

A HODDER EDUCATION PUBLICATION

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Sample  
pages

**AQA**  
A-level

**YEAR 1 & AS**

# Psychology

**Third Edition**

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# Welcome to the third edition of AQA Psychology for A-level!

The revised AQA specification for first teaching 2025 has given us a great opportunity to review and update our Year 1 and Year 2 AS and A-level textbooks. We have been working hard to produce this new edition.



- This has obviously involved rewriting those parts of the book where there have been specification changes (e.g. Romanian adoptee studies).
- In addition, we focused on some concepts where students frequently have difficulty in exams (e.g. content analysis) and revised these in line with AQA feedback on exams to ensure that students have even clearer explanations to boost their exam performance.
- The final major change has been to the evaluation points. We have replaced one evaluation point on each spread with a more up-to-date strength or limitation.

In the past the book has been revised in line with diversity, equity and inclusion (DEI) considerations, and we have made new DEI changes in the third editions, partly driven by specification changes (e.g. focusing on mental health rather than illness) and also in response to a new thorough review from Dr Lateesha Osbourne, a leading DEI consultant and psychologist.

**Our latest edition retains all the special features that have been firm favourites with our loyal customers:**

- The text is very closely aligned with the specification and how it is examined. We are currently seeking approval from AQA, and the exam board rigorously reviews the text to ensure that our content closely matches the specification requirements.
- We offer plenty of opportunity for students to practise the skills necessary for the exam. The *Apply it Concepts* help with application techniques and *Apply it Methods* help with research methods questions (which are worth more than 25% of the final exam mark).
- In addition, there are two practical activities (with detailed instructions) at the end of every chapter (providing more help with research methods content).
- There's a particular focus on how to write good evaluation points – all of ours are written with a **Point**, followed by **Evidence/Elaboration** and ending with a sentence beginning with **T** ('This shows that ...' or 'Therefore, we can ...'). Sentences that begin with T prompt students to write a conclusion. **PET** is a structure that ensures students write elaborated evaluation.
- In the evaluation section on every spread, we also have one counterpoint and one *Evaluation extra*, both of which encourage *discussion* – a necessary skill in many extended writing essays.
- We provide lots of advice on how to answer exam questions (comments throughout the book, marked exam questions at the end of each chapter and a whole section at the end of the book with exam advice).

As always, the authors and I work as a very close-knit team – rereading the whole text and improving it where we felt the text could be clearer or where there was further information that might be helpful. And adding a bit of humour here and there to amuse us as much as anyone else!

We hope that you and your students enjoy using the new edition as much as we enjoyed creating it. These sample pages demonstrate some of the changes we have made and aim to remind readers of what makes our series so special.

Best wishes,

**Cara Flanagan**

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Enhance your teaching and easily deliver creative and engaging lessons for AQA A-level Psychology with this package of custom-made interactive digital resources – available via our user-friendly platform, **Boost**.

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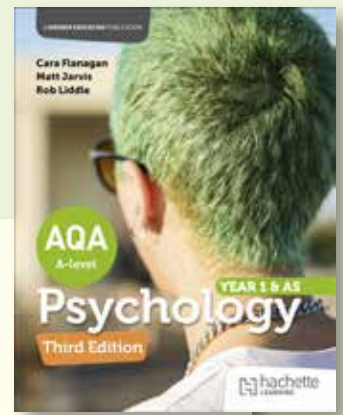


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# Table of contents and sample pages from our new Year 1 & AS Student Book



## Contents

How to use this book 4

What is Psychology? 6

### The chapters

**Chapter 1 Social influence 14**



**Chapter 2 Memory 40**



**Chapter 3 Attachment 66**



**Chapter 4 Approaches in Psychology (including Biopsychology) 92**



**Chapter 5 Clinical Psychology and Mental Health 120**



**Chapter 6 Research methods 152**



Appendix: A level and AS skills 199

References 210

Index with glossary 214

# The Student Books have been designed to meet the new specification

## Introduction

We focus the content of each spread on the specification, so we begin with the specification extract as a reminder of what students need to know.

## Effects of institutionalisation

### The specification says...

Effects of institutionalisation, including the English and Romanian Adoptees project.

The theory of maternal deprivation predicted that deprivation leads to long-term negative effects. This can be studied in the context of institutionalisation. Research on emotional deprivation in the 1940s and 1950s showed the harm it caused. This meant that institutional care for young children largely disappeared, and therefore research opportunities ceased to exist.

### Key term

**Institutionalisation** A term for the effects of living in an institutional setting. The term 'institution' refers to a place like a hospital or an orphanage where people live for long, continuous periods of time. In such places there is often very little emotional care provided. In attachment research we are interested in the effects of institutional care on children's attachment and subsequent development.

### Apply it Methods

### Correlations

In Rutter's research on Romanian adoptees it was found that there was a negative correlation between age at adoption and intellectual development (IQ score) at age 4.

#### Questions

1. Briefly explain the difference between a **correlation** and an **experiment**. (2 marks)
2. Explain why you might expect to obtain a **negative correlation** in this study. (2 marks)
3. Sketch a **scattergram** showing what the results might look like. (3 marks)

Good care from adoptive parents made up for the physical and intellectual problems experienced at first by the Romanian adoptees.



### Updated description (AO1) content

Specification content was: *Romanian orphan studies: effects of institutionalisation*, now changed to: *Effects of institutionalisation, including the English and Romanian Adoptees project*.

We changed the AO1 material (left-hand page) to focus just on the ERA project and to include recent studies, for example Edwards *et al.*'s. (2023) follow-up study of the original cohort in adulthood.

## Research on institutionalisation

John Bowlby's theory of maternal deprivation (discussed on the previous spread) was based on his own experiences as a psychiatrist, often working with emotionally-disturbed children. His hypothesis was that this emotional disturbance stemmed from a lack of continuous care from a mother or mother-substitute. One of the situations where such lack of care may occur is when a young child is placed in institutional care and experiences **institutionalisation**. The 44 thieves study (also discussed on the previous spread) involved adolescents who had experienced institutional care and later were more likely to have become 'thieves'. More importantly they showed a lack of ability to show affection, guilt or empathy.

Later researchers have studied the link between institutional care early in life and later emotional and intellectual difficulties.

### The English and Romanian Adoptees project

The most intensive study on the effects of institutional care has been undertaken by the English and Romanian Adoptees (ERA) project. The initial study was led by Sir Michael Rutter and colleagues (1998, 2011). They focused on a group of 165 children who had been adopted by English families. The adoptees were from Romania and had spent their early years in large institutions. This situation arose because, when Nicolae Ceauşescu came to power in Romania, a law was passed in 1966 which outlawed contraception and abortion for women under 40 with fewer than four children. This led to large families. Many Romanian parents could not afford to keep their children and they ended up in huge institutions in very poor conditions. After the 1989 revolution many of the children were adopted, some by English parents.

The aim of the ERA project was to investigate the extent to which good care could make up for poor early experiences in institutions. Physical, cognitive and emotional development has been assessed at ages 4, 6, 11, 15 and 22–25 years. A group of 52 children from the UK adopted around the same time have served as a **control group**.

### Effects on attachment

There appeared to be a difference in outcome related to whether adoption took place before or after six months of age. Those Romanian children who were adopted after they were six months old showed signs of a particular attachment style of **insecure attachment**, called **disinhibited attachment**. Characteristics of disinhibited attachment include attention-seeking, clinginess and social behaviour directed indiscriminately towards all adults, both familiar and unfamiliar. This is highly unusual behaviour – remember that most children in their second year show **stranger anxiety**. In contrast those children adopted before the age of six months rarely displayed disinhibited attachment.

Rutter (2006) has explained disinhibited attachment as an adaptation to living with multiple caregivers during the sensitive period for attachment formation (see page 72). In poor quality institutions, like those in Romania, a child might have 50 carers but doesn't spend enough time with any one of them to be able to form a secure attachment.

### Later follow-up studies

Edmund Sonuga-Burke *et al.* (2017) assessed the adoptees at age 22–25, finding a similar pattern of continued emotional (and intellectual) difficulties in those adopted late (after the age of six months), though 20% were problem-free.

An even later follow-up study (Edwards *et al.* 2023) looked specifically at parenting and found that only 20% of all the adoptees had become parents and, of this group, 20% had difficulties in parenting (i.e. 80% were problem-free). It is possible that the better adjusted adoptees were the ones who chose to be parents.

Both sets of data suggest a strong lasting effect on emotional development.

When first arrived in the UK, half the adoptees showed signs of physical and intellectual problems and the majority were severely undernourished. At the time of adoption, the differential rates of recovery that were related to their age at adoption were: 77 for children adopted before the age of six months was between six months and two years, and 77 for those who remained at age 16 (Beckett *et al.* 2010). The damage to intellectual development as a result of institutionalisation before adoption takes place before the age





## Evaluation

### Application to child and family social work

One strength of the ERA research is its application to improve the prospects of children growing up without parental care.

Just over 100,000 children in the UK are 'looked after', i.e. separated from their families and living with adoptive or foster families or in children's homes. There are no longer orphanages as such in the UK, but there are over 3,000 children's homes providing institutional care to children who cannot live with their families for a variety of reasons. Studying the Romanian adoptees has improved our understanding of the effects of institutional care and how to prevent them. For example, children's homes are now small and employ fewer caregivers. Children have one or two 'key workers' who become attachment figures and play a central role in emotional care. Even good quality institutional care is seen as the least desirable option for looked-after children, and efforts are made to house looked-after children in foster care or to have them adopted.

This means that looked-after children now have a better chance of healthy emotional development.

### Extraneous variables

Another strength of the ERA studies is the lack of **extraneous variables**.

There were many adoptee studies before the Romanian adoptees became available to study (e.g. adoptees studied during the Second World War). Many of the children studied in orphanages had experienced varying degrees of trauma, and it is difficult to disentangle the effects of neglect, physical abuse and bereavement from those of institutional care. However, in the case of the Romanian adoptees, the decision to place them in an institution was not because of earlier emotional neglect.

This means that results were much less likely to be affected by other negative early experiences (higher **internal validity**).

### Methodological limitations

One limitation of adoptee studies like the ERA project is that they are natural experiments, not true experiments.

One problem with natural experiments is that participants are not **randomly allocated** to conditions. This means we cannot be sure that the independent variable (quality of care) was the only variable that affected the dependent variable (e.g. attachment style). In the ERA study, the independent variable was institutional care (the Romanian adoptees) or no institutional care (the control group of UK adoptees). It could be that the better developmental outcomes in the control group were due to better early nutrition rather than the quality of their care in infancy.

This means that we do not know for certain that it was the quality of early care that determined the differences between the two groups.

**Counterpoint** Mark Wade *et al.* (2022) conducted the Bucharest Early Intervention Project (BEIP). In this study, children were randomly allocated to either foster family homes or institutional care. Researchers found very similar results to the ERA study.

This means that there is no reason to believe that the results of the ERA study were biased by the methodology.

## Evaluation eXtra

### Social sensitivity

The ERA study is **socially sensitive** because the results show that late-adopted children typically have poorer developmental outcomes. Results have been published while the children have been growing up, meaning that their parents, teachers and anyone else who knew them might have lowered their expectations and treated the adopted children differently. This might even have created a **self-fulfilling prophecy**.

On the other hand, much has been learned from the Romanian adoptees studies that might benefit future institutionalised or potentially institutionalised children.

**Consider:** Should the results of the Romanian adoptees studies have been published?



Romanian institutional care may have been of such bad quality that results cannot be generalised to other institutions. However, other studies of the effects of institutional care (e.g. Zeanah *et al.* 2005) have found similar effects.

### Apply it

#### Concepts

#### Nadia

Nadia was adopted when she was two years old. Prior to this she had lived in a children's home. Now at the age of 11 she is doing well at school but her parents and teachers have noticed that she has a tendency to be attention-seeking with familiar people and strangers. Her adoptive parents wonder if this could be related to her early experiences before being adopted.

#### Question

Referring to the effects of institutionalisation, explain why Nadia may be showing this unusual social behaviour.

### Apply it

#### Concepts

#### Irena

Irena was adopted by British parents when she was 16 months old. Prior to this, she had lived in a poor quality Romanian orphanage. At the age of 16 she did not pass her GCSEs like most of her friends. A family friend (a pretty rubbish friend) says to Irena's adoptive mother, 'Can you expect much with her background?' What would you say to her?

#### Question

Referring to what you know about the effects of institutionalisation on attachment, explain what you would say to the family friend.

### Check it

1. Briefly outline what is meant by 'institutionalisation'.
2. Outline what research has found about the effects of 'institutionalisation' on attachment.
3. Describe and evaluate research into the effects of institutionalisation on attachment. Refer to the English and Romanian Adoptees project in your answer. [12 marks AS, 16 marks AL]

Our revisions have aimed to include very up-to-date research.

### Exam focus

The ultimate aim of the textbook is to help students do well in the exam. Therefore exam-style questions are provided on every spread to help students focus on how they will have to use the contents of the spread. You can find more questions in our companion *Revision Guide*.

# Content is designed to meet exam needs

## Obedience: Situational explanations

### The specification says...

Explanations for obedience: agentic state and legitimacy of authority.

On the previous spread we explored situational *variables* that influence levels of obedience – proximity, location and uniform. This is one way to explain why people obey – they obey because of characteristics of people around them. Now we turn to two further explanations which are situational but this time concern the dynamics of social hierarchies.

### Key terms

**Agentic state** A mental state where we feel no personal responsibility for our behaviour because we believe ourselves to be acting for an authority figure, i.e. as their agent. This frees us from the demands of our consciences and allows us to obey even a destructive authority figure.

**Legitimacy of authority** An explanation for obedience which suggests that we are more likely to obey people who we perceive to have authority over us. This authority is justified (i.e. legitimate) by the individual's position of authority within a social hierarchy.

### Explaining key terms

On each spread the key terms are explained, plus there is a Glossary at the end of the book for those terms that are emboldened in the text.

### Apply it

#### Concepts I will obey

Max's younger sister finds out that he has a bag of sweets. 'Give me one of those sweets,' she demands, trying to snatch the bag from his hand. But Max refuses. Just then, Max's dad comes into the room. He has finally had enough, so he tells Max: 'Your room is a complete disgrace, go and tidy it up immediately. And when you've done that, you can go to the shops and get me a loaf of bread.' Max replies, 'Certainly dad, I'll go and do that right now.'

#### Question

Use your knowledge of why people obey to explain Max's behaviour. Refer to both the agentic state and legitimacy of authority explanations.

Memorial to the 504 victims of the My Lai massacre near Quang Ngai, Vietnam.



### Agentic state

Stanley Milgram's initial interest in **obedience** was sparked by the trial of Adolf Eichmann in 1961 for war crimes. Eichmann had been in charge of the Nazi death camps and his defence was that he was only obeying orders. This led Milgram to propose that obedience to destructive authority occurs because a person does not take responsibility. Instead they believe they are acting for someone else, i.e. that they are an 'agent'. An 'agent' is someone who acts for, or in place of, another.

An agent is not an unfeeling puppet – they experience high anxiety ('moral strain') when they realise that what they are doing is wrong, but feel powerless to disobey.

### Autonomous state

The opposite of being in an **agentic state** is being in an **autonomous state**. 'Autonomy' means to be independent or free. So a person in an autonomous state is free to behave according to their own principles and feels a sense of responsibility for their own actions.

The shift from autonomy to 'agency' is called the **agentic shift**. Milgram (1974) suggested that this occurs when a person perceives someone else as an authority figure. The authority figure has greater power because they have a higher position in a **social hierarchy**. In most social groups, when one person is in charge others defer to the legitimate authority (see below) of this person and shift from autonomy to agency.

### Binding factors

Milgram observed that many of his participants said they wanted to stop but seemed powerless to do so. He wondered why they remained in an agentic state. The answer is **binding factors** – aspects of the situation that allow the person to ignore or minimise the damaging effect of their behaviour and thus reduce the 'moral strain' they are feeling. Milgram proposed a number of strategies that the individual uses, such as shifting the responsibility to the victim ('he was foolish to volunteer') or denying the damage they were doing to the victims.

### Legitimacy of authority

Most societies are structured in a hierarchical way. This means that people in certain positions hold authority over the rest of us. For example, parents and caregivers, teachers, police officers, nightclub door supervisors... all have authority over us at times. The authority they wield is legitimate in the sense that it is agreed by society. Most of us accept that authority figures have to be allowed to exercise social power over others because this allows society to function smoothly.

One of the consequences of this **legitimacy of authority** is that some people are granted the power to punish others. We generally agree that the police and courts have the power to punish wrongdoers. So we are willing to give up some of our independence and to hand over control of our behaviour to people we trust to exercise their authority appropriately. We learn acceptance of legitimate authority from childhood, from caregivers initially and then teachers and adults generally.

### Destructive authority

Problems arise when legitimate authority becomes destructive. History has too often shown that charismatic and powerful leaders (such as Hitler, Stalin and Pol Pot) can use their legitimate powers for destructive purposes, ordering people to behave in ways that are cruel and dangerous. Destructive authority was obvious in Milgram's study, when the Experimenter used prods to order participants to behave in ways that went against their consciences.

### Apply it

#### Concepts

#### Massacre at My Lai

Milgram's findings have been used to explain the notorious war crime at My Lai in 1968 during the Vietnam War. American soldiers killed at least 504 unarmed civilians. The soldiers attacked women and shot people down as they emerged from their homes with their hands in the air. The soldiers blew up buildings, burned the village to the ground and killed all the animals. Only one soldier faced charges and was found guilty, Lt William Calley. His defence was the same as the Nazi officers at the Nuremberg trials, that he was only doing his duty by following orders.

#### Question

Explain the behaviour of the American soldiers using the concepts of agentic state and legitimacy of authority.





## Carefully constructed three-tier evaluation points (Assessment objective 3)

Elaboration is the key criterion for good evaluation.

Our evaluation points demonstrate how to achieve elaboration using PET:

- State the Point.
- Explain the point using Evidence and Elaboration.
- This shows ... OR Therefore we can conclude...  
Start the conclusion with a word beginning with T – this prompts students to draw a conclusion.



## Evaluation

### Research support

One strength is that Milgram's own study showed that most of his participants resisted giving the Experimenter questions about the procedure. One of the questions was 'I'm responsible if Mr Wallace (the Learner) is harmed?' When the Experimenter replied 'I'm responsible', the participants often went through the procedure quickly with no further objections.

This shows that once participants perceived they were no longer responsible for their own behaviour, they acted more easily as the Experimenter's agent, as Milgram suggested.

### A limited explanation

One limitation is that the agentic shift cannot explain the results of Milgram's variations (see previous spread).

Megan Birney *et al.* (2024) point out that the extent to which obedience rates varied in different situations suggests that obedience is a product of the situation rather than simply a 'natural inclination to obey'. The agentic state explanation would predict high levels of obedience regardless of the situation, whereas obedience varied from 0% to 100%.

This suggests that all the characteristics of the situation need to be taken into account (rather than simply the agentic shift in response to orders).

## Evaluation eXtra

### Obedience alibi revisited

David Mandel (1998) described one incident in the Second World War involving German Reserve Police Battalion 101. These men shot many civilians in a small town in Poland, despite not having direct orders to do so (they were told they could be assigned to other duties if they preferred), i.e. they behaved autonomously.

**Consider:** As the men of Battalion 101 were not ordered to murder civilians, how does their behaviour challenge the agentic state explanation?

## Evaluation

### Explains cultural differences

One strength of the legitimacy explanation is that it is a useful account of cultural differences in obedience.

Many studies show that countries differ in the degree to which people are obedient to authority. For example, Wesley Kilham and Leon Mann (1974) found that only 16% of Australian women went all the way up to 450 volts in a Milgram-style study. However, David Mantell (1971) found a very different figure for German participants – 85%.

This shows that, in some cultures, authority is more likely to be accepted as legitimate and entitled to demand obedience from individuals. This reflects the ways that different societies are structured and how children are raised to perceive authority figures.

### Cannot explain all (dis)obedience

One limitation is that legitimacy cannot explain instances of disobedience in a hierarchy where the legitimacy of authority is clear and accepted.

This includes the nurses in Rank and Jacobson's (1977) study (see Apply it on page 21). Most of them were disobedient despite working in a hierarchical authority structure. Also, a minority of Milgram's participants disobeyed despite recognising the Experimenter's scientific authority.

This suggests that some people may just be more (or less) obedient than others (see next spread). It is possible that innate tendencies to obey or disobey have a greater influence on behaviour than the legitimacy of an authority figure.

## Evaluation eXtra

### Real-world crimes of obedience

Rank and Jacobson (see above) found that nurses were prepared to disobey a legitimate authority (a doctor).

But Herbert Kelman and Lee Hamilton (1989) argue that a real-world crime of obedience (the My Lai massacre, see Apply it on the facing page) can be understood in terms of the power hierarchy of the US Army. Commanding officers (COs) operate within a clearer legitimate hierarchy than hospital doctors and have a greater power to punish.

**Consider:** How does this support the legitimacy of authority explanation?

## Apply it Methods

### An obedience survey

A psychologist was interested in the attitudes that students have towards obedience. He wanted to know whether the students thought obeying the orders of an authority figure was desirable or not. He also wanted to know what factors influenced the students' attitudes towards authority figures.

He produced a questionnaire and distributed it to 200 students at a local school. When he returned the next day with the questionnaires, he found that 150 had completed it.

#### Questions

1. Identify two methods the psychologist could have used to select a sample of students. Explain one strength and one limitation of these methods. (2 marks + 2 marks)
2. Explain one strength and one limitation of using a questionnaire. (2 marks + 2 marks)
3. In terms of questionnaires, explain what is meant by closed questions and open questions. (2 marks + 2 marks)
4. Give one example of a closed question and one example of an open question the psychologist could have used in his study. (2 marks + 2 marks)
5. Calculate the number of completed questionnaires as a percentage of the total distributed. (1 mark)

## Study tip

A great way to evaluate an explanation is to consider the research evidence that supports or contradicts it. But make sure you use the evidence effectively. Focus on explaining how the evidence supports or challenges the theory. Don't get sidetracked into describing the evidence at length.

You can go even further with your evaluation. Are there any limitations with the evidence itself? Are there any problems with the research method, for example? Make sure you also show how this supports (or otherwise) the explanation.

## Check it

1. Outline what is meant by 'agentic state' and 'legitimacy of authority'. [2 marks + 2 marks]
2. Explain one limitation of the agentic state explanation for obedience. Refer to Milgram's research in your answer. [4 marks]
3. Outline and evaluate one or more explanations of obedience. [12 marks AS, 16 marks AL]

## Application (Assessment objective 2)

This counts for 1/3 of the total exam marks – so we have provided lots of opportunities to practise this skill both for the page content (Apply it Concepts) and for research methods (Apply it Methods).

# Special care taken with socially-sensitive topics

## Definitions in the field of mental health (1)

### The specification says...

Definitions in the field of mental health: deviation from ideal mental health, deviation from social/cultural norms.

This chapter is concerned with clinical psychology and mental health.

Psychology encompasses emotional, cognitive and social well-being. It explores how we cope with the everyday challenges of life and how we relate to other people. It also explores the ways in which we are able to cope with stress.

Psychology offers a range of treatments for mental health problems. It also offers a range of treatment – a 'clinic' where people can go to get care or advice for a mental condition.

**Deviation from ideal mental health** When someone does not meet the criteria for good mental health.

**Deviation from social/cultural norms** Concerns behaviour that is different from the accepted standards of behaviour in a community or society.

Mahatma Gandhi – a perfect example of someone who has reached self-actualisation. (Note his early views have been criticised as being shaped by racial prejudices of the time, but he later became very anti-racism, reflecting his journey of personal growth.)



### Study tip

We have covered four definitions altogether (on this spread and the next spread). It is most important that you know all four of these definitions – and that you can give a detailed explanation of each one.

One way of providing detail is to use examples, so don't ignore these.

One other word of advice – a good way of demonstrating your understanding is being able to apply it to cases like that of Pondlife (see next spread), so make sure you can answer our questions in the Apply it features.

## Deviation from ideal mental health

If we can define what mental health is, this then enables us to look for signs of **deviation from ideal mental health**.

### What does ideal mental health look like?

Marie Jahoda (1958) suggested that we are in good mental health if we meet the following criteria:

- We have no symptoms or distress.
- We are rational and can perceive ourselves accurately.
- We **self-actualise** (strive to reach our potential).
- We can cope with stress.
- We have a realistic view of the world.
- We have good **self-esteem** and lack guilt.
- We are independent of other people.
- We can successfully work, love and enjoy our leisure.

Inevitably there is some overlap between 'deviation from ideal mental health' and all the other definitions (on this spread and the next spread). The main feature of this definition is that it is positive because it focuses on ideal mental health instead of deviation.

## Deviation from social/cultural norms

Most of us notice people whose behaviour represents a **deviation from social/cultural norms**, i.e. when a person behaves in a way that is different from how most people behave. Groups of people (hence 'social') and different cultures usually define behaviour as a sign of poor mental health on the basis that it offends their sense of what is 'acceptable' or the **norm**. We are making a collective judgement as a society about what is right.

### Variations in social/cultural norms

Of course those social/cultural norms may be different for each generation and different in every culture, so there are relatively few behaviours that would be considered a *universal* sign of poor mental health on the basis that they breach social/cultural norms. For example, homosexuality was once classified as a mental health condition, contributing to the negative treatment of the LGBTQ+ community. While this view has been widely discredited, it continues to persist in some cultures where homosexuality remains illegal (e.g. as of September 2024, it is punishable by death in six countries).

### Example: Antisocial personality disorder

A person with **antisocial personality disorder** (formerly called 'psychopathy') is impulsive, aggressive and irresponsible. According to the **DSM-5-TR** (the manual used by psychiatrists to diagnose mental health conditions), one important symptom of antisocial personality disorder is a failure to conform to lawful and ethical behaviour.

In other words we are making the social judgement that people with antisocial personality disorder are considered to have a mental health condition because they don't conform to our moral standards. Their behaviour would be considered undesirable in a very wide range of cultures.

### Apply it

#### Concepts

#### Paraphilias

One thing that has changed over time is that psychologists have generally become less inclined to classify people as lacking mental health simply on the basis of one definition. For example, we used to define **paraphilias** (unusual sexual behaviours) on the basis that they were deviations from social/cultural norms. This meant, for example, that when homosexuality was less socially acceptable it was classified as a paraphilia.

This would not happen now. In the DSM-5-TR system, paraphilias are only classified as mental health conditions if they involve harm or distress to the person themselves or to other people. So exhibitionism (flashing) and paedophilia (attraction to children) are still considered as mental health conditions because they cause harm and distress as well as being deviations from social/cultural norms. Consensual sadomasochism deviates from social/cultural norms but is no longer considered to be a mental health condition.

#### Question

Explain how our modern understanding of paraphilias is based on several of the definitions considered on this spread and the next spread.

### Thoroughly updated chapters to enhance DEI

In Chapter 5 the new specification now focuses on mental health rather than psychopathology or abnormality.

The definitions in the field of mental health have been revised, as shown here.

### Study tips throughout

On this spread our study tip discusses ways to produce detailed descriptions.



## Evaluation

### A comprehensive definition

One strength of the ideal mental health criterion is that it is highly comprehensive.

Jahoda's concept of 'ideal mental health' covers most of the reasons why we might seek (or be referred for) help with mental health. An individual's mental health can be discussed meaningfully with a range of professionals who might take different theoretical views, e.g. a medically-trained psychiatrist might focus on symptoms whereas a **humanistic** counsellor might be more interested in self-actualisation.

This means that ideal mental health provides a checklist against which we can assess ourselves and others and discuss psychological issues with a range of professionals.

### May be culture-bound

One limitation of the ideal mental health criterion is that its different elements are not equally applicable across a range of cultures.

Some of Jahoda's criteria for ideal mental health are firmly located in the context of the US and Europe generally. In particular the concept of self-actualisation would probably be dismissed as self-indulgent in much of the world. Even within Europe there is quite a bit of variation in the value placed on personal independence, e.g. high in Germany, low in Italy.

This means that it is difficult to apply the concept of ideal mental health from one culture to another.

## Evaluation extra

### Extremely high standards

Very few of us attain all of Jahoda's criteria for mental health, and probably none of us achieve all of them at the same time or keep them up for very long. It can be disheartening to see an impossible set of standards to live up to.

On the other hand having such a comprehensive set of criteria for mental health to work towards might be of practical value to someone wanting to understand and improve their mental health.

**Consider:** Is it helpful to have a comprehensive set of criteria for mental health?

## Evaluation

### Real-world application

One strength of deviation from social/cultural norms is its usefulness.

Deviation from social/cultural norms is used in clinical practice. For example, the key defining characteristic of antisocial personality disorder is the failure to conform to culturally acceptable ethical behaviour, i.e. recklessness, aggression, violating the rights of others and deceitfulness. These signs are all deviations from social/cultural norms. Such norms also play a part in the diagnosis of **schizotypal personality disorder** (pronounced difficulties with relationships due to the belief that others harbour negative thoughts about them). The thinking of such individuals is often characterised as 'odd' or 'eccentric'.

This shows that the deviation from social/cultural norms criterion has value in psychiatry.

### Love of the familiar

One limitation of deviation from social/cultural norms is that it allows people to impose a narrow range of acceptable behaviours on others.

Zsuzsanna Chappell and Sofia Jeppsson (2023) suggest that people are reassured by 'typical behaviour' and disturbed by deviations (a 'fear of weirdness'). It is problematic if clinicians impose their own social/cultural norms on clients because of their own love of the familiar and fear of deviation. The clinician is then disregarding that person's own judgement of their well-being and imposing their own standards on their client.

This means that the concept of deviation from social/cultural norms as a criterion for mental health may limit personal freedoms.

## Evaluation extra

### Human rights abuses

Using deviation from social/cultural norms to define someone carries the risk of unfair labelling and leaving them open to abuse. In the past, diagnoses like *nymphomania* (women who have been used to control women, or diagnoses like *drapetomania* (runaway slaves) were a way to control enslaved individuals and avoid rebellion.

On the other hand it can be argued that we need to be able to diagnose conditions such as antisocial personality disorder.

**Consider:** Is the use of deviation from social/cultural norms as a criterion for mental health?

She's refusing to conform to social/cultural norms. Is that just eccentricity or a mental health issue?



### Illustrations

Unusual illustrations have been selected to engage students' interest.

The ultimate aim of defining mental health is to use these concepts to help classify mental health conditions and diagnose people experiencing mental health problems.

However, some people can deviate from ideal mental health and deviate from social/cultural norms without being seen as deviant. Therefore they shouldn't be diagnosed with a mental health condition.

### Apply it

#### Concepts SPD

In the past there were examples of mental health conditions that have been invented in order to control how people live. But are any modern diagnoses open to the same criticism?

Schizotypal personality disorder (SPD) is defined largely by deviation from social/cultural norms. Individuals are characterised by eccentric behaviour, including superstition and beliefs in the supernatural that deviate from their cultural norms. They may also see flashes and shadows that are not seen by others and presumably are not real. This personality type is often found in families where relatives have a diagnosis of schizophrenia.

#### Question

Is it a reasonable approach to define schizotypal personality as a mental health condition or is it a human rights abuse?

### Check it

Explain what is meant by deviation from ideal mental health as a definition in the field of mental health. [4 marks]

One limitation of the deviation from ideal mental health criterion in the field of mental health. [3 marks]

What is meant by deviation from social/cultural norms as a definition in the field of mental health. [4 marks]

And evaluate two definitions in the field of mental health. [12 marks AS, 16 marks AL]

### Evaluation is not just about strengths and limitations

Some exam questions use the command term 'Discuss' so we have added an 'Evaluation extra' to encourage this skill.

On some spreads you will also find a 'Counterpoint'. Again this aims to encourage the idea of discussion and presenting balanced evaluation.



# Engaging Research Methods content

Research methods is the most important topic

It accounts for at least 25% of the final AS-level mark. At AS-level each of the other five topics are worth only 15% of the final mark.

At A-level research methods is still worth at least 25% which means that each other topic is worth less than 7% of the final mark!

If students want to do well, they really need to master the research methods content.

## Experimental method

### The specification says...

Experimental method.

stating aims, the difference between aims and hypotheses.

Hypotheses: directional and non-directional.

Variables: manipulation of variables including independent and dependent; operationalisation of

Students are able to draw upon a number of research methods as part of their research but one of the most often used is the experimental method.

### Terms

**Experimental method** Involves the manipulation of the independent variable (IV) to measure the effect on the dependent variable (DV).

**Aim** A general statement of what the researcher intends to investigate, the purpose of the study.

**Hypothesis** A clear, precise, testable statement that states the relationship between the variables to be investigated. Stated at the outset of any study.

**Directional hypothesis** States the direction of the difference or relationship.

**Non-directional hypothesis** Does not state the direction of the difference or relationship.

**Variables** Any 'thing' that can vary or change within an investigation. Variables are generally used in experiments to determine if changes in one thing result in changes to another.

**Independent variable (IV)** Some aspect of the experimental situation that is manipulated by the researcher – or changes naturally – so the effect on the DV can be measured.

**Dependent variable (DV)** The variable that is measured by the researcher. Any effect on the DV should be caused by the change in the IV.

**Operationalisation** Clearly defining variables in terms of how they can be measured.

## Experimental method

### Aims

We have a theory that energy drinks affect how much people talk. This is based on our understanding (having read a few research studies) that energy drinks contain sugar and caffeine, and that these substances increase alertness, making people 'chattier'. As luck would have it, a new energy drink – *SpeedUp* – has come on to the market and we're keen to know whether it might affect the talkativeness of those who drink it.

Now that we have an initial idea, the next step is to narrow the focus of our research to produce an **aim**. In psychological research, aims are developed from **theories**, like our energy drink theory above except, in psychology, the theories tend to be much more sophisticated and are based on many more hours of research! Aims are general statements that describe the purpose of an investigation. In the case of our investigation, the aim would be something along the lines of:

*To investigate whether drinking energy drinks makes people more talkative.*

### Hypotheses

Having written an aim, we now need to formulate a **hypothesis**. A hypothesis is a statement that is made at the start of a study and clearly describes the relationship between variables as stated by the theory. In the case of our investigation this might be:

*Drinking SpeedUp causes people to become more talkative.*

Hypotheses can be directional or non-directional. In a **directional hypothesis** the researcher makes clear the sort of difference that is anticipated between two conditions or two groups of people. For this reason, directional hypotheses include words like more or less, higher or lower, faster or slower, etc.

*People who drink SpeedUp become more talkative than people who don't.*

*People who drink water are less talkative than people who don't.*

A **non-directional hypothesis** simply states that there is a difference between two conditions or groups of people but, unlike in a directional hypothesis, the direction of the difference is not specified.

*People who drink SpeedUp differ in talkativeness from people who don't drink SpeedUp.*

### Doing an experiment

We have decided to test our energy drink theory. Firstly, we are going to gather together a group of people. Then, starting with the first group, we will have them drink a can of *SpeedUp*. That's what you call people in studies! The second group will just have a glass of water. After a five-minute period, each participant says in a five-minute period.

### Deciding which type of hypothesis to use

Leaving aside the debate about whether or not energy drinks actually make people more talkative – but we are taking the whole design process slowly – we need to decide which type of hypothesis to use. How would it work (it probably wouldn't), which type of hypothesis would we choose?

Researchers tend to use a directional hypothesis when a theory or the findings of previous research studies suggest a particular outcome. When there is no theory or previous research, or findings from earlier studies are contradictory, researchers instead decide to use a non-directional hypothesis.

Even though *SpeedUp* is a new energy drink, the effects of caffeine and sugar on talkativeness are well-documented. Therefore we will opt for a directional hypothesis on this occasion.

### Making research methods concepts real

This chapter takes students through the design of an experiment on the energy drink called *SpeedUp*. This makes the content of the chapter readable – and also quite entertaining!



### Study tip

Writing clear and testable hypotheses is not easy.

When you read your hypothesis back to yourself, make sure (1) the IV and DV are clear and *measurable*, (2) you have stated the *relationship* between the IV and DV and not stated an aim, (3) you have selected the appropriate hypothesis, i.e. directional or non-directional, based on the information you have been given in the question.



Practical activity  
on pages 58 and 112

## Independent and dependent variables

In an experiment, a researcher changes or manipulates the **independent variable** (IV) and records or measures the effect of this change on the **dependent variable** (DV). All other variables that might potentially affect the DV should remain constant in a properly run experiment. This is so the researcher can be confident that any change in the DV was due to the influence of the IV, and the IV alone.

### Levels of the IV

In order to test the effect of the IV we need different **experimental conditions**. If we simply gave some participants *SpeedUp*, how would we know how talkative they were? We need a comparison. We could either:

- Compare participants' talkativeness before and after drinking *SpeedUp*.
- Compare two groups of participants – compare those who drink *SpeedUp* with those who drink water (which is the way we have described the study on the facing page).

In either case the two conditions are no *SpeedUp* or drinking *SpeedUp*. These are the two **levels** of the IV: the **control condition** (no *SpeedUp* / drink of water) and the experimental condition (energy drink).

A well-written hypothesis should make it easy to tell what the IV and DV are. May we proudly unveil the directional hypothesis we have written for our energy drink investigation comparing two groups of participants...

*The group that drinks an energy drink will be chattier than the group that drinks water.*

Note that this is different from the hypothesis on the facing page – hypotheses come in all shapes and sizes but are still correct as long as they state the **operationalised** variables and the relationship between them.

### Operationalisation of variables

So far, so good – except we have not yet managed to **operationalise** the variables in the hypothesis in order to make it testable.

Many of the things that psychologists are interested in, such as social behaviour, intelligence or thinking, are often a little fuzzy and not easy to define. Thus, in any study, one of the main tasks for the researcher is to ensure that the variables being investigated are as unfuzzy and measurable as possible.

So, a much better hypothesis than the one above would be:

*After drinking 300ml of SpeedUp, participants say more words in the next five minutes than participants who drink 300ml of water.*

See the difference? Now that our variables are operationalised and our hypothesis is complete, we're free to concentrate on more important things, such as how on earth we're going to count all the words that twenty people say in five minutes.

### Apply it Methods

#### Bringing it all together

For each of the aims of the investigations below, operationalise the IV and DV, and write a directional and non-directional hypothesis. (4 marks each)

1. To investigate whether high confidence levels in children affect their level of obedience.
2. To investigate whether a new drug (*Anxocalm*) reduces anxiety in patients with phobias, as compared with having no treatment.
3. To investigate whether yawning is contagious.
4. To investigate whether owning a goldfish has a positive effect on psychological well-being.
5. To investigate whether grey-haired people have more fun than people with other hair colours.



Are two tails better than one? Sometimes the terms 'two-tailed' and 'one-tailed' are used when describing a hypothesis instead of 'non-directional' and 'directional'. (Though strictly speaking they are not the same – directional is not the same as 'two-tailed'. A directional hypothesis requires a two-tailed test of significance ... to be explained later ...)

### Apply it Concepts

#### Directional or non-directional?

Decide whether the following hypotheses are directional or non-directional. What features/words in each hypothesis are important when making your choice? (2 marks each)

1. There is a difference in children's reading ability depending on whether they have blue or brown eyes.
2. Dogs that are rewarded with treats sit when told to do so more often than dogs that are not rewarded with treats.
3. There is a difference in the psychology grades of students depending on whether they are men or women.
4. Teenagers who watch horror films have more friends than teenagers who watch romantic comedies.

### Apply it Concepts

#### IVs and DVs

Identify the IVs and DVs in the examples below. (2 marks each)

1. Talking to a child will increase their language ability.
2. People are more aggressive on hot days.
3. Students may be late for school because they stayed up late the night before.
4. Watching horror films will make children have nightmares.
5. People will be rated as more attractive if they wear red.

### Check it

1. Explain the difference between an aim and a hypothesis. [2 marks]
2. Suggest **three** ways in which aggression could be operationalised. [3 marks]
3. Suggest **two** reasons why a psychologist might choose to use a non-directional hypothesis. [2 marks]

### Application

Many of the exam questions on research methods involve applying the concepts to research examples, so we provide lots of practice.

# Extra features in each chapter

## Revision summaries

### Definitions in the field of mental health

Deviation from ideal mental health	Deviation from social/cultural norms	Deviation from functional adequacy
<b>Definition</b> A state of mind where the individual is not functioning as well as they should be. <b>What does ideal mental health look like?</b> Includes lack of symptoms, rationality, self-actualisation, coping with stress, realistic world-view.	<b>Definition</b> Social/cultural judgments about what is acceptable. <b>Example: Antisocial personality disorder</b> Impulsive, aggressive, irresponsible behaviour is in fact socially unacceptable in many cultures.	<b>Definition</b> Inability to cope with demands of everyday life. <b>Example: Intellectual disability</b> IQ below 70 (bottom 2%) is part of the diagnosis of ID.
<b>Evaluation</b> A comprehensive definition includes most of the reasons anyone might seek help. <b>May be culture-bound</b> Some ideas e.g. self-actualisation are specific to US/European cultures, and independence values within European cultures (e.g. Germany, Japan, Italy).	<b>Evaluation</b> <b>Real-world application</b> Used to diagnose some mental health conditions e.g. antisocial and schizotypal personality disorder. <b>Love of the family</b> Mental health professionals have a bias towards 'typical' behaviour and a fear of 'weirdness' (Chappell and Jeppson). This limits personal freedom. <b>Evaluation extra: Human rights abuses</b> Social/cultural norm approach maintains control over minority groups, e.g. women (sympathetic) and enslaved African people (disrespectful), but useful e.g. for antisocial personality disorder.	<b>Evaluation</b> <b>Real-world application</b> Useful to diagnose (e.g. ID) and assess (e.g. BD) for depression. <b>Unusual characteristics can be positive</b> Some unusual characteristics would not be seen as mental health conditions e.g. high IQ. <b>Evaluation extra: Benefits versus problems</b> Some people with low IQ function adequately and don't benefit from being labelled (social stigma).

## Summaries for quick revision practice

## Multiple-choice questions

## Updated MCQs for more revision practice

### Conformity: Types and explanations

- Which of the following is a type of conformity?  
(a) Unanimity.  
(b) Internalisation.  
(c) Normative social influence.  
(d) Obedience.

- Which of the following is an explanation for conformity?  
(a) Compliance.  
(b) Informational social influence.  
(c) Obedience.  
(d) Internalisation.

- Which of the following statements best describes compliance?  
(a) Conforming to a majority because we want to be accepted or like to be doing.  
(b) Publicly and privately agreeing with the majority view.  
(c) Publicly agreeing with the majority but privately disagreeing.  
(d) Conforming to a majority because we want to be correct.

- Which of the following statements best describes normative social influence?  
(a) Going along with a group of people because we want to be liked by them.  
(b) Going along with a group of people because we don't know what we're doing.  
(c) Going along with other people even though we don't agree.  
(d) Going along with other people because we accept their views.

- Which of the following statements best describes normative social influence?  
(a) Going along with a group of people because we want to be liked by them.  
(b) Going along with a group of people because we don't know what we're doing.  
(c) Going along with other people even though we don't agree.  
(d) Going along with other people because we accept their views.

### Conformity: Variables affecting conformity

- The task in Asch's procedure was to:  
(a) Express political opinions.  
(b) Decide which club to go to.  
(c) Answer questions on musical tastes.  
(d) Judge line lengths.

- What did Asch find about group size?  
(a) Conformity kept increasing with group size.  
(b) Conformity decreased as group size increased.  
(c) Conformity increased with group size but only to a point.  
(d) Increasing group size had no effect on conformity.

- What did Asch find about unanimity?  
(a) Conformity stayed the same whether the majority was unanimous or not.  
(b) A unanimous majority had the greatest effect on conformity.  
(c) When a confederate disagreed with the majority, conformity increased.  
(d) A divided majority had the greatest effect on conformity.

### What did Asch find about task difficulty?

- Conformity decreased when the task became more difficult.  
(b) Conformity increased when the task became more difficult.  
(c) Increasing task difficulty had no effect on conformity.  
(d) The task was too difficult for the naïve participants.

### Obedience

- Milgram's participants were \_\_\_\_\_ who thought the study was about \_\_\_\_\_.  
(a) Volunteers, memory.  
(b) Women, obedience.  
(c) Children, conformity.  
(d) German people, obedience.

- The fourth and final prod given to the participants was:  
(a) 'It is absolutely essential that you continue.'  
(b) 'Please go on.'  
(c) 'You have no other choice, you must go on.'  
(d) 'The experiment requires that you continue.'

- In Milgram's findings, 65% of the participants:  
(a) Refused to continue at the start of the procedure.  
(b) Obeyed at the start of the procedure.  
(c) Went to the top of the shock scale.  
(d) Went to 300V and then refused to continue.

- Gina Perry claimed \_\_\_\_\_ of Milgram's participants knew the shocks were fake.  
(a) A quarter.  
(b) Half.  
(c) All.  
(d) Two-thirds.

### Obedience: Situational variables

- What did Milgram find out about proximity in his variations?  
(a) Obedience increased when the Experimenter issued his instructions over the phone.  
(b) Obedience decreased when the Teacher and Learner were physically closer.  
(c) Most participants obeyed even when they had to put the Learner's hand on a shock plate.  
(d) The physical proximity of Experimenter, Teacher and Learner had the smallest effect.

- What did Milgram find out about location in his variations?  
(a) Obedience decreased when the study was conducted in a run-down office block.  
(b) The high status and reputation of Yale University made no difference when the study was moved to a run-down office building.  
(c) Most participants still obeyed when the study was moved to a run-down office building.  
(d) Proximity had the greatest effect on obedience.

## Phobias

An anxiety disorder.

Characteristics	Behavioural explanation	Systematic desensitisation (SD)	Flooding
<b>Behavioural</b> Panic – scream or run away. Avoidance – conscious effort to avoid. Endurance – may stay and bear it. <b>Emotional</b> Anxiety – unpleasant state of high arousal, can be long term. Fear – short-lasting, more intense. Emotional response is unreasonable/disproportionate to threat. <b>Cognitive</b> Selective attention to the phobic stimulus – can't look away. Irrational beliefs – unfounded beliefs.	<b>Two-process model</b> Two processes of conditioning (Mowrer). <b>Process 1: Acquisition by classical conditioning</b> UCS linked to NS, then both produce UCR (fear), now called the CR. E.g. Late Albert played with rat (NS), heard loud noise (UCS), then rat (now CS) produces fear response (now CR). <b>Process 2: Maintenance by operant conditioning</b> Avoidance of phobic stimulus negatively reinforced by anxiety reduction, so the phobia is maintained. <b>Evaluation</b> <b>Real-world application</b> Using exposure therapy, phobias successfully treated by preventing avoidance, as suggested by the model. <b>An incomplete explanation</b> Behavioural explanation fails to account for cognitive aspects of phobias, e.g. size estimates of phobic stimuli (Li and Graham). <b>Phobias and traumatic experiences</b> 73% of people with a dental phobia had past trauma, in control	<b>Anxiety hierarchy</b> A list of situations ranked for how much anxiety they produce. <b>Relaxation</b> Relaxation techniques – relaxation and anxiety can't happen at the same time. Relaxation includes imagery and/or breathing techniques. <b>Exposure</b> Exposure to phobic stimulus whilst relaxed at each level of the anxiety hierarchy. <b>Evaluation</b> <b>Supporting evidence</b> Meta-analysis showed high effectiveness for treating specific phobias (Ogden et al.). <b>Limited application</b> Exposure is less effective for people with low self-efficacy and high trait anxiety (Bolin et al.). <b>Evaluation extra: Symptom</b>	<b>What is it?</b> Exposes clients to a very frightening situation without a build-up. <b>How does flooding work?</b> Works by extinction of the conditioned fear response. <b>Ethical safeguards</b> Clients must give informed consent and be prepared for flooding. <b>Evaluation</b> <b>Cost-effective</b> Clinically effective and not expensive, may take only one long session. <b>Traumatic</b> Based on more stressful than SD (Schumacher et al.). OK if informed consent provided. Sensitisation leads to high attrition rates. <b>Evaluation extra: Symptom</b>

## Practice questions, answers and feedback

## Student answers with expert comments

<b>Question 1</b> Bowlby identified the idea of monotropy in his monotypic theory of attachment. Briefly outline what is meant by 'monotropy'. (2 marks)	<b>Morticia has identified two key elements of monotropy. However, both points are simplistic – the special relationship doesn't have to be with the mother and Morticia fails to say why the relationship is important for development.</b>
<b>Question 2</b> Rubina is a one-year-old girl. Her mother is a popstar who is abroad on tour for weeks at a time. During this time Dani is Rubina's primary caregiver and Rubina has become very attached to Dani. Explain one way in which learning theory could account for Rubina's attachment to Dani. (4 marks)	<b>Once again Morticia has shown that she has an understanding of the relevant concepts and that she can apply them. However, she does not provide enough detail. Luke has used a selection of technical terms from classical conditioning and provided a detailed answer. Luke has also introduced Bowlby's idea of safety conditioning (see page 71). There is enough here for a 4-mark response.</b>
<b>Question 3</b> Briefly evaluate Bowlby's theory of maternal deprivation. (3 marks)	<b>Unfortunately Morticia has focused on Bowlby's monotypic theory of attachment. There is some marginal relevance in what is written.</b>
<b>Question 4</b> Briefly evaluate Bowlby's theory of maternal deprivation. (3 marks)	<b>Luke has focused on one limitation only but there is nothing in the response to suggest this is not a legitimate approach. This is a reasonably well-elaborated point.</b>

### On this spread...

...We look at some typical student answers to questions. The comments provided indicate what is good and bad in each answer. Learning how to produce effective answers is a SKILL. Read pages 199–209 for guidance.

<b>Question 5</b> Discuss animal studies of attachment, including research by Lorenz and Harlow. (12 marks AS, 16 marks AL)	<b>Luke's answer:</b> Animal studies of attachment are useful because you can't do the same kinds of things practically or ethically with humans, so they give support to theories like Bowlby's theory. In this essay I am going to describe and evaluate Lorenz's research on imprinting and Harlow's research on contact comfort. Both were important in the development of Bowlby's theory. Before Bowlby's theory there was also learning theory and this research was important in showing that learning theory was wrong. <b>Lorenz did research with geese and goslings. He had a group of geese eggs and when one hatched the first thing they saw was Lorenz. They followed him around. To test this Lorenz put a whole lot of young geese together, some of them had imprinted on their real mother. As expected the ones that imprinted on Lorenz followed him instead of their real mother. Bowlby based his idea of attachment on imprinting and said that babies become attached like geese imprint – because it makes them more likely to survive as they stick close to an adult and are less likely to be eaten.</b> <b>Harlow's study was with baby monkeys. He had observed that baby monkeys often preferred to be in cages with their mother if you gave them a soft cloth to cuddle. He set up an experiment to test this where there were two wire mothers. One of the mothers was just wire-covered whereas the other was covered in cloth. The monkeys were kept all the time in a cage just with these two wire mothers. The monkeys spent their time with the cloth-covered mother not the other one which shows that contact comfort is important in attachment.</b> <b>The big issue with these studies is how much they tell us about human attachment. In the case of geese they are quite different from humans because the attachment system is much more advanced. Research with monkeys is better because they are mammals too.</b> <b>Lorenz also investigated the relationship between imprinting and mate preferences. He observed that a peacock tried to mate with a tortoise because it had been raised in a reptile house.</b> <b>Harlow did an experiment with monkeys kept in a cage with two wire mothers. In one condition the feeding bottle was on a wire mother with no covering. In another condition the bottle was on the other wire mother, which was covered in cloth. The monkeys always preferred the mother covered in cloth, which shows that feeding is not important in attachment.</b> <b>The research by both Lorenz and Harlow has been very valuable for understanding attachment and how early attachment affects later behaviour. There is support for imprinting from Regolin and Vallortigra who observed that chicks imprint on or follow them when they moved. Later research on attachment support comes from difficulties later in life.</b> <b>There is the important issue of ethics. In both these studies development was affected by the research. For example, Lorenz was disturbed because they were raised in isolation. But it is because, on the other hand, this research has been theories but also in the way children are treated. In the risk factors in child abuse.</b> <b>A major issue is how much these studies can be in the case of geese there is much that is quite different from imprinting so it is a bit of the behaviour of birds. There is a stronger at humans, as they are genetically very similar ways. For example, they do not have such a permanent relationship. Their behaviour is humans, which means that their behaviour than their capacity to think about how to do.</b>	<b>Luke's essay is an AS response whereas Vladimir's is an A level response.</b> <b>Apart from a hint of a discussion point at the beginning, there is not really anything of value in Luke's first paragraph. Many students waste important time with introductory paragraphs.</b> <b>The second paragraph is better, though elements of the Lorenz description are poorly expressed. However, there is effective use of evidence at the end of the paragraph.</b> <b>In the third paragraph a second animal study is described in reasonable detail (Harlow's research with rhesus monkeys).</b> <b>Luke has spent a lot of time on these descriptive details leaving little time for the equally important discussion. At AS, half the marks are for discussion so it is important to get the balance right. In this essay he would not have time to write as much again for the discussion. So he needs to practise in advance how to describe studies/theories in detail but using minimal words. The next example essay illustrates how the discussion can be done much more briefly but still with detail.</b> <b>This is an excellent essay that is extremely well written and clear throughout. The studies at the beginning of the answer are concisely presented but contain all the relevant details. Perhaps Vladimir could have used the evidence in the first paragraphs a little more effectively by adding an implication/conclusion at the end of each paragraph – a bit of analysis. However, this is a minor point.</b> <b>In the 4th paragraph there is effective use of supporting evidence for both Lorenz and Harlow.</b>
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## Exam focus

The ultimate aim of the textbook is to help students produce the right kind of content in the exam. On this spread we look at where students go wrong.



## Practical corner

### The specification says...

Knowledge and understanding of research methods, practical research skills and mathematical skills. These skills should be developed through... ethical practical research activities.

This means that you should conduct practical investigations wherever possible. The topic of memory is ideally suited to experimental research. Questionnaires are also frequently used to gather data for analysis. The two practical activities on this spread give you an opportunity to use both of these methods.

### Ethics check

Ethics are discussed in detail on pages 164–165. We strongly suggest you complete this checklist before collecting data.

- Do participants know participation is voluntary?
- Do participants know what to expect?
- Do participants know they can withdraw at any time?
- Are individuals' results anonymous?
- Have I minimised the risk of distress to participants?
- Have I avoided asking sensitive questions?
- Will I avoid bringing my school/teacher/psychology into disrepute?
- Have I considered all other ethical issues?
- Has my teacher approved this?

### Creating your materials

For all groups you need a reasoning task (Task 1). You should construct a table for this. It should include ten sentences about the relationship between the letters A and B, plus space for the participants to record a response. You can use these five sentences to start you off:

Letters	Statement	TRUE	FALSE
AB	A follows B.		
BA	B is followed by A.		
BA	A does not come before B.		
AB	B is followed by A.		
BA	A follows B.		

### Apply it

#### Methods

### The maths bit 1

- Rewrite Table 1 on the right, giving all data to the nearest whole number. (2 marks)
- Calculate the mean and the range for each group/condition. (3 marks)
- Which type of graphical display would be appropriate to present the results in Table 1? (1 mark)

- Create a graph of the data in Table 1, using the graphical display you identified in the previous question. Remember to label your axes carefully. (3 marks)
- Based on the descriptive statistics, what conclusion could you draw about the effect of the verbal task on performance of the reasoning task? (2 marks)
- Do these findings support the working memory model? Explain your answer. (2 marks)

Table 1 Time taken to complete reasoning task (secs).

Condition A	Condition B
32.38	42.73
28.93	50.21
34.27	43.43
30.41	46.25
36.84	44.37
34.28	45.81
37.11	67.32
29.79	48.91
37.46	41.53
35.58	47.79

## Practical idea 1: Dual-task performance

Hitch and Baddeley (1976) tested their working memory model by considering the prediction that people can perform two tasks at the same time (**dual-task performance** – see page 47), as long as the tasks use different components of the working memory system, for example the tasks use the **phonological loop** and the **central executive**. If the task uses the same component, performance should be slowed down.

This practical is a **laboratory experiment** to investigate dual-task performance.

## The practical bit

### Designing your experiment

Your participants have to perform two tasks at the same time – a verbal task and a reasoning task. For some participants the two tasks will use the same component of working memory. All participants do Task 1, a reasoning task that uses the central executive. They are shown two letters, such as 'AB' and a statement 'B is followed by A', and asked to indicate if the statement is true or false (see 'Creating your materials', below left).

- Simultaneously participants do Task 2, either:
  - Condition A: Participants say 'the' repeatedly – this involves just the phonological loop.
  - Condition B: Participants generate random digits (i.e. just say any digits) – this involves both the central executive and the phonological loop.
  - Condition C: No additional task – this is a **control condition**.

The hypothesis is that participants in Condition B perform Task 1 more slowly than participants in Condition A or C because they will be performing two tasks that involve the central executive. You will use an **independent groups design** with three groups of participants (one each for Conditions A, B and C – though you don't have to include Condition C).

### Ethical issues

You can tackle ethical issues by writing a **consent form** and a **debriefing script**. One issue you should address is **confidentiality**. Your participants will probably not want their results to be made public or to risk being identified. Another issue is the **right to withdraw** at any point, which includes the right for participants to withdraw their data. Finally, you should consider **protection from psychological harm**. Some participants may feel that their performance is being evaluated. They may be worried that their memories are poor. For some other issues, see the 'Ethics check' box (left).

### Choosing your sample

You could use an **opportunity sampling** method. You're going to have to test participants individually, so you could just approach people in your school/college canteen or wherever, as long as you have somewhere quiet to go to.

### Analysing your data

You want to see if there are any differences between the groups of participants in the time taken to complete the reasoning task (the **dependent variable**). You could also consider the number of errors made.

## Practical idea 2: EWT and leading questions

Research has shown that various factors can affect the accuracy of eyewitness testimony. One of these factors is **leading questions**.

The aim of this study is to use a video clip to find out if leading questions affect eyewitness recall of an event. This is a **laboratory experiment** using a **questionnaire** to assess the **dependent variable**.

## The practical bit

You will need two groups of participants in order to analyse the impact of a leading question on accuracy of recall. The wording of a single question should vary between the two groups.

### Selecting and constructing your materials

You will need to find a suitable video clip, most likely from YouTube. You are looking for something brief, an incident of some kind about which you can ask questions concerning what happened, who was involved and so on. You need to take ethical issues into account when choosing the clip (see below).

You will also need to construct a **questionnaire**. A crucial design element of this concerns the types of questions that you might use. These are likely to be a combination of **open** and **closed** questions. The open questions could ask your participants to describe in their own words the incident they have seen. The closed questions will be specific and offer a yes/no or true/false response.

One of these closed questions should be your leading question. The answers to this question will be the only answers you are interested in and will analyse. The question should differ for the two groups in your study, so that you can make a comparison. This means that you will have two questionnaires (A and B), but the only difference between them will be in this one question. It is probably worth running a **pilot study** to see if the questionnaire and design works.

### Choosing your sample

Individual testing would be time-consuming and inconvenient. A better approach would be to show the video clip to a whole class at once. You could **randomly** select a class from your school **population**. The two forms of the questionnaire should be randomly distributed to class members, this participants are **randomly allocated to experimental conditions**. Note this does not mean just handing the questionnaires out in any order – you should number participants and then use a random selection method to select which participants get questionnaire A.

### Ethical considerations

It is unlikely, in a study like this, that you are going to ask anything that invades your participants' **privacy**. But, even so, it is advisable to steer clear of any questions that might be considered sensitive. Your choice of video clip needs to be carefully thought through. Avoid anything that may cause offence or anxiety. So choose something fairly mundane and everyday rather than an accident or violent crime.

When people have their memories tested, in any form, they may feel that they are being evaluated on their performance. So you should reassure participants that this is not the case in any debriefing that you carry out at the end of the procedure. This will help to protect participants from possible psychological harm. You should also take steps to secure your participants' consent, and respect their right to withdraw from the study.

### Analysing your data

You will want to be able to show your results so that someone will instantly be able to see what impact a leading question has had on the accuracy of eyewitness recall. So you should present your data using appropriately selected tables and graphs.

I'm outta here!  
Don't forget, your participants have a right to withdraw from your experiment.

## Practical activities

Every one of the six chapters provides two practical activities, with detailed instructions about how to design the study, how to conduct it and also how to analyse the data.

1. Do participants know participation is voluntary?
2. Do participants know what to expect?
3. Do participants know they can withdraw at any time?
4. Are individuals' results anonymous?
5. Have I minimised the risk of distress to participants?
6. Have I avoided asking sensitive questions?
7. Will I avoid bringing my school/teacher/psychology into disrepute?
8. Have I considered all other ethical issues?
9. Has my teacher approved this?

Table 2 Impact of leading question on accuracy of eyewitness recall.

Condition A: participants answered a leading question		Condition B: participants answered a non-leading question	
Yes	No	Yes	No
8	2	4	6



Practical corner // 59

## Understanding evaluation (AO3)

We finally move onto the third skill – evaluation. What is it?

### Exam and revision skills

The textbook ends with 11 pages devoted to helping students improve these skills, supporting and extending the study tips throughout the book.

### At the point

For example, research support for a theory is a strength and low validity is a limitation.

You have identified the evaluation, which is a beginning! Some students don't ever get much beyond this – and have to rely on their AO1 marks.

It's too easy just to state the rather generic evaluations on the left, i.e. comments that can be used anywhere. But it is a beginning. So don't worry if that is all you can do at the beginning of your course.

## Intermediate evaluation: Make it relevant

The next step is to make your evaluation relevant to a particular concept/theory. You need to say something to make your evaluation unique rather than generic.

- This concept is supported by research. Lucas et al. also found that participants conformed more often when the maths problems were difficult.
- This study had a limited sample. The investigation only involved five people and they were friends of the researcher.

Look at the evaluation below – it may look good but it is generic (and therefore not worth much):

This study was well-controlled. All independent extraneous variables were monitored so that only the independent variable affected the dependent variable.

You can drop that evaluation in almost anywhere and it will make sense.

## Higher level evaluation: Explain it well

When you have mastered intermediate level, it is time to move on – but don't do this until you have mastered the intermediate level. Don't run before you can walk.

- There are many ways to explain your evaluation point:
  - You can use examples.
  - You can elaborate on what you have said already.
  - You can end by explaining why your point is a strength or limitation.

### ENDINGS

Always finish with a conclusion. A conclusion is not a summary, it is a judgement. It is useful to use phrases such as:

This suggests... This shows that... Therefore...

Always end with a sentence beginning with 'I' (of course it doesn't have to be a 'I' but that is a useful prompt, just start writing 'This shows...').

Look at any of the critical points in this book. We have tried to ensure that all our critical points follow the same three-paragraph rule.

POINT: State the point.

EXPLAIN/ELABORATE/EVIDENCE: Make it relevant and explain the point with reference to theories or research studies.

THEREFORE/THIS SUGGESTS: End with a conclusion.

## Some marked examples

**Question:** Discuss one limitation of social learning theory. (2 marks)

One limitation is that it used artificial evidence. A lot of the studies were done in laboratories and are not like everyday life. This means the theory may not be relevant because people don't behave like that.

**Teacher comment:** For 2 marks you would, first of all, be expected to identify the problem, which has been done here. For a further mark there should be additional information about the limitation, for example an explanation about why this is a limitation. There has been some attempt to do this ('done in laboratories') but it is very generic so not very effective. Therefore, this is a weak answer.

**Question:** Briefly evaluate the use of animal studies in attachment research. (4 marks)

Such studies are used because it would not be ethical to use humans and separate them from their parents, so this is a strength of such studies.

On the other hand, it is difficult to generalise from research using animals, such as the studies by Lorenz where he demonstrated imprinting by arranging for some goslings to see him when they hatched. The research on imprinting led to attachment theory but maybe is not relevant.

**Teacher comment:** If a question just asks for evaluation you can present strengths and/or limitations. There is no requirement for balance and no specific number of evaluations is required – you could receive full marks for just one point of evaluation. The answer above covers two points of evaluation that are both relevant but not very effective – the descriptive content about Lorenz's research is not an explanation of the evaluation point. In this way the answer has lost focus. The explanations are limited and no specialist terminology has been used. This answer would get some credit but is not very effective.

### AO3 Mark scheme

The descriptors that may be used to mark a 4-mark AO3 question:

Level	Marks	Descriptors
2	3–4	Evaluation is well-elaborated and has some effectiveness. The answer is generally coherent with effective use of specialist terminology.
1	1–2	Evaluation is limited or muddled, lacking clarity and/or detail. It is likely to be generic. Specialist terminology is either absent or inappropriately used.

The mark scheme on the left is an illustration of the AO3 mark scheme. Always check the AO3 website for the latest version of mark schemes as these may have been amended.

**Question:** Evaluate the multi-store model of memory. (6 marks)

Case studies have been used to show that there is a distinct difference between short- and long-term memory. For example, the study of HM who sustained damage to his hippocampus found that he couldn't form new long-term memories. However, he performed well on tests of immediate memory span (a measure of short-term memory). This shows that the two kinds of memory have different physical locations in the brain, supporting the multi-store model.

One limitation of the multi-store model is that it is probably too simple. Subsequent research shows that short-term memory has several sub-stories (e.g. visual and verbal stores as in the memory model) and the same is true for long-term memory (e.g. episodic and procedural). This means that the multi-store model was quite restricted in what it told us about memory.

**Teacher comment:** In an evaluation question worth 6 marks you probably need to present one evaluation. Two evaluations, well explained, could be enough. Three evaluations might jeopardise your overall mark. The two evaluations covered here are both effective, well-organised and there is evidence of specialist terminology. This is altogether an impressive answer.

### AO3 Mark scheme

The descriptors that may be used to mark a 6-mark AO3 question:

Level	Marks	Descriptors
3	5–6	Evaluation is well-explained, effective and focused, rather than generic. Minor elaboration and/or explanation is sometimes lacking. Specialist terminology is used effectively.
2	3–4	Evaluation is mostly effective but lacks clarity, accuracy and organisation in places. There is some appropriate use of specialist terminology.
1	1–2	The whole evaluation lacks clarity, has inaccuracies and is poorly organised. Specialist terminology is either absent or inappropriately used.

The mark scheme on the left is an illustration of the AO3 mark scheme. Always check the AO3 website for the latest version of mark schemes as these may have been amended.

## What do these terms mean?

### What is effective?

Essentially 'effective' means something that works, such as an effective treatment for malaria.

An effective evaluation is therefore one that works – it should not be generic.

### What is generic?

The word 'generic' means 'general'. In the context of making evaluations it refers to that nice little list of all-purpose comments: 'This study lacked validity'. This theory is culturally biased', etc.

Such all-purpose evaluations can be scattered everywhere and require little understanding. Anyone can do that.

Some generic evaluations can be quite lengthy. For example, 'One problem with this research is that it is quite artificial. It was conducted in a laboratory where things are not like they are in everyday life. This makes it difficult to generalise the findings to everyday experience and makes the research worthless.'

Such a comment can be put in many different essays with no attempt to make it specifically relevant – and therefore it doesn't count for much.

### What is explanation?

'Explain' means to offer some further information to help us understand what...

Note the detailed advice about how to perfect AO3. Other spreads cover AO1, AO2 and essay-writing, as well as revision skills.

Findings from case studies are often used to support a theory, as AO3. Description of procedure would gain very little credit but might be credited as description (AO1).

# The Revision Guides have been updated to match the new Student Books

AO1  
Description

## Obedience: Situational variables

### Spec spotlight

Explanations for obedience: situational variables affecting obedience including proximity and location, as investigated by Milgram, and uniform.

The Revision Guide also presents the specification details at the beginning of each spread.

### Apply it

Think of a real-life situation (or more than one) in which proximity, location and uniform play a role in whether or not someone decides to obey an order.

Using evidence from Milgram's research, explain how each of these situational factors influences the decision to obey. Make sure your explanations are closely related to the situation(s).



Superman discovered that not all uniforms are equally authoritative.

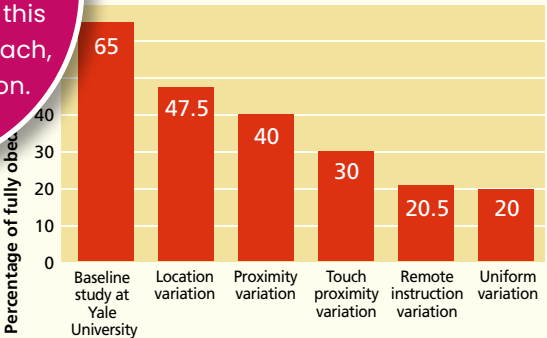
### Explanations for obedience based on situational variables

<b>Proximity.</b> Closeness of Teacher and Learner.	<p>In the baseline study, the Teacher (T) could see the Learner (L) but not see him.</p> <p>In the <i>proximity</i> variation, T and L were in the same room and the obedience rate dropped to 40%.</p> <p>In the <i>touch proximity</i> variation, T had to touch L's arm onto a shock plate. The obedience rate was 30%.</p> <p>In the <i>remote instruction</i> variation, T was in another room and gave instructions through a two-way mirror. The obedience rate was 20.5% and participants received fewer shocks.</p> <p>Explanation – decreased proximity allowed T to psychologically distance themselves from the consequences of their actions.</p> <p>For example, when the T and L were physically separated, the T was less aware of the harm done, so was obedient.</p>
<b>Location.</b> Prestige of setting.	<p>The study was conducted in a run-down building rather than at the prestigious Yale University (as in the baseline).</p> <p>Obedience dropped to 47.5%.</p> <p>Explanation – obedience was higher in the university because the setting was legitimate and had authority (obedience was expected).</p>
<b>Uniform.</b> Communicates authority.	<p>In the baseline study, the E wore a grey lab coat (a kind of uniform).</p> <p>In one variation, he was called away by a phone call at the start of the procedure. His role was taken over by an 'ordinary member of the public' in everyday clothes.</p> <p>Obedience fell to 20%, the lowest of these variations.</p> <p>Explanation – a uniform is a strong symbol of legitimate authority granted by society. Someone without a uniform has no right to expect obedience.</p>

### Description (AO1) on left-hand side

Divided into 'topics' for easy revision, just the right amount for 6 marks' worth of AO1.

Everything in the Student Book is represented here but more briefly! Some students may prefer this more note-like approach, especially for revision.



## AO3 Evaluation

### Evaluation (AO3) on right-hand side

Provides a structure for elaboration: point at the top, two columns of elaboration and finally, a conclusion.

## Topic: Situational variables

### One strength is support for the influence of situational variables.

Bickman's (1974) <b>confederates</b> dressed in different outfits (jacket/tie, milkman, security guard) and issued demands (e.g. pick up litter) to people in New York City.	People were twice as likely to obey the 'security guard' than the 'jacket/tie' confederate.	This shows that a situational variable, such as a uniform, does have a powerful effect on obedience.
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### Another strength is cross-cultural replication of Milgram's research.

Meeus and Raaijmakers (1986) worked with Dutch participants, who were ordered to give stressful comments to interviewees.	They found 90% obedience, and obedience fell when proximity decreased (person giving orders was not present).	This suggests that Milgram's findings are not limited to American men but are valid across cultures.
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### Counterpoint

However, Smith and Bond (1998) note that most replications took place in societies (e.g. Spain, Australia), culturally not that different from the US.

Therefore we cannot conclude that Milgram's findings about proximity, location and uniform apply to people in all (or most) cultures.

### One limitation is evidence of demand characteristics.

Milgram's assistant, Taketo Murata, reported that most participants appeared to be non-full-believers (NFBs), i.e. they showed signs of having doubts about the shocks (Perry <i>et al.</i> 2020).	In the majority of the variations, NFBs administered more shocks than full-believers (FBs).	This suggests that participants were 'play-acting' (i.e. they responded to demand characteristics).
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### Evaluation extra: The danger of the situational perspective.

Milgram's conclusions suggest situational factors determine obedience.	Mandel (1998) argues this offers an excuse (alibi) for genocide. Situational explanations hugely oversimplify the causes of the Holocaust and are offensive to survivors.	This permits people to excuse destructive behaviour in terms of 'I was just obeying orders'.
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## Revision BOOSTER

An effective way of evaluating research is to offer counter-arguments.

For instance, imagine you have explained how Milgram's variations lack validity because of methodological issues. You can then go on to explain the 'other side of the coin'.

For example, manipulating one situational variable (e.g. proximity) at a time in lab conditions can be artificial, but it also allows us to see the effects of each variable on obedience more clearly.



*'Look – if you're going to steal my party outfit idea, the least you can do is lose the hat...'*

Note that the evaluation points on the previous spread also apply to Milgram's variations.

## Knowledge Check

1. Milgram investigated the effects of situational variables on obedience. Briefly outline the findings of his research into any **two** of these variables. (6 marks)
2. Evaluate Milgram's research into the effects of situational variables on obedience. (6 marks)
3. Outline research into the effect of situational variables on obedience **and** discuss what this tells us about why people obey. (12 marks AS, 16 marks AL)



# The Revision Guides have been updated to match the new Student Books

## Explanations of attachment: Learning theory

AO1  
Description

### Spec spotlight

Explanations of attachment: learning theory.

'Learning theory' is explained on page 72. It is the theory proposed by behaviourists (the behaviourist approach).

#### Classical conditioning of attachment

Unconditioned stimulus (UCS) → Unconditioned response (UCR)

Food → Pleasure

Neutral stimulus (NS) → No response

Caregiver

UCS + NS → UCR

Food + Caregiver → Pleasure

Conditioned stimulus (CS) → Conditioned response (CR)

Caregiver → Pleasure

Diagrams summarise key content.



Despite appearances, Frank loved playing the spoons.

### Revision BOOSTER

Never fall into the trap of writing in general terms about learning theory (e.g. a non-specific description of classical conditioning). In the case of attachment, you have to apply learning theory to explain the development of caregiver–infant attachment.

The general rule is this – if you don't mention attachment throughout your answer then your answer is likely to gain very little credit.

### Dollard and Miller (1950) Learning theory of attachment

**Importance of food.** This is sometimes called the 'cupboard love' explanation because it emphasises the importance of food in attachment formation. The baby learns to associate whoever feeds them with pleasure.

**Role of classical conditioning.** **Classical conditioning** involves two stimuli: food and the caregiver. In attachment: the **UCS** (food) leads to **UCR** (a feeling of pleasure). This response is not learned so it is an **unconditioned response** (unlearned).

**Baby learns that caregiver produces a sense of pleasure.** A caregiver (e.g. mother) starts as a neutral stimulus (**NS**), i.e. something that produces no response. However, when the caregiver provides food over time, he/she becomes associated with 'food'. So the NS becomes a **CS**. Once conditioning has taken place the sight of the caregiver produces a **CR** of pleasure. According to a learning theorist, the conditioned pleasure response is the basis of love. Now an attachment has formed and the caregiver becomes an *attachment figure*.

**Role of operant conditioning.** **Operant conditioning** explains why babies cry for food (an important building block for attachment). Crying leads to a response from the caregiver (e.g. feeding). As long as the caregiver provides the desired response, crying is reinforced because it produces a pleasurable consequence.

**Negative reinforcement.** At the same time as the baby is reinforced for crying, the caregiver receives *negative reinforcement* because the crying stops (negative reinforcement is escaping from something unpleasant, which is reinforcing). This interplay of positive/negative reinforcement strengthens an attachment.

**Drive reduction.** Hunger is a *primary drive*, an innate biological motivator. We are motivated to eat to reduce the hunger drive. Attachment is a *secondary drive* learned by an association between the caregiver and the satisfaction of a primary drive. Sears et al. (1957) suggested that, as caregivers provide food, the primary drive of hunger becomes **generalised** to the caregiver.

Key terms are highlighted and a link provided to our online glossary.

Revision booster on every page with invaluable exam advice from experienced examiners.



## Explanations of attachment: Learning theory

### One limitation is different evidence from animal studies.

Lorenz's geese imprinted on the first moving object they saw. Harlow's monkeys attached to a soft surrogate in preference to a wire one with milk.

In both these animal studies, imprinting/attachment did not develop as a result of feeding.

This shows that factors other than feeding are important in attachment formation.

### Another limitation is different evidence from human studies.

For example, Schaffer and Emerson (1964) studied mother-baby interactions, observing them for 18 months and interviewing the mothers.

They found that babies tended to form their main attachment to their mother regardless of whether she was the one who usually fed them.

This again suggests that babies tended to form their main attachment to their mother regardless of the link with food.



*Cupboard love. Actually that looks more like a wardrobe.*

### One strength of learning theory is evidence for 'safety conditioning'.

It seems unlikely that food is central to attachment. However, safety conditioning may play a role in attachment (when an attachment figure becomes associated with low anxiety/feelings of safety, Bosmans et al. 2020)

The primary attachment figure may become associated with reduced anxiety (classical conditioning). Attachment behaviours (e.g. proximity-seeking) are rewarded with anxiety reduction (operant conditioning).

This means that learning theory is still useful in understanding the development of attachments.

### Counterpoint

However, this point of view ignores the fact that babies take a very active role in the interactions that produce attachment. For example Feldman and Eidelman (2007) found that mothers pick up on and respond to their baby's alertness around two-thirds of the time, showing a more two-way process.

This suggests that learning theory may not explain attachment.

We encourage the **art of discussion** with our counterpoints and evaluation extras.

### Evaluation extra: Social learning theory.

Hay and Vespo (1988) suggest that parents teach children to love them by demonstrating (modelling) attachment behaviour e.g. hugging and kissing.

Parents also reward babies with approval when they display their own attachment behaviour ('that's a lovely smile', etc).

This may explain the active role taken by babies in attachment development.

### Apply it

*Margarita is four weeks old and her mum Yvette is her primary caregiver. Yvette tends to be the one to wake up in the night and feed Margarita, as well as at all other times of the day because she's on maternity leave from work. Margarita's dad Aaron spends just as much time with her, doing the fun stuff like playing. But he's worried that his attachment bond with Margarita won't be as secure as Yvette's.*

1. Look at all of the evidence on this spread. Explain in terms of learning theory why Aaron is concerned.
2. What would you say to him to address his concerns?

**Apply it**  
questions and **Knowledge Check** questions help students practise turning our content into great exam answers.

### Knowledge Check

1. Describe the learning theory of attachment. (4 marks)
2. Outline **two** limitations of the learning theory of attachment. (3 marks + 3 marks)
3. Discuss the learning theory of attachment. (12 marks AS, 16 marks AL)

## Sample pages

Written by Cara Flanagan and a team of expert authors, our popular AQA A-level Psychology series has been completely revised and updated to match the latest specification and offers high quality support you can trust.

This Third Edition comprises:

- Student Books (available in paperback and eBook formats)
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- Each topic is presented on one spread so students can instantly see the whole picture with description and evaluation clearly separated.
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### Contains material from:

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- Year 1 & AS Revision Guide

*To see the full range of resources for this course, turn to the inside front cover.*

NB: These pages are uncorrected proofs and contain unfinalised artwork.

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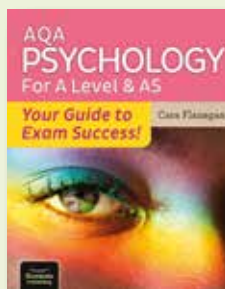
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