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Forename(s)

Candidate signature

I declare this is my own work.

INTERNATIONAL AS PSYCHOLOGY

Unit 1: Introductory Topics in Psychology

Friday 8 January 2021

07:00 GMT

Time allowed: 1 hour 30 minutes

Materials

For this paper you must have:

- a calculator, which you are expected to use where appropriate.

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.
- All working must be shown.
- If you need extra space for your answer(s), use the lined pages at the end of this book. Write the question number against your answer(s).
- 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 90.

For Examiner's Use	
Section	Mark
A	
B	
C	
TOTAL	



J A N 2 1 P S O 1 0 1

Section A: Memory

Answer **all** questions in the spaces provided.

Only **one** answer per question is allowed.

For each 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

Name and briefly outline **three** types of long-term memory.

[6 marks]

Episodic memory: memory of events and personal experiences in your life, e.g. your last birthday party. These memories are time-stamped, include details of who was there and what happened, and are stored with the emotions felt at the time.

Semantic memory: memory of facts and knowledge about the world, e.g. knowing that Paris is the capital of France or knowing the meaning of words. It is not linked to when or where it was learnt.

Procedural memory: memory of how to perform actions and motor skills, e.g. how to ride a bike or tie your shoelaces. These memories can be recalled without conscious awareness or effort and become automatic with practice.



0 2

Explain **one** difference between the coding of the phonological loop and the coding of the visuo-spatial sketchpad in the working memory model.

[2 marks]

The phonological loop codes information acoustically, so it processes auditory, sound-based information such as spoken words we hear (the 'inner ear'), whereas the visuo-spatial sketchpad codes information visually and spatially, so it processes what we see, such as the layout of a room or shapes (the 'inner eye').

0 3

Briefly discuss **one** strength of the working memory model.

[4 marks]

One strength of the working memory model is that it is supported by research using dual-task studies. Performance falls when two tasks use the same component, e.g. two visual tasks compete for the visuo-spatial sketchpad, whereas a visual and a verbal task can be done together because they use separate components.

This shows that STM is not a single unitary store, as the multi-store model suggests, but is made up of separate components with their own limited capacity. The case of KF also supports this, as he had poor verbal STM but normal visual STM. This means the working memory model gives a more plausible explanation of STM as an active processing system rather than a passive store.



0 4

Mia witnesses a car accident on her walk to work. During the day, Mia's friends at work ask her leading questions about the accident. When Mia finishes work, she goes to the local police station to give an eyewitness testimony about the accident.

Explain how Mia's eyewitness testimony might be affected by leading questions asked by her friends at work during the day. Give **one** example of a leading question that Mia's friends might have asked.

[6 marks]

Leading questions are questions which, because of the way they are phrased, suggest a certain answer to the witness. They can act as misleading post-event information, which may be incorporated into Mia's memory of the accident. This would make her eyewitness testimony to the police less accurate and less reliable.

For example, her friends might ask, 'How fast was the car going when it smashed into the other car?' or 'Did you see the broken headlight?'

Loftus and Palmer found that participants who heard the verb 'smashed' estimated higher speeds than those who heard 'hit', and a week later were more likely to report seeing broken glass, even though there was none. Loftus also found that using 'the' instead of 'a' led to more reports of items that were not there.

As Mia is asked these questions throughout the day before she gives her testimony, her original memory may be distorted. This is called substitution bias, where the leading question alters the memory itself (response-bias would only change her answer). Bartlett's reconstructive memory suggests Mia will make 'effort after meaning' and fill gaps using her schemas, so she may confabulate, e.g. remembering the car was speeding or that there was broken glass, when she gives her testimony at the police station after work.



0 5

Describe and evaluate the multi-store model of memory.

[12 marks]

The multi-store model (MSM) was proposed by Atkinson and Shiffrin (1968). It describes memory as a structure of three separate, unitary stores: the sensory register, short-term memory (STM) and long-term memory (LTM). Information passes from store to store in a linear way. Information from the environment first enters the sensory register, which has a store for each sense, e.g. iconic (visual) and echoic (auditory). It has a very large capacity but a very short duration, under half a second. Only information which we pay attention to passes into STM; the rest decays.

STM codes information mainly acoustically. It has a limited capacity of about 7 plus or minus 2 items (Miller) and a duration of about 18 to 30 seconds. Information is lost through decay or displacement unless it is rehearsed. Maintenance rehearsal keeps information in STM, and if it is rehearsed enough it is transferred into LTM. LTM codes information mainly semantically, and has an unlimited capacity and a duration of potentially a lifetime. Information is retrieved from LTM back into STM when it is needed.

One strength is that there is research support for the existence of separate STM and LTM stores. Glanzer and Cunitz found a primacy effect and a recency effect in free recall of word lists: early words were rehearsed and transferred into LTM, while the last words were still in STM. When recall was delayed by 30 seconds, the recency effect disappeared but the primacy effect remained, showing the two stores are separate. Research also supports the different characteristics of each store, e.g. Jacobs on capacity, Peterson and Peterson on duration of STM,



Baird on the duration of LTM and Baddeley on coding.

Further support comes from case studies of people with amnesia. HM had brain surgery that damaged his hippocampus; afterwards his STM worked normally but he could not transfer new information into LTM.

Clive Wearing similarly had a working STM but could not form new long-term memories. This suggests STM and LTM are separate stores located in different areas of the brain.

However, much of this research lacks ecological validity. Many studies used artificial stimuli, such as lists of consonant syllables or words, which have no meaning to participants. This is not how we use memory in everyday life, e.g. remembering faces or events, so the findings may not provide valid evidence for the model.

A limitation is that the MSM is oversimplified. It suggests that STM and LTM are unitary stores that operate in a single, uniform way. However, the case of KF showed that STM can be impaired for verbal information but not visual information, and the working memory model suggests STM consists of multiple components, such as the phonological loop and visuo-spatial sketchpad. Similarly, there are different types of LTM, episodic, semantic and procedural, which are processed in different parts of the brain, e.g. HM could still learn new procedural skills such as mirror drawing.

The model also overemphasises maintenance rehearsal as the only way information transfers to LTM. We can remember information we have never rehearsed, e.g. flashbulb memories of very emotional events, so processing is not always linear. Craik and Lockhart argued that the depth of processing (e.g. thinking about meaning) is more important



Extra space *than the amount of rehearsal.*

Despite this, the MSM gives a good understanding of the structure and processes of memory and has been very influential, forming the basis of later models such as the working memory model.

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Turn over for the next section

Turn over ►



Section B: Social PsychologyAnswer **all** questions in the spaces provided.**0 6**Name and outline **one** explanation of conformity.**[3 marks]**

Normative social influence: a person conforms because they want to be liked and accepted by the group and to fit in, and they fear being rejected or ridiculed for being different.

This usually leads to compliance, where the person goes along with the group publicly but does not change their private opinion, e.g. a student laughs at a joke their friends find funny even though they do not find it funny. It was shown in Asch's study, where some participants conformed to obviously wrong answers to avoid disapproval.



0 7

Jessica and Ayesha are talking with friends at work about the need to recycle more. Jessica publicly agrees that it is a good idea but continues with her usual behaviour of not recycling. However, Ayesha strongly agrees that more recycling is needed, and she sets up an area at work for recycling.

Explain the types of conformity shown by Jessica and Ayesha.

[6 marks]

Jessica is showing compliance. This is a superficial, temporary type of conformity where a person publicly agrees with the views or behaviour of the group but privately continues to disagree. Jessica openly agrees with her friends at work that recycling more is a good idea, but she continues with her usual behaviour of not recycling, which suggests her private views have not changed and that she does not actually agree.

Jessica has probably complied because of normative social influence, as she wants to fit in and be accepted by her friends at work and avoid disapproval. Her change in behaviour stops as soon as the group is not present, as compliance only lasts while the group is watching.

Ayesha is showing internalisation. This is the deepest level of conformity, where a person genuinely accepts the views of the group and changes both their public behaviour and their private beliefs (a conversion of views). Ayesha strongly agrees that more recycling is needed and has taken action by setting up an area at work for recycling, showing she has adopted the belief as her own.

This is likely to be due to informational social influence, as she accepts the group's view as correct. Because the belief has been internalised it is permanent and will continue even when the group is not present, e.g. she is likely to keep recycling at home as well as at work.



0 8

Which of the following is **not** a variable affecting conformity as investigated by Asch?

Shade **one** box only.

[1 mark]

A group size

☐

B location

☒

C task difficulty

☐

D unanimity

☐

0 9

Discuss Milgram's research into situational variables affecting obedience.

[20 marks]

Milgram's original study (1963) tested obedience to authority. 40

American men were recruited through a newspaper advert and told they were taking part in a study on learning at Yale University. The participant was always the 'teacher' and a confederate, Mr Wallace, was the 'learner'. The teacher had to give an electric shock each time the learner answered wrongly, increasing in 15-volt steps from 15V up to 450V. The shocks were not real. The experimenter, who wore a grey lab coat, used verbal prods such as 'The experiment requires that you continue' if the teacher refused. In this baseline condition 65% of participants went to the maximum 450V and all went to 300V.

Milgram then carried out variations using the same standardised procedure to investigate situational variables. Proximity: when the learner was in the same room as the teacher, obedience fell to 40%. In the touch-proximity condition, where the teacher had to force the learner's hand onto a shock plate, obedience fell to 30%. When the experimenter left the room and gave instructions over the telephone, obedience fell to 20.5%, and some participants pretended to give shocks.

Location: when the study was moved from the prestigious Yale University to a run-down office block in Bridgeport, obedience fell to 47.5%.

Uniform: when the experimenter in the lab coat was replaced by an 'ordinary member of the public' in everyday clothes, obedience fell to 20%.

Milgram explained these findings using agentic state theory. When the authority figure is close by and legitimate, people shift from an autonomous state into an agentic state, seeing themselves as acting on



behalf of the authority and not responsible for their actions. When the learner is closer, the consequences of their actions are more obvious, so it is harder to stay agentic. A lab coat and a prestigious university increase the legitimacy of authority, so people are more likely to obey. A strength is that Milgram's research has high internal validity. The variations were conducted in controlled laboratory environments using a standardised procedure, with only one variable changed at a time, so he could establish that the situational variable caused the change in obedience. This also means the research is replicable. The findings are supported by other research. Bickman (1974) found in a field experiment in New York that people were twice as likely to obey a confederate dressed as a security guard than one dressed in a milkman's outfit or casual clothes, supporting the effect of uniform. Hofling et al. (1966) found that 21 out of 22 nurses obeyed an unknown doctor on the telephone and were ready to give twice the maximum dose of a drug, suggesting high obedience to legitimate authority in real-life settings. However, Milgram's research may lack ecological validity, as giving electric shocks to a stranger in a lab is an artificial task unlike real-life obedience. There is also the possibility of demand characteristics. Orne and Holland argued that participants may have guessed the shocks were not real and were simply 'playing along', so they were not truly obeying. Yet Sheridan and King found 54% of male and 100% of female participants gave real shocks to a puppy, suggesting the effects were genuine. Milgram's research also lacks population validity, as he only tested



American males, so the findings may not generalise to women or other cultures. Research in other countries has often found different results, e.g. Kilham and Mann found only 16% of Australian women went to the maximum voltage, whereas Mantell found 85% in Germany. This suggests cultural and gender bias, so situational variables may not affect everyone in the same way.

There are serious ethical issues. Participants were deceived about the purpose of the study and the reality of the shocks, so they could not give fully informed consent. They were not adequately protected from harm, as many showed extreme stress, e.g. sweating, trembling and nervous laughter, and three had seizures. The prods also made it difficult to exercise the right to withdraw. However, Milgram did debrief participants, and 84% said they were glad to have taken part.

Extra space Another limitation is that situational explanations ignore individual differences. In the baseline condition 35% of participants did not obey, which suggests dispositional factors such as the authoritarian personality (Adorno) or locus of control also affect obedience.

Despite this, the research has important implications for real life, e.g. in the workplace or the military, where people may follow orders from a legitimate authority figure in uniform who is present, and explains events such as atrocities in the Holocaust. It can also be used to reduce harmful obedience, e.g. training people to question authority. Overall, Milgram's research provides strong evidence that situational variables affect obedience, although its validity and ethics are limited.



Section C: Psychopathology

Answer **all** questions in the spaces provided.

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Rebecca has recently stopped leaving her house. She no longer goes to work and has stopped spending time with her friends and family. Rebecca is also not eating or sleeping as much as she used to do, and has stopped showering.

Briefly explain how Rebecca's behaviour may be seen as abnormal using the failure to function adequately definition of abnormality.

[2 marks]

Failure to function adequately means a person is unable to cope with the demands of everyday life. Rebecca is abnormal because she is not carrying out everyday activities: she has stopped going to work, does not leave the house or see friends and family, and is not eating, sleeping or showering properly.



1 1 . 1

Describe the two-process model as an explanation of phobias.

[6 marks]

The two-process model (Mowrer, 1947) suggests that phobias are learnt (acquired) through classical conditioning and then maintained through operant conditioning.

Classical conditioning involves learning by association. The phobic object starts as a neutral stimulus (NS), which produces no fear. It becomes associated with an unconditioned stimulus (UCS), e.g. a loud noise, a shock or being bitten, which naturally produces an unconditioned response (UCR) of fear or anxiety. After being paired together, the neutral stimulus becomes a conditioned stimulus (CS) which on its own produces a conditioned response (CR) of fear. For example, if a dog (NS) bites a child (UCS) causing pain and fear (UCR), the dog becomes a CS that produces fear (CR). This fear may also generalise to similar stimuli, e.g. all dogs.

Operant conditioning involves learning through the consequences of behaviour. The person actively avoids or escapes from the phobic stimulus, e.g. crossing the road to avoid dogs. Avoiding the stimulus reduces their anxiety, which is a pleasant, rewarding feeling, so the

Extra space *avoidance behaviour is negatively reinforced. This means the person never learns that the stimulus is harmless, so the phobia is maintained and does not become extinct.*



1	1	2
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Explain **one** strength of the two-process model of phobias.**[3 marks]**

One strength is that there is research evidence to support the two-process model. Watson and Rayner conditioned a fear of white rats in Little Albert by pairing a white rat (NS) with a loud noise (UCS) which frightened him. Albert then showed fear (CR) of the rat alone, and this generalised to similar objects such as a rabbit and a fur coat. This shows that phobias can be learnt through classical conditioning. The model has also proved useful, as it led to the development of effective behavioural treatments such as systematic desensitisation and flooding.



1 2

Jamil has a phobia of water. Jamil's fear stops him taking his children to the local swimming pool.

Explain how Jamil's phobia could be treated using systematic desensitisation.

[4 marks]

First, Jamil would be taught relaxation techniques, e.g. deep breathing or meditation, so he can produce a relaxed state before he is exposed to water. Then Jamil and the therapist would create an anxiety hierarchy of situations involving water, ranked from least to most frightening, e.g. hearing the word 'water', looking at a picture of a swimming pool, watching a video of people swimming, standing at the side of the local pool, and finally standing in the water.

Jamil would work gradually through the hierarchy, starting at the lowest level, using his relaxation techniques at each stage. Because fear and relaxation cannot exist at the same time (reciprocal inhibition), he would only move up to the next stage when he is relaxed. Treatment ends when Jamil can stay relaxed in the most feared situation, e.g. standing in the water, so he can take his children swimming.

Turn over for the next question

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1	3
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Name and briefly outline **two** defining characteristics of depression.

[4 marks]

Low mood: the person feels sad, unhappy and empty for most of the day, and often has a sense of worthlessness.

Disturbances to sleep and eating: the person may sleep much more or much less than normal (hypersomnia or insomnia), and their appetite may increase or decrease, leading to weight gain or loss.



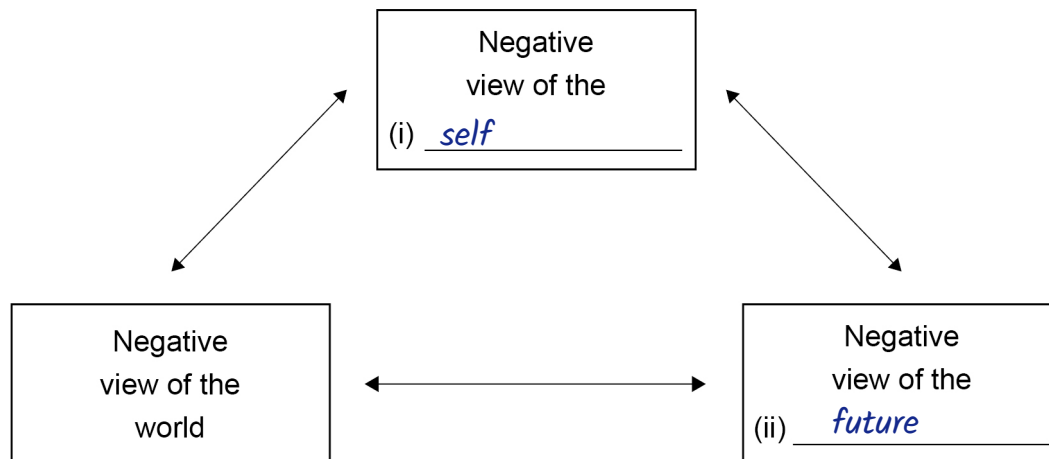
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Figure 1 shows Beck's negative triad.

Complete (i) **and** (ii) in **Figure 1** below.

[2 marks]

Figure 1 Beck's negative triad



Turn over for the next question

Turn over ►



1 5

Evaluate the cognitive explanation of depression.

[9 marks]

One strength of the cognitive explanation of depression is that there is research evidence to support it. Beck found that depressed patients showed more cognitive biases, such as overgeneralisation and catastrophising, than non-depressed patients. Hammen and Krantz found that depressed women made more errors in logic when interpreting written material than non-depressed women, and Lloyd and Lishman found that the more depressed a person was, the faster they recalled unpleasant memories. This supports the idea that faulty, negative thinking is linked to depression.

Another strength is that the explanation has important practical uses. It led to the development of cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT), which treats depression by identifying and challenging negative thoughts, e.g. the negative triad, and replacing them with more rational ones. CBT has been shown to be effective, e.g. March et al. found it was as effective as antidepressants, and it has fewer side effects than drugs. This supports the idea that negative thinking plays a role in depression.

However, a limitation is that the cognitive explanation does not distinguish between cause and effect. The research is correlational, so it is unclear whether negative thinking causes depression or whether being depressed causes a person to think negatively. Negative thoughts may simply be a symptom of depression rather than its cause.

Another limitation is that it does not account for biological evidence.

Research shows that depressed patients have low levels of serotonin, and drug therapies such as SSRIs, which raise serotonin levels, reduce symptoms. Twin studies also suggest a genetic component, so biological



Extra space *factors may be more important than cognitive factors, and a diathesis-stress approach may explain depression better.*

The explanation also cannot account for all types of depression, e.g. the manic phases seen in bipolar depression, or anger, so it is not a complete explanation. It may also 'blame the patient' for their thinking, ignoring situational factors such as life events.

30

END OF QUESTIONS



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