslexia and other special educational needs.
References
This paper in depth
Assessing does not mean threatening: The purpose of assessment as a key determinant of girls' and boys' performance in a science class (Souchal et al., 2014)

Reviewer: Jo Horne

This is the first in an occasional ‘paper in depth’ series. If you have ideas for a paper to review that our readers would be interested in, or would like to provide a review, please get in touch.

THIS PAPER is from the British Journal of Educational Psychology and looks at assessment in science classes.

Souchal et al. (2014) question whether gender equality is attainable in scientific classes. They comment that, although the gender gap in mathematics has reduced, girls still underperform in maths and science compared to boys. Research has shown that boys perform better on diagnostic tests than on non-diagnostic ones, whereas girls perform better on tests that are not diagnostic of ability. Souchal et al. argue that it is possible to use assessment in school without harming either gender group. They suggest that the threatening aspect of assessment for girls is the emphasis on performance goals (desire to outperform others) and that, if assessment focuses on mastery/learning-oriented goals, the gender gap in science would be diminished.

There is a well-documented stereotype of girls being poor at science, and research suggests that when female students are in a situation that may confirm this negative gender stereotype they may experience psychological discomfort, resulting in a performance decrement. Stereotype threat can occur by merely presenting a test as being diagnostic of science abilities, even without any stereotype-activating cues. Souchal et al. state that this is clearly problematic as assessment is used in schools precisely because it is diagnostic of students’ abilities. However, assessment also supports the learning process. Furthermore, boys benefit from a stereotype lift experienced when a test is presented as diagnostic of their ability in situations where they have positive stereotypic expectations compared to girls. Therefore, Souchal et al. argue that removing the diagnostic presentation of a test may benefit girls but be detrimental to boys and that reframing the purpose of assessment could solve this dilemma.

According to Souchal et al., the two main functions of educational systems are to educate students and to select individuals (to assign grades/degrees and orient people to positions in society). They suggest that assessment can serve both an educational (provision of formative/corrective feedback) and a selection (summative qualifications) function, and that these functions echo the distinction between mastery/learning goals and performance goals. Research has shown that assessment focusing on normative standards enhances performance goals, whilst assessment focusing on the importance of progress augments mastery goals.

Research suggests that social comparison threatens self-competence in performance goal situations, but is less of a problem in mastery goal situations where others are not viewed as threats. There is evidence that females suffer from the negative effects of
performance goals, whilst for boys performance goals can have a positive effect. Souchal et al.’s study compared a performance-oriented and a mastery-oriented assessment of a science class with a no assessment condition, with 192 students (120 boys and 72 girls; mean age 15.6) randomly assigned to the three conditions. Students in the performance-oriented condition were informed that at the end of the lesson they would take a test that they would be graded on to compare their abilities with other students, and that the grade would count towards their final semester grade. Students in the mastery-oriented condition were informed that at the end of the lesson they would take a test that they would be graded on to help them memorise and understand the lesson, and that the grade would count towards their final semester grade. Finally, in the no-assessment condition students were informed that at the end of the lesson they would answer some questions but they would not take any test on the lesson. After a 30 minute lesson on aspirin, the instructions were repeated, then students took the test and answered some manipulation check measures (whether they thought they were being evaluated, the extent to which the test was designed to help in the learning process and the extent to which the test was designed to compare the abilities of pupils).

The manipulation checks confirmed that the students perceived the assessments in the way that the researchers had intended. The results showed that there was a significant interaction between condition and sex. Girls’ performance suffered in the performance-oriented condition, whereas boys’ performance suffered in the no-assessment condition. However, in the mastery-oriented condition, both boys and girls performed at their optimal level.

Souchal et al. suggest that this provides evidence that assessment in science is threatening for girls, not because it is diagnostic of abilities but because diagnosticity may be used to compare abilities and select students, which is detrimental to negatively stereotyped group members. It also demonstrates that there is no need to eliminate assessment altogether, which would be detrimental to boys’ performance.

The authors note some limitations to their study: (i) although stereotype effects were used to explain the results, there is no direct evidence that stereotypes were involved; (ii) students received goal manipulations before the learning phase, making it difficult to know whether the threat occurred during learning, testing or both; and (iii) the study focused on approach forms of mastery and performance goals and did not consider the effects of performance-avoidance-oriented assessment. Nevertheless, Souchal et al. argue that the results have important practical implications. Previous research has proposed interventions for reducing the gender gap in science that focus on helping students cope with the stereotype threat rather than questioning classroom practices that generate the threat. Souchal et al. conclude that the education system should change the meaning and purpose attributed to assessment so as not to threaten students, by making it clear that their role is to educate students and design and use assessments accordingly.

**The author**

**Jo Horne**, Lecturer, University of Hull; ADM Educational Editor

**Reference**

Temporary but not trivial: Language and reading skills in children with ongoing glue ear

Carmel Capewell

‘Most of the time, I’m like, to the teacher like, “Could you repeat that, I didn’t hear you.”’
(Daisy, 14 years)
‘There are things I get stressed about, like annoyed about; stressed about like when I can’t hear all of the time I have to get things repeated.’
(Stewie, 10 years)
‘They’ve moved me so that I have my good ear facing the teacher… so in the input I can actually hear.’
(Russell 9 years)

DAISY, STEWIE AND RUSSELL (pseudonyms) have ongoing glue ear. Their comments highlight the emotional as well as academic implications of the condition. Listening in noisy classroom environments is difficult (Borges et al., 2013) as they struggle to understand their teacher. This can lead to fatigue and behavioural problems as they have to work hard to interpret what is said. In some cases it can lead to social withdrawal (Pakulski & Kaderavek, 2002). The intermittent nature of glue ear means it’s characterised as ‘temporary’, so overlooked as the root cause of difficulties for some students. Those students who have recurring episodes of glue ear may have hearing impairment for 6–12 months at a time (Golz et al., 2006). It is generally perceived as a medical problem, so not linked to academic performance. The link between students’ reading, spelling and language test performance and a history of glue ear is easily overlooked.

Glue ear (or otitis media) in its many forms is a type of conductive hearing loss that occurs when the Eustachian tube, in the middle ear, becomes filled with fluid rather than air, causing temporary and fluctuating hearing loss. About 80 per cent of children will have at least one episode of glue ear before the age of nine years, with about 30 per cent of children below nine years spending about a third of their life with hearing loss due to glue ear (Wilson, 2009). Glue ear is most prevalent in the first years of school (Winskel, 2006), at the time when the foundation skills of academic performance are being laid.

Glue ear and speech and language development
Young children’s sentence structure becomes more complicated as their language skills develop. This requires the ability to process, understand and manipulate increasingly complex sentences. Nittrouer and Burton (2005) found that those children with histories of repeated episodes of glue ear from an early age had greater difficulty in understanding sentences with more complex syntax that required them to hold such sentences longer in their memory. Children with a history of repeated episodes of glue ear may need more time to process information before they understand the meaning. These children may have difficulty following fast moving
group discussions or in carrying out instructions when they are given in a long list. They could be seen as ‘off task’, not participating, or as having difficulties with social skills. Glue ear is perceived as a temporary condition without long term repercussions which young people will ‘grow out of’, so it is not perceived as serious (Wilson, 2009).

Research into whether glue ear impacts on language development in the longer term suggests that it may impact on language production in terms of the number of syllables a child uses, rather than on their comprehension skills (Zumach et al., 2010). It may affect specific processing skills, such as phonological and morphophonological understanding (Petinou et al., 2001). Phonological difficulties can occur when there is little difference between sounds, e.g. ‘p’ and ‘b’. The young person may make greater use of context cues to identify the actual word and the meaning, as used in a sentence, leading to longer time taken to decipher the meaning. Morphemes are the smallest units of language which convey meaning. Children with ongoing glue ear, particularly those with it from an early age, may not process morphemes related to plurals, past tense or ‘the’. The impact is likely to be greatest for children in the early years of language development and schooling.

Having a history of glue ear may well impact on the speed and efficiency of the (central) auditory processing system. Children with a history of glue ear from backgrounds in which they have not been read to from an early age, or where there is less speech interaction between adults and child, may be at greater risk of having (central) auditory processing difficulties than children without a history of glue ear or those with glue ear from language rich backgrounds (Borges et al., 2013).

**Implications for reading skills**

Having difficulty differentiating phonemes potentially means that the young person with ongoing glue ear can have difficulty in developing reading skills. They are likely to have problems when transferring the phoneme onto the written representation of the sounds (Winskel, 2006). A further difficulty could occur if they have not developed grammar skills, such as understanding the addition of morphemes (e.g. the plural ‘s’ or its use for ownership in the third person ‘its’). Being less skilled in producing and understanding complex sentence structures orally could mean that students with ongoing glue ear have greater difficulty in deconstructing meaning when reading. The ability to combine phonological and semantic awareness has been identified as making a large contribution to reading comprehension (Roth et al., 2002).

Winskel (2006) found that decoding of phonemes was significantly poorer in children who had severe glue ear before the age of two years when compared to their age matched, glue ear free classmates. The impact of early and recurring glue ear seems to be mitigated if parents read more to their children (Wilson, 2009). This could be because the child has greater opportunity to hear the phonemes and relate them to the written form, in a quiet environment, with the same story being read repeatedly, with familiarity increasing understanding.

For those children with glue ear from an early age until into their teens, or those having numerous episodes, a cumulative effect can impact on their reading abilities, with a delay of at least two years by the age of 18 (Bennett et al., 2001). Phoneme skills become less important after the age of 6–7 years when semantic skills, such as narrating stories and using complex sentence structure, become more important markers of proficient reading (Winskel, 2006). As young people progress through the school system there is a greater
need for reading and writing at age appropriate levels as language becomes more complex. Students with ongoing glue ear are at greater risk of falling behind academically (Golz et al., 2006), perhaps benefiting from additional support to achieve their full potential. Writing may be slower in young people with glue ear as they need to simultaneously decipher task requirements, consider how to construct sentences, remember how to spell individual words and hold the idea they wish to communicate in their minds.

Although often dismissed as temporary and common, glue ear is potentially an explanation for why some students fall behind. For those students who are perhaps taking longer to complete tasks, or whose speech is not as clear or complex as their classmates, or for those who appear ‘off-task’ or disorganised, it may well be worth investigating a history of ear infections or having their hearing tested. Not being able to hear clearly or understand what is going on, or communicate ideas and thoughts clearly could lead to frustration and behavioural issues, the cause of which could be mislabelled. There are many Daisys, Stewies and Russells in classes who could benefit from more understanding of the potential implications of glue ear on their academic performance and behaviour.

The author

Carmel Capewell, PhD student, University of Northampton. Carmel’s thesis is titled ‘Ongoing glue ear’s impact on daily life of young people and mothers’.

References


Submission Guidelines

Assessment & Development Matters (ADM) is published by the Psychological Testing Centre. Its readership is entrants on the Register of Qualifications in Test Use, holding BPS Educational and Occupational testing qualifications.

The Editorial Team encourage submission of articles with a broad range of appeal, aimed at qualified educational and occupational testers, with an interest in professional development and psychological testing, including FAQs, readers’ letters and responses to articles. ADM is particularly keen to publish articles in which research and practice are presented to inform and influence the test using community.

The Editorial Team aim to give a platform for a range of views that are not necessarily their own, nor those of the British Psychological Society.

Practitioner-focused general articles: must not exceed 1500 words including references and tables.

Research articles: must not exceed 1500 words, including references and tables (maximum of two legible tables/figures).

Research articles should conform to a standard template for test research submissions, available from the Coordinating Editor.

Brief articles of interest to practitioners: must not exceed 500 words and must not include tables/figures, i.e. research summaries, updates, conference reports, etc.

Length: Please note that any article exceeding the word count will automatically be returned to the author for revision.

Article style: Articles should be written for an educated but varied testing audience and aim to engage the readership at large. Where appropriate, spelling should be Anglicised. Abbreviations and acronyms should be explained at least once in the text. Unless relevant to the sample, language should be non-gender specific. The Editorial Team reserve the right to remove any discriminatory language, and to edit articles to maintain sufficient standards.

References: British Psychological Society style, for example:

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2014 Submission deadlines:
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Summer: 21 March
Autumn: 23 June
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Please place your research into the appropriate sections.

Title: Please select a neutral title for your research piece. Your title should not include the name of an instrument or any commercially sensitive reference or trademarked name.

Practitioner: Your name/s here.

Measure: Name of measure/s used.

Participants: State if national/international sample.

Digested Key Message: Brief summary here of the main message/implications/findings.

Introduction: Literature/background.

Research Objectives: Outline research objectives/aims.

Methodology: Detail method.

Analysis: Detail your analysis.

Discussion: Findings, key points, implications for practice.

References/Sources: Websites, etc. can also be placed here.

Conflict of interest: Please indicate the source of funding for your research. Articles will only be accepted where you can demonstrate that no material conflict of interest exists.

Articles should not exceed 1500 words (including references and a maximum of two legible tables/figures).

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