

West Hatch High School Psychology Revision Guide

'Bridging the gap'



Psychology's early roots

Q) What subject does psychology have its early roots in?

Ans: Philosophy

Q) What did Descartes mean by Cartesian dualism?

Ans: the idea that the mind and body are separate from each other

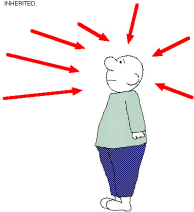
Q) What did John Locke mean by 'empiricism'?

Ans: the idea that all experience can be obtained through the senses, and humans neither inherit knowledge nor instincts

Q) How does empiricism differ from Charles Darwin's evolutionary theory?

Ans: Darwin says everything is inherited but Locke says nothing is

EMPIRICISM
ALL KNOWLEDGE OBTAINED
THROUGH SENSES - NOT
INHERITED



Wundt and Introspection

Q) Why is Wundt important in psychology?

Ans: he opened the first ever lab in Germany in 1879

Q) What was the aim of this lab?

Ans: to document and describe the nature of human consciousness

Q) What is introspection?

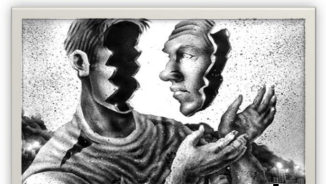
Ans: introspection is thinking out loud. You say what your thinking processes are as you are solving a puzzle or afterwards

Q) what is a strength of introspection as a method?

Ans: you can only know what someone is thinking if you ask them so it allows us to know a person's thoughts

Q) what is a problem with introspection?

Ans: sometimes you can't explain what you are thinking



Psychology origins

The emergence of Psychology as a science

Q) Who was responsible for psychology emerging as a science?

Ans: Watson (1913)

Q) what approach does Watson work within?

Ans: behaviourism

Q) what makes something scientific?

Ans: when it uses scientific methods that are testable, replicable and objective

Q) is a scientific approach still used today?

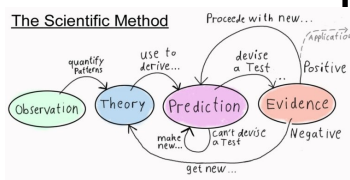
Ans: yes, in approaches like the behaviourist approach and the cognitive approach

Q) What is an advantage of a scientific approach in psychology?

Ans: gives more credence to psychology as a science with testable theories

Q) What is a disadvantage of a scientific approach?

Ans: tasks tend to be artificial so cannot explain everyday behaviours



Timeline

Q) in the 17th—19th century, what was psychology a part of?

Ans: experimental philosophy

Q) In what year did psychology emerge as a distinct discipline and what act triggered this?

Ans: In 1879 when Wundt opened the first lab.

Q) When did Freud put forward the psychodynamic approach?

Ans: 1900's

Q) when did Watson come up with behaviourism?

Ans: 1913

What approach appeared in the 1950's?

Ans: the humanistic approach

Q) 2 approaches were put forward in the 1960's—what were they?

Ans: Cognitive approach and social learning theory

Q) what was the dominant approach in the 1980's?

Ans: Biological approach

Q) what is the most recent emergence?

Ans: cognitive neuroscience



Key assumptions

Q) name 3 main assumptions of the behaviourist approach

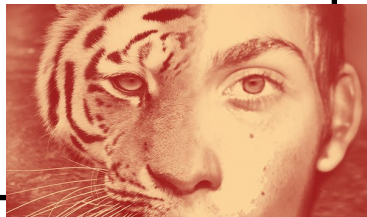
Ans: we are born a blank slate, we learn from the environment, we should only study behaviour that can be observed and measured, psychology should be scientific, we learn through classical and operant conditioning, there is continuity between animals and humans

Q) What type of research does the Behaviourist approach use most?

Ans: lab experiments or case studies

Q) What did Watson mean by 'cause of effect'?

Ans: behaviour followed by a positive consequence is more likely to be repeated



Evaluation

Q) Why is it a good thing to be scientific?

Ans: objective evidence that is replicable

Q) How can behaviourism be applied to real life e.g. phobias?

Ans: Phobias are learned through classical conditioning and maintained through operant conditioning

Q) When saying we learn through the environment, what does this approach ignore?

Ans: the role of nature (genes etc.)

Q) What is a problem with using animals in research?

Ans: humans are more complex than animals

Q) what is a strength of using animals in research?

Ans: we can conduct studies it would be unethical to conduct on humans



Behaviourism

Pavlov (1902)

Q) what is classical conditioning?

Ans: learning through association

Q) what experiment did Pavlov perform with dogs?

Ans: He presented them with a bell (neutral stimulus) and food (unconditioned stimulus) and the dogs salivated (unconditioned response) until eventually the dogs learnt to associate the bell with the food and the bell (conditioned stimulus) caused the dogs to salivate (conditioned response) even when no food was present.

Q) What is a stimulus?

Ans: something in the environment that we react to

Q) what is a response?

Ans: the way we react to the stimulus presented

Q) What does conditioned mean?

Ans: learnt

Q) What does unconditioned mean?

Ans: not learned



Skinner (1953)

Q) what is operant conditioning?

Ans: learning through consequences

Q) what experiment did Skinner perform on rats and pigeons?

Ans: He put them in a box with a lever. Every time they pressed the lever (or pecked a disc) they received a reward of food. This caused them to press the lever more to receive food

Q) What are the 3 different consequences?

Ans: Positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement & punishment

Q) What does reinforcement mean?

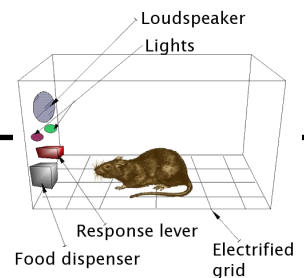
Ans: encouraging a behaviour

Q) What does punishment mean?

Ans: discouraging a behaviour

Q) What is the difference between positive and negative reinforcement?

Ans: Positive reinforcement is encouraging a behaviour by adding a positive (e.g. sweets for good behaviour) whereas negative reinforcement is encouraging a behaviour by taking away a negative (e.g. no homework if you work hard in class)



Key assumptions

Q) name 2 main assumptions of the behaviourist approach

Ans: we learn through our environment, we learn through observing others, we learn through directly and indirectly, mediational processes lie between stimulus and response

Q) What type of research does the Social learning theory use most?

Ans: lab experiments

Q) What is vicarious reinforcement?

Ans: this means, learning by seeing someone else being rewarded for their behaviour

Q) What are the 4 mediating factors?

Ans: Attention (watching) Retention (remembering), Reproduction (being able to do) and Motivation (wanting to do something to gain the same reinforcement)

Evaluation

Q) what advantage has SLT got over behaviourism?

Ans: Takes into account cognitive factors

Q) What is a good thing about SLT using lab studies?

Ans: objective and replicable

Q) Does this approach take into account the role of nature (genetics)?

Ans: no, it says we only learn from our social environment

Q) how can SLT be used to explain cultural differences?

Ans: we learn by what we observe in our environment e.g. live role models and media

Q) How can this be applied to the real life example of the Jamie Bulger murder?

Ans: The 2 boys learnt their behaviour by watching a horror film—child's play



Social Learning Theory

Bandura (1963)

Q) what experiment did Bandura perform with children?

Ans: He showed young children an adult playing with a bobo doll. Sometimes they acted aggressively and sometimes they acted non-aggressively towards the doll. The children were then allowed to play with the bobo doll and their behaviour observed.

The children imitated the behaviour seen, especially when the role model was the same gender as them

Q) What is a model?

Ans: a person that you imitate

Q) What variations have been done of the bobo doll study?

Ans: they saw a cartoon character behaving aggressively instead of a real person

Q) What problems are there with the bobo doll study?

Ans: demand characteristics—the children may have thought they were supposed to copy, taught children to be aggressive, there is a difference between real violence and violence to a doll



Key terms

What does identification mean?

Ans: when the observer associates with the person they are watching

Q) What does attention mean?

Ans: the extent to which we notice certain behaviours

Q) What does retention mean?

Ans: how well the behaviour is remembered

Q) What does replication mean?

Ans: the ability of the observer to perform the behaviour

Q) What does motivation mean?

Ans: the will to perform the behaviour, which is often determined by whether the behaviour is rewarded or punished



Key assumptions

Q) name 3 main assumptions of the cognitive approach

Ans: internal processes should be studied, we should study these scientifically, internal mental processes lie between stimulus and response, we can make inferences about mental processes, we are similar to a computer

Q) What type of research does the Cognitive approach use most?

Ans: lab experiments, case studies & models

Q) What is a model?

Ans: a representation of a process that cannot be seen

Q) what does inference mean?

Ans: educated guesses based on observed behaviour



Evaluation

Q) What is a good thing about the cognitive approach using scientific methods?

Ans: objective and replicable

Q) Does this approach take into account the role of nature (genetics)?

Ans: yes, it says we are born with some mental processes (nature) but learn others (nurture)

Q) What is meant by machine reductionism?

Ans: it means we cannot accurately compare humans to computers as we are different

Q) how are humans the same as computers?

Ans: we both process information in a similar way; input, encode, storage, retrieval and output

Q) how are we different to computers?

Ans: we have emotions and make mistakes



Cognitive Approach

Cognitive Neuroscience

Q) what is cognitive neuroscience?

Ans: the scientific study of the influence of brain structures on mental processes

Q) what methods are used to study the brain?

Ans: fMRI's PET scans etc. and post mortem studies

Q) What is Broca's area?

Ans: a part of the frontal lobe associated with speech

Q) Who was Tan?

Ans: Tan was a patient of Broca's who was only able to say 'tan'. When Broca conducted an autopsy on him he found damage to the frontal lobe and was able to associate this area with speech.



Information processing & schemas

Q) what are the 5 stages in the information processing approach?

Ans: input, encode, storage, retrieval and output

Q) What do these stages mean?

Ans: input—information goes in through our senses, encode—we change information into a useable format, storage—we put the information somewhere in our brain, retrieval—we seek the information we need, output—we produce an appropriate response

Q) What is a schema?

Ans: a mental representation of an object or event based on past experience

Q) are we born with schemas?

Ans: we are born with simple schemas such as sucking

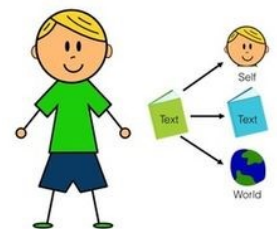
Q) what are schemas used for?

Ans: we use them to make sense of information and know how to respond in situation such as going to the dentist

Q) What famous study did Bartlett conduct to explain the role of schemas?

Ans: the war of the ghosts study

Schema



Everything you have filed away in your brain

Key assumptions

Q) name 2 main assumptions of the biological approach

Ans: behaviour is caused by nature (biology), the mind lives in the brain, we have evolved through a process of adaptation

Q) What is a genotype and phenotype?

Ans: genotype is the actual genetic make up whereas phenotype is those genes are expressed so is influenced by the environment

Q) what are the 3 main structures that influence behaviour according to this approach?

Ans: genes, the nervous system and neurochemistry

Q) What methods does this approach use?

Ans: twin studies, adoption studies, selective breeding, family studies, scans

Q) What does concordance mean?

Ans: the amount of agreement



Evaluation

Q) Does this approach take into account the role of nurture (the environment)?

Ans: not really, it says we are the product of biological factors

Q) Does this approach use scientific methods?

Ans: yes, it uses very scientific methods

Q) is it possible to successfully separate the role of nature and nurture?

Ans: no, findings from twin, adoption and family studies could also be caused by environment

Q) Explain what is meant by neurochemistry explanations being too simplistic

Ans: to blame one neurotransmitter for a problem is simplistic—it is more than likely that a combination are the cause



Biological Approach

Evolution and Behaviour

Q) who came up with the theory of evolution?

Ans: Charles Darwin

Q) what is evolution?

Ans: the changes in inherited characteristics in a biological population over successive generations

Q) What does natural selection mean?

Ans: any genetically determined behaviour that enhances an individual's survival (and reproduction) will continue in future generations

Q) what is sexual selection?

Ans: those that possess an evolutionary advantage over others is more likely to reproduce and pass on their genes

Q) what is adaptation?

Ans: when an animal's genes change to suit their environment e.g. giraffes long necks.



Methods

Q) What is selective breeding?

Ans: when animals are selected due to a desirable characteristic and bred with another animal who also has that characteristic. This ensures that the characteristic will be passed on

Q) How do twin studies investigate genetic causes of behaviour?

Ans: by comparing Dizygotic (DZ) twins who share 50% of their genes, with Monozygotic (MZ) twins who share 100% of their genes.

Q) how do adoption studies investigate the role of genetics?

Ans: by comparing children to their biological parent and their adoptive parent. If they are more similar to their biological parent this indicates genetics play a role.

Q) How are concordance rates used to indicate there is a genetic cause of behaviour?

Ans: if the concordance rate is higher between MZ twins this would indicate a genetic cause

Q) What is a problem with twin studies and concordance rates?

Ans: concordance rates are never 100% suggesting other factors, such as the environment, also play a role.



Experimental method

Q) what is the experimental method?

Ans: the manipulation of an independent variable to measure the effects on a dependent variable

Q) what is an aim?

Ans: the purpose of the study. A general statement about what the research wants to investigate

Q) what is a hypothesis?

Ans: a clear, precise, testable statement that states the relationship between the variables to be investigated

Q) what is a null hypothesis?

Ans: a statement that states the effect you want will not occur

Q) is a hypothesis a question or a statement?

Ans: a statement

Q) what does operationalised mean?

Ans: clearly defined variables that can be measured



Variables

Q) What is an independent variable?

Ans: the thing you change

Q) what is a dependent variable?

Ans: the thing you measure

Q) what is an extraneous variable?

Ans: any variable, other than the IV that could affect the DV if it isn't controlled

Q) what is a confounding variable?

Ans: an extraneous variable that you don't, or can't control

Q) what are demand characteristics?

Ans: when the participant knows they are taking part in a study they may try and guess the aim of the study and change their behaviour.

Q) what are investigator effects?

Ans: when the researcher wants the experiment to work and affects the results e.g. by giving better instructions to one group



Experiments

Types & Design

Q) what are the 4 types of experiment?

Ans: Laboratory, field, natural and Quasi

Q) explain the difference

Ans: lab—take part in an artificial setting that is controlled. Field - the IV is manipulated in a natural setting. Natural—a naturally occurring IV in a natural setting. Quasi—based on naturally occurring differences between groups

Q) what are the 3 types of experimental design?

Ans: independent, repeated & matched pairs

Q) explain each type

Ans: independent—different people take part in each of the conditions. Repeated—the same people take part in each of the conditions. Matched pairs—Pairs of people are matched along a number of variables and one member takes part in one condition and the other takes part in the other.



Samples & Ethics

Q) what is a sample?

Ans: a group of people selected to take part in your study that represent the population

Q) what are the 5 different sampling methods?

Ans: random, systematic, stratified, opportunity & volunteer

Q) explain each method

Ans: random—a randomly selected sample from the target population e.g. names out of a hat. Systematic—every nth person is selected from the target population. Stratified—when the sample reflects the percentage of the different groups in the target population e.g. gender. Opportunity—whoever is about and willing to take part. Volunteer—self selected sample through advertising.

Q) what are the main ethical issues? Clue—I Drive A Red Car Past Ducks

Ans: Informed consent, Deception, Anonymity, Right to withdraw, Confidentiality, Protection from harm, debrief



Observations



Q) What is an observation?

Ans: the study of observed behaviour

Q) What is the difference between a naturalistic and a controlled observation?

Ans: naturalistic occur in our everyday environment whereas controlled take part in an artificial setting

Q) what is the difference between an overt and a covert observation?

Ans: Overt means they know they are being observed whereas covert is when you observe in secret

Q) what is the difference between a participant and non-participant observation?

Ans: the researcher takes part in the activity in a participant observation whereas they don't in a non-participant observation

Design of observations

Q) What is the difference between a structured and unstructured observation?

Ans: in a unstructured they record everything whereas in a structure they record previously targeted behaviour

Q) what are behavioural categories?

Ans: when a target behaviour is broken down into components that are observable and measurable

What are the different sampling methods in observations?

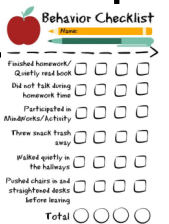
Ans: continuous, event sampling and time sampling

Q) explain these different sampling methods

Ans: continuous is when all instances of a target behaviour are recorded. Event sampling is counting the number of times a particular behaviour or event occurs. Time sampling is recording behaviour in a pre-established time frame.

Q) what is inter-observer reliability?

Ans: when more than one person observes and they compare their results to check they are similar



Other methods

Self report techniques

Q) what are the two main self-report techniques?

Ans: interviews and questionnaires

Q) what different types of questions do you get in a questionnaire and what is the difference?

Ans: closed questions have a limited response and usually produce quantitative data whereas open questions have an unlimited response and usually produce qualitative data

Q) what are the 3 types of interview?

Ans: structured, unstructured and semi-structured

Q) explain the difference

Ans: structured interviews have the questions set beforehand (predetermined). Unstructured do not have set questions, just an area to be discussed like a conversation. Semi-structured are a mix of the two.



Self report design

Q) what are the different types of closed questions in a questionnaire?

Ans: Likert scale, rating scales & fixed choice option

Q) What is a leading question?

Ans: a question that is phrased in a particular way to elicit a certain response

Q) what is a pilot study?

Ans: a small-scale version of an investigation that takes place before the real study starts

Q) why are pilot studies conducted?

Ans: to identify problems with the design of the study and materials that can be rectified before the actual study begins.

Q) what is a single blind procedure?

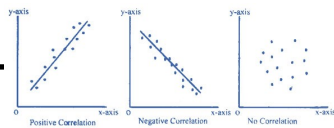
When details of the study are kept from participants to stop it affecting their behaviour

Q) what is a double blind procedure?

Ans: neither the participant or the researcher conducting the study knows the aim



Correlations



Q) what is a correlation?

Ans: a technique which investigates the association or relationship between 2 variables or co-variables

Q) What are the 3 types of correlation?

Ans: positive, negative or zero

Q) explain these

Ans: a positive is when one co-variable increases so does the other. A negative is when one co-variable increases the other decreases and a zero correlation is when there is no relationship between the co-variables

Q) what is the difference between an experiment and a correlation?

Ans: an experiment is looking for cause and effect whereas a correlation is only looking for a relationship, not what causes that relationship

Types of data

Q) what is the difference between qualitative and quantitative data?

Ans: Quantitative data is numerical such as scores whereas qualitative is words such as thoughts and/or feelings

Q) what is the difference between primary and secondary data?

Ans: primary is original data collected first hand by the researcher whereas secondary data has been collected by someone else and the researcher analyses the data

Quantitative Data

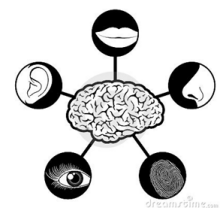
are made with instruments such as rulers, balances, graduated cylinders, beakers, and thermometers. These results are measurable.

(numbers)



Qualitative Data

use your senses to observe the results.



Analysis

Descriptive statistics

Q) what are descriptive statistics?

Ans: graphs, tables and summary statistics to identify trends

Q) what are measures of central tendency?

Ans: any measure of the average value in a set of data

Q) what are the different measures of central tendency?

Ans: mean, mode & median

Q) what are measures of dispersion?

Ans: the spread of scores—how far they vary from each other

Q) what are the 2 measures of dispersion?

Ans: range and standard deviation

Q) what is the difference between the range and standard deviation?

Ans: the range is how spread out their scores are whereas standard deviation is how much they differ from the mean



Inferential statistics

Q) What is probability?

Ans: how likely something is to occur or not occur

Q) what is the accepted level of probability in Psychology?

Ans: $P \leq 0.05$

Q) what does $P \leq 0.05$ mean?

Ans: it means the probability of something happening by chance is 5% or less

Q) What different types of data can you collect and what are they?

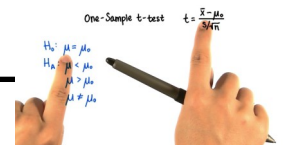
Ans: nominal—categories. Ordinal—ordered data e.g. first, second. Interval—detailed data such as time or weight

Q) what conditions need to be met for us to use a sign test?

Ans: looking for a difference, repeated measures design & nominal data

Q) what is a critical value and a calculated value??

Ans: the calculated value is the answer you get when you conduct a statistical test whereas a critical value is the numbers in a table you compare it to see if it is significant



The multi store model

Q) who came up with the multi-store model and when?

Ans: Atkinson and Shiffrin 1968

Q) How many stores are there?

Ans: 3—the sensory memory, short term memory and long term memory

Q) how is information transferred from sensory memory to short term memory?

Ans: by paying attention to it

Q) how is information transferred from STM to LTM?

Ans: by rehearsing it

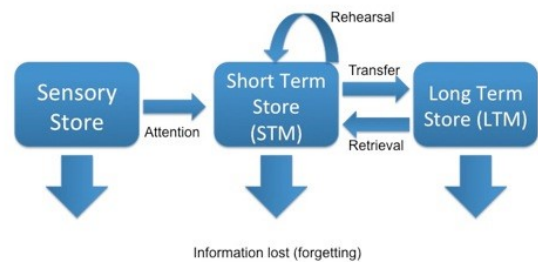
Q) how do we forget according to this model?

Ans: information can decay or fade if held for too long in SM or STM, it can be displaced by new information or we can just fail to rehearse it

MR. FORGETFUL



The multi-store model of memory (Atkinson & Shiffrin, 1968)



Evidence

Q) What experimental evidence is there to support this model?

Ans: Peterson and Peterson (1959) investigated the duration of STM by asking people to learn trigrams. They were prevented from rehearsing by having to count backwards. They found that without rehearsal people forgot after about 18 secs.

Q) What case study is there to support this model?

Ans: HM had a n operation for epilepsy. They removed his hippocampus and could no longer form new memories

The Multi-store model of memory



The stores

Q) In what order does information go through the model?

Ans: It goes from the environment into the sensory memory, then into STM and finally into LTM

Q) How much information can be stored in sensory memory and for how long?

Ans: approx. 16 items for around 1/2 a second

Q) How is information encoded in sensory memory?

Ans: modality specific—in the form in which it enters (raw)

How much information can be stored in STM and for how long?

Ans: 7 ± 2 for about 18 seconds

How much information can be stored in LTM and for how long?

An unlimited amount, potentially forever

How is information encoded in STM and LTM?

Ans: STM—acoustically, LTM—semantically



Evaluation

Q) What is a problem with using experiments to support this model?

Ans: the tasks are artificial and may not reflect real life memory

Q) what is a problem with using case studies?

Ans: we cannot generalise as it is only one person

Q) What does the Working memory model say about this models description of STM?

Ans: it is too simplistic and short term memory is more active than this model explains

Q) Does evidence support the view that there is just one large store for long term memory?

Ans: no evidence suggests there is a number of different types of LTM e.g. procedural and declarative and these are in different parts of the brain

The working memory model

Q) What part of memory does the working memory model explain?

Ans: short term memory

Q) Who proposed the WMM and when?

Ans: Baddeley & Hitch (1974)

Q) What are the different parts of the WMM?

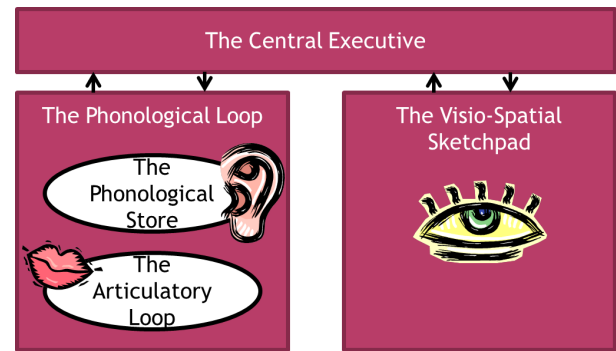
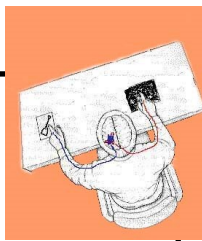
Ans: Central executive, Phonological loop (containing the phonological store and the articulatory loop), the visio-spatial sketchpad & the episodic buffer

Q) When was the episodic buffer added to the model?

Ans: 2000

Q) what is a dual task and how does it support this model?

Ans: a dual task is when you perform 2 tasks at the same time. If they use the same part of the WMM performance is affected but if they use different parts performance is not affected.



Evidence

Q) What experimental evidence is there to support this model?

Ans: Baddeley (1975) found people recalled short words better than long words

Q) What case study is there to support this model?

Ans: Shallice & Warrington (1970) KF suffered brain damage and had poor STM for verbal information but he could process visual information normally



The Working Memory model

The stores

Q) what is the role of the central executive?

Ans: it coordinates the activities of the other subsystems and allocates resources to those processes

Q) what is the role of the phonological loop?

Ans: this deals with information in terms of sound. There are two parts to the phonological loop. The phonological store is your inner ear and stores the words you hear. The articulatory loop is your inner voice and allows maintenance rehearsal by looping sounds or words

Q) what is the capacity of the articulatory loop?

Ans: 2 seconds

Q) what is the visio-spatial sketchpad?

Ans: this is your inner eye and deals with visual and/or spatial information

Q) What is the episodic buffer?

Ans: it is a temporary store that brings all the information from the other stores together. It also provides a link between working memory and LTM



Evaluation

Q) What is a problem with using experiments to support this model?

Ans: the tasks are artificial and may not reflect real life memory

Q) what is a problem with using case studies?

Ans: we cannot generalise as it is only one person

Q) What is an advantage of this model over the multi-store model?

Ans: it explains STM in more depth and sees it as active rather than a passive store.

Q) What evidence, other than case studies and experiments, supports this model?

Ans: brain scans show different parts of the brain are active when we perform different types of memory tasks

Q) What is a criticism of this model, specifically in terms of the central executive?

Ans: vague and unclearly described



Types of long term memory

Q) Who came up with the idea of different types of memory?

Ans: Tulving (1985)

Q) What are the 3 different types of long term memory?

Ans: Episodic memory, semantic memory and procedural memory

Q) What are episodic memories?

Ans: these are memories for personal events.

Q) What are semantic memories?

Ans: these are memories for knowledge about the world

Q) What is a procedural memory?

Ans: this is a memory of our knowledge of how to do things

Q) What name did Cohen and Squire give for episodic and semantic memories and what did they say about them?

Ans: he said they were both one type of memory called declarative memory

Evidence

Q) What case study is there to support this view?

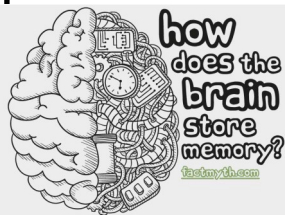
Ans: Clive Wearing had a virus that damaged his hippocampus and associated areas. He could no longer form new episodic memories but his procedural memory for playing the piano remained unaffected. His semantic memory also remained relatively intact.

Q) What other type of evidence is there to support the idea of different types of LTM?

Ans: neuroimaging techniques

Q) What study did Tulving conduct using PET scans?

Ans: people had to perform different memory tasks whilst their brains were scanned by a PET scanner. He found episodic and semantic memories both used the prefrontal cortex (left side of the brain for semantic and right side for episodic)



Types of long term memory

Examples

Q) What is an example of an episodic memory?

Ans: it's like a diary—your most recent visit to the dentist, a gig you went to last week, your last psychology lesson.

Q) What is an example of a semantic memory?

Ans: knowledge of the world such as facts and figures—London is the capital of England

Q) What is an example of a procedural memory?

Ans: a memory of our actions or skills—driving a car, riding a bike, making a cup of tea

Q) What is the difference between procedural and declarative memory?

Ans: procedural memory is knowing how whereas declarative memory is knowing that



Evaluation

Q) What is a problem with using case studies?

Ans: we cannot generalise as it is only one person

Q) What is a strength of using case studies?

Ans: provides lots of detail

Q) What is a problem with using scans?

Ans: tasks tend to be artificial so it may not be measuring everyday memory

Q) What is a strength of using scans?

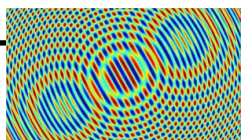
Ans: allows us to identify parts of the brain involved in different types of memory.

Q) Which type of memory can be improved through training?

Ans: episodic memories



Interference theory



Q) What is interference?

Ans: interference is when two pieces of information conflict with each other

Q) What are the 2 types of interference?

Ans: proactive and retroactive interference

Q) What is proactive interference?

Ans: this is when an old memory affects your ability to form a newer one

Q) give an example

Ans: Calling a new partner by an old partner's name

Q) what is retroactive interference?

Ans: when a new memory affects your ability to recall an older memory

Q) give an example

Ans: now I have learnt Italian I can no longer remember Spanish

Retrieval failure

Q) what causes retrieval failure?

Ans: insufficient cues available

Q) What did Tulving mean by the encoding specificity principle (ESP)?

Ans: for a cue to aid retrieval of a memory it has to be present at encoding (when we learn the information) and at retrieval (when we recall it) e.g. mnemonics

Q) What is context dependent forgetting?

Ans: We are more likely to remember something if we are in the same context when recalling as we were when we learnt it

Q) what is state dependent forgetting?

Ans: we are more likely to remember something if we are in the same state when recalling as we were when we learnt it



Forgetting

Evidence

Q) What study did McGeoch and McDonald conduct in 1931 to investigate interference?

Ans: people learnt two lists of words that were similar or dissimilar and had to recall the first list. When the lists were similar they showed poorest recall

Q) What type of interference is this?

Ans: proactive interference



Q) What study did Godden & Baddeley (1975) to investigate context dependent forgetting?

Ans: deep sea divers learnt a list of words and then recalled them in either the same (beach or underwater) or a different context (beach or underwater). When people recalled in the same context they remembered more.

Q) What study did Carter and Cassaday (1998) conduct looking at state dependent forgetting?

Ans: people were given anti-histamines to make them a bit drowsy. Some recalled in the same state they learnt and others learnt in a different state. Recall was best when in the same state.

Evaluation

Q) How does time between learning affect interference?

Ans: Interference affects forgetting more than time between learning and recalling

Q) what affect do cues have on interference?

Ans: Tulving & Psotka (1971) found cues could help recall and avoid the effects of interference.

Q) Can ESP be tested?

Ans: no, if the cue was present when learning took place and they don't recall we assume the cue was not encoded

Q) How can context dependent forgetting be used in every day life with revision?

Ans: recreate the exam environment when revising to aid learning and recall

Q) When does context dependent forgetting occur most?

Ans: when the two environments are very different



Factors affecting eye witness testimony

Q) What 3 factors affect eye witness testimony?

Ans: Anxiety, leading questions (misleading information) and post-event discussion

Q) What is the 'response-bias explanation'?

Ans: this means the verb used does not affect recall but encourages people to give a response appropriate to that verb

Q) what is the 'substitution explanation'?

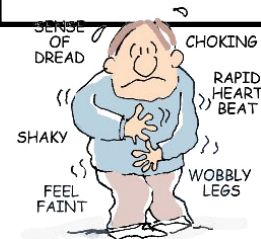
Ans: the wording of the leading question actually changes the persons memory of the event

Q) How does post-event discussion affect peoples memory of an event?

Ans: they combine misinformation from others with their own memory

Q) Does anxiety have a positive or negative effect on recall?

Ans: both, at the optimal level of arousal recall is improved but before and after that it is worse.



Eye Witness Testimony

Cognitive Interview

Q) What is the purpose of the cognitive interview?

Ans: to improve EWT

Q) what are the 4 factors of the cognitive interview?

Ans: 1. report everything, 2. reinstate the context, 3. reverse the order and 4. change perspective

Q) what is a problem with the CI compared to standard police interviews?

Ans: they are time consuming

Q) Does the CI only increase the amount of accurate information recalled?

Ans: no it can also increase the amount of inaccurate information recalled as well.

Q) what is the enhanced cognitive interview?

Ans: this involves a focus on social dynamics such as eye contact. It attempts to reduce anxiety, minimise distractions and uses open questions



Evidence

Q) What study did Loftus and Palmer (1974) conduct looking at leading questions?

Ans: people were shown a video of a car accident and asked how fast the cars were going. They changed the verb used in the question (hit, collided, contacted, bumped, smashed). Estimates were fastest when verbs such as smashed were used compared to contacted.

Q) What study was conducted by Yuille & Cutshall (1986) looking at anxiety and EWT?

Ans: they questioned people who had witnessed a shooting in a gun shop in Canada where a thief was shot dead. Accuracy of recall was very good even after 5 months

Q) What study was conducted by Johnson & Scott (1976) looking at anxiety and EWT?

Ans: people were waiting to take part in a study when they witnessed an argument. One group saw one of the people holding a pen while the others saw them holding a blood covered knife. Recall was best in the pen condition

Evaluation

Q) what is a problem with using lab studies to support these theories?

Ans: demand characteristics—people behave the way they think they are supposed to

Q) what ethical issues arise from these studies?

Ans: it may cause people harm

Q) what is a problem with field studies to support these theories?

Ans: lack of control

Q) what is weapon focus?

Ans: the presence of a weapon focuses all your attention so you won't be able to recall much else

Q) What individual differences affect EWT?

Ans: age can affect recall—we are more likely to recall if someone is a similar age to us



Types of conformity

Q) What are the 3 types of conformity?

Ans: Internalisation, Identification and Compliance

Q) What is internalisation?

Ans: When a person genuinely accepts the group norms. They conform internally and externally

Q) What is identification?

Ans: this is when we conform to fit into the group. We conform externally but not always internally

Q) What is compliance?

Ans: this is when we go along with others to fit in. We conform externally but not internally

Q) what are the 2 explanations of conformity?

Ans: Informational social influence (ISI) and normative social influence (NSI)

Q) What is the difference between ISI and NSI?

Ans: NSI means going along to fit in even when we know the answer is wrong, whereas ISI means we are not sure what the answer is so we go along because others know better

Conformity to social roles

Q) What is a social role?

Ans: the parts we play as members of certain social groups such as student or parent etc.

Q) What study did Zimbardo (1973) conduct to investigate conformity to social roles?

Ans: Stanford Prison Experiment—students were randomly allocated to the role of prisoner or guard. They conformed to their roles to so much they had to shut the study down after only 6 days

Q) What is a problem with the sample (people who took part in this study)?

Ans: they were all male students from USA

Q) When Reicher & Haslam (2006) repeated Zimbardo's study in the UK what differences did they find?

Ans: the prisoners took control of the prison rather than the guards.



Conformity

Evidence

Q) What study did Sherif conduct looking at conformity?

Ans: people were shown a visual illusion of a light and asked to estimate how far it moved alone and in groups of 3. When they were in groups their estimates were similar.

Q) What study did Asch conduct in 1951 looking at conformity?

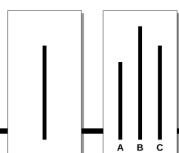
Ans: people were in a group of confederates and were asked to match a line with another out of a choice of 3. When the rest of the group gave the wrong answer, people conformed 36.8% of the time

Q) what 3 variations did Asch make to his study?

Ans: he changed the group size, task difficulty and the number of people giving the wrong answer

Q) what did Perrin and Spencer (1980) find when they conducted the same study on engineering students?

Ans: they were less likely to conform



Evaluation

Q) When are we less likely to conform?

Ans: When we are confident about our knowledge and know we are right

Q) What is a problem with conducting lab studies to understand conformity?

Ans: the task is artificial so demand characteristics could occur

Q) What ethical issues are there regarding this research?

Ans: people couldn't give informed consent as, if they had known what the study was about it wouldn't have worked. People may have been caused harm (esp. in Zimbardo's study).

Q) How can we apply findings to understand what happened in Abu Ghraib?

Ans: US soldiers violated prisoners human rights by torturing them etc. We can understand how this could have happened and prevent it happening again



Obedience

Q) What is obedience?

Ans: a type of social influence where somebody follows a direct order

Q) Who are we more likely to obey?

Ans: an authority figure such as the police or teachers

Q) what are situational variables?

Ans: these are external factors that Milgram believed affected obedience

Q) Why was Milgram interested in studying obedience?

Ans: he wanted to understand how the Nazi's killed so many people just because they were ordered to

Q) what is legitimacy of authority?

Ans: we live in a structured hierarchy and in order for society to function we must accept that others have authority over us e.g. the police.

Q) What are dispositional factors?

Ans: explanations that focus on personality differences



Social-Psychological factors

Q) What is an agentic state?

Ans: this is when a person feels no responsibility for their actions because we believe we are acting on the behalf of the authority figure

Q) what is an autonomous state?

Ans: when we are independent and acting on our own principles

Q) What are binding factors?

Ans: aspects of the situation that allow a person to ignore or minimise the damaging effect of their behaviour and therefore reduce the moral strain they are feeling.

Q) give an example of a binding factor

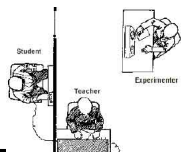
Ans: blaming the victim or denying the harm they are causing

Q) why is the agency theory a limited explanation of Milgram's results?

Ans: because not everyone obeyed



Obedience



Evidence

Q) What famous study did Milgram conduct in 1963?

Ans: he asked people to take part in a study on learning and told them that every time the student got the answer wrong they had to give them a shock from 15v up to 450v. 65% of people went up to 450v.

Q) Describe a study that looked at obedience in everyday life

Ans: Hofling (1966) - nurses were given orders over the phone to give a potentially lethal dose of medicine to a patient. 21 out of 22 nurses obeyed

Bickman - people were asked to pick up litter either by a person in uniform or a person in ordinary clothing. They were more likely to obey when the person was wearing a uniform

Q) Name 3 variations that Milgram made to his study

Ans: Proximity—if the teacher could see the student or not, Location—in a run down setting or a prestigious setting, Uniform - if the researcher wore a lab coat or was just a member of the public. Researcher present or gave orders over phone



Evaluation

Q) What is a problem with Milgram's study being a lab study?

Ans: demand characteristics, artificial task

Q) what is an advantage of Milgram's study being conducted in a lab?

Ans: high control

Q) what is a strength and weakness of studies conducted in everyday life?

Ans: more realistic but less control

Q) what ethical issues are there for Milgram's study?

Ans: deception (people were lied to as they believed they were giving shocks), no informed consent, (they weren't told what the study was really about) could cause psychological harm (as people thought they were given extremely dangerous shocks to strangers), no right to withdraw (when they said they wanted to stop they were encouraged to continue by the researcher)

Q) how can this research explain the My Lai massacre?

Ans: soldiers said they were following orders



Social support

Q) what is social support?

Ans: the presence of others who resist pressures to conform or obey and help others to resist as well.

Q) does social support reduce or increase conformity and obedience?

Ans: reduce

Q) What percentage of people obeyed when they had social support?

Ans: 10%

Q) what does confederate mean?

Ans: an actor, someone who is hired by the researcher to play a role.

Q) what happened in conformity studies when the social support wore thick glasses?

Ans: conformity still decreased



Locus of control

Q) What does 'locus of control' mean?

Ans: the sense that we have of what directs events in our lives

Q) what are the two types of locus of control?

Ans: internal and external

Q) what is meant by an internal locus of control?

Ans: things that happen are largely controlled by yourself

Q) what does it mean if you have an external locus of control?

Ans: you believe things happen without your control

Q) which type of locus of control are more likely to resist social influence?

Ans: internals

Q) what does the term continuum mean in relation to LOC?

Ans: most people are not at one end or the other but a mixture of the two



Resistance to social influence



Evidence

Q) what did Allen and Levine (1971) find when they repeated Asch's study with social support?

Ans: conformity decreased even when the dissenter wore thick glasses and said he had difficulty seeing.

Q) what study did Gamson et al (1982) conduct looking at obedience?

Ans: people were placed in groups and had to look at evidence regarding a oil company designed to show their employee in a bad light. They found, in groups, people were less likely to obey.

Q) What did Holland (1967) find when they repeated Milgram's study but looked at the people's LOC?

Ans: 37% of those with an internal LOC did not go up to the highest shock whereas only 23% of externals refused to continue.

Q) is there any evidence that LOC doesn't play a role in obedience?

Ans: Twenge et al (2004) looked at obedience studies over 40 yrs (1960-2002) and found obedience has decreased even though more people have external LOC's

Evaluation

Q) What is more influential in obedience and conformity than LOC?

Ans: previous experience—we are more likely to conform or obey if we have in the past

Q) What is a problem with all of these studies looking at resistance to social influence?

Ans: they are all lab studies so low in ecological validity. This means the findings may not reflect real life as people know they are taking part in a study

Q) what is a strength of these studies?

Ans: they are high in control over extraneous variables (things other than the IV that could affect the study such as mood)

Q) What does the evidence suggest about social support?

Ans: just having someone else present makes you less likely to conform or obey



Minority influence



Q) what is minority influence?

Ans: a form of social influence in which a small number of people (sometimes only 1) persuade others to adopt their beliefs

Q) What are the 3 main processes in minority influence?

Ans: Consistency, commitment and flexibility

Q) What is the augmentation principle?

Ans: when people take part in risky activities to support their cause—makes people more likely to pay attention and consider their view

Q) Consistency and flexibility contradict each other, explain how they can work together

Ans: the minority need to strike a balance between sticking to their point and being willing to adapt in light of new information

Q) what is the snowball effect?

Ans: over time people move over to the minority until their view is the majority

Social change

Q) What steps are involved in social change?

Ans: drawing attention, consistency, deeper processing, the augmentation principle, the snowball effect and social cryptomnesia

Q) Explain how these would work with the African-American civil right movement

Ans: the civil rights marches drew attention to the issue. There was a lot of these over time so they showed consistency in their message. These caused people to consider the ways things were and wonder if it was fair. The augmentation principle occurred when people put their lives at risk such as being beaten for their beliefs. When Martin Luther King got the attention of the government it caused the civil rights act to come into play in 1964. Finally social cryptomnesia is when people are aware a change has taken place but cannot remember how it occurred.

Q) what is gradual commitment?

Ans: once a small instruction has been obeyed it becomes harder to resist a bigger one



Social Change

Evidence



Q) what famous study did Moscovici (1969) conduct looking at minority influence?

Ans: groups of 6 were asked to view 36 blue coloured slides. Each group contained 2 confederates who said the slides were green 2/3 of the times or inconsistently. When they were consistent people conformed 8.4% compared to 1.25% in the inconsistent groups.

Q) Clark (1988) conducted a study looking at minority influence - what did he do?

Ans: he got people to be on a jury and the minority of one had to convince the others to agree with him. They only conformed when the lone juror had evidence to back up his claim

Q) Nolan et al (2008) conducted a study looking at social change—what did he do?

Ans: they hung messages on door in San Diego saying most residents were trying to reduce their energy output whilst others were just asked to save energy. The first group reduced their energy output more than the second.

Evaluation

Q) does research support the view that minorities need to be consistent?

Ans: yes e.g. Moscovici

Q) What type of study is Moscovici and Clark's?

Ans: both lab studies

Q) what barriers exist to social change?

Ans: the stereotypes of the minority can cause people to not want to change and be associated with them.

Q) what is a strength and weakness of lab studies?

Ans: a strength is high control over extraneous variable that could affect the study. A weakness is, the task is artificial so the people may behave in a way they wouldn't in everyday life



Caregiver-infant interactions



Q) what is an attachment?

Ans: a close two-way emotional bond between two individuals in which each sees the other as essential for their own emotional security

Q) What does 'reciprocity' mean?

Ans: a description of how 2 people interact and respond to each other

Q) Give an example of reciprocity

Ans: mother-infant interaction is reciprocal in that both infant and mother respond to each other's signals and each elicits a response from the other

Q) What is interactional synchrony?

Ans: mother and infant reflect both the actions and the emotions of the other and do this in a coordinated (synchronised) way

Q) Why did Brazelton et al (1975) describe mother-infant interactions as a dance?

Ans: because they respond to each others moves like dancers

Attachment figures

Q) What is a primary attachment figure?

Ans: the first person the infant becomes attached to, usually the mother

Q) what is a secondary attachment figure?

Ans: attachments formed after the first (primary) attachment. Usually with other family members such as the father.

Q) what percentage of children did Schaffer and Emerson (1964) find protested at 18 months when their father walked away?

Ans: 75%

Q) what does this suggest about attachment to fathers?

Ans: they had formed an attachment to them

Q) how does the father as the primary caregiver affect their behaviour?

Ans: they adopt behaviours more typical of mothers



attachment



Evidence

Q) according to Feldman and Eidelman (2007) how often do mothers pick up and respond to infant alertness?

Ans: two thirds of the time

Q) What study did Meltzoff and Moore (1977) conduct on interactional synchrony?

Ans: adults displayed one of three facial expressions to babies as young as 2 weeks old. The babies response was filmed and an association was found between the expression or gesture of the adult and the actions of the babies.

Q) what did Isabella et al (1989) find when they assessed the degree of synchrony between 30 mothers and infants?

Ans: high levels of synchrony were associated with better quality mother-infant interactions.

Q) In the longitudinal study by Grossman (2002) which attachment as an infant related most to their attachments as adolescents and what does this suggest?

Ans: mothers. This suggests attachments with mothers are more important

Evaluation

Q) what is a problem with observing infants to understand attachment?

Ans: it can be subjective as we cannot ask the infant why they behaved that way

Q) What is a strength of using controlled observations as a method?

Ans: it allows us to record detail and the child doesn't care if it is being observed so doesn't change its behaviour

Q) what can we not know from an observation?

Ans: the reasons for behaviours

Q) Does this research suggest that children with absent fathers will or will not be affected?

Ans: Grossman suggests it will but other research suggests it wont make a difference

Q) why is this type of research considered socially sensitive?

Ans: because it suggests that children may be disadvantaged by particular child rearing practices such as the mother returning to work, which cant be helped.



Harlow

Q) what is maternal deprivation?

Ans: when a person or animal is deprived of a real mother

Q) what animal did Harlow conduct studies on?

Ans: rhesus monkeys

Q) what study did Harlow conduct?

Ans: he reared rhesus monkeys with 2 wire model 'mothers'. One was plain and dispensed milk while the other was a cloth covered 'mother'.

Q) what did Harlow find?

Ans: the monkey's went to the cloth mother for comfort and preferred this mother regardless of which one was dispensing milk

Q) what were the long term affects of maternal deprivation?

Ans: monkeys showed less sociable behaviour and bred less. As mothers they neglected their young and some even attacked and killed them.



Lorenz

Q) What is imprinting?

Ans: this is where a bird species that is mobile from birth attach to and follow the first moving object they see.

Q) How did Lorenz first investigate imprinting?

Ans: by observing geese who had just hatched to see who they followed. The control group were with their mother but the experimental group saw Lorenz first.

Q) what is the critical period?

Ans: the period in which imprinting needs to take place. If imprinting does not occur in this time frame they do not attach to a mother figure

Q) what is sexual imprinting?

Ans: this is when an animal has imprinting on a mother figure and then later displays courtship behaviours towards them.



Key studies & attachment

Schaffer & Emerson

Q) What method did Schaffer & Emerson (1964) use to investigate attachment formation?

Ans: they visited families in Glasgow of 60 babies every month for a year and then again at 18 months. The mothers were asked questions about the kind of protest their babies showed in everyday separations and assessed the infants response to strangers.

Q) What did they find?

Ans: between 25-32 weeks of age 50% of the babies showed separation anxiety and by the age of 40 weeks 80% of the babies had a specific attachment.

Q) who did the babies tend to attach to?

Ans: the caregiver who was most interactive and sensitive to the infant signals and facial expressions

Q) what are the 4 stages of attachment?

Ans: 1—asocial (1st few weeks): the baby is forming bonds with carers but acts in a similar way to human and non-human objects. 2—indiscriminate attachment (2-7 months): babies show preference for people and recognise and prefer familiar adults. 3—specific attachment (around 7 months) babies display anxiety around strangers and become anxious when separated from a particular adult.. Stage 4—(shortly after stage 3) babies extend attachment behaviour to multiple adults



Evaluation

Q) What evaluation points are there for the methodology of Schaffer & Emerson's study?

Ans: Strengths ; longitudinal study, carried out in families homes so good external validity. Weaknesses; limited sample (60 babies from Glasgow

Q) What is a problem with measuring multiple attachments?

Ans: just because a baby gets distressed when an adult leaves the room does not mean it has formed an attachment to that adult

Q) what is a problem with conducting studies on animals?

Ans: the results cannot be generalised to humans because humans are different and form different attachments to animals

Q) What practical applications are there for Lorenz and Harlow's work?

Ans: it helps social workers understand risk factors in abuse and so prevent it



Learning theory

Q) what is cupboard love?

Ans: the emphasis on the caregiver as the provider of food

Q) how has the learning theory explained the formation of attachment?

Ans: classical conditioning explains how the attachment is formed through the association of the person with food

Q) How has the learning theory used operant conditioning to explain why behaviours continue?

Ans: the babies behaviour of crying is reinforced by receiving comfort or food. The mothers behaviour of providing food or comfort is a negative reinforcement to stop the crying

Q) what is a primary drive? Give an example

Ans: it is an innate biological motivation e.g. needing food to reduce hunger

Q) what is a secondary drive?

Ans: it is the learned association between a caregiver and the satisfaction of a primary drive



Bowlby

Q) what does the term 'monotropic' mean?

Ans: the idea that one particular attachment is more important than others

Q) what did Bowlby mean by the 'law of continuity' and the 'law of accumulated separation'?

Ans: the continuity law states that the more constant and predictable a child's care, the better the quality of their attachment. The accumulated separation law states that the effects of everyday separation add up

Q) what are social releasers?

Ans: cute behaviours such as smiling that encourage attention from adults

Q) what is the critical period in humans according to Bowlby?

Ans: around 2 years

Q) what is the internal working model?

Ans: the child forms an internal representation of their relationship with their caregiver and this serves as a model for future relationships



Explanations of attachment



The Strange Situation

Q) how did Ainsworth measure attachment?

Ans: using controlled observation called the strange situation

Q) what are the 7 episodes in the strange situation?

Ans: 1. the child is encouraged to explore. 2. a stranger comes in and tries to interact with the child. 3. the caregiver leaves the stranger and the child together. 4. the caregiver returns and the stranger leaves. 5. the caregiver leaves the child alone. 6. the stranger returns. 7. the caregiver returns and is reunited with the child.

Q) What are the 3 different types of attachment identified?

Ans: secure attachment (B) insecure avoidant attachment (A) and insecure resistant attachment (C)

Q) what percentage of toddlers in the UK showed each type?

Ans: 60-75% type B, 20-25% type A, 3% type C

Q) what was the most common attachment type in cultural variations of the study?

Ans: secure attachment

Evaluation

Q) how does Harlow's study dispute the learning theory?

Ans: because the monkeys preferred the cloth mother even when it did not provide food

Q) does evidence from human studies suggest we attach to the giver of food?

Ans: no, many babies develop a primary attachment to their mother even when they are not the primary source of food.

Q) is temperament more or less important than attachment in developing social behaviour?

Ans: it appears they are both equally important

Q) What does it mean when we say the strange situation may be culturally bound?

Ans: it doesn't have the same meaning in countries outside western Europe and the USA because cultural differences in child rearing mean children will respond differently to the strange situation

Q) what does it mean when we say Ainsworth's study has inter-rater reliability?

Ans: different observers watching the same child got similar results



Bowlby's maternal deprivation theory



Q) what is maternal deprivation?

Ans: the emotional and intellectual consequences of separation between a child and their mother or mother substitute.

Q) what did Bowlby say were the consequences of maternal deprivation?

Ans: serious damage to emotional and intellectual development would occur

Q) what is affectionless psychopathy?

Ans: the inability to experience guilt or strong emotion for others. Lack of affection and empathy

Q) describe Bowlby's 44 thieves study

Ans: 44 criminal teenagers accused of stealing were interviewed for signs of affectionless psychopathy and their families were interviewed to look for prolonged separation from their mothers. A control group of non-criminals was used. 14 of the thieves were affectionless psychopaths and 12 of these had suffered prolonged separation from their mothers in their 1st 2 yrs compared to 2 of the other 30 thieves.

The effects of institutionalisation



Q) What is institutionalisation?

Ans: the effects of living in an institutional setting like a hospital or orphanage, where children live for long, continuous periods of time and little emotional care is provided

Q) What did Rutter find in his Romanian orphan study?

Ans: he looked at 165 Romanian orphans adopted in Britain. He found when they first arrived in the UK 1/2 the adoptees showed signs of mental retardation and the majority were severely undernourished. At 11 & 16 the mean IQ for children adopted before 6mths was 102, between 6mths-2yrs it was 86 and 77 for those adopted after 2 yrs.

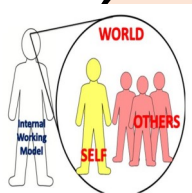
Q) what is the Bucharest Early Intervention project?

Ans: 95 children aged 12-31 who had spent an average of 90% of their lives in institutional care were compared to a control group.

Q) what did they find?

Ans: 74% of the control group were securely attached but only 19% of the institutionalised group were, with the majority showing disorganised attachment

Early attachments & later relationships



Adult relationships

Q) What is the internal working model?

Ans: the mental representations we carry with us of our attachment to our primary caregiver. They carry our perception of what relationships are like

Q) how does attachment type influence later relationships?

Ans: securely attached infants form the best friendships whereas insecurely attached later have friendship difficulties

Q) What study was conducted by Hazan and Shaver (1987) looking at attachment and adult relationships?

Ans: they analysed 620 replies to a 'love quiz' and were classified as 56% having secure attachments, 25% insecure-avoidant and 19% insecure-resistant. The secure attachments were most likely to have good and longer lasting romantic relationships while the insecure-avoidants were jealous and feared intimacy.

Evaluation

Q) what is a problem with Bowlby using interviews?

Ans: social desirability—people may not be honest and may give answers that show them in the best light

Q) What are the practical applications of studies like the Romanian Orphanage study in terms of changes to care?

Ans: institutions now try and avoid having a large amount of caregivers for each child and try and have just one or two

Q) Hazan and Shaver's study found an association, what is a problem with this?

Ans: it does not establish causality

Q) What is a problem with using self reports to establish people's internal working models?

Ans: because they are unconscious we may not be aware of them so misreport information or people often want to be seen in the best light so will misreport information



Statistical deviation

Q) what is statistical deviation?

Ans: when a person has a less common characteristic so is different to most of the population

Q) Use IQ to explain what normal distribution is

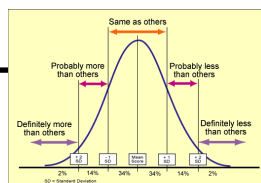
Ans: this is where the majority of peoples scores cluster around the average. The average IQ is 100 so anything above or below that is not normal. If an individual scores below 70 they are likely to receive a diagnosis of abnormality

Q) What is a problem with this definition of abnormality? (think high scores)

Ans: unusual characteristics can be positive, for example a high IQ is just as unusual as a low IQ

Q) Does everyone benefit from being given a label of abnormal?

Ans: no, some people may be happy and capable of living their lives and a label does not benefit them and may even have a negative impact on how they are treated



Deviation from social norms

Q) what is meant by 'deviation from social norms'?

Ans: this is when a person shows behaviours that are different from the accepted standards of behaviour in the community or society in which we live

Q) do these norms differ in different times and different generations?

Ans: yes, what is acceptable in one historical period is not in others

Q) give an example

Ans: Homosexuality, abortion, women wearing trousers

Q) How can this definition lead to human rights abuses?

Ans: it can be used to maintain control over people who do not fit societies rules

Q) What is meant by the term cultural relativism?

Ans: this is when a person from one cultural group labels someone from another group as abnormal according to their standards rather than the other person e.g. hearing voices



Psychopathology definitions

Failure to function adequately

Q) what does it mean when we say someone is failing to function adequately?

Ans: this occurs when someone is unable to cope with the ordinary demand of everyday life

Q) What are the main signs, according to Rosenhan and Seligman, that a person is not coping?

Ans: no longer conforming to interpersonal rules (e.g. eye contact or personal space). When they show severe personal distress and when their behaviour is irrational or dangerous to themselves or others

Q) According to this definition, would a person with a low IQ be given a diagnosis?

Ans: not necessarily if they are coping with everyday life

Q) What does it mean when we say this definition takes into account subjective experience?

Ans: it means that it acknowledges that the experience of the person is important



Deviation from ideal mental health

Q) What does 'deviation from ideal mental health' mean?

Ans: when someone does not meet the criteria for good mental health.

Q) Name as many of the criteria for ideal mental health that Jahoda (1958) proposed (8 in total)

Ans: 1. we have no symptoms or distress, 2. we are rational and can perceive ourselves accurately, 3. we self actualise (reach our potential), 4. we can cope with stress, 5. we have a realistic view of the world, 6. we have good self esteem and lack guilt, 7. we are independent of other people, 8. we can successfully work, love and enjoy our leisure

Q) What is a strength of this definition?

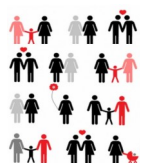
Ans: it is very detailed and comprehensive

Q) is this definition culture bound?

Ans: yes, it focuses on criteria that is typical of individualistic cultures

Q) How likely is that we will always meet all the criteria?

Ans: it is quite unrealistic to believe we will meet all the criteria all of the time



Characteristics

Q) What are phobias?

Ans: an irrational fear of an object or situation

Q) what are the 3 different types of characteristics of phobias?

Ans: behavioural, emotional and cognitive

Q) what do these mean?

Ans: behavioural is how we act, emotional is how we feel and cognitive is what we think

Q) Can you name 3 behavioural characteristics?

Ans: panic, avoidance & endurance

Q) can you name 2 emotional characteristics?

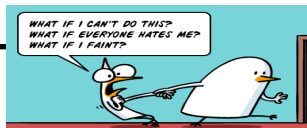
Ans: anxiety & unreasonable emotional response

Q) can you name 3 cognitive characteristics?

Ans: selection attention to phobic stimulus, irrational beliefs & cognitive distortions

Q) What is a cognitive distortion?

The person's perception of the stimulus is distorted or incorrect



explaining

Q) what is the two process model of learning phobias?

Ans: it states we acquire phobias through classical conditioning and they are maintained through operant conditioning

Q) How can classical conditioning explain the acquisition of phobias?

Ans: we associate a previously neutral stimulus which did not trigger fear, with a unconditioned stimulus that already triggers a fear response

Q) what was the neutral stimulus for little Albert and what was the unconditioned stimulus?

Ans: the neutral stimulus was a rat and the unconditioned stimulus was a loud noise

Q) how does operant conditioning maintain a phobia?

Ans: if we avoid the thing we fear we are negatively reinforced because it removes the feeling of anxiety and so the avoidance behaviour is maintained



Phobias



treating

Q) what is systematic desensitisation and how can it treat phobias?

Ans: it is a form of classical conditioning where we slowly face the thing we fear in small steps until we no longer show a fear response

Q) what is a hierarchy of fear?

Ans: it is a list of situations related to the phobic stimulus, starting from the least fearful and working up to the most fearful

Q) Why is it important to use relaxation techniques as we work through the hierarchy?

Ans: this is reciprocal inhibition, which means we are unable to be afraid and relaxed at the same time so one emotion prevents the other

Q) what is flooding?

Ans: this is when we face the phobic stimulus head on

Q) how does flooding work?

Ans: because our bodies are unable to maintain the feared response for an extended period of time, eventually we clam down

evaluation

Q) can all phobias be traced back to a negative event that triggered it? Give an example

Ans: no, for example fear of flying is often not associated with a negative event

Q) How can evolution explain phobias?

Ans: we fear things that are a source of danger from our evolutionary past e.g. fear of the dark when we were more susceptible to attack

Q) what did Seligman mean by biological preparedness?

Ans: we fear things that could have potentially been dangerous to us so our biology prepares us for this by building in an automatic response to this stimuli

Q) Is systematic desensitisation and flooding effective in treating phobias?

Ans: it is successful in the short term but not as effective long term

Q) Is flooding ethical?

Ans: no, it is very traumatic for patients



Characteristics

Q) what is depression?

Ans: it is a mood disorder characterised by low mood

Q) Can you name 3 behavioural characteristics of depression?

Ans: activity levels, disruption of sleep and eating behaviour, aggression and self harm

Q) what impact does depression have on activity levels?

Ans: it can cause a lack of energy or agitation

Q) can you name 3 emotional characteristics?

Ans: lowered mood, anger & lowered self esteem

Q) can you name 3 cognitive characteristics?

Ans: poor concentration, attending to and dwelling on the negative, absolutist thinking

Q) what is absolutist thinking?

Ans: when we think of things as all bad or all good.

Q) What is the DSM?

Ans: the Diagnostic Statistic Manual is used to diagnose people with mental health issues



explaining

Q) according to Beck, what are the 3 parts to cognitive vulnerability to depression?

Ans: faulty information processing, negative self schemas and the negative triad

Q) What do these three terms mean?

Ans: faulty processing is when we focus on negative and blow things out of proportion. Negative self schemas are when we interpret information about ourselves in a negative way. The negative triad is when we show negative thinking in relation to our view of the world, our view of the future and our view of ourselves

Q) What does ABC stand for in Ellis's ABC model?

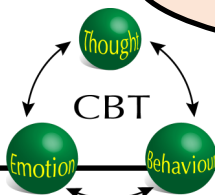
Ans: A = activating event B = beliefs (rational or irrational) C = consequences

Q) how could we apply Ellis's ABC model to a relationship breakup?

Ans: A = the break up B = rational thought—it's a shame it didn't work, irrational thought—its my fault it didn't work C = (irrational—I will not try again) (rational—I will try again)



Depression



treating

Q) What is CBT?

Ans: Cognitive behavioural therapy

Q) how does Beck's cognitive therapy treat depression?

Ans: it identifies faulty thoughts, challenges them and then corrects them

Q) How are faulty thoughts tested through homework?

Ans: clients are given homework to investigate the reality of their negative beliefs and hopefully find evidence that challenges them.

Q) how does Ellis treat depression with REBT?

Ans: REBT adds to the ABC model with a D for dispute and an E for effect. The dispute requires the beliefs to be challenged

Q) what is behavioural activation?

Ans: this is where depressed patients are encouraged to be more active and engage in enjoyable activities.

evaluation

Q) do Beck and Ellis's model explain all aspects of depression?

Ans: no, they cannot explain anger for example

Q) does the cognitive approach explain why some people have faulty thoughts?

Ans: no, it just says that they do but not why

Q) Is CBT effective as a treatment of depression?

Ans: yes, it is at least as effective as drugs

Q) why doesn't CBT look at the past?

Ans: because its focus is on present thought and improving them in the future

Q) With its focus on thoughts what aspects might CBT miss?

Ans: it ignores environmental factors such as poverty which may be causing the depression



- ☐ CHECK OVEN
- ☐ CHECK LOCKS
- ☐ WASH HANDS
- ☐ KILL DUST BUNNIES
- ☐ FLUSH TOILET
- ☐ REPEAT
- ☐ REPEAT

Ans: Obsessive Compulsive Disorder

Ans: and anxiety disorder in which people suffer from obsessive thoughts and perform compulsive behaviours to alleviate those thoughts

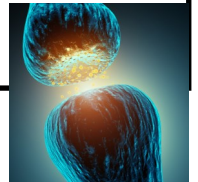
Ans: compulsions and avoidance

Ans: anxiety and distress, accompanying depression, guilt and disgust

Ans: obsessive thoughts, cognitive strategies to deal with obsessions, insight into excessive anxiety

Ans: the person is aware their thoughts and behaviours are not rational

Ans: it means the origin of OCD has different causes in different people and different types



OCD



Ans: it prevents the presynaptic neuron taking up the serotonin so the postsynaptic neuron is constantly being stimulated

Ans: the symptoms return



Revision tips and guidance (how to support your child)

- Provide a suitable environment for study – a quiet area, preferably seated at a desk or table.
- Check up on them—make sure they are completing the 4 hours outside the classroom for each subject (sign their study card).
- Question them—ask them questions about a topic using this parent revision guide.
- Listen—allow them to explain what they have learnt in lesson to you.
- Answer their questions—let them check their understanding and yours by answering questions about what they have just explained to you
- Revise early—its never too early to revise. Check they are creating revision materials now. Remember the first round of exams are the PPE's in January.
- Check the AQA website for more resources <http://www.aqa.org.uk/>
- And finally.....don't get too stressed! We will succeed together!



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