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INTERNATIONAL AS PSYCHOLOGY

Unit 1 Introductory Topics in Psychology

Friday 23 May 2025

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 U N 2 5 P S 0 1 0 1

Section A: Memory

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

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Outline **two** differences between episodic memory and procedural memory.

[4 marks]

Difference 1 *Episodic memory is memory of events in our own lives, whereas procedural memory is memory of how to carry out an action or skill, e.g. riding a bike.*

Difference 2 *Episodic memory requires conscious recollection, as we have to actively recall the memory, whereas procedural memory does not require conscious recall: it happens automatically.*

0	2
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There has been some concern about the possible effects of post-event discussion on the accuracy of eyewitness testimony.

What is meant by post-event discussion?

[2 marks]

Post-event discussion occurs when witnesses talk about what they have seen with other people, e.g. a co-witness, after the event, which may alter their memory.



0 3Outline the procedure of **one** research study that investigated post-event discussion.**[3 marks]**

Gabbert et al. (2003) put participants into pairs and each pair watched a video clip of a crime. Each watched the event from a different perspective, e.g. one could see the title of a book while the other could not. Pairs were then asked to discuss what they had seen. There was also a control group where no discussion took place. Participants then answered questions about the clip individually.

0 4Explain **one** strength of research into post-event discussion.**[3 marks]**

One strength is that research into post-event discussion has high internal validity. Studies such as Gabbert's are laboratory experiments with high control of extraneous variables. This means researchers can determine that post-event discussion reduces EWT accuracy. It also has important practical implications, as police now try to stop witnesses discussing the event.

0 5Explain **one** limitation of research into post-event discussion.**[3 marks]**

One limitation is that the research lacks ecological validity. Participants usually watch videos of crimes as experimental stimuli, so the task does not reflect the experience of witnessing a real crime, e.g. the high levels of anxiety, and participants know their answers have no consequences. The findings may therefore not generalise to real-life eyewitness testimony.



0 6

Zenab sees a car accident when she is walking home from school. A small red car has hit a big blue car.

Later that day, a police officer interviews Zenab about the car accident.

Explain how the police officer would question Zenab about the car accident using the cognitive interview.

[6 marks]

The officer would use context reinstatement, asking Zenab to mentally recreate the context of the accident, such as what the weather was like on her walk home from school, what she could hear and how she was feeling at the time. These cues may trigger her memory of the accident.

The officer would ask Zenab to report everything, every single detail of the accident even if it seemed trivial or irrelevant, such as the colour of the cars, as small details may trigger other important memories.

The officer would then ask Zenab to reverse the order, beginning with what happened at the end of the accident and working back in time towards the beginning, e.g. starting from when the red car stopped. This prevents her using expectations or schemas of what usually happens in a crash.

Extra space *Finally, the officer would ask Zenab to change perspective: to imagine she was the driver of the blue car and recall the accident from their point of view. As in the enhanced cognitive interview, the officer would also build rapport and let Zenab speak without interruption.*



0 7

Describe the multi-store model of memory.

[6 marks]

The multi-store model (Atkinson and Shiffrin, 1968) proposes that memory is made up 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.

The sensory register receives information from the environment. It is modality specific (a separate store for each sense), has a very large capacity and lasts a fraction of a second. Attention is needed for information to pass to STM.

STM encodes information acoustically, has a limited capacity of 7 ± 2 items and a duration of about 18 to 30 seconds. Maintenance rehearsal keeps information in STM, and prolonged rehearsal transfers it to LTM.

LTM encodes information semantically, has unlimited capacity and a duration of up to a lifetime. To be recalled, information is retrieved from LTM back to STM. Forgetting can occur from all three stores, e.g. through decay or displacement in STM.

0 8

Explain **one** limitation of the multi-store model of memory.**[3 marks]**

One limitation is that the model views STM as a single, unitary store. It does not account for how different types of information are processed, e.g. visual and spatial information and auditory information. It cannot explain why people can do two different activities at once, such as driving and singing, which the working memory model explains with separate subsystems.

30

Turn over ►



Section B: Social Psychology

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

0	9
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Outline Milgram's findings **and** conclusions into the influence of proximity on obedience.

[4 marks]

When the experimenter gave orders over the telephone rather than in the same room, obedience fell from 65% to 20.5%. Milgram concluded that being able to see a legitimate authority figure increases their legitimacy and the likelihood of obeying. When the learner was in the same room, obedience fell from 65% to 40% (30% in touch proximity). He concluded that when we can see our victim and they are no longer dehumanised we are less likely to obey.



1 0

Fred and Jess are taking part in a psychology experiment on conformity.

They sit at a table with 10 other participants and they are all asked, "How many sweets are in this bottle?" All the participants say their answers out loud, one at a time.

The first 10 participants give their answers and all say "100".

Fred gives his answer next. He does not agree with the other 10 participants and instead says "55".

Jess is the last participant to answer. She was not sure and was going to say 100, but after Fred's answer, she says "75".

Using your knowledge of social support **and** locus of control, explain the answers given by Fred and Jess.

[6 marks]

Fred may have an internal locus of control, meaning he feels he can influence his own life and that his actions are his own choice and responsibility. As he believes he is personally responsible for his actions, he is more likely to base his answer on his own belief that there are 55 sweets in the bottle, resisting the influence of the 10 participants who said 100. People with an internal locus of control are more independent and less concerned with social approval.

Jess may have an external locus of control, so she looks to others for guidance. She was unsure and was going to say 100, but after listening to Fred's answer she goes along with him and says 75.

Fred also provides Jess with social support. By disagreeing, he has broken the unanimity of the majority, so Jess is less concerned about

Extra space *social rejection and has more confidence to go against the group. Her answer is less likely to stand out because she is not alone in rejecting the group norm of 100: she has an ally in Fred, so she does not conform.*



1 1

Describe and evaluate Asch's research into variables that affect conformity.

[20 marks]

Asch (1951) investigated conformity using 123 American male students who believed they were taking part in a test of visual perception. Each naive participant was placed in a group with confederates and shown a standard line and three comparison lines, and had to say aloud which comparison line matched the standard. The naive participant answered last or second to last. On 12 of the 18 trials the confederates unanimously gave the same wrong answer. Overall, participants conformed on about 32% of critical trials, 75% conformed at least once, and in a control condition with no pressure the error rate was under 1%. Asch then carried out variations to investigate the variables that affect conformity.

Group size: Asch varied the number of confederates from 1 to 15. Conformity rates were very low with just 1 or 2 confederates but increased to around 32% with 3 confederates. Adding more than 3 confederates made little difference, suggesting that a small majority is enough for conformity, but beyond this group size has little further effect.

Unanimity: Asch arranged for one of the confederates (usually seated third) to go against the group and give either the correct answer or a different wrong answer to the majority. Conformity fell in both situations, but it was lowest when the dissenter gave the correct answer (5.5%). This shows that breaking the unanimity of the majority reduces conformity, as the participant feels more confident and less fear of rejection.

Task difficulty: Asch made the task harder by making the three



comparison lines more similar in length to each other and to the standard line, so it was less obvious which line matched. Conformity increased in this situation. This is probably because the situation was more ambiguous, so participants looked to others for guidance (informational social influence).

One strength of Asch's research is that it was a laboratory experiment with high control over extraneous variables, such as environmental distractions, the stimulus lines and the confederates' answers. Because only one variable, such as group size, was changed at a time, we can be more confident in establishing cause and effect between the variable and conformity. The standardised procedure also means the study can be replicated, and the results have been replicated many times, so they can be considered reliable.

However, the findings may not be relevant today; the research is a child of its time and lacks temporal validity. The results may be influenced by attitudes of 1950s America, where post-war attitudes and the McCarthyism era meant people were generally more conformist and afraid of standing out. Perrin and Spencer (1980) found much lower conformity when they repeated the study with British students in the 1980s, which suggests the findings are historically biased.

A further limitation is that an artificial task was used. Judging line lengths with a group of strangers is not something people do in everyday life, and the answer had no real consequences, so the task is not an ecologically valid measure of real-life conformity. In real situations, such as with friends or colleagues, the pressure to conform may be much greater, or much smaller, so the findings may not generalise.



The research also has low population validity, as Asch only used American males (gender bias). Females may conform at different rates, for example being more concerned with social relationships, so the findings may not reflect female behaviour. American culture is individualist, and Bond and Smith (1996) found that conformity is higher in collectivist cultures, so the results may also be culturally biased. Finally, Asch's research may be considered unethical. He deceived his participants, who believed they were taking part in a test of perception, so they could not give fully informed consent. He also failed to protect them from harm, as they were put in a stressful and embarrassing situation; many showed signs of anxiety, such as sweating and nervousness. However, deception was necessary to measure genuine conformity, and participants were debriefed afterwards.

Overall, Asch's research provides strong, controlled evidence that group size, unanimity and task difficulty affect conformity, but its artificial task, limited sample and historical context mean the findings should be generalised with caution.



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Section C: Psychopathology

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

1 2

Outline statistical infrequency as a definition of abnormality.

[2 marks]

Statistical infrequency uses averages and the normal distribution: the most common behaviours are normal and rare behaviours are abnormal. A person 2 or more standard deviations from the mean is classed as abnormal.

1 3

Explain **one** strength of using statistical infrequency to define abnormality.

[2 marks]

It is objective, as it uses statistical data rather than opinion to determine whether behaviour is abnormal. This gives a clear cut-off between normal and abnormal, e.g. an IQ below 70 for intellectual disability disorder.



1 4

Nadir always worries about leaving his house and whether it is locked up securely. He thinks it will be broken into.

When he leaves the house, Nadir has to check that every window and door is locked. This is making him late for work every day.

While at work, Nadir always worries about his house. He cannot focus and is unable to complete his work tasks. His work colleagues are worried about him and often have to complete his tasks for him.

Using your knowledge of deviation from ideal mental health **and** failure to function adequately, explain why Nadir's behaviour might be considered abnormal.

[6 marks]

Nadir is failing to function adequately because he cannot successfully complete normal day-to-day activities. His checking of every window and door makes him late for work every day, and once at work he cannot focus and is unable to complete his work tasks. This shows maladaptive behaviour that interferes with his daily routine and job.

His behaviour also causes observer discomfort, as his work colleagues are worried about him and often have to complete his tasks for him. His constant worry also suggests personal distress. These are criteria of failure to function adequately, so he would be considered abnormal.

Nadir also deviates from ideal mental health (Jahoda). He is not showing resistance to stress, as he is always worrying about his house and thinks it will be broken into. He is not showing autonomy, as he

Extra space *depends on his colleagues to complete his work tasks. He is also not working towards self-actualisation, as he is risking his job by always being late, and he lacks an accurate perception of reality, as his belief that his house will be broken into is not based on evidence.*



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

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.



1 5

Beck suggests depression occurs when people have a negative triad.

Which **one** of **A**, **B**, **C** or **D** is the correct description of Beck's negative triad?

Shade **one** box only.

[1 mark]

- A** Negative view of other people, negative view of the self, negative view of the world. ☐
- B** Negative view of the future, negative view of other people, negative view of the self. ☐
- C** Negative view of the future, negative view of other people, negative view of the world. ☐
- D** Negative view of the future, negative view of the self, negative view of the world. ☒

1 6

Briefly evaluate Beck's negative triad as an explanation for depression.

[3 marks]

Beck's theory is supported by evidence, e.g. Hammen and Krantz (1976)

found depressed participants made more errors in logic when interpreting

written material than non-depressed participants. It has also led to

successful therapies such as CBT. However, it is hard to establish cause

and effect, as negative thoughts may be an effect of depression, e.g. of

low serotonin, rather than its cause.



1 7

Name **and** briefly describe **two** characteristics of depression.**[4 marks]**

Characteristic 1 *Low mood: the person feels sad and unhappy most of the time, often with a sense of worthlessness.*

Characteristic 2 *Disturbances to sleep: the person may sleep much more than usual (hypersomnia) or much less, e.g. insomnia.*

1 8

Describe and evaluate the behavioural explanation of phobias.

[12 marks]

The behavioural explanation of phobias is Mowrer's (1960) two-process model, which states that phobias are acquired through classical conditioning and maintained through operant conditioning.

Phobias are learnt through classical conditioning, via 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 shock, a bite or a loud noise, which naturally produces an unconditioned response (UCR) of fear or anxiety. After being paired, the neutral

stimulus becomes a conditioned stimulus (CS) which on its own

produces a conditioned response (CR) of fear or anxiety. For example, a child bitten by a dog may learn to associate dogs with pain and fear.

This fear can generalise to similar stimuli, e.g. all dogs.

The phobia is then maintained through operant conditioning and negative reinforcement. The person actively avoids or escapes the phobic stimulus, which reduces their feelings of anxiety. This reduction in anxiety is



rewarding, so the avoidance behaviour is reinforced and repeated. Because the person always avoids the stimulus, they never learn that it is harmless, so the association is not extinguished and the phobia is maintained.

One strength is evidence supporting the explanation. Watson and Rayner (1920) conditioned Little Albert to fear a white rat by pairing it with a loud noise made by striking a steel bar; Albert then showed fear of the rat on its own, and this generalised to similar objects such as a rabbit and a fur coat. This shows that phobias can be learnt through classical conditioning. Bandura and Rosenthal (1966) also showed that fear can be learnt by observing a model appearing to be in pain.

A further strength is that the explanation has practical applications. It led to the development of behavioural treatments such as systematic desensitisation and flooding, which work by breaking the learned association and preventing avoidance, and these have been found to be effective for specific phobias. This supports the idea that phobias are learnt and can be unlearned.

However, the explanation does not consider evolutionary factors. Seligman (1971) argued that we have a biological preparedness to fear stimuli that were dangerous to our ancestors, such as snakes, spiders and heights, which is why these phobias are common while phobias of more dangerous modern objects, such as cars or guns, are rare. This suggests some phobias may be innate rather than learnt.

The explanation also ignores genetic factors. Kendler et al. (1992) found higher concordance rates for phobias in identical twins than in non-identical twins, suggesting a genetic vulnerability. This could explain



why not everyone who has a traumatic experience, e.g. being bitten by a dog, goes on to develop a phobia.

Furthermore, many people have phobias of stimuli that they have never come across or had a negative experience with, such as snakes, which classical conditioning cannot explain. In addition, not all avoidance behaviour is to reduce anxiety; some is simply to keep safe, so the role of negative reinforcement may be overstated.

Compared with other explanations, the behavioural model ignores cognitive factors, such as irrational beliefs about the phobic object, which cognitive explanations emphasise, and social learning theory adds that phobias can

Extra space be learnt by observation. Overall, the two-process model explains how many phobias are acquired and maintained, but a diathesis-stress approach combining genetic, evolutionary and cognitive factors gives a more complete explanation.

END OF QUESTIONS



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