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AS PSYCHOLOGY

Paper 1 Introductory Topics in Psychology

Monday 15 May 2017

Afternoon

Time allowed: 1 hour 30 minutes

Materials

For this paper you may use:

- a calculator

Instructions

- Use black ink or black ball-point pen.
- Fill in the boxes at the top of this page.
- Answer **all** questions. You must answer the questions in the spaces provided. Do **not** write outside the box around each page or on blank pages.
- Do all rough work in this book. Cross through any work you do not want to be marked.

Information

- The marks for questions are shown in brackets.
- The maximum mark for this paper is 72.
- You will be assessed on your ability to:
 - use good English
 - organise information clearly
 - use specialist vocabulary where appropriate.

For Examiner's Use	
Section	Mark
A	
B	
C	
TOTAL	



J U N 1 7 7 1 8 1 1 0 1

Section A

Social Influence

Answer **all** questions in this section.

For each multiple-choice question, completely fill in the circle alongside the appropriate answer.

CORRECT METHOD



WRONG METHODS



If you want to change your answer you must cross out your original answer as shown. 

If you wish to return to an answer previously crossed out, ring the answer you now wish to select as shown. 

0 1

Which of the following statements best describes the agentic state?

Shade **one** box only.

- A** People feel responsible for their actions and act according to their own principles ☐
- B** People feel that they are not responsible for the actions of a group ☐
- C** People make others feel responsible for their actions ☐
- D** People no longer feel responsible for their actions as they are acting for an authority figure ☒

[1 mark]

0 2

Select the phrase that best describes internalisation.

Shade **one** box only.

- A** The individual adopts a role as a member of a group ☐
- B** The individual changes his/her beliefs but it is a temporary change ☐
- C** The individual changes his/her public and private beliefs ☒
- D** The individual goes along with the group but does not agree with them ☐

[1 mark]



0 3

Briefly outline and evaluate normative social influence as an explanation for conformity.

[4 marks]

Normative social influence (NSI) is conformity based on the need to be liked and accepted by a group. People go along with the majority to gain social approval and to avoid rejection or ridicule. NSI usually leads to compliance: the person agrees publicly with the group but privately keeps their own opinion, so the change is temporary.

One strength is supporting evidence from Asch (1951). When interviewed afterwards, some participants said they gave the wrong answer because they did not want to be ridiculed or rejected by the group, even though they knew the answer was wrong. Also, when they wrote answers privately, conformity fell, showing NSI was operating. However, there are individual differences: nAffiliators, who have a strong need to be liked, conform more than others, so NSI does not affect everyone equally. NSI also cannot explain all conformity, as informational social influence explains conformity in ambiguous situations.

Extra space



0 4

Daniel and Matthew are in the same class at school but have very different views on success. Daniel is convinced that success is due to hard work and determination, whilst Matthew believes that luck and fate determine success.

The class is putting on a play and neither Daniel nor Matthew wants to participate. Their friends are trying to persuade them to take part.

Using your knowledge of locus of control, identify which boy is most likely to resist the social influence of his friends. Explain why.

[4 marks]

Daniel is most likely to resist the social influence of his friends.

This is because Daniel has an internal locus of control: he believes

success is due to his own hard work and determination, so he sees

himself as in control of what happens to him. Matthew has an external

locus of control, as he believes luck and fate control his life.

People with an internal locus of control rely less on the opinions of

others and are less concerned about social approval, so Daniel is less

likely to give in to his friends' pressure to take part in the play. He is

Extra space *more likely to see himself as a leader rather than a follower*

and to make his own decision based on his own views. Matthew, as an

external, is more likely to accept his friends' influence and agree to be

in the play. This is supported by Avtgis (1998), whose meta-analysis

found that people with a high internal locus of control were less easily

persuaded and less likely to conform.



0	5
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Another boy in the class, Tom, refuses to take part in the play.

Explain how Tom's refusal to take part might affect Daniel's and Matthew's ability to resist social influence.

[2 marks]

Tom's refusal will make both boys better able to resist social influence, as Tom acts as a dissenter who provides social support. His non-conformity breaks the unanimity of the group and acts as a model of resistance, so they are less likely to take part in the play. This

Extra space *would especially help Matthew, who has an external locus of control and is influenced by others' behaviour. Daniel may be less affected, as his internal locus of control means he would probably resist anyway.*

Turn over for the next question



0	6
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Outline research into the effect of situational variables on obedience and discuss what this tells us about why people obey.

[12 marks]

You may use this space to plan your answer.

Milgram (1963) found that 65% of 40 male participants obeyed an experimenter and gave the maximum 450V shock to a learner. In later variations he altered situational variables to see their effect on obedience.

Proximity: when the teacher and learner were in the same room, obedience fell to 40%, and in the touch proximity condition, where the teacher had to force the learner's hand onto a shock plate, it fell to 30%. When the experimenter left the room and gave orders by telephone, obedience fell to 20.5%. Location: when the study moved from prestigious Yale University to a run-down office block, obedience fell to 47.5%. Uniform: in the baseline study the experimenter wore a grey lab coat, but when he was replaced by an 'ordinary member of the public' in everyday clothes, obedience fell to 20%. Bickman (1974) found that people in New York were twice as likely to obey a confederate dressed as a security guard than one in a jacket and tie. This research tells us that obedience is strongly affected by the situation rather than personality alone. The proximity findings can be explained by the agentic state: when the experimenter is close, the



participant feels they are an agent of the authority and not responsible for their actions; when the authority is distant or the victim is close, it is harder to shift responsibility, so people return to an autonomous state and disobey. Location and uniform findings can be explained by legitimacy of authority: Yale and the lab coat signal that the experimenter has a legitimate right to give orders within the social hierarchy, so people obey.

A strength is that Milgram used a highly standardised procedure, changing only one variable at a time while keeping the prods, voltage levels and recorded learner responses the same. This allows cause and effect to be established, so we can conclude that each situational variable caused the change in obedience. Real-life evidence also supports the research: Hofling et al (1966) found that 21 out of 22 nurses obeyed an unknown doctor's telephone order to give an overdose, showing that legitimate authority in a hospital setting produces high obedience.

However, some variations may lack internal validity. Orne and Holland (1968) argued that the procedures were so artificial that participants may have seen through the deception, especially in the 'member of the public' condition, so demand characteristics rather than the situational variable may explain the result. The research also has low external validity, as the tasks were set in a laboratory rather than the real world. Finally, situational explanations are incomplete. In every condition some participants still disobeyed, which suggests dispositional factors such as the authoritarian personality also play a role. Mandel (1998) points out that the Nazi Reserve Police Battalion 101 shot Jewish



civilians at close range without direct orders, which contradicts the idea that close proximity to victims reduces obedience. Therefore, situational variables help explain why people obey, but they interact with personality to determine behaviour.

Extra space



[illegible]

24



Section B**Memory**

Answer **all** questions in this section.

0	7
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Identify the main type of coding used in **each** of the following components of the multi-store model of memory.

Short term memory Acoustic (coding by sound)

Long term memory Semantic (coding by meaning)

[2 marks]

0	8
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Memory studies are sometimes criticised for being unrealistic. Briefly explain **two** ways that this criticism could be addressed in memory research.

[4 marks]

Firstly, researchers could carry out field experiments in natural environments that are familiar to participants. For example, students could learn and recall information in their own school classroom rather than a laboratory, so that the setting reflects how memory is used in everyday life and results have higher ecological validity.

Secondly, researchers could use everyday tasks and realistic stimuli instead of artificial ones such as lists of nonsense syllables. For example, student participants could learn definitions of key terms for an

Extra space exam, or in eyewitness research watch a real-life video of a crime rather than read a word list. Because the task is meaningful, the findings can be generalised to real-world memory, improving mundane realism.



09

Zina witnessed a violent incident. The attacker pulled out a knife and threatened the victim. Zina was close to the attacker and was very frightened and anxious. Her friend, Amanda, was further away and less anxious. The police took witness statements from both Zina and Amanda. Their statements were very different.

Using your knowledge of research into the effects of anxiety on eye-witness testimony, explain why Zina's and Amanda's statements are different.

[4 marks]

Zina was close to the attacker and very anxious, while Amanda was further away and less anxious. Research suggests that high anxiety affects the accuracy of eyewitness testimony.

One explanation is that Zina's high anxiety reduced the accuracy and detail of her statement. Johnson and Scott (1976) found that participants who saw a man holding a knife covered in blood were less accurate at identifying him (33%) than those who saw a man holding a pen (49%). This is the weapon focus effect: Zina's attention would

Extra space *have been narrowed onto the knife, so she would remember less about the attacker's face, while Amanda, being less anxious, could take in more peripheral detail.*

Alternatively, Zina's statement may be more accurate and detailed than Amanda's. Yuille and Cutshall (1986) studied witnesses to a real shooting and found that those who reported the highest stress were very accurate (around 88%), even months later. Christianson and Hubinette (1993) also found that bank clerks who were directly threatened in robberies remembered more accurately than onlookers. So Zina's high arousal may have made the event more memorable for her than for Amanda.



1 0

A psychologist decided to interview both Zina and Amanda five months later to see if they could still remember the same level of detail about the incident.

Explain **one** ethical issue the psychologist must consider before interviewing Zina and Amanda.

[2 marks]

Protection from harm. Zina and Amanda witnessed a violent knife attack, so being asked to recall the incident in detail five months later could cause them psychological harm, such as distress and anxiety, especially Zina who was very frightened. The psychologist should remind them of their right to withdraw and offer counselling or support after the interview.

1 1

Describe and evaluate interference as an explanation for forgetting.

[12 marks]

You may use this space to plan your answer.

Interference theory states that forgetting in long-term memory occurs because two sets of information become confused or compete with each other. The memory is not necessarily lost, but becomes harder to access. There are two types. Proactive interference (PI) is when older learning disrupts the recall of newer information, for example a teacher who has learned many names in the past struggles to remember the names of a new class. Retroactive interference (RI) is when newer learning disrupts the recall of older information, for example the teacher learns new names and then forgets the names of past students. Newer



information may overwrite the earlier memory.

Interference is most likely when the two memories are similar. With PI, previously stored information may make new information harder to store; with RI, new information may overwrite or be confused with old memories. McGeoch and McDonald (1931) asked participants to learn a list of words until 100% accurate and then learn a second list. When the second list was synonyms of the first, recall was worst (12%), but when it was unrelated numbers recall was much better (37%), showing interference increases with similarity, partly because of response competition at retrieval.

One strength is the large amount of lab evidence supporting interference, such as McGeoch and McDonald. Lab experiments control extraneous variables, so we can be confident that interference causes the forgetting. However, these studies use artificial tasks such as learning word lists close together in time, which lack ecological validity. In everyday life the gaps between learning are usually much longer, so interference may explain less forgetting in real life than the lab suggests.

On the other hand, there is real-world support. Baddeley and Hitch (1977) asked rugby players to recall the names of teams they had played against. Players who had played the most games in the season forgot the most, regardless of how much time had passed, showing that retroactive interference occurs in everyday memory. Schmidt et al (2000) also found that people who had moved house more often remembered fewer street names from their childhood, supporting retroactive interference.

A further limitation is that interference may only cause temporary forgetting. Tulving and Psotka (1971) found that recall of word lists fell



as more lists were learned, but when participants were given cues (category names) recall rose to about 70% for all lists. This suggests the memories were still available but not accessible, so retrieval failure due to absence of cues may be a better explanation than interference. Interference also cannot explain forgetting that happens when memories are not similar, so it only explains some types of forgetting. Finally, the theory has practical applications: students can reduce interference by not revising similar subjects one after the other, for example by separating French and Spanish revision sessions.

Extra space



[illegible]

24



Section C**Attachment**

Answer **all** questions in this section.

1	2
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Identify **two** infant behaviours that are characteristic of an insecure-resistant attachment type.

[2 marks]

1. High separation anxiety: the infant shows intense distress and cries a lot when the caregiver leaves.

2. Resists comfort on reunion: when the caregiver returns the infant seeks contact but also rejects it, for example pushing the caregiver

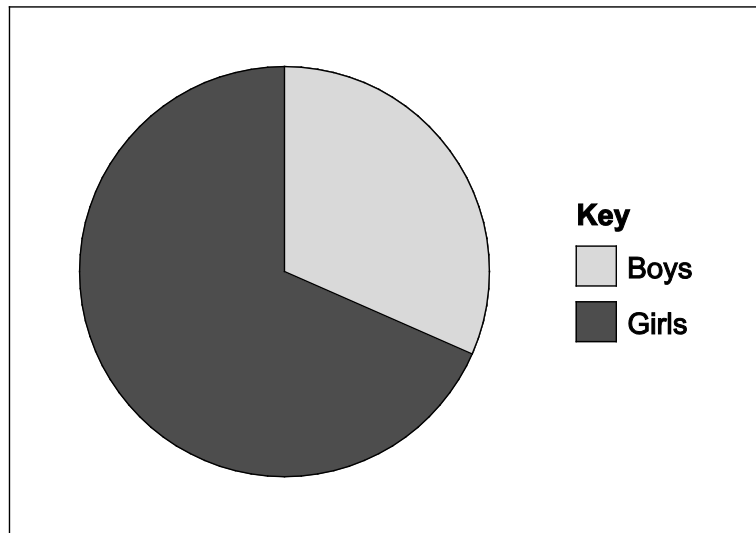
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1 3

A researcher is investigating gender differences in classification of attachment. They conduct a study using Ainsworth's 'Strange Situation'. The results are shown in **Figure 1** below.

Figure 1 The proportions of boys and girls who are classified as securely attached



Using the information in **Figure 1**, estimate the percentage of **boys** and **girls** that are securely attached.

Boys = 31%

Girls = 69%

[2 marks]

Turn over for the next question



1 4

In a different study, 150 children were classified as securely attached. Of these, 40% were boys. How many of the 150 children were girls? Show your workings.

[2 marks]

Girls = 100% - 40% = 60% of the children.

60% of 150 = $0.6 \times 150 = 90$. Answer: 90 girls

1 5

The researcher collected quantitative data using the 'Strange Situation'. He then decided to collect qualitative data by conducting interviews with some of the parents of the infants.

Describe **two** differences between these types of data.

[4 marks]

One difference is that quantitative data is numerical, for example the number of infants classified as securely or insecurely attached, or the frequency of behaviours such as crying recorded in the Strange Situation.

In contrast, qualitative data is non-numerical and expressed in words, for example quotes from the parents in the interviews describing their relationship with their child.

A second difference is objectivity and ease of analysis. Quantitative data is objective and easy to analyse statistically, for example by calculating

Extra space *percentages and drawing graphs, so patterns and trends can be identified and compared easily. Qualitative data is more subjective, as it relies on the researcher interpreting the parents' words, and it is harder to analyse because it must first be converted into categories and the frequency counted (content analysis). However, qualitative data gives richer, more detailed insight.*



1 6

Outline Bowlby's theory of maternal deprivation.

[3 marks]

Bowlby proposed that continual care from a mother or mother substitute is essential for normal psychological development. Maternal deprivation is the emotional and intellectual consequences of separation from this attachment figure, meaning the child is deprived of emotional care.

If separation is prolonged and there is no substitute during the critical period (the first 2 and a half years, with a risk up to age 5), Bowlby believed there would be lasting harm. Effects include delayed intellectual development (low IQ) and emotional development, such as affectionless psychopathy, an inability to feel guilt or care about others, which can lead to delinquency. Bowlby's study of 44 juvenile thieves supported this: 14 were affectionless psychopaths and 12 of them had experienced prolonged separation from their mothers.

Turn over for the next question

1	7
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Explain **one** criticism of Bowlby's theory of maternal deprivation.**[3 marks]**

One criticism is that Bowlby confused deprivation with privation. Rutter (1981) argued that deprivation means losing an attachment once it has formed, while privation means never forming an attachment at all.

Many of the 44 thieves Bowlby studied had experienced several changes of home and carer in early life, so they may never have formed an attachment. This means the severe effects Bowlby described, such as

Extra space *affectionless psychopathy, may actually be the result of privation, so he may have overstated the effects of deprivation itself.*

Furthermore, Lewis (1954) partly replicated the 44 thieves study with 500 young people and found that early prolonged separation did not predict later criminality or difficulties forming relationships, which challenges the theory.



1	8
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Outline and evaluate the learning theory of attachment.

[8 marks]

Learning theory, proposed by Dollard and Miller (1950), suggests that attachment is learned through conditioning, and is sometimes called a 'cupboard love' explanation because infants attach to whoever feeds them.

Through classical conditioning, food is an unconditioned stimulus that produces pleasure, an unconditioned response. The caregiver is at first a neutral stimulus, but because they are repeatedly present when the infant is fed, they become associated with food and become a conditioned stimulus that produces pleasure (a conditioned response) on their own. This learned pleasure is the attachment.

Operant conditioning also plays a role through drive reduction. Hunger is a primary drive, and when the infant is fed the discomfort is reduced, which is negatively reinforcing. Because the caregiver supplies the food, attachment becomes a secondary drive. Crying is also reinforced, as the caregiver responds with food, while the caregiver is reinforced when the crying stops.

A key limitation is evidence from animal research. Harlow (1958) found that baby rhesus monkeys spent most of their time clinging to a soft cloth 'mother' rather than a wire mother that dispensed milk, and went to the cloth mother when frightened. This shows attachment is based on contact comfort, not food, contradicting learning theory. However, it is difficult to generalise from monkeys to human infants.

Human research also challenges the theory. Schaffer and Emerson (1964) found that in 39% of infants the main attachment figure was



not the person who usually fed and bathed them. Instead, infants attached most strongly to the person who was most sensitive and responsive to their signals. Similarly, Ainsworth's research shows that attentiveness and sensitive responsiveness predict secure attachment, suggesting that interactional synchrony and reciprocity, rather than food, are the reinforcers.

Learning theory may still explain some elements, such as how a baby learns to cry for comfort, but Bowlby's monotropic theory, which sees attachment as innate and adaptive, explains it more fully.

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END OF QUESTIONS



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